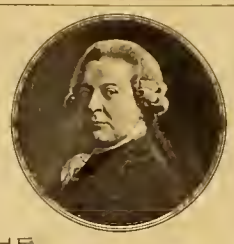
John Adams
Library,



IN THE CUSTODY OF THE
BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

SHELF No.
ADAMS
111.3
25.2

F-1
v.2

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2012

http://archive.org/details/universaldiction02post

THE

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

TRADE and COMMERCE:

WITH LARGE

ADDITIONS and IMPROVEMENTS,

Adapting the ſame to the

PRESENT STATE of BRITISH AFFAIRS in AMERICA,
ſince the laſt TREATY of PEACE made in the Year 1763.

With GREAT VARIETY of

NEW REMARKS and ILLUSTRATIONS

Incorporated throughout the Whole:

TOGETHER WITH

Every Thing eſſential that is contained in SAVARY's DICTIONARY:

ALSO,

All the Material LAWS of TRADE and NAVIGATION
relating to theſe KINGDOMS,

AND THE

CUSTOMS and USAGES to which all TRADERS are ſubject.

By MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT, Eſq;

THE FOURTH EDITION.

VOL. II.

LONDON:

Printed for W. STRAHAN, J. and F. RIVINGTON, J. HINTON, L. HAWES and W. CLARKE and R. COLLINS,
R. HORSFIELD, W. JOHNSTON, T. CASLON, S. CROWDER, T. LONGMAN, B. LAW, R. BALDWIN, T. CADELL,
J. BROTHERTON and J. SEWELL, J. DODSLEY, T. PAYNE, T. BECKET, J. ROBSON, T. LOWNDES, W. NICOLL,
J. KNOX, D. WILSON and G. NICOLL, and W. OTRIDGE.

MDCCLXXIV.

ADAMS III,3

TO

SIR STEPHEN THEODORE JANSSEN, BARONET,

CHAMBERLAIN OF THE CITY OF LONDON.

SIR,

THE Performance before you being planned upon Principles no Way incompatible with thoſe you have always eſpouſed, I am willing to hope that addreſſing this Volume to a Gentleman of your diſtinguiſhed Character will not be unacceptable.

There being contained in this new Edition, and particularly in this Volume, ſeveral valuable Commercial Memoirs, with which you have been ſo kind as to favour me, calls for a grateful public Acknowledgment of the Obligation.

Though this was not the Caſe; and though I had not many Years had the Honour of your Friendſhip and Confidence, on whom could I pitch upon with more Propriety to inſcribe this commercial Work, than to ſo zealous and conſpicuous a Friend to Trade, and ſo cloſely connected with a Corporation the Author ſo highly venerates?

Had not the worthy Citizens of London lately given you diſtinguiſhed Marks of their great Regard, and which has obtained the Sanction of public Approbation, your laudable Conduct, as a City Magiſtrate, or a commercial Patriot, would have been only known to a few, who conſidered its uncommon Merits.

When you became the happy Inſtrument of putting a Stop to the general Wear of French Cambrics, and inſtead of this Nation giving Employment to French Manufacturers, you promoted that of our Engliſh Weavers; the Kingdom has ever ſince been benefited no leſs than HALF A MILLION PER ANNUM: For before the Year 1744-5, when you procured an Act to prohibit the Wear of French Cambrics, which was inforced afterwards by ſeveral others, we paid at leaſt 250,000 *l.* a Year to France for that Commodity: and having ſaved that Sum, and given Employment to our own Manufacturers of Gauzes and Blonds, and numerous other home-made Wares in their Stead, makes a Difference to the Nation between ſaving and ſpending of double the Sum: and the national Gain of half a Million yearly from 1745 to 1765, amounts to TEN MILLIONS OF PRINCIPAL MONEY. Was not this an Object worthy the Patronage of a Britiſh Legiſlature? And is not this Advantage, under a wiſe Adminiſtration, as likely to continue at leaſt as many Years as it has done?

The Conſideration of the Difficulties you had to encounter by this Step of public Virtue adds to its Luſtre. There was a Duty of Import on French Cambrics, and that was appropriated; and the Annihilation of any Part of the Revenue, generally meets with miniſterial Oppoſition, notwithſtanding the national Emolument is demonſtrable. This was your Caſe, Sir; yet your Reaſons were urged with ſuch irreſiſtible Weight, that miniſterial Authority concurred with your patriotic Deſign. And had we another JANSSEN to ariſe, who would obtain the PROHIBITION OF ALL FOREIGN WROUGHT SILKS, though he ſhould meet with the like Obſtacles; would not the Nation in the like Number of Years be Gainers thereby many more Millions than it has already been by that of Cambrics? We do not pay for foreign wrought Silks ſo little as a MILLION a Year, including all ſmuggled into Great Britain and her Plantations.

Was this ſaved to the Nation, inſtead of ſpent out of it, would it not make a Difference of TWO MILLIONS a Year? Is this Benefit to the Kingdom to be loſt, for the Sake of a mortgaged Revenue? Is it not more politic to ſupply the Revenue Deficiency by all other Ways poſſible, than to ſuffer the Nation longer to be deprived of ſo intereſting an Advantage it at preſent ſtands in Need of? Can it be proved, that an equivalent Benefit would accrue to the Kingdom, by permitting the Importation of foreign wrought Silk at all? I am perſuaded it cannot. For in ten Years might not the Nation ſave TWENTY MILLIONS by their abſolute Prohibition? I could wiſh this Point was duly conſidered by the preſent Patriotic Adminiſtration, and that you, Sir, would turn your Thoughts upon ſupplying any Deficiency in the Revenue, ſuch a wiſe Meaſure might occaſion. For as the Revenue is already highly indebted to you as a Financier; ſo it may be in future.

You

You have been happily ſucceſsful in the eſſential Article of greatly improving the Revenue on Tea: and yet by Means that were judged to have the contrary Effect, when you firſt ſtarted them. Few Miniſters are inclined to liſten to the lowering of Duties; yet upon this ſingular Maxim, you propoſed to augment the Revenue. Herein you met with no leſs Diſcouragement than in the Cambric Affair. Yet you perſevered in maintaining that lowering the EXCISE DUTY ON TEA, would increaſe the Revenue. So it has to a very conſiderable Degree, notwithſtanding the Oppoſition your Sentiments met with at firſt.

Before your Intentions, with regard to Tea, were carried into an Act of Parliament, both the Duties of Exciſe and Cuſtoms thereon, had not for ſeveral Years exceeded, *Communibus Annis*, 170,000 *l.* and the Eaſt India Company had not imported above 1,200,000 Pounds Weight of Tea, *Communibus Annis:* But ſince paſſing the Law, which you were inſtrumental to procure, the Exchequer has received yearly from 4 to 500,000 *l.* and for ſome Years paſt above 600,000 *l.* and even above 700,000 *l.* and the Eaſt India Company has ſold from THREE to FOUR MILLIONS of Pounds Weight annually; whence it is that the Eaſt India Company have imported and ſold not leſs than SIXTY MILLIONS OF POUNDS WEIGHT OF TEA MORE THAN THEY WOULD HAVE DONE, had it not been for the paſſing the ſaid Act. By which it appears, that if the Company have gained no more than ONE SHILLING *per* Pound Weight, it amounts to THREE MILLIONS STERLING EXTRORDINARY CLEAR PROFIT TO THAT COMPANY; of which the Preprietors and the Public Credit have reaped the Benefit: and the Public Revenue has been advantaged by You above SEVEN MILLIONS OF MONEY: and, perhaps, if your Principles of lowering the Duties upon other Articles of general Conſumption, were adopted, the Revenue might be ſo advantaged, as to enable the preſent Adminiſtration likewiſe to promote the Prohibition of foreign wrought Silks; thereby ſave Millions upon Millions of Treaſure to the Kingdom, and give full Employ to our induſtrious Spitalfields Manufacturers. I could wiſh, I could rejoice, as well for the Honour of the preſent wiſe and upright Britiſh Miniſtry, as the Intereſt of the Kingdom in general, that this national Point could be happily accompliſhed, in a Manner perfectly conſiſtent with the general Proſperity. If thus reminding you, Sir, of the more extenſive Application of your own Principles to advance the Revenue ſhould have ſo good an Effect, I am perſuaded, that any Thing of the kind will be well received by the Miniſtry, and if practicable, carried into Execution.

There is another Inſtance of your public Conduct, that has not been leſs admired than other Parts of it: That I mean is, when you had the Honour to be Lord Mayor of this City in the Year 1755. At which Time, Hoſtilities being expected to begin againſt France at the Commencement of the late War, you wrote a Letter to his Grace the Duke of Newcaſtle and Lord Anſon, the former then one of his Majeſty's principal Secretaries of State, and the other Firſt Lord Commiſſioner of the Admiralty, ſignifying the then State of the French Trade to their Sugar Colonies; and informing them, from certain Intelligence you had received, "that the French Ships bound to America, "were doubly manned; which to you appeared an indubitable Proof, that France intended to be at "War with us before the Return of thoſe Ships to Old France: wherefore you ſubmitted to the Ad-"miniſtration this Propoſition: Whether it might not be an eligible Meaſure, by Way of Repa-"ration for the many Murders and Incroachments made by the French upon his Majeſty's Subjects "in North America, ſince the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, to make Prizes of their homeward-bound "Weſt India Ships, without a FORMAL DECLARATION of WAR; whereby You judged, that we "could not have at once leſs than EIGHT THOUSAND FRENCH SAILORS PRISONERS IN ENG-"LAND; which would be crippling the French Navy during that whole War.—This was the "Propoſition you had the Honour to ſuggeſt to his Grace the Duke of Newcaſtle; and this very "Meaſure was ſoon after adopted by the Court of London; and we actually had, as you pro-"phetically declared before the Cloſe of the Year 1755, eight Thouſand French Sailors Priſoners "in this Nation."——And certain it is, that his Grace of Newcaſtle did you the Juſtice and Honour to ſignify in Council, his Acknowledgment that he received the Information and Suggeſtion from the Lord Mayor of London: nor is it leſs certain, that no Step of this Kind was taken, or even thought of by the Adminiſtration, till this Intimation was given by You.

What Effect this Meaſure had to render the laſt War at Sea ſo ſucceſsful as it happily proved, is too well known to need expatiating on: and in what Light this Maſter-ſtroke of Engliſh Policy was then looked on in France by the wiſeſt Men in that Kingdom, is alſo notorious, and the Event ſufficiently indicates their Diſcernment.

The numerous other public Services You did, during the two laſt Wars, by a Series of judicious Intelligence you communicated to the Adminiſtration during their whole Courſe, I am not unapprized of; and was the whole laid before the Public, it would make an acceptable Volume not leſs to your Honour than what I have already taken the Liberty to notice: which I have done to animate others to imitate your glorious Example for the public Emolument. And did your public Spirit more abound, Miniſters would often be better informed than they are, and the Nation rendered more proſperous; it being impoſſible for the ableſt and beſt intentioned Adminiſtration at all Times to have all Requiſites before them for the Guidance of their Judgment occaſionally. In your Intelligence of that Kind,

Kind, and in your ſeveral public Plans, you appear to have been very happy and fortunate: and although you have not been ſo in your private Affairs, and ſome have unknowingly and uncandidly attributed it to your attention to thoſe of the Public; yet I can take upon me to declare the contrary, having had the Examination of them, and am at preſent in Poſſeſſion of authentic Vouchers to teſtify the Reverſe. However, your late exemplary Conduct, as a Merchant, is at preſent deſervedly in the higheſt Eſteem, by all wiſe and good Men, as tending to render COMMERCIAL CREDIT SACRED AMONG THE TRADING WORLD; and as ſuch your Example is worthy of conſtant Imitation, and therefore cannot be too much revered.

I am,

With great Friendſhip and Regard,

SIR,

Your moſt Humble

And moſt Obedient Servant,

Feb. 10, 1766.
Broad Street, London.

MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT.

THE

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

TRADE and COMMERCE, &c.

VOL. II.

L.

LABOUR. The price of the produce of land, and all the commodities which depend upon the mechanical and manufactural arts affecting trade in general, it becomes needful to make ſome

REMARKS on LABOUR in general, in relation to the natural price thereof.

A labourer's ſon, from 7 and 12 years of age, becomes an aſſiſtant to his father, either in keeping the flocks, or manuring the ground, or in other ſorts of country labour, which require no art or ſkill.

But, if his father puts him to a trade, he is at ſome expence for it, and loſes his aſſiſtance beſides, during the time of his apprenticeſhip: and, as the life of a man is commonly calculated but at 10 or 12 years, his wages, as a ſervant, mechanic, or manufacturer, muſt exceed his wages as a labourer, in proportion to the expence he is at, and the riſque he may run in ſuch ſervitude. This ſhews why ſuch ſervant ought to earn more than a common labourer.

Let it be ſuppoſed that two taylors make the cloaths of a village, and that, the one dying, the ſurvivor has more work than uſual: this may enhance his price, by giving ſome preference in point of expedition to others, he may thus continue raiſing his price, 'till the countryman ſhall find it more advantageous to go to ſome taylor of another village, or market-town, or city, to have cloaths made, or 'till ſome other taylor comes into his own village, to ſhare the buſineſs of making cloaths.

If, of two taylors in a village, the one works better than the other, he may have a better price for his work; or, if he cuts his cloaths more faſhionably (that is to ſay, if he pleaſes better) he ſhall have a better price.

The ſame reaſon will hold good in market-towns and cities; thoſe trades which require more art and capacity to learn, and more time to arrive at perfection in, earn, cæteris paribus, a better price.

The arts and employments attended with danger, as ſailors, bell-founders, ſilver-mines, &c. earn more in proportion; and, where there muſt be capacity, danger, and confidence, they earn ſtill more, as pilots, ſkippers, &c.

If every labourer in a village breeds up ſeveral children, there will be too many hands for the cultivation of the land belonging to the village; and ſo ſeveral adult ſons and daughters muſt go to ſeek a livelihood elſewhere: and it will probably happen that the inhabitants of this village ſhall not be more numerous in 500 years than they were at firſt.

The ſame may be ſaid of the tradeſmen of the village. If a taylor, who makes the cloaths of the whole village, breeds up three ſons to the ſame trade, as there is but work enough for one, he will bring up one of his ſons to ſucceed him, and the other two muſt ſeek their livelihood elſewhere.

If they cannot find employment any where in their trade, they will go to ſea, or into the army, or into foreign countries, or turn highwaymen and be hanged. But the number of tradeſmen in the village in queſtion will always proportion itſelf to the demand, or the work there is for them.

It is eaſy to conceive, in like manner, that the number of labourers and tradeſmen proportions itſelf to the demand for them in market-towns and cities: but this further explication may be added: that, if four taylors in a market-town be able to make all the cloaths of the inhabitants, a fifth taylor may nevertheleſs find employment there, by the diminution of the work of the other four; and thus it happens that tradeſmen often gain a livelihood, though they may not have full occupation.

One acre of land produces more wheat, or feeds more ſheep than another acre, and the work of one man is dearer than that of another, according to the occurrences, as we have explained.

If two acres of land are of equal goodneſs, the wheat or wooll of one is of equal value to that of the other, provided the work be equal that is employed about them.

Let us ſuppoſe the wooll produced by one acre to be made into a coarſe ſuit of cloaths, and the wooll of the other to be made into a ſuit of fine cloth, containing the ſame quantity of wooll with the coarſe cloth: as the fine ſuit of cloth requires more, and dearer workmanſhip, it will coſt more in making than the courſe ſuit, and, proportionably to the difference of the work, one ſuit of fine cloth ſhall ſell for ten times the price of a coarſe ſuit, containing an equal quantity of wooll.

Wherefore the price of any thing, intrinſically, ſeems to take in the quantity of land with regard to the goodneſs of the land, and the quantity of the labour, with regard to the dearneſs of the labour.

A pound of flax wrought into Bruſſels lace, according to the computation of the different parts of labour it may require, will employ the labour of one perſon for near 14 years; and thus the quantity of lace, manufactured out of a pound of flax, ſells at a price which not only pays the maintenance of a woman for 14 years, or of 14 for one year, but alſo to yield a profit to the merchant, or principal undertaker of the lace-manufacture.

The ſteel ſpring which regulates a good watch, may ſell at a price which makes the proportion of the value of the ſteel to the workmanſhip as 1 to 1,000,000.

On the other hand, the apples of a tree require ſo little labour, that their price ſeems to be proportioned almoſt to the land only that enters into their production.

The price of a bucket of water at the river is nothing; but, carried at ſome diſtance into the ſtreet, ſhall ſell for one penny, which ſeems to be the meaſure of the labour of the water-carrier.

From theſe examples and explanations it ſeems to appear, that the price of any thing intrinſically is the meaſure of the land, and the labour that enters into it's production: but it may happen that things which have ſuch an intrinſic value, may not ſell accordingly, with regard to the faſhions and humours of men. For example: if a gentleman cuts canals, and erects terraſſes in his garden, the price of them will be intrinſically proportionable to the land and labour thereon employed, becauſe they really coſt the gentleman in that proportion; nevertheleſs it may happen that nobody elſe will give him one quarter part of that value for them.

Land, which produces all commodities and goods, muſt neceſſarily maintain thoſe who give thoſe goods and commodities their form by labour; and the labour itſelf may be eſtimated by the quantity of land required to maintain thoſe who labour, as may be further elucidated from what follows:

It does not appear that providence has given the right of the poſſeſſion of land to one man preferably to another; ſome of the moſt ancient titles that we have any knowledge of, came by violence and conqueſt, and by laws eſtabliſhed in conſequence of ſuch conqueſts. The property of the lands in Mexico is veſted in Spaniards, and of thoſe at Jeruſalem in Turks; but, however people come by the property of land in a ſtate, it naturally falls into the hands of a few *.

* Which way ſoever a ſociety of men is formed, the property of the lands muſt be in the hands of few men. If a prince at the head of an army conquered France, and diſtributed the lands among his officers, or favourites, according to his pleaſure, or their merit, he would then eſtabliſh laws for veſting the ſaid property in them, and their deſcendants. Each proprietor manages his own eſtate, or lets it to one or more farmers, as he thinks fit; and the farmer and his aſſiſtants muſt be maintained out of it, and he pays the proprietor the overplus of the produce of the eſtate; the proprietor pays the prince what he requires, according to the laws of ſociety enacted or agreed upon, for the maintenance of his ſoldiers, courtiers, armies, &c. The uſe the land is put to depends upon the humour and faſhion of living which the prince and the proprietors follow: if they delight in horſes, a proportionable quantity of the land muſt be turned to paſture and meadow; if they are fond of a great number of ſervants and dependants, a proportionable quantity of the land muſt be applied to produce wherewithal to maintain them, &c.
If, upon the firſt conqueſt, the lands are divided among all the inhabitants by equal portions, yet they will gradually fall into the hands of a few; one man ſhall die without iſſue, and leave his portion to whom he pleaſes; another ſhall have ſeveral children, and not wherewithal to maintain them, and ſo they muſt become dependants on ſuch as have too much land. One man ſhall be ſickly, lazy, or extravagant, and be obliged to ſell his portion of land to another, who is frugal and induſtrious, and this latter ſhall every year add to his eſtate.
Of this we have an inſtance in the firſt ſettlement of the Roman ſtate: each citizen had two acres of land, and yet, ſoon after, the property of the land fell into few hands.
The moſt ancient accounts we have of the forming ſocieties and ſtates, tell us, that they have been formed by conqueſt; how they ſtood in the day of the patriarchs is not very clear.

Let us ſuppoſe the proprietor of an eſtate in land keeps it in his own hands, he will employ ſlaves, vaſſals, or ſervants, to work for him. If he employs ſlaves in great numbers, he muſt have overſeers to keep them at work; he muſt have as many labourers and tradeſmen, and mechanics, as are neceſſary to procure him all the conveniencies his fancy and inclination lead him to.

In this œconomy, he muſt allow theſe ſlaves not only what will maintain them, but alſo their children; he muſt likewiſe allow the overſeers of the ſlaves ſuch advantages and rewards as are proportionable to the authority which he gives them. Wherefore the labour of a ſlave is worth, at leaſt, the quantity of land that ſerves to maintain him, and about double the quantity of land which ſerves to breed up a child 'till he is of age fit for labour; for half the children that are born die before 17; ſo that two children muſt be reared up, on an average, in order to have one fit for labour, and even then their lives can be calculated but at 10 to 12 years.

It is true, that the one half of the children who die before 17, die faſter in the firſt years than in the following; but, as the time the mother loſes in producing and tending them, ſeems to make up for this computation, and the females are more chargeable, and leſs profitable when they grow up, than the males; it appears reaſonable to think, that the labour of the meaneſt ſlave is equal to double the produce of the land that is required to maintain him.

When the proprietor maintains ſlaves on his land, if he has more of them than his labour requires, he ſells the ſuperfluous hands, as he does his cattle; in which caſe their value or price ought to anſwer (cæteris paribus) to the quantity of land employed to breed up two ſlaves to maturity.

But, if the proprietor employs in his ſervice free ſervants, or vaſſals, inſtead of ſlaves, he may probably maintain them upon a better foot than ſlaves, according to the uſage and cuſtom of the place he lives in: yet, in this caſe alſo, the labour of a day-labourer ought to correſpond to about double the quantity of land that is employed to maintain him. If he be married, the ſurplus goes to the breeding up of his children, his wife being ſuppoſed juſt able to maintain herſelf by her labour: but, if he be a bachelor, he will probably employ his ſurplus to live more at his eaſe: for example, the married labourer will live upon bread and cheeſe, roots, &c. eat meat, drink ſtrong beer or wine ſeldom, change cloaths and linen ſeldom; whereas the unmarried labourer will eat and drink better, and wear better apparel, and conſequently (if we ſuppoſe their wages equal) he will conſume the produce of more land for the maintenance of his own perſon, than the married man, if he ſaves nothing.

For the better underſtanding of this, it is to be obſerved, that a poor labourer may maintain himſelf at the loweſt computation, upon the produce of an acre and an half of land; whereas, if he allows himſelf ſtrong beer, meat, and all other conveniencies, he may, without gluttony or exceſs, conſume the produce of four to 10 acres of land, of ordinary goodneſs.

From this may be inferred, that the labour of a working man correſponds to more or leſs land in different countries, according to the different cuſtoms of living uſed in the ſaid countries; and that, if the labour of a peaſant in France be worth the produce of three acres, that of an Engliſh countryman, who drinks beer, wears woollen cloth, eats meat pretty often, and conſequently conſumes the produce of more land, is worth in England from ſix to eight acres.

It has been already obſerved, that a mechanic tradeſman earns more than a day-labourer, and, conſequently, he is able to conſume, in the maintenance of his perſon, the produce of more land, or he may ſpare his overplus, if he pleaſes.

The maſter-tradeſmen, and ſuperior undertakers of buſineſs, upon the footing that things are managed in Europe, correſpond ſomething to the overſeers of ſlaves in other parts, and gain more than the journeymen-tradeſmen; and theſe maſter-tradeſmen know how much work a journeyman can do in a day, and often pay them by the work and piece: this makes them work, for their own intereſt, as hard as they can, without further inſpection.

From what has been ſaid, it ſeems to be pretty clear, that the par and equation of land and labour are known by the quantity of land, the produce whereof is given for wages to the man who labours. That the labour of a man, who earns the produce of three acres, is equal to three acres; of a man who earns the produce of ſix acres, to ſix acres, &c. And it ſeems that the ſame proportion allotted for labour differs in ſeveral parts of the world, according to the different ways of living.—That, in China, the labour of a peaſant may be equal to half an acre of land, ſince a quarter of an acre may probably maintain him after the Chineſe manner.—That, among the Iroquois Indians in America, the labour of a vaſſal, or ſlave, may be equal to 20 or 100 acres, ſince the maintenance of a man may require half that quantity, in regard that they live moſtly on wild beaſts, which they hunt, and that the beaſts one man conſumes in a year muſt have many acres of paſture to feed them; eſpecially ſince people there have not the knowledge to cut down the woods, and make the land produce as much graſs for them as it might; and it ſeems in this as if nature had no regard to the multiplication of men in particular, but is indifferent whether the land produces graſs, corn, or trees, or whether it maintains a great or ſmall number of birds, beaſts, or men.

The females commonly conſume the produce of leſs land than the males, or, in other words, ſpend leſs; their infancy is not only indeed expence, but, even when they are grown up, they ſeldom earn more than what barely maintains them. Therefore it ſhould ſeem that the labour of a peaſant ought to exceed twice the quantity of land neceſſary to maintain him, with regard to the female children that are bred up in a ſtate; but, as moſt of the day-labourers do not marry till they have ſaved ſomething, ſuch who are frugal are, by that means, enabled to breed up ſeveral children.

So that, if it be allowed reaſonable that the labour of a peaſant is equal to twice the product of the land that ſerves to maintain him, the mechanic and tradeſman, who earn more, may be ſaid to follow the ſame proportion.

If we conſider to what quantity of land an hundred buſhels of wheat correſpond in value, we muſt not only take into conſideration the number of acres which produced it, but alſo the double of the number of acres neceſſary to maintain the men whoſe work and labour produced it in that form, during the time they were at work thereupon: and, if the ſaid wheat has been brought from afar, we muſt alſo take into conſideration the land neceſſary to maintain the men and beaſts employed in the carriage.

Thus, to judge of the intrinſic value of any thing, we muſt conſider the land, and the labour that enters into it's productions; and, ſince we may pretty nearly determine the par of land and labour, we may look upon land alone, perhaps, to be the principal meaſure of all values.

But as money is the medium, which finds out the proportion of all values, it is alſo the beſt medium to fix the proportion of

of land and labour, in relation to all goods and commodities. If a workman earns half an ounce of ſilver per diem, and another earns an ounce, it may be judged that the latter has twice the quantity of land to ſpend, ſince he earns twice the quantity of money.

This notion of the par of land and labour Sir William Petty looked upon to be one of the moſt important conſiderations in political œconomics, as appears by a MS. of his, written in the year 1685; but the method he has taken to enquire into it, ſeems to be but very indifferently grounded. But the principles which we have laid down ſeem to be very plain and natural, and may be applied to the eclairciſſement of many political altercations.

Money, for the facility and convenience of commerce, being the medium of all values, the more hard money there is in circulation, the dearer the price of labour, and conſequently all commodities in general, will be in a ſtate. See the articles BARTER, CASH, CIRCULATION, MONEY.

That the quantity of the hard circulating money of this kingdom has increaſed in the like proportion as the price of labour and commodities, no one, we preſume, will undertake to prove. In proportion to the increaſe of our ſpecie, the price of labour may have increaſed; but, as there are other obvious and apparent cauſes which have contributed to the increaſe in the price of labour within this century, it may be neceſſary to point out the ſource of thoſe cauſes, that we may not aſcribe certain effects to uncertain and inadequate cauſes.

This we have done under our article DUTIES, to ſhew how thoſe DUTIES and TAXES, laid upon commodities in this nation, operated before the laſt war, when our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES were not greatly above one-half of what they are at preſent; and conſequently, what is repreſented under the article DUTIES, muſt have much greater weight now, than it had in our former edition of this work, and may be found to deſerve, one day, due public attention.

But nothing can be more indubitably apparent, than that the high price of labour, and of all the produce and manufactures of this kingdom, is owing to the immenſe WEIGHT OF OUR TAXES: and are not theſe ſolely owing to the WEIGHT AND INCUMBRANCE OF OUR NATIONAL DEBTS? And, if thoſe taxes were taken off, in conſequence of the redemption of the principal national debts, would not the price of labour, and of all our commodities, fall in proportion BY SUCH ANNIHILATION OF OUR TAXES? I believe that no one would be hardy enough to attempt to prove, that, if our taxes were taken off, the price of labour and commodities would not be leſſened in the like proportion, as it has been thereby augmented, making allowances for the different values of money now, and before they were impoſed.

If this be the true ſtate of the caſe, nothing can more demonſtrably prove the neceſſity of paying off the debts of the nation, by meaſures every way adequate thereunto. How that may be effectuated, ſee the article DEBTS [PUBLIC DEBTS] and ſuch other heads to which from thence we refer.

There are other cauſes likewiſe, which will contribute to the keeping of the price of labour low, and in proportion to that of other neighbouring commercial ſtates, by improvements in the mechanic arts and inventions, as well as in agriculture. See AGRICULTURE, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MANURE.

In Ruſſia, we are told, they had no other way of making planks, 'till near the end of the laſt century, but by hewing or chipping away a whole tree to the neceſſary thickneſs; notwithſtanding which, they could afford to ſell them cheaper than their neighbours. Two Ruſſians might poſſibly, with hard labour, finiſh a plank in a day in this inartificial way, in the ſame time two carpenters could with eaſe ſaw out 20 good boards. Without troubling ourſelves with the loſs of timber, if both are ſold at a neighbouring port for the ſame money, 'tis plain, the Ruſſian muſt work for a twentieth part of the carpenter's wages: if a ſawyer in Sweden can get ten pence a day, the Ruſſian muſt be paid with an halfpenny. This inſtance may bear a further application; the carpenter, by the contrivance of the long ſaw, performs as much in a day, as twenty Ruſſians with the axe; but, beyond this, there are in Sweden a kind of mills turned by water, and ſo contrived, as to take in large trees at the upper ſide the ſtream, and deliver them out on the lower, ſawed into planks, in a very few minutes. One of theſe mills will at leaſt make 500 planks, whilſt the poor Ruſſians could hew out a ſingle one; ſo that it performs the buſineſs of a thouſand Ruſſians, or 50 common ſawyers, in a day, with the attendance of a ſingle perſon *.

* Reflections on various ſubjects, relating to arts and commerce.

That nation which invents ſuch-like compendious arts of workmanſhip, will certainly ſtand the beſt chance to gain the trade of foreign markets; for, beſides that machines generally do the work truer and better than the hand, the labour ſaved by them is ſo very great, that, if the materials are equally plentiful, they who uſe the machine, muſt underſel the others in a vaſt diſproportion. For, as in this inſtance, both are ſuppoſed to work only to live, proviſions can be in no part of the world dearer than another, in the proportion of 500 to one. A larger quantity wrought in a more compendious manner may call for as many hands, as a leſs quantity in a way more laborious. Theſe conſiderations tend to make up their numbers, which will be richer, more improved, and more ingenious, either to defend or acquire; for ingenuity is generally an over-match for ſtrength.

States without commerce regard chiefly the increaſe of numbers of inhabitants, and their home markets; and commercial ſtates conſider wealth alone, and foreign markets. Without prejudice to either, engines may be allowed in the following caſes. (1.) When they do ſuch buſineſs as cannot be performed by hand at all. Of this kind are pumps, fire-engines, water-engines, looms, wine and oil-preſſes, hand-mills for grain, and perhaps horſe-mills. (2.) Where the commodities wrought by them are ſuch as would not have been uſed at all, except they were done by the machine, either being not cheap enough, or not good enough for conſumption, when prepared by hand. Under this head are the mills for paper, thoſe for forging, drawing, ſlitting of iron, copper, or lead, fulling of cloths and leather, and making gunpowder.

A people without commerce may ſafely refuſe to admit ſtocking-looms, ſawing-mills, throwing-engines, weaving or ſpinning-engines, mills for ſtriking files, cutting watch-wheels, making nails, and all the variety of inventions produced by a rivalſhip amongſt nations contending for commerce, and private men for orders.

Commercial ſtates muſt have their eyes on their neighbours, and, if they deſign to engroſs foreign markets, muſt provide for the cheapneſs of labour at home. Goods muſt be made cheap, to render them of general uſe abroad and at home. Engines for ſhortening buſineſs ought to be rejected, or not admitted in commercial ſtates; when the commodity is not at all ſold abroad, when it affects not the price of labour, when the machines would leſſen our home markets, more than increaſe our foreign ones; which is, perhaps, the caſe with moſt of the laſt mentioned ones, many of which tend only to take the bread out of the hands of thouſands, and, by a ſhameful monopoly, to enrich one or two. And, if they were not moſt of them already admitted, one would not wiſh to ſee them in uſe here.

Of the natural cauſes of the riſe and decay of nations in wealth and power, with regard to the price of labour.

Let us ſuppoſe France in a middling ſtate, the land pretty well cultivated, and the proprietors rents pretty well paid; if in theſe circumſtances there happens a civil war, the proprietors will take party, ſome on one ſide and ſome on the other; they will engage and mortgage their eſtates, to lend money to the chief of their faction to ſupport his quarrel, ſince, if the oppoſite chief prevails, their lands and eſtates will be confiſcated, the undertakers will be diſheartened, the country rifled, the magazines and warehouſes plundered, and labour will be diſcouraged; ſo the land will not produce wherewithal to maintain the inhabitants, and to ſupply neceſſaries for the armies. The chiefs of the parties will be obliged to get ſtores and other neceſſaries from the neighbouring ſtates which are in peace, and conſequently they will ſend money out of France to pay for them.

This will gradually create a ſcarcity of money in France; beſides that great ſums will be buried, and that all barters in evaluation and credit will be diminiſhed, the uncertainty of the event of war will hinder marriages and multiplication, and the mortality in the war will diminiſh the inhabitants.

In this ſituation France will be in a deplorable condition, and in danger of being oppreſſed by a foreign power. A general plague in France will occaſion much the ſame miſchiefs.

Now let us ſuppoſe the civil war ended, the proprietors who received little or no rent during the troubles, and whoſe lands lay waſte and uncultivated, will now farm them out at a ſmall rent, as well becauſe the ſcarcity of money, which makes all commodities cheap, as becauſe they muſt encourage the farmers, in regard to the decreaſe of the inhabitants. As the rents are ſmall, they will live without luxury, and conſume little or no foreign commodities, which will be dear, ſince more money circulates on this hypotheſis in the neighbouring ſtates, than in France. The labourers and peaſants, by reaſon of the thinneſs of the inhabitants, will be encouraged, and, as they will conſequently find it eaſy to ſubſiſt, they will breed up a great number of children, and ſo France will become again very populous. The ſcarcity of money in France will make their commodities ſo cheap, that they will export great quantities of them, particularly if valuable manufactures are ſet up in France. So that France will in this caſe get a yearly balance, and fall naturally into the channels of trade. This will gradually bring great ſums of money into France, where it's plenty will begin to raiſe the price of all things, and where ſeveral undertakers will have amaſſed good ſums of money.

Now, ſince the prices of all things are riſen inſenſibly, the proprietors will raiſe the price of their eſtates, the increaſe of the inhabitants will make them offer to work for leſs ſuſtenance than at firſt; and, as there is plenty of money in circulation,

circulation, foreign commodities will come at a cheap price, the exportation of commodities will ſlacken becauſe of their dearneſs, and the neighbouring nations will be able to ſet up cheaper manufactures; and, as the buſineſs decreaſes in France, ſeveral French tradeſmen will go into foreign parts, where there is work for them, and improve the manufactures there. The quantities of money amaſſed by the French undertakers in the courſe of their buſineſs, while France gained the balance of trade, will encourage to ſpend more money, and conſume more foreign commodities, than uſual, as they are now cheaper; and the proprietors, with their additional rent, will do the ſame, and ſo luxury will come into faſhion. In the beginning of this turn of affairs, the balance of trade will be pretty equal, France being not yet quite beaten out of the channels of trade, but only beginning to loſe ſome branches of it. In this ſituation France is in it's acmé, or higheſt ſtate of power, having more ready money than the neighbouring ſtates, and conſequently the king can raiſe greater ſums from his ſubjects than at any time. But, as the increaſe of expence and luxury has taken root, 'tis remarkable thoſe who begin it ſeldom lay it aſide 'till they are undone; this will cauſe a continuance of the expence of foreign commodities, and, the exportation ſlackening and decreaſing in proportion, the balance of trade will turn againſt France, and their money will be ſent out annually in payment of the ſurplus of thoſe foreign commodities they conſume: and thus France will decline in it's wealth and power, by the decreaſe of the quantity of actual money, and the thinning of it's inhabitants, which it's luxury and decay of trade and manufactures will neceſſarily occaſion.

This example of France is hiſtorical. After the compoſing of the civil war there about 1652, the prime miniſter of the finances, Mr. Colbert, ſet up and encouraged fine manufactures there, and France lived ſeveral years without luxury, and few coaches were ſeen at Paris.

They gained greatly in the balance of trade, and Lewis the XIVth grew very powerful: money grew very plenty, and, about 1680, the balance of trade grew pretty equal, and luxury began; and then it would have naturally turned againſt France, which muſt have neceſſarily declined in proceſs of time, if that operation had not been haſtened by the expulſion of the Hugonots, which, by the money and inhabitants ſent out of the kingdom, haſtened the decline of France; which nevertheleſs did not happen viſibly, 'till about the year 1715, when ſhe was in peace.

The riſe and decline of all other kingdoms, naturally and abſtractedly from wars and conqueſts, are owing to cauſes of the like nature; and, when a nation gets a great plenty of money, and increaſes exorbitantly in it's paper circulation, it naturally tends to decline, by the dearneſs that happens of land, labour, and commodities; and the greateſt prudence of a legiſlator ſeems to be, when money and paper circulation are riſing to that plenty, to take methods to clog their circulation, and, if poſſible, to lock great ſums of money gradually and inſenſibly, to encourage the uſe of plate, and take any other methods than thoſe that naturally and commonly happen, which is to ſend it again to foreign parts, in payment of jewels, pictures, and other ornaments of luxury. The next eſſential thing to be done, alſo, is the gradual annihilation of their paper debts, and the taxes thereby occaſioned. If this could be effected, a ſtate would continue, by a reaſonable price of it's commodities, to keep up the channels of trade and exportation; but, where things go on in their natural courſe, the too great plenty of money, or paper credit, by enhancing the price of things, gives other rival nations an opportunity to take the trade into their hands, and to get the money along with it.

There ſeems to be but a limited quantity of trade in Europe: ſuppoſe that in the trade of the woollen manufacture, the quantity of foreign cloth conſumed in Italy, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Turkey, and the North, may amount to 30,000,000 ounces of ſilver, and that the cloth is chiefly ſupplied by England, France, Flanders, Holland, &c. That England is in the channel of exporting and ſupplying to the value of 15 millions; if it ſhould in any year ſupply 20 millions, it muſt be at the expence and diminution of the ſales of the others: and, if France ſhould get into the channel of ſupplying large quantities of woollen manufactures more than uſual, it would be probably ſo much taken away from the Engliſh trade.

Sir William Petty ſeems not to have had any thought of this limitation of conſumption, when he inſinuated, that it would be beſt for England to abandon the manure of the land, and make all the inhabitants turn tradeſmen, weavers, &c.

If we ſuppoſe there are 90 millions of inhabitants in Europe, it will not, perhaps, be found that one in 50 of the whole number conſumes yearly foreign manufactures: France and England principally conſume their own; and even the greateſt number of the inhabitants of all other countries are cloathed at home.

Let us ſuppoſe the circulating money of England to have been four millions ſterling, and the lands to be farmed out at 12 millions, the yearly produce of the land, according to the method of calculation we have followed, will be 36 millions; if, in proceſs of time, the circulating money of England comes to ſeven or eight millions, the rents of the land will naturally come to exceed 20 millions, without any other alteration than the increaſe of the quantity of circulating money; and whereas the lands of England might have been worth, at 20 years purchaſe, 240 millions, in the firſt ſuppoſition, they will, in the ſecond, be computed at 400 millions, for no other reaſon than becauſe from three to four millions additional money was introduced into barter, though the ſaid ſum ſhould be due to foreigners, and pays them a yearly intereſt, to the great diſadvantage of the Engliſh balance of trade.

Now if the ſaid ſum, from three to four millions, ſhould be ſent back to the foreigners, the rents of the lands would fall to 12 millions, as before; and here would appear, on computation, a vaſt decreaſe of the wealth of England, without any real decreaſe in the intrinſic value of the land and labour, and the annual produce of the land.

The more commercial labour there is in a ſtate, the richer the ſtate is eſteemed.

It has been judged, by experience, that the labour of 25 perſons is nearly ſufficient to provide meat, drink, apparel, houſing, and, generally, all the neceſſaries of life for 100 perſons: upon this ſuppoſition, the fare and cloathing are coarſe, but eaſy and plentiful: yet, as above one third of the inhabitants are either too old or too young to work, or ſick, or infirm, and that full one half are neceſſarily idle, or free from common labour: there would be ſtill, on this ſuppoſition, 25 adult working perſons, or thoſe capable of working, who would have nothing to do.

If the moſt part of theſe 25 perſons in 100 are employed to draw metals out of the earth, or to work fine cloth and fine linen, and to refine, by greater labour, the houſes, the utenſils, and other conveniencies of life, though they add nothing to the quantity of food of themſelves, nor to the quantity and neceſſary uſes of the cloathing; yet the ſtate will be eſteemed the richer for their labour: labour adds to the reliſh of food and drink, and to the ornament and conveniency of cloathing.

The more labour is employed in a ſuit of cloaths, the dearer it ſells, and the richer it is eſteemed. A knife and fork that are nicely wrought, taking up more labour, are dearer, and eſteemed richer, cæteris paribus.

It is true, that, whether the inhabitants wear fine or coarſe cloath, if equally laſting, and eat or drink, and are lodged nicely or coarſely, it is, in one reſpect, much the ſame thing, ſince coarſe and fine food and cloathing are equally conſumed; but, in the general notion, the ſtate that conſumes fine cloathing is eſteemed richer than that which conſumes coarſe, &c.

But when the additional labour of the 25 perſons, we mentioned, produces permanent wealth, as gold, ſilver, copper, &c. to ſerve for a corps of reſerve, whether by exchanging their labours with foreigners for thoſe metals, or digging them out of the ground, the ſtate is not only eſteemed richer, but is in every reſpect ſo; and more particularly if ſuch labour brings in gold or ſilver, for which, on any emergency, the ſtate may have, even from it's enemies, any thing it may ſtand in need of.

Wherefore the more labour there is in a ſtate, the richer it is eſteemed; and, if that labour be well applied, the richer in reality, and the more powerful, a ſtate is. For,

The point, which ſeems to determine the comparative ſtrength and riches of nations, is the corps de reſerve which they have; magazines of all things neceſſary for the uſe of man, exceeding the yearly conſumption, to anſwer in bad years and wars; or, foraſmuch as gold and ſilver anſwer all theſe things, the quantity of gold and ſilver ſeems to determine the comparative wealth and power of ſtates; for thoſe are permanent and laſting riches.

It is very adviſeable to encourage all ſorts of work and labour in a ſtate, ſince a ſtate is eſteemed the richer for it; but the labour which anſwers beſt, in caſe of war and difficulty, is the moſt to be encouraged. Diogenes, at the ſiege of Corinth, is ſaid to have fell a rolling his tub, that he might not be idle, when all others were at work. We would not recommend that ſort of labour; but, rather than have a perſon idle in the ſtate, we would recommend the working of toys and trinkets, that have a ſhew of ornament, though little of real uſe.

If all the proprietors of land had but juſt as much of it as they could overſee, and manage by themſelves, or as much as farmers commonly rent and overſee, without under officers to aſſiſt them; if the ſaid proprietors became the undertakers of ſuch their ſmall eſtates, they would keep few or no idle ſervants, few pleaſure-horſes; they would live without luxury, and, conſequently, the inhabitants of the ſtate would be more numerous, and more laborious, cæteris paribus. This makes it ſenſible, that a great inequality in eſtates is prejudicial to a ſtate, becauſe of the luxury and idleneſs which great eſtates commonly introduce. And whether a convent of 50 monks live on a large eſtate, or a lord with 50 ſervants and horſes, who do nothing but attend him, it ſeems pretty much the ſame thing in time of peace; but, in caſe of war, the lord, indeed, and his ſervants and horſes, may be uſeful, and is always an ornament; whereas the monks ſeem to be of no real uſe in peace or war, on this ſide heaven.

But

But the convents of all Mendicants are baneful in a ſtate; they are not only idle themſelves, and live upon the induſtry of others, but are an hindrance to labour in many reſpects, by their holy devices: the number of holydays in Roman Catholic countries, and other inſtitutions of devotion, ſeem to take off nearly one tenth part of the yearly labour of the ſtate.

Before we diſmiſs this head, it may not be improper to obſerve, that the French always outdo us in the price of labour: their common people ſubſiſt upon roots, cabbage, and other herbage; four of their large provinces live, as it were, intirely upon cheſnuts; and the beſt of them eat bread made of barley, millet, Turkey and black corn: ſo that their wages uſed to be ſmall in compariſon with ours.

The price of meat and wheat doth little concern the poor manufacturers, as they generally drink nothing but water, and, at beſt, a ſort of liquor which they call beuvcrage (which is water paſſed through the huſks of grapes, after the wine is drawn off) they ſave a great deal upon that account, for it is well known that our people ſpend half of their money in drink.

At Lyons, which next to Paris is the beſt city in France, they do not pay much above five-pence Engliſh money an ell for making luſtrings; and the price paid here for making luſtrings is above twelve-pence per ell.

In the paper-manufacture abundance of people are employed for ſorting rags in the mills, who can earn in France not two-pence a day; and the price paid here for ſuch work is from four-pence to ſix-pence a day.

The French working thus cheap, it is no wonder if they afford their manufactures at lower rates than their neighbours.

As this nation is our great rival in foreign commerce, it therefore becomes the wiſdom of the nation to meditate all reaſonable and practicable meaſures to remove every cauſe that tends to increaſe the artificial price of labour, and keeps us upon an inequality in trade with our competitors.

The LAWS of ENGLAND in regard to LABOURERS.

Who may be compelled to work, and how puniſhed on refuſal.

He who hath no lands of his own, or is not of ſome trade or myſtery to get a livelihood. Fitz. N. B. 168. b.

The churchwardens and overſeers, &c. may ſet ſuch perſons to work; and, if they refuſe, one juſtice may ſend them to the houſe of correction: ſo he may thoſe that refuſe to work for reaſonable wages.

Perſons brought up in huſbandry, or in any of the arts of trades, and not able to get a livelihood, if under thirty years of age, and having no viſible means to maintain themſelves but by labour, may be warned by two juſtices to get a ſervice by a certain day; and, if they neglect or refuſe to be hired for a year, they may be ſent to the houſe of correction, or bound over to the next aſſizes or ſeſſions, and to be of good behaviour in the mean time. Dalt. 116. 6 Eliz. c. 4.

One juſtice may put in the ſtocks, for two days and one night, ſuch as he in his diſcretion ſhall think fit to work, and command ſo to do, if they refuſe in the time of harveſt. 3 Eliz. c. 4.

Artificers muſt likewiſe work in hay-time and harveſt, and, if they refuſe, the conſtable ſhall put them in the ſtocks for the like time; and the conſtable therein neglecting forfeits 40s.

In hay-time and harveſt, labourers may go into other counties to work, but then they muſt have a teſtimonial, under the hand and ſeal of one juſtice, to ſignify that they had not work where they lived the winter before.

2. How long they muſt continue at work.

If they work by the day, or by the week, they muſt continue working from five in the morning 'till after ſeven at night, from the middle of March to the middle of September, and all the reſt of the year from twilight to twilight; only from March to September as aforeſaid, they are to be allowed two hours for breakfaſt, dinner, and drinking; and, from the middle of May to the middle of Auguſt, half an hour more for ſleeping; and all the reſt of the year an hour and a half for breakfaſt and dinner; and, for the abſence of every hour, the maſter may ſtop one penny out of the wages. 4 Eliz. c. 4.

3. Puniſhment for departing when they do work by the great.

If they depart before it is finiſhed (except for non-payment of wages agreed on, or with leave of the maſter, or being taken into the king's ſervice, or for other lawful cauſe) they are to be committed for a month, without bail, and to forfeit 5 l. to the party grieved, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. over and above the coſts and damages as by law may be recovered for ſuch offences.

4. For what wages they ſhall work.

The wages of artificers, labourers, and others, ſhall yearly be aſſeſſed by the ſheriff of the county; this by 5 Eliz. c. 4. But the juſtices of the peace, or the greateſt part of them reſident in the county, have the like power by ſtat. Jac. I. cap. 6. in their ſeſſions every Eaſter, or within ſix weeks after. This aſſeſſment, by ſtat. Eliz. muſt be certified under their hands and ſeals to the chancellor, &c. who thereupon ſends a proclamation into every county and corporation, before the 1ſt of September following, which the ſheriff, or chief officer, muſt cauſe to be proclaimed and inrolled by the clerk of the peace, before Michaelmas enſuing; but, if no alteration is made in the old rates, then there is no need of ſuch proclamation.

Every juſtice, &c. who ſhall be abſent at the taxing the wages, not being ſick, or not having ſome reaſonable excuſe, to be proved upon oath, and allowed by the reſt of the juſtices, ſhall forfeit 10 l. one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, to be recovered by action of debt, information, or otherwiſe.

5. The puniſhment for giving greater wages than what is allowed.

He who gives more wages, forfeits 5 l. and may be committed for 10 days without bail. He who takes more wages, and is convicted before two juſtices, or a head officer, ſhall be committed for 20 days; but a maſter may reward a ſervant as he pleaſeth, ſo as it be not by way of contract on the retainer.

6. The wages of labourers in the woollen trade.

By the ſtat. 1 Ann. all payments for work done in the woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, and iron manufactures, muſt be in current money, and not in cloth, victuals, or other commodities; and all the wooll, delivered to them to be wrought, ſhall be firſt weighed, and the true weight thereof declared. The offender, in either of thoſe caſes, forfeits to the labourer double the value of what ſhall be due for his work.

But, if the labourer ſhall be guilty of any fraud or fault in his work, then he muſt anſwer to the owner double the damages by him ſuſtained. Then as to determining the wages, demands, frauds, and deceits of labourers in woollen, &c. it muſt be by any two juſtices of the peace where the controverſy doth ariſe, who may examine witneſſes upon oath; but there lies an appeal from the order of the two juſtices to the next ſeſſions, after notice of the ſaid order, whoſe judgment ſhall be final; and, if for the appellee, then they may give coſts and charges.

REMARKS.

In a dictionary of trade, we have judged it neceſſary to introduce the article of LABOUR; in order to obſerve how, and in what manner, our taxes, as they are at preſent laid, enhance its price, and thereby augment that of our product and manufactures in general. This was moſt apparently the caſe, before the laſt war; and ſince we have accumulated, by that war, an additional debt, near equal to that we did, by the THREE PRECEEDING GREAT WARS, our GENERAL TAXES have multiplied, in proportion as our PUBLIC DEBTS have. To what degree this our additional weight of TAXES affects the price of labour throughout the kingdom in general, and in conſequence raiſes the prices of all our produce and manufacture, as well for foreign as home conſumption, is too ſenſibly felt and experienced to need further proof, or whole commerce and navigation labouring under the oppreſſion. See DUTIES.

LACE-MANUFACTURE, is a work compoſed of many threads of gold or ſilver, fine or otherwiſe, or of ſilk or linen, interwoven the one with the other, which is worked upon a pillow with ſpindles, or bones for bone-lace, according to the pattern deſigned. This is performed by the means of ſeveral pins, which are placed and diſplaced as the ſpindle is moved, upon which the threads are divided.

The fabric of lace has divers varieties and qualities, as that of net-work-lace, or bone-lace; alſo ſome with large, others with ſmall flowers, ſome in a looſe, others in a compact manner; ſome high-raiſed, others lower, and ſome very low-raiſed; one kind all of gold or ſilver-thread, or part of gold and part of ſilver; others of ſilk of divers colours, and others of linen-thread, extremely white.

The common uſe thereof is for the embelliſhment of dreſs, in regard to linens, ladies head-dreſſes, the altar ornament of churches.

In France, the ſale of lace makes a part of the mercery buſineſs.—The milliners deal only in that of white linen.

The manufacture of gold and ſilver-lace in France is carried on moſtly at Paris, Lyons, and the adjacent villages belonging thereunto.

The fineſt ſilk lace is made at Fontenay, Puiſſieux, Morgas, and the Louvre; the ordinary ſort is manufactured chiefly in France, at St Denis, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, Carcelle, Ecouan, St Brice, Groſlat, Giſors, St Pierre des Champs, Eſtrepagny, Doumeſnil, and in ſome other places in the neighbourhood of theſe cities, bourgs, and villages.

At the Louvre they manufacture particularly the greateſt part of the raiſed black ſilk-lace for womens ſcarves.

The principal places from whence the fine white lace comes, are Antwerp, Bruſſels, Malines, Louvain, and Gand, all cities of Spaniſh Flanders; alſo Valenciennes, Liſle, and ſome other places of French Flanders; Charleville, Sedan, Le

Comté de Bourgogne, Loraine, Liege, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Honfleur, Harfleur, Pont L'Eveſque, Giſors, Feſcamp, Caën, and other cities of the province of Normandy; Arras, Bapaume, and other places of the county of Artois; Le Puy in Velay, ſome places of Auvergne and Picardy, the Louvre in Paris, St Denis in France, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, &c.

The fineſt and moſt beautiful thread-laces are thoſe of the Spaniſh Flanders, next to which are thoſe of French Flanders; among which are diſtinguiſhed the true Valenciennes, then thoſe of Dieppe, and next thoſe of Havre and Honfleur: for, with regard to thoſe of other places, they are but ordinary, and of a middling price, although there is no inconſiderable vent for them.

The greateſt part of the laces, as well of gold and ſilver as of ſilk and thread, which are made in France, are conſumed in the kingdom. There is but little except thoſe of ſilk, and particularly thoſe of the black ſpecies abovementioned, whereof they make any conſiderable export into Spain and Portugal, and into the Spaniſh Indies, Germany, and Holland.

The French fabricate particularly a ſort of white thread-lace, for the commerce of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. It is compoſed only of large flowers, without net-work, or bars. This kind was formerly greatly in faſhion; but, at preſent, they wear none of it; in Flanders they manufacture the moſt of this kind.

Of the principal LAWS of France in regard to LACE.

The mark upon thread-laces which come from Flanders, the Low Countries, and England, as likewiſe that of point from Genoa and Venice, and other foreign countries, was eſtabliſhed in France in the year 1660, by royal ordonnance.

In 1664, it was united to the leaſe of the five groſs farms.—In 1667, by a declaration of the king, a tariff took effect, conformably to which the duties of this mark ſhould be paid; which tariff was afterwards confirmed, and it's execution ordered by the arret of the council of ſtate of 1681, of which we ſhall ſpeak preſently.

To this year the mark upon lace had not been eſtabliſhed and practiſed, except in the juriſdictions of the cuſtom-houſe of Lyons, for the point, which was imported from divers parts of Italy, particularly from Venice and Genoa.

In 1680, the king's farmer of the revenues, Monſ. Boutet, having paſſed a leaſe to the Sieurs Joly and Fariole, of the under-farm of the impoſt-duties upon thread-laces of Flanders and the Low Countries, was obliged, in order to enable the leſſees duly to enjoy it, to preſent a petition to the royal council, that the declarations, ordonnances, arrets of council, leaſes of the farms, and tariffs of the king, ſhould be executed according to the form and tenor thereof; to which the king having regard, his majeſty ordered, by an arret of the 8th of April, 1681, that all merchants, carriers, and others who brought Flanders lace into the kingdom, ſhould be obliged to paſs through the juriſdiction of Peronne, and repreſent the ſame to the ſaid juriſdiction, in order to have ſuch lace duly marked, with the farmer of that revenue's mark, at both ends of each piece of the ſaid lace, and to pay the cuſtoms due, according to the declaration of his majeſty, and the tariff made by the council the 18th of April, 1667; which laces, and the acquittals of the payment of ſuch duties, merchants and others were obliged to lay before the juriſdiction of the ſaid farms eſtabliſhed in the city of Paris, to be there viewed and examined, upon pain of confiſcation, and a fine of 3000 livres, &c. which was executed as well in the juriſdiction of Peronne, for the laces which paſſed through there from the time of the ſaid arret, as in * the ſhops and merchants warehouſes for laces, which were before entered into the kingdom.

* This policy, in collecting the duties on foreign impoſts, may deſerve attention in other nations.

In 1682, the merchants complaining that their merchandize was opened and handled, in the ſaid juriſdiction of Peronne, they having no correſpondence there to take the care of them, the merchants and farmers of the revenue unanimouſly agreed, that the laces ſhould paſs only by Peronne, where ſhould be taken ſecurity for their paſſage to Paris, where they ſhall be marked, and the duties paid, which has been practiſed ever ſince.

The duties on importation and exportation out of the kingdom, and the provinces reputed foreign, for all ſorts of lace, are paid by weight; and the duties are more or leſs, according to the different ſpecies and qualities, and the places of their fabrication.

Of the principal LAWS of England with regard to LACE.

Gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof, or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of copper, braſs, or any other inferior metal, or gold or ſilver wire or plate, imported, to be forfeited and burnt, and 100l. paid by the importer, for every pareel ſo imported. 10 Ann. cap. 26. ſect. 65. and 15 Geo. II. 20. 7.

The allowance on gold and ſilver lace, thread, and fringe, exported.

By 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62. from 1 July 1712, for 32 years. By 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1. thence continued for ever.

Upon ſufficient ſecurity before ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain, and oath before the cuſtomer or collector of the port, that they were actually made after the firſt of July 1712, of the plate-wire ſpun upon ſilk, the exporter thereof to foreign parts is to have the following allowances, viz.

Gold lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight, 6s. 8d.

Silver lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight, 5s.

To be paid out of the duties on gilt and ſilver wire, by the collector, or the commiſſioners, by a debenture from the collector of the cuſtoms, expreſſing the kinds and quantities, and the ſhipping teſtified by the ſearcher. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Foreign bone-lace, band-ſtrings, cut work, embroidery, fringe needlework, made of thread or ſilk, and buttons of all ſorts imported, forfeited; the importer liable to 100l. and the ſeller to 50l. 3 Ed. IV. cap. 3. §. 1.—1 Rich. III. cap. 10. §. 1.—19 Hen. VII. cap. 21. §. 1.—5 Eliz. cap. 7. §. 1.—13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 13. §. 2.—4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 10. §. 2.—9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 9. §. 1.—11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 11. §. 1.

Except thread bone-lace not made in the dominions of the French king, or the duke of Anjou. 5 Ann. cap. 17.

Of the form of the cuſtom-houſe buſineſs relating hereunto.

3d of March 1730.—No. 35.

In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica.

Roger Granger.

Twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace,
Twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread,
Ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe,
} value at 200l. in all.

William Brooks [the maker] maketh oath, That the twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, and ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoiſe weight, above-mentioned, were all made ſince the firſt day of July 1712, and were all made of plate-wire ſpun upon ſilk.

William Brooks.

Jurat 3 die Martii 1730, coram me
A. B. Collector of the cuſtoms.

And, before the ſaid goods are ſhipped off, ſufficient ſecurity muſt be given to the collector of the cuſtoms, for the due exportation, in the following manner:

A bond for the exportation of gold and ſilver lace, thread, or fringe.

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Roger Granger hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoiſe weight, all made ſince the firſt day of July 1712, and made of plate-wire ſpun upon ſilk: and, whereas the ſaid Roger Granger, upon the exportation of the ſaid gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe, for foreign parts, is to have an allowance or drawback, according to an act of parliament of the tenth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, on that behalf made:

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe, and every part thereof, ſhall be ſhipped, and really and truly exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or unſhipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on ſhore again in any port or ports of Great-Britain: then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of

A. B. Collector. Roger Granger.
B. C. Comptroller. Daniel Bright.

A debenture for gold and ſilver lace, thread, and fringe.

* Roger Granger did enter with us the 3d day of March 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds once ounce of ſilver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, all made ſince the firſt of July 1712, and of plate-wire ſpun upon ſilk, as appears by the oath of William Brooks.

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Cuſtomer.
C. D. Comptroller.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Bond

Bond is taken in the penalty of 38 l. that the above-mentioned gold thread, ſilver-lace, and gold fringe, ſhall be ſhipped and exported, and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or brought again into any part or parts of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 6th of March preſent. Certified the 19th of March.

D. E. Searcher.
E. F. Surveyor.
F. G. Land-waiter.

REMARKS.

'Tis but few years ſince England expended, upon foreign lace and linen, not leſs than two millions yearly. As lace in particular is the manufacture of nuns, our Britiſh ladies may as well endow monaſteries as wear Flanders lace, for thus Popiſh nuns are maintained by Proteſtant contributions. This manufacture, in Flanders, not only employs the hands of nuns and other women, but of great numbers of the country peaſantry, who alſo work at it. The number of people employed all over Flanders in making lace is almoſt incredible, nor can the value be eaſily eſtimated *. This is a branch of trade that we may either do without, or elſe bring to perfection in time among ourſelves, ſo as, perhaps, to be able to export quantities of it †.

* The moſt celebrated places for this manufacture, are Anvers, Bruſſels, Malines, Louvain, and Ghent; in French Flanders, they make the beſt at Valenciennes and Liſle, and in ſeveral places in the province of Normandy. Great quantities of black lace made of ſilk, are alſo wrought at thoſe places, and vended in Germany, Spain, the Indies, &c. by the induſtrious inhabitants.
The manufacture of thread, in Flanders, has been alſo brought to a moſt ſurprizing degree of perfection: M. Savary informs us, that they have ſpun thread, at Malines, ſo fine as almoſt to eſcape the ſight, and the action of the very air eaſily breaks it. Thus, in order to ſpin it, the greateſt precaution is neceſſary. It was in this town that fine threads were firſt manufactured for making of lace; but they have, at Liſle and other places, come up to thoſe ſpun at Malines. Thread has been manufactured in theſe places, from 7 or 8 livres the pound weight, to above 400 livres; ſo that nothing can well ſhew the value of induſtry to a greater degree.

† At Bland, a town on the Stour, between Saliſbury and Dorcheſter, they make the fineſt lace in England. The author of the Tour through Great-Britain ſays, they ſhewed him ſome ſo exquiſitely fine, that he never ſaw better in Flanders, and which, they ſaid, was rated at above 30 l. ſterling per yard.

In Ireland, the Dublin ſociety in particular, have already, by premiums and other attempts, done great ſervice towards exciting a ſpirit of improvement and induſtry throughout that kingdom, and, from the encouragement lately given by his moſt ſacred majeſty for the ſame ends, it is to be hoped, that, in a little time, this kingdom may be made happily inſtrumental to Great-Britain, in vyeing with her rivals in trade, in many important branches, and, in conjunction with England, in this of lace among the reſt. The Cork ſociety alſo, to their great honour, follow the ſame ſteps, and have diſtinguiſhed themſelves of late by the ſame kind of proceeding: what may we not hope from ſuch a ſpirit? Several times and places have been famous for the advancement of the ſciences, ſuch as that of Philip and Alexander in Greece, the firſt Cæſars in Rome, the houſe of Medicis in Florence, and Lewis the XIVth in France. What theſe perſons and ages were to their reſpective countries, it is to be hoped, the laudable endeavours of the above-mentioned ſocieties, added to the royal bounty, will be to this kingdom.
As all the improvements in the lace manufacture, as well as in the linen in general, depend upon flax, too much care cannot be taken of the cultivation of this article to the laſt perfection in Great-Britain. See FLAX.
The lace manufacture in England has greatly improved within theſe few years, and is likely to arrive at as high perfection in this kingdom, as it is in any part of Europe, by the means of the honourable and laudable ſociety of Antigallicans, who have followed the example of the Dublin and Cork ſocieties, in reſpect to lace; and, by their well-judged premiums, have been lately inſtrumental to produce lace manufactured in England, to an extraordinary pitch of delicacy *.

* Auguſt 7, 1752, ſix pieces of bone-lace for mens ruffles were produced, the premium of 10 l. 10 s. adjudged to Mr. William Marriott of Newport-Pagnel, Bucks, for the beſt piece.—For the ſecond beſt 5 l. 5 s. to Mrs Elizabeth Waterman of Saliſbury.
May 8, 1753, 14 pair of needle work ruffles, the premium 5 l. 5 s. adjudged to Mrs Maria Maule of Stonecutter-ſtreet, London.—May 8, 1753, the ſecond beſt to Miſs Wiſſendall from Saxony.—The third beſt 2 l. 2 s. to Miſs Anne Clarke of Leominſter in Herefordſhire, 14 years of age.—6 Pair of lady's lappets, the premium 15 l. 15 s. adjudged to Mrs Lydia Maynard of Honiton.—The ſecond beſt to Mrs Mary Channon of Lynn Regis Dorſetſhire.—The third of 5 l. 5 s. to Mrs Mary Bere of Lynn Regis Dorſetſhire.

GOLD and SILVER LACE. This manufacture depends on the art of GILDING and WIRE-DRAWING. And thoſe arts depend on the ductility of gold and ſilver.
To give ſome idea of this extraordinary property, to which we have occaſion to refer.
Our gold-beaters and wire-drawers furniſh us with abundant proof of this property: they every day reduce gold into lamellæ, or leaves inconceivably thin; yet without the leaſt aperture diſcoverable, even by the microſcope: a ſingle grain of gold may be ſtretched under the hammer into a leaf that will cover a pretty large houſe, and yet the leaf remain ſo compact, as not to tranſmit the rays of light, nor even to admit of the tranſudation of the ſpirit of wine.
Dr Halley took the following method to compute the ductility of gold: he learnt from the wire-drawers, that an ounce of gold is ſufficient to gild a ſilver cylinder of 48 ounces weight; which cylinder may be drawn out into a wire ſo very fine, that two yards thereof ſhall only weigh one grain, and conſequently 98 yards of the ſame wire only 49 grains. So that a ſingle grain of gold here gilds 98 yards, and of courſe the $\frac{1}{100000}$ part of a grain is here above $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch long. And, ſince the $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch is yet capable of being divided into 10 leſſer parts, viſible to the naked eye, it is evident, that the $\frac{1}{1000000}$ part of a grain of gold may be ſeen without the aid of a microſcope. Proceeding in his calculus, he found, that a cube of gold, whoſe ſide is the $\frac{1}{100}$ part of an inch, contains 2,433,000,000 viſible parts: yet, though the gold wherewith ſuch wire is coated, be ſtretched to ſuch a degree, that there is not any appearance of the colour of the ſilver underneath.
Mr Boyle, examining ſome leaf-gold, found that a grain and a quarter's weight took up an area of 50 ſquare inches: ſuppoſing, therefore, the leaf divided by parallel lines $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch apart, a grain of gold will be divided into 500,000 minute ſquares, all diſcernible by a good eye. For the ſame author ſhews, that an ounce of gold, drawn out into wire, would reach 155 miles and a half *.

* See Boyle's Abr. Vol. 1. p. 405.

Monſ. Reaumur has carried the ductility of gold a greater length: a gold wire, every body knows, is only a ſilver one gilt. This cylinder of ſilver, covered with leaf-gold, they draw through the hole of an iron: and the gilding ſtill keeps pace with the wire, ſtretch it to what length they can. Now M. Reaumur ſhews, that, in the common way of drawing gold-wire, a cylinder of ſilver, 22 inches long and 15 lines diameter, is ſtretched to 1,163,520 feet; or is 634,692 times longer than before, which amounts to above 97 leagues. To wind this thread on ſilk for uſe, they firſt flatten it; in doing which it ſtretches at leaſt $\frac{1}{7}$ further, ſo that the 22 inches are now 111 leagues: but, in the flattening, inſtead of $\frac{1}{7}$ thy could ſtretch it $\frac{1}{4}$, which would bring it to 120 leagues. This appears a prodigious extenſion, and yet it is little.
The cylinder of ſilver might have been covered with one ounce of gold only, inſtead of ſix, as ſuppoſed: the gilding, indeed, in this latter caſe, will be but thin; ſtill it will be gilding, and no point but will have it's coat of gold. On this foundation Reaumur computes, that the thickneſs of the gold-leaf on the wire is $\frac{1}{240000}$ of a line. He adds, that, as the leaf gold is not every-where the ſame thickneſs, but at leaſt twice as thick in ſome parts as other, in the thinneſt parts it will not be above $\frac{1}{525000}$ part of a line, or the 6,300,000th part of an inch.
Yet this is not the furtheſt the artiſt can go: in flatting the wire gently between two wheels, it may be extended to double the breadth hitherto ſuppoſed; in which caſe the thickneſs of the leaf will be reduced to leſs than a millionth part of a line, or a twelve millionth of an inch.
Yet after all, putting a piece of this gilt wire in aqua fortis [ſee AQUA FORTIS] the ſilver will be diſſolved, and the gold left a perfect continuous tube *.

* Mem. de l'Acad. An. 1713.

This force of coheſion in the parts of gold, which appear ſcarce leſs than infinite, depends on it's being freed from common ſulphur: for mix but one ſingle grain of ſulphur with 1000 grains of gold, the maſs ceaſes to be malleable, 'till the ſulpher be evaporated. Hence we have a ſtrong preſumption, that the leſs coheſive metals, tin, copper, and iron, contain a large quantity of ſulphur.
The immenſe diviſibility of gold is learnt from another experiment.—Take a pound of ſilver, and fuſe it with a ſingle grain of gold; the gold will diffuſe itſelf equally through every minute particle of the ſilver; ſo that taking a grain of the maſs, and diſſolving it in aqua fortis, you will find a quantity of gold fall to the bottom, which bears preciſely the ſame proportion to the grain of gold, as the gold in the maſs had in the whole maſs.

The wire and thread we commonly call gold-thread, &c. which is only ſilver wire gilt, as before obſerved, is drawn from a large ingot of ſilver, uſually about 30 pound weight. This they round into a cylinder, or roll about an inch and a half in diameter, and 22 inches long; and cover it over with the leaves prepared by the gold-beaters, laying one over another, 'till the cover is a good deal thicker than that in our ordinary gilding: and yet even then it is very thin, as will be eaſily conceived from the quantity of gold that goes to gild the 30 pound weight. Two ounces ordinarily do the buſineſs, and frequently little more than one. In effect, the full thickneſs of the gold on the ingot rarely exceeds $\frac{1}{400}$, or $\frac{1}{500}$ part, and ſometimes not $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch.

But this thin coat of gold muſt be yet much thinner: the ingot is ſucceſſively drawn through the holes of ſeveral irons, each ſmaller than other, 'till it be as fine, or finer than a hair. Every new hole leſſens it's diameter, but it gains in length what it loſes in thickneſs, and conſequently increaſes in ſurface. Yet the gold ſtill covers it, that following the ſilver in all it's extention, and never leaving the minuteſt part bare, not even to the microſcope. Yet, how inconceivably muſt it be attenuated, while the ingot is drawn into a thread, whoſe diameter is 9000 times leſs than that of the ingot.

M. Reaumur, by exactitude of weight and computation, found, that one ounce of the thread was 3232 feet long, and the whole ingot 1,163,520 feet, Paris meaſure, or 96 French leagues, equal to 1,264,400 Engliſh feet, or 240 miles Engliſh: an extent, which far ſurpaſſes what Father Merſenne, Furetier, Dr Halley, &c. ever dreamt of.

Merſenne ſays, that half an ounce of the thread is 100 toiſes, or fathoms long; on which footing, an ounce would only be 1200 feet; whereas M. Reaumur finds it 3232, &c. according to what has been already obſerved.

The method of drawing ſilver is the ſame with that of gold, except that the latter is gilt or covered with gold, and the other is not.

There are alſo counterfeit gold or ſilver wires: the firſt made of a cylinder of copper ſilvered over, then covered with gold; and the ſecond of a like cylinder of copper ſilvered over, and drawn through the iron, after the manner of gold and ſilver wire, and this again is gilt.

And a great quantity of the French gold and ſilver lace is certainly made of this ſort, which is too often paſſed upon the world for other. This may deſerve the regard of thoſe, who are ſo mighty fond of French lace, to the detriment of the Britiſh gold and ſilver lace manufacture, which is in general of a far ſuperior quality, wears far preferably, and will fetch more after it is worn out, from the intrinſic value of the gold and ſilver.

The LAWS of England with regard to gold and ſilver LACE.

No metal inferior to ſilver ſhall be ſpun on ſilk, under penalty of 5 l. an ounce. Silver wire for making ſilver thread ſhall hold at leaſt 11 ounces 15 pennyweights of fine ſilver upon the pound Troy weight; and all ſilver gilt, and uſed in the wire-drawers trade, ſhall hold at leaſt 11 ounces 8 pennyweights of fine ſilver, for every pound Troy weight; and ſhall not have leſs than four pennyweights four grains of fine gold, without allay, laid on each pound of ſilver, on penalty of five ponnds per ounce. For gold and ſilver prepared as beforeſaid, and reduced into plate, there ſhall be allowed ſix ounces of plate to five ounces of ſilk. A penalty of 2s. 6d. per ounce for ſelling gold and ſilver lace mixed with any other metal, and 5 s. per ounce for ſelling by any other than Troy weight: no gold or ſilver thread, &c. made of copper or other inferior metal, or gold or ſilver wire or plate, ſhall be imported, on pain of being forfeited and burnt, and 100l. on the importer for each parcel.

LADING. See BILLS of LADING, CHARTER-PARTIES, FREIGHT.

LAGAN, or LAGON, in our ancient marine laws, ſignifies goods ſhipwrecked, left by the ſea, lying on the ſand, either aſhore, or out at ſea. See FLOTSAM, JETSAM, and WRECK.

LANCASHIRE in England. This county has Yorkſhire on the eaſt, and the Iriſh Sea on the weſt, Weſtmoreland on the north, and Cheſhire on the ſouth, and is about 170 miles in circuit.

The air is ſerene and healthy, and the ſoil for the moſt part fruitful, yielding ſtore of wheat, barley, and oats; and the paſture ſo nouriſhing, that their cattle are uſually of a larger ſize than in other counties. Here is plenty of timber, coal and cannel coal-pits, with mines of lead, iron, and copper, antimony, black-lead, lapis calaminaris, beſides allum, brimſtone, and green vitriol, found in ſome of the coal-pits.

It's chief rivers are the Merſey, Ribble, Wire, Lon, and Ken; all which abound with fiſh. Another river, called the Irke, is noted for eels, reckoned the fatteſt in England, and too luſcious for common digeſtion; which is aſcribed to the greaſe and oils from the woollen cloths milled in it.

LANCASTER, the ſhire town, ſtands near the mouth of the river Lon. It is a populous thriving corporation, with a tolerable harbour and a cuſtom-houſe. Veſſels of 70 tons go from hence to America, with hard-ware and woollen manufactures; but the country hereabouts is ſo thinly peopled, by reaſon of it's barrenneſs, that it cannot take off the ſugars imported.

PRESTON on the Ribble, may, for it's beauty and bigneſs, compare with ſome cities. It is plentifully ſupplied with fiſh, coal, and other commodities.

LIVERPOOL is a large and populous town, and the moſt flouriſhing ſea-port in theſe parts, pretending to rival, if not to excel Briſtol, it's cuſtoms being increaſed eight or ten fold within theſe forty years paſt. The inhabitants are univerſally merchants; and, notwithſtanding their out-of-the-way ſituation, drive an incredible trade, with great ſucceſs, and very large ſtocks, to all the northern parts of the world, as to Hamburg, Norway, and the Baltic, to the Britiſh colonies in America, to Guinea and Ireland, and alſo to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy; ſo that there is no trade but that of Turkey, Greenland, and the Eaſt-Indies, in which they are not concerned. As it imports almoſt all kind of foreign goods, it has conſequently a large inland trade, and ſhares that to Ireland and Wales with Briſtol, as follows: as Briſtol trades chiefly to the ſouth and weſt parts of Ireland, from Dublin in the eaſt to Gallway weſt; this town has all the trade of the eaſt and north ſhores, from Dublin to Londonderry: as Briſtol has the trade of South Wales, this has great parts of that of North Wales: as Briſtol has the ſouth weſt counties of England, and ſome north of it, as high as Bridgenorth, if not to Shrewſbury, Liverpool has all the north counties, beſides what goods it ſends to Cheſhire and Staffordſhire, by the new navigation of the rivers Merſey, Weaver, and Dane, even ſo near to the Trent, that it's goods are carried by land to Burton. The merchants of Liverpool are alſo concerned with thoſe of Londonderry, in the fiſhery on the north coaſt of Ireland. There is a navigation from hence farther up the Merſey, even for ſhips of burden, as high almoſt as Warrington; and alſo up the ſouth channel, called the river Weaver; but it is chiefly for two things, 1. For rock-ſalt, which is dug out of the earth, both in this county and Cheſhire, and ſhipped off here in great quantities, not only to neighbouring parts, but to London, Colcheſter, and ſeveral other places in the ſouth of England, where it is diſſolved in ſea-water, and boiled again into a ſtronger and finer, as good as that ſort called ſalt upon ſalt, made by the Dutch of the St Ube's ſalt, and with which they cure their herrings. 2. For great quantities of Cheſhire cheeſe ſhipped here.

REMARKS in 1764.

By an authentic account we have from Liverpool this year 1764, there were lying in that port the following veſſels; viz. 81 ſhips, 27 ſnows, 67 brigs, 6 ſchooners, 3 doggers or ketches, 141 ſloops; and only one ſhip and four brigs ſailed; which reduced the number to 351 veſſels lying in this harbour at the ſame time: an inſtance not to be equalled by any port belonging to Great-Britain, except the mother-port of London; eſpecially when we conſider that none of the merchants ſhips were accidently forced into this harbour by contrary winds.

WARRINGTON ſtands on the Merſey, and is a populous and rich town, full of good country tradeſmen, and has a particular market every week for linen, which is generally that called huckaback, the manufacture of it's neighbourhood; and it is ſaid that at leaſt 500l. worth, and ſometimes much more, is ſold every market-day.

MANCHESTER, as an inland town, has perhaps the beſt trade of any in theſe north parts. The fuſtian manufactures, called Mancheſter cottons, for which it hath been famous for almoſt 150 years, have been very much improved of late, by ſome inventions of dyeing and printing; which, with the great variety of other manufactures known by the name of Mancheſter goods, as ticking, tapes, filletting, and linen cloth, inrich not only the town, but the whole pariſh, and render the people induſtrious. The weavers have looms here that work 24 laces at a time, an invention for which they are obliged to the Dutch *.

* How far it may be good policy for a commercial ſtate to make uſe of machines to leſſen the price of labour, ſee the article LABOUR, towards the concluſion, alſo the article MACHINE.

ROCHDALE is another town of good trade, being of late years much improved in the woollen manufacture.

BURY is a town alſo of good trade. It is the utmoſt bound of the fuſtian-manufacture, and drives a conſiderable trade in coarſe goods, called halfthicks and kerſeys, for which here is a very great market, though the town lies ſo much out of the way, and at the foot of the mountains, that otherwiſe it would not be much frequented.

BOLTON is a ſtaple for fuſtians of divers ſorts, eſpecially thoſe called Augſburg and Milan fuſtians, which are brought to it's fairs and markets from all parts of the county.

ORMSKIRK is a handſome town, with a good inland trade.

HAWKSTEAD has a good trade in cloth, in that part of the county called Fowrneſs, towards Cumberland and Weſtmoreland.

LANDED INTEREST.

The reaſon why the decline of foreign trade ſinks the value of LAND.

Firſt, By ſinking the markets at home.

For, the produce of land being rendered exceſſively dear, from the cauſes below enumerated *, foreigners will not take it's ſuperfluities; and labour being by the ſame cauſes rendered exceſſively dear too [ſee the article LABOUR] we cannot manufacture or improve that produce, nations that can afford cheaper ſupplying the markets abroad; ſo that the produce of the lands, not being carried off as uſual, muſt become a dead ſtock on the farmers hands, and cauſe great quantities to be crowded into the markets, where being encouragement but for few buyers, the price naturally falls: as, for inſtance, the declining demand for our woollen goods abroad falls the price of wool at home.

* The foreign trade of every country muſt decline, that
1. Lays unequal taxes in general on it's people. See the articles LABOUR and TAXES.
2. That cramps it's commerce, the fountain of riches, by high duties, and impolitic prohibitions. See the articles DUTIES and BONDING of duties at the cuſtom-houſe, and the article CUSTOMS.
3. That ſuffers many monopolies. See the articles COMPANIES and MONOPOLIES.
4. That oppreſſes it's people by prohibiting the importation of victuals, under the pretence of raiſing the value of it's lands. See IRELAND, remarks thereon.
5. That encourages idleneſs by bad laws relating to it's poor. See the article POOR.
6. That tempts foreigners to carry away it's coin for leſs than it's intrinſic value. See the articles COIN and MONEY.
7. That makes the obtaining juſtice chargeable. See the articles CONSULS and MERCHANT [COURT MERCHANT.]
8. That ſuffers a heavy national debt, contracted in time of war, to continue unpaid in time of peace. See DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], FUNDS.

Suppoſe that, in 1669, we exported to Turkey 40,000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each being 2l amounts to — — —	l. 80,000
Suppoſe that, in 1738, we exported to Turkey 8000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each being 1l. 10s. amounts to — —	12,000
The difference of the value of wool exported in thoſe two years — — — —	l. 68,000

Wools of this value, lying yearly on hand, muſt make a glut; the farmers puſh to ſell at market, but in vain, unleſs at under prices; for the wool-ſtaplers, finding the demand decreaſes, decreaſe in number themſelves; ſome break, ſome leave off trade, ſome take to other trades; for many ſellers, with great ſtocks on hand, and few buyers, naturally fall the markets; and the landlords preſſing the tenants for rent, and threatening to ſeize if payments are not made, the wool muſt be ſold at any rate to raiſe money; and there being yearly 68,000 l. leſs money brought into the nation, to be laid out in wool, than in former times, the price muſt be ſtill lower on that account; the lower the produce ſells, the leſs rent the farmer can give for the land; the worſe the markets, the greater arrears of rent the farmer runs into; and taxes, monopolies, &c. making neceſſaries grow dearer, and the decay of foreign trade making the wool ſell cheaper, muſt break him in the end, and then the farm is thrown on the landlord's hands, who, unwilling to fall the rent, keeps it in the management of ſtewards or bailiffs, whoſe profits and charges ſeldom make it pay the old rent, but generally ends in mortgaging the land, or ſelling it; and, as theſe caſes grow more frequent, more eſtates will be at market, and, conſequently, the leſs prices they will fetch.

Secondly, By increaſing the number of poor, to burden the land.

The poor, wanting employment, muſt be ſupported by the land; if foreigners give them work, they give them bread; but, when trade cannot maintain them, land muſt. When the poor's rates are heavier than the tenant can bear, the landlord muſt pay them, either by allowance in the rent, or by taking the farm into his own hands; or elſe by breaking of his tenant, who has paid that money to the poor's rates his landlord ſhould have received.

Suppoſe, in 1669, the labour of the above 40,000 cloths to have given employment to — — — — —	40,000 People
Suppoſe, in 1738, the labour of the above 8000 cloths to have given employment to	8,000 People
The difference is — — — —	32,000 People
Suppoſe theſe 32,000 people to have earned by their labour formerly, from foreigners, 6l. per annum each, it amounts to — — —	l. 192,000
But, wanting employment, they come on the pariſh, at 1s. 6d. per week each, which, for one year, amounts to — — —	124,800
The difference to the landholder, in one year is	l. 316,800

For as the land, by the decay of foreign trade, receives not the firſt ſum, and is, by the ſame cauſe, ſaddled with the latter, it makes an annual difference of the above ſums to the landholders in this ſingle branch of labour, and is the ſame in proportion for all other decayed branches of trade.

Thirdly, By decreaſing the ſtock of people.

For, as employment leſſens, the moſt induſtrious, rather than ſtarve here, will fly to other countries, where trade can maintain them; ſo, the conſumption of theſe being taken away, the demand at market muſt grow leſs; and, of courſe, rents muſt fall, yet the farmers charges muſt grow greater; for, the fewer hands, the higher wages are; this muſt break him in the end, and produce all the conſequences following that misfortune, mentioned in the firſt remark: beſides, it is men that trade, and bring in money, therefore, the fewer they are, the leſs money will be brought; and, the leſs money, the leſs rent can be given for land.

Fourthly, By decreaſing our riches.

This is a conſequence of the above three remarks; for having fewer goods capable of being exported, by reaſon of their dear price, and our manufactures declining, muſt in time be loſt: therefore the importation of foreign goods muſt naturally increaſe, and more money go out to pay for them.

Nations that have no mines of gold and ſilver, have no means to get them but by foreign trade, and, according to the degree of theſe metals they poſſeſs, the prices of their commodities, and therewith the value of their lands, riſe and fall in proportion; which I ſhall now prove.

The Britannia Languens, page 12, ſays, If there were but 500 l. in England, an ox could hardly be worth a penny; therefore the rent muſt bear it's proportion to the riches. This appears by Maitland's Hiſtory of London; for he ſays, that, in the year 961, land ſold at 1s. per acre. The reaſon the land then bore ſo low a price, was, the low price the produce ſold at; for he ſays, that, in the year 1000, an ox ſold for 2s. 6d. a cow for 2s. a ſheep for 1s. and a ſwine for 8d. This could be only owing to the little foreign trade the nation then had, and, conſequently, to the little quantity of gold and ſilver, trade had then brought in.

But if it ſhould be aſked, What is the reaſon that, at preſent, all things are naturally ſo much advanced in price, to what they were in thoſe days? The anſwer is, That the quantities of gold and ſilver brought to Europe ſince the progreſs made by the Spaniards and Portugueze in America, have made thoſe metals more common, and of leſs value than formerly, ſo that 20s. will hardly purchaſe what 1s. would before the diſcovery of the Weſt Indies *.

* Let there be added to this conſideration, that alſo the great increaſe of our national debts and taxes, in conſequence thereof, together with the circulation of the intereſt of the principal money of the public funds, and likewiſe that great circulation of paper credit in trade, occaſioned by notes and bills, in the way of private credit, which is deſtructive of our trade. See CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT.] Alſo the circulation of property by mortgages, and by means of the public ſecurities in general; for, although one is obliged to take annuities in payment, yet who would refuſe them on peculiar occaſions? Theſe things all conſpire to promote an artificial circulation of property, which raiſes the price of commodities, and has the appearance, with too many, of the riches of the nation; whereas theſe things are the characteriſtics of a declining condition, and that we ſtand in need of a quantity of real hard money to circulate what trade we have, and are therefore obliged to make uſe of paper credit, which is only it's repreſentative, and proceeds from our apparent neceſſities, not from our increaſe of ſolid treaſure. This is certainly the caſe, unleſs it can be proved, that our national debts, and the taxes on labour and commodities occaſioned thereby, are bleſſings, and that, the more we increaſe our debts, the richer the nation will be. Perhaps too ſome will attempt to perſuade us, that the more mortgages of land there are in the kingdom, and the oftener they are transferred, and the more private paper credit paſſes in trade, inſtead of ready caſh, the richer the nation is; but theſe are egregious miſtakes, and ought to be vigilantly guarded againſt; for, upon the annihilation of this ſhew of artificial wealth, the price of labour and commodities will fall to their natural value; which will be the means of ſo increaſing our trade, that our paper circulation will become realized by ſolid gold and ſilver; and then the price of labour and commodities will be reduced to a natural ſtate, according to the real, and not the imaginary riches of the nation. For further confirmation of theſe principles, ſee the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DUTIES, FUNDS, LABOUR, MONEY.

The Spaniards and Portugueze do not throw away their gold and ſilver for us to pick up; we have no mines of theſe metals, therefore could not get ſuch quantities as we have, but by our trade to Spain and Portugal, or to thoſe countries that had an overbalance upon them, and were overbalanced by us.

So that the preſent natural price of land, and it's produce, is the proportion of gold and ſilver that foreign trade hath brought into, and left in the nation. If the preſent quantity was to be doubled by foreign trade, the natural price of land, and it's produce, muſt be ſo too; for, according to the price the farmer

farmer can ſell his commodity at market, he can pay for the rent of land, and no otherwiſe. If our foreign trade decays until the preſent money in the nation be half ſwept away, the produce of land muſt ſell for half the natural price it does now, and land muſt let at half the rent it naturally bears now: but if we ſhould go on declining, until we have no more money left in the nation than there was in 961 or 1000, the prices of land, and its produce, can be no more than they bore in thoſe days, taxes, &c. deducted.

Therefore, if the landed gentlemen have a mind to raiſe or ſink the value of their lands, the encouraging or diſcouraging our foreign trade is the only means to do either, ſo cloſely united are land and trade; their true intereſts are the ſame; they muſt ſtand or fall together.

The ſum of all is this: that

What foreigners take from others, inſtead of us,
What the poor have given them inſtead of buying — — — — — —
The ſcarcity of people — — — —
The ſcarcity of money — — — —
} Sinks the value of lands.

Taxes, monopolies, ill-judged laws, and national debts, are the cauſes of the decline of our foreign trade; the decline of foreign trade cauſes the above calamities, and they ſink the value of lands.

Before we conclude this point, we ſhall obſerve, that our chief intent, from what has been urged, is to remove that deſtructive prejudice ariſing from the falſe diſtinction of landing and trading intereſts, by ſhewing that there neither is, or can be any difference of intereſt between them; for whatever clogs trade, muſt ſink the value of lands, and that any benefit to trade, how remote ſoever it may ſeem from land, will at laſt terminate in the increaſe of it's value; therefore we may dare to affirm, that the giving trade the utmoſt encouragement is the greateſt and moſt ſolid improvement of the value of lands.

'It muſt be evident, ſays the author of Britannia Languens, 'page 290, that, were our trade eaſed as our neighbour nations, England would have the ſuperiority, ſince the ſame cauſes muſt produce greater effects in England, being invigorated with thoſe national advantages which no other nation doth or can enjoy.' See BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN.]

REMARKS.

Of the effects of LAND-TAXES, compared with thoſe upon COMMODITIES.

As the benefit of taxes to the public reſults only from the nett income, and the evil to individuals extends not only to the groſs produce, but to every other expence and loſs incident and conſequential, that tax is moſt beneficial to the public, and leaſt injurious to the ſubject, which produces a large ſum through a cheap collection, and which is exempt from every other eventual charge.

To uſe a familiar inſtance: he who attends to his own affairs, lives upon his own land, employs but one ſteward, at a ſmall ſalary, to receive his rents, and buys at the firſt hand, may, from a ſmall and compact eſtate, thus conducted, ſpend and ſave more than the lord of an immenſe rental, widely diſperſed, gathered by many hands profuſely paid; he living at a diſtance, and purchaſing what he conſumes from the fourth or fifth retailer. That a land-tax is attended with the leaſt expence of any other whatſoever, that does produce not any thing near the nett ſum annually, is matter of fact.—Quære, therefore, whether LAND-TAXES are not far more beneficial to the public than TAXES ON COMMODITIES? How taxes upon commodities really affect the commerce of the nation, ſee the article LABOUR. It becomes neceſſary, however, to expatiate upon this important ſubject in other lights. As the good of our country ſhould be the only object of ſuch diſquiſitions, and truth the only medium through which it ought to be attained, advantage ſhall not be taken of a maxim favourable to the opinion here profeſſed, although it hath been long received, and is ſupported by the greateſt authorities.

The maxim in view is, That taxes, wherever laid, fall ultimately upon land; which with all due deference to thoſe who firſt eſtabliſhed it, and to thoſe who have ſince adopted, and argued from it, ſeems to go farther than reaſon and experience will warrant.

The arguments, by which it has been maintained, ſeem rather calculated to puzzle than convince; for, although every man cannot anſwer the premiſſes, yet ſcarce any will aſſent to the concluſion, 'That in fact, and in reality, all the taxes in 'this nation are paid out of it's lands.' And ſtrange it were if many agreed in the propoſition, for it is certainly falſe.

When a tax is laid upon any commodity, it becomes a circumſtance of expence, of the ſame nature with any other attending upon it. Therefore no reaſon ſeems aſſignable, why the tax ſhould neceſſarily fall upon land, that will not equally conclude for every other circumſtance, and for ſettling the whole charge of national expence and conſumption upon the ſame bottom.

But this is impoſſible: for it is agreed by the beſt authors of political arithmetic, that the rents of lands, houſes, and mines, are not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ part, and half of the annual expences of the nation.

In Sir William Petty's computation of 7 millions of people in England, who, one with another, expended, for their lodging, feeding, and cloathing, 7l. a head, the annual expence and conſumption of the whole people amounted to 49 millions: and Dr. Davenant's calculation of rents does not exceed fourteen.

The quantities are ſince, no doubt, conſiderably increaſed; but, as, moſt probably, the proportions remain very little unaltered, it is fair to argue upon them, as has been done by the beſt writers upon theſe ſubjects. But, Mr. Locke having treated of a tax upon land, a few extracts may not be improper from that incomparable author, which, with ſome reſtrictions, ſhall be applied to the preſent purpoſe.

'A tax laid upon land, ſays that great man, ſeems hard to 'the landholder, becauſe it is ſo much money going viſibly 'out of his pocket: and, therefore, as an eaſe to himſelf, 'the landholder is always forward to lay it upon commodities. 'But, if he will thoroughly conſider it, and examine the 'effects, he will find, he buys this ſeeming eaſe at a very 'dear rate; and, though he pays not this tax immediately 'out of his own purſe, yet his purſe will find it, by a greater 'want of money there at the end of the year than that comes 'to, with the leſſening of his rents to boot; which is a 'ſettled and a laſting evil, that will ſtick upon him beyond 'the preſent payment.

'To make this clear, let us ſuppoſe in the preſent ſtate of 'affairs in England, that the rents of England are 12 millions, and that the charge and neceſſities of the government require a ſupply of 3 millions from the parliament, 'which is laid on land.

'Here is $\frac{1}{4}$ part of his yearly income goes immediately out of 'the landlord and landholder's pocket. This is a burden very 'apt to be felt. The country gentleman, who actually pays 'the money out of his pocket, or finds it deducted out of his 'rent at quarter-day for taxes, ſees and very ſenſibly obſerves, 'what goes thus out of his eſtate: but, though this be a 'quarter of his yearly income, and, out of an eſtate of 400l. 'a year, the public tax now openly takes away one hundred; yet this influences not at all the yearly rent of the 'land, which the rack-renter, or under-tenant, pays; it 'being the ſame thing to him, whether he pays all his rent 'to the king or his landlord; or half, or a quarter, or none 'at all, to the king: the caſe is all one to him, what hand 'receives his rent when due: ſo trade flouriſhes, and his 'commodities go off well, he will be able to pay his rent 'on. This leſſens not any more the value of his farm, than 'an high or low chief rent does, paid out of it to the lord of 'the fee: the tenant's bargain and profit is the ſame, whether the land be charged or not charged, with an annuity 'payable to another man.

'But ſuppoſe, to ſhift off the burden from the land, ſome 'country gentlemen ſhould think fit to raiſe theſe 3 millions 'upon commodities, to let the land go free. Firſt, it is to be 'conſidered, that ſince the public wants require 3 millions '(for that we ſuppoſe for argument ſake, let it be 3 millions, 'or 1 million, that's all one) and ſo much muſt go into the 'king's coffers, or elſe the neceſſities of the goverment will 'not be ſupplied; that for raiſing theſe 3 millions on commodities, and bringing ſo much into the Exchequer, there 'muſt go a great deal more than 3 millions out of the ſubjects pockets. For a tax of that nature cannot be levied by 'officers, to watch every little rivulet of trade, without a 'great charge, eſpecially at firſt trial. But, ſuppoſing no 'more charge in raiſing it than of a land-tax, and that there 'are only 3 millions to be paid, 'tis evident, that, to do this 'out of commodities, they muſt to the conſumer be raiſed a 'quarter in their price; ſo that every thing, to him that uſes 'it, muſt be a quarter dearer.

'Let us ſee now, who at long-run muſt pay this quarter, 'and where it will light. 'Tis plain, the merchant and broker neither will nor can; for, if he pays a quarter more 'for commodities than he did, he will ſell them at a price 'proportionably raiſed *. The poor labourer and handicraftſman cannot, for he juſt lives from hand to mouth already; and, all his food, cloathing, and utenſils, coſting a 'quarter more than they did before, either his wages muſt 'riſe with the price of things to make him live, or elſe, not 'being able to maintain himſelf and family by his labour, 'he comes to the pariſh, and then the land bears the burden 'a heavier way. If the labourer's wages be raiſed in proportion to the increaſed rates of things, the farmer, who 'pays a quarter more for wages, as well as all other things, 'whilſt he ſells his corn and wool, either at the ſame rate, 'or lower, at the market (ſince the tax laid upon it makes 'people leſs forward to buy) muſt either have his rent abated, 'or elſe break and run away in his landlord's debt, and ſo 'the yearly value of the land is brought down. And who 'then pays the tax at the year's end, but the landlord; when 'the tenant, not able to raiſe his rent by his commodities,

* See that charge, and the conſequence of duties on commodities, proved under the articles LABOUR and TAXES.

'either runs away in his landlord's debt, or cannot be continued in the farm without abatement of rent? For, when 'the yearly charge in his farm is greater by the increaſe of 'the labourer's wages, and yet his produce ſells cheaper, by 'reaſon of the tax laid on his commodities, how will the 'farmer be able to make up his rent at quarter-day? For this 'may be worth our notice, that any tax, laid on foreign 'commodities in England, raiſes their price, and makes the 'importer get more for his commodities; but, on the contrary, a tax, laid on your native products and home-made 'commodities, leſſens their price, and makes them yield leſs 'to the firſt ſeller.

'If, therefore, the laying of taxes upon commodities does, 'as it is evident, affect the land that is out at rack-rent, it 'is plain it does equally affect all the other land in England 'too; and the gentlemen will, but the worſt way, increaſe 'their own charges; that is, by leſſening the yearly value of 'their eſtates, if they hope to eaſe their land by charging 'commodities. It is in vain, in a country whoſe fund is 'land, to hope to lay the public charge of the government 'on any thing elſe: there at laſt it will terminate. The 'merchant (do what you can) will not bear it, the labourer 'cannot, and therefore the landholder muſt: and whether he 'were beſt to do it, by laying it directly where it will at laſt 'ſettle, or by letting it come to him by the ſinking of his 'rents, which, when they are once fallen, every one knows, 'are not eaſily raiſed again, let him conſider.'

Some paſſages in the foregoing abſtracts ſeem to be too general, and, poſſibly, not quite conſiſtent with one another.

For it is not eaſy to conceive, if 'taxes laid upon commodi-'ties raiſe the price proportionably to the conſumer, why the 'farmer muſt ſell his corn and wool either at the ſame rate, 'or lower at the market;' or, if the reaſon aſſigned be a good one, that 'the tax, laid upon it, makes people leſs forward 'to buy,' why that reaſon ſhould not have the ſame operation upon other commodities, not ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary for the uſe of men; and, why 'a tax, laid upon our native product 'and home manufacture, may not make them yield leſs to 'others beſides the firſt ſeller.'

And it certainly often hath this effect. For, as the demand for commodities is proportioned to the quantity of money ſubſiſting in the market, traders muſt adapt their prices to that quantity; and, if additional taxes be laid, while the money, with which commodities are to be purchaſed, remains unincreaſed, they muſt be contented with ſmaller gains, or not trade at all. And the firſt part of the alternative will always be the caſe, where the profits of a flouriſhing trade may well ſupport ſome diminution.

When Mr. Locke ſays, 'that the merchant and broker nei-'ther will nor can bear a tax; that, if he pays a quarter 'more for commodities than he did, he will ſell them at a 'price proportionably raiſed,' theſe are propoſitions which ſeem too general: and that great maſter of reaſoning, in a ſubſequent paſſage, appears ſenſible, that they required ſome qualification; where, after an aſſertion, that, 'lay your tax 'as you pleaſe, the traders will ſhift it off from their own 'gain,' he ſubjoins theſe words, 'the merchants will bear 'the leaſt part of it, and grow poor the laſt.' And a little farther he ſays, 'a country may thrive, the country gentle-'man grow rich, and his rents increaſe (for ſo it has been 'here) whilſt the land is taxed: but I challenge any one to 'ſhew me a country, wherein there is any conſiderable pub-'lic charge raiſed, where the land does not moſt ſenſibly 'feel it, and, in proportion, bear much the greater part of 'it.'

Wherefore, although it be admitted, that Mr Locke's firſt poſition, taken in it's full extent, and without any limitation, is generally controvertible, yet it is concluſive as to our preſent ſituation; if it be confeſſed, that the lands of England are, in general, lett at too high a rent, and that our trade is injured by the taxes already laid upon it. For then the inference will be plain, what the farmer and trader cannot pay out of their gains, the land-owner muſt pay out of his lands, or the farmer will fail, and the trader become bankrupt. Whether, therefore, it is better to lay the taxes immediately on land, as Mr. Locke inſinuates, ſince the greateſt part of them terminate there, may deſerve conſideration; becauſe the expence, in collecting of ſuch taxes, bears no compariſon to thoſe that are laid upon commodities. For, how greatly the expence of theſe is enhanced, is proved under the article LABOUR.

Certain it is, that no good to the nation can be produced by taxes upon commodities. They may ſtarve the induſtrious, but they never will induce the idle and extravagant to labour, and to ſave for the benefit of his landlord; and the wiſdom of ſuch landlords, who, under ſuch pretences, would lighten their own burdens, by laying inſupportable weights on their tenants, is of a piece with that œconomy, which, to ſwell a large rental, beyond it's natural ſize, loſes, by a riſe of rents, much more in money than it gained upon paper. And it does not require much logic to demonſtrate, that, where the tenant is undone, the land muſt proportionably ſuffer.

In order to prove the evils ariſing to our trade from the heavy taxes with which it is incumbered, it were, perhaps, not juſt to conſult the opinion of actual merchants, who, upon this ſubject, are prejudiced judges. But,

The teſtimony of thoſe who have long withdrawn themſelves out of trade, hath ever been deemed the beſt authority; and, as ſuch, the late Sir Matthew Decker cannot be refuſed.

He tells us in favour of his ſcheme, that 'it would ſet the 'merchant and ſhopkeeper free from a multitude of falſe and 'vexatious, or frivolous informations, which may now be 'lodged againſt them: that the charge upon the revenue 'is now computed at above one million: that, as the duty 'upon merchandize imported from abroad, as well as upon 'our own exciſeable goods, amounts, on an average, to 'about 50 per cent.' (and, ſince Sir Matthew wrote, it hath been greatly increaſed, by a very great additional duty on imports) 'it would, continues he, enable the merchant, as 'well as the ſhop and warehouſe-keeper, to trade with half 'the ſtock, and make his profit the ſame, or rather increaſe 'it, in proportion to the leſſer ſum for which he can purchaſe 'the ſame commodity.

'It would alſo encourage the great merchants, when they 'buy any goods upon ſpeculation, as they call it, to keep 'the ſaid goods at home, and employ their own warehouſes; 'whereas, as the caſe now ſtands, they are, in prudence, 'obliged to ſhip off ſuch goods, as are intitled to a draw-'back of 30, 40, and even more per cent. for Holland, or 'other places; whereby Dutch ſhips are not only benefited, 'but we pay commiſſion, warehouſe room, and other inci-'dental charges, which our own people might put in their 'own pockets, and have the goods in their own poſſeſſion.'

The ingenious Mr. Wood, beſide much excellent reaſoning upon the ſame principle, refers us, for farther proof, to the cuſtoms, which, ſays he, 'ſince the additional duties and 'impoſitions on ſome ſpecies of goods, have not actually 'produced ſo much as before.'

It is computed by the Britiſh Merchant, that, out of 49,000,000l. expended and conſumed by our people at home, not more than 4,000,000l. are of foreign commodities.

There remains, therefore, 45,000,000l. for an annual expence and conſumption in home products and manufactures. Of theſe the land-owner can expend and conſume no more than his rents, and they are computed at no more than 14,000,000l. therefore, above two parts in three of home products and manufactures are expended and conſumed by all other denominations of our people.

Whatever is expended and conſumed at home, or exported into other countries, whether of home or foreign commodities, is the fruit of our lands, of the labourer and artificer, or is purchaſed by theſe fruits.

In 1713, the Britiſh Merchant computed our imports at 5,000,000l. and our exports at 7,000,000l. Of theſe one million he ſuppoſes to be of foreign commodities. Therefore, even at that time, our own conſumption and foreign exportation amounted to 56,000,000l.

But, whatever is produced by land, by the labourer and artificer, is paid for by thoſe, who rent lands, and employ labourers and artificers. Therefore, the farmer and trader contribute three parts in four, more than the land-owner can, to the employment of our people, and to the wealth and expences of the nation.

Landed men are, quatenus ſuch, of advantage to the public, only in what they ſpend: traders are of advantage, by what they ſpend and by what they gain; and the gains of traders exceed their expences. A riſe of rents can only be through an increaſe of employment, ſince lands can only riſe by an increaſe of products and manufacture, and theſe are the fruits of labour and art. But land-owners, as ſuch, can give no increaſe to employment, without a previous increaſe of rents.

Therefore they muſt be indebted for all ſuch augmentations to trade, and to an increaſe of trade. If Dr. Davenant ſpeaks truth, the whole rental of England, in 1600, did not exceed ſix millions, and the price of lands was 12 years purchaſe. In 1688, the rental was 14 millions, and the price of land was 18 years purchaſe: ſo that, within this period, the landed intereſt roſe from 72 to 252 millions. And, in ſo much at that time, it ſtood indebted to an increaſe of trade. From the ſame cauſe, circulating by induſtry through innumerable different channels, life, and ſtrength, and ſpirit, were proportionably derived to the whole: neceſſaries to the poor, eaſe and comforts to the middle rank, affluence and magnificence to the wealthy and the great.

They who pay for the employment, expence, and conſumption of others, pay, in like degree, all taxes laid upon theſe articles. Therefore, the farmer and trader pay three parts in four more than the land-owner, to the ſupport of government; and mankind is indebted to them, in the ſame proportion, for all natural and civil enjoyments.

To them, and to their proſperity it is owing, that, ſince the Revolution, this nation hath been enabled to bear thoſe drains of treaſure, which muſt long ſince have exhauſted her vitals, had ſhe no ſupply to truſt to, but the landlord's waſting rents, and the tenant's diminiſhed gains, with ſome ſmall rivulets of foreign trade ſtealing in upon her.

Since

Since that happy deliverance, commerce hath produced ſums ſufficient to maintain armies and fleets, in defence of our liberties, and of that eſtabliſhment on which they are founded; while the tenant hath been enabled, under an increaſing load of taxes, and of rents raiſed on him, to cultivate and improve the lands of this nation.

But a continuation of public expences in peace, which ought, in a great meaſure, to have ceaſed with war, ſquandered the proviſion which ſhould have been laid up for the day of danger and trial. That day came, and found the nation incumbered, after above 20 years of peace, with near the ſame load, that was heaped upon her by two ſucceſſive wars. And the ſame bad policy, which lengthened out the expence beyond the occaſion, rendered the burden more heavy, by the manner of collecting it. No wonder, if, in theſe circumſtances, trade bleeding at every vein, had not ſtrength, although her growth was miraculous, to ſupport heavier loads, than ever were before laid upon the ſhoulders of this nation; and that ſome branches of commerce ſhould droop and decay under the baleful influence of ſuch weighty taxes, while our commercial competitors planted their intereſts where ours once flouriſhed, and gathered the fruits of wiſer management. From the ſame cauſe, the tenant can no longer ſupply an advance of taxes out of his declining ſtock; and, inſtead of that good claſs of men, the ancient ſtrength and glory of this country, the wealthy, induſtrious, and ſturdy yeomen, a race ſucceeds, of puny, abject wretches, tamed by want and ſervitude.

With the yeomen, the middling gentry of ſmall eſtates, ſeem haſtening to annihilation. The few remaining (for they every day decreaſe) are poſſibly the moſt miſerable beings amongſt us; with nothing left undiminiſhed that belongs to their fathers, but pride and appetites beyond their fortunes. And theſe taxes, which have near devoured their little ſubſtance, have in no inconſiderable degree impaired the poſſeſſions of the greateſt.

Theſe are the effects of taxes upon commodities; which had they, according to Mr Locke's intimation, been rather raiſed wholly upon land, how many millions would have been ſaved to the nation, by the different manner of collection, and how would the landed intereſt have proſpered?

Miſtake us not, we are not pleading for land-taxes, but ſhewing the comparative difference only between them and taxes upon commodities, which muſt prove deſtructive of the national trade. See the articles DUTIES, LABOUR, and TAXES.

The inequality in laying the land-tax, a circumſtance much complained of by ſome, and juſtified by others, does not regard the preſent ſubject. It may be a proper matter of conteſt between the owners of lands; and, if it be a grievance upon ſome of them, ſufficient to deſerve the redreſs, the parliament ought to grant that redreſs, and alter the particular meaſures by which they are rated.

But, however that matter may ſtand between the individuals of the landed intereſt, the propoſition remains in full force, 'that a tax upon land is more advantageous to the commu-'nity in general, and the landed intereſt in particular, than 'that upon commodities, and more effectual for thoſe pur-'poſes, which render taxes neceſſary.'

Nor is the inequality, in laying this particular tax, attended with any of thoſe diſadvantages to the public, which would ariſe from the ſame cauſe in taxes laid upon commodities; ſince, in this inſtance, they who pay more than their ſhare to the land tax, are the only ſufferers; whereas other inequalities fall more diffuſively, and may finally center upon the whole landed intereſt.

It has been objected to this, that through a land tax the monied men eſcape, but this is totally devoid of foundation. For, Not to inſiſt upon that ſhare, which ſome of them really pay in the form of a land-tax, in every tax that affects conſumption, they are taxed like other men, in proportion to what they conſume. And, on the ſuppoſition, that commodities are already taxed as high as they can bear, theſe men cannot be taxed at more, through this medium.

Were mortgages or the funds to be taxed, matters would not be mended. For, as taxes, wherever placed, can have no tendency to lower the intereſt of money, they who buy into the funds, would buy ſo much cheaper as the tax would amount to, and the lender upon mortgages inſiſt upon a higher rate of intereſt.

Beſides, they, who by lending their money upon lower terms, than would be done if the lender were taxed, or by giving a higher price for ſtocks, enable others the better to pay taxes, contribute, in reality and effect, their ſhare, as much as thoſe who pay them. And, in this ſenſe alſo, the mortgagee and ſtockholder are equally taxed with the owners of land.

But, if it be ſtill inſiſted on, that the actual poſſeſſors of the ſoil are the only payers to the land-tax; this diſtinction will greatly reduce the importance of thoſe, who are the ſubject of our preſent conſideration; ſince a deduction muſt be made from that landed intereſt of their intereſt in land, who, by mortgages, are the legal and abſolute proprietors; and alſo of that ſhare abſorbed out of land by every tax, which mediately or immediately affects it.

Laſtly, It hath been ſaid, that in diſtant counties the quantity of circulating money is not ſufficient to ſupply the tax. As in theſe diſtant counties, for much the greater part, the land-tax is lower rated than in a nearer neighbourhood to the metropolis; this objection contradicts that which hath been mentioned, and ſeems, if any thing will, to juſtify the inequality of the meaſure, by which the tax is raiſed.

Yet no argument ſeems capable of juſtifying ſo extraordinary an inequality, in any kind of tax whatever; more eſpecially of a land-tax, that being raiſed at the leaſt expence of any whatever; and, if that tax is, more or leſs, to be continued to perpetuity, it ought to be equally raiſed, ſince, in that caſe, it would produce double what it ever has done: and, if the ſurpluſage, from one ſhilling in the pound to four, ſhould, as ſhall be required, be applied to the ſinking fund, it would put the national debts once more into the parliamentary way of redemption, and thereby pave the way to the annihilation of taxes, upon our native produce and manufacture.

But taxes of all kinds cannot be too equally laid, nor too unexpenſively raiſed. And therefore, that the land, as well as commodities, might be effectually eaſed of their weighty incumbrances, it becomes the wiſdom of the legiſlature to think ſeriouſly of ſome UNINHANCEABLE TAXES, that will effectually anſwer that great end; either that propoſed by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. or one or more ſomething ſimilar thereunto; for taxes of that nature, collected at a ſmall expence, ſeem to be the grand ſpecific to give ſuccour to our land and our trade, by freeing them from thoſe burthens, which, if multiplied, muſt prove the inevitable ruin of both. See the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, TAXES.

The landed gentleman being convinced that his intereſt muſt riſe or fall with trade, and that taxes on native commodities muſt, at length, prove the ruin thereof, it becomes his intereſt to ſtudy the national benefits of commerce. How this can be done to the purpoſe, is the next conſideration. To which end we ſubmit the following queries.

1. Whether the country gentleman, unacquainted with practical trade, can be preſumed capable of making ſo good a judgment of what may tend to it's national proſperity, as one acquainted therewith?

2. Whether the country gentleman, being equally knowing with the ſkilful merchant in the ways of conducting trade, and the eſſential uſages among traders, and laws of nations relating thereto, may not be eſteemed better qualified to promote the public intereſt of trade, though not practically engaged therein, than the merchant, who, being intereſted in any peculiar branch, may be ſomehow biaſſed in his judgment, in regard to his own peculiar trade?

3. Whether this Dictionary of Commerce may not be inſtrumental ſo to inform the country gentleman in the nature of trade, as to enable him to judge properly thereof, in any public capacity, for the benefit of the nation in general?

4. Whether the country gentleman, in any public capacity, from the conſul to the ambaſſador, may not, by means hereof become ſerviceable to the commercial intereſts of his country abroad, as well as in any poſt of honour at home, from the clerk in a public office to the ſenator?

5. Whether a well grounded knowledge in the practical and political nature of commerce, and the money affairs of the kingdom, may not prove more generally inſtrumental to the riſe and proſperity of country gentlemen, and the male branches of their families, than any other kind of knowledge whatever?

6. Are not the capital debates in parliament moſtly upon matters that have relation to commerce, and the money-affairs and public credit of the nation? And are not likewiſe our concerns and negociations with foreign courts principally with regard to affairs of trade and navigation?

7. Whether thoſe ſtudies do not require as regular a courſe of erudition as any other whatever, to arrive at any diſtinguiſhed degree of diſcernment therein?

8. Whether the proper eſtabliſhment of one or more colleges, for purpoſes ſo highly beneficial and honourable, would not as well become the wiſdom of this nation as any other kind of literary inſtitution whatever?

REMARKS.

The late ingenious Mr. Carey of Briſtol, in his Diſcourſe on Trade, where he recommends to the parliament a ſtanding committee of trade, conſtituted of men well verſed therein, to ſcrutinize into whatever comes before that moſt honourable aſſembly, ſays, 'That, in the management of things of much 'leſs moment, we employ ſuch who are ſuppoſed to under-'ſtand what they undertake, and believe they cannot be carried 'on without them; whilſt the general trade of the nation '(which is the ſupport of all) lies neglected, as if the coggs that 'direct it's wheels did not need ſkill to keep them true: trade 'requires as much policy as matters of ſtate, and can never 'be kept in a regular motion by accident; when the frame of

'our

'our trade is out of order, we know not where to begin to 'mend it, for want of a ſet of experienced builders, ready 'to receive applications, and able to judge where the defect 'lies.

'Such a committee as this will ſoon appear to be of great uſe 'and ſervice, both to the parliament in framing laws relating 'to trade, and alſo to the government, in the treaties which 'they make with foreign nations.

'As to the firſt, it hath ſometimes been thought, that, when 'that great and glorious aſſembly [the parliament] hath med-'dled with trade, they have left it worſe than they found it; 'and the reaſon is, becauſe the laws relating to trade require 'more time to look into their diſtant conſequences than a 'ſeſſion will admit; whereof we have had many inſtances.'—He proceeds to give a few inſtances in his time.

'To begin with the French trade, ſays he; in the 22d of 'Car. II. a new impoſt was laid on wines, viz. 8 l. per tun 'on the French, and 12 l. per tun on Spaniſh and Portu-'gueze. This difference, with the low ſubſidies put on their 'linens by former acts, in reſpect to thoſe of other places, 'was a great means of bringing the balance of that trade ſo 'much againſt us, that the parliament, in the 7th and 8th 'of Will. III. thought fit to make an act, which, in effect, 'prohibited all trade with that nation for 21 years, by lay-'ing a great duty on the importation thence, in order to pre-'vent a correſpondence, 'till the trade ſhould be better re-'gulated.

'In the 14th of Car. II. logwood was permitted, by act of 'parliament, to be imported, paying 5 l. per ton duty; the 'ſame act repeals two ſtatutes of queen Elizabeth, againſt 'importing and uſing it in dyeing here, and ſets forth the 'ingenüity of our dyers in finding out ways to fix the colours 'made with it; and yet, at the ſame time, gave a drawback 'of 3 l. 15 s. per ton on all that ſhould be exported; where-'by foreigners uſe it ſo much cheaper in their manufactures 'than ours here; which proceeded from a too haſty making 'that law, and being adviſed, or rather abuſed, by thoſe 'who regarded more their own intereſt than that of the 'nation.

'By an act made 1 Jac. II. an impoſt of 2 s. 4 d. per cent. 'was laid on muſcovado ſugars imported from the planta-'tions, to be drawn back at exportation: the traders to the 'plantations ſtirred in this matter, and ſet forth, that ſuch 'a duty would diſcourage the refining them here, by hin-'dering the exportation of refined ſugars, which was then 'conſiderable, and carry that manufacture to Holland and 'Flanders; but the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms prevailed 'againſt them, and the bill paſſed; the fatal conſequences 'whereof ſoon appeared; for, the exporters of muſcovado 'ſugars drawing back 2 s. 4 d. per cent. by that act, and '9 d. per cent. by the act of tonnage and poundage, foreign 'markets were ſupplied with refined ſugars from other places 'cheaper by about 12 per cent. than we could furniſh them 'hence; by which means we were beat out of that trade: and 'tho' the duty of 2 s. 4 d. per cent, was not continued on the 'expiration of that act, by the parliament 2 Will. and Mar. '(as they did the 3 d. per pound on tobacco) the bad effects 'thereof being then apparent, yet it is difficult to retrieve a 'loſt trade, commercial nations being like expert generals, 'who make advantage of the miſtakes of each other, and 'take care to hold what they get.

'By a ſtatute of the 4th and 5th W. and M. 20 s. per ton was 'laid on lapis calaminaris dug here and exported, on an in-'formation given to the houſe of commons, thatit was not 'to be had any where elſe *; the merchants concerned in 'exporting that commodity made application, and ſet forth, 'that ſuch a duty would bring in nothing to the crown, but 'be a total bar to it's exportation; yet the act paſſed, and we 'were like to have made a fatal experiment; for, 'till the ſtatute 'of the 7th and 8th of the ſame king, which reduced the duty 'to 2 s. per ton, the exportation ceaſed; and, in the mean 'time, thoſe places which had been diſcouraged from digging 'and calcining it, becauſe we underſold them, ſet again to 'work, and ſupplied the markets where we vended ours.

* Does not this ſhew the neceſſity of the legiſlature, as well as private traders, being well acquainted with trading commodities, and the places of their production or manufacture? This is the great reaſon for our being ſo particular in this work in the deſcription of the chief commodities throughout the world.

'What injury was done by the act made in the 9th and 10th 'Will. III. for the more effectual preventing the importation 'of foreign bone-lace, &c. doth ſufficiently appear by the 'preamble of that made in the 11th and 12th of the ſame 'reign, for repealing it, three months after the prohibition 'of our woollen manufactures in Flanders (which was occa-'ſioned by it) ſhould be there taken off.

'I mention theſe things with great ſubmiſſion to the judge-'ment of that glorious aſſembly, the wiſdom and ſtrength of 'the nation; to whom I only preſume, with all humility, 'to offer my thoughts, that it would very much tend to the 'putting matters of trade into a true light before them, if 'they were firſt referred to a body of men, well verſed in the 'true principles thereof, and able to ſee through the ſophiſti-'cal arguments of contending parties, to be by them con-'ſidered, and well digeſted, before they received the ſanction 'of a law.

'And, as to foreign treaties, I do not think our trade hath 'been ſo much bettered by them as it might have been, for 'want of ſuch a committee; the repreſentations made by 'private merchants (who generally differ, according as their 'intereſts claſh with each other) tending rather to diſtract, 'than to inform the government; which would not be, if 'their firſt applications were made to an experienced com-'mittee, who had judgment enough to ſubtract out of them 'what was proper to be offered; by which means, our de-'mands might be rendered ſhort and comprehenſive.'—So far Mr. Carey.

It was ſaid, ſome time ago, by an honourable perſon in the Houſe of Commons [Sir J—— B——d] eſteemed to be very well acquainted both with the practical and political knowledge of commerce, that 'There cannot be brought before 'that Houſe any queſtions more difficult in themſelves, more 'entangled with a multiplicity of relations, or more perplex-'ed with an endleſs diverſity of circumſtances, than thoſe 'which relate to commercial affairs; affairs on which the 'moſt experienced often diſagree, and on which the moſt ſa-'gacious may deceive themſelves with erroneous conjectures. 'There are no queſtions which require ſo much perſonal 'knowledge of the ſubject to which they relate, nor is there 'any ſubject with which ſo few gentlemen in that Houſe have 'had opportunities of being acquainted: there are no que-'ſtions, which their variety of relations to different perſons 'expoſes to be ſo eaſily miſrepreſented, without detection; 'nor any in which the oppoſition of particular intereſts ſo 'much incites a falſe repreſentation. In all theſe caſes, de-'ceit is eaſy; and there is a ſtrong temptation to deceive.' With more to the like effect.

It is certain that the chief knowledge which the gentry obtain of trade, is derived from the information they receive from traders themſelves; and that is not always to be depended upon, eſpecially at thoſe conjunctures when the legiſlature may ſcrutinize thoroughly into the nature of any particular branch. But, although traders themſelves may be extremely well acquainted with their own peculiar trades, ſo far as it relates to their private intereſt, yet they may not always have ſuch a comprehenſive view thereof as to diſcern how the nation is, in all relations, a gainer or loſer thereby. It is rare, therefore, that the country gentleman can obtain a ſatisfactory knowledge from traders.

In order to make a right judgment of any branch of trade, when conſidered in a national light, it is frequently neceſſary to ſurvey it's connection with various others; and, if the landed gentleman is not duly informed of theſe connections, how ſhould he be capable of making ſuitable enquiries?

Beſides, nothing is more common than for traders to differ widely among themſelves, in regard to meaſures proper to be taken by the legiſlature for the due encouragement or re-gulation of peculiar branches. Whence ariſe thoſe oppoſite and contradictory petitions to parliament from traders, which often tend to miſlead, and even confound, the legiſlature it-ſelf.

Theſe conſiderations, without urging more, manifeſt the ne-ceſſity of landed gentlemens being well informed in the na-ture of every branch of the national trade and commerce, if poſſible, in order to render them capable of judging of the beſt public meaſures requiſite to be occaſionally taken for the benefit of the whole, without regard to the private intereſt of particulars.

Of the country gentleman's advancement of his LANDED ESTATE.

We will ſuppoſe, from what has been here ſaid, and alſo in divers other parts of this work, that the Britiſh landed gen-tleman cannot avoid diſcerning that his own private intereſt is intimately connected with that of the national commerce: and, if ſo, he is nearly concerned to promote it's benefit and advantage, in every ſhape poſſible; and can any thing be more conducive to this great end, beſides what has been humbly ſuggeſted, than the due improvement of every inch of his land? For, as the proſperity of land depends upon that of trade, ſo that of trade equally depends upon the culture, and other beneficial management of the land. The more uſe-ful and eſtimable productions the land affords, as articles of merchandizing, the more treaſure will the trader be capable of bringing into the kingdom, by vending them in foreign markets.

It is not the cultivating of lands at random, that will beſt promote the intereſt of commerce, and of the landholder. Theſe intereſts are beſt promoted by cultivating ſuch things as commerce points out to be the moſt beneficial to both. And how are theſe ſpecific particulars to be known, but from the knowledge of trade?

The increaſe of new productions for commerce depends on the farther tranſplanting and communicating of the ſeveral natural commodities of all nations, to other airs and other

L A N

ſoils, and other ways of cultivation. That this is not yet brought to the ultimate perfection is evident, in that there is no land ſo well furniſhed as to produce all the various ſorts of things which it's ground and temperature is capable to receive; and alſo becauſe many of the moſt fertile countries contain large ſpaces that are utterly barren.

Theſe improvements depend chiefly upon three kinds of endeavours.

The firſt, by tranſplanting out of one land into another, of the ſame ſituation in reſpect of the heavens. This may be tried by conveying the eaſtern ſpices, and other uſeful vegetables, into our weſtern plantations. Nor can it be imagined, why they ſhould thrive in one Indies, and not in the other; why the ſoil ſhould not be as good where the ſun ſets, as where it riſes: ſeeing there are parts of both, which lie under the ſame influence of that, and the other celeſtial bodies, to whoſe kindly heat and neighbourhood the oriental nations are ſuppoſed to owe their advantages.

This alſo may be attempted in our northern climates. For inſtance: the flax and hemp which we ſtand ſo much in need of, may proſper far more than it does in England, Ireland, and Scotland, in many vaſt tracts of ground, which lie barren and uncultivated.

Other improvements of this nature are accompliſhed by carrying and tranſplanting living creatures, as well as vegetables, from one climate to another. Sometimes the ſoil and the air, being changed, will give a new force to the new gueſts; as the Arabian horſe, by mingling with our breed, produces a more ſerviceable race than either of them ſingle. And ſometimes the alteration will be for the worſe, which muſt be guarded againſt; as the vine of France brought into England, and the horſes and dogs of England into France, both which are found to degenerate exceedingly: their ſoil and their ſun, it ſeems, being fitted to produce things of pleaſure and delight, and our air and our earth being more proper to beget valour and ſtrength.

The third way of this kind of improvements to be tried, is by removing the plants and the productions of the ſame country from one part of it into another, and by practiſing every where all the ſorts of huſbandry, which are uſed in ſome places with ſucceſs. That this is not enough perfected in England, is manifeſt to every one that beholds the Kentiſh orchards, and the Herefordſhire hedges, which ſeem to upbraid the lazineſs of other counties, whoſe highways are only fenced with thorns and briars, or, at the beſt, with hazel; while theirs are beautified with apples, pears, and cherries.

In every one of theſe tranſplantations, the chief progreſs that has hitherto been made has been rather for the collection of curioſities, to adorn cabinets and gardens, than for the ſolidity of philoſophical diſcoveries: yet there may be a prodigious advantage made in them all, both for the one end and the other. And in this it will be found, as in many other things, that, if men only intend a little curioſity and delight, they will reap not much more by their pains: but, if they regard real uſe, not only the profit, but a greater delight will alſo follow thereon.

And, for our encouragement, whatever attempts of this nature have ſucceeded, they have redounded to the great advantage of the undertakers. The orange of China, being brought into Portugal, has drawn a great revenue every year from London alone. The vine of the Rhine, taking root in the Canaries, has produced a far more delicious juice, and has made the rocks, and the ſun-burnt aſhes of thoſe iſlands, one of the richeſt ſpots of ground in the world. And, if we can produce ſilk, hemp, flax, pitch and tar, timber and naval ſtores of every ſort, cocheneal, pot-aſh and ſpices, in the Britiſh American colonies, as may now be done ſince our new acquiſitions by the peace of 1763, this kingdom might reap unſpeakable benefits thereby. If the ſilk-worm ſhould at length be brought to thrive there (of which there ſeems to be no doubt, if the affair was wiſely, vigorouſly, and honeſtly conducted) the profit on that article alone would be inexpreſſible: we may happen, if that proves the caſe, to give hereafter cloaths to a great part of Europe: we may, in ſome meaſure, gueſs at the extraordinary advantages, by conſidering what number of caravans [ſee CARAVANS] and how many great cities in Perſia are maintained by that manufacture alone, and what mighty income it yearly brings into the ſophi's revenue.

To which end, it will be requiſite to conſult ſuch other diſtinct articles of merchandizes in our Dictionary, as every climate will admit of under the Britiſh dominion.

This being done, the next ſtep is, to conſult every art of cultivating thoſe exotics to the beſt advantage within our own dominions: for which ſee the articles MANURE, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, HOPS, SOIL; ſee alſo CACAO, COCHENEAL, INDICO, HEMP, FLAX, NAVAL STORES, SILK.

Beſide, there is ſcarce any land but what affords ſomething within it's bowels, of a greater or leſs depth, beneficial to the proprietor if he can make a juſt judgment of the nature of EARTHS, BOLES, CLAYS, FOSSILS of all kinds, LOAMS, SANDS: ſee thoſe diſtinct articles, and ſuch others to which from them we refer.

Theſe points being duly conſidered, it then becomes neceſſary for the country gentlemen to be ſo far ſkilled in philoſophical chemiſtry, as to be able to make ſuch experiments upon bodies of all kinds, as may enable him to judge of their worth; otherwiſe, a gentleman may have more treaſure upon his land within the compaſs of a few acres, than others may have in ſome thouſands. See the articles CHEMISTRY, EARTH, PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, and ROYAL SOCIETY.

Were the particulars here intimated made an eſſential part of the education of the gentry of theſe kingdoms, they would be as capable of advancing the trade of their country, in theſe reſpects, as practical traders do in others; they would be inſtrumental to ſupply traders with more valuable commodities, the produce of their lands, to diſpoſe of in foreign countries, than we have at preſent: and 'to this purpoſe I will venture 'to propoſe, ſays the learned biſhop Spratt, to the conſideration 'of wiſe men, whether this way of TEACHING, by 'PRACTICE and experiments, would not at leaſt be as 'beneficial as the other, by UNIVERSAL RULES; whether 'it were not as profitable to apply the eyes and the hands of 'children, to ſee and to touch all the ſeveral kinds of ſenſible things, as to oblige them to learn, and remember the 'difficult doctrines of general arts? In a word, whether a 'mechanical education would not excel the methodical?

'This certainly is no new device: for it was that which 'Plato intended, when he injoined his ſcholars to begin with 'geometry; whereby, without queſtion, he deſigned that 'his diſciples ſhould firſt handle MATERIAL THINGS, and 'grow familiar to viſible objects, before they entered on the 'retired ſpeculations of other more abſtracted ſciences.

'According to this counſel of the father of philoſophers, it 'would not be amiſs, if, before young ſcholars be far engaged in the beaten tracks of the ſchools, the myſtries of 'manual arts, the names of their inſtruments, the ſecrets of 'their operations, the effects of natural cauſes, the ſeveral 'kinds of beaſts, of birds, of fiſhes, of plants, of ſtones, of 'minerals, of earths, of waters, and all their common virtues and qualities, were propoſed to be the ſubjects of their 'firſt thoughts and obſervations.

'It may be here ſuggeſted, that the vaſt number of ſuch particulars will ſoon overwhelm their tender minds, before 'they are well eſtabliſhed by time and uſe. But, on the contrary, it is evident that the memories of youth are fitter to 'retain ſuch ſenſible images, than thoſe of a fuller age. It 'is memory that has moſt vigour in children, and judgment 'in men: which, if rightly conſidered, will confirm what 'I ſaid, that, perhaps, we take a prepoſterous courſe in education, by teaching GENERAL RULES before PARTICULAR THINGS; and that therein we have not a ſufficient 'regard to the different advantages of youth and manhood. 'We load the minds of children with doctrines and precepts, 'to apprehend which they are moſt unfit, by reaſon of the 'weakneſs of their underſtandings: whereas they might, 'with more profit, be exerciſed in the conſideration of viſible 'and ſenſible things, of whoſe impreſſion they are moſt capable, becauſe of the ſtrength of their memories, and the 'perfection of their ſenſes.'

The country gentleman, thus trained up to know and purſue his own intereſt, from experiments in regard to his lands, and every production thereof, both above ground and below, will be far more capable of promoting the commercial intereſts of his country.

And, if ever the Engliſh will attain to the maſtery of commerce, not only in diſcourſe, but reality, they muſt begin it by their labours, as well as by their ſwords; they muſt do it by awaking their minds, by rouzing themſelves from this lethargy by action, by trials, by working: unleſs this be done, they will in vain be victorious; at the end of their wars they will cool again, and loſe all the fruits of their valour. The arts of peace, and their improvements, muſt proceed in equal ſteps with the ſucceſs of their arms: the works of our citizens, our ploughmen, our gardeners, our wood-men, our fiſhers, our diggers in mines, muſt be equally advanced with the triumphs of our fleets, or elſe their blood will be ſhed in vain: they will ſoon return to the ſame poverty, and want of trade, which they ſtrove to avoid.—And who are ſo capable to inſpire a national induſtry like the country gentlemen of this kingdom?

LAND-CARRIAGE OUTWARDS. All foreign goods, ſent by land carriage from one part of this kingdom to another, as the law at preſent ſtands, muſt be accompanied with certificates under the hands of the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller of the port from whence they are ſent *; otherwiſe any officer of the cuſtoms may ſtop them, 'till due proof be made that the duties have been paid, &c.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 39, 42.

And all brandy, arac, rum, ſpirits, or ſtrong waters, exceeding the quantity of one gallon, ſo ſent, muſt be likewiſe accompanied with a permit, or certificate from an officer of the exciſe, or cuſtoms, expreſſing the quantity and quality, and

and ſignifying that the duties have been paid, or that the ſame has been condemned. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 18.
And, with reſpect to wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wooll, wooll-flocks, fuller's-earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, it muſt be obſerved, that no packs, ſacks, bags, or caſks thereof, may be loaden on any horſe, cart, or other carriage, or be conveyed by land, to or from any place in Great-Britain, within five miles of the ſea-coaſt, but in the day-time, and at ſeaſonable hours, that is, between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, with the horſes, carriages, &c. 14 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 8.
For all other regulations relating to wooll, and for the form of a certificate, or let-paſs, ſee the directions hereafter given; but, for all other goods, it muſt be as follows, viz.

A land-carriage certificate, or let-paſs, for any other goods than wooll.

Port of Southampton.

Know ye, that Benjamin Shaw is permitted to paſs three caſks, containing four hundred weight and eighteen pounds
* L. S. Cuſtomer. of raiſins ſolis, in the waggon [coach,
* L. S. Comptroller. cart, &c.] of Benjamin Daws, for Briſtol. To be in force ſix days from the date hereof, and no longer.
Dated the 12th of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Note, The time theſe certificates are to be in force, muſt be limited, in proportion to the diſtances of the places where the goods are to be ſent.
Before a land carriage certificate is granted for foreign goods, oath muſt be made on the back, that the duties of the goods therein mentioned have been paid, or that they were bought in a fair and lawful way of trade, &c. or if the goods are to be exported from the port to which they are deſigned to be ſent, and receive the drawback, a particular certificate of the collector, &c. muſt be granted, as directed at the granting of ſufferances for the ſhipping of foreign goods, to be ſent coaſtways by water.
And, before the certificate be delivered to the merchant, it muſt be entered in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, thus:

Land-carriage certificate outwards.

To what place.		Time to be in force.
Briſtol	12th of January, 1730. In the waggon, &c. of Benj. Daws. Benjamin Shaw. 3 caſks, containing 4 C. 18 lb. raiſins ſolis. A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.	6 Days

For all goods (but eſpecially wines) in order to ſecure the London-duty, ſent by land-carriage to London, a duplicate of the certificate muſt be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners, the firſt poſt after granted, thus:

Port of Southampton.

An account of wines, &c. ſent by land carriage to London, 13th of January, 1730. George White, 3 baſkets, containing 18 gallons of French wine, paid duty by E. H. the 18th of November laſt.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

The foregoing are inſtructions for, and general rules to be obſerved, by the officers of the cuſtoms, in relation to goods ſent from one port or part of Great-Britain to another, either by water or land: but, Britiſh wooll being (to prevent exportation) under very particular regulations, it may be proper here to ſhew the ſeveral requiſites to be performed, from the time of ſheering to the removal to the laſt place where it is to be conſumed or manufactured.

Regulations relating to Britiſh wooll.

* Britiſh wooll, ſhorn or houſed, laid up or lodged within ten miles of the ſea-ſide, within the counties of Kent and Suſſex, muſt be entered with the officers of the cuſtoms, at the next adjoining port, within three days after the ſheering, by a certificate under the hand of the proprietor, or owner. † And, in all other counties, Britiſh wooll having been carried from the place of ſheering to the proprietor's own houſe, within five miles, or leſs, of the ſea, muſt, within ten days after ſheering, be entered with the officer of the cuſtoms at the next port, by a certificate under the proprietor's hand.
Which enteries, certificates, or notices, muſt be in form following:
This is to certify, That I A. B. of C. have ſhorn two hundred fleeces of ſheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs, and have lodged the ſame at my dwelling-houſe at C.
Witneſs my hand this 14th of July, 1730.

A. B.

Note, if through ignorance the wooll be not entered in time, and the proprietors will come and voluntarily enter the ſame, making oath of their ignorance of the laws, and that the wooll in queſtion is numerically the ſame, both for quantity and quality, that the owners ſheered the laſt ſummer, and no part has been ſince removed, or exported, it may then be regiſtered, &c.
The proprietors having thus entered their wooll, it muſt be regiſtered in a book for that purpoſe, by way of charge on ſuch proprietors, and a certificate of the entry granted them in form following, viz.

Port of Southampton.

A. B. of C. hath entered two hundred fleeces of ſheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs. Certified the 14th day of July, 1730.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* And, with reſpect to the buyers of wooll, it muſt be obſerved, that every perſon reſiding within 15 miles of the ſea in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, who intends to become a buyer or dealer in wooll, before he preſumes ſo to do, muſt, with ſufficient ſureties, become bound to his majeſty in the following manner, viz.
The condition of this obligation is ſuch, That the above-bound B. C. who is a dealer in wooll, ſhall not again ſell any part of the wooll which he ſhall at any time hereafter buy, to any perſon or perſons reſiding within 15 miles of the ſea in the counties of Kent or Suſſex, and ſhall not tranſport nor ſell the ſame to any other perſon, or perſons, to be tranſported, but ſhall well and truly obſerve all the acts of parliament made againſt the tranſportation of wooll: then this obligation ſhall be void, or elſe to remain in full force and virtue.

A. B. *
B. C. *
C. D. *

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
D. E. Collector,
E. F. Comptroller.

* And, when the proprietor has ſold the wooll, at leaſt three days before the removal he muſt certify it to the officers of the cuſtoms, upon the back of the aforementioned certificate of entry, mentioning the time when it is to be delivered, thus:

* 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 32. §. 3. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 40. §. 3.

This is to certify, that I have ſold the wooll within-mentioned, weighing fifty tods eighteen pounds, to B. C. of E. to be delivered him there the fifteenth day of September, 1730.
Witneſs my hand this ſeventh of September, 1730.

A. B.

Then, if the intention of removal is regularly certified, a let-paſs (to be in force no longer than the time appointed for the delivery) may be granted for the removal, thus:

Port of Southampton.

Know ye, that B. C. is permitted to paſs by land-carriage *, in the day-time, as the law directs, from the houſe of A. B. of C, to his own houſe in E, with two hundred fleeces of ſheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs, weighing fifty tods and eighteen pounds; it being the wooll of the ſaid A. B. entered here the 14th day of July laſt, and now certified to be ſold to B. C. aforeſaid. To be in force four days, from the 7th day of this preſent September, and no longer.
Dated at the Cuſtom-Houſe, the 8th day of September, 1730.

C. D. Collector, D. E. Cuſtomer, E. F. Comptroller.

* 14 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 8.

Land-Carriage Inwards. Though foreign goods, carried by land from one port of this kingdom to another, ſhould be accompanied with a certificate, yet, that being only an authority for any officer of the cuſtoms * not to ſtop them, there is no occaſion to deliver in ſuch certificate at the cuſtom-houſe when the goods arrive at the intended port, unleſs they are intended to be exported from thence, and the duties intended to be drawn-back; or they are prohibited Eaſt-India goods, coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, or pepper ſent from London in order to be exported.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 39, 42.

As to the form and general direction of theſe certificates inwards, and of the payment of duties for goods to be exported, they are the ſame as for the diſpatches outwards, but, with reſpect to the following goods, they are under theſe additional regulations, viz.

I. * Prohibited Eaſt-India goods.—When intended to be ſent by land-carriage to any out-port, to be thence exported to foreign parts, ſecurity for the due exportation is taken at London, before they may be delivered out of the warehouſes in which they were firſt lodged: and, on ſuch ſecurity, a cocket is granted for the delivery of the goods, and their conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

* 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 2.

A cocket for prohibited Eaſt-India goods ſent by land-carriage from London.

London.

Know ye that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered twenty taffaties, forty cuſhtaes, ten photaes, fifteen damaſks, twelve pelongs, which paid duty out of time: late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and ſo for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1730, anno quarto Georgii Secundi, &c.

C. D. Collector Outwards,
D. E. Comptroller (Surveyor, or Surveyor-General).

* Loc. Sig.

On the back are to be ſpecified the ſeveral packages, with the particular contents of each.

The ſearcher in London having executed this cocket, it is to be returned to the commiſſioners, who ſend it by the poſt to the collector of the port; and, the goods being likewiſe directed to him, he is, by virtue of the cocket, to demand them of the carrier, &c. in order to have them lodged in the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe 'till exportation; obſerving whether the package be agreeable to the indorſement on the cocket, and under the ſeal of the officers of London: and, if the goods do not arrive within 20 days of the date of the commiſſioners letter, they are to be acquainted thereof.

And, when the merchant declares his intention of exporting ſuch goods, and has paſſed an entry at the port, the London cocket is to be delivered to the proper officer, who, before ſhipping for exportation, is to open and examine the goods, to ſee if they agree in quantity and quality; and, the next poſt after the goods are ſhipped off, the commiſſioners muſt be acquainted with the proceedings.

II. * Coffee, tea, cocoa nuts, and pepper.—When deſigned to be ſent by land-carriage to any out-port, after proper ſecurity has been given for the due exportation, a cocket is granted for the delivery out of the warehouſe, and conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

* 8 Ann. cap. 7. §. 20. 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. §. 26.

A cocket for coffee, tea, or cocoa-nuts, ſent by land-carriage from London.

London.

Know ye, that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered five hundred forty-four pounds weight of tea, by the united Eaſt-India company, the 18th of Auguſt laſt: late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and ſo for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1730, anno quarto Georgii Secundi, &c.

C. D. Collector Outwards.
D. E. Comptroller (Surveyor, or Surveyor-General.)

* Loc. Sig.

For the form of a cocket for pepper, ſee that for prohibited Eaſt-India goods. And as to the whole proceedings of ſending the coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and pepper, with the cockets, to the collector, and the method of ſhipping them off at the port, they are the ſame as directed for prohibited Eaſt-India goods, remembering, that, at the examination, they muſt be carefully weighed.

And when any foreign goods intitled to a drawback, which came by land carriage from any other port, have been exported to foreign parts, a debenture muſt be made out, to be ſent to the * port where the duties of ſuch goods had been before paid, at the time of their importation, to intitle the exporter, or his agent to demand the drawback of the collector of ſuch port. See the article CARRIAGE.

* 2d rule of the Book of Rates, p. 177, 178.

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Cuſtom-Houſe, whoſe duty is, upon landing any merchandize, to examine, taſte, weigh, meaſure them, &c. and to take an account thereof.—In ſome ports they alſo execute the office of a coaſt waiter.—They are likewiſe occaſionally ſtiled ſearchers, and are to attend and join with the patent ſearchers, in the execution of all cockets for the ſhipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts: and, in caſes where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent-ſearchers, are to certify the ſhipping thereof on the debentures.

In caſe of SUFFERANCES granted for landing goods at an unlawful key, they are ſigned by the land waiters and ſurveyor, collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller; alſo for SUFFERANCES granted for the landing and examining of paſſengers baggage and wearing apparel.

When the goods are entered, and the warrants, ſufferances, &c. granted for the landing and delivering of the ſame, are produced to the land-waiters to whom they are directed (who are to be appointed by the collector, either by noting their names in the margin of the report-book, or in a particular book to be kept for that purpoſe) they are to accept of the ſame (provided the contents of the goods are found to be juſtly repreſented, and the other requiſites duly performed) as an authority for them to permit the landing and delivering; but they may not preſume to examine the goods on board, but muſt order them to be brought on ſhore at the merchants charge: and, in order thereunto, upon receipt of the warrants, &c. they are to certify the entry to the tideſmen on board the ſhip, before the ſaid tideſmen may preſume to permit any goods to be unladen. The form of which certificate muſt be as follows:

In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam.

Oliver Rook.

O. R.
No. 1, 2. Two fats
3, 4. Two bags
5 a 44. Forty bolts
45. One box
46. One caſe
47. One bale

21ſt of January, 1730. A. B. } Land-waiters.
B. C. }

To the officers on board the aforeſaid ſhip.

And, if the SUFFERANCE permits the landing of the goods at any other place than the lawful keys, the ſame muſt be mentioned on the aforeſaid order, thus:

SUFFERANCE for———

By virtue of the aforeſaid order, the tideſmen on board are to ſuffer the goods to be unladen, and brought on ſhore, and are to deliver them into the charge of the proper land-waiters, who are to attend at the landing of the goods, to examine, taſte, weigh, meaſure, gauge, number, &c. the ſame, according to the nature thereof, and to take an account of the quantities and qualities, in order to adjuſt the duties which are to be paid for the ſame.

That the land-waiter may be duly prepared to take an account of the examination and delivery of the goods, as ſoon as every ſhip is reported, a blank book is to be directed and delivered to each of the land-waiters, whom the collector ſhall think fit to appoint, or direct to ſee ſuch ſhip diſcharged. The title of which book muſt be as follows:

Cuſtom-Houſe, Southampton, 8th day of January, 1730.

This book contains 12 leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of the lading of the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Holland, reported the 8th day of January, 1730.

B. C. Collector.

And as to ſuch ſhips which do not report, &c. every land-waiter muſt have a general pocket-book delivered to him, wherein he is to enter all warrants directed to him for the delivery of any goods out of ſuch ſhips, with the particular execution thereof. The title of which book muſt be as follows:

This book, containing one hundred leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of all goods landed out of ſuch ſhips as do not report.

B. C. Collector.

In the landing, examining, and delivering all goods, and merchandizes, it muſt be carefully obſerved,

1. That no goods may be landed or delivered without a proper warrant, and, if any goods are ſo landed, they are liable to ſeizure.

2. That no more goods may be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, upon examination of ſuch dry goods as pay duty by tale or meaſure, the importer appears to have entered ſhort, the ſaid goods muſt be ſeized, and ſent immediately to his majeſty's warehouſe, in order to be proſecuted: but, in caſe of ſhort entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land-waiters muſt give the merchant an account thereof in writing, that he may make a poſt-entry for the ſame, before ſuch goods

may

may be permitted to be taken off the keys, unleſs the quantity ſhort-entered be very ſmall; and then if the ſurveyor thinks fit to permit the goods to be carried away before ſuch poſt-entry be made, one of the land-waiters is to go immediately and enter the ſame in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, above-ſtairs in the Cuſtom-Houſe, that the collector may know the quantity and quality of the goods, in order to demand the duties of the merchant, which the land-waiters are to ſee poſted the next day at the furtheſt; though, in ſtrictneſs, the land-waiters ſhould not give any credit, of which they are to be frequently admoniſhed: and, in order to prevent their giving credit, the ſurveyor muſt, within 14 days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector and comptroller a liſt of all ſhips cleared in the preceding month, with an account of the poſt-entries that were ſtanding out ſix days after the ſhips were cleared; who are to enquire into the reaſons thereof, and charge the officers concerned in giving ſuch credit to tranſmit their anſwers to the commiſſioners, with their obſervations thereon.

The form of the aforeſaid poſt-entry book may be as follows:

When poſted.

In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam.

Poſt on No. 17.

No. 47. Lady-day quarter, 1731.

20th of February, 1730.

Juniper berries.

	C.	qrs.	lb.
Delivered	3	3	14
Entered	3	0	4
Short	0	3	10

C. D. Land-waiter.

27th of February, 1730.

In the Providence aforeſaid.

Daniel Fuller.

Poſt on No. 25.

No. 58. Lady-day quarter, 1731.

	Crop Madder. C.	qrs.	lb.	Old Iron. Tons	C.	qrs.	lb.	Broken Glaſs. C.	qrs.	lb.	Pearl Barley C.	qrs.	lb.
Delivered	23	2	7	5	17	3	14	23	1	0	9	0	7
Entered	20	0	0	5	00	0	00	20	0	0	8	0	0
Short -	3	2	7	0	17	3	14	3	1	0	1	0	7

C. D. Land-waiter.

3. That the account of all goods muſt be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books or looſe papers.

4. That the marks and numbers of all caſks, &c. muſt be carefully obſerved, and placed to the proper merchant's account; and that each day's work muſt be compared with the account taken by the merchant, his ſervant, cooper, &c.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the warehouſe without a bill of ſight, or other warrant, or the conſent of the ſurveyor, under his hand, in the land-waiter's book.

6. That, upon any miſtake in taking the account of any goods, the land-waiters are not to eraſe their books, but, having ſtruck the pen through the error, are to inſert the true figures, &c. and to write the reaſon thereof in their books.

7. That the land-ſurveyor muſt duly attend at the water-ſide, and frequently every day inſpect the land-waiters in the diſcharge of goods.

8. That after payment of the new duties, and before the delivery of any hides and ſkins liable to thoſe duties, the ſame are to be ſtamped with a proper mark (being an hammer) which, with ſome printer's ink, and a little box, have been ſent for that purpoſe; and, when the ſaid hammer or ſtamp is not in uſe, it is to be ſecured under the ſeparate locks of the collector and comptroller; but, for uſing the ſaid ſtamp, a block is to be prepared, which may be of elm, two feet and one half high, about 10 inches diameter at the top, and hollowed one inch and a half, which is to be filled up with lead, about five inches ſquare, in order to make it ſolid, and prevent the hammer's rebounding, and to keep the lead from ſpreading and cracking.

9. That after the payment of new duties, and before the delivery of linens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, the ſame are to be ſtamped with the proper ſeal and ſtamp, with printer's ink; which ſtamp is to be lodged in the (joint) cuſtody of the collector and comptroller, and not to be delivered thence but to the land-ſurveyor, and land-waiter appointed to the ſhip, wherein there are any ſuch linens imported, as are liable to be ſtamped; and, after entry and landing, ſuch linens are to be ſtamped in their preſence by a weigher or porter, who is under oath and ſecurity; and the land-waiter is to keep an account thereof in his book, which is to be marked by the land-ſurveyor: and, when they leave off ſtamping, the ſaid ſtamp or ſeal is to be returned by the ſurveyor and land-waiter, into the joint cuſtody of the collector and comptroller, to be locked up under two different locks 'till wanted again.

10. That if, upon examination of any goods at the delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, either in any particular goods, or upon the whole entry, the following regulations muſt be obſerved, in order to procure the repayment of the duties for the goods ſo over-entered: and though he ſhould be over-entered on ſome goods, and ſhort-entered on others, yet ſuch ſhort-entry muſt not be deducted from the over-entry, but a poſt-entry muſt be made for what is ſhort, and the over-entry muſt be obtained by the regulations before-mentioned, being as follows:

1. On the face of the warrant, at the bottom, muſt be certified the quantity of goods over-entered, thus:

The merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

2. On the back of the warrant, the merchant, his ſervant, or agent, muſt make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occaſion of the over-entry, thus:

James Croſs maketh oath, That neither himſelf [and, if the goods were taken up by a ſervant or agent, there muſt be likewiſe added, nor A. B. the proprietor] nor any other perſon for him, or to his uſe, did to his knowledge or belief, receive any more than three hundred pounds of the ſilk within mentioned, nor had any more landed out of the within mentioned ſhip, and that this over-entry was occaſioned by a miſtake * in caſting up the invoice.

Jurat' 16 die Martii, coram me
D. E. Collector. Signed James Croſs.

* Or any other occaſion, as may be the caſe.

Underneath which oath muſt be certified as follows:

Upon examination, as alſo per affidavit above, we find the merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

Certified the 16th of March 1730. B. C. } Land-waiters.
A. B. Surveyor. C. D. }

Whereupon a certificate muſt be made out, in order to repay the duties for the goods ſo over-entered, ſigned by the land-waiters. On the back whereof muſt be inſerted the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt for the ſame.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the ſecond certificate, muſt be diſcharged for ſo much goods as were over-entered, by writing off the ſame in the margin of the book: and the whole muſt be entered in particular books, to be kept by the collector and comptroller for that purpoſe.

11. That as all goods are to be entered as found, with regard to damage, &c. therefore, if on examination of poundage goods *, except tobacco, they appear to have received damage by ſalt-water, &c. whereby the merchant will be prejudiced; the collector, ſurveyor, and land-waiters, may make ſuch allowance as they think proper, though no allowance muſt be made in conſideration of the meanneſs of any goods: but, if the merchant is not ſatisfied with the allowance made, then the collector, and any other principal officer, may appoint two indifferent merchants, experienced in ſuch goods, on their oath, to adjuſt the allowance.

* 11th Rule of the book of rates, at the end of letter A.

Whereupon the officers or other perſons who have adjuſted the damages, are to certify the ſame on the back of the warrant. —Which allowance for damage, &c. muſt be made upon the keys, or in the king's warehouſe, immediately after landing the goods, and before taken into the merchant's poſſeſſion: and, in making theſe allowances, the quantity allow-

ed for damage muſt not be deducted from the quantity ſhort-entered (if any); but a poſt-entry muſt be made for ſuch ſhort-entry, and a certificate for the repayment of the duties of the goods allowed for damage, ſigned by the land waiters. But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the ſaid certificate, muſt be diſcharged for ſo much goods as were allowed for damage, by writing off the ſame in the margin or the book: and the whole certificate muſt be entered in particular books to be kept for that purpoſe, by the collector and comptroller.

12. That although no allowance is made to the importers of tobacco, in conſideration of any that is damaged or mean, yet, if on delivery, any part appears damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or ſecure the duties, he may either refuſe the whole, or ſeparate the damaged tobacco (but not the ſtalk from the leaf) by cutting off from the hogſheads, &c. ſo much as he ſhall refuſe to enter, &c. and any three or more of the principal officers may cauſe ſuch tobacco to be burnt: whereupon a certificate for an allowance, in conſideration of the tobacco ſo deſtroyed, muſt be made out, ſigned by the ſurveyor and land-waiters.

On the back whereof, the merchant muſt give a receipt for the payment of the aforeſaid allowance. See WOOLL.

But, before this allowance is paid, the ſame muſt be entered, in particular books to be kept for that purpoſe, by the collector and comptroller.

Land waiters are not to be paid their ſalaries, 'till a certificate be produced from the ſurveyor, that they have not any poſt-entries ſtanding out.—They are to aſſiſt at the ſhipping of corn and other goods, and to certify on debentures—To examine the ſhip's contents, and compare them with the merchant's endorſements on the cocket—To examine the ſhips, and diſcharge the tideſmen—To preſerve and enter the warrants outwards—A book to be kept by them for the outward buſineſs—To aſſiſt the coaſt-waiters in examining foreign goods.

LANERKSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the ſouth with Dumfrieſſhire; on the ſouth-weſt with that of Aire; on the north-weſt with that of Renfrew; on the north with that of Dumbarton; on the north-eaſt with Sterlingſhire; and on the eaſt with that of Linlithgow and Mid-Lothian.

It is a pleaſant fruitful country, and, though mountainous in ſome places, and woody in others, is very well inhabited, eſpecially near the Clyde. It abounds with coal-pits and lime-ſtone, and has ſome profitable lead-mines.

GLASCOW, in this ſhire, for extent, buildings, trade, and riches, is the chief city of the kingdom, next to Edinburgh. Though the river Clyde, on whoſe banks it ſtands, is navigable up to the town for ſmall veſſels, yet New Glaſcow, at the mouth of the Clyde, is the harbour for thoſe of great burden, where the city obliges the merchants to load and unload, there being a good wharf, and a cuſtom-houſe for all the coaſt; and ſhips are alſo repaired, laid up, and fitted out here, or at Greenock. There is not only an appearance, but a reality of trade at this city, both as to foreign commerce and domeſtic manufacture; which, though great before, is very much improved ſince the union, which more fully anſwered it's end to this city, than to any other part of Scotland, ſo that they now ſend above 80 ſail of ſhips every year to Virginia, and other Engliſh colonies in America. They have a very conſiderable trade in the herring-fiſhery, which they catch ſooner, and cure ſo much better than the Engliſh, that they are reckoned equal to the Dutch. They have alſo the advantage of ſituation, lying ſo convenient for the coaſts of Spain and Portugal, that they are often at Cadiz, the Streights mouth, and even at the Canaries, in eight or nine days. Their ſituation for the American trade is no leſs advantageous, eſpecially in time of war. They lately purchaſed a harbour on the Frith, near Alloway, to enable them to reſhip their ſugars and tobacco for Holland, Germany, and the Baltic, without ſailing round England or Scotland.

They have a manufacture of plaids and muſlins, which laſt are ſo good and fine, that great quantities are ſent to England, and the Britiſh plantations, where they fetch a good price, being generally ſtriped, and much uſed for aprons by the ladies, and ſometimes in head-cloths by the meaner ſort.

LANGUEDOC in France. This province is bounded on the north by Quercy and Rovergne, on the eaſt by Auvergne and Lyonnois, on the ſouth it borders on the Mediterranean Sea, and on the weſt the Garonne ſeparates it from Gaſcony.

It is eſteemed one of the moſt pleaſant and fruitful provinces in France: it's chief commodities are wine, oil, honey, wax, ſaffron, ſilk, and ſalt.

In this province is the famous canal, cut at an immenſe expence, to make a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean. 'Twas begun in 1666, and completed in 1680. It coſt above thirteen millions of livres, and takes an immenſe ſum yearly to keep it in repair; and yet does not anſwer the deſign for which it was chiefly made, namely, to carry the French fleets, which are ſtill obliged to paſs through the ſtreights of Gibraltar. Nor does it ſeem to be of great uſe for the inland trade.

'Tis divided into the following diſtricts or diviſions, viz.

I. TOULOUSAIN, lying between Gaſcony on the weſt, Albigeois on the eaſt, and the county of Foix on the ſouth. In it is

TOULOUSE, the capital of the whole province, ſeated on the river Garonne.

Though this city is very advantageouſly ſituated for trade, it has hardly any, the genius of it's inhabitants not being turned that way; ſo that, though this be one of the greateſt cities in France, it is neither rich nor populous.

II. ALBIGEOIS is bounded by Rovergne on the north and weſt, by Toulouſain on the ſouth, and by Quercy on the eaſt.

The ſoil about GAILLAC is the only part of Albigeois, that produces wine proper to be exported beyond ſea. They ſend it by the river Tarn, which begins here to be navigable to Bourdeaux, where the merchants ſell it to the Engliſh, this wine being better after it has been tranſported by ſea.

RABASTENS on the Tarn alſo, is an ancient city, but gone to decay; there is, however, ſome trade here, particularly of wine, which is very good.

III. LAURAGAIS lies on the eaſt of Toulouſain, between the rivers Ariege and Agout.

CASTLENANDARI has a pretty good trade, the plains that ſurround it producing abundance of corn. It ſtands on a hill, at the foot of which is a baſon of the royal canal of Languedoc.

IV. The diſtrict of NARBONNE lies between Lauragais and the county of Foix on the weſt, Rouſillon on the ſouth, the ſea and the diſtrict of Beſiers on the eaſt, and Toulouſain on the north.

Narbonne is commodiouſly ſeated in a low country, on a canal cut from the river Aude. It formerly had a good harbour, and drove a vaſt trade in the Mediterranean, but it has been long ſince ſtopt up, the ſea having left the coaſt.

CARCASSONNE is ſeated on the river Aude. The country round it is much enriched by the manufacture of all ſorts of cloth eſtabliſhed here, and which afford a conſtant employment for all the inhabitants.

LIMOUX, a ſmall city on the ſame river, has likewiſe a manufacture of cloths and other woollen ſtuffs. 'Tis alſo the ſtaple for all the iron that is worked in the neighbouring forges.

V. The diſtrict of BESIERS is extended between that of Narbonne on the weſt, Rouvergne on the north, the diſtrict of Niſmes on the eaſt, and the ſea on the ſouth.

The ſoil of this dioceſe is one of the moſt fruitful of the whole province; it produces excellent wines, and much more corn than the inhabitants can conſume, and a great quantity of oil.

VI. The diſtrict of NISMES lies between that of Beſiers on the weſt, the Mediterranean Sea on the ſouth, Provence on the eaſt, and Sevennes on the north.

Niſmes is a large town, well peopled, and has a very good trade, which conſiſts chiefly in woollen ſtuffs made here.

MONTPELLIER is the capital city of what is termed Lower Languedoc, and the largeſt and moſt conſiderable of the whole province, except Toulouſe.

The inhabitants are employed in making treacle, verdegreaſe, white wax, dimities, ſilks, and woollen ſtuffs, and other ſorts of manufactures.

BEAUCAIRE, ſituated on the Rhône, is famous chiefly for the fair kept yearly about the time of St. Magdalen's feſtival. It had formerly great privileges granted, but, in 1632, they laid a duty on all merchandizes, which amounts yearly to about 25,000 livres; beſides another of twenty-pence on every bale that has not been opened, which brings in about 5000 livres more. They carry on in this fair a trade for above ſix millions of livres. Merchants reſort hither from Italy, Germany, Spain, Turkey, Armenia, Smyrna, &c.

SOMMIERES is conſiderable for it's manufactures of ſerges, which are ſold in this and the adjacent provinces.

VII. GEVAUDAN is for the moſt part a mountainous and barren country; but moſt of the people follow ſome trade at home, making ſerges and other ſtuffs, which they ſell very cheap; and yet thoſe little manufactures bring in above two millions of livres yearly, being exported into Switzerland, Germany, Italy, and even into the Levant.

MARVEJOLS is a pretty populous city, and drives a good trade.

VIII. VIVARAIS lies between Languedoc, properly ſo called, on the ſouth, Gevaudan on the weſt, Forez and Velay on the north, and the river Rhône on the eaſt.

VIVIERS is it's capital, but is not a place of any trade.

IX. VELAY is a ſmall county or diſtrict, and has Vivarais on the eaſt, Forez on the north, Auvergne on the weſt, and Gevaudan on the ſouth.

The moſt conſiderable place in it is PUY, where they make a vaſt quantity of laces, by which they are much enriched.

LAPIDARY, an artificer who cuts preciou ſtones. The ſame is ſaid of thoſe who deal therein, and have a perfect knowledge of gems in general, and of thoſe alſo who have wrote thereon in French, as Boot, Berguen, Ruæus, Geſner, Durondel, &c.

This art is of great antiquity. The French fell into it late, yet have carried this art to a very great perfection, but not ſuperior to that of the Engliſh.

Divers machines are employed in the cutting of precious ſtones, according to their quality. The diamond which is extremely hard, is cut on a wheel of ſoft ſteel, turned by a mill, with diamond-duſt, tempered and poliſhed with olive oil.

The oriental ruby, ſapphire, and topaz, are cut on a copper-wheel with diamond-duſt, tempered with olive oil, and are poliſhed on another copper-wheel with tripoli and water.

The hyacinth, emerald, amethyſt, garnets, agates, and other ſtones not of an equal degree of hardneſs with the other, are cut on a leaden-wheel with ſmalt and water, and poliſhed on a tin-wheel with tripoli.

The turquois, of the old and new rock, giraſol, and opal, are cut and poliſhed on a wooden-wheel with tripoli alſo.

The lapidaries of Paris have been a corporation ſince the year 1290. It is governed by four jurats, who ſuperintend their rights and privileges, viſit the maſter-workmen, take care of the maſter-piece of workmanſhip, bind apprentices, and adminiſter the freedom. There are two jurats choſen, every year, by a plurality of voices.

The apprenticeſhip is for ſeven years; a maſter can have but one apprentice at a time; he is permited, however, to take a ſecond toward the end of the laſt year of the time of the others.

Apprentices, after the expiration of their ſervitude, muſt ſerve two years as journeymen with maſters, in order to perfect them in the art.

Every candidate for the freedom of the corporation, even by the royal recommendation, is obliged to perform a maſter-piece of workmanſhip before admiſſion.

Maſters may have no more than two wheels, nor more than three mills going.

Foreigners, or aliens, are not allowed to expoſe to ſale either rough or cut precious ſtones, or even pearls; nor are the maſters to purchaſe any of them, that have not been viſited by the jurats.

Theſe merchandizes can only be ſold by the maſter-lapidaries, and the goldſmith-jewellers; all others are forbid to mend or repair them.

Some of theſe articles have been ſince new modified and changed.

1. By an arret of the council of May 1613, regiſtered the June following, all merchants, foreigners, ſtrangers, and others, are forbid to carry and ſell, in the kingdom, any precious ſtones and diamonds, cut and faſhioned, unleſs in the fair time, who are then ſubject to viſitation by the jurat-lapidaries.

2. By another arrêt of the council of December 1614, the preceding is ratified; and yet it is ordered, that the dealing in diamonds, and other rough and cut precious ſtones, carried by merchant ſtrangers, ſhall remain free, as well to the goldſmith as the lapidaries, without the latter viſiting or dividing the ſtones by lots among themſelves; being alſo forbid, both the one and the other, to be factors or agents to merchants foreigners.

The parliament of Paris made a decree in February 1740, with regard to a law-ſuit between the body of trading goldſmith-jewellers, that of the mercers, and that of the other four corporations of merchants of the city of Paris of the one part, and the company of lapidaries on the other: the latter and the goldſmith-jewellers were at law for above 100 years; and this decree of the parliament terminated their differences, and definitively regulated the ſtate of theſe corporations among themſelves; by which decree, the lapidaries are forbidden to vend any ſort of precious ſtones ſet and adorned by art, under the penalty of a fine and confiſcation of the ſame, and they are reſtrained to the ſale of rough ſtones, and theſe cut and poliſhed, but not ſet and adorned. By an arrêt of the council of ſtate of January 1673, lapidaries were prohibited, and all others except goldſmiths, ſelling all precious ſtones, on pain of 3000 livres penalty, and of all expence, damage, and intereſt. The foregoing arret of parliament, in conſequence thereof, forbids lapidaries from aſſuming the quality of merchant jewellers, and to give to their jurats the name of wardens, nor permits them to be called only maſter lapidaries, gravers, and artificers, in all ſort of precious ſtones, fine and natural.

LAPLAND. This country is divided into Daniſh, Swediſh, and Muſcovian Lapland. See the articles NORWAY, SWEDEN, and RUSSIA.

LAQUE, or artificial LACCA, a name given to a coloured ſubſtance, drawn from ſeveral flowers; as the yellow from the flower of the juniper, the red from the poppy, and the blue from the iris or violet.

The method of preparing the vegetable colours called laques.

Take a pound of turmeric root, reduced to fine powder, three pints of fair water, and an ounce of ſalt of tartar; put them into a glazed earthen veſſel, and let them boil together gently, over a clear fire, 'till the water appears richly impregnated with the turmeric, or will ſtain a piece of white paper beautifully yellow; then filtre the liquor, and gradually add to it a ſtrong aqueous ſolution of roch-allum, 'till the yellow matter is all curdled together, or precipitated: after this, pour the whole into a filtre of paper, where the aqueous part will run off, and leave a yellow matter behind; which being edulcorated, or waſhed in the filtre, by the repeated affuſion of freſh water, 'till the water comes away inſipid, and afterwards dried, it becomes the laque of turmeric, or a beautiful yellow colour for painting.

This experiment ſhews a general method of obtaining a laque from all the vegetable ſubjects fitted to afford it: for in the ſame manner may a red laque be made from madder, brazil, nicaragua, and many other dyeing woods, or tinging vegetables. But, where the colour of the ſubject depends upon a very ſubtle texture, mixture, or arrangement of the parts, this method deſtroys, or at leaſt impairs the colour; as particularly in violets, red roſes, carnations, &c. So that it ſeems applicable only to the tinging vegetables of a ſomewhat ſtrong and firm texture.

In ſome caſes alſo, a ſimple proceſs is ſufficient to obtain rich laques; particularly that beautiful red one, emphatically called laque, and from which the name ſeems to be derived to the reſt. This red laque is obtained, barely by boiling ſtick-lac in water, then filtring the decoction, and evaporating the ſuperfluous humidity: for the beautiful red colour adheres to the outſides of the ſticks broke of the trees, along with the gum-lac, and readily communicates itſelf to boiling water*. Some of this tinging matter likewiſe ſticking to the gum itſelf, it is proper to boil them both together: for the gum does not prejudice the colour, nor diſſolve in boiling water: ſo that, after the operation, the gum is as fit for the making of ſealing wax, or other uſes that do not require the colour, as it was before.

* The tinging matter adhering to the ſticks and gums is, perhaps, not a vegetable, but animal ſubſtance; ſomewhat of the nature of cocheneal, and depoſited in form of an excrement, by a certain kind of bees in the Indies. See a paper upon this ſubject in the French Memoirs; ſee alſo Mr. Boyle upon human blood, Abridgment, Vol. II. p. 481.

And, much after the ſame manner, is that extremely rich and beautiful red colour called carmine, prepared from cocheneal, and a ſolution of tin; for carmine may be conceived as no more than the ſcarlet, or Bow-dye liquor, concentrated, or reduced to what the painters call a body.

How far the preſent experiment may be applicable to other parts of the materia tinctoria, ſeems not hitherto well conſidered. Doubtleſs, it might afford a great variety of new colours, by a proper extenſion and diverſification in the menſtruum and method. For example: if red ſaunders be digeſted warm in ſpirit of wine, the menſtruum acquires a deep red colour; and, if drawn off by diſtillation, leaves behind it a red, taſteleſs, and inodorous roſin, that affords no ſmell even upon burning, nor diſſolves in any expreſſed or eſſential oil; yet, even in a ſmall proportion, tinges ſpirit of wine of a full red colour, ſo as to render it uſeful for anatomical injections, &c.

In like manner, may a particular gummy red ſubſtance, or pigment, be obtained by ſpirit of wine, from dried red wine lees; and, whether the tinging parts of the more cumberſome dyeing woods and ſtuffs could not be advantageouſly extracted at the places of their growth, ſo as to leave their ponderous bulk behind, and bring away only their concentrated eſſential colours, might deſerve the conſideration of the merchant, the dry-ſalter, the dyer, the callico-printer, &c. It might be tried on logwood, brazil; on madder, ſafflore, and many other dyeing woods and ſtuffs*, whoſe names we ſeldom meet with but in the bills of entry.

* This is well deſerving the conſideration of thoſe traders, who are any way concerned in theſe things.

LAQUERED WARES are peculiar ſorts of cabinet-work, varniſhed, in the nature of japan-work, over with laquer. See LAQUE.

A white laquer, or varniſh.

Take ten ounces of rectified ſpirits of wine, and fine pulverized gum-ſandarac two ounces, clear Venice turpentine two ounces; put them together into a glaſs, and cover it cloſe with waxed paper and a bladder; then take a pot with water, put it on a coal fire, and, when it begins to be warm, put ſome hay under the bottom of the pot, whereon ſet your glaſs; let it boil for two or three hours, and the ſandarac and turpentine will diſſolve and unite with the ſpirits: then pour your laquer boiling hot through a clean hair-cloth, and put it in a clean phial for uſe. This is an excellent laquer, fit to be uſed for light colours.

Another laquer to mix with red or dark colours, and to japan the work over with.

Take rectificd ſpirits, that is, ſuch as, when poured on gunpowder, will fire it; or when a linen rag being dipped into it and lighted, it will conſume it one pound; of clean gum lacca a quarter of a pound; grind them fine, and put them into a phial, then pour the ſpirits over it; let it ſtand for two days,

days, ſhaking it once every hour: the third day, hang it over a gentle cool fire 'till it is well diſſolved, then ſtrain it through a hair-bag, and put it up for uſe.

Another laquer varniſh.

Take of the beſt and ſtrongeſt brandy one quart, calcined tartar one pound; let the brandy ſtand upon the tartar covered, for one day, in a gentle warmth; pour off the brandy, and filtrate it through paper; of this take one pound, white amber ſix ounces, ſandarac ſix ounces, gum-lac two ounces, (the amber muſt be picked out of clear pieces) grind all fine together, put them into a phial or matraſs, then pour on it three pounds of the filtrated brandy: your phial muſt be but about half filled; then ſhake it for about an hour together, keep it in a matraſs for two days, ſhaking it once every hour; when ſettled, pour it through a hair-cloth, and it will be fit for uſe.

What ſediment remains in the phial, may be uſed in making another ſuch quantity, adding to it but one half the quantity of freſh ingredients.

A fine laquer or varniſh, for blue, and other colours, which will make them bright like looking-glaſſes.

If your table is to be of a blue colour, paint it firſt with indico and white, ground with oil, with a little turpentine; when dry, you may give it another layer, and heighten it to your liking; and, when this is thoroughly dry, laquer it with the following matter.

Take clear Cyprian turpentine half an ounce, ſandarac one ounce, maſtic two ounces; grind the ſandarac and maſtic very fine; then take oil of ſpike two ounces, oil of turpentine one ounce, put them into a glaſs cucurbit, to diſſolve over a gentle heat: add thereto the pulverized gum, ſet the glaſs or matraſs in a pan with water; let it boil over a ſlow fire for an hour, and all will be diſſolved and incorporated: let it cool, preſerve it in a phial well ſtopped for uſe.

When uſed, firſt wipe your painted table, and clean it from duſt; then take ſome fine and light ſmalt in a cup, or upon a plate, according to what quantity your piece requires; temper it with the above laque, and, with a large hair-bruſh pencil, glaze it as quick as you can all over; let it dry in a clean place that is free from duſt, which will be in about three hours time, then glaze it over again: the oftener you repeat it, the brighter your table will be: if you chuſe to have it of an exceeding fine luſtre, glaze it over 12 or 15 times.

A Chineſe laquer for all ſorts of colours.

Put into a matraſs a pint of ſpirits of wine, one ounce of gum-animæ, two ounces of maſtic, two ounces of ſandarac or juniper gum, powdered finely together in a mortar: put them together into a matraſs, cloſe it up, and hang it in hot weather in the ſun for 24 hours, or ſo long over a fire, 'till the gum is diſſolved, and the ſpirits are tinctured therewith: then filtre it through a clean cloth, and keep it in a phial cloſed up: you may mix therewith what colour you pleaſe: for red, uſe vermillion; for black, uſe lamp-black, or ivory-black; for blue, uſe indico and white, Pruſſian blue or ſmalt, and white lead, &c.

LATITUDE, in geography, the diſtance of any place from the equator, meaſured in degrees, minutes, and ſeconds, upon the meridian of that place; and is either north or ſouth, according as the place is ſituated, either on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator. It is found at ſea, by having the ſun's or any ſtar's declination (by a proper table, and his meridian altitude) and that is found by a quadrant or aſtrolabe. From the horizon to the zenith being 90°, if from 90° you take the ſun's meridian altitude, the remainder will be the ſun's diſtance from the zenith. When, therefore, by obſervation, the ſun's meridian altitude is found, you are to conſider, whether the ſun hath any declination or not: if he hath none, but moves in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridian altitude; and, conſequently, his meridian altitude is the co-latitude: ſubduct, therefore, that from 90, the remainder is the latitude of the place, which will be north, if the ſun be on the ſouth part of the meridian; and ſouth, when the ſun comes to the north of the meridian.

'Tis the ſame thing with any ſtar in the equator. When the ſun or ſtar hath any declination, the zenith diſtance with that will give the latitude; for, if the meridian altitude and declination be both the ſame way, i. e. both north, or both ſouth, the difference between them will be the latitude of the place, or the pole's height: only obſerve, that, if the zenith diſtance exceeds the declination, the contrary pole will be elevated. If the declination be 23° 30′ N. and the zenith diſtance 8° 30′ N. the latitude will be 15° N. But, if the zenith diſtance be 71° 30′ S. and the declination 20° S. the difference will be 51° 30′ = to the latitude, as before; only it will be north, becauſe the zenith diſtance exceeds the declination.

If the declination be north, and the meridian altitude ſouth, or vice verſa, i. e. one contrary to the other, then the ſum of the declination and the zenith is the latitude of the place. Indeed, ſometimes the ſun or ſtar may have two meridian altitudes, as when the altitude and declination being the ſame way, the latter exceeds the former, and then the ſum of the co-declination and the meridian altitude is the height of the pole, towards which the declination is. And you muſt obſerve, that, whether the meridian altitude be north or ſouth, if that and the co-declination together be leſs than 180°, the ſun or ſtar will have two meridian altitudes in 24 hours. See the article LONGITUDE, with regard to navigation, and alſo the article COMMANDERS of SHIPS.

LAW. Traders in general are the principal perſons who ought to keep out of litigious broils, yet they are the moſt liable to be plunged into them, by reaſon of their conſtant dealings with great variety of people. We have, therefore, endeavoured, throughout this work, not only to give the ſtatute law in miniature which has relation to the chief ſpecies of merchandizes, but alſo the determination, in our courts of common law and equity, of the moſt curious mercantile caſes which have come before them, in order to guard traders againſt thoſe evils to which they are too frequently liable.

Beſides the common and ſtatute laws of England, as alſo the lex non ſcripta, there are in ſeveral parts of England certain cuſtoms and uſages, which have the force of common law among thoſe people to whoſe property they belong; as borough Engliſh, a cuſtom ſo called, not being in uſe out of England, where the youngeſt ſon, or, for want of ſons, the youngeſt brother, is to inherit, the eldeſt being ſuppoſed to have learned the father's trade, and the youngeſt the leaſt able to ſhift for himſelf.

Beſides theſe, we make uſe of the civil and maritime law, in regard to divers commercial and naval occurrences; which law is exerciſed in the high court of admiralty, as correſponding and agreeing with the laws of foreign nations, being ſuitable to the nature and negociations of the people that are ſubject to them. By this law, and the ancient cuſtoms thereof, a mutual intercourſe of commerce is maintained between nations, and ſhould, in trading ſtates, be preciſely and ſtrictly upheld and preſerved; yet the rights of the municipal laws of the kingdom ſhould, by no means, be infringed, but each juriſdiction reſtrained within it's proper limits; which will be more advantageous to the trading interſts of this nation, than the ſuffering either of them to incroach upon, and ſwallow up and devour the other: and that law which is univerſally regarded in all trading nations, ſhould ſeem the beſt calculated to determine all miſunderſtandings between the trading ſubjects of thoſe ſeveral nations which have relation to traffic, or maritime concerns. Yet, in the leagues that are eſtabliſhed between nation and nation, the laws of either kingdom are excepted; and as the Engliſh merchants in France, or in any other nation in amity, are ſubject to the laws of that country where they reſide, ſo muſt the people of France, or any other country, be ſubject to the laws of England, when reſident here. 19 Hen. VII.

By the common law, merchants were always particularly regarded in this kingdom; but the municipal laws of England, or, indeed, of any realm, are not ſufficient for the ordering and determining the affairs of traffic, and matters relating to commerce, merchandizing being ſo univerſally extenſive, that it is impoſſible: therefore there is another law, called the law-merchant, which is a kind of ſpecial law, differing from the common law of England, proper to merchants, and is become a part of the law of the realm; and all nations take ſpecial knowledge of this law; and the common and ſtatute laws of this kingdom leave the cauſes of merchants, in many caſes, to their own peculiar law, which is founded on cuſtoms and uſages immemorial. On this law, alſo, we have been pretty copious throughout our whole work.

REMARKS.

There can be nothing more perplexing and vexatious to traders than the being unhappily involved in law-ſuits. To avoid which, or to prove ſucceſsful therein, nothing can be more conducive than method and regularity, which is the life of a trader's affairs in general. Thus the due arrangement and methodizing of the original vouchers which relate to a trader's tranſaction, for immediate reference, ſhould, by no means, be neglected: for, the grand books being of no authority in courts of judicature, without the original vouchers, theſe ought to be as regularly diſpoſed as the other, in the way they will admit of; neglects of this kind, either by miſplacing, or loſing thoſe teſtimonials of a trader's tranſactions, being productive of great confuſion in public buſineſs: order and regularity in all things cannot be too early made habitual to the young trader.

And, indeed, if a trader has any miſunderſtanding or law-ſuit with others, and has the beſt cauſe to defend, and employs the moſt ſkilful, as well as moſt upright council, ſollicitor or attorney, yet, if he cannot produce authentic vouchers in his vindication, he will loſe his cauſe.

With

With relation particularly to the laws, which concern the various branches of the PUBLIC REVENUE, traders in general ſhould not be remiſs in making themſelves acquainted with thoſe that may concern themſelves, leſt they ſhould incur the penalties thereby inflicted, or injured by the officers who may exceed their authority. Thus the merchant ſhould be well informed in the laws, relative to the buſineſs of the CUSTOMS; variety of the eſſential whereof is given in this work, either under the reſpective articles which they immediately concern, or at the end of every letter, wherein the general BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS is concerned. But they are ſo numerous, that it cannot be expected we ſhould give the whole, and at large, which would be no more than to tranſcribe the Statutes at large: we have judged it ſufficient to give the practical trader ſuch an idea thereof, as may tend to induce him to look into thoſe, wherein his own private intereſt is concerned.

Thoſe traders, who are liable to the exciſe laws in any peculiar branch, ſhould not be neglectful to become familiar with thoſe which concern their reſpective branches of buſineſs: as the ſalt or ſtamp duties, &c.

The neceſſity of merchant importers and exporters informing themſelves well in the laws relative to the CUSTOMS in particular, will appear under the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, at the concluſion of our letter A, and the end of the ſubſequent letters of the alphabet.

LEAD, is the heavieſt of all metals, next to gold, quickſilver not being ranked in the claſs of metals. It is the ſofteſt of all, and very ductile, though much leſs ſo than gold; is very little ſubject to ruſt, and the leaſt ſonorous, except gold; the moſt readily fuſible of all except tin, and acquires this fluidity long before it changes colour; when melted, it readily calcines into a grey powder, which, if the fire be increaſed, becomes of a fine florid red, which is the minium of the ſhops. If the fire be made yet more vehement, it runs into an oleaginous matter, which, as it cools, turns reddiſh, which is litharge. Theſe ſeveral ſubſtances, by addition of iron-filings over the fire, or only ſome pieces of charcoal, or any oily matter, become lead again.

The ſcoriæ of lead in a ſtrong fire vitrify, and in that form eſcape through all ſorts of veſſels.

Lead readily amalgamates with mercury, and as readily fuſes with all other metals, except iron. It's ſpecific gravity is to that of water as 11,322 to 1000. Expoſed to a burning-glaſs, it in a few moments goes through all the changes already mentioned.

When kept in fuſion over a common fire, it throws up all other bodies, except gold; it afterwards vitrifies with the baſer metals, carrying them off as ſcoriæ.

The weakeſt acids are it's beſt ſolvents; it diſſolves readily in aqua fortis, mixed with water, as alſo in vinegar, and is corroded with the fumes of the weakeſt acids, becoming what is called ceruſſe. It gives a ſweetiſh taſte to liquors wherein it is diſſolved. If heated 'till it ſmoaks, and copper in thin plates be put in, it boils up vehemently, and the copper breaks and blends with it. The mixed maſs, when cool, is very brittle, reſembling caſt iron where broken.

Lead is met with in the mines in various forms. The ore is uſually of colour eaſily diſtinguiſhable to the eye, being a little darker than lead, bright and gloſſy where freſh broken, and compoſed either of cubic pieces, or of ſmall granules, or of long ſtriæ. The firſt is called potters lead ore, the ſecond ſteel-grained ore, and the third antimoniated lead ore. Theſe, though apparently different, are in reality very like, when compared with the help of glaſſes.

There is, beſides theſe ores, a very curious kind, which is green, and of cryſtalline ſubſtance, uſually mixed with a kind of calamine: this has not the leaſt appearance of lead, though it contains very much, and ſome zink.

Lead is more eaſily ſeparated from it's common ores than any other metal, requiring only a common wood-fire and bellows. Such ores as contain earth and ſtones are firſt to be powdered and waſhed, and thoſe which have pyrites, or marcaſites, muſt be roaſted two or three times, to burn away the ſulphur; then powdered and waſhed, and finally mixed with the common black flux, if very refractory. If there be occaſion to ſeparate lead from copper in the regulus, it is readily done, as the lead will run off in a heat not ſtrong enough to fuſe the copper.

As to it's medicinal virtues, it ſeems to be a metal very cautiouſly to be given, and rather calculated for outward application. It's ore is poiſonous: the ſteam of the furnaces where it is worked infects the graſs around about, and kills the animals that feed on it; and it's beſt preparation, the ſaccharum ſaturni, is apt to bring on violent cholics, and ſo many other diſorders, that the remedy is often worſe than the diſeaſe.

The preparations moſt in uſe are the following, viz.

MINIUM.

Melt lead in a broad, earthen, unglazed veſſel, ſtirring continually 'till calcined to a grey powder; continue ſtirring, and it will become yellow, and is the maſticot uſed in painting. Then calcine further in a reverberatory furnace, and it will be of a fine red, which is the common minium.

LITHARGE.

This is of two kinds, but differing only in colour, called litharge of gold, and of ſilver. It is not prepared on purpoſe, but got from the ſilver ſmelting furnaces, or from thoſe where gold and ſilver are purified with lead; but it is generally run into lead again, to ſerve for the ſame uſes. The litharge of the ſhops is from the copper-works. The greateſt quantities are brought from Sweden, Germany, and Denmark; Poland furniſhes ſome, as alſo our own country, but the Dantzic kind is moſt eſteemed. The beſt is the moſt calcined, and of the livelieſt colour. It is ſoluble in oil and unctuous ſubſtances, making the baſis of moſt of the ointments and plaiſters of the ſhops. The beſt way of preparing it, is to grind it in a mortar with water, which pour off thick, adding freſh to the remainder, 'till all the litharge is waſhed off, and the fæces only remain. The litharge ſubſiding from theſe liquors is to be kept for uſe, after carefully drying it.

BURNT LEAD.

Cut a quantity of the thinneſt milled lead that can be got, into ſmall plates, with which fill an earthen veſſel that will bear the fire, and, with powder of brimſtone, laid layer upon layer; when the ſulphur is burnt away, the lead will be in a blackiſh powder: five ounces of brimſtone ſuffice for half a pound of lead. Stir the matter while on the fire, and, when cold, waſh the powder in three or four waters. It is uſed externally as the litharge: mixed with lard alone, it makes a good unguent for the piles.

WHITE LEAD, or CERUSSE,

Is a calx of lead, made by the vapour of vinegar. The uſual way of making it is by covering an earthen veſſel, in which is ſome ſharp vinegar, with a plate of lead, and ſetting it in a place gently warm; in 10 or 14 days it converts it moſtly into this white matter, which ſeparate for uſe.

But a much better way is recommended by Boerhaave. Cut a glaſs cucurbit in ſuch a manner as to leave a very large mouth, to which fit a glaſs helm; put ſome vinegar in the body, and a number of thin plates of lead in the head, ſo as they may ſtand ſomewhat erect. Set in a gentle ſand-heat for 12 hours, and, after letting cool 12 hours more, unlute the veſſel; the receiver will contain a ſweet and ſtyptic liquor, nauſeous and turbid, and the lead will be covered with ceruſſe.

The ſame proceſs, uſed with iron or copper, converts them alſo into a calx, that of iron being red, and the copper green.

Ceruſſe is of great uſe externally, either in unguents, or uſed dry, ſprinkling it on old ulcers, running ſores, and many cutaneous diſeaſes.

The finer part of this calx cauſes, in thoſe who grind and prepare it, violent and incurable aſthmas, palſies, and other nervous complaints.

Painters uſe it in great quantities; and, to afford it them cheap, it is generally adulterated with common whiting. The Engliſh and Dutch ceruſſe are very bad in this reſpect; the Venetian ought always to be uſed by the apothecaries.

SACCHARUM SATURNI.

Put into a large glaſs cucurbit any quantity of true Venetian ceruſſe, on which pour twenty times it's weight of diſtilled vinegar; boil three or four hours in a ſand-heat; when ſettled, pour off the clear liquor, and add more vinegar to the remainder: repeat the operation with freſh vinegar, 'till the ceruſſe is nearly all diſſolved. Mix the liquors, and evaporate part, if to be kept under this form. If the ſalt of lead is to be prepared, inſpiſſate in a ſand-heat, to the thickneſs of oil, and ſet it in a cool place for the ſalts to ſhoot. Pour off the liquor, and dry the cake of ſalt in a gentle heat.

The vinegar of lead is uſed by ſome for pimples: an ointment may alſo be prepared from it, by mixing with oil of roſes, and working together ſome hours in a leaden mortar. This is called butter of lead, and is an excellent medicine, by way of liniment, for almoſt all kinds of eruptions.

The ſugar of lead is greatly recommended by ſome internally, in dyſenteries and hæmorrhages; but the generality condemn it, as containing all the poiſonous qualities of lead in their higheſt degree.

Externally it has been long famous for many virtues. It is good againſt inflammations of all kinds, and in collyria for the eyes, and in the eriſypelas: it deterges, dries, and cicatriſes ulcers, and in gonorrhœas is mixed in injections with great ſucceſs.

If one ounce of it, and two of oil of turpentine, be ſet in a ſand-heat, 'till the ſalt is diſſolved, the oil turns red, and is called balſam of lead. This is alſo an external medicine, of great note for it's effects in old and ſharp ulcers.

Remarks.

There are lead-mines in divers parts of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, and the Britiſh plantations, and in various other parts of Europe; but Great-Britain has larger plenty than moſt countries, and exports great quantities. Flintſhire and Derbyſhire are the two counties in England, which have been long famed for their lead-works; and that of the latter is generally eſteemed the beſt, as being the ſofteſt: the reaſon of which we aſcribe to it's being ſmelted in North Wales with pit coal fuel, and in Derbyſhire with wood fuel. For the method of aſſaying lead ores, ſee the article Assay.

The method of ſmelting lead ore at the great works, with pit-coal.

The ſmelting-houſes have large air-furnaces, in the form of ovens, with a kind of hopper in the center at top, wherein to put the ore. At one end is an open fire place, the breadth of the furnace, with large iron bars, wherein is put the pit coal; and at the other end is a large chimney flue, which draws the flame of the pit coal over the inward part of the furnace, and melts the ore.

To prepare the ore more eaſily for fuſion, they pound it, either with iron ſtampers, or by hand, and put it into the hopper before-mentioned: and, in order to ſeparate the ſparry, or ſtony and ſulphureous matter from the lead, they, for cheapneſs ſake, uſe burnt lime, in proportion to the quantity of ore to be ſmelted at a time; for the ſulphur of the lead has a natural tendency to vitrify the lime, and the ſtony or ſparry part of the ore, and to precipitate the lead: ſo that quick lime is eſteemed a proper flux [ſee Flux] for the generality of lead ores; but, as lead itſelf hath a tendency to vitrification, there is commonly a quantity of the lead turned into glaſs, as well as of the lime and ſpar, &c.—To prevent which, nothing has a better effect than to throw in, after the ore is melted, a ſmall quantity of billet-wood, or charcoal, the ſalts of whoſe aſhes the vitrified matter will inſtantly lay hold of, and thereby the greater quantity of lead will be precipitated, than with the mere pit-coal alone; and the lead will alſo become the purer and the ſofter, for the addition of a ſmall quantity of wood at the end of the ſmelting.

When all is thoroughly fuſed, and the lead as neatly precipitated as it can be in the great work, with theſe unexpenſive fluxes, there is a tap-hole, which is opened; out of which the lead runs, into the form of pigs, or bars, of fixed ſizes. And if the lead, by the aſſay, will yield ſilver ſufficient to pay the expences of refining, and to leave any reaſonable profit, the lead is then refined for it's ſilver, which is performed after the following manner.—A large teſt is made with bone or fern-aſhes, and fixed in an iron ring; which teſt will contain ſeveral tons of lead in fuſion: the lead is melted upon this teſt, with a reverberatory fire, and, when melted, is blown off with a large pair of bellows, that go either by hand or water, into litharge, and, at the ſame time, the ſilver is left or precipitated at the bottom of the teſt; and, if the refinement is carried on to the full extent, the ſilver will be as fine as ſilver can poſſibly be. After the ſilver is thus extracted from the litharge, that is reduced again into a body of lead, by being put into another furnace for that purpoſe, and melted down with pit-coal, and a ſmall quantity of wood fuel put into the furnace per contactum with the fuſed matter; for, the litharge being a kind of half-vitrified lead, the aſhes of the fuel hath, as before obſerved, a natural tendency to unvitrification.

And here the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that, after the lead is thus refined in the great works for it's ſilver, yet every particle of the litharge lead, when again reduced into a body of lead, contains ſilver, in an equal proportion; and, indeed, there is ſcarce any lead but what holds ſome ſmall proportion of ſilver, though the produce will not pay the expence of the extracting operation. But if, by any art, the whole quantity of ſilver, if ſuch a thing is poſſible, could be extracted in one ſingle, eaſy, and unexpenſive operation, as has been attempted by ſome, it might probably be of ſome additional advantage.

The method of ſmelting lead ore with wood fuel

Is much the ſame, in point of operation, as the preceding, with this difference, that the furnaces are open, and worked by bellows, inſtead of mere air, which go by water or by hand, and the fuel is conjoined with, or laid ſtratum ſuper ſtratum with the ore. After fuſion, it is tapped in the like manner as before deſcribed, and the lead is refined alſo, as before repreſented, with wood alone inſtead of pit-coal.

Lead ores, as well as all other kinds of ores, being of different qualities in point of their value, and more or leſs difficult of fuſibility, and in the ſeparation of their reſpective metals; they require as different methods of treatment in a large way of working, as they do in the aſſay.

There are very few inſtances of native lead exiſting naturally pure and malleable among other metals *.

* Some pure native malleable lead hath been found in New-England. What is commonly taken for native lead, is really a very rich, ſomewhat malleable, ſilver ore, of a lead colour. The vitrean ſilver ore is of an irregular, and altogether unſettled figure: it is very ponderous, eaſy to be flatted with the hammer, and to be cleft, not much harder than lead, and much of the ſame colour; it melts preſently, and ſoon grows red-hot. This is what is often taken for native lead. It conſiſts of ſulphur and of pure ſilver, which the regeneration of it, and the chemical analyſis ſhew: it contains above three quarter parts of ſilver. See the article Silver.

Gallena teſſulata, or the cubic dice-lead ore, is an ore very rich of lead, conſiſting of a quantity of ſmall equilateral cubes, or of oblong parallelopipeds. But theſe cubes are, as it were, compoſed of very thin, well poliſhed lamina's, that ſhine very bright, and are of a blackiſh blue colour. However, this ore is very ponderous, ſoft, and brittle; it is more fuſible than a great many other ores, though it requires a much greater fire to be melted than lead itſelf: the cauſe of which is, the abundance of ſulphur that lies hidden in the lead ore, and conſtitutes almoſt one quarter part of it. In a fuſion well managed, one hundred pounds weight of pure and ſolid lead ore, will yield from 65 to 70 pounds weight of lead.

If the foregoing ſort of lead ore conſiſts of ſmall, thin, oblong cubes *, when broken, it appears finely ſtriated.

* You will always ſee this cubical figure in this lead ore; nor was ever any other figure obſerved in it, except ſuch as had been given it by ſome external power or reſiſtance; for, even in this caſe, it has always the ſame form within. But lead ores are called by different names, according to the various either regular or irregular application of the cubes to each other, agreeably to their magnitude, and their brightneſs thereon depending, and to their ſurfaces, whether ſmooth or rough, and granulated. There is alſo a difference obſerved in them as to their colour, ſome being of a lighter and more bright colour, and others of a dark or blackiſh dye.

Lazarus Erker, page 161, mentions a red kind of lead ore, which he ſays is ponderous, and like red clay. But it has been found that this red mineral, which has been miſtaken for cinnabar, was nothing more than the lead ore, having here and there larger cubes, eaſy to be diſtinguiſhed by the eye, without any help; and an infinite number of very minute ones, not to be ſeen without a microſcope, and lying hidden in a red kind of marly earth: ſo that it does not conſtitute a particular ſpecies.

The ſame author mentions another lead ore, reſembling a white ſandy ſtone. There are alſo ſandy rocks now and then rich of lead, but, well examined, contain an ore not in the leaſt different from that laſt deſcribed. The rock which is commonly ſoft, and therefore does not deſerve to be called a rock, bears a true lead ore, which is irregular on the outſide, looks globular, and is filled, throughout the ſubſtance of the rock, with ſmall maſſes, of various ſizes, and not very bright; ſo that, when the rock is broken, there appears the perfect ſpecies of lead ore, the laſt but one deſcribed. Abundance of theſe are digged out of the mines at Braybach.

The ſtones that are of a lighter colour, eſpecially the flints, and their like *, when they are mixed with aſh or black colour, or only marked here and there with veins and ſpots of the like dye, thereby ſhew, that they contain either iron or lead in them.

* Some of them will melt in the greateſt heat of a wind-furnace, and are ſaid to be of the vitrifying kind, to which claſs they are referred.—All minerals hitherto known may be referred to ſix claſſes, viz. metals, ſemi-metals, ſalts, ſulphurs, ſtones, and earths. See Minerals.

The green lead ore is very rare, of a yellowiſh green colour, much varied, and half tranſparent. It varies it's figures, though it moſt commonly has that of ſpaad, ſhooting in form of nitre, but leſs regular. It is likewiſe ponderous, not hard, and, at the ſame time, very rapacious; nevertheleſs, 100 pounds weight of it yields from 70 to 80 pounds weight of lead. The white and aſh-coloured lead ores are looked upon as being like this, and are as rare.

The lead ores, hitherto mentioned, are never rendered refractory by a mixture of iron ore, or of the ſulphureous iron pyrites [ſee Pyrites], as are the other ores [ſee Ores]: for, unleſs the ore then contains iron, be naturally aſſociated to the lead ores, the major part of aſſayers, in order to roaſt them with greater care and benefit, commonly uſe an addition of iron, or of it's fuſible ſcoria's, that are ſtill reducible. However, the white arſenical pyrites, if worthy to be claſſed among ores,

ores, ought, in this caſe, to be excepted, on account of it's rapaciouſneſs, and it's refractory quality of the abundant caput mortuum that remains of it, after the arſenic has been blown away.

BLACK LEAD, is found in ſeveral parts of Europe and America; the wad-mines of Cumberland in England have it in heavy lumps, ſome of which are hard, ſtony, and of ſmall worth; others very ſoft, and of a fine grain and texture.

This mineral hath none of the properties of metal; it will not fuſe, but calcine in an intenſe fire; though there are ſome fluxes, perhaps, that would melt it. The mechanics, who work in iron, ſteel, and braſs, frequently uſe it, as well by way of poliſh as to eaſe the motion of the finer wheel-work; and quantities of it are wrought into pencils; though the conſumption is not very great.

LEAKAGE. There is an allowance of 12 per cent. in the cuſtoms, allowed to importers of wine, for the waſte and damage it is ſuppoſed to have received in the paſſage: an allowance of two barrels in twenty-two is alſo made to the brewers of ale and beer, by the exciſe officers. See the articles BREWERS and WINE, and the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, at the end of each letter.

LEASE, in law, a demiſe, or letting of lands, tenements, or hereditaments, unto another for life, term of years, or at will, for a rent reſerved.

The party who letts a leaſe is called the leſſor, the party to whom it is lett, the leſſee.

The buſineſs of leaſes taking into conſideration the calculation of annuities upon lives, and the uſe of tables of intereſt computed to anſwer the variety of caſes which may be required upon theſe occaſions; we have been pretty full upon the articles of ANNUITIES and INTEREST. With regard to the former of theſe heads, we have built on the foundation laid by the great Dr. Halley in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 196. and the calculus made by the method laid down by the ingenious Mr. Abr. De Moivre, in his Annuities on Lives. In relation alſo to the latter, we have given accurate tables of intereſt, both ſimple and compound, to ſeven decimal places, for 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$, 4, $4\frac{1}{2}$, and 5 per cent. with examples of the divers caſes, to which they are generally applied: theſe are neceſſary introductions to what we have to ſay under this head.

The former of theſe being algebraically inveſtigated, and therefore not intelligible by thoſe who are unacquainted with that admirable analytic art of reaſoning; we ſhall, on this article, endeavour to accommodate ourſelves to the ſkill of the arithmetician only; though what we have to ſay is founded on the very ſame principles, and will be more generally underſtood.

About 20 years ago, the doctrine of leaſes was warmly controverted by ſeveral ingenious gentlemen. The occaſion was ſome Tables calculated for renewing and purchaſing of the leaſes of cathedral churches and colleges, &c.—With the value of church and college leaſes conſidered, &c. ſaid to be wrote by Sir Iſaac Newton; but this, by ſome writers at that time, was denied: how juſtly I ſhall not enter into.

From the beſt judgment that I have been able to form of this delicate ſubject, I ſhall give the following ſtate of it for general uſe, according to the principles whereon they have been calculated, ſince the time of the learned Dr. Halley.

Our deſign being to reduce eſtates of all kinds, as near as may be, to their true value in caſh, by comparing them with annuities to continue a certain number of years, it will be neceſſary to explain what an annuity is: by which we mean a ſum of money to be paid yearly; and, if the ſame is to be continued a determined number of years, then 'tis an annuity for years certain; if it is to be continued as long as one, two, or three perſons, or either of them, ſhall continue in being, then it is an annuity for life, or lives.

As theſe yearly payments are frequently charged on eſtates as a ſecurity, ſo they may be incumbered with a part of the aſſeſſments on ſuch eſtates: an eſtate of 100l. per ann. may be bound for payment of 50 or 60l. a year: with the proviſo, that the annuitant allows out of the ſaid annuity, a proportionable part of the taxes, tythes, &c.—In ſuch caſe, we would reduce theſe outgoings to a certainty, as near as may be, and deduct the ſame out of the ſaid groſs annuity, calling the remainder only the nett annuity.

The next point to enquire is, whether, by rules certain, we can know how much ready money, at a given rate of intereſt, will, in the time of the annuity's continuance, amount to an equivalent for the ſaid annuity?

'Tis obvious, that, if a perſon advances a ſum of money, to receive an equivalent for it at one year's end, he muſt then receive, over and above the ſum laid out, one year's intereſt for the ſame: now the ſum to be received, and the intereſt expected, being ſettled, the money to be laid out will eaſily be found. Again: for the next year, the purchaſer muſt lay out no more for this, than a ſum which continued two years at compound intereſt would amount to the ſame annuity; and ſo on for the 3d, 4th, 5th, &c. years, as long as the annuity is to continue. Hence it is plain, that, where the yearly income, the rate of intereſt, and the number of years are fixed, the value of the annuity in ready money may be eaſily found; the method of doing which we ſhall ſhew hereafter.

Though the method of computing the value of an annuity, when the terms are thus fixed, is eaſy; yet frequently the fixing of the term is difficult, and not always poſſible; for in ſome caſes, the yearly income of an eſtate is hard to be found; in others, the rate of intereſt that the purchaſer ought to be allowed for the money he lays out, is ſomewhat uncertain: and the term that the purchaſer ſhall enjoy the income, is in ſome kind of tenures unknown: one or more of theſe perplexities happen in almoſt every query of this kind, according to the nature of the tenure by which the purchaſer is to hold the eſtate.

It is ſcarce poſſible to give an account of all the tenures that are amongſt us; ſecundum conſuetudinem manerii, inſerted in the copies of court rolls, refer to cuſtoms different in almoſt every manor: we, therefore, ſhall only remark thoſe which are general. As 1. Eſtates in fee. Under this head we may range thoſe held by leaſe for a long term, under ſmall rents; for, though the nature of the tenure be different, yet is the real value of them near the ſame, as appears by comparing the preſent value of an annuity to continue 200 years, with the value of the ſame in fee, at 4, 5, 6, &c. per cent. intereſt.

The difficulty in valuing theſe eſtates lies, firſt, in aſcertaining the yearly income likely to be produced by them, and the yearly outgoings in rates, taxes, repairs, &c. (aſſeſſment on land only excepted, for that is alſo chargeable on money at intereſt). And, ſecondly, the rate of intereſt that the purchaſer may expect for the money he lays out, as the ſecurity for the eſtate and income are better or worſe than the common ſecurity for money at intereſt.

2. Another kind are ſuch eſtates as are held for terms abſolute, under divers conditions and reſervations of rents, &c.—Theſe are alſo reduced to annuities as the former, only the reſerved rent muſt be valued as an annuity to be deducted, and at a lower rate of intereſt than that of the rack-rent, in regard of the ſecurity for payment being better than that of the other.

3. Another ſort are copyhold lands; under which are included all church, college, dean, and chapter lands; ſome held for term of years, renewable at certain periods, for ſtated ſums of money; others for life or lives abſolute, renewable in like, or different manner with the former.

It is the cuſtom of ſome manors, that the widow of him that was tenant for life, hath a right of dower during widowhood; ſometimes of the whole, ſometimes of a moiety, the other moiety of the eſtate to the ſon. Theſe and divers other cuſtoms there are, which muſt be well conſidered, to find the real value of theſe tenures; and the income, rate of intereſt, and, in ſome caſes, time of continuance being dubious, muſt be fixed with judgment, if we would, with any degree of certainty, arrive at the juſt value.

4. Another kind of tenure is for a term of years, determinable on the death of one, two, or three perſons, with reſervation of rents, &c. Under this head may be included thoſe that hold by life, or lives abſolute; for, though this laſt be in the nature of a freehold, yet, as to the real value of ſuch eſtates, there is little difference betwixt that which is held for 99 years, if 1, 2, or 3 lives, or either of them live ſo long, and that which is held for the ſame lives abſolute: and the cautions, mentioned in copyhold eſtates for fixing the term, are alſo to be obſerved in theſe.

Under theſe general heads may be comprized all, or the moſt part of holdings, in uſe at preſent among us; all of which may, with due caution, be reduced to annuities of a known equal value; ſo may the reverſion of a term of years, or a life or lives, after an eſtate in eſſe, be computed by the ſame method.

Mr. De Moivre juſtly obſerves, 'that the method of calcu-
'lating the value of annuities upon lives, was never per-
'fectly underſtood before Dr. Halley's rules were made
'public.'

As to eſtates in fee ſimple, the vulgar method uſed, before Dr. Halley's time, for finding their value, is thus: divide 100l. by the rate of intereſt per annum, and take the quotient for the number of years value of the purchaſe in ready money: hence, after the yearly income is known (which with them is the rack-rent, excluſive of tythes, without any allowance for outgoings) there is no more to be done, but to multiply this yearly income by the ſaid quotient, and the product is eſteemed to be the value in caſh.

The fallacy of this way of computation will be obvious, if we conſider the conſequence: for inſtance, admit I were to purchaſe an eſtate of 100l. per ann. intereſt of money being at 5 per cent. Both parties can expect no other terms than theſe, by this method of reckoning: 100 divided by 5, the quotient is 20 years value the fee, which in caſh is 2000l. Now, admit that, out of this eſtate, I muſt pay 12l. per ann. parochial aſſeſſments (excluſive of the king's tax) and 3l. per ann. more for repairs; then it is plain, that I ſhall receive no more clear than 85l. for the income of my 2000l. To find what rate of intereſt I have for my money, let the rate be $= r$; then $\frac{100}{r} \times 85 = 2000$; conſequently $r = \frac{8500}{2000} = \frac{8,5}{2} = 4,25$; that is, 4 and $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

The

The common argument for this is, that a man would rather take 4½ per cent. on landed ſecurity, than 5 on the common ſecurity for money; this is plauſible, but it is a wrong way of compu.ing: let us ſuppoſe again, that the eſtate I would purchaſe were of the ſame yearly value (100 l.) as before, and that the price at which I muſt purchaſe be likewiſe 2000 l. admit alſo, that, in this latter, the outgoings be no more than 4 l. a year (as the caſe may be in different pariſhes and circumſtances): upon this ſuppoſition I have 96 l. per ann. income for my 2000 l. which is above 4 l. ¾ per cent. that is, 11 s. per cent. more than in the former caſe. So that upon the whole, by this way of computation, a man may purchaſe an annuity, in one place, of ⅛ yearly value more than he can in another, for the ſame ſum of money. And although the difference of theſe outgoings be ſometimes made a ground for cavil in the treaty, yet all that is ſaid about it, amounts to nothing concluſive on either ſide. But,

2. With reſpect to ſuch as hold for a certain number of years, the common method, if it be deficient in nothing elſe, is ſo in this reſpect, that no difference is made in the ſecurity for the rack-rent, and of that for the reſerved rent, rates, taxes, &c. The beſt of the uſual methods, for eſtimating the value, being to deduct the outgoings, and value the remainder as an annuity, for the number of years that the eſtate is to continue at legal intereſt: whereas a man may reaſonably expect more intereſt for laying out his money on ſuch a tenure, becauſe he binds and incumbers the whole eſtate for the payment of an annuity (for ſuch are the outgoings) thereby taking all caſualties upon himſelf. Thus if a man, for want of opportunity, keeps his money by him, he pays nothing out of what it would bring in, if it were at intereſt; it is different in this purchaſe; here the outgoings muſt be paid, whether the eſtate brings in any thing or no.

3. The ordinary valuation of copyhold eſtates was ſtill more fallacious than either of the former; thoſe who held for lives, no regard was had to the probabilities of life (a matter very conſiderable) neither was there any allowance made for the money paid out in a regular way: to inſtance ſome particulars: and, firſt, in valuing three lives abſolute (or 99 years determinable on 3 lives, which is the ſame to all intents, as to the value) the general rule was formerly, to reckon it as a leaſe of 21 years certain; which, by the tables for that purpoſe at 5 per cent. is worth, in ready money, 12,82 years value, and no more, for 3 lives; the firſt of which they eſteemed worth 6 years, the ſecond 4, and the third 2,82; ſo that to renew 2 lives, in reverſion of one, would coſt 7 years, or one in reverſion of 2, three years value: and this was the conſtant expectation, what age ſoever the life or lives in eſſe were of, at the time of renewing.

This way of computing was corrected by another, which is likewiſe, in ſeveral reſpects erroneous. For,

By this other method (which is ſtill in practice) a leaſe for one life may be reckoned equivalent to one of 9, 10, 11, or 12 years, &c.

That for two lives, at 17, 19, 21, or 23 years, &c.

That for three lives, as a leaſe of 24, 27, 30, or 33 years, &c.

Though this latter method is a little more plauſible than the former, by reaſon of the ſteward's liberty of chuſing which of theſe proportions he pleaſes, yet what analogy does this bear to the reaſon of the thing? For, if the different numbers are to be choſen according to the age or goodneſs of the lives, or the different value of the outgoings, or both, how do they bear any proportion to each other? At beſt, it is but groping in the dark; no one can give ſuch a reaſon for his choice as will weigh with an unprejudiced perſon, that the value thereby attained is juſt and reaſonable. By this method, at 6 per cent.

One life is worth 6,8, or 7,4, or 7,9, 8,4 years value.

Two lives are worth 10,5—11,2—11,8—12,3 years value.

Three lives are worth 12,5 — 13,2 — 13,8 — 14,3 years value.

This was always the rule, without any regard to the different ages of the lives, or the greater or leſs burden of the poor, &c. Whence it appears, that, when three lives are valued at 14 years, they value one in reverſion of two, at two years, two in reverſion of one, at ſix years, and the one life in poſſeſſion, at eight years purchaſe: if ever theſe numbers agree with the real value, it is by chance; as will more evidently appear, when we conſider the probabilities of life, and the value of the chances relating thereto.

Another particular under this head, is that of renewing leaſes for years, of church or college lands; wherein the advantage of the leſſees is very evidently made appear, by an anonymous author, who wrote in the year 1731 *, in a letter publiſhed to that purpoſe; at the end of which letter is a table †, for renewing any number of years lapſed in a leaſe for 21 years.

* This tract is intitled, The Value of Church and College Leaſes conſidered: And the advantage of the Leſſees made very apparent, dated July the 1ſt, 1718.

† A TABLE for the renewing of any number of years lapſed in a leaſe for 21 years.

Years lapſed.	11 l. 11 s. 8 d. ¼ per cent. Years.	Quarters.	Months.	Decimal parts	5 per cent. Years.	Quarters.	Months	Decimal parts.	6 per cent. Years.	Quarters.	Months.	Decimal parts	8 per cent. Years.	Quarters.	Months.	Decimal parts	10 per cent. Years.	Quarters.	Mo ths.	Decimal parts.
1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	3	0	1	0	5	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	6
2	0	0	2	5	0	2	2	8	0	2	1	2	0	1	2	0	0	1	1	4
3	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	5	0	3	2	2	0	2	1	7	0	1	2	3
4	0	0	1	2	7	1	2	0	5	1	1	0	4	0	3	1	7	0	0	2	1	5	8
5	0	0	2	1	6	1	3	2	8	1	2	1	8	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0		
6	0	3	0	0	2	1	2	3	2	0	0	6	1	1	2	5	1	0	0	4
7	1	0	0	0	2	3	2	0	2	1	2	6	1	3	0	3	1	1	0	3	5
8	1	0	2	0	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	9	2	0	1	4	1	2	0	3	5	0
9	1	1	2	5	3	3	2	4	3	1	1	5	2	1	2	8	1	3	1	5	0	8
10	1	2	2	7	4	2	0	1	3	3	1	5	2	3	1	5	2	0	1	6	0	6
11	2	0	0	3	5	0	1	1	4	1	1	8	3	1	0	7	2	2	0	7
12	2	1	1	3	5	2	2	5	4	3	2	5	3	3	0	2	2	3	1	0	7	3
13	2	2	2	8	6	1	1	2	5	2	0	6	4	1	0	2	3	1	0	8	4
14	3	0	1	8	7	0	0	3	6	0	2	1	4	3	0	7	3	3	0	9	4
15	3	2	1	3	7	2	2	8	6	3	1	1	5	1	1	7	4	1	0	9	5
16	4	0	1	5	8	1	2	8	7	2	0	6	6	0	0	2	4	3	1	2	6
17	4	2	2	5	9	1	0	2	8	1	0	5	6	2	2	4	5	1	2	7	6
18	5	1	1	3	10	0	1	1	9	0	1	0	7	1	2	2	6	0	1	9	7
19	6	0	0	9	10	3	2	4	9	3	2	1	8	0	2	8	6	3	1	9	8
20	6	3	1	5	11	3	1	3	10	3	0	8	9	0	1	1	7	2	2	8	9
Total value.	7	3	0	3	Tot. value.	12	3	0	8	Tot. value.	11	3	0	1	Tot: value.	10	0	0	2	Tot. value.	8	2	1	7

The cuſtomary method of doing this, is, to deduct the rent reſerved out of the rack-rent, and then one year's value is the fine for renewing ſeven years, now this method, compared with that uſed by the laity in ſuch caſes, will ſtand thus:

A leaſe for 7 years, in reverſion of another leaſe of 14 years in church or college lands, is ſold for - - - - - - - } 1 year's value.

A leaſe for the ſame term, of other lands, at 6 per cent. is ſold for, and is really worth - } 2½ years value.

Thus it appears, that the former leſſors have not above ⅔ of the value of what they ſell. The before-mentioned author hath made it plainly appear, that the tenants in church lands have (when they renew their leaſes) after the rate of 11 l. 11 s. 8 d. ¼ per cent. intereſt for the money they lay out; which is ſuch a rate, as will fix on them the guilt of extortion in a high degree.

At the firſt view of this prepoſterous way of dealing, the public were much at a loſs to find what ſhould induce clergymen, fellows of colleges, &c. to give away, what they had ſo juſt a title to, from themſelves and families. But it ſeems to be cleared up by what was then urged by Mr. Richards.

'The reading the aforementioned letter, ſays he, confirmed 'the truth of the matter of fact, but then it gives no light 'into the reaſons of it's being ſo. The author ingeniouſly 'aggravates the guilt and ſhame of the oppreſſion, but how 'the landlords ſhould be induced to grant ſuch terms (if it 'be in their power to advance the fine) he is ſilent. It is 'certain, that the keeping the eſtates in hand would be more 'advantageous than to leaſe them out for leſs than half 'the value; and as it is as certain, that the tenants would 'advance at leaſt a part of what is under value, rather than 'refuſe a bargain that would ſtill be better than any the laity 'would grant them.

'To ſay, that, by following the rules fixed by their prede-'ceſſors of 180 years ago, they think they do themſelves and 'ſucceſſors juſtice, is to brand them with a degree of igno-'rance they cannot be poſſeſſed with. For the ſtatute of '37 Hen. VIII. was made to reduce intereſt of money to '10 per cent. which ſhews, that it was higher before that 'time; and hence, if this was the cuſtom of renewing theſe 'leaſes at this time, it carried reaſon with it: but why the 'cuſtom ſhould continue after the reaſon of it ceaſed, is ſtill 'to be accounted for.

'In order to explain this ſeeming paradox, the deans and 'chapters, fellows of colleges, &c. muſt be conſidered in a 'double capacity: firſt, as they are a ſociety, and, as ſuch, 'have a right to divers lands, with power to make and re-'new leaſes of theſe lands for a term of years: but then, ſe-'condly, in their private capacity, they have a right to the 'money brought in by theſe leaſes, to be diſpoſed of at their 'own will and pleaſure.

'And

'And now, if it can be made appear, that it is for the 'worldly advantage of the members of theſe ſocieties, in re-'gard to their private capacity, to keep the leaſes filled at 'this low rate, rather than let them run out, and thereby 'hazard their never having an opportunity to make any ad-'vantage to themſelves; I ſay, if this can be ſhewn, then 'I doubt not but every one will ſuſpect, that it is this god 'of the world, that tempts them to do a thing ſo prejudicial 'to themſelves as a ſociety.'

That the value of renewing or filling up theſe leaſes is different with reſpect to theſe different circumſtances, will appear by the ſolution of theſe following queries, viz.

Quere 1. What is the value of renewing 7 years lapſed in a leaſe of 21 years, at 5 per cent.?

The anſwer will be about three years value.

Quere 2. What is the value of renewing 7 years lapſed in a leaſe of 21, to continue, if one life ſhould ſo long happen to live, at 6 per cent.?

This to a man of about 50 years of age, by a rational computation deduced from the probabilities of life, is worth no more than one year's value.

Wherefore the man that receives one year's value for renewing ſuch a lapſe, receives as much as it is worth on the chance of his own life; (and he can enjoy it no longer, if it falls into his hands): but, as the leaſe is good for the term abſolute, the leſſor grants away the right of his ſucceſſors; theſe ſucceſſors do the like by the next, and ſo on, and have nothing for it. And this they chuſe to do only, or chiefly, it ſeems, becauſe the tenants are obſtinate, and will not break through a cuſtom that is ſo profitable to them, altho' the reaſon for eſtabliſhing the cuſtom is ceaſed long ago.

We ſhall now proceed to give ſome farther account of the abſurdities in the common method of valuing copyholds; but the cuſtoms of manors being ſo various, it would be endleſs to run through them all; we ſhall therefore proceed to the fourth ſort of tenures before-mentioned.

4. In theſe, eſtates for 99 years, determinable on the death of 1, 2, or 3 lives, the method of valuing is generally the ſame with thoſe on lives before-mentioned, and is conſequently liable to the ſame miſtakes. As this kind of tenure is very common, at leaſt in the weſtern counties, ſo the moſt care ought to be taken in adjuſting the value, and, if poſſible, ſuch rules laid down, as may include all the circumſtances, viz. all the incumbrances of rates, taxes, repairs, high rents, &c. and all the caſualties; which are different, according to the quality and ſituation of the eſtate. All theſe ſhould be duly conſidered, and a proper allowance made, before the value of the leaſe can be determined.

That the common way of eſtimation doth not provide for theſe differences in any regular manner is evident, and therefore muſt of neceſſity be deficient on that account.

Previous to the aſcertaining the value of leaſes, it will be neceſſary to have a right underſtanding of the following particulars:

1. The nature of the tenure, and term of continuance (as near as may be) of the eſtate to be purchaſed; and whether the lord hath a full, or only a conditional power of granting it for ſuch a term.

2. The caſualties, incumbrances, and impoſitions that go along with the eſtate, and how far the poſſeſſor of the eſtate is liable to them.

3. The quality of the eſtate, as to the preſent condition of repair; what it will coſt to put the ſame in good repair, and how much per ann. afterwards to keep it in that condition, during the term to be purchaſed.

4. This rate of intereſt for money, together with the analogy that the common ſecurity for money lent bears to the ſecurity for the income of the eſtate to be purchaſed.

5. The yearly value. Here great care muſt be taken, that it be not fixed too high nor too low; for it is not always the rent that an eſtate is lett for, that is the value of it. A landlord may lett out an eſtate for more or leſs than it is really worth, according to the neceſſities or convenience of himſelf or tenant.

Beſides theſe, there may be other accidental circumſtances that attend particular tenures; but theſe being the principal, we ſhall take notice of them, and leave the leſs material to be conſidered by the parties concerned.

1. As to the nature of the tenure, enough hath been already ſaid: but the continuance of the term, which is often during 1, 2, or 3 lives, is a matter very precarious, becauſe nobody can tell how long theſe lives will continue in being: wherefore, ſince the certain knowledge of this is out of our reach, the beſt we can do is to inform ourſelves of the moſt probable conſequences in thoſe reſpects: and, though, in regard to theſe uncertainties, the buyer muſt be ſaid to purchaſe a chance, yet the real value of chances, as ſuch, may be found to a tolerable degree of certainty: to do which, let the following hypotheſis be aſſumed, viz.

'The probability that a life of any given age will con-'tinue in being, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. years, is exhibited by 'Dr. Halley's tables, publiſhed in the Philoſ. Tranſ. 'No. 196, or may be deduced therefrom.' See the article ANNUITIES.

Nobody will undertake to prove, that this is mathematically certain: for it is evident, that the nature of the thing will not admit of that degree of certainty. The deficiency that the learned doctor ſeemed to apprehend in it, was the want of a great number of years experience; but it will, we apprehend, cauſe but a ſmall error in the reſult, if the numbers in the doctor's table ſhould, on future experience, be a little varied. To proceed:

If the lord, from whom you purchaſe, has no more, or will grant no more than a conditional right, then the value of the hazard of ſuch conditions muſt be computed, whether it depend on a chance, or otherwiſe, and that ſum muſt be deducted as prudence ſhall direct.

2. By caſualties we underſtand ſuch unforeſeen accidents which an eſtate is expoſed to; as fire and inundation, whereby houſes are liable to be conſumed, wears, banks, &c. demoliſhed, and cattle deſtroyed, to which ſome eſtates are more liable than others. Beſide, is the eſtate likely to be always tenanted? Will it not be often changing tenants, which always brings a charge? If, on a ſcrutiny, the hazards that a perſon runs by the purchaſe be greater or leſs than the common hazard in lending money, a purchaſer muſt be allowed a proportionably greater or leſs intereſt for the money he thus lays out.

By the incumbrances and impoſitions that are inſeparably annexed to an eſtate, muſt be underſtood all tythes, rents, rates, taxes, harriots, ſuits, ſervices, &c. for the payment of which the eſtate is generally bound; conſequently, theſe muſt be valued as a rent charge, or clear annuity to be paid out, when, ſometimes at leaſt, the income of the eſtate, as being attended with ſome uncertainties, &c. muſt be reckoned at 1 or 2 per cent. more than theſe outgoings.

3. As to the quality of the eſtate, in regard to repair: herein the greateſt difficulty ſeems to lie; for the beſt that can be done is but gueſs-work, with reſpect to theſe diſburſements. If it be out of repair at the time you purchaſe, the beſt way will be, whether it be fields or houſes, or both, to procure men, well ſkilled in theſe matters, to compute the charge of putting it into tenantable condition: which charge ought to be deducted out of the value, and reckoned as ſo much money paid; ſo far the difficulty is ſurmounted.

But, as all eſtates will coſt money yearly to keep them in repair, theſe diſburſements alſo muſt be computed. Here again the judgment and experience of honeſt men muſt be your guide: for repairs of houſes, &c. are dearer in one place than another, ſo are they more expoſed to ſtorm, &c. in one place than another. Moreover, old houſes, though at firſt put into repair by the former ſuppoſition, are more chargeable in future repairs than thoſe of later building; and houſes, at firſt ſlightly built, are more chargeable than others of a more ſubſtantial ſtructure. Thus ſometimes it may be neceſſary, in eſtates which conſiſt chiefly of houſes, to allow $\frac{1}{3}$, at other times not above $\frac{1}{10}$ part of the annual income towards the repairs of theſe houſes.

If the right to timber-trees, coppice-woods, corn, &c. or the profits of mines, &c. are to be alſo transferred to the purchaſer, then, as to the former of theſe, they muſt be eſtimated at their preſent worth, and ſo much money added to the fine. In regard to mines, the clear yearly profit like to ariſe thereby, and the probable time of their continuance muſt be conſidered; and, the chances herein being more hazardous than others, perhaps the perſon that purchaſes may reaſonably expect a greater rate of intereſt for the money he lays out in theſe; therefore they muſt be ſeparately valued, and this value added to that of the eſtate before found.

4. We ſhall now conſider the rate of intereſt and ſecurity for money lent, and compare it with money laid out in lands, &c. The legal intereſt is 5 per cent. per annum. Though a perſon can lawfully take no more, yet he may lay out his money for leſs advantage: many who lend money by way of mortgage, or purchaſe land ſecurity, accept of 4 and under.

But, if a man lays out his money on an eſtate for life only, there is no reaſon why he ſhould not expect the legal intereſt, in regard of the uncertainty of the tenure, &c. And, indeed, he may a great deal more, if the eſtate purchaſed be houſes, or the like, where the calamities are many and great; ſuch as fire, damage by ſtorm, bad tenants, or perhaps none at all: in theſe caſes 6, 7, or even 8 per cent. may be little enough.—Of this more hereafter.

5. Becauſe the value of eſtates is to be computed from their yearly income, due care muſt be taken to aſcertain that. If the eſtate has not been lett at a yearly rent, the judgment of ſkilful honeſt men in the neighbourhood will be a good guide, as well in that as in regard to the value of all advantages and deficiencies; if it has been lett at a yearly rent, thoſe perſons can inform whether that was too much or too little, and why. By theſe means the value may be aſcertained, by which the worth of the fee, or leaſe for years or lives, may be computed. It is beſide neceſſary to be conſidered, whether the leſſee is bound to pay a harriot or farley, either abſolutely of each life, or conditionally, if the liver dies in courſe. In the firſt caſe, the probability of life being known, i. e. how long it is likely each life may continue in being, the value of the money, or

harriot, then to be paid, may, by the following tables, be found in ready money: and ſo of each life. In the ſecond caſe, the probability of the lives dying in courſe, together with the probability as to the number of years, as before, being found, by the rules and tables hereafter laid down, the value in ready money may thence be found; which ſums, ſo found, muſt be deducted out of the purchaſe-money.

Sometimes there is a condition in a leaſe for a certain ſum to be paid for renewing a life, in caſe one ſhould die within a time prefixed. Here the probability of all the lives living for that time being found, the value of ſuch a privilege to the leſſor, or leſſee, may be found. If there be any other conditions of this kind, we preſume, they may be reduced to ſome or other of theſe and the following caſes.—Before we proceed to the tables, it may be requiſite to ſay ſomething in general of REVERSION.

By which is meant that right to an eſtate which is to take place after the determination of a term of years, or lives, during which it is held by ſome former grant.—The queſtions that ariſe, in relation to theſe eſtates in poſſe, are ſuch as theſe:

1. What is the value of the fee, in reverſion of a certain number of years, or of a life or lives in being?

2. What is the value of a term of years, to commence after the expiration of another term of years certain?

3. What is the value of a term of years, or of one, two, or three lives, in reverſion for a life or lives in being, to be nominated either now, or at the end of the term in being?

4. Three perſons being to enjoy an eſtate by equal portions, during their joint lives, the remainder to the ſurvivor and ſurvivors, and what is the value of each man's right?

Theſe, and the like, are the queries that will ariſe about reverſions; and the ſolution of them will appear eaſy enough, if we conſider,

1. That the value of the eſtate in eſſe, added to the reverſion, is equal to the value of the fee in poſſeſſion: whence it is plain, that, ſubtracting the value of the preſent poſſeſſor's right out of the value of the fee ſimple, the remainder is the value of the reverſion in the firſt query.

2. Find the value of the term of years in eſſe, and then add the two terms together, and find the value of that whole term; the exceſs in value of that whole term, above the value of the eſtate in eſſe, is the value ſought in the ſecond query.

If in the third query, the life, or lives, in reverſion, be to be nominated at the time of taking, firſt find the value of a leaſe to continue during the term of all the lives, and from that value ſubtract that of the lives in eſſe; the remainder is the anſwer to the firſt part of the queſtion: but, if the lives are to be nominated at the expiration of the right in eſſe, find the probable duration of the preſent eſtate in years, and alſo the value of one, two, or three lives, in ready money; then (from the tables for that purpoſe) find how much this laſt ſum, payable at the end of the years before found, is worth in ready money alſo, rebate at 5 per cent. for this is the value required.

4. For a ſolution to the fourth queſtion, note, that each perſon has a right to one third of the value of their joint lives, and to half the value of the expectation, after the death of either of the other two, and alſo to the whole value of the expectation, after the death of both the others; which three ſums, added together, give the value for each. The value of two or three joint lives is found by the tables for that purpoſe, which follow.

Theſe tables, for the more eaſy computing the value of annuities upon lives, are, as before obſerved, the reſult of thoſe obſervations publiſhed by Dr. Halley, and are calculated according to the method laid down by Mr. Abraham De Moivre, in his treatiſe intitled Annuities upon Lives, &c.

But, before we proceed to theſe, it may be proper to give the reader here a table for finding the value of an annuity for years certain, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

LEA

Though the following tables are calculated ſome for every 5th, and ſome but for every 10th year of age; yet, it is preſumed, that the common known method of equating will accommodate them, as well to any other year of age, as to any intermediate rate of intereſt.

TABLE I.

Shewing the value of an annuity, in years and decimal parts, for any number of years not exceeding 100, at the rate of 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 per cent.

Years of continuance.	4 per cent. Value in years.	5 per cent. Value in years.	6 per cent. Value in years.	7 per cent. Value in years.	8 per cent. Value in years.
1	0.98	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.92
2	1.88	1.86	1.83	1.81	1.78
3	2.79	2.72	2.67	2.62	2.58
4	3.61	3.55	3.46	3.39	3.31
5	4.44	4.33	4.21	4.10	3.99
6	5.23	5.07	4.92	4.77	4.62
7	5.99	5.79	5.58	5.39	5.21
8	6.57	6.46	6.21	5.97	5.75
9	7.42	7.11	6.80	6.51	6.25
10	8.09	7.72	7.36	7.02	6.71
11	8.75	8.31	7.89	7.50	7.14
12	9.37	8.86	8.38	7.94	7.54
13	9.97	9.39	8.85	8.36	7.90
14	10.55	9.90	9.29	8.74	8.24
15	11.10	10.38	9.71	9.11	8.56
16	11.60	10.84	10.15	9.45	8.85
17	12.15	11.27	10.47	9.76	9.12
18	12.64	11.69	10.83	10.06	9.37
19	13.12	12.08	11.16	10.33	9.60
20	13.57	12.46	11.47	10.59	9.82
21	14.01	12.82	11.76	10.83	10.02
22	14.43	13.16	12.04	11.06	10.20
23	14.84	13.49	12.30	11.27	10.37
24	15.25	13.80	12.55	11.47	10.53
25	15.60	14.09	12.78	11.65	10.67
26	15.96	14.37	13.00	11.83	10.81
27	16.31	14.64	13.21	11.99	10.93
28	16.64	14.90	13.40	12.14	11.05
29	16.97	15.14	13.59	12.28	11.16
30	17.27	15.37	13.76	12.41	11.26
31	17.57	15.59	13 93	12.55	11.35
40	19.78	17.08	15.03	13.39	11.91
50	21.47	18.25	15.67	13.83	12.17
60	22.61	18.93	16.17	14.00	12.34
70	23.39	19.34	16.34	14.11	12.42
80	23.90	19.58	16.50	14.15	12.46
90	24.26	19.75	16.59	14.18	12.47
100	24.50	19.85	16.64	14.20	12.48
The fee ſim.	25	20	16.66	14.29	12.50

In this, and the following tables, the numbers at the left-hand of the points are years, and the remaining figures are decimals of a year. I ſuppoſe there will be no difficulty to underſtand the value of theſe decimal parts; but, if there ſhould, it may be very uſeful, to ſuch as are wholly unacquainted with decimals, only to take the half of the decimal, and reckon it for ſo many weeks: thus, againſt 40 years of continuance, you will find, under 4 per cent. 19.78; the 19 ſhews ſo many years, and the half of 78, being 39, ſhews ſo many weeks: therefore an annuity for 40 years is worth 19 years 39 weeks, or, rather, 19 years 10 months purchaſe nearly. See the articles ARITHMETIC and INTEREST.

TABLE II.

Shewing the preſent value of 1 l. payable at any number of years hence under 100, at 5, 6, 7, or 8 per cent. viz.

Years.	Value at 5 per cent. in parts.	Value at 6 per cent. in parts.	Value at 7 per cent. in parts.	Value at 8 per cent. in parts.
1	·95	·94	·93	·92
2	·91	·89	·87	·86
3	·86	·84	·82	·79
4	·82	·79	·76	·74
5	·78	·75	·71	·68
6	·75	·71	·67	·63
7	·71	·67	·62	·58
8	·68	·63	·58	·54
9	·64	·59	·54	·50
10	·61	·56	·51	·46
11	·58	·53	·47	·43
12	·56	·50	·44	·40
13	·53	·47	·41	·37
14	·51	·44	·39	·34
15	·48	·42	·36	·32
16	·46	·39	·34	·29
17	·44	·37	·32	·27
18	·42	·35	·30	·25
19	·40	·33	·28	·23
20	·38	·31	·26	·21
21	·36	·29	·24	·20
22	·34	·28	·22	·18
23	·32	·26	·21	·17
24	·31	·25	·20	·16
25	·29	·23	·18	·15
26	·28	·22	·17	·13
27	·27	·21	·16	·12
28	·25	·19	·15	·11
29	·24	·18	·14	·11
30	·23	·17	·13	·10
35	·18	·13	·09	·07
40	·14	·10	·07	·05
50	·09	·05	·03	·02
60	·05	·03	·02	·01
70	·03	·017	·008	·004
80	·02	·009	·004	·002
90	·012	·005	·002	·001
100	·008	·003	·001	·0004

I ſuppoſe that an example or two will render the finding the value of theſe parts in money very eaſy.

Thus: againſt 15 years, and under 5 per cent. is - .48
Multiply theſe parts by - - - 20

In the parts given are two figures at the right-hand of the point, therefore cut off two figures in the product, and the remaining figure to the left-hand is ſhillings - - - - - } 9.60

Again: multiply theſe parts by - - - - 12

And cut off, as before, then the figures at the left-hand are pence - - - - } 7.20

Hence the parts 48 is the ſame with 9 s. 7 d. $\frac{2}{10}$.

Again: oppoſite to 70 years, under 7 per cent. is - .008
20

00.160
12

1.920

Hence the value in money is 1 d. $\frac{9}{10}$, &c.

TABLE III.

Shewing the value (in years and decimal parts) of annuities to continue 7, 10, 14, or 21 years, if a perſon of a given age live ſo long, calculated to every 10th year of age, at 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Annuity for 7 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	5.11	4.94	4.77	4.62
7	5.43	5.24	5.06	4.88
12	5.59	5.40	5.21	5.04
22	5.55	5.36	5.18	5.00
32	5.42	5.24	5.06	4.88
42	5.27	5.10	4.92	4.74
52	5.07	4.91	4.76	4.59
62	4.80	4.64	4.38	4.13
72	3.92	3.80	3.69	3.58
79	2.64	2.58	2.52	2.46

Annuity for 10 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	6.75	6.45	6.18	5.91
7	7.15	6.83	6.53	6.24
12	7.36	7.02	6.70	6.40
22	7.24	6.91	6.50	6.31
32	7.05	6.73	6.43	6 15
42	6.77	6.47	6.19	5.92
52	6.48	6.20	5.93	5.68
62	5.91	5.66	5.42	5.20
72	4.70	4.55	4.36	4.21
82	1.38	1.36	1.34	1.32

Annuity for 14 years on a life.

2	8.58	8.12	7.72	7.21
7	9.21	8.68	8.23	7.69
12	9.27	8.73	8.28	7.75
22	9.04	8.51	8.10	7.50
32	8.70	8.21	7.81	7.30
42	8.24	7.80	7.43	6.94
52	7.76	7.36	7.02	6.56
62	6.78	6.28	6.17	5.76
72	5.08	4.94	4.74	4.56

Annuity for 21 years on a life.

2	11.00	10.16	9.41	8.75
7	11.63	10.70	9.90	9.18
12	11.60	10.67	9.87	9.16
22	11.18	10.30	9.55	8.86
32	10.60	9 80	9.10	8.46
42	9.98	9.24	8 61	8.03
52	8.99	8.42	7.88	7.39
62	7.77	7.26	6.86	6.47
65	7.18	6.77	6.40	6.06

TABLE IV.

Of the value of an annuity for one life, calculated to every fifth year of age, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Age.	Value at 4 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 5 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 6 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 7 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	15.28	13.56	11.92	10.59	9.64
7	17.32	15.30	13.42	11.79	10.69
12	17.20	15.23	13.36	11.72	10.67
17	16.68	14.73	12.99	11.47	10.46
22	16.05	14.14	12.54	11.14	10.17
27	15.18	13.46	11.97	10.73	9.78
32	14.30	12.79	11.47	10.38	9.46
37	13.40	12.10	10.90	9.90	9.07
42	12.50	11.27	10.24	9.37	8 62
47	11.58	10.49	9.58	8.82	8.16
52	10.50	9.65	8.91	8.25	7.68
57	9.31	8.70	8.11	7.58	7.10
62	8.04	7.53	7.08	6.66	6.29
67	6.53	6.21	5.90	5.60	5.32
72	5.21	4.98	4.78	4 56	4.38
77	3.52	3.40	3.29	3.19	3.09
82	1.41	1.38	1.36	1.34	1.32

TABLE V.

Of the value of an annuity for two joint lives (to continue 'till one of them dies) of equal ages, calculated to every fifth year of age, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Age.	Value at 4 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 5 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 6 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 7 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	10.89	10.04	9.24	8.50	7.84
7	13.04	12.08	11.16	10.26	9.37
12	13.01	12.05	11.13	10.22	9 32
17	12.36	11.42	10.60	9.76	8 95
22	11.64	10.80	10.00	9.24	8.53
27	10.80	10.12	9 43	8.73	8.04
32	9.94	9 41	8.83	8.19	7.49
37	9.07	8.61	8.12	7.58	7.01
42	8.21	7.78	7.36	6.94	6.52
47	7.37	7.02	6.69	6.36	6.02
52	6.52	6.26	6.00	5.75	5.49
57	5.58	5.44	5.25	5.04	4.84
62	4.63	4.53	4.42	4.27	4.10
67	3.70	3.63	3.56	3.48	3.40
72	2.73	2.68	2.60	2.58	2.53
77	1.68	1.66	1.64	1.62	1.60
82	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.53	0.53

TABLE VI.

Shewing the value of annuities for two joint lives of any ages (that is to continue 'till one of them dies) calculated to every 10th year of either of their ages, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

One life 2 years old.

Age.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
2	10.89	10.04	9.24	8.50	7.84
12	11.88	10.99	10.11	9.28	8.48
22	11.28	10.40	9.60	8.87	8.21
32	10.37	9.68	9.01	8.35	7.67
42	9.36	8.77	8.19	7.62	7.07
52	8.17	7.74	7.31	6.88	6 45
62	6.59	6.29	5.99	5.70	5.41
72	4.52	4.37	4.22	4.07	3.93
82	1.33	1.31	1.29	1.27	1.25

One life 12 years old.

12	13.01	12.05	11.13	10 22	9.32
22	12.37	11.41	10.50	9.67	8.88
32	11.27	10.96	9.84	9.11	8.39
42	10.52	9.47	8 84	8.22	7.64
52	8.73	8.39	7.84	7.38	6.91
62	6.94	6.68	6.39	6.08	5.75
72	4.71	4.57	4.42	4.26	4.10
82	1.35	1.34	1.32	1.30	1.28

One life 22 years old.

22	11.64	10.80	10.00	9.24	8.53
32	10.82	10.09	9.11	8.73	8.05
42	9.65	9.22	8.45	7.92	7.45
52	8.42	8.00	7.55	7.12	6.67
62	6.71	6.43	6.15	5.88	5.61
72	4.58	4.45	4.32	4.20	4.09
82	1.44	1.33	1.31	1.29	1.27

One life 32 years old.

32	9.94	9.41	8.83	8.19	7.49
42	8.97	8.54	8.03	7.53	7.04
52	7.89	7.54	7.19	6.78	6.38
62	6.39	6.14	5.89	5.62	5.35
72	4.43	4.31	4.18	4.03	3.88
82	1.31	1.30	1.28	1.26	1.25

One life 42 years old.

42	8.21	7.78	7.36	6.94	6.52
52	7.26	6.92	6.58	6.25	5.96
62	5.93	5.71	5.49	5.29	5.09
72	4.27	4.12	3.96	3.81	3.71
82	1.28	1.27	1.25	1.24	1.23

One life 52 years old.

52	6.52	6.26	6.00	5.75	5.49
62	5.42	5.24	5.06	4.88	4.70
72	3.92	3.83	3.73	3.63	3.50
82	1.25	1.23	1.22	1.20	1.19

One life 62 years old.

62	4.63	4.53	4.42	4.27	4.10
72	3.46	3.38	3.30	3.21	3.13
82	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.14	1.12

One life 72 years old.

72	2.73	2.68	2.63	2.58	2.52
82	1.04	1.03	1.03	1.01	1.00

One life 82 years old.

82	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.53	0.53

The uſe of the foregoing table is very eaſy: for, the age of one of the lives being found at the top, and that of the other in the left-hand column (as is uſual in ſuch-like tables) right againſt it, under the proper rate of intereſt, you will find the value of the annuity, in years and decimal parts; which decimal parts may be reduced to months or weeks, by the foregoing rules laid down under Tab. I.

TABLE VII.

Wherein is ſhewn the value of an annuity for three joint lives, in years and decimal parts, calculated to every tenth year of either of the ages, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

2d life. Two years old. | 3d life.

One life 2 years old.

3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
2	8.44	7.97	7.49	7.01	6.53
12	9 03	8.60	8.11	7.60	7.11
22	8.69	8.21	7.73	7.26	6.80
32	8.17	7.87	7.50	7.09	6.44
42	7.49	7.25	6.90	6.52	6.04
52	6.69	6.44	6.13	5.85	5.54
62	5 55	5.31	5 06	4.92	4 75
72	3.98	3.89	3.78	3.67	3.53
82	1.25	1.23	1.21	1.20	1 18

2d life. 12 years old. | 3d life.

One life 2 years old, continued.

3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
12	9.70	9 23	8.75	8.21	7.58
22	9 31	8.85	8 37	7.85	7.30
32	8.66	8 28	7.89	7.43	6.92
42	7 94	7 60	7.24	6 86	6.46
52	7.04	6.79	6.50	6.28	5 88
62	5.82	5.65	5.46	5.24	4.98
72	4.12	4.04	3.93	3.82	3.68
82	1.28	1.27	1.27	1 26	1.25

2d life. 22 years old. | 3d life.

22	8.94	8.50	8.04	7.58	7.05
32	8 35	8 00	7.61	7.19	6.72
42	7.67	7.33	6.98	6.63	6.26
52	6 84	6.60	6.31	6.04	5.71
62	5 66	5.50	5.31	5.12	4.89
72	4.04	3.96	3.86	3.75	3.61
82	1.27	1.25	1.23	1.22	1.21

2d life. 32 years old. | 3d life.

32	7.82	7.56	7.25	6.85	6.37
42	7.24	6.95	6.63	6.31	5.95
52	6.48	6.28	6 08	5.80	5.48
62	5.39	5.26	5.11	4.94	4.70
72	3.91	3.83	3.74	3.64	3.51
82	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.19

2d life. 42 years old. | 3d life.

42	6.71	6.44	6.16	5.88	5.60
52	6.06	5.86	5.63	5.42	5.17
62	5.09	4.95	4.81	4.59	4.43
72	3.72	3.65	3.57	3.48	3.36
82	1.22	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.16

2d life. 52 | 62 | 72 | 82 | 3d life.

52	5.50	5.37	5.21	5.03	4.79
62	4.68	4 59	4.47	4 33	4.16
72	3.49	3.43	3.36	3.28	3.19
82	1.18	1.17	1.15	1.14	1.13
62	4.07	3.99	3.90	3.80	3.68
72	3.12	3.07	3.02	2.97	2.91
82	1.12	1.11	1.10	1.09	1.08
72	2.50	2.47	2 43	2.39	2.33
82	0.99	0 98	0.96	0.95	0.94
82	0.53	0.52	0 52	0 51	0.50

One life 12 years old.

12	10.44	10.00	9.50	8.94	8.24
22	10.01	9.58	9.09	8.58	7.95
32	9.28	8.94	8.55	8.07	7.48
42	8.45	8.15	7.78	7.37	6.89
52	7.46	7.22	6.90	6.64	6.26
62	6.07	5.93	5.75	5.55	5.30
72	4.27	4.20	4.11	3.99	3.85
82	1.29	1.28	1.27	1.26	1.24

12 years old. | 22 years old. | 3d life.

22	9.60	9.18	8.71	8.27	7.61
32	8.93	8.60	8.21	7.76	7.26
42	8.15	7.83	7.47	7.12	6.69
52	7.24	6.99	6.71	6.42	6.08
62	5.91	5.77	5.60	5.42	5.19
72	4.18	4.10	4.01	3.90	3.77
82	1.29	1.28	1.26	1.25	1.23

12 years old. | 32 years old. | 3d life.

32	8.32	8.06	7.74	7.33	6.88
42	7.64	7.40	7.11	6.77	6.38
52	6.82	6.64	6.41	6.13	5.80
62	5.55	5.48	5.37	5.19	4.96
72	4.03	3.98	3.92	3.82	3.66
82	1.27	1.26	1.24	1.22	1.21

12 years old. | 42 years old. | 3d life.

42	7.09	6.83	6.56	6.28	5.95
52	6.36	6.18	5.96	5.73	5.48
62	5.33	5.20	5.04	4.88	4.69
72	3.85	3.79	3.71	3.62	3.50
82	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.20

12 years old. | 52 | 62 | 72 | 82 | 3d life.

52	5.76	5.63	5.47	5.29	5.15
62	4.88	4.78	4.66	4.53	4.38
72	3.61	3.55	3.49	3.41	3.31
82	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.16
62	4.22	4.15	4.07	3.97	3.85
72	3.20	3.16	3.11	3.06	3.00
82	1.14	1.13	1.12	1.11	1.09
72	2.56	2.53	2.49	2.46	2.41
82	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97
82	0.54	0.53	0.53	0.52	0.51

One life 22 years.

22	9.20	8.80	8.33	7.88	7.35
32	8.58	8.25	7.85	7.42	6.95
42	7.88	7.57	7.21	6.86	6.46
52	7.11	6.88	6.50	6.23	5.92
62	5.77	5.62	5.43	5.26	5.03
72	4.10	4.01	3.91	3.87	3.70
82	1.27	1.26	1.25	1.24	1.22

22 years old. | 32 years old. | 3d life.

32	8.03	7.78	7.48	7.08	6.59
42	7.41	7.14	6.84	6.53	6.17
52	6.63	6.44	6.21	5.95	6.66
62	5.44	5.35	5.22	5.06	4.84
72	3.95	3.89	3.81	3.71	3.59
82	1.25	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21

22 years old. | 42 years old. | 3d life.

42	6.99	6.66	6.34	6.05	5.77
52	6.17	5.98	5.75	5.56	5.33
62	5.19	5.06	4.91	4.76	4.58
72	3.78	3.71	3.63	3.54	3.43
82	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.19	1.18

One

LEA

One life 22 years old, continued.

2d life.	3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
52	52	5.61	5.46	5.30	5.13	4.93
	62	4.77	4.67	4.56	4.44	4.28
	72	3.53	3.48	3.42	3.36	3.28
	82	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.15
62	62	4.14	4.06	3.97	3.88	3.77
	72	3.16	3.11	3.06	3.00	2.93
	82	1.12	1.11	1.11	1.10	1.09
72	72	2.53	2.49	2.45	2.42	2.38
	82	1.00	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96
82	82	0.53	0.52	0.51	0.51	0.51

One life 32 years old.

32 years old.	32	7.55	7.35	7.09	6.77	6.25
	42	6.96	6.76	6.52	6.25	5.87
	52	6.27	6.12	5.93	5.71	5.42
	62	5.26	5.16	5.03	4.88	4.60
	72	3.83	3.77	3.70	3.61	3.48
	82	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.20	1.19
42	42	6.49	6.27	6.03	5.79	5.53
	52	5.87	5.70	5.51	5.33	5.11
	62	4.96	4.85	4.72	4.58	4.42
	72	3.65	3.60	3.53	3.42	3.29
	82	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.16
52	52	5.34	5.24	5.12	4.95	4.74
	62	4.58	4.50	4.40	4.28	4.14
	72	3.42	3.38	3.33	3.26	3.16
	82	1.17	1.16	1.15	1.14	1.13
62	62	3.98	3.92	3.85	3.77	3.66
	72	3.06	3.03	2.99	2.94	2.86
	82	1.11	1.10	1.09	1.08	1.07
72	72	2.46	2.44	2.41	2.38	2.33
	82	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.94
82	82	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.53	0.52

One life 42 years old.

42 years old.	42	6.07	5.88	5.66	5.45	5.22
	52	5.43	5.33	5.20	5.03	4.83
	62	4.70	4.59	4.46	4.35	4.21
	72	3.49	3.44	3.37	3.30	3.21
	82	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.15	1.13
52	52	5.05	4.88	4.71	4.58	4.44
	62	4.33	4.29	4.25	4.20	4.14
	72	3.28	3.23	3.18	3.13	3.04
	82	1.15	1.14	1.13	1.12	1.11
62	62	3.81	3.74	3.67	3.60	3.50
	72	2.95	2.91	2.87	2.82	2.76
	82	1.08	1.07	1.06	1.05	1.04
72	72	2.39	2.36	2.33	2.30	2.25
	82	0.96	0.96	0.95	0 94	0.93
82	82	0.52	0.51	0.51	0.50	0.49

One life 52 years old.

52	52	4.65	4.57	4.46	4.35	4.20
	62	4.04	3.98	3.90	3.82	3.71
	72	3.10	3.06	3.02	2.96	2.89
	82	1.12	1.11	1.10	1.09	1.08
62	62	3.57	3.52	3.45	3.39	3.31
	72	2.79	2.76	2.73	2.69	2.63
	82	1.05	1.04	1.04	1.03	1.02
72	72	2.28	2.26	2.23	2.20	2.16
	82	0 84	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.90
82	82	0.51	0.50	0.50	0.49	0.48

One life 62 years old.

62	62	3.18	3.14	3.10	3.06	2.99
	72	2.54	2.52	2.49	2.46	2.41
	82	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97
72	72	2.09	2.08	2.06	2.04	2.01
	82	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.88	0.87
82	82	0.49	0.49	0.48	0.47	0.46

One life 72 years old.

72	72	1.76	1.75	1.73	1.71	1.68
	82	0.80	0.80	0.79	0.79	0.78
82	82	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.44

One life 82 years old.

82	82	0.28	0.28	0.27	0.27	0.27

The way of finding the value of lives of any ages, howſoever combined in the foregoing tables, cannot be difficult; for, if the age of any one of the lives be found at the top, then may the age of the other two be met with in the two left-hand columns; and the value of thoſe three joint lives is given in years and decimal parts, in the column under the given rate of intereſt. How to reduce thoſe decimal parts to weeks or months, hath been already ſhewn: we ſhall therefore proceed to the conſideration

Of annuities for years abſolute, &c.

We ſhall apply the preceding tables to this purpoſe, by giving examples in the peculiar caſes before-mentioned: in which we ſhall be particular in regard to the nature of the diſburſements, and to ſtart all objections that may ariſe on account of the precarioufnefs of the tenure.

Example I. There is an annuity of 40 l. payable to A clear of all outgoings, to continue for 30 years abſolute; for the payment of which he has ſecurity on lands of a much greater value, what is this worth in ready money, legal intereſt being 5 per cent.?

For ſolution to this it muſt be conſidered, that in regard the ſecurity for payment is better than the common ſecurity on money lent, and alſo that the aſſeſſment of 2, 3, or 4 s. in the pound on intereſt money is hereby ſaved (the 40 l. per ann. being, by ſuppoſition, to be paid clear of all outgoings) the purchaſer ought to be contented with leſs than legal intereſt, and, perhaps, all things duly weighed, 4. per cent. may be ſufficient intereſt, and agreed on.

This premiſed, in order to ſolve the queſtion, look into Table I. for the number of years in the firſt column, and right againſt it, under the rate of intereſt, viz. 4 per cent. you will find 17,27 decimals, which ſhews, that the annuity is worth ſo many years value: wherefore, 17,27 being multiplied by 40, the product is l. 690,8 = 16 s. the value ſought in ready money.

Suppoſe the annuitant be to allow his proportion towards the rates and aſſeſſments, and that theſe deductions, excluſive of the land-tax, amount to 2 l. 10 s. a year: in this caſe, if the annuitant be to pay his ſhare of the land-tax, it is reaſonable that he ſhould be allowed 4 l. 10 s. per cent. and the reſt of the outgoings being deducted out of the annuity 40 l. the remainder, viz. 37 l. 10 s. muſt be called the annuity.

Againſt 30 years in Tab. I. and under 4 per cent. is 17,27 decimals; and in the ſame table againſt 30, and under 5 per cent. is 15,37. The mean between theſe two numbers, viz. 16,32, is the number of years anſwering to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and this number multiplied by 37,5, or 37 l. 10 s. the product 612 is the value of the annuity required in the queſtion.

Example II. Admit the farm of —— were to be leaſed out for a term of 21 years, at the end of which, the tenant to yield it up in as good condition as he finds it.

Suppoſe the yearly value thereof, at a rack-rent, to be (the landlord paying tythes, and all outgoings, except the king's tax) 76 l. that can be made thereof: ſuppoſe alſo that thoſe tythes, chief rents, rates, and repairs, amount to 11 l. yearly; and ſuppoſe further, that the leſſor will reſerve 10 l. a year rent: now, granting that the caſualties, &c. to which it is expoſed, make it reaſonable that the purchaſer ſhould be allowed 6 per cent. for the money he lays out, what fine ought he to pay for the 21 years?

In this caſe it ſhould be conſidered, that, though the purchaſer may expect 6 per cent. for his money laid out on an eſtate thus encumbered, and ſubject to ſuch caſualties, yet as to the rates, tythes, chief rent and repairs, it being a tenure of the beſt kind, and liable to no deductions at all, it may be reaſonably reckoned at 4 per cent. and then the reſerved rent, being liable to the king's tax only, may be conſidered as an annuity at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Theſe things premiſed, the matter will ſtand thus:

The rack-rent is an annuity of 76 l. per ann. ſubject to divers incumbrances, caſualties, &c. and therefore, 6 per cent. intereſt, being allowed 21 years continuance, is worth per Tab. I. 11,76 years value, which amounts to 894 l.

Out of this, the parſon, the pariſh, the chief lord, &c. have an annuity paid clear, which (on the beſt computation that can be made of it) amounts to 11 l. yearly: this at 4 per cent. is worth per Tab. I. 14,01 years value, which in caſh amounts to 154 l.

The reſerved rent is an annuity of 10 l. yearly, ſubject to the king's tax only, and therefore to be valued at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which, per Tab. I. (due equation being made) is worth 13,41 years value, which in caſh amounts to 134 l.

Laſtly, If theſe two mentioned ſums of 154 l. and 134 l. be deducted out of the whole value, the remainder, or 506 l. is the ſum that ought to be paid by the purchaſer, for the grant of 21 years in the farm. Our being ſo very particular in this example will excuſe expatiating ſo largely again.

Example III. An eſtate in houſes containing divers tenements, to be lett for a term of 21 years; the whole yearly rent amounts to 50 l. the charge of putting the houſes in repairs is about 40 l. and of keeping them ſo during the term 7 l. per ann. the outgoings in rates, &c. 4 l. a year, rent reſerved 3 l. a year. In regard of the ſituation, caſualties, hazard of bad tenants, or of none at all, &c. the purchaſer ought to be allowed 7 l. per cent. Quere, What fine ought he to pay?

	l.	s.	d.
An annuity of 50 l. for 21 years at 7 per cent.	541	10	0
Out of which deduct			
An annuity of 11 l. for the ſame time, at 4 per cent. - - - - -	154	0	0
An annuity of 3 l. for 21 years, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	40	0	0
The charges of putting the ſame into repair -	40	0	0
The remainder, after theſe deductions, is the anſwer to the query - - - - -	307	10	0

Note, If it be conſidered that houſes are liable to accidents by fire, and that, where the eſtate (as in this inſtance) conſiſts of divers tenements, the charge of tenants always brings a charge of repairs with it, and very often loſs of rent: theſe things conſidered, 7 l. per cent. we apprehend, will be judged little enough to be allowed the purchaſer.

Example IV. Out of a leaſe for 30 years in an eſtate which is 6 per cent. coſts 700l. there is lapſed 17 years: what muſt be given at the ſame rate of intereſt, to renew the ſaid 17 years?

In Tab. I. againſt 30, and under 6 per cent. you find 13,76, by which dividing 700, the quotient is 50,85: this is the annuity, which was at firſt purchaſed for 700l.

The value of an annuity of 50l. 17 s. to continue 30 years at 6 per. cent. is - - - -	l. 700
The value for 13 years at the ſame rate, by the ſame table, is - - - - -	450
The remainder, after ſubtraction, is the ſum to be paid for renewing the 17 years lapſed - -	250

Example V. An eſtate in fields, only worth 70l. per ann. out of which is iſſued a chief rent of 11. per ann. and the rates and tythes thereof amount (excluſive of the king's tax) to 12 l. a year: what is the fee in reverſion of a leaſe of 40 years worth in ready money, the accidents and caſualties very few, or none at all?

Here the nett produce of the eſtate is 57 l. a year:

And 57 l. per ann. to continue for ever, is equal to a fee ſimple, if it were in poſſeſſion; which at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is - - - - -	l. 1267
The value of the leaſe for 40 years, by the tables and multiplication, is at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	1050
This laſt value, ſubtracted from the former, leaves the value of the reverſion - - -	217

In this laſt example, the ſecurity that the purchaſer has for the rack-rent, is near as good as that for the payment of the outgoings; on which account, the outgoings are firſt deducted from the yearly value, and the remainder is reckoned as an annuity: but, generally ſpeaking, it ought to be done otherwiſe, viz. by reckoning the whole rent as an annuity, to be received at a proper rate of intereſt, and then to compute the outgoings as near as poſſible, and to value that ſum as an annuity to be paid out; for which, generally, the rate of intereſt ought to be 10 s. and ſometimes 1 l. per cent. leſs than the legal intereſt on money.

Having given theſe cautions, we ſhall, in all that follows, call this laſt mentioned annuity, the ſum paid out: which ſhall include all rates, tythes, repairs, or the like diſburſements, which go along with the tenure; and which muſt be judiciouſly computed, before the juſt value of the purchaſe can be obtained.

In the preceding examples, a difference is made in the reſerved rent, and other outgoings; for this reaſon, that, when the reſerved rent amounts to 20 s. or upwards, the landlord is to allow the tenant a proportion towards the king's tax, and therefore $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. more ſhould be reckoned for it, than for clear annuities, ſuch as rates, tythes, repairs, &c.

Of Copyholds.

Method leads us next to ſhew, how, by the foregoing tables, the value of eſtates held from deans and chapters, colleges, &c. for terms of years, or for life or lives, renewable at certain periods on fixed conditions, or otherwiſe, may be found; and, to this purpoſe, the following examples may be acceptable.

Example I. A tenement of church lands of 30l. per. ann. rent, to be leaſed on the condition that the tenant pay at the end of every ſeven years 30 l. or one year's value for ever; what ought to be paid for the firſt purchaſe, the ſum paid out yearly 4 l. and the rate of intereſt to the purchaſer 6 per cent.?

Note, Though, perhaps, no biſhops, deans, or fellows of colleges, do or can grant their leaſes on ſuch abſolute conditions of renewing; yet, in effect, it is all one to the tenant; for they always think themſelves ſure of theſe terms, and the common practice has confirmed it: by this example, therefore, ſhall be ſhewn, how much they ought to pay for the firſt purchaſe.

The value of the fee at 6 per cent. is, by the foregoing tables, $16\frac{2}{3}$ years purchaſe - -	l. 500
Deduct the value of the ſum paid out at 4 per cent. 25 years - - - - - -	100
Remainder is the value of the eſtate in fee - -	400

For the value of the ſeptennial payment of 30l. per. Tab. I. an annuity of 1 l. to continue 7 years at 4 per cent. is worth 5,99, and per Tab. II. the preſent value of 1 l. to be paid at the end of 7 years, is (at 4 per cent.) .760. Wherefore, dividing .760 by 5,99, the quotient .1269, being multiplied by 30, produces 3,84 = 3 l. 16 s. 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. This is the ſum that may be paid yearly as an equivalent for the 30 l. that is to be paid at the end of every 7 years: conſequently, an annuity of that value to continue for ever, muſt be deducted out of the value of the fee before found.

Thus the value of that annuity at 4 per cent. is worth 25 years value, or - - - - - -	l. 95
Hence the remainder, after ſubtraction, is the ſum that ſhould be paid for the firſt purchaſe, viz.	305

Example II. What is the ſum to be paid for renewing of 7 or 14 years lapſed in a leaſe of 21, in an eſtate of 40 l. per ann. at 6 per cent. the ſum paid out being 6 l. per ann.?

The value of the yearly rent for 21 years, at 6 per cent. is - - - - - - - - -	l. 470 00
Deduct the value of the ſum paid out, at 4 per cent. - - - - - - - - - -	84 00
Remainder is the value of the 21 years - -	386 00
The value of 14 years at 6 per cent. - -	371 12
The value of the ſum paid out for that time -	63 6
Remains the value of the eſtate of 14 years in eſſe - - -	308 6
Hence the ſum to be paid for the renewing of the 7 years ſhould be - -	77 14

Again:

The value of the 21 years, as above, is -	386 00
The value of 7 years, the time in eſſe, at 6 per cent. - - -	223 00
The value of the ſum to be paid out for that time	36 00
Remains the value of the 7 years in eſſe -	187 00
Hence the ſum to be paid for the renewing of 14 years lapſed ſhould be - -	199 00

And by the like proceſs, may the value of renewing any number of years be found, without any difficulty, by the tables before-mentioned.

Example III. to find the value of a leaſe of 7, 10, 14, or 21 years, if a perſon of a given age ſhould ſo long happen to live.

Let the yearly rent be 50 l. the rate of intereſt 6 per cent. the ſum to be paid out 7 l. per ann. and the perſon's age 42 years, what is the value?

By Tab. III. the value of the annuity for 7 years on the given age, at 6 per cent. is 5,10 years, or	l. 255
Deduct the value of the outgoings taken from the ſame table, at 4 per cent. 5,6 years value	39
Remainder is the ſum to be paid for 7 years, on a life of 42 years old - -	216
By the like method of proceeding, the value of 10 years on the ſame life is - -	274
That for 34 years is worth - -	329
That for 21 years is worth - -	286

Example IV. Admit there be 7 years lapſed in the former leaſe of 21 years, what is the value of renewing the ſaid lapſe?

Firſt, The value of a leaſe of 21 years to a perſon of 49 (for that will be now the age) is -	l. 364
Secondly, the value of the leaſe for 14 years on the ſame life of 49 to be deducted - -	316
Remainder is the value for renewing 7 years - -	48
Let there be 10 years lapſed in the ſame leaſe, then by the like proceſs the value of a leaſe of 21 years to a life of 52, at 6 per cent. is - -	353
The leaſe of 11 years in eſſe is worth - -	282
The remainder, after ſubtraction, is the ſum to be paid for renewing - - -	71

By theſe examples it is apparent, that the value of renewing 7 years lapſed in the leaſe of 21, is, to the perſon that purchaſes it, abſolutely worth almoſt twice as much, as it is to him that can enjoy it only conditionally, viz. if a perſon of 42 years of age live ſo long.

Example V. What is a leaſe for 7 years abſolute, in reverſion of a life of 52 years old, worth in ready money, on an eſtate worth 60 l. per ann. at 5 per cent. intereſt, the ſum paid out being 9 l. per ann. and to be valued at 4 per cent.?

The value of a life of that age, and at that rate of intereſt, as may be found by Tab. IV. is 9,65 years purchaſe, or - - -	l. 579
This number 9,65 being found in Tab. I. under 5 per cent. againſt it in the firſt column (by making due equation) is 13,51, which ſhews that the life is reckoned to continue in being ſo many years; to this add 7, the term of the reverſion, the ſum is 20,51; againſt which in Tab. I. under 5 per cent. is 12,62, for the year's value of the rent during both terms, which in money is - - -	757
The remainder, after ſubtraction, is the value of the rent in reverſion, if it were to be paid clear of outgoings, that is - - -	178
The value of the ſum paid out at 4 per cent. during the life in eſſe, is 10,50 years value - -	94

The

LEA

The number 10,50 found in Tab. I. under 4 per cent. anfwers to 13,96 years; this added to 7, the years of the reverſion, makes 20,96; to which number of years in the ſame table, anſwers under 4 per cent. 13.96: that is in money — l. 128

The difference of theſe two ſums is the value of the ſum paid out — 34

This laſt ſum ſubtracted from the ſum before found, viz. the value of the rent, leaves the value of the reverſionary leaſe required — 144

Of leaſes for one, two, or three lives.

It has been obſerved before, that the value of a leaſe for 99 years, determinable on the death of one, two, or three lives, is the ſame with that of a leaſe on thoſe lives abſolute: ſo that we ſhall make no difference, but call them all leaſes on life, or lives.

Example I. A man of 37 years of age is poſſeſſed of an eſtate for his life of 65l. per ann. the yearly outgoings of which are as follow, viz.

	l. s.
To the lord's rent	3 00
To the church and poor's rates	3 00
To tythes	5 10
To repairs (one year with another)	2 10

How much is the leſſee's right worth in ready money at 5 per cent.?

In Tab. IV. the value of a life of 37 years, at 5 per cent. is 12,10 years in caſh — 786 10

The value of the ſame life at 4 per cent. by the ſame table, is 13,40 years value, which, for the rates, tythes, and repairs, amounts to — 147 00

The value of the ſame life, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 12,70 years, which for the high rent is — 38 00

The whole ſum to be deducted is — 185 00

And hence the value required is — 601 10

Example II. What is the value, in the ſame eſtate, of two joint lives, one of which is 12, the other 32 years old, and the eſtate to be extinct, when one of them dies?

	l. s.
Out of Tab. VI. take the value of the two joint lives at 5 per cent. for the rent which is 10,56 years, this, multiplied by 65, produces	686 00
From the ſame table, the value of the joint lives at 4 per cent. is 11,27 years; which multiplied into 11 l. the yearly out goings in rates, tythes, and repairs, produces	124 00
By the ſame table, the value at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 10,92 years value, which multiplied by 3l. the yearly rent to the lord, produces	33 00
Hence the value of the eſtate for two joint lives, that is, to continue 'till one of them dies, is	529 00

Example III. To find the value of three joint lives, on the ſame eſtate, one of which is 12, another 22, and the third 42 years old.

	l. s.
From Tab. VII. finding the age of the youngeſt at the top, the next at the left-hand column, and the other in the ſecond column to the left-hand, under 5 per cent. take out the value of the three joint lives, which is 7,83 years; this drawn into 65, the yearly rent produces	509 00
At the ſame place (under 4 per cent.) you find 8,15, which multiplied by 11 l. the product is	90 00
Again: In the ſame table, the number anſwering to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 8,00; this, for the high rent, 3l. per ann. is worth	24 00
Theſe two laſt ſums being ſubtracted out of the former, the remainder is the value of a leaſe to continue as long as all three of the lives remain in being	395 00

Example IV. An Eſtate of bad houſes meanly ſituated, containing divers ſmall tenements, in all (when full of tenants) of the yearly value of 50l. to be leaſed for the term of one, two, or three lives, and the longeſt liver of them, the purchaſer to have 6 per cent. for his money: the ſum to be paid out in rates, repairs, and high rents (which laſt is under 20s. per ann. and therefore to be reckoned as a clear annuity, as well as the other diſburſements) amounts to 6l. a year: what muſt be paid for the purchaſe?

Firſt, for one life aged 67 years.

	l. s.
This, for the whole rent, by Tab. IV. is worth, at 6 per cent. 5,90 years purchaſe; which, in caſh, at 50l. a year, amounts to	295 00
The value of the ſum to be paid out at 4 per cent. is 6,53 years, or	39 00
The value of a leaſe for one life	256 00

Secondly, For the value of two lives, one 67, the other 52, Mr. Abraham De Moivre has demonſtrated, [ſee the article ANNUITIES] that the value of an annuity upon the longeſt of two lives is the remainder, after ſubtraction of the value of thoſe lives jointly taken, from the ſum of their values ſingly taken.

The yearly rent on the life of 67 years was found before to be worth	295 00
That for the life of 52 is worth	445 00
The ſum is	740 00
The value of the ſame for the joint lives is 4,39 years, or	220 00
Remainder after ſubtraction is the value on the longeſt liver of the two	520 00
The value of the ſum paid out on the firſt life, at 4 per cent. is 6,53 years, or	39 00
The value of the ſecond life is 10,50 years, or	63 00
The ſum	102 00
On the two joint lives 4,67	28 00
The remainder after ſubtraction is the value of the outgoings on the longeſt	74 00
The ſum being ſubtracted from the 520l. leaves the value required	446 00

Thirdly, Let a third life, aged 22 years, be joined with the two before mentioned, and let the value of the eſtate on the longeſt liver of theſe three be required.

For the whole rent,	The life 67 years old	5,90	Years value.
	The life 52 years old	8,91	
	The life 22 years old	12,54	
	Their ſum is	27,35	
The value for the three joint lives, at the ſame rate (viz. 6 per cent.) is		3,99	
	The whole ſum	31,34	

The before-mentioned ingenious author ſhews, that the values of the joint lives combined, two and two added together, and the ſum ſubtracted from the foregoing ſum, leaves the value of the annuity upon the longeſt liver of them.

Thus for the purpoſe:	Years.
The value of the firſt and ſecond jointly	4,39
The value of the firſt and third jointly	5,26
The value of the ſecond and third jointly	7,56
The ſum is	17,21

This laſt ſum being ſubtracted from the former ſum, the remainder is 14,13 years for the value of the longeſt liver, which in caſh is — 707 l.

We are next to find the value of the ſum to be paid out at 4 per cent. in the ſame manner as the former was found.

The life of 67 years old value in years	6,53
That of 52	10,50
That of 22	16,05
The three joint lives	4,15
The ſum of which is	37,23
The firſt and ſecond jointly	4,66
The firſt and third jointly	5,67
The ſecond and third jointly	8,42
The ſum of theſe three	18,75
Remainder after ſubtraction	18,48

This drawn into 6, the yearly outgoings, produces in money — 111 l.

This ſum being ſubtracted from the value before found (viz. 707) leaves the value of the leaſe on the longeſt of the three lives, and at the rate of intereſt propoſed — 596

The reſult of the whole operation will appear to be as follows, viz.

One life of 67 years old is worth	l. 256
Two lives, one 67, the other 52, worth	446
Three lives, aged 67, 52, and 22, worth	596

An objection, it may be preſumed, will be made to what has been ſaid, by reaſon of the difference that there is, or ſeems to be, betwixt this reſult, and the common way of eſtimation: for, ſays the gentleman's ſteward, it is always reckoned, that one life in poſſeſſion is as good as two in reverſion; and a third life, in reverſion of two, is generally reckoned but in two years value: whereas, by this way of computing, the firſt life amounts but to $5\frac{1}{4}$ years value; and the other two are here worth above 7. And again: the third life in reverſion of 2, in the above example, amounts to almoſt 3 years and an half's value: and how can this be?

In anſwer to which objection, it has been obſerved, that, though this be true in the example alledged, yet it is no deviation from reaſon, notwithſtanding it be from the ordinary practice: and that it rather eſtabliſhes the truth and neceſſity of this method, than is of real weight againſt it, will appear by another example, wherein the value of the

reverſions,

reverſions, on account of different ages of the life or lives in poſſeſſion, will, when found by this method, be thought as much too little, as thoſe are too great.

Example V. Admit the eſtate to be purchaſed on lives be worth 40 l. per ann. and of ſuch quality, that 6 per cent. is a proper intereſt for the purchaſer: ſuppoſe that the rates, tythes, and repairs, be 5 l. per ann. and the reſerved rent 2 l. per ann. let 5 per cent. be allowed for the money to be paid out, and let the ages of the lives to be purchaſed be,

The firſt 32
The ſecond 22 } Years old.
The third 12

What will be the value of one, two, or three of thoſe lives, in the order that they are here placed?

Lives.	Number of years value for 40 l. per ann. rent.	No. of years value for the 7 l. per ann. paid out.	Value in caſhafter ſubtraction.
	At 6 l. per cent.	At 5 l. per cent.	
1ſt	11,47 years	12,79 years - - -	l. 370
2d	12,54 years	14,14 years - - -	402
3d	13,37 years	15,23 years - - -	428
Lives.	The value of the longeſt liver for the rent	The value of the longeſt liver for the money paid out.	Value of the rem. money.
1ſt and 2d	14,60 } Years.	16,84 } Years.	l. 466
1ſt and 3d	14,99	17,46	477
2d and 3d	15,40 }	17,96 }	490
The value of the longeſt liver of the three lives for the 40 l. per ann.		The value of the longeſt liver for the 7 l per ann.	Value of the remain n money.
15,83 years.		18,71 years.	l. 502

By the above eſtimation it appears, that two lives of 22 and 12 years old, in reverſion of one of 32, is worth but 132 l. which is little more than ¼ of the value of the life in poſſeſſion; and that two of 32 and 22, in reverſion of one of 12, is of much leſs value, viz. no more than 74 l.

Again: One of 12 in reverſion of two of 32, and 22 years of age, is worth but 36 l. that is leſs than one year's value; and, for one life of 32 in reverſion of two of 12 and 22 years old, muſt be given no more than 12 l.

Hence the great difference that ariſes on account of the age of the lives appears (if this method holds good) to call for a particular regard, and that even when the difference of the age of the lives is not very great, as in this example; how much more then, if the tenant ſhould defer the renewing of his leaſe, 'till the life or lives in eſſe arrive to a declining age?

Thus we have endeavoured to clear up the affair, as to eſtates in eſſe, and given ſome light in regard to the valuation of reverſions; of which we ſhall now ſpeak more particularly, and ſhew how to find the value of ſuch in expectancy: to do which, we ſhall lay down the following general rule.

From the value of the ſum of the terms in poſſeſſion and reverſion, ſubtract the value of that in poſſeſſion, the remainder is the ſum to be paid for the reverſion.

We have before ſhewn, how to find the value of the fee in reverſion of a term of years abſolute; and, from what we have laſt ſaid, may be eaſily deduced the value of the fee in reverſion of lives, or of one life in reverſion of two; of two in reverſion of one, by a due application of the above general rule. Something, however, may be requiſite to be ſaid of the value of a life in reverſion of a term of years, to be nominated at the expiration of the ſaid term; and of a term of years in reverſion of another term of a life or lives, or of 2 or 3 joint lives; as alſo of the right of ſuch two or more, as hold by joint-tenancy and ſurvivorſhip.

Example I. Let it be required to find how much an eſtate of 30 l. per ann. is worth, during the continuance of a life of 22 years of age; the right to commence, and the life to be nominated, at the expiration of a term of 14 years, allowing the purchaſer 6 per cent, and deducting the value of the ſum paid out, viz. 4 l. a year at 5 per cent.

The value of ſuch a life in poſſeſſion, for the whole rent, is by Tab. IV. - - } l. 376
The ſum paid out is worth - - - 56

Remains the value of the life, if it were to be entered upon immediately - - } 320

The queſtion then will be, What 320 l. payable at the end of 14 years, is worth in ready money at the rate of legal intereſt, viz. 5 per cent.?

By Tab. II. we find the value of 1 l. payable at the end of 14 years, is .505 decimal parts of a pound; which, being multiplied by 320, gives the value of the reverſion, viz. 162 l.

By this example may be ſeen, the method to find the worth of 2 or 3 lives in reverſion for a term of years, and alſo of a term of years in reverſion of a term in eſſe.

If it be required to ſhew the value of a term of years in reverſion of a life or lives; firſt find the number of years value of the eſtate in eſſe, and then, by Tab. I. ſee how many years it muſt continue to produce that value; and the value of the eſtate in poſſe, payable after the expiration of this number of years, is the ſum to be paid in hand for the expectancy.

If a life is to be nominated at the death of another, the ſum to be paid for it may be found, by ſeeking, in the tables, the number of years of an annuity that is of equal value with each of the lives; and then find, in the table for that purpoſe, the value of the money that the life in poſſe will be worth at the death of the other, and the preſent value of ſuch a ſum is the ſum required.

Example II. There is, at preſent, on an eſtate of 50 l. per ann. one life, aged 52; the tenant would purchaſe another life, to be nominated at the death of the former, viz. one that ſhall be then 22 years old, allowing the purchaſer 6 per cent.; and for the ſum paid out, which is 9 l. per ann. 5 per cent. what is the value of the life to be purchaſed?

The life in poſſeſſion is worth, at 6 per cent. (for any rate may be taken for this purpoſe) by Tab. IV. - - - - - - - - - } 8,91 years.
This number found under the ſame rate of intereſt, in Tab. I. ſhews in the firſt column, that the life is as valuable as an annuity certain for the term of - - - - - } 13,14 years.

Hence the life that is to ſucceed, is to be named at the end of 13,14 years.

A life of 22 is worth, by Tab. IV. at 6 per cent. 12,54 years.
And the ſame at 5 per cent. - - 14,14

Which being the number of years value that the rent and outgoings will be worth for the ſecond life at the end of 13,14 years, the value of each, in ready money, may be found, by taking out the numbers in Tab. II. anſwering to the times at 5 per cent. and multiplying that by theſe numbers of years reſpectively, the two products will ſhew the number of years value for the rent, and for the ſum paid out, Thus:

The number in Tab. II. under 5 per cent. and againſt 13,14, by duly equating, is ,527. This, multiplied by 12,54, produces 6,61 years; and, multiplied by 14,14, produces 7,45 years.

Hence the value of the rent in money is - - l. 330
And that of the ſum paid out - - 67

Conſequently the ſum to be paid is - - 263

By the like proceſs may be found, the value of a third life in ſucceſſion of two to be named at the death of one or both of theſe; as of two lives to be named, one at the death of the firſt, another at the death of the ſecond, or in any other manner: this, doubtleſs, will be eaſy enough to the perſons concerned, without adding more examples to that purpoſe.

Example III. A man dying leaves to his three daughters an annuity of 20 l. per ann. each, during their lives, payable out of lands of a much greater value; and he ſo ordered it, that, when either of them ſhould die, her annuity ſhould fall to the other two in equal ſhares; and, at the death of another of them, the whole is to come to the ſurvivor for life: their ages at the father's death are 32, 22, and 12, what is the right of each worth in ready money at 5 per cent.?

	Years.	
The value of the eldeſt life is - -	12,79, or	256 l.
That of the next is - - - - - -	14,14, or	283
The youngeſt worth - - -	15,25, or	305
The joint lives of the firſt and ſecond is	10,21 } Years.	
of the firſt and third is	10,56	
of the ſecond and third is	11,41	
The three joint lives are worth - -	8,59 }	

For the right of the eldeſt daughter.

Firſt, 20 l. per ann. during her life is worth -	l. 256
Secondly, 10 l. per ann. in reverſion of the youngeſt, to continue from thence during the joint lives of the other two; found by ſubtracting the value of the three joint lives from the value of the firſt and ſecond jointly - - -	16
Thirdly, 10 l. per ann, in reverſion of the ſecond, to continue during the joint lives of the firſt and third, found by ſubtracting the value of the three joint lives, from that of the firſt and third jointly - - - - - - -	20
Fourthly, 40 l. per ann. in reverſion of the two youngeſt lives during her own life, found by ſubtracting the value of the longeſt of the ſecond and third, from that of the longeſt of the three lives, is - - - -	30
The whole ſum of theſe four values is the eldeſt daughter's portion, viz. - -	321
By the like proceſs, the ſecond daughter's right in the eſtate will appear - -	376
And that of the third, or youngeſt - - -	426
The whole value is - -	1123

And the truth of the work will appear, by finding, according to the method laid down, the value of the whole eſtate on the ſurvivor of the three lives; which, by the tables, will be found 18,71 years purchaſe; and this multiplied by 60, the whole yearly value of the three annuities, the product is 1123 l. as before.

Thus

Thus have we given examples in moſt of the uſeful caſes of this ſubject; by the help whereof, any of the queries that ariſe about the value of leaſes in poſſeſſion or reverſion, may be ſolved.

Remarks.

We might very well have concluded this article here, but, conſidering that this work might fall into hands, to whom what we have ſaid on this topic might be uſeleſs, on account of the operations for finding the value of the ſurvivorſhip; to do which, the numbers are required to be taken out of the ſeveral tables, and to be added, ſubtracted, &c. which to ſome perſons may ſeem ſuch an intricacy, as probably to diſcourage them from endeavouring to become maſters of the ſubject: for the eaſe and convenience of ſuch, therefore, we ſhall add tables of the value on the longeſt liver of 2 or 3 lives; where the ſame may be taken out at once for theſe purpoſes, and for any ages, howſoever combined, to every tenth year.

We have likewiſe added two other ſhort tables, the one for finding the value of the decimal parts of a year in months; the other, ſhewing the value of the decimal parts of a pound in money; ſo that it is but to find the numbers to the right-hand of the point in the firſt column of the tables, and, oppoſite to it in another column, is the value thereof in months in one table, and in money in the other.

Table VIII.

Shewing the value of an annuity for two lives, that is to continue 'till both are dead, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent: and to every tenth year of age.

Age.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent	8 per cent.
One life 2 years old.					
2	19.67	17.08	14.60	12.68	11.44
12	20.60	17.81	15.17	13.03	11.83
22	20.05	17.30	14.86	12.86	11.60
32	19.21	16.67	14.38	12.62	11.41
42	18.42	16.06	13.97	12.34	11.19
52	17.61	15.47	13.52	11.96	10.87
62	16.73	14.80	13.01	11.55	10.52
72	15.97	14.17	12.48	11.08	10.09
82	15.36	13.63	11.99	10.66	9.71
One life 12 years old.					
12	21.39	18.41	15.59	13.24	12.02
22	20.88	17.96	15.40	13.19	11.96
32	20.33	17.46	14.99	12.99	11.74
42	19.58	17.03	14.76	12.87	11.65
52	18.97	16.59	14.43	12.59	11.44
62	18.30	16.08	14.05	12.30	11.21
72	17.70	15.64	13.72	12.02	10.95
82	17.26	15.27	13.40	11.76	10.71
One life 22 years old.					
22	20.46	17.48	15.08	13.04	11.81
32	19.45	16.84	14.60	12.79	11.58
42	18.90	16.39	14.33	12.61	11.34
52	18.13	15.79	13.90	12.27	11.16
62	17.38	15.24	13.46	11.92	10.80
72	16.68	14.67	13.00	11.40	10.46
82	16.12	14.19	12.59	11.19	10.23
One life 32 years old.					
32	18.66	16.17	14.11	12.17	11.43
42	17.83	15.55	13.68	12.22	11.04
52	16.91	14.90	13.21	11.85	10.76
62	15.95	14.18	12.66	11.42	10.41
72	15.08	13.46	12.07	10.91	9.96
82	14.40	12.87	11.55	10.46	9.53
One life 42 years old.					
42	16.79	14.76	13.12	11.80	10.72
52	15.74	14.00	12.57	11.37	10.34
62	14.61	13.09	11.88	10.74	9.82
72	13.44	12.13	11.06	10.09	9.29
82	12.63	11.40	10.35	9.47	8.71
One life 52 years old.					
52	14.48	13.04	11.82	10.75	9.87
62	13.12	11.94	10.93	10.03	9.29
72	11.79	10.81	9.96	9.18	8.56
82	10.66	9.80	9.05	8.39	7.81
One life 62 years old.					
62	11.45	10.53	9.74	9.05	8.48
72	9.79	9.13	9.56	8.01	7.54
82	8.27	7.74	7.28	6.86	6.48
One life 72 years old.					
72	7.69	7.28	6.93	6 54	6.24
82	5.58	5.33	5.11	4.89	4.70
One life 82 years old.					
82	2.27	2.22	2.18	2.15	2.11

Table IX.

Whereby is ſhewn the value of an annuity, in years and decimal parts, for three lives, to continue 'till they are all dead, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

2d life.	3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
		One life 2 years old.				
Two years old.	2	21.61	18.53	15.53	13.28	11.93
	12	22.14	18.95	15.85	13.44	12.21
	22	21.85	18.63	15.67	13.34	11.99
	32	21.40	18.38	15.25	13.45	11.96
	42	20.94	18.06	15.36	13.33	11.90
	52	20.52	17.69	15.02	13.02	11.76
	62	20.08	17.34	14.76	13 85	11.66
	72	19.82	17.21	14.72	12.77	11.51
	82	19.67	17.08	14.59	12.68	11.44
Twelve years old.	12	22.61	19.24	16.04	13.48	12.28
	22	22.31	19.00	15.98	13.42	12.21
	32	22.02	18.64	15.68	13.38	12.17
	42	21.56	18.44	15.57	13.32	12.13
	52	21.24	18.22	15.43	13.22	12.03
	62	20.93	18.02	15.33	12.15	11.90
	72	20.70	17.89	15.24	12.08	11.86
	82	20.61	17.80	15.19	12.06	11.85
22 years old.	22	22.12	18.74	15.84	13.47	12.08
	32	21.53	18.32	15.52	13.35	12.04
	42	21.21	18.11	15.44	13.30	11.96
	52	20.80	17.81	15.22	13.15	11.85
	62	20.45	17.61	15.11	13.06	11.76
	72	20.00	17.42	14.96	12.90	11.57
	82	20.06	17.27	14.85	12.76	11.51
32 years old.	32	21.02	17.83	15.28	13.31	12.06
	42	20.62	17.60	15.03	13.15	11.87
	52	20.13	17.22	14.86	13.01	11.74
	62	19.66	17.03	14.69	12.90	11.65
	72	19.38	16.80	14.50	12.72	11.49
	82	19.22	16.67	14.39	12.64	11.43
42 years old.	42	20.06	17.22	14.82	13.03	11.82
	52	19.55	16.91	14.62	12.89	11.63
	62	19.03	16.54	14.38	12.58	11.41
	72	18.56	16.20	14.14	12.46	11.29
	82	18.34	16.08	14.04	12.35	11.19
52	52	18.92	16.49	14.31	12.61	11.40
	62	18.32	16.06	14.02	12.27	11.21
	72	17.73	15.68	13.71	12.10	11.01
	82	17.62	15.48	13.52	11.98	10.88
62	62	17.62	15.50	13.68	12.04	10.98
	72	17.06	15.10	13.29	11.80	10.74
	82	16.15	14 83	12.23	11.57	10.53
72	72	16.43	14.57	12.84	12.38	10.35
	82	15.97	14.19	12.51	11.09	10.10
82	82	15.42	13.68	12.05	10.72	9.77
		One life 12 years old.				
12 years old.	12	23.01	19.54	16.19	13.46	12.29
	22	22.71	19.30	16.12	13.46	12.28
	32	22.53	19.02	15.93	13.45	12.19
	42	22.10	18.89	15.83	13.42	12.15
	52	21.89	18.70	15.77	13.90	12.58
	62	21.69	18.51	15.64	13.27	12.11
	72	21.45	18.45	15.64	13.25	12.05
	82	21.39	18.39	15.58	13.22	12.02
22 years old.	22	22.52	19.08	16.15	13.62	12.33
	32	22.44	18.71	15.83	13.49	12.24
	42	21.76	18.54	15.82	13.46	12.18
	52	21.47	18.31	15.63	13.36	12.12
	62	21.18	18.15	15.54	13.31	12.08
	72	20.98	18.02	15.45	13.19	11.92
	82	20.86	17.95	15.38	13 19	11.96
32 years old.	32	21.64	18.34	15.53	13.40	12.17
	42	21.28	18.15	15.37	13.30	12.06
	52	20.93	17.92	15.30	13.21	11.93
	62	20.49	17.65	15.16	13.14	11.96
	72	20.33	17.53	15.09	13.08	11.80
	82	20.25	17.46	14.99	12 99	11.71
42 years old.	42	20.84	17.88	15.36	13.36	12.06
	52	20.45	17.65	15.21	13.22	11.94
	62	20.08	17.37	15.00	13.04	11.79
	72	19.66	17.11	14 87	12.95	11.72
	82	19.60	17.04	14.78	12.89	11.66
52	52	19.98	17.12	14.97	13.00	11.77
	62	19.53	16.98	14.82	12.82	11.66
	72	19.17	16.72	14.55	12.67	11.53
	82	18 98	16.59	14.43	12.60	11.45
62	62	18.99	16.55	14.39	12.68	11.50
	72	18.54	16.27	14.22	12.45	11.34
	82	18.32	16.08	14.05	12.31	11.21
72	72	18.03	15.90	14.06	12.20	11.12
	82	17.73	15.65	13.72	12.03	10.96
82	82	17.31	15 32	13.43	11.79	10.73

One

One life 22 years old.

3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
22	22.43	18.82	15.99	13.58	12.27
32	21.74	18.34	15.58	13.38	12.12
42	21.54	18 28	15.63	13.47	11.99
52	21.31	18.01	15.39	13.28	11.93
62	20.85	17.77	15.29	13.20	11.91
72	20.61	17.57	15.13	13.12	11.82
82	20.46	17.46	15 07	13.04	11.79
32	21.14	17.91	15.31	13.33	12.09
42	20.84	17.72	15.20	13.24	11.99
52	20.27	17.39	15.00	13.10	11.87
62	19.93	17.15	14.86	13 01	11.77
72	19.70	16.95	14 69	12.83	11.62
82	19.56	18.83	14.60	12.80	11.52
42	20.53	17.52	15.10	13.17	11.76
52	19.89	17.10	14 86	13.05	11.70
62	19.49	16.84	14.68	12.82	11.51
72	19.04	16.51	14.46	12.65	11.35
82	18.02	16.38	14 34	12.59	11.33
52	19.30	16.64	14.56	12.78	11.59
62	18.81	16.32	14.33	12.61	11.42
72	18.37	15.97	14.05	12.36	11.28
82	18.14	15.79	13 89	12.28	11.16
62	18.22	15.87	13.95	12.31	11.20
72	17.71	15.50	13.69	12.07	10.94
82	17.39	15.23	13.47	11.93	10.86
72	17.11	15.01	13.28	11.70	10.62
82	16.70	14.67	13:00	11.51	10.48
82	16.17	14.22	12.62	11.22	10.25

2d life. 22 years old. | 32 years old. | 42 years old. | 52 | 62 | 72 | 82

One life 32 years old.

3d life.					
32	20.63	17.49	15.01	13.34	12.18
42	20.18	17.18	14.81	13.13	11.84
52	19.65	16.86	14.61	13.03	11.77
62	19.28	16.58	14.44	12.87	11.68
72	18.85	16.30	14.22	12.66	11.53
82	18.68	16.17	14.12	12.60	11.44
42	19.64	16.80	14.56	12.91	11.63
52	19.05	16.44	14.39	12.77	11.49
62	18.51	16.07	14.09	12.56	11.33
72	17.99	15.70	13.87	12.33	12.12
82	17.85	15.56	13.69	12.16	11.04
52	18.34	15.99	14.07	12.52	11.31
62	17.72	15.45	13.74	12.29	11.14
72	17.19	15.12	13.41	12.01	10.92
82	16.93	14.91	13.22	11.89	10.77
62	16.95	14.96	13.28	11.96	10.90
72	16.33	14.50	12.95	11.68	10.63
82	15.98	14.19	12.67	11.39	10.41
72	15.59	13.90	12.45	11.24	10.27
82	15.12	13.48	12.08	10.93	9.97
82	14.50	12.95	11.63	10,54	9.59

2d life. 32 years old. | 42 years old. | 52 | 62 | 72 | 82

One life 42 years old.

3d life.					
42	18.94	16.35	14.30	12.74	11.52
52	17.20	15.90	14.07	12.58	11.27
62	17.67	15.46	13.68	12.23	11.04
72	16.95	14.94	13.35	11.98	10.89
82	16.82	14.78	13.14	11.80	10.71
52	17.51	15.35	13.61	12.20	11.09
62	16.76	14.87	13.35	12.06	10.98
72	16.04	14.26	12.84	11.59	10.55
82	15.77	14.02	12.59	11.39	10.35
62	15.90	14.12	12.67	11.43	10.42
72	15.04	13.48	12.22	11.07	10.12
82	14.64	13.11	11.84	10.75	9.82
72	14.04	12.67	11.58	10.53	9.69
82	13.47	12.18	11.09	10.12	9.31
82	12.73	11.47	10.43	9.54	8.75

42 years old. | 52 | 62 | 72 | 82

One life 52 years old.

3d life.					
52	16.59	14.80	13.19	11.85	11.23
62	15.72	14.07	12.68	11.47	10.47
72	14.95	13.42	12.16	11.01	10.14
82	14.51	13.07	11.84	10.78	9.89
62	14.68	13.22	11.98	10.95	10.07
72	13.70	12.47	11.41	10.44	9.65
82	13.15	11.96	10.95	10.06	9.29
72	12.63	11.53	10.61	9.73	9.08
82	11.85	10.85	9.99	9.22	8.51
82	10.78	9.92	9.15	8.48	7.89

52 | 62 | 72 | 82

One life 62 years old.

3d life.					
62	13.41	12.14	11.08	10.13	9.56
72	12.28	11.27	10.41	9.65	9.01
82	11.49	10.56	9.76	9.09	8.51
72	10.90	10.13	9.47	8.82	8.28
82	9.87	9.20	8.62	8.07	7.60
82	8.44	7.90	7.42	6.98	6.59

62 | 72 | 82

One life 72 years old.

3d life.					
72	9.19	8.64	8.19	7.64	7.26
82	7.82	7.40	7.03	6.65	6.36
82	5.85	5.59	5.37	5.14	4.95

72 | 82

One life 82 years old.

3d life.					
82	2.86	2.80	2.75	2.71	2.68

82

TABLE X.

Shewing the value of the decimal parts of a year, in months and weeks; useful for the finding the value of those parts in the preceding tables.

Parts.	Value in M.	W.	Parts.	Value in M.	W.	Parts.	Value in M.	W.
.02	0	1	.35	4	2	.67	8	3
.04	0	2	.37	4	3	.69	9	0
.06	0	3	.38	5	0	.71	9	1
.08	1	0	.40	5	1	.73	9	2
.10	1	1	.42	5	2	.75	9	3
.12	1	2	.44	5	3	.77	10	0
.13	1	3	.46	6	0	.79	10	1
.15	2	2	.48	6	1	.81	10	2
.17	2	1	.50	6	2	.83	10	3
.19	2	2	.52	6	3	.85	11	0
.21	2	3	.54	7	0	.87	11	1
.23	3	0	.56	7	1	.88	11	2
.25	3	1	.58	7	2	.90	11	3
.27	3	2	.60	7	3	.92	12	0
.29	3	3	.62	8	0	.94	12	1
.31	4	0	.63	8	1	.96	12	2
.33	4	1	.65	8	2	.98	12	3

TABLE IX.

Shewing the value of the decimal parts of a pound, in shillings and pence, at one view.

Parts.	s.	d.	Parts.	s.	d.	Parts.	s.	d.
.004	0	1	.22	4	06	.64	12	09
.008	0	2	.24	4	09	.65	13	00
.012	0	3	.25	5	00	.66	13	03
.017	0	4	.26	5	03	.67	13	06
.021	0	5	.27	5	06	.68	13	09
.025	0	6	.28	5	09	.70	14	00
.029	0	7	.30	6	00	.71	14	03
.033	0	8	.31	6	03	.72	14	06
.037	0	9	.32	6	06	.74	14	09
.042	0	10	.34	6	09	.75	15	00
.046	0	11	.35	7	00	.76	15	03
.050	1	00	.36	7	03	.77	15	06
.054	1	01	.37	7	06	.78	15	09
.058	1	02	.38	7	09	.80	16	00
.062	1	03	.40	8	00	.81	16	03
.066	1	04	.41	8	03	.82	16	06
.070	1	05	.42	8	06	.84	16	09
.075	1	06	.44	8	09	.85	17	00
.079	1	07	.45	9	00	.86	17	03
.083	1	08	.46	9	03	.87	17	06
.087	1	09	.47	9	06	.88	17	09
.091	1	10	.48	9	09	.90	18	00
.096	1	11	.50	10	00	.91	18	03
.100	2	00	.51	10	03	.92	18	06
.11	2	03	.52	10	06	.94	18	09
.12	2	06	.54	10	09	.95	19	00
.14	2	09	.55	11	00	.96	19	03
.15	3	00	.56	11	03	.97	19	06
.16	3	03	.57	11	06	.98	19	09
.17	3	06	.58	11	09	1.00	20	00
.18	3	09	.60	12	00	1.01	20	03
.20	4	00	.61	12	03	1.02	20	06
.21	4	03	.62	12	06	1.04	20	09

Further REMARKS on this article.

The reader will please to observe, that the foundation of these tables are the principles of the learned Dr. Halley and Mr. Abraham De Moivre; whose reputations for this kind of studies have been esteemed superior to all others: and Mr. Richards, in the preceding calculations, has applied their principles to the several uses before represented: but, notwithstanding the authority of great names, the principles, rules, and computations, laid down by these learned gentlemen, have been objected to; and, indeed, with no little colour of reason and plausibility; as appears from the objections made thereto, by that judicious gentleman Weyman Lee, Esq; in his Essay to ascertain the Value of Leases and Annuities for Years and Lives, &c. and also by that ingenious gentleman Mr. Thomas Simpson, in his Tract entitled, The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions, deduced from general and evident Principles, &c. The latest author, who has obliged the public with something new upon this subject, is Mr. James Hardy, in his book printed in 1753, entitled, A Complete System of Interest and Annuities; founded upon new, easy, and rational principles, &c. which seems to be a work of no less merit than either of them. Upon the whole, however, this subject does not appear to be yet settled upon such a basis, as to obtain in universal practice, according to the sentiments of either of these learned and judicious gentlemen, who have so laudably distinguished themselves therein. See the articles ANNUITIES, LIFE, or LIVES, LOTTERIES, MONEY, MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY]; under which several heads, we shall endeavour to give the substance of what has been said most pertinently upon this subject.

LEATHER, is the ſkin of ſeveral ſorts of beaſts, dreſſed and prepared for the uſe of the various manufacturers, whoſe buſineſs it is to make them up, according to their different employments. The butcher, and others who flay them off the carcaſes, diſpoſe of them raw or ſalted to the tanner and tawyer, they to the ſhamoy, morocco, and other kind of leather-dreſſers, who prepare them according to their reſpective arts, in order to vend them among the curriers, glovers, harneſs-makers, coach makers, ſaddlers, breeches-makers, gilt leather-makers, chair-makers, ſhoe-makers, book-binders, and all in any way concerned in the article of leather.

Leather has divers names, according to the ſtate wherein it is, and according to the different kinds of ſkins whereof it is prepared, and it's peculiar qualities when ſo prepared.

(1.) The ſkin is raw as it comes off of the animal. (2.) Some are ſalted with ſea-ſalt and allum, or with natron, which is a ſpecies of ſalt-petre, or white ſalt-wort, to prevent corruption in keeping, or ſending to diſtant tanneries during hot ſeaſons.

Skins dried with the hair on, are commonly thoſe of oxen and cows, or buffaloes, either tame or wild.—Moſt of thoſe in France come from foreign countries. The places which furniſh them with the largeſt quantity, are Peru, the iſle of St. Domingo, Barbary, Cape Verd iſles, the river Senegal in Africa, Muſcovy, Ireland, the iſland of Cuba. Thoſe of this latter place are the moſt eſteemed; they are called Havannah ſkins, from the name of the capital city of that iſland, whither they are carried, in order to be ſent to Spain, and from thence into other parts of Europe.—After theſe ſkins are ſtript of their hair, they are ſold to the tanner. See TANNER, and SKINS.

The three principal aſſortments of leather are tanned or tawed, and oil and allum leather, all which are dreſſed in ſome yards, as they are by Shipton and ſons of Watford.

If we reflect on the number of ſkins of all ſorts which this kingdom produces, the prodigious quantity of many kinds that are imported from Spain, Portugal, Ireland, and from our own colonies * in general, under the various denominations of hides, deer-ſkins, deer-pelts, half-dreſſed ditto, &c. if this be conſidered, and alſo that moſt, if not all of theſe are dreſſed here, many manufactured into a variety of things for our own conſumption, and very large quantities of the ſeveral ſorts of leather wrought and unwrought (tanned in particular) exported; it will be readily granted, that leather is a ſtaple commodity, that may very juſtly be ranked in the firſt claſs of thoſe belonging to this kingdom.

* Our late accounts from South Carolina inform us, that they exported from thence, in about 12 months, no leſs than 303 hogſheads of deer-ſkins, which, upon a modeſt computation, is 10,000 ſkins.

REMARKS.

It may be affirmed, with great truth, that the ſkins of our own production, and thoſe imported from our NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES, when dreſſed in this kingdom, make the beſt leather in the world, and therefore is an article of very great importance to the trade of the nation; but, unleſs ſome proper regulations are made in relation to this branch of trade, we are in a fair way ſoon to loſe no inconſiderable part of it, as will appear hereafter. For the king of Pruſſia hath lately eſtabliſhed this manufacture in ſeveral parts of his dominions, which, with the conduct of France in regard to the ſame, is likely to do this kingdom no ſmall detriment in this particular.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the large territories ceded to the crown of Great-Britain in NORTH AMERICA, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY, 'tis to be hoped we ſhall uſe every meaſure to obtain the ſtrict friendſhip and alliance of the INDIAN NATIONS inhabiting there; in which caſe, we ſhall not want great plenty of ſkins to carry on this branch of traffic at the CHEAPEST RATES, and thereby to improve in every part relative to the manufacture thereof, in the moſt extenſive manner.

The various trades to which the epithet leather is annexed, are as follow, viz. leather breeches-maker, leather-cutter, leather-dreſſer, leather-dyer, leather-parer and grounder, leather-ſeller. We ſhall ſpeak of theſe in the order wherein they are mentioned.

LEATHER BREECHES MAKER, is a buſineſs ſprung from the glover, and is a trade, whoſe number of artizans has greatly increaſed within theſe few years, and employs a great many hands in all parts of the kingdom, there being ſcarce a market-town or village of any note, but ſome of this trade may be found therein: and it may be truly obſerved, that ſome of the preſent maſters of this buſineſs, in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, have brought it to ſo great perfection, that what was thought to be a garment fit to be worn only by the laborious, is become faſhionable, and univerſally worn, from the tradeſmen to thoſe of the firſt rank in the kingdom; and may, with ſuitable encouragement, become a very profitable mercantile commodity, when exported to proper markets, the beſt London made leather breeches beginning to be eſteemed, and to be worn in many parts abroad; not excepting even ſome very hot countries.

The ſorts of leather breeches are various; ſome being made of deer, ſheep, and goat-ſkins; others of calf, lamb, and beaver-ſkins. The two firſt ſorts are the principal, the conſumption whereof is of more conſequence than may at firſt view appear. The deer-ſkins being chiefly imported from our colonies, and the only commodities (the half dreſſed ones in particular) the Indians have to exchange with our Indian traders in North America, for what they want of them: and as this commerce with the Indians may increaſe, the import of deer-ſkins will do ſo in the like proportion; conſequently the price muſt fall, if a proper vent be not found; and, in that caſe, a ſtop may, in ſome meaſure, be put to that branch of our trade.

The conſumption of the ſecond ſort, i. e. the ſheep-ſkin kind, is, in ſome degree, an help to the woollen trade; for, if the fell-monger cannot find a market for the pelt, it's value will, of courſe, enhance the price of wooll.

This being the caſe, may it not be worth conſideration to enquire how the conſumption may be effectually ſupported? In anſwer to which it may be ſaid, (1.) By the makers taking due care to manufacture them in the beſt manner, and ſelling them as low as poſſible. (2.) By the merchants making trial of a ſmall quantity of thoſe ſorts, which are not periſhable, nor too low priced; which has been done, and good returns made for them. And, in order to encourage the maker, the exporter, and the foreign markets, (3.) by the parliament's taking off the drawback on undreſſed deer-ſkins, and giving ſuch a bounty, or allowing ſuch a drawback on the exportation of buck, doe, and ſheep-ſkin breeches, as may appear nearly adequate to the duties, and the exciſe which the ſkins and leather have paid.

As the duties and exciſe are the great obſtruction to the exportation of leather breeches, it may be conducive to the general good, if our ſuperiors would pleaſe to conſider, that, as this article now ſtands, our politic rivals, the French, have, and do actually buy our deer-ſkins undreſſed, taking the drawback on exportation, and dreſs and manufacture them at home, and ſend them in breeches to a foreign market, where they have ſold very well (though inferior in many reſpects to thoſe that are made in London) which ſeems to be owing to our ill-judged impoſts, duties, and exciſes on leather. See the article LABOUR.

LEATHER-CUTTER and CURRIER, is a buſineſs in London of large extent, and is generally carried on by thoſe who were originally curriers; between whom and the worſhipful company of cordwainers in London, there was ſome few years ſince a diſpute at law, concerning the right of cutting leather; which, after expending ſome thouſands of pounds, ended with each party's ſitting down with their own coſts. To curry a ſkin, is to finiſh it after it comes from the tanner; the art conſiſteth in cutting them to a proper ground, waxing, colouring, and making them fit for the uſe of ſeveral manufactures. It is deemed a good employment for maſter and journeyman, eſpecially as they now cut large quantities of bucks and buffs into ſoals for ſhoes and boots, and of calves leather for upper-leathers for ſhoes and legs for boots; which they ſell to many ſhoemakers in town and country, wholeſale and retail, and deal largely in all the ſorts of uncut, tanned, and other leather. It is a buſineſs, that, in it's preſent ſituation, requires a good capital; the tanner ſelling chiefly for ready money, and the returns generally conſiderable, with ſome * very large.

* There is one on Snow-Hill, London, ſaid to return near 40,000l. per ann.

LEATHER-DRESSER. We have before obſerved, that leather might be divided into three aſſortments, i. e. tanned or tawed, oil and allum leather; and the dreſſers into the like number. For the tanned or tawed leather, ſee TANNER. Thoſe who dreſs in oil and allum come under this article, and are called leather-dreſſers. The art of dreſſing ſkins in oil is a buſineſs of large extent, and very beneficial to this kingdom. To deſcribe every proceſs in this art is needleſs; it may be ſufficient to ſay, that when the ſkins are put into work, they are firſt ſoaked, then thrown into the lime-pit, when taken thence are pulled and delivered to the ſtriezer, then ſtruck with the oil and ſent to the mill; when they are milled ſufficiently, they are thrown into the drench to be ſcoured, (then by ſome ſcudded) which done, they are hung upon the hooks to dry; after which they are deemed leather, and when the proper officers have weighed and marked them, in order to eſtimate the exciſe duty thereon, they are fit for the market, or to be ſent to the reſpective proprietors. The ſorts of ſkins dreſſed in oil, are deer, ſheep, and lamb (ſome few goat, and others not worth mentioning) of which prodigious quantities are conſumed, when wrought into the different manufactures made thereof. It is a flouriſhing buſineſs in moſt parts of the kingdom; it's profeſſors (thoſe eſpecially who dreſs their own ſkins) being men of large fortunes, and dealing for very conſiderable ſums: London, Briſtol, and Exeter, are the principal markets for oil-leather *, although there are others, and oil mills ſet up within theſe few years, in ſeveral part of the kingdom.

* The oil they uſe is Newfoundland, i. e. cod's liver oil, of which they conſume a great quantity.

Some of this buſineſs make from their pieces a large quantity of glue, which is judged to be the beſt that is; that made by Shipton and ſons of Watford in particular.—It may, perhaps, be of ſervice for the farmer to know, that the fleſhings and ſhavings, made by friezing the ſkins, is a very rich manure.

The allum leather-dreſſer is one, that underſtandeth the manner of dreſſing ſkins in allum, of which there is a conſiderable conſumption; the art conſiſteth in properly ſoaking, limeing, wringing*, and ſtriking them in a liquor compoſed of water, ſalt, and allum, then drying them properly; which done, and the exciſe account taken, they are fit for the market.—The ſorts of ſkins dreſſed in allum are ſheep and lambs and a large quantity of kid.

* Some ſorts are not wrung, nor any by ſome dreſſers.

LEATHER-DYER. This is an art of which there are but few in the trade; their buſineſs is to dye, colour, oil, and allum leather, for the manufacturers; which they do of all colours, ſome of them to a very great nicety. This profeſſion hath ſuffered by black ram-ſkin breeches not being ſo generally worn now, as they were before the death of her late majeſty. The mourning for her occaſioning a large demand for black ram lamb-ſkins, obliged the manufacturers to dye ſome ſkins that were not quite proper; and the dyer being preſſed to expedite them too faſt, were the true cauſes that many of them did not come up to the character they bore before that time: the conſequence of this was (and ever will be in ſuch caſes) a decline in their conſumption; notwithſtanding which, there is not ſo good or ſerviceable a commodity of the colour as black ram-ſkin breeches are, when made as they ought to be. We take notice of this as a caution to all manufacturers, to be careful how they vend an indifferent commodity, for the ſake of a preſent profit; for it will prove in the run of trade to be a future loſs, to all concerned in that manufacture; therefore this ſhould never be done, on any conſideration whatſoever.

LEATHER-PARER and GROUNDER is an art, by which it's profeſſors give the finiſhing ſtroke to all ſorts of oil, allum, and ſome tanned leathers. It conſiſteth in bringing the oil leather to it's proper face, by pareing off the ſurface left on it by the dreſſer, and grounding it with a ſtone, compoſed or made of pieces of the pumice-ſtone; and in waſhing and grounding the allum and tanned leather, and making all fit for the uſe of the ſeveral manufacturers. It is a laborious art, that affordeth a good maintenance to the maſter, and good wages to the journeyman.

LEATHER-SELLER is a buſineſs that is followed by many in this city, and ſeveral other parts of the kingdom. They buy large quantities of undreſſed deer-ſkins of the importers: oil, allum, and ſome ſorts of tanned leather of the dreſſers; all which they ſell to the manufacturers.—It is a very genteel buſineſs, but their returns being large and ſlow, (they buying all their undreſſed deer-ſkins with ready money, and giving large credit) it requires a very large capital to carry it on. In the city of London they are an incorporated company, &c. and generally have with an apprentice 100 l. frequently more.

The chief laws of England relating to leather.

There ſhall be paid for all ſkins and hides, and pieces of ſkins and hides imported, the duties following, over and above all other cuſtoms.

For all deer-ſkins dreſſed in oil or allum, or otherwiſe perfectly dreſſed and imported, 6 d. per pound.

For all loſhee, buffalo, elke, or any other hides dreſſed in oil, 4 d. per pound.

For Ruſſia hides imported, 2 d. per pound.

For tanned hides and calf-ſkins imported, 1 d. ½ per pound.

For horſe, mare, or gelding's hides, imported and dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, 1 s. per hide.

For hides of ſteers, cows, or any other hides imported, and dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, 2 s. for every hide.

For calf-ſkins and kipps imported, dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, 1 d. ½ per pound.

For all ſlink calf's-ſkins imported and dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or otherwiſe, with the hair on, 1 d. per pound; if without the hair, ½ d. per pound, and the like ½ d. for dog's ſkins.

For cordivants, 4 s. per dozen imported.

For goat-ſkins not uſually called cordivants, imported and dreſſed in oil or allum, ſalt, meal, or otherwiſe, 6 d. per lb.

For all kid-ſkins imported, dreſſed or undreſſed, 1 s. per dozen; and, if any of the kid-ſkins ſhall be dreſſed after imported, no farther duty ſhall be paid.

For all ſheep-ſkins imported and dreſſed in oil, 1 s. per dozen; and upon all imported ſheep-ſkins and lamb ſkins dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal, or tawed, 6 d. per dozen.

For all hides and ſkins, and pieces imported, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, and not before charged; and for all wares made into manufacture of leather, or whereof the greateſt part is leather, a duty after the rate of 15 l. for every 100 l. of the real value, to be paid by the importer.

For hides tanned in England, 1 s. per pound.

For calf's-ſkins, kipps, hog-ſkins, and dog-ſkins, tanned in England, 1 d. per pound.

For goat-ſkins tanned with ſumac, or otherwiſe in reſembling Spaniſh leather, 2 d. per pound.

For all ſheep-ſkins, which ſhall be tanned for roanes in England, 1 d per pound.

For all ſheep-ſkins and lamb-ſkins tanned in England for gloves and bazils, a half penny per pound.

For all other ſkins and pieces of ſkins (not before charged) and tanned in England, a duty after the rate of 15 l. for every 100 l. of the true value, to be paid by the tanners.

For hides of horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in allum, ſalt, meal, or tawed, in England, 1 s. per hide.

For hides of ſteers, cows, or any other hides dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal, 2 s. per hide.

For calf-ſkins and kipps dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal in England, 1 d. per pound.

For all ſlink calf ſkins dreſſed with the hair on, 1 s. 6 d. per dozen.

For all buck and doe-ſkins dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal in England, or tawed, 3 d. per pound.

For all kid-ſkins, 6 d. per dozen.

For goat-ſkins, 1 s. 6 d. per dozen.

For ſheep-ſkins and lamb ſkins, a halfpenny per pound.

And for all other ſkins and parts of ſkins, tawed in England, fifteen pounds in the hundred of the true value, and proportionably for greater or leſſer quantities; all the duties to be paid by the tawers or makers thereof into leather.

For all hides and ſkins dreſſed in oil in England, 4 d. per pound.

For deer-ſkins, beaver-ſkins, goat-ſkins, and calf's-ſkins, dreſſed in oil in England, 4 d. per pound.

For ſheep-ſkins dreſſed in oil, and for lamb-ſkins, 1 d. per pound.

For all other ſkins and parts of ſkins dreſſed in oil, fifteen pounds for every hundred pounds of the true value, and ſo proportionably.

Tanned hides are ſuch as are tanned in ooze, made of the bark of trees, or ſumac. Hides dreſſed in oil, are ſuch as are made into leather, in oil or any liquor, of which the chief ingredient is oil; tawed hides are ſuch as are dreſſed in allum, ſalt, or meal.

For all vellum and parchment made in England, or imported, after the rate of 1 s. per dozen; for vellum imported, and for parchment imported, 6 d. per dozen; and the ſame, if made in England, to be paid by the maker.

When the duty is paid on ſkins imported, the officer of the cuſtoms ſhall mark them, to ſhew that the duty is paid.

If the raw hide of any ox, bull, ſteer, or cow, or the ſkin of a calf, ſhall wilfully or negligently be gaſhed or cut in the flaying, or, being gaſhed, ſhall be offered to ſale by any other butcher, then he who gaſheth it, or who offered it to ſale, ſhall forfeit 2 s. 6 d. for every hide, and 1 s. for every calf's-ſkin, one moiety to the poor where the ſame ſhall be offered to ſale or found, the other moiety to the informer.

A tanner ſhaving a hide or calf's-ſkin before it it thoroughly tanned, ſo that it is impaired and the duty diminiſhed, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, or the value thereof, one moiety to the crown, and the other to the informer.

Tanners, &c. ſhall not uſe any place for drying hides or ſkins, &c. without giving notice to the proper officer of the places for drying and keeping their hides.

Collar-makers, glovers, bridle-cutters, and others who dreſs ſkins in allum, &c. and who cut the ſame into wares, ſhall be accounted tawers, and ſubject to the penalties and forfeitures aforeſaid, and ſhall be charged with the duties before the ſkins be cut and converted into wares.

Where hides or leather manufactures are exported, in ſuch a caſe, upon ſhipping them, and upon ſufficient ſecurity given to the cuſtomer, that ſuch hides or ware ſhall not be relanded in England, the cuſtomer ſhall give the exporter a certificate in writing of the kinds, qualities, and weight of the hides, calf-ſkins, and wares exported; and, upon producing that certificate to the collector of the duties at the port where they ſhall be exported, then he, or in his default the commiſſioners of the duties, ſhall repay two-thirds of the duties which were before charged for the ſaid hides, &c. and wares ſo ſhipped to be exported.

Wares made of hides or ſkins, ſhall have now drawback, as made wares, in reſpect of being dreſſed, or curried by a currier.

All ſheep-ſkins and lamb-ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, which are chargeable with any duties by the act 9 Ann. ſhall, upon exportation thereof, have a drawback or allowance of two thirds of the duties uſual, as upon exportion of hides and calf-ſkins.

Some other of the laws and regulations in England in regard to leather tanned.

* As manufactures of tanned leather, ſuch as boots, ſhoes, gloves, or other goods and wares, are, upon exportation,

entitled to a drawback or repayment of the exciſe duties; therefore, beſides making an entry as for other goods, the exporter muſt, on the bill of entry, give a certificate of the kinds and weights, as a foundation for making out a debenture to obtain the drawback, the form of which certificate muſt be as in the following example:

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

16th of February 1730.—No. 26.

In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright, maſter, for Jamaica.

William Turner.

Four dozen and an half of mens leather-heel ſhoes — — —
Three dozen of womens ſhoes —
Fifteen dozen of boys and girls ſhoes
} Containing two hundred forty-nine pounds.

Theſe are to certify, That the ſhoes above-mentioned, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were made of tanned hides and calf-ſkins, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of her late majeſty queen Anne; and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of the tenth year of her ſaid late majeſty's reign.

William Turner.

And, before the ſaid manufactures of tanned leather are ſhipped off, ſufficient ſecurity muſt be given for the due exportation, in the following manner:

A bond for the exportation of manufactures of tanned leather.

KNOW ALL MEN by theſe preſents,

Whereas the above-bounden William Turner hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright, maſter, for Jamaica, four dozen and a half of mens leather-heel ſhoes, three dozen of womens ſhoes, and fifteen dozen of boys and girls ſhoes, made of tanned hides and calf ſkins, weighing two hundred and forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne; and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of the tenth year of her ſaid late majeſty queen Anne: And whereas the ſaid William Turner, upon the exportation of the ſaid ſhoes, is to have an allowance or drawback, according to the ſaid acts of parliament on that behalf made:

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid ſhoes and every part thereof, ſhall be really and truly exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and no part thereof be relanded, or unſhipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on ſhore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain; then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain and be in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

William Turner *.
Daniel Bright *.

A debenture for hides and calves-ſkin leather, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, exported.

Port of Southampton,

* Theſe are to certify, That Bartholomew Richardſon did enter with us the 16th day of February 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, twelve bales of tanned hides and calf-ſkin leather, containing one hundred and ſix hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds avoirdupoiſe weight; and hath made oath, that all the tanned hides and calf-ſkins contained in the ſaid twelve bales reſpectively (weighed as above-mentioned) were marked with the marks and ſtamps denoting the charging of the duties of one penny and one half-penny per pound, payable for the ſame by the ſeveral acts of parliament made in that behalf, and not with the marks or ſtamps denoting the charging the duty of one half-penny per pound, as being ſtock in hand, the 24th day of June 1711. Certified this 19th day of March 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4, 5.

Bond is taken in the penalty of one hundred pounds, that all the ſaid tanned hides and calf-ſkin leather ſhall be exported into foreign parts, and ſhall not be relanded or brought on ſhore again in any port or ports of Great-Britain.

A B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The one hundred and ſix hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds of tanned hides and calf-ſkins above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 18th of February laſt. Certified the 22d of March 1730.

E. F. Searcher.
F. G. Surveyor.
G. H. Land-waiter.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
The two-third parts of the old duty payable by the 9th of queen Anne, to be repaid for the tanned hides and calf-ſkins within mentioned, amount to thirty-three pounds one ſhilling and ſeven pence half-penny — — —	33	1	7½
The two-third parts of the additional duty payable by 10 Ann. to be repaid for the ſaid hides and ſkins, amount to ſixteen pounds ten ſhillings and nine pence half-penny — —	16	10	9½
The total —	49	12	5

A. B. Collector
C. D. Comptroller
} of the cuſtoms.

Note. Hides and calf-ſkins dreſſed, or curried, are to be allowed one penny per pound weight. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 26. Sheep and lamb-ſkins tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, are to be allowed two-third parts of the duties formerly paid. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 69.

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the cuſtoms, the ſame is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and ſkins at the port of exportation; who is forthwith, out of the monies in his hands ariſing by the ſaid duties, to repay the two-thirds, (as above) of the duties which were before paid; or in default thereof, the commiſſioners of the ſaid duties are to repay the ſame.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

A debenture for manufactures of tanned leather.

Port of Southampton,

* William Turner did enter with us the 16th of February 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, four dozen and an half of mens leather heel ſhoes, three dozen of womens ſhoes, fifteen dozen of boys and girls ſhoes, made of tanned hides and calf-ſkins, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the tenth year of her ſald late majeſty's reign.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of four pounds, that the ſhoes above-mentioned, and every part thereof, ſhall be exported for parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded or brought on ſhore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The ſhoes above-mentioned containing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were ſhipped the 16th of February laſt. Certified the 20th of March 1730.

D. E. Searcher.
E. F. Surveyor.
F. G. Land-waiter.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid, as follow:

	l.	s.	d.
The old duty payable by the ninth of Anne, to be repaid for the ſhoes within mentioned, amounts to one pound and nine-pence —	1	0	9
The additional duty payable by the tenth of Anne, to be repaid for the ſaid ſhoes, amounts to ten ſhillings and four pence half-penny —	0	10	4½
The total -	1	11	1

A. B. Collector
C. D. Comptroller
} of the cuſtoms.

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the cuſtoms, the ſame is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and ſkins at the port of exportation, or to the commiſſioners for managing the ſaid duties; who are forthwith, out of the monies ariſing for the ſame duties, to repay (as above) one penny half-penny for every pound thereof; although the marks and ſtamps to denote the payment of the duties do not appear on ſuch ſhoes [or other wares.]

Relanded, forfeited with treble the value.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 41. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 68.

REMARKS on LEATHER-DRESSING in general.

Although there is no little difference between the dreſſers of ſhamoy, allum leather, Hungary leather, Morocco leather, the tanner, and parchment-maker; yet the ſkins which paſs through the hands of ſeveral workmen, ought to have been, for the moſt part at leaſt, waſhed of the blood and impurities in a running water; ſet to drain; worked with hands, or pounded with wooden peſtles in a vat; put into the pit (made in the ground, and bordered with wood, or ſtone and mortar) filled with water in which quick lime is diſſolved, in or-

der to looſen the hair, that it may be eaſily rubbed off without injuring the ſkin; drawn out, and ſet to drain on the edge of the pit; ſtretched on the leg or horſe, in order to have the hair ſcraped off with a blunt iron knife, or a wooden cylinder; pared off the membranes on the fleſhy ſide, and of the ſcabs or roughneſs on the grain ſide with a ſharp knife, rubbed with a whetſtone on the ſame horſe, to take off any particles of the lime or other thing, which may occaſion hardneſſes; thickened by different ſorts of powder, whereby they become greater in bulk, and ſo much lighter, as gradually to riſe to the ſurface of the water; ſtretched out green or half dried, and piled one over another; or put up ſeparate after dried to a cruſt; hung out to air upon poles, lines, or any other way: which muſt be repeatedly done in the dreſſing of ſmall ſkins.

This alternate tranſition from the liquid of the air into that of water, and from water into the air, with the aſſiſtance of the lime, ſalts, and oils, opens the inmoſt fibres of the ſkin ſo effectually, as greatly to facilitate the introduction of ſubſtances proper for making them pliant without rendering them thinner.

Natural philoſophy would be embarraſſed to ſettle the order and number of theſe operations, by dint of reaſon à priori alone: but what the moſt penetrating genius has never been able to invent, frequent handling of the ſame thing brings a man to practiſe with eaſe and ſucceſs. Common workmen continue to do the ſame thing ſcrupulouſly by habit. One of them, more expert than the reſt, and whoſe experience makes up all his philoſophy, overſees the whole, judges of the degree of dryneſs and moiſture, hardneſs and ſoftneſs, determines juſtly; and either repeats, lengthens, or ſhortens the proceſſes.

Theſe proceſſes, though really the ſame in the four or five principal dreſſings of leather, are ſo different in regard to the manner of executing them, and the time required in them, that the knowledge of all the minute particulars is requiſite for him who would underſtand the trade to perfection.

The allum leather-dreſſer dreſſes all ſorts of white leather, from the ox-hide to the lamb-ſkin. He works chiefly for the ſaddler and glover. For dreſſing the ſaddler's leather, he uſes bran, ſea-ſalt and allum. For that which the glover uſes, after the common preparatives, he firſt employs bran, and then with ſalt, allum, fine flour, and yolks of eggs mixed in hot water, he makes a ſort of pap, with which the ſkins are ſmeared in a trough.

The ſhamoy dreſſer ſoaks in oil *, not only the ſkins of the true ſhamoy, which is a wild goat, but likewiſe thoſe of all other goats, though much inferior to the true, and even ſheep-ſkins, which he dreſſes like ſhamoy.

* The ſhamoy leather-dreſſer uſes fiſh-oil.

The tanner uſes the bark of young oaks, from eighteen to thirty years old, ground in a tanning-mill; in which he ſoaks ſkins more or leſs, according to the different ſervices expected from them, and their chief uſe is to remain firm and keep out water.

Whereas the tanner's way of dreſſing leather in lime and tan, takes up two or three years; the Hungary * leather-dreſſer allows but three or four weeks to that which paſſes through his hands. He ſupplies the harneſs-makers, ſaddlers, belt-makers, and all other trades that uſe not only white and allum leather, or oiled and tanned leather, but alſo ſkins coloured grey with ink, and dreſſed in tallow, which is the diſtinctive work of the Hungarian leather-dreſſer †.

* The Hungary leather-dreſſer employs ſuet or tallow.

† The leather-dreſſers in England dreſs this ſort of leather to great perfection.

His name (Hongreyeur in French) and method came from Hungary, whither a French workman went, by order of Henry IV. to learn the trade by ſtealth; and thereby to lower the price of harneſſes, and ſeveral other things wanting in his armies, made of leather.

The tanner, in certain caſes, inſtead of tan, uſes redon, which is a plant cultivated much in Gaſcony, and very common in Poliſh Ruſſia.—It ſerves chiefly for tanning ram and ſheep-ſkins, which the French call baſanes: but it is alſo uſed in dreſſing Ruſſia leather, which the Poliſh Ruſſians make a great myſtery of, though there is a very good manufacture of that ſort at St. Germain en Laye.

The conſit and ſumac are litttle in uſe but for Morocco leather. The conſit, into which goat-ſkins are put after the common preparations, is a large tub of warm water, wherein they are thrown, after having diſſolved therein a very cheap ſubſtance taken from the animal kingdom, viz. the ſweepings of dog-kennels; for there is nothing in nature, but what the philoſophic artiſt can uſefully apply.

The ſumac is taken from the vegetable kingdom. It is a duſt, which comes on the leaves and ſmall branches of the plant called rhus, or ſumac. It is ſumac, with galls and allum, that the Morocco leather dreſſers chiefly uſe; whoſe intention is to give a grain to goat-ſkins, and thereby to render them ſuſceptible of the moſt beautiful colours. They call grain thoſe little wrinkles or furrows, which run all over the ſurface of Morocco leather, as alſo that of calves and cows-leather, which they bring to a reſemblance of it, by dint of waſhing, pounding, wringing, and folding the ſkins different ways. They uſe alſo water tinged with ruſt of iron, which ſerves to give a black colour; and laque [ſee LAQUE] and other ſubſtances, which colour the ſkins red, yellow, &c.

The workmen, who give the grain and the moſt likely colours to ſkins of the ſhamoy, or other goats, and who dreſs calves and ſheeps ſkins in the ſame manner to imitate Morocco, make a great ſecret of certain parts of their art, which are the niceſt; but the experimental philoſopher is rarely at a loſs to diſcover any, which he in earneſt attempts.

As the grain and beautiful dyes of goat-ſkins are the work of the Morocco leather dreſſer, the laſt preparations and dyes, given to certain tanned leather, are the buſineſs of the currier. So likewiſe, when ſkins dreſſed white by the ſkinner, are deſtined for writing or drawing, the parchment-maker puts the finiſhing hand to them.

Of ſkins brought from the tan-yard, ſome are ſent in cruſt to the ſhoemakers and other tradeſmen who employ hard leather, the reſt are ſoftened, and ſometimes coloured by the currier.

His chief buſineſs is to ſoften and ſupple cows and calves-ſkins, which make the upper leathers and quarters of ſhoes, coverings of coaches, harneſs, and other things; which muſt keep out water, bear continual jolts, and yet be pliant, either for receiving a handſome ſhape, or to facilitate motion by their giving way.

Firſt, theſe ſkins, after coming from the tanner's yard, having ſtill many fleſhy fibres on them, the currier ſoaks them ſome time in common water.

Secondly, he takes them out and ſtretches them on a very even wooden horſe. Then with a paring-knife he ſcrapes off all the ſuperfluous fleſh, and puts them into ſoak again.

Thirdly, he puts them wet on a hurdle, and tramples them with his heels, 'till they begin to become ſoft and pliant.

Fourthly, he ſoaks them in train-oil, which, by it's unctuoſity, is the beſt liquor for this purpoſe.

Fifthly, he ſpreads them on large tables, and faſtens them at the ends. Theſe, with the help of an inſtrument called a pummel, which is a thick piece of wood, the underſide whereof is full of furrows croſſing each other, he folds, ſqueezes, and moves them forward and backward ſeveral times under the teeth of this inſtrument, which breaks their too great ſtiffneſs. This is what is properly called currying. The order and number of theſe operations vary in different places, but the material part is always the ſame.

Sixthly, after the ſkins are curried, there may be occaſion to make them white or black. In order to whiten them, they are rubbed with lumps of chalk or white lead, and afterwards with a pumice-ſtone. As calves-leather is generally required to be thin, inſtead of uſing the ſcraping-knife to take off the fleſh, the currrier makes uſe of the round paring-knife, which carries a good edge on it's whole circumference, and has a round opening in the center, big enough to let both hands through, in order to manage it with ſtrength. When a calf's-ſkin is hung on the paring-horſe or frame, which has a croſs-bar at top and is open at bottom, the workman faſtens it on tight, and pulls it down as he thinks fit, by means of a cord that ſecures both ends of it, and goes round his own body. He then rubs it with chalk, and with the knife he pares off the fleſh. He repeats this work as often as is neceſſary, 'till the ſkin is as thin and white as he deſires.

Seventhly, when a ſkin is to be made black, after having oiled and dried it, he dips a puff, which is a thick tuft of fringes or hair, in water impregnated with iron. The old iron, which he has let ſtand ſome time in this water, together with it's ruſt, depoſes a quantity of ſalts, and particles of iron, which are known to be the baſis of the blackneſs of ink. After this firſt wetting, he gives the ſkin another in a water prepared with ſoot, vinegar, and gum arabic. Theſe different dyes gradually turn the ſkin black, and the operations are repeated 'till it is of a ſhining black. The grain and wrinkles, which contribute to the ſuppleneſs of calves and cows-leather, are made by the reiterated folds given to the ſkin in every direction, and by the care taken to ſcrape off all hard parts on the coloured ſide.

The parchment-makers buſineſs is more ſimple. After the ſkinner has dreſſed the ſkins white which he wants, and put them on the paring horſe, pared, rubbed them with chalk ſeveral times, wetted, pumiced, wetted again, drained, rubbed them again with pumice ſtone, duſted them with a piece of lamb's-ſkin with the wool on; the parchment-maker takes thoſe ſame ſkins to ſcrape them dry, and rub them thinner on both ſides with an iron inſtrument.

After he has gathered up the ſcrapings, for making a thin glue or ſize, which ſerves particularly for ſizing the warp of ſeveral ſorts of woollen ſtuffs, and for making it move eaſier through the reed; he finiſhes his work by rubbing the ſkin with the pumice-ſtone, and carefully removing all roughneſs from the ſurface of it. If it be a ſheep-ſkin, it is called parchment, the principal uſe of which is to engroſs acts or deeds that are required to laſt long.

If it be a ſlink calf or lamb's-ſkin, it is named vellum; and is uſed by deſigners for whatever requires a very ſmooth ground and great propriety in the execution.

We ſee the advantage of differently imbibing ſkins with tallow, mutton-ſuet, or fiſh oil, and of feeding them with ſome vegetable powders.

Inſtead of thoſe ſubſtances, many of which are brought from very remote places, and are expenſive to be got; it is not impoſſible but we may have ſome as good, or better at home, which are not taken notice of. We have a number of large ſeeds and thick barks, which might yield powders or oils fit to ſupply the places above-mentioned. In coſtly undertakings, it is prudent to adhere to what has already ſucceeded: but a more noble concern ought to put our manufacturers upon making daily trials of improvement in little. The ſame experimental philoſophy, which has merited our acknowledgements by it's firſt diſcoveries, may ſtill gain more glory, by diminiſhing the tedioufneſs and expence of ſeveral works, and, perhaps, even by ſuppreſſing ſome unneceſſary rules or operations in the mechanic as well as manufactural arts.

LEDGER, in regard to accountantſhip [ſee ACCOUNTANTSHIP], is a large book, containing all the tranſactions of a trader's or gentleman's affairs, methodized in the form of debtor or creditor. The ledger, indeed, is only the waſte-book, or the journal ſo digeſted, as to exhibit, as it were, at one view, the ſtate of a merchant's, or any other trader's concerns, though they be ever ſo various and complicated.

To methodize every diſtinct account in a peculiar book, two pages are required, oppoſite to each other; that on the left hand ſerving for the debtor ſide, the other for that of the creditor: and each article conſiſts of five parts, viz. the date, the perſon whom we credit, or are credited by, the thing for which we are indebted or credited, the page where ſuch counterpart is found, and the ſum or amount of the article, ſo poſted into the ledger.

The peculiar nature and form of this grand livre, or moſt eſſential book, as the French call it, we have exemplified under the article of BANKING; where at the ſame time that we illuſtrate the art of accountantſhip by debtor and creditor, we likewiſe comprehend the principal buſineſs of domeſtic banking. See BANKING.

We ſhall here take occaſion alſo to illuſtrate the utility and importance of this book, by tranſactions drawn from ſome real foreign mercantile concerns, that happened ſome years ſince; which will give a lively idea, not only of foreign mercantile accounts, but of the nature of conducting the buſineſs of a trading voyage at the ſame time.

Thoſe mercantile tranſactions, as they fell out, are as follow; viz.

Thomas Dale of Leghorn, James Goodman of Barcelona, Peter Winberton of Smyrna, Peter Blaxland of New England, John King, John Kelly, Peter Bradbey of London, James Bradſon of Bilboa, James Dixon of Cadiz, and James Corman of Liſbon, correſpond and trade with each other: viz.

Thomas Dale of Leghorn buys the Anne galley, and fits her out to ſea, to proceed on a voyage from Leghorn to Barcelona, and thence to Smyrna and the Arches, for a lading of wheat for Liſbon, to be conſigned to the care and diſpoſal of James Corman, who is $\frac{1}{3}$ part concerned therein, and Thomas Dale $\frac{2}{3}$, and who paid for the hull, maſts, &c. according to inventory and contract 1600 dollars, and paid all charges of fitting out to ſea, as per accompt, dollars 1589 : 12 —Inſured dollars 3600 on the hull from Leghorn for Barcelona, at 9 per cent. with more, $\frac{1}{2}$ per mill. palace charges —Alſo inſured dollars 6000 on the hull and ſtock, from Barcelona to Smyrna, the Arches, and to Liſbon, at 28 per cent. with more $\frac{1}{2}$ per mill. palace charges, and reckons his proviſion on both inſurances $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—The galley arriving at Barcelona, James Goodman receives the freight of barley and wheat, made by ſaid galley, being dollars 1242 : 10— Buys 2000 pieces of eight Spaniſh money, amounting for coſt and charges to dollars 2068 : 12 : 6—Delivers them to Capt. Barnby commander of the galley, to diſpoſe of in Smyrna, in buying a cargo of wheat—Pays alſo to ſaid captain dollars 280—Reckons for his commiſſion on ſaid tranſactions dollars 30 : 2 : 6, and 15 ſols for poſtage of letters—Draws the ballance of accompt on Thomas Dale of Leghorn, at livres 18 $\frac{1}{4}$ per piſtole—The galley arriving at Smyrna, Peter Winberton ſells the 2000 pieces of eight, weighing 1951 (moſt pillar) one with the other, at 35 per cent.—Paid conſulage 2 per cent. ſhroffage, or loſs on money, 4 per mill.—Reckons his proviſion and brokerage at 2 per cent.—Buys a cargo of wheat at ſundry prices, viz. 622 kellows at $\frac{22}{40}$, and at $\frac{1}{120}$ per kellow—659 ditto at $\frac{22}{40}$— 505 kellows at $\frac{21}{40}$, and at $\frac{1}{120}$—1800 ditto at $\frac{23}{40}$—1194 ditto at $\frac{21}{40}$, and at $\frac{1}{120}$—Pays petty expences, and for boats, &c. dollars 20 : 2—For conſulage 4 per cent.—Brokerage $\frac{1}{80}$ of a dollar per kellow—Reckons his proviſion at 3 per cent.—Pays to Capt. Barnby dollars 235, and draws the ballance on Thomas Dale at 13 per cent.—Thomas Dale draws on James Corman dollars 1506 : 18 : 7, at 930— Dollars 400, at 925—Dollars 300, at 930, and the ballance of Corman's accompt current at 930—Having reckoned him $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. brokerage, and expences of poſtage of letters at Leghorn, Amſterdam, and London, amounting to dollars 24 : 5 : 1—The galley arriving at Liſbon, Corman ſells the lading of wheat (that was purchaſed by Winberton) as follows—360 Alquiers at 480 rees per alquier—60 Ditto at 460—358 Ditto at 450—10,494 Ditto at 440—488 Ditto at 430—And, by ſelling the corn to ſeveral perſons, it fell ſhort 3 moys of what it firſt meaſured aboard—Corman paid meaſuring aboard of 204 moys, 80 rees per moy—Boat-hire to Bellem on ditto 100 rees per moy—Porterage into the warehouſe on ditto, 90 rees per moy—Boat-hire from Bellem to the market on 190 moys, at 120 rees per moy—Porters, landing, cartage, &c. on 190 moys, 210 rees per moy —Meaſuring into the market on 204 moys, 100 rees per moy—Porterage, cartage, &c. to a private warehouſe for ſale, on 38 moys, at 380 rees per moy—Hire of empty ſacks, 10,300 rees—Gave the health office at Liſbon 48 milrees—Ditto at Bellem, for aſſiſting in unloading 10,300 rees —Guards to watch the boats, with ſundry expences, 8500 rees—Warehouſe room, and turning, 22,700 rees—Selling in the markets 201 moys, at 600 rees per moy—Brokerage on 201 moys, at 100 rees per moy—His commiſſion 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on ſales.

Corman buys the ſhip Jenny for his own accompt, for 960 milrees—Lades on board her 155 moys of ſalt, at 3500 rees per moy, and charges, amounting to 576,770 rees—Pays ſundry diſburſements in fitting her out to ſea for New England, Capt. John Walker, amounting to 581,572 rees—He alſo pays fundries on the Anne galley for her voyage to Algier, to lade corn on freight; viz. To the captain, as per his accompt of diſburſements (allowed) 910,819 rees—To guards and pilot 15,840 rees—For 5 boats of ballaſt 17,500 —For 7 barrels of beef, and 2 frails of fruit, 34 milrees— For 3 caſks of butter, containing nett 249lb. at 35 rees per pound—For port charges, as per Tho. Harwood's accompt, 16 milrees—For a pilot going out 7200 rees—For 25 alquiers of peaſe, &c. as per bill, 76 milrees—To William Pratt, the ſhip-chandler, as per his accompt, 328 milrees— To John Stamp, the ſail-maker, as per his accompt, 93 milrees—For wine and fruit 9600 rees—For 3 cannons 48 milrees—For ſundry petty expences 3600 rees—For caſh paid Capt. Barnby 14,400 rees, and ſaid Corman reckons 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. commiſſion—Ship Jenny arriving at Boſton in New England, Peter Blaxland ſells to James Dudley 210 hogſheads of Liſbon ſalt, at 33 s. per hogſhead—To John Prieſtly 30 hogſheads of French ſalt, at 28 s. per hogſhead —To ditto 121 hogſheads ditto, at 25 s. per hogſhead—To John Pieterſon 78 hogſheads ditto, and 20 s. per hogſhead— Pays lighterage, and porterage of the ſalt landing and meaſuring, l. 10 : 1 : 10—Pays ſtorage for the ſalt that was landed, 5 l.—Reckons his commiſſion at 5 per cent.—The Anne galley returns from Algier to Liſbon, and Corman receives of Samuel Bolt for freight (as per charter-party) of 155 tons of corn, and other goods brought from Algier, at 14,500 rees per ton—For 9 boats of ballaſt (ſold at Gibraltar) 18 pieces of eight—For $\frac{2}{3}$ port-charges at Liſbon 25,733 rees— Peter Blaxland, of Boſton in New England, buys 200 quintals of dry cod-fiſh at 21 s. per quintal—More 1000 quintals ditto at 22 s —More 294 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals of dry hack and haddock, at 16 s. 6 d. per quintal—More, 377 quintals of dry pollock, at 14 s. per quintal—Pays boat-hire, cullage, primage, and ſeveral extraordinary charges, amounting to l. 29 : 7 : 10—Reckons his commiſſion on coſt and charges at 5 per cent. and lades ſaid fiſh on board the Jenny for Bilboa, conſigned to James Bradſon for accompt of Corman, 1391 quintals, and for his own accompt 480 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals— Corman of Liſbon diſburſed and allowed ſundry ſums on the Anne galley for her voyage to Genoa and Leghorn on freight, viz. Pays to Capt. Barnby, as per his accompt, for mens wages, &c. 637,670 rees—Pays for damage, with porterage and waterage aboard, 2780 rees—For labourers, 10 men for one day and half, at 200 rees—For cooperage and for nails 8400—For ſundry proviſions, as beef, pork, butter, bread, peaſe, &c. as per bill, 204,851 rees—For port charges, as per Thomas Harwood's accompt, 23,900 rees—To the caulker, as per bill, 45,600—To James Leven the mate, 10 pieces of eight due to him, and diſcharged him—For 10 bolts of canvas at 10,300 rees—For a cable weighing 19 quintals one aroba, and a piece of hawſer, 176,175 rees— To William Pratt the ſhip-chandler, as per bill, 73,794 rees —To John Stamp the ſail-maker 31,355 rees—For pilotage out 10,080 rees, and ſundry petty expences 9500 rees—For conſulage at Liſbon, and vice-conſulage, and charges at Bellem for two voyages, 33 milrees—To Capt. Barnby (as per his accompt) for expences during the Algier voyage 181 pieces of eight at 800 rees, out of which he deducts 18 pieces of eight, which was charged in a former accompt of diſburſements—Reckons his commiſſion at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.— Blaxland of New England pays the ſhip Jenny's diſburſements, and to the captain, as per accompt and receipt, amounting to l. 437 : 8 : 4, and to reimburſe himſelf for the affairs done by him (as aforeſaid) draws by order of Corman

on

on John King of London, payable to Samuel Prag at 40 days ſight, l. 225 ſterl. at 55 per cent.—More on John Kelly of London, payable to Daniel Hooper at 40 days ſight, l. 100 ſterl. at 50 per cent. and the balance of account, he draws on Peter Bradby of London, payable to John Henchman at 40 days ſight, at 50 per cent.

The Anne galley arriving at Leghorn, Thomas Dale accompts for freight made from Liſbon to Genoa and Leghorn, viz. for freight (as per manifeſto) made good by Alberti Geminiani of Genoa, in l. 5825, at 51. per dollar, leſs 1 ½ per cent. on 1000 dollars drawn in—For freight received at Leghorn (according to manifeſto) 1104 dollars—For freight received for other merchandize, dollars 52 : 15—For average of 5 per cent. received for the owners on dollars 1104—And the ſaid Dale pays ſundry charges on ſaid galley, viz. for charges at Pratick, dollars 2 : 5—To the ſhip-chandler per accompt, dollars 42 : 4 : 1—To the butcher per accompt, dollars 17 : 7—For port-charges per accompt, dollars 22 : 11—To the ſhipwright per his accompt, dollars 8 : 10—To the baker for proviſions, &c. per his accompt, dollars 200—For ſalt proviſions, beef, &c. dollars 205—For ballaſt, dollars 25—For tranſlating the charter-party, dollar 1—To Capt. Barnby for his expences at this port, as per accompt, dollars 92 : 3 : 4—For charges, entering his conſulato, and procure, to recover in the freight, dollars 4 : 10—To Capt. Barnby for his expences at Genoa, l. 529 : 4, at 51. per dollar—For a barrel of tar at Genoa, paid for by Geminiani, 40l.—For expences incurred by Geminiani in going to Genoa, as per accompt, l. 168 : 9 : 4—For expences made by ditto at going from Genoa for Liſbon, l. 326 : 13 : 4—For boat-hire ſeveral times for aſſiſting the galley's diſpatch, dollars 1 : 10—Reckons his proviſion 2 per cent. recovering in the freight, and correſpondency for her diſpatch hence, and at Genoa, dollars 47 : 4 : 9—For poſtage of letters on this affair, dollars 4 : 11 : 6—The ſhip Jenny arrives at Bilboa, and there Bradſon ſells 1640 ½ quintals of fiſh to ſundry perſons, as per accompt, for rials plate 103,811—And delivers for provoſtage 2 ½ per cent. in ſpecie of fiſh, and one quintal to the weighers, as uſual—Pays for an expreſs to and from Portugal, when the ſhip arrived with orders to go to Liſbon, rials 13 : 26—To the inquiſition-veſſel 22 rials, and for refreſhment 45 rials—For freight of 12 gabars with fiſh, up to the keys, at 16 rials vellon per gabar—Unlading at the keys 9 gabars, at 93 rials vellon each—To the oxen, mews, and ſledges, carrying the lading of 12 gabars, at 20 rials vellon—Guards to watch the fiſh at landing, 10 rials plate—To ſeamen for their due, as cuſtomary, on 12 gabars, at 5 rials plate—For removing and piling 9 gabars in ſmall piles, at ſeparating the ſorts, at rials 22 ½ plate per gabar—Weighing out 9 gabars, at 20 rials plate—Town duties on weights, and new impoſt, rials 891 plate—Lodge-hire half a rial plate, per quintal on 1122 quintals—Contribution duties one per cent. on ſales—National duties ½ per cent.—Primage on 90 tons paid the captain at 2 ½ rials plate—Reckons commiſſion 5 per cent. on ſales and returns—Said Bradſon buys 300 bundles of cheſtnut-hoops, at 33 ½ quarts vellon per bundle—200 Bundles ditto at 4 rials vellon per bundle, which he ſhipped on board the Jenny for Cadiz, conſigned to James Dixon of ſaid place, for accompt of Corman, and pays ſhipping them on board two lighters, 2 marvedees vellon per bundle, and boat-hire aboard, rials 21 : 10 plate—The Anne galley arrives at Liſbon, and Corman accounts for freight made by her from Leghorn and Genoa to Liſbon, viz. J. Baptiſta Thialini, 30 parcels of ſewing ſilk, at 8 dollars per parcel—Lorenzo Geminiani 100 bales of paper, at dollars 2 ½ per bale—Nicolo Lazerogo 1100 bags of rice, containing 3710 quintals, at 700 rees per quintal—Nunez Alvarez 6 bundles of coral, 12 milrees—J. Rodrigus Autunez, 6 parcels of ribbon, 60 milrees—For primage 5 per cent. to the captain on 200 tons, at dollars 15 per ton, which was received of the above people, and paſſed to the captain's credit. Ship Jenny arrives at Cadiz, and James Dixon ſells, for accompt of Corman aforeſaid, 378 bundles of cheſtnut-hoops to Don Pedro de Tranquello, at 10 rials plate per flere of 2 bundles—More, 120 bundles ditto to ditto (being damaged) at 4 rials plate per flere of 2 bundles, and Capt. Walker had the remaining 2 bundles, which he applied to the ſhip's uſe—Dixon reckons brokerage one per cent.—For extraordinary charges on ſales aboard ½ per cent.—For commiſſion on ſales, and returns 5 per cent. of which 1 per cent. is to be charged on remiſſion, remains 4 per cent.—Dixon receives the freight made by the Jenny, Capt. Walker, from Bilboa, viz. for 2194 bars of iron weighing 577 quintals, conſigned to Don Juan de Matta Gonſalvez, at 6 ½ rials plate new money per quintal—For 1540 bars ditto, weighing 500 quintals, conſigned ditto at 6 ½ rials ditto—For 476 bars ditto, weighing 200 quintals ditto, and 8 bundles chapa de fierro, weighing 1369 pounds, together is 208 ⅝ quintals, at 6 ½ rials ditto, conſigned to Don Sebaſtian dos Lopez—For 250 bars ditto, weighing 100 quintals, conſigned to ditto, at 6 ½ rials ditto—For 774 rexas de fierro de arar, weighing 61 ½ quintals, conſigned to ditto, at 6 ½ rials ditto—For 72 carones de herrage clanos, weighing 140 quintals, conſigned to Don Juan Gonſalvez Lopez dos Santos, at 6 ½ rials plate—For 500 ſingle bundles of cheſtnut-hoops, conſigned to ſaid Dixon, being for accompt of the owner of the Jenny, nothing—For the groſs average on ſaid freight, occaſioned by the ſhip's loſing her bowſprit, deducting the ⅓ part of the charge to be borne by ſhip Jenny, and a proportion by the hoops: the remainder was adjuſted at ½ a rial plate per ducat, on 750 ducats; what received thereon, was 375 rials plate—Dixon reckons his commiſſion on ſaid freight, and groſs average, at 2 ½ per cent.—And by order of Corman, and for his accompt, ſells the ſhip Jenny, with all her maſts, yards, &c. to David Burrows, for 1300 pieces of eight, to pay in 30 days—Charges for boat-hire aboard ſeveral times, and other petty charges, 40 rials plate—For the duties of alcala y cientos on the ſale, which he has hopes to avoid paying; but, if he ſhould be obliged to it afterwards, he will then charge it to accompt; in the interim charges nothing—Reckons brokerage 1 per cent.—For commiſſion on ſale and returns 5 per cent. of which 1 per cent. is to be charged on remiſſion; remains 4 per cent. which he now charges.

Theſe tranſactions are ſtated as follow in the ledger only, according to the method of accountantſhip by double entry, whereby it will appear, what is due to or from the reſpective merchants herein concerned; what profit or loſs ariſes to each of them on this trade, and by the exchange or difference in the valuation of monies.

THOMAS DALE's LEDGER OF LEGHORN.

SHIP THE ANNE GALLEY, IN C°. between Corman $\frac{1}{3}$ and Self $\frac{2}{3}$

		Reference column to ledger.	Dr. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(1)	To cash, paid for the ship, charges fitting to Barcelona, and for two insurances -		5198 -	8 :	—
(4)	To cash, paid for the draught of Goodman's account of Barcelona for balance } *		1092 :	14 :	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(6)	To cash, paid Winberton of Smyrna balance of his account per his account }		504 :	19 :	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
(13)	To James Corman's Leghorn account for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I have received for freight		732 :	6 :	4
(14)	To cash, paid charges on her, &c. - - - - -		654 :	14 :	2
(18)	To Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I received for Geminiani - -		55 :	— :	—
(21)	To profit and loss, gained by this trading voyage - - -		1484 :	2 :	6 $\frac{2}{3}$
			9722 :	4 :	11 $\frac{5}{12}$

* See Goodman's account and Winberton's account how found.

CASH.

		Dr.		
(8)	To James Corman's Leghorn account for three several draughts per question -	2206 :	18 :	7
(10)	To ditto, received per draught the balance of his Leghorn account - -	86 :	— :	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
(12)	To ship Anne galley in company received for freight, made from Genoa and Leghorn	2196 :	19 :	—
(17)	To ditto, received remainder of Geminiani's freight per manifesto, &c. - -	165 :	— :	—
(22)	To balance for what paid more than received in this affair - - -	2820 :	2 :	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
		7475 :	1 :	2 $\frac{3}{4}$

JAMES CORMAN OF LISBON (his Leghorn Account).

		Dr.		
(2)	To ship the Anne galley in company, for $\frac{1}{3}$ her cost and charges - -	1732 :	16 :	—
(3)	To provision, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ part of what I reckon on insurance - - -	3 :	6 :	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
(5)	To ship the Anne, in company for $\frac{1}{3}$ the balance of Goodman's account drawn -	364 :	4 :	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7)	To ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ the balance of Winberton's account ditto -	168 :	6 :	7
(9)	To cash, for brokerage, expences, and postage of letters per question - -	24 :	5 :	1
		2292 :	19 :	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
(15)	To ship Anne galley in company, for $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the charges I paid - -	218 :	4 :	8 $\frac{2}{3}$
(16)	To provision for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I reckon - - - - -	17 :	15 :	5
(20)	To Corman's Lisbon account, to discharge what should be brought hither -	326 :	13 :	4
(23)	To balance due to him on this account - - - - -	224 :	12 :	10 $\frac{1}{3}$
		787 :	6 :	4

PROVISION.

		Dr.		
(24)	To profit and loss, gained hereby - - - - -	21 :	2 :	4 $\frac{1}{2}$

JAMES CORMAN PARTNER (my Lisbon Account).

		Rees.	Dr.		
(11)	To Anne galley, in company, for my $\frac{2}{3}$ of the ship's produce	2,452,199 *	2636 :	15 :	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
(19)	To ditto - - - - -	1,779,331 $\frac{1}{3}$ †	1913 :	5 :	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(20)	To ditto - - of 490 dollars $\frac{2}{3}$, is = 326 $\frac{2}{3}$ ‖				
		4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$	4550 :	— :	8

* In Corman's account Dale is Cr. 4494530 $\frac{1}{3}$
Dr. 2042331 $\frac{1}{3}$
2452199

† At ditto account ‖ At ditto account.

PROFIT and LOSS.

		Dr.		
(25)	To balance, to shut up this account and for gain - - - -	1505 :	4 :	11 $\frac{1}{6}$

BALANCE.

		Dr.		
(26)	To James Corman's Lisbon account, due Millr. 4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$ - - -	4550 :	— :	8

TWO THIRDS IN THE ANNE GALLEY.

PER CONTRA.

		Ref.	Cr. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(2)	By Jam. Corman's Legh. account, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ the coſt, charges, and inſurance of galley		1732	16	—
(5)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ balance of Goodman's account - -		364	4	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ balance of Winberton's account of Smyrna		168	6	7
(11)	By James Corman's Liſbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ the produce per his account 2,452,199		2636	15	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
(12)	By caſh, received for her freight from Leghorn and Genoa, &c. - -		2196	19	—
(15)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ of charges paid as per contra - -		218	4	8 $\frac{2}{3}$
(17)	By caſh, received the remainder of Geminiani's freight made good by him - -		165	—	—
(19)	By James Corman's Liſbon account, for $\frac{2}{3}$ freight accounted for by him - -		1913	5	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(20)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 490 dollars received by him 303,800		326	13	4
			9722	4	11 $\frac{5}{12}$

Reference column to ledger.

PER CONTRA.

		Cr. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(1)	By ſhip the Anne galley in company. &c. diſburſed for her, for fitting out and inſur.	5198	8	—
(4)	By ditto, paid Goodman of Barcelona balance per his account - -	1092	14	2 $\frac{2}{3}$
(6)	By ditto, paid Winberton of Smyrna his balance drawn on me - - -	504	19	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
(9)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for brokerage, expences, &c. - -	24	5	1
(14)	By ſhip Anne galley in company paid charges, on her per particulars - -	654	14	2
		7475	1	2 $\frac{3}{4}$

PER CONTRA.

		Cr. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(8)	By caſh, received for 3 draughts at various prices per queſtion - - -	2206	18	7
(10)	By ditto, received the balance of his account - - - -	86	—	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
		2292	19	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
(13)	By ſhip Anne galley in company, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I received for freight - -	732	6	4
(18)	By ditto - - - - - - - - -	55	—	1
		787	6	4

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(3)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ I reckon on inſurance - -	3	6	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
(16)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I reckon per queſtion -	17	15	5
		21	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(20)	By Corman's Leghorn account, to rectify an error per contra 326 $\frac{2}{3}$ * - -	4550	—	8
(26)	By balance for what he owes me hereon 4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$ - - -			

* This being the method of writing off errors in accounts, to prevent eraſements, we think it beſt to let it remain rather than alter it, for the information of thoſe who may not be acquainted therewith.

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(21)	By Anne galley in company, gaining by her trading voyage - - -	1484	2	6 $\frac{2}{3}$
(24)	By proviſion, for gain and cloſe thereof - - - - -	21	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
		1505	4	11 $\frac{1}{6}$

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(22)	By caſh, paid more than received in this affair - - - - - -	2820	2	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
(23)	By James Corman's Leghorn account due to him - - - -	224	12	10 $\frac{1}{3}$
(25)	By profit and loſs, to ſhut up that account - - - -	1550	11	4 $\frac{1}{6}$
		4550	—	8

N. B. 930 a fixed exchange.

JAMES CORMAN's LEDGER OF LISBON,

THE ANNE GALLEY IN COMPANY, between Dale of Leghorn ($\frac{2}{3}$) and Self $\frac{1}{3}$.

Reference column to ledger.

		Dr. Rees.
(1)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account, for $\frac{1}{3}$ part, coſt, charge, inſurance, &c. proviſion expended on the ſaid ſhip for our account dollars 1736 : 2 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,614,617
(2)	To Goodman of Barcelona, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of what he exported valued	338,739
(4)	To Thomas Dale of Leghorn, for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what he reckons inſurance	3,113
(5)	To Winberton of Smyrna, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his diſburſement	156,546
(7)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for what he reckons me	22,556
(13)	To caſh, for charges per particulars	469,620
(14)	To commiſſion, for what I am allowed 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on ſales	133,317
(15)	To Thomas Dale's Liſbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ nett proceed of wheat	3,153,175 $\frac{1}{3}$
(16)	To caſh, paid charges on voyage to Algiers per particulars	1,582,774
(20)	To Thomas Dale's Liſbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ what received for freight of corn	1,331,755
(21)	To caſh, paid charges per particulars	1,406,005
(24)	To Thomas Dale's Liſbon account, for $\frac{1}{3}$ of the 18 pieces of eight received	9,600
(36)	To ditto for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what received for freight	1,779,331 $\frac{1}{3}$
(38)	To ditto for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 490 received for freight	303,800
(40)	To profit and loſs gained hereby	660,436
		12,965,384 $\frac{2}{3}$

THO. DALE OF LEGHORN PARTNER (my Leghorn Account).

						Dr.
(8)	To caſh, for his draught at 930	Doll.	1506	18	7	1,401,441
	To ditto at 925		400	—	—	370,000
	To ditto at 930		300	—	—	279,000
(9)	To ditto at 930		86	—	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	80,015
(10)	To Anne galley, for diſcharge of an error		3	6	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,113
		Doll.	2296	6	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	
(11)	To Anne galley in company, for the difference ariſing per exchange					2,002
(34)	To ditto, for what is due for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of freight received per him, as per his account rendered thereof * dollars 551 : 6 : 2 $\frac{1}{3}$					512,718
						511,718

* In Dale's ledger, Corman's Leghorn account is Dr. 236 : 0 : 1 $\frac{2}{3}$
And Cr. 787 : 6 : 4

551 : 6 : 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ the difference.

JAMES GOODMAN OF BARCELONA.

		Doll. of Legh.	Doll. of Barc.	Dr.
(3)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ his draught	394 : 4 : 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	479 : — : —	338,739

PETER WINBERTON OF SMYRNA.

		Doll. of Legh.	Doll. of Smyr.	Dr.
(6)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ the draught	168 : 6 : 7	190 : 17 : —	

CASH.

		Dr.
(12)	To Anne galley in company, received for the lading wheat purchaſed per Winberton	5,332,700
(91)	To ditto received for freight of corn, &c. &c.	1,983,233
(23)	To ditto received for 18 pieces of eight	14,400
(35)	To ditto received for freight from Leghorn, Genoa, and to Liſbon	2,669,000
(37)	To ditto received for freight ditto dollars 490 : —	455,700
(39)	To Capt. Barnby, received for prim. and now paſſed to his credit per queſtion doll. 3000	2,790,000
		13,245,033

COMMISSION.

		Dr.
(43)	To profit and loſs, for gain and cloſe hereof	183,129 $\frac{2}{3}$

ONE THIRD IN THE ANNE GALLEY IN COMPANY.

PER CONTRA.

		Reference column to ledger.	Cr. Rees.
(10)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account to rectify an error per contra - -		3,113
(11)	By ditto - - - - - for the difference per exchange - - -		2,002
(12)	By cash, received for the loading of wheat - - - - - -		5,332,700
(17)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ parts of the charges expended to Algiers -		1,055,182
(19)	By cash, received for freight of corn, &c. - - - - -		1,983,233
(22)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ charges expended - - -		937,336$\frac{2}{3}$
(23)	By cash, received 18 pieces of eight *, at 800 rees per piece of eight per question -		14,400
(34)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for my $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the nett freight, doll. 551 : 6 : 2$\frac{1}{3}$		512,718
(35)	By cash, received for freight from Leghorn, Genoa, and to Lisbon - -		2,669,000
(37)	By ditto - - - - - at 930 rees doll. 490 : — : — - -		455,700
			12,965,384$\frac{2}{3}$

PER CONTRA.

						Cr.
(1)	By Anne galley in company, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of total cost and charges	Doll. 1736	2	11$\frac{1}{2}$		1,614,617
(3)	By James Goodman of Barcelona, for $\frac{1}{3}$ his draught - -	364	4	8$\frac{3}{4}$		338,739
(4)	By Anne galley in company for $\frac{1}{3}$ insurance - - -	3	6	11$\frac{1}{2}$		3,113
(6)	By Peter Winberton of Smyrna for $\frac{1}{3}$ the draught - -	168	6	7		156,546
(7)	By Anne galley in company, &c. for what he reckons -	24	5	1		22,556
		Doll. 2296	6	3$\frac{3}{4}$		
(38)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account to rectify an error -	Doll. 326	13	4		303,800
(41)	By balance for what he owes me on this account - -	224	12	10$\frac{1}{3}$		208,918
		551	6	2$\frac{1}{3}$		512,718

PER CONTRA.

		Doll. of Legh.	Doll. of Barc.	Cr.
(2)	By Anne galley in company for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his disbursements	364 : 4 : 8$\frac{3}{4}$	479 : — : —	338,739

PER CONTRA.

		Doll. of Legh.	Doll. of Smyr.	Cr.
(5)	By Anne galley in company for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his disbursements	168 : 6 : 7	190 : 17 : —	

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(8)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for his three draughts - - -	2,050,441
(9)	By ditto for the balance of my account - - - - -	80,015
(13)	By Anne galley in company, paid charges - - - - -	469,620
(16)	By ditto - - - - to Algiers - - - -	1,582,774
(21)	By ditto - - - - per particulars - - - -	1,406,005
(26)	By ship Jenny proper, for her cost and all charges fitting out - - -	2,118,342
(42)	By balance for what received more than paid - - - -	5,537,836
		13,245,033

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(14)	By Anne galley in company, allowed 2$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on sale of wheat - -	133,317
(18)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ allowed - - - -	26,379$\frac{1}{3}$
(25)	By ditto - - - - - - - - -	23,433$\frac{1}{3}$
		183,129$\frac{2}{3}$

THOMAS DALE's LISBON ACCOUNT.

		Ref. rece. column to ledger.	Dr. Rees.
(17)	To Anne galley in company, for $\frac{2}{3}$ parts charges paid to Algiers - - -		1,055,182
(18)	To commiſſion for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I reckon - - - - - -		26,379$\frac{1}{3}$
(22)	To Anne galley in company for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what paid - - - -		937,336$\frac{2}{3}$
(25)	To commiſſion for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I reckon - - - - -		23,433$\frac{1}{3}$
(38)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account to rectify the error per contra dollars 326$\frac{2}{3}$ -		
(44)	To balance owing to him - - - - - -		4,231,530$\frac{1}{3}$
			6,273,861$\frac{2}{3}$

SHIP JENNY PROPER.

At 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. per milree.

		Dr.
(26)	To caſh, for coſt, charges, and diſburſements, for fitting her to New England -	2,118,342
(28)	To Peter Blaxland's New England account, for coſt, charges, &c. of cod-fiſh * -	4,623,384
(45)	To profit and loſs, for gain on this ſhip and cloſe hereof - - -	1,603,403
		8,345,129

	N. E. M.	Rees.	N. E. M.
* Found thus:	If 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ give	1000 l.	1878 : 5
	Anſwer 4,623,384 Rees.		

PETER BLAXLAND OF NEW ENGLAND, (My Account).

		Sterling Money.	New England Money.	Dr.
(27)	To ſhip Jenny proper, for the nett proceed of ſalt -		l. 571 : 15 : 5	1,407,435
(29)	To King of London, a draught on him at 55 per cent.	l. 225 ſterling.	348 : — : 0	856,615$\frac{3}{4}$
(30)	To Kelly of ditto - - - at 50 per cent.	100 : — : —	150 : — : 0	369,230$\frac{3}{4}$
(31)	To Bradby ditto - - - at 50 per cent.	538 : 19 : 8$\frac{1}{2}$	808 : 9 : 7	1,990,102$\frac{1}{2}$
		l. 863 : 19 : 8$\frac{1}{2}$	l. 1878 : 5 : 0	4,623,384

JOHN KING OF LONDON.

			Dr.
(46)	To balance owing to him - - - - -	225 l. ſterl.	856,615$\frac{3}{4}$

JOHN KELLY OF LONDON.

			Dr.
(47)	To balance owing to him : - - - - -	100 l. ſterl.	369,230$\frac{3}{4}$

PETER BRADBY OF LONDON.

			Dr.
(48)	To balance owing to him - - - - -	l. 538 : 19 : 8$\frac{1}{2}$	1,990,102$\frac{1}{2}$

CAPT. BARNBY OF THE ANNE GALLEY.

			Dr.
(49)	To balance owing to him - - - - -	Doll. 3000	2,790,000

J. BRADSON's ACCOUNT OF BILBOA, (My Spaniſh Account).

		Ryals Plate.	Dr.
(32)	To ſhip Jenny proper, for the proportionate part of the fiſh account of Blaxland and ſelf in company per Bradſon's account * - -	69,453 : 26$\frac{3}{4}$	5,037,716

* Vide Bradſon's ledger.

J. DIXON's ACCOUNT OF CADIZ, (My Spaniſh Account.)

		Ryals.	Dr.
(33)	To ſhip Jenny proper, for the nett produce of the chefnut hoops, and of the ſhip Jenny herſelf as per Dixon's account * - -	20,266 : 15	1,899,978

* Vide Dixon's ledger.

PER CONTRA.

Reference column to ledger.

			Cr. Rees.
(15)	By Anne galley in company, for $\frac{2}{3}$ nett proceed of wheat, being - -		3,153,175$\frac{2}{3}$
(20)	By ditto - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I received for freight - - -		1,331,755
(24)	By ditto - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 18 pieces of eight valued at - -		9,600
(36)	By ditto - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what received for freight - - -		1,779,331$\frac{1}{3}$
(38)	By ditto - - ditto - - of 490 rees is doll. 326$\frac{2}{3}$ -		
			6,273,861$\frac{2}{3}$

PER CONTRA.

At 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. M. per milree.

		Cr.
(27)	By Peter Blaxand's New England account for nett proceed of salt l.571 : 15=5 * -	1,407,435
(32)	By Bradson's account of Bilboa, for part of the said fish Ryals 69,453 : 26$\frac{3}{4}$ † -	5,037,716
(33)	By Dixon of Cadiz, for nett proceed of hoops and the ship, &c. 20,266 : 15 ‖ -	1,898,071
		8,345,129

* Found thus: If 97 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. M. - - Rees 1000 - - l. 511 : 15 N. E. M. Rees 1,407,435.
† Lisbon exchanges with Bilboa on ducats of 375 marvedees at about 800 rees per ducat. ∴ Ryals × by 34 and ÷ by 375, give ducats 6297 : 2 : 11, at 800 rees, &c.
‖ Lisbon on Cadiz, at rees 750 plus or minus per doll. of 272 marvedees, ∴ × 34 and ÷ 272.

PER CONTRA.

At 97 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per milree.

		New England Money.	Cr.
(28)	By ship Jenny proper, for what he has expended for cod-fish, &c. -	‖l. 1878 : 5 : —	4,623,384

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(29)	By Blaxland's New Engl. acct. for a draught on him of ‖l.225 : 0 : 0 at 65d. ft. per milree	856,615$\frac{3}{4}$

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(30)	By Blaxland's New Eng. acct. drawn on him by order ‖l. 100 : 0 : 0 at 65d. ft. per milree	369,230$\frac{3}{4}$

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(31)	By Blaxland's New England acct. for a draught of ‖l. 538 : 19 : 8$\frac{1}{2}$ at 65d. ft. per milree	1,990,102$\frac{1}{2}$

PER CONTRA.

930 fixt

		Cr.
(39)	By cash, received his primage of 200 tons, at 15 doll. per ton ‖ Doll. 3000 : — : —	2,790 000

PER CONTRA.

		‖ Ryals Plate.	Cr.
(18)	By balance for what he owes me, being	‖69,453 : 26$\frac{3}{4}$	5,037,716

PER CONTRA.

		‖ Ryals.	Cr.
(19)	By balance for what he owes me, being	‖20,266 : 15	1,899 978

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D^r. Rees.
(50)	To balance, for gain and close of this account	2,446,968$\frac{2}{3}$

BALANCE.

		D^r. Rees.
(40)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account due to me thereon Doll. 224 = 12 = 10$\frac{1}{3}$	208,918
(42)	To cash, for what I have received more than paid in this affair	5,537,836
(50)	To Bradson, for what he owes me for produce of fish Ryals 69,453 : 26$\frac{3}{4}$	5,037,716
(54)	To Dixon's account of Cadiz for what he owes me 20,266 : 15	1,899,978
		12,684,448

JAMES GOODMAN's LEDGER.

CASH.

		Spanish Money. D^r. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(1)	To ship Anne galley, account of Messrs. Dale and Corman received freight	1242	10	—
(5)	To ship Anne galley, &c. for a draught on balance	1437	—	—
		2679	10	—

N. B. The pistole is worth 4 piasters, or 32 ryals exchange, ∴ pistoles 359 : 5 drawn on Dale of Leghorn, or 4) 1437 = 359 : 5, at livr. 18$\frac{1}{4}$ per pistole = doll. 6556$\frac{1}{4}$ long money of Leghorn, ÷ 6 = doll. 1092 : 14 : 2$\frac{1}{2}$ drawn on Dale.

SHIP THE ANNE GALLEY, Account of Messrs. Dale and Corman.

		D^r.		
(2)	To cash, paid for 2000 pieces of eight account of Dale and Corman	2648	12	6
(3)	To ditto, paid postage of letters	—	15	—
(4)	To profit and loss, for commission for my trouble	30	2	6
		2679	10	—

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D^r.		
(7)	To balance for close hereof	30	2	6

BALANCE.

		D^r.		
(6)	To cash, for what received more than paid in this affair	30	2	6

PER CONTRA.

		Cr. Rees.
(40)	By the Anne galley in company gained thereby	660,436
(43)	By commiſſion gained by that article	183,129⅔
(45)	By the ſhip Jenny for proper account gained thereby	1,603,403
		2,446,968⅔

PER CONTRA.

		Cr. Rees.
(44)	By Thomas Dale's Liſbon account owing to him thereon	4,231,530⅓
(46)	By John King of London, for what drawn on him	856,615¾
(47)	By John Kelly of London, ditto	369,230¾
(48)	By Peter Bradby of London, drawn on him	1,990,102½
(49)	By Capt. Barnby of London, received his primage Doll. 3000 at 930	2,790.000
(50)	To profit and loſs, for gain and cloſe of that account	2,446,968⅔
		12,684,448

OF BARCELONA.

PER CONTRA.

		Spanish Money. Cr. Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(2)	By ſhip account of Meſſrs. Dale and Corman, paid for 2000 pieces of eight, &c.	2648	12	6
(3)	By ditto paid poſtage of letters	——	15	—
(6)	By balance for what received more than paid and cloſe hereof	30	2	9
		2679	10	—

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(1)	By caſh, received the freight to purchaſe pieces of eight for Smyrna, &c.	1242	10	—
(5)	By ditto, received the balance hereof per a Draught on Dale	1435	—	—
		2679	10	—

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(4)	By ſhip the Anne galley account of Meſſrs. Dale and Corman, allowed commiſſion	30	2	6

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.		
(7)	By profit and loſs, to ſhut up account	30	2	6

PETER WINBERTON's LEDGER

CASH.

		Reference column to ledger.	D^r. Doll.	Aſpers.
(1)	To pieces of eight account of Meſſrs. Dale and Corman merchants, received -		2700 :	— : —
(9)	To Meſſrs. Dale and Corman, drawn on Dale, the balance - - -		570 :	51 : —
			3270 :	51 : —

PIECES of EIGHT ACCOUNT of DALE and CORMAN.

		D^r.		
(2)	To caſh, for conſulage and ſhroffage, the firſt 2 per cent. and other 4 per milree	64 :	64 :	—
(3)	To proviſion at 2 per cent. on theſe tranſactions - - -	54 :	— :	—
(7)	To Meſſrs. Dale and Corman's account due on this affair - - -	2581 :	16 :	—
		2700 :	— :	—

PROVISION.

		D^r.		
(11)	To profit and loſs, for gain and cloſe hereof - - - -	133 :	22 :	—

WHEAT ACCOUNT of Meſſrs. DALE and CORMAN, Merchants.

		D^r.		
(4)	To caſh, paid for 4780 kellows at various prices per account - -	2651 :	2 :	$\frac{2}{3}$
(5)	To caſh, paid charges on this affair amounting to - - -	421 :	42 :	$\frac{1}{3}$
(6)	To proviſion, allowed me at 3 per cent. is - - - -	79 :	22 :	—
		3151 :	67 :	—

Meſſrs. DALE and CORMAN's ACCOUNT Current.

		D^r.		
(8)	To wheat account of themſelves, owing thereon - - - -	3151 :	67 :	—

BALANCE.

		D^r.		
(10)	To caſh, received more than paid - - - -	133 :	22 :	—

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D^r.		
(12)	To balance, for cloſe hereof - - - - -	133 :	22	— :

OF SMYRNA *.

PER CONTRA.

		Reference column to ledger.	Cr. Doll.	Aſpers.
(2)	By pieces of eight account of Meſſrs. Dale and Corman paid for account -		64 :	64 : —
(4)	By wheat account of ditto paid for 4780 kellows per queſtion - - -		2651 :	2 : $\frac{2}{3}$
(5)	By ditto, paid charges amounting to per particulars - - -		421 :	42 : $\frac{1}{3}$
(10)	By balance received more than paid - - - -		133 :	22 : —
			3270 :	51 : —

* Smyrna keeps accounts in dollars and aſpers, 80 aſpers = 1 dollar.

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(1)	By caſh, received for 2000 at 35 per cent. - - - -	2700 : — : —

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(3)	By pieces of eight account of Meſſrs. Dale and Corman, allowed me - -	54 : — : —
(6)	By wheat account of Dale and Corman, &c. allowed me - - -	79 : 22 : —
		133 : 22 : —

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(8)	By Meſſrs. Dale and Corman due from this account - - - -	3151 : 67 : —

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(7)	By pieces of eight account of themſelves, due thereon - - -	2581 : 16 : —
(9)	By caſh, received the balance drawn on Dale at 13 * per cent. - -	570 : 51 : —
		3151 : 67 : —

* i. e. 113 Dollars of Smyrna = 100 of Leghorn, ∴ If 113 dollars of Smyrna, give 100 dollars of Leghorn, what will 570 : 51 dollars of Smyrna.

Anſw. 504 : 19 : $9\frac{1}{4}$. Vide Dale's Leghorn account.

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(12)	By profit and loſs, for cloſe - - - - -	133 : 22 : —

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(11)	By proviſion, for gain - - - - -	133 : 22 : —

PETER BLAXLAND's LEDGER

SALT ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.

Reference column to ledger. | New England Money. Dr.

		l.	s.	d.
(2)	To cash, paid charges hereon	15	1	10
(3)	To commission, allowed me hereon at 5 l. per cent.	30	17	9
(4)	To Corman's account current for nett proceed of his salt	571	15	5
		617	15	—

CASH.

		Dr.
(1)	To salt account of Corman of Lisbon, receeived for 497 hogsheads	617 : 15 : —
(12)	To Corman's New England account, received for draught on King of London	348 : — : —
(13)	To ditto received for a draught on Kelly of ditto	150 : — : —
(14)	To ditto ditto on Bradby ditto	808 : 9 : 7
(16)	To balance paid more than received in this affair	374 : 10 : 8
		2298 : 15 : 3

COMMISSION.

		Dr.
(17)	To profit and loss, for gain and close hereof	99 : 9 : 11

J. CORMAN's (New England) Account.

		Dr.
(6)	To cod-fish in company, for his proportional part of the cost	1350 : 7 : 10
(8)	To ditto, for his proportional part of charges	21 : 16 : 8
(9)	To commission, for his proportional part of what I reckon	68 : 12 : 2
(11)	To ship Jenny account of himself, due thereon	437 : 8 : 4
		1878 : 5 : —

COD-FISH ACCOUNT, in Proportion between CORMAN and SELF.

		Dr.
(5)	To cash, paid for at various prices, 1871 ½ quintals	1816 : 17 : 3
(7)	To cash, paid charges	29 : 7 : 10
(18)	To profit and loss gained hereon for my part	288 : 2 : 3
		2134 : 7 : 4

SHIP JENNY ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.

		Dr.
(10)	To cash, paid several disbursements on her amounting to	437 : 8 : 4

BRADSON of BILBOA, (My Spanish Account).

At 60d. per piece of eight.

		Ryals.	Mar.	Dr.
(15)	To cod-fish in proportion, for my proportionate part of nett proceed	24,388	18 *	762 : 2 : 10

* Vide Bradson's ledger how found.

BALANCE.

N. B. 6d. per dollar.

		Dr.
(19)	To Bradson, for what he owes me, being Ryals 24,388 : 18	762 : 2 : 10

PROFIT and LOSS.

		Dr.
(20)	To balance, for close hereof	387 : 12 : 2

OF NEW ENGLAND.

	PER CONTRA.	Reference column to ledger.	New England Money. Cr. l. s. d.
(1)	By cash, received for salt 497 hogsheads		617 : 15 : —

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(2)	By salt account of Corman, paid charges thereon		15 : 1 : 10
(5)	By cod-fish in proportion, paid for 1871 ½ quintals		1816 : 17 : 3
(7)	By ditto - - paid charges		29 : 7 : 10
(10)	By ship Jenny account of Corman, paid on her		437 : 8 : 4
			2298 : 15 : 3

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(3)	By salt account of Corman of Lisbon		30 : 17 : 9
(9)	By J. Corman's New England account for his part of what I reckon		68 : 12 : 2
			99 : 9 : 11

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(4)	By salt account of himself for nett proceed thereof		571 : 15 : 5
(12)	By cash, received per Corman's order by draught on King		348 : — : —
(13)	By ditto, received ditto - - on Kelly		150 : — : —
(14)	By ditto for balance of Corman's account		808 : 9 : 7
			1878 : 5 : —

	PER CONTRA. Valued at 60d. N. E. M. per piece of eight.		Cr.
(6)	By Corman's New England account for his proportional part therein		1350 : 7 : 10
(8)	By ditto, for his part of the charges expended		21 : 16 : 8
(15)	By Bradson of Bilboa, for my proportional part of nett proceed Ryals 24,388 : 18		762 : 2 : 10
			2134 : 7 : 4

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(11)	By J. Corman's New England account for close hereof		437 : 8 : 4

	PER CONTRA.	Ryals. Mar.	Cr.
(19)	By balance to shut up this account	24,388 : 18	762 : 2 : 10

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(16)	By cash, for what paid more than received		374 : 10 : 8
(20)	By profit and loss for close hereof		387 : 12 : 2
			762 : 2 : 10

	PER CONTRA.		Cr.
(17)	By commission, for gain		99 : 9 : 11
(18)	By cod-fish in company gained thereby		288 : 2 : 3
			387 : 12 : 2

J. BRADSON's LEDGER

CASH.

		Reference column to ledger.	Spanish Money. D[r]. Ryals Pl. Mar.
(1)	To fish account of Corman, received for 1640 ½ quintals		103,811 : 11

FISH ACCOUNT of CORMAN and CO.

			D[r].
(2)	To cash, paid charges in ryals plate	1640 ¼ quintals	3070 : 12
(3)	To ditto, paid in ryals vellon, 1049 is plate ryals		559 : 16
(4)	To commission, for 5 per cent. on sales, at 5 ryals per cent. is		5190 : 19
(9)	To Corman's account current due to him hereon		94,990 : 32
			103,811 : 11

COMMISSION.

		D[r].
(13)	To profit and loss gained hereby	5245 : 8 ½

CHESTNUT-HOOPS ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.

		D[r].
(5)	To cash, charges paid hereon	21 : 10
(6)	To ditto, paid 800 ryals vellon, and 10,050 quarts vellon for 500 bundles, is	1057 : 1 ¾
(7)	To ditto, paid 1000 marvedees vellon, is	15 : 20
(8)	To commission, allowed me 5 per cent. on the returns per question	54 : 23 ½
		1148 : 21 ¼

JAMES CORMAN's ACCOUNT CURRENT.

		D[r].
(10)	To chestnut-hoops, his account due to me thereon as above	1148 : 21 ¼
(11)	To Peter Blaxland of New England, for his proportional part of fish	24,388 : 18
(14)	To balance for what I owe him	69,453 : 26 ¾
		94,990 : 32

PETER BLAXLAND of NEW ENGLAND, his Account current.

		D[r].
(15)	To balance owing to him	24,388 : 18

N. B. 4 Marvadees vellon = 1 quart vellon, and 15 ryals vellon = 8 ryals plate.

BALANCE.

		D[r].
(12)	To cash, received more than paid	99,087 : 19 ¼

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D[r].
(16)	To balance, for gain and close of this account	5245 : 8 ½

PER CONTRA.

		Reference column to ledger.	Spanish Money. Cr. Ryals Pl. Mar.
(2)	By fiſh account of Corman and company, paid charges		3070 : 12
(3)	By ditto		559 : 16
(5)	By cheſtnut-hoops, paid charges thereon		21 : 10
(6)	By ditto		1057 : 1 ¾
(7)	By ditto paid 1000 marvadees		15 : 20
(12)	By balance, received more than paid		99,087 : 19 ¼
			103,811 : 11

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(1)	By caſh, received for 1640 ½ quintals	103,811 : 11

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(4)	By fiſh account of Corman, for commiſſion on the ſale	5190 : 19
(8)	By cheſtnut-hoops, allowed me 5 per cent. on the return to Corman	51 : 23 ½
		5245 : 8 ½

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(10)	By Corman's account current for cloſe hereof and transfer thither	1148 : 21 ¼

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(9)	By fiſh account of himſelf, due for nett proceed thereof	94,990 : 32

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(11)	By Corman's account current, for his proportionate part of my cod-fiſh *	24.388 : 18

Quintals.		Quintals.
* If 1871 ½	94,990 : 32	1391 for Corman's account.
Anſw.	70,602 : 14	Corman's ſhare.
And	24,388 : 18	Blaxland's ditto.
	94,990 : 32	the produce.

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(14)	By Corman's account current, due to him	69,453 : 26 ¾
(15)	By Peter Blaxland of New England, ditto	24.388 : 18
(16)	By balance	5245 : 8 ½
		99.087 : 19 ¼

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(13)	By commiſſion, for gain thereby	5245 : 8 ½

J. DIXON's LEDGER

CASH.

Reference column to ledger.

		Spanish Money. Dr. Ryals. Plate. O. P.
(1)	To cheſtnut-hoops account of Corman received for 498 bundles	2130 : — : —
(5)	To ſhip Jenny, received freight 10,317 ¾ ryals plate, new money, is	8254 : 7 : —
(6)	To ditto, for the groſs average	375 : — : —
		10,759 : 7 : —

N. B. 10 Ryals new = 8 ryals old plate.

CHESTNUT-HOOPS ACCOUNT of CORMAN.

		Dr.
(2)	To caſh, paid brokerage 1 per cent. on ſales 2130 ryals plate is on 500 bundles	21 : 10 : —
(3)	To ditto, paid extraordinary charges on the ſale ½ per cent.	10 : 22 : —
(4)	To commiſſion for 4 per cent. on the ſales	85 : 6 : —
(12)	To Corman of Liſbon's account current for nett proceed hereof	2012 : 30 : —
		2130 : — : —

COMMISSION.

		Dr.
(15)	To profit and loſs, for gain and cloſe hereof	716 : 28 : —

SHIP JENNY, ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.

		Dr.
(7)	To commiſſion for freight and average 2 ½ per cent.	215 : 22 : —
(9)	To caſh, for charges	40 : — : —
(10)	To caſh, for brokerage, &c. on 1300 pieces of eight	104 : — : —
(11)	To commiſſion for 4 per cent. on 1300 pieces of eight, is ryals	416 : — : —
(13)	To Corman's account current for the nett produce of ſhip Jenny	18,253 : 19 : —
		19,029 : 7 : —

J. CORMAN of LISBON, his ACCOUNT Current.

		Dr.
(16)	To balance owing to him	20,266 : 15 : —

DAVID BURROWS.

		Dr.
(8)	To ſhip Jenny account of Corman, ſold her for 1300 pieces of eight, is ryals	10,400 : — : —

BALANCE.

		Dr.
(14)	To caſh, for cloſe thereof	10,583 : 9 : —
(17)	To David Burrows, for what he owes for the ſhip Jenny of Corman	10,400 : — : —
		20,983 : 9 : —

PROFIT and LOSS.

		Dr.
(18)	To balance to ſhut up this account	716 : 28 : —

OF CADIZ.

	PER CONTRA.	Ref.	Spanish Money. Cr. Ryals. Plate. O. P.
(2)	By chesnut-hoops account of Corman, paid brokerage		21 : 10 : —
(3)	By ditto		10 : 22 : —
(9)	By ship Jenny paid thereon		40 : — : —
(10)	By ditto - - brokerage, &c. on 1300 pieces of eight		104 : — : —
(14)	By balance received more than paid in this affair		10,583 : 9 : —
			10,759 : 7 : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(1)	By cash, received for 498 bundles Applied by Capt. Walker 2 bundles for the ship's use, which makes out the 500 bundles.	2130 : — : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(4)	By chesnut-hoops account of Corman 4 per cent. on sales, is	85 : 6 : —
(7)	By ship Jenny account of Corman, 2 ½ per cent. on freight and average	215 : 22 : —
(11)	By ditto, for 4 per cent. on the returns	416 : — : —
		716 : 28 : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(5)	By cash, received for freight 10,317 ¾ ryals plate new, is old	8254 : 7 : —
(6)	By ditto - - for the gross average	375 : — : —
(8)	By David Burrows, sold him the ship for 1300 pieces of eight	10,400 : — : —
		19,029 : 7 : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(12)	By chesnut-hoops account of himself for the nett proceed	2012 : 30 : —
(13)	By ship Jenny account of Corman for the nett proceed of her	18,253 : 19 : —
		20,206 : 15 : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(17)	By balance for what he owes	10,400 : — : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(16)	By Corman's account owing to him	20,266 : 15 : —
(18)	By profit and loss, for gain and close thereof	716 : 28 : —
		20,983 : 9 : —

	PER CONTRA.	Cr.
(15)	By profit and loss, to shut up that account	716 : 28 : —

REMARKS.

From the face of the ledger-account of theſe mercantile negociations, there ariſes a double advantage: (1.) The nature of carrying on foreign trade from one country to another, is intelligibly illuſtrated from facts and realities. (2.) The method of accountantſhip, as practiſed by the ſeveral merchants therein concerned, is, at the ſame time, familiarly exemplified; alſo the nature of foreign accounts, as kept in the monies of different countries, is repreſented; and thoſe of MY ACCOUNT, HIS ACCOUNT, and COMPANY ACCOUNTS, or thoſe of FACTOR and MERCHANT, as kept in their proper columns, are alſo ſet in a clear light: from whence is ſeen, likewiſe, in what manner the profit or loſs is ſtated, that may happen by the riſe or fall of the prices current of exchange.

The conformity, alſo, amongſt theſe ſeveral accounts is manifeſt; and nothing can give a better idea of mercantile accountantſhip, than the ſtating of all the accounts reſpectively of the ſeveral parties who may be concerned in foreign adventures.

By accounts of this kind, the nature of anonymous partnerſhips in foreign traffic may be judged of, and the reaſonableneſs of what we have ſaid under the article anonymous, which is not incurious. See ANONYMOUS.

Theſe accounts very plainly ſhow the juſtneſs and elegancy of the art of accountantſhip by debtor and creditor, according to the true merchant-like method, by double entry; for, if one merchant has dealings with ever ſo many others in foreign countries, if they are all thoroughly ſkilled in this admirable art, they can have no miſunderſtanding in the ſtating of their accounts, as to the part of charge and diſcharge; their ballances will be all in conformity to their vouchers; and, if there happen to be any miſtakes in relation to the arithmetical part, theſe are eaſily rectified: whence the reaſon of the ſignature of the ordinary phraſe of ERRORS EXCEPTED, in the mutual tranſmiſſion of accounts from trader to trader, is apparent.

And when any errors happen to be committed in the ſtating of the accounts, as well with reſpect to their debts and credits in the ledger, as in the journal, or any miſtakes of a different kind occur, it is as inconſiſtent with the character of the fair and honourable trader, as with that of an accountant, to ſuffer any craſements or obliterations in his books: his buſineſs is to acknowledge ſuch miſtakes by plain words, and rectify them by writing them off in the ledger, or properly explaining them, if they are of the arithmetical kind, &c.—It is, therefore, we have left here and there an error, as happened in ſtating the accounts, with deſign to ſhow how they are wrote off, without razure or obliteration. For more matter in relation to this excellent method of account-keeping, ſee the articles BANKING, DEBTOR and CREDITOR, and MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

LEEWARD-ISLANDS in AMERICA; chiefly thoſe iſlands that were called the NEUTRAL-ISLANDS before the laſt peace.

The French, after they firſt became maſters of GUADALOUPE and MARTINICO, as they made no ſcruple of deſtroying and expelling the inhabitants, ſo when that was once done, they under colour of a treaty pretended themſelves to be defenders of them in DOMINICA and ST. VINCENT, that they might hinder England from extending her territories, 'till they ſhould grow ſtrong enough to occupy theſe as they had done the reſt.

The negociation laſt mentioned, was actually depending when the revolution happened. But notwithſtanding this, the French thinking the opportunity favourable, broke without ceremony the treaty of NEUTRALITY, made November 5, 1686, at Whitehall, by attacking the Engliſh quarters in the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's, which was inſiſted upon by king William and queen Mary, as the grounds of declaring war againſt the French king in America. From this period, down to the treaty of AIX LA-CHAPELLE in 1748, both nations have kept up their claims; and by the laſt mentioned treaty, things were again reduced to their old ſituation, by a poſitive declaration that ST. LUCIA, ST. VINCENT, and DOMINICA, ſhould be eſteemed NEUTRAL; and conſidered in that light, not to be ſettled by other nations.

By that treaty likewiſe, a fourth iſland was added, to which the French had never laid any expreſs or direct claim before, and this was TOBAGO. Such were the regulations this treaty made, and ſuch the ſtate of things, or at leaſt ſuch the ſtate of things ought to have been, at the opening of the late war. By the 9th article of the peace ſigned at Paris, February 10, 1763, all the three iſlands of DOMINICA, ST. VINCENT, and TOBAGO, were yielded in full and perpetual ſovereignty to GREAT-BRITAIN, the iſland of St. Lucia being ceded by the king of Great-Britain to France, in exchange for the ISLAND of GRANADA, which by the before mentioned 9th article, with the GRANADINES or GRENADILLAS, and all their DEPENDENCIES, are abſolutely and for ever yielded to Great-Britain. We ſhall deſcribe the three formerly NEUTRAL, which are now become BRITISH ISLANDS, and theſe TWO ISLANDS that were thus exchanged.

DOMINICA lies, as it were, in the boſom of all the FRENCH ISLES, 8 leagues north-weſt from MARTINICO; about the ſame diſtance, ſouth-eaſt from GUADALOUPE; having the three ſmall iſlands called the Saints, between them, and at the diſtance of five leagues ſouth weſt from Marigalante. Dominica lies ſtretched out from ſouth to north-weſt. It is a large iſland, at leaſt twenty eight Engliſh miles in length, and about thirteen in breadth, in circumference about 30 leagues. It is not interſected by large inlets of the ſeas, as many others, both of the larger and leſſer of our own, and the French Weſt Indian iſlands are, and of courſe contains the more land. Some have judged it near twice as large as Barbadoes, and the French eſteem it near half the ſize of Martinico. The climate in general is reputed wholſome. After this iſle becomes thoroughly cleared, it will be more healthy and agreeable to European conſtitutions. The face of the country is rough and mountainous towards the ſea ſide eſpecially, and within land, there are many rich and fine vallies, and ſome ſpacious and fair plains. The declivities of the hills are commonly gentle, ſo as to facilitate their cultivation, and the ſoil in general a deep black mould, and commended for it's fertility, by the Spaniſh and French, as well as the Engliſh. It is well watered, by at leaſt 30 rivers, ſome of which are ſpacious and navigable for ſeveral miles, the reſt commodious for planting, and variety of fiſh. It abounds in all kinds of timber, that are cuſtomary in the Weſt-India iſles. Their fruits are ſuperior to thoſe in Martinico and Guadaloupe. Hogs both wild and tame are in plenty, as well as moſt ſorts of fowl. Ground proviſions in general are here as good as in any of the other iſles; ſuch as bananas, potatoes, maniac, from which the caſſada is made, the common bread of the Indians, Negroes, and even Europeans: their pine apples are reputed large and fine flavoured. The ſettlements made by the French upon the coaſt, were eſteemed equal, if not ſuperior in produce, to thoſe in their own iſles. The Spaniſh writers, particularly Oviedo, ſay, there are ſeveral ſafe ports and convenient creeks. On the north-weſt end of the iſland, there is a deep, ſandy, large bay, well defended by the adjacent mountains from moſt winds, which from prince Rupert's anchoring in it, when in thoſe parts, has received his name, where our armament under the late lord Cathcart, lay very commodiouſly, and which was of great ſervice to our ſquadron in the courſe of the late war. There is a good anchoring ground along all the LEEWARD COAST.—The French have acknowledged, that ſugar, cotton coffee, cocoa, and indeed every thing, that either they or we have been able to raiſe, in any of the other iſlands, may be produced in large quantities as well as in great perfection here.

The Indians may, without prejudice to our people, have convenient diſtricts of land allotted them; in which by good management and mild treatment, they may be rendered very uſeful to our new colony, in raiſing ſtock, and other things, as they have been for a century, to the French in Martinico. It may be proper on our firſt eſtabliſhment to allot ſmall plantations to ſuch ſoldiers, and larger to ſuch officers as have families, and are inclined to ſettle upon the iſland, and to offer them every kind of encouragement that may increaſe their number, as thoſe people would then be able to defend their property. Numbers of our countrymen ſettled in St. Euſtatia, St. Croix, and Cape Iſaquepe, might be invited to return upon advantageous terms into the territories of their natural ſovereign. A form of government upon thoſe of our other iſlands, guarded againſt the acquiſition by all graſping individuals, of large quantities of unſettled and uncultivated land, with the ſame reſtrictions, that take place in Barbadoes, for the conſtant maintenance of a numerous and well diſciplined militia, &c. cannot fail of drawing thither a ſufficient number of inhabitants, and with the help of regular fortifications, would render the iſland ſecure, and they would make it flouriſhing. This would induce to the diſcovery of that mine, for which this iſland has been always famous, which the Engliſh believe from tradition to be ſilver, but what the French well know to be gold; and though it ſhould not be judged expedient to open it, yet the certain knowledge of it could do us no injury, and the very fame of it might invite numbers there, and prove of great benefit.

Nor need apprehenſion of inſecurity intimidate the reſort of people thither. Beſides the immediate aſſiſtance this iſle might receive from Barbadoes, while we retain our maritime ſuperiority, a reſpectable ſquadron on the firſt appearance of a rupture might be ſent to Prince Rupert's bay, with a force ſufficient to quiet the fear of the inhabitants. But if ſuch an event be at any diſtance, the iſland in that time may be fully ſettled, and from it's extent and fortifications, exempt from the danger of any ſudden invaſion; and in that ſtate would ſerve as a place of arms, and the rendezvous of our forces, from all parts of the WEST INDIES; when from the nature of it's ſituation the whole of the French commerce in theſe parts muſt inſtantly become precarious, and all their ſettlements be at our mercy.

The iſland of ST. VINCENT lies between five and ſix leagues ſouth-weſt from ST. LUCIA, 23 ſouth-weſt from Martinico, 36 ſouth from DOMINICA, 30 weſt by ſouth from Barbadoes, and 17 north-eaſt from GRANADA. Being thus ſituated directly

rectly to the leeward of Barbadoes, it may in a few hours be reached from thence, and is at the ſame time ſo ſeated, as to cover and connect the ſmall iſlands that lie between it and GRANADA. It is from ſouth to north, about 24 of our miles in length, and about half as many in breadth, ſixty, or thereabouts in circumference.—It is rather bigger than Antigua, and if not larger, at leaſt as large as Barbadoes, ſomewhat ſmaller than ST. LUCIA, and much about 2 thirds of the bigneſs of DOMINICA. The warmth of the climate is ſo tempered with ſea breezes, that it is looked upon as very healthful and agreeable, and on the eminencies that are numerous, the air is rather cool.

The ſoil in general is extraordinary fertile, tho' the country is hilly, and in ſome places mountainous. Amongſt the former, there are pleaſant vallies; at the bottom of the latter, ſome large and luxuriant plains. No iſland of the like extent is better watered; from the mountains there deſcend rivers, and leſſer ſtreams run on both ſides from almoſt every hill. There are ſeveral fine ſprings at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea, and the ſlopes ſo eaſy and regular, that there are hardly any marſhes, and no ſtanding waters on the iſle. There are here large quantities of valuable timber, as well as good fruit-trees, ſome peculiar to this iſle. It abounds with wild ſugar-canes, from which the natives make a very pleaſant liquor; corn, rice, and all ſorts of ground proviſions, are raiſed in plenty, and without great trouble. In the ſouth part of the iſland, where the French have raiſed ſome large and flouriſhing ſettlements, they have coffee, indigo, cocoa, anatto, and very fine tobacco.—They have plenty of cattle and poultry, and ſend ſome lignum vitæ, and ſome timber to Martinico, where the latter is employed in building houſes, and in their fortifications. The rivers are ſtored with divers ſorts of freſh fiſh, and the ſea contiguous to it's coaſts abounds with thoſe properto it's element, and the general nature of the climate. Both land and water fowl are in plenty.

From the ſpecimens above given, we may collect, that when this country comes to be duly well cultivated, according to the invitation it gives, it would, in reſpect to it's produce, be little, if at all inferior, to any for extent, of the iſlands we have poſſeſſed; eſpecially if we conſider that it has many commodious bays, on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt ſides, with abundance of convenient creeks, and good anchoring ground on every ſide. At the ſouthern extremity there is a deep, ſpacious, ſandy bay, called St. Antonio, where ſhips of large ſize may lie ſafely and commodiouſly; and when the whole comes to be further known, there is little doubt, but other advantages will be experienced, notwithſtanding the French have been ſolicitous to repreſent the iſland heretofore, as an inſignificant diſagreeable deſert, when they had a view of engroſſing it to themſelves.—The French have for ſeveral years gone on ſettling, planting, cutting timber, and raiſing every kind of Weſt India commodities, except ſugar, and carrying on a very lucrative trade to their other iſlands, in which a number of ſloops have been employed.

In relation to the ſecurity of this iſland, there is no doubt, that a competent military force muſt be ſent to protect our firſt eſtabliſhments; and as aſſiſtance may be derived from Barbadoes, at any time in the ſpace of a few hours, the French can take no advantage of this iſland, provided care is taken to pacify all miſunderſtandings between the native Indians and the Negroes, as they ſhall happen.

From the foregoing brief deſcription of this iſle, it appears to be a fine fruitful one; all the ancient, and of courſe unbiaſſed relations we have of it by authors of credit of every nation, Spaniſh, French, and Dutch, as well as our own, concur in this repreſentation. By depriving the French of all the ſettlements they had made at this iſland, of the produce thereof, and of the advantages ariſing from the trade, which was regularly ſettled between this and their other iſlands, and throwing them into the Britiſh ſcale of general commerce, may be conſidered as no deſpicable acquiſition to this nation. It ſhould not be forgot that all our former diſputes, too numerous to ſpecify relative hereunto, are by the peace of 1763, brought to a concluſion; this iſland is now become perpetually and inconteſtibly ours, we having given an equivalent for this and others, and the French have no colour or pretence for reviving any ſort of claim thereto.

By this acquiſition of ST. VINCENT, Great-Britain has likewiſe gained an additional check upon the French inland colonies in general, and particularly on that of ST. LUCIA, which is ceded to that nation. There can be no meaſure taken there, of which we may not have immediate notice; and if we conſider the ſituation of this iſland in reſpect to that and the reſt of the French iſlands, now that GRANADA and all its depencies are become Britiſh, it ſeems pretty apparent, we may from thence eſtabliſh a cruize, by which they may be effectually blocked up, or at leaſt deprived of all commerce, in caſe of a future war.

Should it be objected, that the bays in this iſland may not be convenient for a large ſquadron, ſince our ſquadrons avoid as much as poſſible coming into or continuing long in bays however commodious; nor does experience evince that our naval armament have hitherto ſuffered much from the want of ſuch conveniencies in the hurricane months, in which they are chiefly neceſſary; but from their dangerous ſtorms; they will have now a conſtant and ſafe retreat in the port of GRANADA. It may likewiſe ſerve us for a place of arms, by which forces may be tranſplanted from the other iſlands, and embarked very conveniently for our future expeditions in this part of the world. It alſo contributes to cover and connect all our other poſſeſſions, that together with it have been acquired by the peace; and from thence, reinforcements and ſupplies may be ſent with equal eaſe and expedition to DOMINICA.

TOBAGO, the moſt remote of all our new acquired iſlands in America, lies near 40 leagues ſouth by weſt from BARBADOES; about 35 leagues ſouth-eaſt from ST. VINCENT, 40 leagues eaſt from GRANADA, 12 leagues north-eaſt from TRINIDADA, and between 30 and 40 leagues north-eaſt from the Spaniſh main. It is 32 of our miles from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, which is the greateſt length; and where broadeſt, may be about nine miles, from eaſt to weſt, ſomewhat more than 70 miles in circumference. It differs not a great deal in bigneſs from the iſland of ST. VINCENT, is rather larger than Barbadoes, and of conſequence than any of our leeward iſlands. Near the north eaſt extremity, there lies a ſmall iſland called LITTLE TOBAGO, which is near two miles in length, and full half a mile broad. The rocks of St. Giles lie to the north, and there are many ſmall rocky iſlets on the north-weſt ſide of it, which though uſeleſs, are not however dangerous. The climate, though it lies only 11 degrees and ten minutes north from the equator, is not near ſo hot as might be expected, the force of the ſun's rays being happily tempered by the coolneſs of the ſea breezes. Another favourable circumſtance, which may ſerve to recommend this climate, is, that this iſland lies out of the track of the HURRICANES, to which our own iſlands as well as thoſe of the French are expoſed, and from which their plantations and ſhipping ſuffer frequently very ſeverely.

There are many riſing grounds over all the iſland, but it cannot be properly ſtiled mountainous, except, perhaps, in the north-weſt extremity; and even there, they are far from being rugged or impaſſable. The ſoil is well diverſified, being in ſome places light and ſandy, in others mixed with gravel and ſmall flints, but in general it is a deep, rich, black mould. From the extraordinary ſize of the ſame ſort of trees that grow in the other iſlands, and from the trials made by the Courlanders and the Dutch, this iſland is eſteemed to be luxuriantly fertile; well ſuited to the different productions that are raiſed in the WEST-INDIES, and from the concurrence of various favourable circumſtances, may be wrought with eaſe, and is not liable to the blaſt, and other accidents, which are ſo fatal to the moſt promiſing crops in ſome of our LEEWARD ISLANDS.

It is generally agreed, that hardly any country can be better watered than this is. Beſides ſprings that are found in plenty all over the iſland, there are not fewer than 18 rivulets, that run from the hills into the ſea, ſome on the eaſt, ſome on the weſt ſide. Some of thoſe take a ſerpentine courſe through the meadows; others pent up by rocky channels, roll with ſuch rapidity, as renders them very fit for driving mills; but there are very few or no moraſſes or marſhes, or lakes, pools, or collections of ſtanding waters, which of courſe muſt render it more healthy, and in all parts of it alike habitable; and from the happy diſpoſition of the running ſtreams and numerous ſprings, it is almoſt every where habitable, with the like convenience.

Yet this diſtribution of freſh water, is not more commodious, than the diſpoſition of the bays and creeks of the ſea upon it's coaſts. At the ſouth end lies the bay of La Guira, and at a ſmall diſtance, the leſſer and the great Rockley bays. The latter of theſe, may, with propriety, be ſtiled a harbour, for it is land-locked on every ſide, and is very ſecure. It was in this bay the Dutch and French fleets engaged in 1677, and in which engagement the count d'Eſtree's ſhip, called the Glorieux of 70 guns, was blown up; which ſhews that it is capable of receiving as conſiderable ſquadrons, and thoſe of as large ſhips, as are uſually ſent into thoſe ſeas. To the northward of theſe lies Cochon Gras, or Fat Hog bay, and beyond that Grand Rivier bay, Great Hog bay, little Hog bay, L'Ancre Batteau, covered by the iſland of Little Tobago; and therefore in the Dutch maps called Little Tobago bay. Oppoſite to this, on the other ſide of the iſland, is what the Dutch called John Moore's bay, now Man of War bay, very deep and ſpacious, with ten fathom water cloſe to the ſhore, with two fine rivulets running into the bay, where our ſhips may therefore careen, with the utmoſt conveniency, as well as with the greateſt ſafety; it being ſurrounded by high hills, that come down cloſe to the ſhore, by which the veſſels lying there, will be effectually ſheltered from both wind and weather. There are alſo ſeveral little commodious bays, between this and Great Courland bay, and Sandy Point bay, which brings us again to the ſouthern extremity of the iſland. Whence it appears, that it is in all reſpects moſt convenient for commerce; and though it be true, that having ſo many places that admit of eaſy landing, and lying in the neighbourhood of warlike Indians, it muſt of neceſſity require proper fortifications; and when this iſland ſhall be once well ſettled,

the many obvious and extraordinary advantages thereby afforded to trade, will amply compenſate the expence, that may be found neceſſary to provide for, and to preſerve it's ſecurity.

This iſland is covered with all that vaſt variety of valuable TIMBER, that is to be found in moſt countries in the WEST-INDIES, and many of theſe as extraordinary in their ſize, as excellent in their nature. The ſame may be ſaid, with reſpect to fruit trees, and amongſt theſe, there are ſome that are peculiar to Tobago. Such for inſtance as the true NUTMEG-TREE, which the Dutch, who of all nations could not in that reſpect be deceived, affirm to have found here. They indeed ſay, it is a wild nutmeg, that the mace is leſs florid, and the taſte of the nut it ſelf more pungent, though larger and fairer to the eye, than the ſpice of the ſame kind brought from the Eaſt-Indies by them. The CINNAMON-TREE grows likewiſe in this iſland, though the bark is ſaid to have a taſte of cloves as well as cinnamon. Here alſo grows that tree which produces the true GUM COPAL, reſembling that brought from the continent of America, and very different from what goes by the ſame name in the reſt of the Weſt-Indian iſlands.

All ground proviſions are produced here in great abundance, as well as perfection. Here likewiſe is plenty of wild hogs and other animals, together with great quantities of fowl, and an amazing variety both of ſea and river fiſh. In the time the Dutch were in poſſeſſion of this iſland, which was not many years, they exported large quantities of TOBACCO, SUGAR, CASSIA, GINGER, CINNAMON, SASSAFRAS, GUM COPAL, CACAO, ROCOU, INDICO, and COTTON; beſides rich WOODS, materials for DYEING, DRUGS of different kinds, and ſeveral ſorts of delicious ſweetmeats. Thus, we have not only the probability, ariſing from the climate, ſoil, and ſituation; but likewiſe the certainty, that all the valuable commodities which the WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS produce have been actually, and may conſequently be again unqueſtionably raiſed in TOBAGO.

We may add to what has been ſaid, that tho' the Dutch boaſted much of their ſettlements in, and the valuable cargoes they annually brought from them, yet Sir Joſiah Child, within that very period, mentions the defect in their improvement of Tobago, in ſupport of his doctrine, that the Dutch, as a nation, were leſs ſucceſsful in PLANTING than COMMERCE; which is enough to convince us, that in his time, this was conſidered as an iſland capable of being made at leaſt as valuable, as any of it's ſize in the poſſeſſion of Europeans.

As this iſland in the ſtate it now is, abounds, as before obſerved, with a vaſt variety of different ſorts of TIMBER, all of them allowed to be excellent in their reſpective kinds; it may deſerve conſideration in the firſt ſettling it, whether proper officers might not be appointed to ſecure to the public theſe advantages. It is by no means intended, that the firſt planters ſhould be deprived of the neceſſary uſe of all kinds of timber for buildings and utenſils, but that it ſhould be cut in a proper method, and with diſcretion; becauſe nothing has been more loudly exclaimed againſt by the ſenſible men in all our other iſlands, than the undiſtinguiſhing and deſtructive havock made amongſt the WOODS, without any regard to the general intereſt, or the leaſt reſpect paid to poſterity.

By ſuch a method, the country may be properly and regularly cleared and opened; and as from the nature of the ſoil and climate, vegetation is extremely quick, a ſucceſſion of uſeful trees may be conſtantly maintained. By this means valuable cargoes will be furniſhed of FINE WOODS for the uſe of JOINERS, CABINET-MAKERS, and TURNERS; the neceſſary materials for DYEING CLOTH, SILK, and LINEN, obtained in great perfection, and a prodigious variety of GUMS, BALSAMS, and other coſtly and efficacious medicinal DRUGS may be procured in their genuine ſtate. By this precaution, very large ſums which we now pay to foreigners, will be ſaved to the nation; the improvement of our manufactures facilitated, and the exportation of theſe bulky commodities prove a great benefit to our navigation. By putting the direction of theſe things into ſkilful hands, new lights will continually ariſe from experience; and new acquiſitions may be here made of valuable plants from the continent of South America, Africa, and even from the Eaſt-Indies. The ſubordinate care of theſe woods, might furniſh employment to the Indians; and the profits ariſing from the exportation to Europe, might conſtitute a public revenue for the ſupport of the fortifications and other expences of government; which would be a great eaſe to the induſtrious planters, and thereby procure a conſtant attention in their aſſemblies to promote a deſign equally ſerviceable to their mother-country and themſelves: and conſidered in this light, it might become a uſeful precedent in the eſtabliſhment of ſomething of the like kind in other colonies, and could be attended with no inconveniencies whatever.

Nor is there any ſort of improbability of our being able to produce a great part, if not all the variety of SPICES of the EAST-INDIES, in this very iſland. CINNAMON is ſaid to grow in ſome of the other WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS; and general Codrington had once an intention to try how much it might be improved, by a regular cultivation in the iſland of

Barbuda. It is univerſally allowed, that the bark of what is called the WILD CINNAMON-TREE in Tobago, is beyond compariſon the beſt in the WEST-INDIES, and even in its preſent ſtate may be made a commercial article of value. The bark, when cured with care, differs from that in the Eaſt-Indies, by being ſtronger and more acrid while it is freſh, and when kept for ſome time, it loſes that pungency, and acquires the flavour of CLOVES. This is preciſely the SPICE which the Portugueſe call CRAVA DE MARANAHON, the French CANELLE GEROFFLEE, and the Italians CANELLA GAROFONATA. There is a very conſiderable ſale of this at LISBON, PARIS, and over all ITALY. This kind of ſpice, at preſent, is drawn chiefly from Brazil; and the Portugueſe believe that their cinnamon-trees were originally brought from Ceylon, while it was in their poſſeſſion, but that through the alteration of ſoil and clime they are degenerated into this ſort of ſpice, and this may probably be true. However, from their ſize and number it ſeems to admit of no doubt, that the CINNAMON-TREES actually growing in TOBAGO, are the natural production of that iſland; and the point with us is, to know what improvements may be made with reſpect to theſe.

It may ſeem a little new, but we hope to render it highly probable, that the ſole difference in cinnamon ariſes from culture. In the firſt place it is allowed, both by the Dutch and Portugueſe, that there are no leſs than ten different kinds in the iſland of CEYLON; which is the cleareſt evidence, that this tree is every where ſubject to variation from the circumſtances of ſoil and expoſition. It is ſecondly allowed, that even the beſt, fineſt, and firſt ſort of cinnamon-tree, does not preſerve it's high qualities beyond 17, 18, or at moſt 20 years. The reaſon aſſigned for this by the Dutch, is that the CAMPHIRE, as the tree grows older, riſes in ſuch quantties as to penetrate the bark, and thereby alter its flavour; which accounts very well for the different trade of the Brazil and Tobago cinnamons, as the trees muſt be at leaſt five times more than the proper age. It is thirdly allowed, that the faireſt and fineſt cinnamon grows upon young trees, planted in vallies near the ſea ſide, naturally covered with white ſand, where they are perfectly unſhaded and expoſed to the hotteſt ſun; that at five years old they begin to bark the branches; and, that the tree continues to produce fine-flavoured cinnamon for the number of years already mentioned. —They then cut it down to the root, from whence in a year or two it ſpreads again, and in five or ſix they begin to bark the young plants. There is one circumſtance more neceſſary to be obſerved; the true cinnamon is in the inner bark of the branches grown to a proper ſize, and when taken off and expoſed to be dried is of a green colour and has no ſmell, but as the watery particles are exhaled, and the bark curls in the manner we receive it, the colour changes, and the odour of the cinnamon gradually increaſes. What then is there to hinder our attempting the cultivation of cinnamon, which nature ſeems to have produced in as much perfection in TOBAGO as in CEYLON?

We have mentioned, that the NUTMEG as well as the CINNAMON-TREE, is a native of TOBAGO; and as we have likewiſe obſerved, is reported to be defective and inferior in its kind, to the ſame ſort of ſpice in, or at leaſt as it is brought us from the Eaſt-Indies. That the NUTMEG naturally grows here, we cannot doubt of the fact; becauſe we find it aſſerted, in a book addreſſed to Mr. de Beveren, then governor of TOBAGO. The nutmeg tree that naturally grows in Tobago is wild, and may by due care and pains be rendered as valuable a nutmeg as thoſe that grow any where elſe; for the fact really is, that wherever there are nutmegs, they are wild nutmegs, or as ſome ſtile them mountain-nutmegs, which are longer and larger, but much inferior in flavour to the beſt nutmeg, and are liable to be worm-eaten: the point is, to know how theſe defects may be remedied, or in other words, wherein the difference conſiſts, between the wild taſteleſs nutmeg, and that which is the genuine aromatic, and of courſe a valuable ſpice.

The nutmegs which the Dutch bring into Europe, grow in the iſlands of Bande, which are ſix in number; but the Dutch long ago confined the nutmeg plantations to three of them only, and took all the precautions imaginable, to hinder their being cultivated any where elſe, that they might the better confine the profits ariſing from this fine ſpice to their own company. See our article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The true nutmeg, is of the ſize and height of a pear-tree; the wild or mountain nutmeg is a large tree, not ſo well furniſhed with branches, but the leaves are broader and longer. The nutmegs are planted in CLOSES or PARKS, in a regular order, and with much labour and induſtry are carefully kept free from all weeds and plants that may exhauſt their nouriſhment, and are attended with the ſame diligence as a cacao walk. Beſides this, they are defended on the outſide, by one or two rows of trees, taller in ſize, which ſecure them from ſudden guſts of winds and from the ſea air, by both of which they would be otherwiſe prejudiced.

They afford three harveſts in the year, the firſt is towards the latter end of March and the beginning of April; the product then is but ſmall, conſiſting only of ſuch as are full ripe or

fallen;

fallen; but then theſe are the fineſt, both with reſpect to the true nut and to the mace. The ſecond is the great harveſt, in the latter end of July and the beginning of Auguſt, when all are gathered that are ripe. The third is in November, and is properly the gleaning, for then they take all that are left upon the tree. When they are thus gathered, they are ſtripped with a kniſe of their outer huſks, which reſemble thoſe of walnuts; the inner coat, which is the MACE, is next taken off, with great care and as whole as it is poſſible; it is then of a bright crimſon colour, but when cautiouſly dried, becomes of a yellow brown, thin, brittle, ſhining, oily, and of a pleaſing aromatic fragrance. The nut thus deſpoiled of both coats is expoſed to the ſun for a day to dry, and this operation is finiſhed in three or four days more, by expoſing them though at a convenient diſtance to the heat of fire. Then the ſhell, which is thin, and has a very ſlight pellicle adhering to it, is removed, and the kernel or nutmeg taken out. This is likewiſe very carefully dried, and when that is done, the nuts are put by ſmall parcels into wicker baſkets, in which they are dipped in a ſtrong ſolution of lime, made with calcined ſhells, mixed with ſea water. The great ſecret lies in thus curing of them, by which they are hindered from corrupting, from ſoftening by the warm, or loſing their virtue by the humidity of the ſea air when tranſported to Europe.

We may reaſonably conclude from this account, that the nutmeg-tree being a delicate plant, owes its high aromatic flavour, to its being induſtriouſly cultivated, with great caution, and all this in a proper ſoil. It muſt be alſo obſerved, that even amongſt the trees in the nutmeg parks, there are ſome that produce long and ill ſhaped nuts, with very little flavour, which are ſtiled male nutmegs; whereas the round aromatic fruit, which is brought to Europe, is called the female nutmeg. The ſmalleſt of the nutmeg parks or cloſes, does not contain above an Engliſh rood of land, but the largeſt contains three, four, or five times as much. The whole quantity collected in the three harveſts, and in a favourable ſeaſon, ſeldom amounts to more than three hundred tons of nutmegs, and from ſeventy to eighty tons of mace.

From this ſuccinct account of the nature and method of cultivating and curing this valuable ſpice, it will appear, that it may prove ſucceſsful to make the experiment in our new iſland of TOBAGO, that we may judge, whether by the ſame method, the wild nutmeg-tree, as it is called there, may not be reclaimed and improved as gradually to acquire all the virtue and odour of that true ſpice. There may no doubt many difficulties occur, both with the cultivation and in the curing; but the vigour, the ſagacity, the indefatigable diligence of Britiſh planters will very probably overcome all theſe.

We have no account of the tree that produces CLOVES, growing either in this, or in any other iſland in America. It is not, however, impoſſible, that when the productions of TOBAGO ſhall be more attentively examined, by capable perſons, we may poſſibly find, that nature has produced this ſpice here, as well as the reſt. No weight, indeed, at all ought this ſuppoſition to have, which is mentioned only, that an enquiry may be made. But if we take it for granted, that the clove does not grow here, we may nevertheleſs venture to aſſert, that the nature of the ſoil and climate conſidered, together with the ſize and ſituation of the iſle, the natural production of other ſpices, and the flavour of cloves, that is ſaid to predominate in theſe, make it not at all improbable, that if the clove was introduced, it would thrive here. That it may be introduced, and without much difficulty, will appear no unreaſonable aſſertion, when we conſider that this plant may be obtained from BORNEO, CERAM, and MINDANAO, without the leave of the Dutch.

The Dutch are at preſent in the ſole poſſeſſion of the SPICE-TRADE, and this they owe to a very commendable care, indefatigable induſtry, and conſtant circumſpection. For as on the one hand, they have taken inexpreſſible pains, in procuring and preſerving the perfection of theſe eſtimable commodities, by a ſkilful cultivation; ſo on the other hand, they have not been leſs careful to extirpate them, where nature had produced them, where they found it extremely difficult if not impoſſible to confine their production ſolely to their own profit. There ſeems to be no juſt cauſe therefore, why we ſhould not imitate them, as far as it is fit, if we are able to do it, for our own benefit.

Thoſe who would have an ample account of this ſpice, may have recourſe to botanical writers, particularly to a work lately publiſhed in Holland, where they may meet with every thing they can deſire, and be from thence more effectually convinced, that what has been aſſerted is ſtrictly agreeable to truth.

The clove like the nutmeg-trees, are planted in ſmall cloſes, and there cultivated with all poſſible care and attention. The ſoil and climate are choſen with great ſkill, and all the ground is kept continually clear of weeds, plants, and buſhes. There is no other vegetable ſuffered to grow in the cloſes deſtined for the cloves, becauſe this would deprive them of their due nutriment, and diminiſh the ſtrength and perfection of the ſpice, which tho' it derives its form and texture from nature, owes much of its delicate fragrance and flavour, as all other ſpices do, to cultivation and art; and to that aſſiduous attention that is employed in the planting, preſerving, gathering, and curing them, without which they would neither have gained or preſerved that degree of excellence which has now ſubſiſted for ages.

The harveſt of this fruit is annually, notwithſtanding what ſome have otherwiſe ſaid. They are ſometimes very plentiful, and at others not, according as the monſoons ſet in wet or dry. In the beſt years, they may produce about 2000 bahars, which is about 550 tons. In a very bad year, not half ſo much, but as the magazines are always kept well ſupplied, there comes uſually the ſame quantity to the Europe market, where the Dutch ſales, and indeed over all India, the price of ſpice very rarely alters. The clove retains its vigour, longer than either the cinnamon or the nutmeg, for it continues to bear plentifully, in a good ſeaſon, for 50 or 60 years, and in the Moluccas they did not reckon a tree old, in leſs than a 100. The number of bearing trees, in all cloſes, are computed at 250,000, excluſive of the young plants, that are intended to replace the old trees when they are become paſt bearing.

We have dwelt a little on this point, by reaſon of the probable importance that might attend it, though it is not entirely new, for the thought of raiſing the ſpices of the Eaſt in the Weſt-Indies occurred to us and the French long ago, though it was never attempted, or indeed could be attempted with ſo fair a proſpect of ſucceſs, as in this iſland.

In this, if in any of our iſland colonies, a free port may be opened, with as many apparant advantages, and perhaps fewer inconveniencies than any where elſe in America. Here is great choice of ports on both ſides the iſland, ſome that are by nature very ſecure, others that may be ſo at a ſmall expence. The fertility of the iſle is ſuch, as that with benefit inſtead of prejudice to its inhabitants, they will always have it in their power, to relieve the wants of thoſe on board ſhips, reſorting thither for a ſupply of freſh proviſions. In one or more ſettlements here might be erected ſpacious magazines for the reception of Eaſt-India, European, and North-American commodities; all of which would not fail of finding a vent, and thereby producing an advantageous circulation of commerce and money.

The ſituation of this iſland is an another advantage, whether we conſider its nearneſs to the Spaniſh main, or its convenient diſtance from ſome other iſlands, both of which ought to be regarded, in the choice of a FREE PORT. It may alſo be peculiarly advantageous upon the ſettling of the iſland, as by the hopes of immediate profit, it might attract people, create an inſtantaneous intercourſe, and thereby a lucrative commerce with different parts of the world, which muſt otherwiſe prove a work of time. It might alſo open to us a correſpondence with the free Indians, who live upon the continent, and who would be glad of having acceſs to a country ſo near them, to which they might go, and from which they might return at pleaſure, without danger to their liberty. On the other hand, our people would be attentive enough to their own intereſt; and tho' at firſt they might find it expedient to make them preſents of ſuch things as they ſaw moſt pleaſing to them, yet in a little time they would make them ſenſible, that in order to obtain a continuance of ſupplies they muſt be content to render them uſeful in return, either by finding goods to barter, or by undertaking themſelves ſome eaſy kind of labour; which propoſition, if made with addreſs, and proſecuted with humanity and juſtice, would hardly fail of making an impreſſion upon them; and thereby open the means of having at leaſt ſome kind of cultivation carried on there, by freemen, which would be an acquiſition of people, as well as of country. An acquiſition not at all the more impracticable, becauſe that hitherto it has never been made. Our planters when they firſt went to the WEST-INDIES, had as little idea of negroes ſlaves, as they now have of Indians. In time they may profit as much by the one as by the other. This point has been cautiouſly ſpoken to, becauſe ſome, not without reaſon, have doubted, whether it might be expedient for us to follow the example of our neighbours in the opening, as they have done, FREE PORTS in America. Certain it is, that the Dutch are very great gainers by thoſe of St. Euſtatia and Curaçoa. Should we ſucceed in the raiſing of ſpices, and making other improvements in this iſland, hitherto uninvoduced into any other; the trade of a FREE PORT therein may become very beneficial to its inhabitants, without detriment to the mother-country. On the contrary, great cargoes exported from hence, may be diſpoſed of there, and produce ſuitable returns. At all events, a free port in this iſland might be eaſily ſettled, and as eaſily kept, under proper regulations, by which the experiment, which is of no little importance, might be effectually made. If when it is made, the inconveniencies ſhould be found to out-weigh the advantages, or any unforeſeen miſchief ſhould from thence ariſe, either to the trade of the other colonies, or that of Great-Britain; ſuch a port might be with facility ſuppreſſed.

The definitive treaty of 1763 having alſo annexed the iſland of GRANADA to the crown of Great-Britain, we ſhall now briefly conſider what benefits may accrue to us from this poſſeſſion. It lies ſouth weſt from ST. VINCENT, 17 or 18 leagues;

leagues; ſouth-weſt from ST. LUCIA, about 35 leagues; weſt-ſouth-weſt from BARBADOES, 50 leagues; ſouth-ſouth-weſt from MARTINICO, 50 leagues; ſouth ſouth-weſt from DOMINICA, ſomewhat more than 60 leagues; weſt-north-weſt from TOBAGO, 35 leagues, or according to ſome charts, 40 leagues; ſouth from ST. CHRISTOPHERS, 100 leagues; and north from the SPANISH MAIN, about 30 leagues.

It lies in the latitude of 11 degrees, 30 minutes north, the fartheſt to the ſouth of any of the ANTILLES. We are not able to give it's dimenſions with any degree of exactneſs, as not only authors but maps differ very much in regard thereto. We may, however, without fear of erring much, aſſert that it is upwards of 30 Engliſh miles in length. De Liſle's map makes it near 40; and 15 or 16 in breadth, in ſome places, though in others much leſs, and about 25 leagues in circumference.

It appears from hence to be twice as big as BARBADOES, larger than ST. LUCIA, ST. VINCENT, or TOBAGO; and if we may take the words of ſome French memoir writers, contains of cultivatable land, near $\frac{1}{3}$ of what is to be found in MARTINICO. Theſe are circumſtances of ſome conſequence, though we cannot ſpeak of them as yet with preciſion.

The ſituation of this iſland leaves us no room to doubt, that the climate is very warm, which, however, the French writers aſſure us, is very much moderated by the regular returns of the ſea breeze, by which the air is rendered cool and pleaſant. We may from the ſame authority aſſert, that it is wholſome; for though ſtrangers eſpecially are ſtill liable to what is called the GRANADA fever, yet this is at preſent far from being ſo terrible, as it formerly was; proves very rarely mortal, and as it chiefly proceeds from the humidity of the air, occaſioned by the thickneſs of the woods, it will very probably be entirely removed, whenever the country is brought into a thorough ſtate of cultivation; and this we may predict, as the ſame thing has conſtantly happened, in our own and in the French iſlands.

Beſides, the climate has ſome, and thoſe too very peculiar advantages. The ſeaſons, as they are ſtiled in the Weſt-Indies, are remarkably regular, the blaſt is not hitherto known in this iſland; the inhabitants are not liable to many diſeaſes, that are epidemic in Martinico and Guadaloupe; and, which is the happieſt circumſtance of all, it lies out of the track of the hurricanes, which with reſpect to the ſafety of the ſettlements on ſhore, and the ſecurity of navigation is an ineſtimable benefit in this part of the world.

There are in GRANADA ſome very high mountains, but the number is ſmall, and the eminencies ſcattered through it are in general rather hills, or as the French writers ſtile them MORNES, gentle in their aſcent, of no great height, fertile, and very capable of cultivation. Excluſive of theſe, there are on both ſides the iſland, large tracts of level ground, very fit for improvement, the ſoil being almoſt every where deep, rich, mellow, and fertile in the higheſt degree, ſo as to be equal in all reſpects, if not ſuperior to that of any of the iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, if the concurrent teſtimony both of French and Britiſh planters may be relied on. The former, indeed, have conſtantly in their applications to the French miniſtry inſiſted, that this might be very eaſily made one of the moſt valuable colonies belonging to France. This we find aſſerted at the very opening of the current century, in the memorials addreſſed to the council of ſtate, confirmed ſome years afterwards by father Labat, and inſiſted upon with great zeal and vehemency, in repreſentations drawn up by very capable judges, the laſt year that it continued to be a French iſland.

It is perfectly well watered by divers ſtreams of different ſizes, and running in different directions, flowing from a large lake on the ſummit of a high mountain ſituated very near the center of the iſle. There are ſmaller brooks, running from moſt of the hills, and very fine ſprings almoſt every where, at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. All theſe rivers abound with variety of good fiſh, and are reſorted to by multitudes of water fowl. There are likewiſe in Granada ſeveral SALT-PONDS, which have their uſes and their value.

The great produce of this country, in its preſent condition, is a prodigious variety of moſt ſorts of TIMBER that are to be met with in any of the Weſt-India iſlands; ſo that whenever this iſland comes to be tolerably cleared, conſiderable profits will ariſe from the timber that may be cut down. There are likewiſe many rich fruits, valuable gums, dying woods, and ſeveral vegetable products, ſuch as oils, reſins, balſams, &c. which have always borne a high price here. All the different kinds of ground proviſions, which are ſo requiſite to the ſubſiſtence of Weſt-India plantations, are here in great quantities, and ſome kinds of grain ripen very kindly in this, which are not raiſed at all, or are raiſed with difficulty in other iſlands. River and ſea fiſh in great abundance, and in reſpect to the latter, turtle of the largeſt ſize and lamentins, which drew veſſels from the other French iſlands for the ſake of fiſhing. They have plenty of all ſorts of fowl, and prodigious quantities of game, ortolans, and a kind of red partridges eſpecially. Beſides theſe, the woods are well furniſhed with many wild animals, that afford excellent food, and are very rarely met with in the other iſlands. They have likewiſe much cattle, and as their hills yield excellent paſture, if the country was better peopled, might have many more.

But the diſtinguiſhing excellency of GRANADA, does not lie ſimply in its great fertility, or in its fitneſs for a vaſt variety of eſtimable commodities, but in the peculiar quality of its ſoil, which gives a ſurpriſing and inconteſtible perfection to all its productions. The SUGAR of Granada is of a fine grain, and of courſe more valuable, than that either of Martinico or Guadaloupe. The INDIGO is the fineſt in all the WEST-INDIES. While TOBACCO remained the STAPLE commodity, as once it was, of theſe iſlands, one pound of GRANADA tobacco was worth two or three that grew in any of the reſt. The CACAO and COTTON have an equal degree of pre-eminence; nor is this founded ſimply in the opinion of the French, but is equally known and allowed by the Engliſh and Dutch; and in regard to the laſt mentioned commodity, we may appeal to ſome of the merchants of this city, on whoſe authority we may more ſafely rely.

If credit be due to the memorials of the French officers, who have viſited Granada, true CINNAMON, and ſome NUTMEGS are found there; which, if future experience ſhould verify, all that has been ſaid in reſpect to TOBAGO, may be as juſtly applied to GRANADA; and the only reaſon for inſiſting on the ſubject there, was, becauſe we thought the fact better eſtabliſhed, from the authority of the Dutch, who, of all nations, are the beſt acquainted with ſpices. In reſpect to ſituation, and thoſe expoſitions that are eſſentially requiſite, to the proper culture of thoſe valuable productions, the iſlands are every way equal, or, if upon making the experiment, GRANADA ſhould be found preferable in TOBAGO, which may probably prove the caſe, it ought no doubt to be preferred accordingly.

All the writers of our own, as well as of the French nation, have agreed, that there is in general good anchoring ground on all the coaſts, and many commodious creeks and bays, both on the eaſt and weſt ſides, which would be infinitely advantageous to commerce, if this country was fully peopled and completely cultivated. But beſides theſe ſmall, there are alſo two large ports of great excellence, and which deſerve particular notice. The firſt of theſe is the harbour of CALIVENIE, at the ſouth-eaſt extremity of the iſland, and is ſingularly ſafe and ſpacious. It conſiſts of an outward and inward port. The former is three quarters of a mile broad at its entrance, but widens as you advance, and becomes above a mile in extent within. As to the entrance of the interior port, it is above a quarter of a mile broad, but preſently expands itſelf on both ſides, ſo as to be very capacious, and has about ſeven fathom of water, with a ſoft muddy bottom, from whence ſeamen will eaſily judge of its utility. Ships lying here in the utmoſt ſafety, may from warehouſes take in their lading very conveniently, and may then, with great eaſe be hauled into the outer port, which has this peculiar advantage, that ſhips may either come into, or go out of it with the ordinary trade wind. This port, ſuppoſing there was no other, is in an iſland thus ſituated, and ſo very capable of being improved, would, in a trading nation, like ours, render it a valuable acquiſition.

But the worth of GRANADA muſt be highly enhanced, when we conſider the other harbour, which lies at the north-weſt end of the iſland, and is called the CARENAGE, the harbour of PORT ROYAL, or the OLD PORT, which has been always eſteemed one of the beſt harbours in the WEST-INDIES, as poſſeſſing almoſt every advantage that can be deſired. It is a full quarter of a mile broad at its entrance, and, when once entered, it is ſo capacious, as to hold with eaſe a ſquadron of twenty-five ſhips of the line, where they may ride in perfect ſafety, in reſpect either to wind or weather. There lies alſo, at a ſmall diſtance from this port, a lake of a conſiderable ſize, very deep, the water brackiſh, and which, by cutting through a ſand-bank, might be eaſily joined to the port, and would then be one of the fineſt baſons in the world, and afford all the conveniencies that could well be wiſhed, for careening the largeſt ſquadron of the largeſt ſhips, that are ever employed in this part of the world. The mouth of this port is ſecurable by a tolerable fortreſs, called FORT ROYAL, where the governor reſides, but the ſituation of it has been cenſured; and indeed there is no doubt, that by the help of two good fortifications, erected on the promontories, which make the entrance of the harbour, it might be rendered inacceſſible, ſince in caſe of an attack, ſhips muſt warp in, under the fire of both fortreſſes. The benefits that may be juſtly expected from ſuch a port as this, in an iſland ſo well ſituated, and producing ſuch a diverſity of valuable commodities, are ſo obvious, that it is needleſs to enter into a detail of them. In time of war it would give us inexpreſſible advantages againſt the Spaniards as well as the French; and if it ſhould happen, that by a multiplicity of ſervices, our naval force ſhould be ſo divided, as to leave us only an inferior ſquadron in theſe ports, the CARENAGE would afford us a ſafe retreat, without obliging our ſhips to quit that ſtation. A circumſtance certainly worthy of being regarded; and of which, the French availed themſelves often, ſo long as this iſland remained in their poſſeſſion.

The ingenious father Labat was here in 1705, and made ſome curious and pertinent remarks. He ſpeaks of the planters as eaſy in their circumſtances, though not very poliſhed in their manners. He clearly diſcerned, that great improvements might be made in ſo pleaſant and fruitful a country, and regretted that the French refugees from their ruined colony of St. Chriſtophers were not ſent hither, where they would quickly have repaired their own loſſes, and have rendered this colony much more uſeful to France. He made other judicious reflections. 'If, ſays he, Barbadoes had a 'port, as ſafe, as capacious, as commodious, and as eaſy 'to be fortified, it would be indeed an incomparable iſland; 'the Engliſh know much better than we, how to turn every 'natural advantage in their iſlands to the utmoſt; and if 'GRANADA had belonged to them, it had before now chan-'ged it's appearance, it had been long ago a rich and pow-'erful colony; inſtead of which, we have hitherto reaped 'little, from thoſe beneficial circumſtances from which vaſt 'profits might have ariſen, ſince after ſo many years poſſeſ-'ſion, the country is yet in a manner defert, thinly peopled, 'without commodities, having little commerce, their ha-'bitations or rather cabins mean, ill built, worſe furniſhed; 'and to ſay all in a word, in a very little better ſtate, than 'when Mr. du Parquet bought it from the ſavages.'

We muſt admit, that within the half century that has ſince paſſed, ſomewhat more attention has been paid to this iſland, and it's productions have turned within this period much more to the account of France. They had ſent thither for ſome years before it came into our hands, 12,000 hogſheads of SUGAR annually, beſides COFFEE, CACAO, and a large quantity of excellent COTTON. Yet it is generally allowed, that never one half of the country was ſettled, nor half the profit drawn from what was ſettled, that might have been obtained, if the inhabitants had been better planters, and had been better ſupplied with ſlaves. The repreſentations made to the French court treat all the improvements made there as very imperfect, as demonſtrative rather of the fertility of the ſoil, and the excellence of the climate, than of the induſtry of the inhabitants. Theſe repreſentations likewiſe ſuggeſt, that many improvements might have been introduced, and that ſome lucrative branches of commerce might have been opened from thence. By the accounts of our own people, who have reſided there, and the captains of men of war who have viſited it; the French have not been extravagant in their accounts, or viſionary in their ſpeculations. An Engliſh gentleman who had great opportunities of knowing, thinks a much greater quantity of ſugar was raiſed there than found a regular paſſage to France.

Excluſive of theſe productions, this iſland was of great utility to the French, during the courſe of the laſt war, when the ſingle ſhips of force they ſent to the Weſt-Indies, with the tranſports under their care, came regularly hither, with little danger of falling into the hands of cruizers. Here they remained in ſafety, and from hence they ſent ſupplies of men, ammunition, and proviſions, in ſmall veſſels, which creeping along the Granadillos, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia, arrived generally ſpeaking ſafely in the harbour of St. Peter's in Martinico. In this reſpect, as well as many others, the French will very ſenſibly feel the loſs of this iſland, as we ſhall the advantage ariſing from the poſſeſſion of it. A Britiſh ſquadron ſtationed here will be, as before hinted, a ſevere check upon the Spaniards as well as the French.

There runs from the ſouthern extremity of the iſle of Granada, in the direction of north by eaſt, a long range of little ISLETS, extending about 20 leagues. Theſe are of different ſizes, but all of them, except the round iſland, very ſmall. The number of theſe iſles is very uncertain; according to our beſt information, there are about 23 of them, capable of cultivation. The ſoil being remarkably rich, the climate pleaſant, and all the neceſſaries of life, whenever they ſhall be ſettled, will be eaſily obtained. According to the ſentiments of the beſt judges, large quantities of INDIGO, COFFEE, and COTTON, may be raiſed upon them, nor are they at all unfit for ſugars. In their preſent ſituation, they abound with excellent TIMBER. In former times, they were very ſervicable to the planters of Barbadoes, who cut great quantities of MILL-TIMBER, which were a great conveniency. But for many years paſt, the French have not only prevented this, as injurious to their property, but by ſtationing guard-ſhips upon the coaſt, made prizes in time of full peace, of all Engliſh veſſels they found at anchor there, and even of ſuch as appeared in ſight of them, which was a great detriment to our navigation. For, if veſſels bound to Barbadoes, either through thick weather, or being diſabled, miſſed that iſland, and ran down the ſouth of it, which was the common rout, they come of courſe upon theſe iſlands, and fell into the hands of the guard-ſhips; the apprehenſion of which, made them ſo cautious, as to render their voyages to that Britiſh iſland longer and more tedious than in former times. But as all theſe difficulties will be removed for the future, and as the clearing of theſe iſles in order to their cultivation, will be an immediate and conſiderable advantage to the inhabitants of Barbadoes, theſe circumſtances enhance the value of this acquiſition.

There are beſides theſe 5 larger iſlands. The firſt of theſe neareſt the line of iſlets before-mentioned, retains the Indian name of Carrouacou, of a circular figure, about 6 or 7 leagues in compaſs, lies 5 leagues eaſt from Granada; 14 ſouth weſt from St. Vincent, and about 40 leagues weſt-ſouth-weſt from Barbadoes. This little iſle, is repreſented by the French, as one of the fineſt and moſt fruitful ſpots in America; and from being pervaded by the ſea breeze, the climate equally wholſome and pleaſant. It is covered with valuable timber, interſperſed with rich fruit-trees, and when ſettled and cultivated, is capable of more kinds of Weſt-Indian improvements.

But the circumſtance by which it is moſt diſtinguiſhed, is it's having as deep, capacious, and commodious an harbour, as any in theſe Indies, and on this account has often been recommended to the French government, as a place capable of being made of much ſuperior utility, to iſlands of far greater extent, and even allowing theſe to have equal merit, in regard to the value and the variety of their productions.

About a league north eaſt from Carrouacou, lies L'ISLE DE L'UNION, though in truth there are two, the larger three leagues, the leſſer two leagues in length. At the diſtance of two leagues from theſe, lies CANNOEN, ſo called from the great reſort thither of the kind of tortoiſes, or ſea-turtle, which bear that name. This iſle is 3 leagues in length, and 1 ½ broad, and has a ſmall iſlet at the weſt of it. At the diſtance of 2 leagues from this, lies the ISLE DE MOUSTIQUES, or MOSKITO ISLAND; 3 leagues in breadth, and 1 in length. All theſe iſlands, are allowed to be pleaſant, wholſome, and exceeding fruitful. They are, at preſent, overgrown with different kinds of TIMBER; ſome of which are become exceedingly ſcarce in the other iſles, and ſome alſo, which bear at preſent a very high price in Europe.

At the diſtance of a league from Moſkito iſland, lies Becovya, Bequia, or Bekia, which is but two leagues ſouth-weſt from ST. VINCENT. This is the largeſt of all the iſlands dependent upon GRANADA, being about 12 leagues in circumference, and conſequently ſomewhat larger than MONSERRAT. The ſoil is equal if not ſuperior to any of the reſt; it has likewiſe a very ſafe and convenient port, which is land-locked on every ſide, eaſy in its entrance, and very deep and capacious, and in which their ſmall armaments frequently took ſhelter, during the laſt war, in proceeding as before intimated, from Granada to port St. Peter's in the iſland of Martinico; and this circumſtance hereafter may poſſibly merit for it more attention.

The conſideration of theſe iſlands dependent upon that of GRANADA, led to the queſtion, whether they might not be, all circumſtances conſidered, more proper for the introduction of SPICES, than even that of TOBAGO? The 5 iſlands of the MOLUCCAS, which are TERNATE, TYDOR, MOTIER, MAQUIEN and BACHAM, were ſo many ſeparate kingdoms, rich and full of inhabitants, before they were known to the Europeans, lie all in a line like theſe, and are none of them larger than CARROUACOU. They have ſmall ſtraits of the ſea between them like the Granadines, bear the ſame TREES, HERBS, and ROOTS, are ſome of them, like theſe, deficient in freſh water, and produced originally, CINNAMON and NUTMEGS, as well as CLOVES, the uſes as well as the method of CULTIVATING and CURING of what were taught them by the CHINESE, as Dr. Angenſola, who wrote an excellent hiſtory of the MOLUCCA iſlands, informs us. BANDA, where the NUTMEGS originally grew, is not above half the ſize of BEQUIA; and AMBOYNA, to which the Dutch ſeem at preſent inclined to confine both NUTMEGS and CLOVES, is rather inferior in point of extent to the iſland of GRANADA.

It ſhould not be forgot that our iſland of GRANADA, and it's DEPENDENCIES the GRANADILLOS, are free from HURRICANES; to which alſo our iſland of ST. VINCENT is ſeldom expoſed. To judge of the true value, and to aſcertain the real importance of theſe iſlands, that are altogether now become ours, we muſt view and contemplate them in their different lights, from which they may every one of them become more or leſs, immediately or remotely, directly or indirectly, aſſiſting to the intereſts, increaſing the power and the commerce, extending the navigation, and thereby promoting the welfare of Great-Britain; or, in other words, conducing to the induſtry, the independency, and the happineſs, of their fellow citizens, and fellow ſubjects, who are the inhabitants of this their MOTHER-COUNTRY.

To judge to what degree our new acquiſitions in the WEST-INDIES may be likely to anſwer theſe deſirable purpoſes, it will be requiſite to obſerve that general arrangement of things, which has ſince the peace of 1763, taken place in this part of the world. There is not now an iſland ſmall or great in the Weſt-Indies, the right to as well as the poſſeſſion of which, is not, pretty clearly aſcertained, and this without introducing any new powers into America, which might have proved prejudicial to our intereſts. By thus adjuſting the ſettlements of different ſtates, an end is put, at leaſt as far as human foreſight reaches, to their ambitious views.

In virtue of this adjuſtment, many of our old plantations will avail themſelves of thoſe ſupplies of TIMBER, from which they

more viſible, in regard to the Spaniards, who poſſeſs at once iſlands the largeſt and the leaſt profitable in the Weſt-Indies. The Dutch on the other hand, have found means to render the ſmalleſt, and in point of ſoil and climate, the worſt iſland in the Weſt-Indies, by dint of ſkill and of induſtry, wonderful flouriſhing, exceeding populous, and of courſe highly beneficial.

Yet in this reſpect, the experience ariſing from the ſkill and ſucceſs of our own planters, goes beyond that of all other nations; and if we conſider their early improvements, and the vaſt extent to which they have been carried; and at the ſame time reflect, that theſe have been owing to no one circumſtance more than to the ſmallneſs of their iſlands, which for the reaſons already given, enabled them to get the ſtart and to keep it ſo long from the French, will abundantly ſatisfy every judicious and impartial enquirer, that what we have been laying down, is not more conſiſtent in ſpeculation, than evident from the light of facts.

The new iſlands taken all together, contain upon the moſt moderate computation, twice the quantity of ground capable of cultivation, or at leaſt very near it, that there is in Barbadoes, and the reſt are all conſiderably larger. In reſpect to their ſoil and climate, they are indiſputably to the full as capable of improvement, as any of thoſe that have been improved by our induſtrious countrymen in ſo high a degree. Why therefore in a reaſonable ſpace of time, may not we, or our poſterity at leaſt, expect to derive twice as much from them?

Theſe new colonies, like our old ones in that part of the world, muſt depend entirely upon us, and draw from hence every neceſſary, every conveniency that they want, either for their own ſubſiſtence, or for carrying on their plantations; and how extremely beneficial this is, and ſo conſiderable an increaſe will it be to the mother country, has been explained. It is requiſite only to mark, that we ſhall not be obliged to wait for all, or even the greater parts of the benefits of this commerce, till ſuch time as theſe iſlands are fully and compleatly ſettled, ſo as to vie in their productions with our old iſlands; but on the contrary, our exports to them, and of conſequence the profits upon thoſe exports, will very ſoon commence, and of courſe we ſhall immediately reap great advantages from them. The reaſon of this is obvious; for tho' our old colonies require annually many things, our new ones will require all; and 'tis eaſy to diſtinguiſh the difference that there muſt be, in ſupplying the vaſt variety of things requiſite for ſettling new colonies, and the furniſhing the annual ſubſiſtence, together with the wear and tear in the old ones.

Nor is there any room to fear, that theſe new ſettlers will not find wherewithal to make conſiderable returns; for though this cannot be at firſt done in SUGAR, yet in MAHOGANY, COTTON, and a great variety of other articles it may; and the very balance remaining a DEBT, will be a moſt effectual ſpur to induſtry, and compel the new planters to work hard and to live frugally, as the original ſettlers in our other iſlands did, in order to procure new ſupplies with that view, and to maintain and extend their credit.

The intercourſe between the new colonies and their mother country, as it muſt from the cauſes before-mentioned begin early, ſo the advantages ariſing from it will diffuſe themſelves generally over the whole iſland of Great-Britain; indeed thro' the whole ſphere of the Britiſh dominions in Europe, ſince very large quantities of linens and ſalt proviſions, will be exported for the uſe of the new ſettlers and their ſervants, from Ireland; and in proceſs of time, as they ſhall become more numerous, we may with great probability hope, their increaſed demands will, in a great meaſure, abſorb thoſe ſupplies with which the inhabitants of that iſland have hitherto furniſhed the French and Spaniſh ſhips, and contributed thereby to their navigation much cheaper than otherwiſe they could have done.

But it is requiſite farther to obſerve, that excluſive of the benefits flowing from their direct trade with us, they will bring us likewiſe conſiderable advantages, by the encouragement they will afford to other branches of our commerce. The African trade, more eſpecially at the beginning, will receive a new ſpring from their demands, ſince all that they can do either at preſent or in future, muſt ariſe from the labour of negroes. The ſupplying them with ſlaves, therefore, will be both an inſtantaneous and a continual ſource of wealth, to ſuch as are employed in that lucrative trade; more eſpecially to thoſe who have the largeſt ſhare therein, the merchants of London, Briſtol, and Liverpool.

We have before ſeen, how this trade comes to be of ſuch importance to Great-Britain, as it is carried on principally with our own manufactures, and more eſpecially with woollen goods of different kinds, to a large amount; and in all the incidental profits, excluſive of what is produced by ſlaves, which ariſe from our correſpondence with AFRICA, whether obtained by the purchaſe of elephants teeth and gold duſt, upon the coaſts of that country, or from the ſale of commodities to foreigners in the Weſt-Indies, finds its way hither. On the winding up of the account, therefore, as the ſale of the negroes centers in the Weſt-Indies, the profits ariſing from them, and every other acceſſion of gain, centers ultimately here, and becomes the property of the inhabitants of Britain.

This will appear with greater degree of evidence, when we reflect, that more than the moiety of that part of the cargo for the African trade, which is not made up of our own goods, conſiſts of the manufactures of the Eaſt-Indies. Beſides the quantity of India goods employed on the coaſt of Africa, there is likewiſe no ſmall demand for the ſame commodities in our old SUGAR COLONIES, and of courſe there will be the like demand in our NEW. We ſee from hence, how the comprehenſive chain of commerce is united, and how the different products of the moſt diſtant parts of the world, are carried to and brought from theſe diſtant countries in Britiſh ſhipping; and that all the emoluments ariſing from this extenſive navigation, is in the end the reward of the conſummate ſkill, the indefatigable induſtry, and the perpetual application, of the traders in this happy iſle, and how it is to be augmented and ſupported by our new acceſſion of territory.

The prodigious compaſs of this commercial circulation, would after all be defectively repreſented, if we ſhould omit mentioning the conſtant correſpondence that ſubſiſts between the SUGAR ISLANDS and the NORTHERN COLONIES. A correſpondence equally neceſſary, and reciprocally advantageous to thoſe of our countrymen who are ſettled in both; and a correſpondence, therefore, which will be always maintained, and by which the numerous ſubjects of Britain who are ſeated on the continent of America, and thoſe ſettled in the WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS, in purſuing their own immediate intereſts, contribute effectually to each of their ſupport.

This is a circumſtance, that muſt fill the breaſt of every well-meaning man with the higheſt and moſt rational pleaſure; and engage him to contemplate this ſubject, with a ſatisfaction which warms the heart of a parent, when he ſees his children aſſiduous in their application to thoſe methods of providing for their welfare, which have a tendency to promote their common intereſts, by which their commercial harmony doubles the effects of their mutual induſtry.

The northern colonies ſupply the SUGAR-ISLANDS chiefly with lumber and proviſions. Theſe are the fruits in a great meaſure of their indefatigable induſtry, to the rendering their labour ſubſervient to their proſperity. By this means, they diſpoſe of numerous bulky commodities, derive immenſe advantages from their fiſheries, ſupport an extenſive navigation; which is ſo much the more profitable to them, as it is entirely carried on in ſhips of their own building; circumſtances which, to the eye of a judicious reader, will place this trade, and all it's beneficial conſequences that attend it, in a very conſpicuous and intereſting point of view; and convince him, that nothing can be either more convenient for theſe people, or more to their profit.

On the other hand, the benefits that reſult to the inhabitants of the SUGAR COLONIES, are not leſs conſiderable. They draw all theſe neceſſary ſupplies from the neareſt, and conſequently from the cheapeſt markets; markets inexhauſtible, and upon which they can always depend. Theſe are brought them by their countrymen to their own doors; which is a circumſtance exceedingly ſuitable to their ſituation, as it ſpares them the pains and labour requiſite to provide them, which would otherwiſe be a great drawback on their induſtry in their own plantations. Theſe ſupplies they pay for in their own manufactures, which is another great advantage; from all which circumſtances taken together, it clearly appears, that the convenience of this correſpondence, and the benefits reſulting from it, are equally on both ſides, and exactly ſuited to the genius, temper, and ſituation of the people, by whom it is thus carried on.

By conſidering attentively this conjunction of intereſts, we cannot but plainly diſcern, that by theſe NEW ACQUISITIONS IN THE WEST-INDIES, new markets are opened, to which our NEW SUBJECTS on the continent may reſort. Theſe iſlands will certainly in time more than replace to the people of CANADA, the trade they formerly carried on to the FRENCH COLONIES; and will at the ſame time, enable our other ſettlements upon the CONTINENT, to find new cuſtomers for all their commodities, without leaving them that colour of neceſſity, which was the only excuſe they had to plead, for ſupplying our rivals with the materials eſſentially requiſite to their manufactures, and of courſe detrimental in the ſame degree, to thoſe of our fellow-ſubjects. Beſides, as the increaſe of our SUGAR ISLANDS affords them the increaſe of commerce, ſo from their ſituation they will be a great bar to that ILLICIT TRADE with the FRENCH, which cannot for the future be carried on with the ſame facility as before.

As the inhabitants of the SUGAR COLONIES are continual purchaſers from ſuch as are ſettled upon the continent of America, the amount of their purchaſes conſtitutes a ballance from them in the favour of all thoſe who diſpoſe of them. But on the other hand, the inhabitants of the NORTHERN COLONIES, drawing large and conſtant ſupplies of commodities and manufactures from hence, we for the ſame reaſon have a like BALLANCE in our favour againſt them. It is evident, therefore, from this deduction, that by their tranſferring the BALLANCE due to them, in ſatisfaction for that

which is due from them to us, the whole accumulated profits of these tranſactions ultimately centers with the inhabitants of Great-Britain. Such are the certain, the perpetual, the prodigious benefits that accrue to us from our PLANTATIONS.

There will be room in theſe new iſlands, for attempting many things, and improving more. The planting CACAO walks cannot be conſidered as impracticable, ſince we ſee the French have ſucceeded in it; and ſo no doubt might we, at leaſt in a degree ſufficient to furniſh our own conſumption. We have COFFEE already in our iſlands, but it would certainly turn to more account, if the culture of it was better underſtood; in order to which, pains ſhould be taken to be thoroughly informed of the manner in which it is managed in ARABIA; ſince it is not at all improbable, that the FLAVOUR, in which only our coffee is deficient, depends upon the culture, and the method of curing it. TEA, if we may believe the French, is a native of the Weſt as well as of the Eaſt-Indies; in reſpect to which it would be certainly right to make ſome enquiries, and in conſequence of them ſome experiments; and if from thence it ſhould, if it is not already there, it might eaſily be carried thither, and a trial made whether it might not be cultivated to advantage.

It has been no difficult matter to introduce black PEPPER. RHUBARB, SENNA, and ſeveral other valuable DRUGS, are ſaid to have been raiſed by curious people in great perfection. If the culture of theſe and other medicinal plants, were once underſtood, they might be rendered profitable articles in commerce. The laudable ſociety for promoting arts and manufactures, have given ſeveral premiums with reſpect to SARSAPARILLA, and other things; and it is to be wiſhed, that theſe endeavours, ſo well intended, may have good effects; for the increaſing the number of our commodities, appears to be a thing of conſequence.

The ſucceſs attending theſe, or any other experiments of the like kind, might become the means of improving many ſpots of ground, that would otherwiſe prove uſeleſs; as it is well known, that either lands worn out, or which are utterly unfit for either SUGAR or COTTON, might be employed for COCHINEAL. The raiſing a variety of commodities, would prevent the loſſes that enſue from ſhort crops; as ſeaſons unfavourable for ſome things, might be advantageous to others. Beſides, in reſpect to many things that have been mentioned, the cultivation of them might be carried on with fewer negroes, and yet afford a comfortable ſubſiſtence to white families, the increaſe of which in our colonies, is an object of great importance, and is a matter entirely and conſtantly attended to by the French. Add to this, that though TEA, COFFEE, and CHOCOLATE, are at preſent not improperly conſidered as articles of luxury, they would be much leſs ſo, if they only, or even if they principally, came from our own plantations; and the conſumption of them, ſhould it become greater than it now is, would likewiſe promote and increaſe the conſumption of our great ſtaple commodity, SUGAR. In theſe, and in various other lights, ſuch improvements would be found of great conſequence, and are, therefore, extremely well worthy of conſideration.

The ſettlement of theſe new iſlands, will be no detriment to our old colonies. It has been generally allowed, that there was a want of more ſugar land in the Weſt-Indies; and this being admitted, it is certain that Britain is a great gainer by thoſe acquiſitions, which put ſo large a quantity of land fit for the cultivation of SUGAR into our poſſeſſion. This was not only an opinion, in reſpect to the truth of which the beſt judges agreed, but it was a point alſo decided from matter of fact; becauſe it is known, that numbers of Britiſh ſubjects reſorted to countries in the poſſeſſion of other powers. No one will deny, that many Engliſh ſubjects are ſettled in the Daniſh ſettlement of ST. CRUZ; that there are many reſident in EUSTATIA, and that many more are intereſted in the Dutch ſettlements upon the continent of America. It became, therefore, highly neceſſary to remove this evil, by giving ſuch adventurers an opportunity of exerciſing their induſtry, in countries belonging to their mother country; and to theſe it is reaſonable to preſume, this opportunity being given them, they will return. Beſides, as from theſe facts it appears, that our old colonies began to be over-ſtocked, ſo as to afford little encouragement to new planters, it was incumbent on us to have an eye to this circumſtance, to prevent ſuch enterpriſing people, who were determined to ſeek their fortunes in thoſe parts, from being driven into foreign ſettlements; where their labour and induſtry, inſtead of benefitting us, would continue to turn to the advantage of our rivals; and foreign markets would have been ſupplied, for the profit of foreigners, by commodities raiſed by the ſkill and pains of Britiſh ſubjects.

We cannot but obſerve from what has already happened, that people who are indigent here, would go in ſearch of ſubſiſtence elſewhere; and we muſt alſo be ſenſible, that by providing countries for ſuch people to reſort to, their induſtry, though not their perſons, will ſtill be preſerved to Britain. By that increaſe of trade which their labours abroad will gradually produce at home, the number of our neceſſitous people here will be greatly leſſened. There will be larger quantities of our commodities and manufactures wanted, that are requiſite in our plantations; and to ſupply theſe, numbers muſt be ſet to work, who are either now idle for want of it, and are ſubſiſted by the poor's rate; or take methods of ſubſiſting them, more injurious to the public, and much leſs to their own advantage and comfort, than if they betook themſelves to honeſt labour here, or even went abroad to theſe new iſlands. See SUGAR COLONIES.

LEICESTERSHIRE, is an inland county in England, having Lincolnſhire and Rutlandſhire on the eaſt; Northamptonſhire on the ſouth; Warwickſhire on the weſt; and Derbyſhire and Nottinghamſhire on the north; and is in circumference about 100 miles.

The air is very ſweet and wholſome, but the ſoil is very different, according to the ſeveral parts, being in ſome places very rich and fruitful, producing wheat, barley, and oats; in others barren and rocky. It's moſt natural and plentiful crops are beans, which, in ſome places, are ſo luxuriant, that, towards harveſt-time, they look like a foreſt.

There are no manufactures in this county, except it be ſtockings, which has been of late greatly encouraged.

The great want of fuel, in the inland counties eſpecially, is ſupplied by a very rich coal-mine, at a place called Cole-Orton, from whence it is ſold at good rates to the neighbouring counties.

LEICESTER, the ſhire-town, is a large and populous place. The inhabitants have greatly improved the manufacture of ſtockings, vaſt quantities of which are wove by frames, in this and many other neighbouring towns and villages; and in ſome years it has returned 60,000 l.

ASHBY DE LA ZOUCH, a very pleaſant town, has a plentiful market; and it's fairs, which are held on Whit-Tueſday, the 24th of Auguſt, the 18th of October, and on St. Simon and Jude, are famous for being well ſtocked with young horſes of the large breed.

MELTON MOWBRAY, a large well-built town, has a market the moſt conſiderable for cattle of any in this part of England.

LEINSTER, a province in Ireland. This province is waſhed on the ſouth and eaſt by the ſea; has Munſter and Connaught on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; and Ulſter on the north; and is about 360 miles in circumference.

It has a temperate clear air, a ſoil fruitful in corn and paſture, and, though in ſome parts woody, abounds in general with cattle, fowls, milk, butter, cheeſe, fiſh, &c.

It's principal rivers are, the Barrow, Boyne, Liffy, Neur, Slane, and May.

It is divided into the twelve following counties, viz.

I. LOUTH COUNTY, which has St. George's Channel on the eaſt; Monaghan and Eaſt Meath on the weſt; Armagh and Carlingford Bay on the north; and Weſt Meath on the ſouth-eaſt. It is the leaſt county in the kingdom.

CARLINGFORD is one of the beſt harbours in Ireland, at the mouth of the Neur; but, the town being a little out of the way for buſineſs, the trade is not equal to the extent of the harbour. They uſe the coal trade to Whitehaven, as alſo the fiſhing in the ſeaſon, which is the life of trade on all this ſide of Ireland, eſpecially north.

DUNDALK is the ſhire-town, and has a good market, but little or no trade.

DROGHEDA, which ſtands on a bay of it's own name, has a good harbour, but of difficult entrance. The town is populous, and has ſome trade to the north parts of England, and is ſupplied with coals from Whitehaven, which they ſend to all the country round.

II. The county of EAST MEATH has thoſe of Cavan and Louth on the north and north-eaſt; Kildare on the ſouth-weſt; Weſt Meath on the weſt; with Dublin county and the ocean on the eaſt.

TRIM is it's chief, if not only town of note, but is not a place of any trade.

III. WEST MEATH, ſo called in reſpect of it's ſituation from the former, lies between King's county on the ſouth, and Longford on the north and runs weſt to the Shannon, which parts it from Roſcommon. It is well watered with rivers and lakes, but intermixed with bogs.

MOLINGAR, which lies in the center, is the head of the county by act of parliament, and a market-town of conſiderable note and ſtrength.

IV. The county of LONGFORD has Weſt Meath on the eaſt and ſouth; Cavan on the north; and Roſcommon on the weſt.

V. DUBLIN COUNTY is waſhed on the eaſt by the Iriſh Sea; has the county of Kildare on the weſt; Eaſt Meath on the north; and Wicklow on the ſouth.

DUBLIN, the metropolis of the whole kingdom, is pleaſantly ſeated on the Liffy, and is the grand mart, and the center of commerce for Ireland, eſpecially for the communication of trade with England; and though Cork is the chief port for trade to foreign parts, and for exportation of proviſion to the Weſt-Indies, a trade of great importance to Ireland; yet that of Dublin is greatly ſuperior in this particular, viz. that, by it's great import of all kinds of merchandize from all parts, either directly, or by way of England, it has the chief part of the inland trade. The only misfortune of this city is, the deficiency

deficiency of it's harbour, occaſioned by the bar, where ſuch heaps of ſand are brought in by the tides, that it is difficult of entrance for loaden ſhips, except at ſpring-tides, and even then ſhips of great burthen dare not venture in; nor, when they are in the haven, can any ſhip come to the kay that draws above ſeven or eight feet water.

The city is ſupplied with coals from Whitehaven in Cumberland, and Swanzey in Wales, in ſuch great fleets, that it is common to ſee 200 ſail of colliers in the road at a time.

VI. The county of KILDARE has thoſe of Dublin and Wicklow on the eaſt; King's and Queen's counties on the weſt; Catherlagh on the ſouth; and Eaſt Meath on the north.

NAAS is the ſhire-town, but KILDARE the capital of the county.

VII. KING'S COUNTY has a part of Tipperary on the weſt; by which, and Queen's county, it is bounded on the ſouth; by Kildare on the eaſt; and Weſt Meath on the north.

BALLY-BAY, in this county, is a well-ſituated thriving plantation, near the center of it.

VIII. QUEEN'S COUNTY has King's county on the north and weſt; part of Kildare and Catherlagh on the eaſt; and Kilkenny and Catherlagh on the ſouth.

PORT-ARLINGTON, a ſmall town in the north part of the county, on the river Barrow, is reckoned a thriving plantation. But

MOUNTMELLICK, a well-improved town, is ſaid to be the beſt market in the county.

IX. The county of WICKLOW has St. George's Channel on the eaſt; Kildare and Catherlagh counties on the weſt; that of Dublin, and part of Kildare, on the north; and Wexford county on the ſouth. A copper mine was diſcovered here not many years ago, at the expence of Mr. Wayne, and other gentlemen of Briſtol, which is like to bring them great profit for their undertaking.

The ſhire-town is WICKLOW, at the mouth of the river Letrim; but it has not any trade, except what is managed in ſmall veſſels, and chiefly to carry proviſions to Dublin, for the haven is good for nothing. It is famous for the beſt ale in Ireland.

DUNLAVIN is a fine Engliſh plantation, and a good market.

X. The county of CATHERLAGH has Wexford on the ſouth; part of Queen's county and Kilkenny on the weſt; part of Kildare and Wicklow on the north; and part of Wicklow and Wexford on the eaſt.

XI. The county of KILKENNY, is bounded on the weſt with Tipperary; on the eaſt with Wexford and Catherlagh; on the ſouth with Waterford; and, on the north, with Queen's county. This county is adorned with more towns and caſtles than any other in the kingdom.

KILKENNY is a large, ſtrong, populous, and wealthy city, with as good a trade as any inland town of that kingdom.

XII. The county of WEXFORD has St George's Channel on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt; part of Catherlagh and Kilkenny on the weſt; and Wicklow on the north.

Ross, on the borders of Kilkenny, is a town of good trade, by means of it's river, formed by the conjunction of the Neur and Barrow, which brings up ſhips of very conſiderable burthen to it's kay.

WEXFORD ſtands at the mouth of the river Slane: it is a large corporation, as well as the ſhire-town, and has a very good harbour.

LETTER of CREDIT, is where a merchant, or correſpondent, writes a letter to another, requeſting him to credit the bearer with a certain ſum of money.

Form of a LETTER of CREDIT.

Mr. E. F.

SIR, London, May 10, 1753.

My laſt to you was of the 15th of March, wherein I wrote what was needful, in anſwer to your's of the 10th of the ſame month; and this ſerves chiefly to deſire you to furniſh and pay unto Mr. C. D. Engliſh gentleman, to the value of two thouſand crowns, at one or more times, according as he ſhall have occaſion for it, and requeſt the ſame of you, taking his receipt, or bills of exchange, for the monies which you ſhall ſo furniſh him with, and put it to my account; and this my letter of credit ſhall be your ſufficient warrant for ſo doing.

To Mr. E. F. merchant at Madrid. Your's, &c. A. B.

LETTER-FOUNDER. He caſts types, or letters, for printers: there are but two in London; 'till very lately we had types from Holland; but that excellent artiſt Mr. Caſlon, having excelled all foreign founders, not only furniſhes us at home, but ſends great quantities abroad.

LETTER of LICENCE, is an inſtrument, or writing, made by creditors to a man that hath failed in his trade, allowing him longer time for the payment of his debts, and protecting him from arreſts in going about his affairs. Theſe letters of licence give leave to the party to whom granted, to reſort freely to his creditors, or any others, and to compound debts, &c. and the creditors covenant, that, if the debtor ſhall receive any moleſtation or hindrance from any of them, he ſhall be acquitted and diſcharged of his debt againſt ſuch creditor, &c.

The form of a LETTER of LICENCE.

To all people to whom this preſent writing ſhall come, we whoſe names are here underſcribed, and ſeals affixed, creditors of A. B. of London, merchant, ſend greeting: whereas the ſaid A. B. on the day of the date of theſe preſents, is indebted unto us, ſeverally, in divers conſiderable ſums of money, which at preſent he is not able to ſatisfy unto us, without reſpite and time to be given unto him for the payment thereof: know ye, therefore, that we the ſaid creditors, for divers good cauſes and conſiderations us thereunto moving, have given and granted, and by theſe preſents do give and grant, unto the ſaid A. B. our ſure and ſafe conduct, and free licence, that he the ſaid A. B. ſhall and may ſafely come and go, and reſort unto us, and every one of us, his ſaid creditors, to compound, and take order with us, and every one of us, for all and every of our ſaid debts, and to go about any other buſineſs to any other perſon or perſons whatſoever, without any trouble, ſuit, arreſt, attachment, or other moleſtation to be offered or done unto him the ſaid A. B. his wares, goods, monies, or other merchandizes whatſoever, by us, or any of us, or by the heirs, executors, adminiſtrators, partners, or aſſigns, or by our, or any of our means and procurement, to be ſought or procured to be done, from the day of the date hereof, unto the full end or term of one whole year next enſuing: and we the ſaid creditors, whoſe names are here underwritten, do hereby covenant and grant, and every one of us, for his own part, his executors and adminiſtrators, covenanteth and granteth to and with the ſaid A. B. that if any trouble, wrong, damage, or injury, ſhall be done unto him the ſaid A. B. either in his body, goods, or chattels, or any of them, within the ſaid term of one year, next coming after the date hereof, by us, or any of us, his ſaid creditors, or by any other perſon or perſons, by or through the procurement, conſent, or knowledge of us, or any of us, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this our preſent writing of ſafe conduct, that then the ſaid A. B. by virtue of theſe preſents, ſhall be diſcharged and acquitted for ever, towards and againſt him and them, of us, his, and their heirs, executors, adminiſtrators, partners, or aſſigns, and every one of them, by whom, and by whoſe means he ſhall be arreſted, troubled, and attached, or damnified of all manner of actions, ſuits, quarrels, debts and demands, either in law or equity, from the beginning of the world to the day of the date hereof. In witneſs whereof we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals, the, &c.

LETTERS of MARQUE, are extraordinary powers, or commiſſions for reparation to merchants taken and deſpoiled by ſtrangers at ſea, grantable by the ſecretaries of ſtate, with the approbation of the king and council, and uſually in time of war, &c. Lex Mercat. Malin. 173. If a letter of marque wilfully and knowingly take a ſhip and goods belonging to another nation, not of that ſtate againſt whom the commiſſion is awarded, but of ſome other in amity, this amounts to a downright piracy. Roll. Abr. 530.

The goods of others may be taken at ſea by letters of marque, but not by any private authority, nor to be granted but where the party damaged has juſtice denied him, or illegally delayed. This law, or cuſtom, was eſtabliſhed by conſent of nations; and, without it, licence would be given to commit depredations, eſpecially if only the goods of rulers were liable, who ſeldom poſſeſs any thing the injured can come at for ſatisfaction.

But princes, by the laws of nations, are anſwerable for injuries public, and ſhould, by the moſt prudent ways, prevent thoſe that are private, not ſuffering even foreigners to receive wrongs; nor ſhould the prince, or perſon injured, value his misfortune ſo low, as to deny him letters of requeſt; and, if juſtice be denied on ſuch requeſt, it is reaſonable to arm him with power, to take ſatisfaction by reprize. Uſually two or three letters of requeſt are ſent, before reprizal is awarded, and generally aſſign a time for reparation. King Charles I. after the maſſacre at Amboyna, granted letters of requeſt to the ſtates of Holland, for ſatisfaction within eight months, or letters of reprizal were to follow. King Charles II. on petition of Meſſ. Goulor and Canham, granted one Lee, letters to the great duke of Tuſcany, for redreſs againſt the government of Leghorn. In the year 1674, the ſame prince iſſued letters of requeſt to the king of Spain, for ſatisfaction for the depredation committed on the ſhip and goods of Mr. Stampe, who was robbed and murdered at the Havanna. He alſo publiſhed a proclamation, promiſing a reward for apprehending the offenders, dead or alive.

In the proſecution of letters of requeſt and reprizal, there muſt be,

1. The oath of the party injured, or other good proof of the injury, and of the loſs thereby ſuſtained. 2. A proof of due ſollicitation for redreſs, in a legal way. 3. The deferring or denial of juſtice. 4. A complaint to his own prince or ſtate. 5. Requiſition of juſtice by him or them, to the ſupreme ſtate, where juſtice in the ordinary courſe was denied. 6. Perſiſtance in denial of juſtice. And, after all, letters of re-

prizal, under legal reſtrictions, and as the ſpecial caſe requires, may iſſue, both by the civil and by the ancient municipal laws of this kingdom: and the prince of the country muſt repair the damage out of their effects who cauſed it, or, if that prove deficient, it ſhould fall as a common debt on his country.

Legal reprizals are of two ſorts, ordinary and extraordinary: the firſt are either within or without the realm, and granted to Engliſh merchants that have any wiſe ſuffered in their perſons or goods, and upon ſuit, or the king's demanding juſtice by his ambaſſadors, &c. cannot obtain redreſs: who in ſuch caſe ſhall have a writ out of chancery to arreſt the merchant ſtrangers of that nation, or their goods, here in England: and the lord chancellor has always approbation of the king and council, or both, for ſo doing.

Thoſe without the realm are always by patent, and not ordinarily revokable, as they immediately veſt a national debt in the grantee, to be ſatisfied as the patents direct, out of the effects of that prince's ſubjects who refuſed, or illegally delayed juſtice. But, if the peace of both ſtates ſeem to be endangered by attempting the execution of them, it may be refpited 'till a more convenient time; and princes, in granting ſuch letters, are careful to have them made ſo as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace; but granting them for particular ſatisfaction does not, in the ordinary way, amount to a breach.

As to the extraordinary reprizals, they are by letters of marque, for reparation at ſea, or out of the kingdom, granted by the ſecretaries of ſtate, with like approbation of the king and council, but only during the king's pleaſure, and generally in war-time.

In king Henry the IVth's reign, on the grievous complaint of the commons for wrongs at ſea, contrary to leagues, &c. which were broken by the ſubjects of other nations, a law was made, that, upon application to the keeper of the privy-ſeal, he ſhall ſign letters of requeſt for reſtitution; which, if not made in due time, the lord chancellor ſhall grant letters of reprizal: and this confirmed by ſtat 4. Hen. V. cap. 7. and other ſtatutes.

But letters of reprizal were granted long before theſe ſtatutes, by the kings, nor was their prerogative diminiſhed by them, but remained at common law, to judge when expedient to grant them; nor does the beforementioned act reſtrain the king's prerogative therein.

The caſes where reprizals will or will not lie, are thus ſtated: on wrong judgment given in proſecution abroad, in matters not doubtful, that might have been redreſſed, and was perverted or denied, reprizal may be granted: if the matter be doubtful, it is otherwiſe; for, in ſuch, there is preſumption juſtice was duly adminiſtered. If an Engliſhman proſecutes a perſon in any legal court beyond ſea, and the military governor oppoſes the ſuit, and, by his means, the debtor and his goods are conveyed away, but a judgment is obtained, by this the execution is fruſtrated, and letters of reprizal ſhall be had.

And yet if a merchant of England commence a ſuit in the courts of law beyond ſea, and judgment paſs againſt him, and is confirmed by the ſupreme court to which he appeals, though the complainant hath received a judgment contrary to the right of the cauſe, here he ſhall not have letters of reprizal; but it may, according to the caſe, occaſion letters of requeſt, to have a rehearing.

If any perſon be killed, wounded, or any ways damaged in the territories of any potentate to whom letters of requeſt are ſent, and no redreſs be made, letters of reprizal may be iſſued; but are not to be granted for damages to the goods or perſons of thoſe reſiding in foreign countries in time of war: in this caſe they muſt ſit down with the loſs, for they may relinquiſh the place on the enemies approach.

It is not the place of any man's nativity, but of his habitation, that ſubjects him to reprize: if, therefore, letters of reprizal be awarded againſt the ſubjects of the duke of Tuſcany, and a native of Florence, but living in England, ſhould have a ſhip on a voyage to Leghorn, it cannot lawfully be made a prize: and certain perſons, as well as ſhips and goods, are exempted, as ambaſſadors, and their retinue, coming from him who awarded the prize, travellers, eccleſiaſtical perſons, &c. and a merchant of another place than againſt which reprizals are granted, though his factor be of that place, is not ſubject to reprizals. Molloy Jur. Mar. 21.

Ships forced into port by ſtreſs of weather, are exempted, by common right; but the laws of England ſay otherwiſe, unleſs expreſsly provided for in the writ: and ſuch ſhip flying his own country for ſome fault, and forced in by ſtorm, is lawful prize: but ſhips may not be ſeized in any ports but of the prince who awarded the reprizals, or againſt whom they are iſſued.

If a ſhip, having letters of marque or reprizal, carry thoſe ſhe hath legally taken into a neuter port, the owners may there claim and ſeize her, or the admiral may reſtore the ſhip and goods to the owners, and ſet the captives at liberty. Trin. 17 Car. I. in B. R. Marſh's Rep.

If any ſhip that hath letters of reprize attack a veſſel, and ſhe refuſe to yield, ſhe may be boarded; and, if any happen to be ſlain, the fault is their own, for hindering execution of a legal authority: but if it be thoſe of another nation, againſt whom commiſſion is not awarded, this is downright piracy, and puniſhable accordingly. Rol. Abr. 530.

Though, if ſuch letters of marque be aſſigned over to another perſon, who takes any ſuch ſhip or goods, on a violent preſumption that it belonged to the right of him againſt whom reprizals are granted, here, if the ſufferers recover ſhip and goods, yet the captors are not to be puniſhed criminally, nor the grantees of the patents civilly; the captors are anſwerable for damages, but the grantees are entirely excuſable, unleſs privy to the caption: it is like the caſe of an officer arreſting a wrong perſon; he is anſwerable to the perſon arreſted, but not the perſon that employed him. Stat. 4. Hen. V. cap. 14. Sea Laws, 470.

A perſon who had letters of marque in the Dutch war, took, by miſtake, an Oſtender, and brought her into harbour, and was proſecuted for damages, &c. Another, having taken a French ſhip, carried her into Africa, and the admiralty there condemned her as prize: having ſold her, and, coming into England, he was ſued in the admiralty, and ſentence given againſt him, though he appealed for a prohibition, but was denied. 1 Lev. 243. 1 Salk. 32.

A ſhip being lawfully taken, and brought into port, the captor muſt exhibit all his ſhip papers, and captive mariners, to be examined; and, 'till the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken, nor may the captain permit embezzlement of the lading, or diſpoſe of any part, without commiſſion, for the king hath a ſhare in all prizes: and the common profits are to be equally divided among all the ſhips preſent; ſo that if letters are granted to two ſhips, and both of them meet a prize, which one of them takes, although the other did nothing, he hath right to an equal ſhare, for the preſence of that veſſel is a terror, and cauſes a ſhip to ſtrike ſooner. 3 Eliz. cap. 5. 2 Leon. Rep. 182.

If the caption of any ſhip be by men of war, the property will be in the captors, except it be loſt again, and recovered by the perſons from whom taken, or regained in battle. And, by the law of nations, the dominion of things taken with letters of marque becomes the captors, 'till the original damage, and ſubſequent charges, are ſatisfied; which done, the reſidue is to be reſtored: and ſo the Venetians uſed their equity, having taken the ſhips of Genoa, they carefully preſerved the lading, 'till the debt was paid, and then made intire reſtitution. Molloy, 20.

If, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch man of war take an Engliſh merchant-man, which is afterwards retaken; in ſuch caſe, reſtitution is commonly made, the owners paying ſalvage; ſo where the prize is recovered by a friend, or comes into his ports: and the taking ſhips and goods by force is ſo odious, that reſtitution, where poſſible, is granted. Ibid. 6, 7.

Where for the fault, perhaps, of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltleſs become liable, if taken, for ſatisfaction; but ſuch ſhould have contribution, by the law of England. Though, when depredations have happened here to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, our kings have often granted commiſſions to inquire and award ſatisfaction: and, on the petition of ſome merchants of Genoa, againſt the inhabitants of Guernſey, for detaining goods to a conſiderable value, out of a ſhip wrecked near the ſaid iſle, a commiſſion was granted to puniſh the offenders, and make reſtitution: for, as the Engliſh ſubjects may have their goods as reprize, for ſatisfaction of a debt from foreigners, ſo they may have benefit of theſe commiſſions, to make themſelves whole out of the eſtates of offenders. Pat. 26 Ed. III. See ſtat. 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4.

But he that will ſue to have reſtitution in England for goods taken at ſea, muſt prove that the ſovereign of the party was in amity with England, &c. and letters of reprizal make no war between nations. 22 Ed. III.

A copy of letters patent for eſpecial reprizals, from the king of Great-Britain (under the great ſeal of England) againſt the States of Holland, and their ſubjects. Inrolled in the high court of Chancery, 19 May, 15 Car. II.

CHARLES the Second, &c. Whereas our loving ſubjects Sir William Courteen, Knt. deceaſed, and his partners, anno 1643, by the depredation and hoſtile act of one Gailand, commander in chief of two ſhips belonging to the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands, was, between Goa and Maccas, in the Streights of Malacca, deprived, and moſt injuriouſly ſpoiled, of a certain ſhip called the Bona Eſperanza, and of her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and all the goods and lading in her, upon a very hopeful trading voyage to China, which were carried to Batavia, and there, without any legal proceſs, confiſcated: and alſo, in the ſame year, another laden ſhip of our ſaid ſubject, called the Henry Bonadventure, being come on ground near the iſland of Mauritius, was there, both ſhip and goods, ſeized upon by ſome of the officers and miniſters, and others, under the command of the ſaid Eaſt India company, and utterly detained from the right owners: and whereas the ſaid Sir William Courteen,

teen, and his aſſigns, in his life-time, uſed all poſſible endeavours to recover the ſaid ſhips and goods, and to procure further juſtice againſt the malefactors, and yet could obtain no reſtitution or ſatisfaction, whereby they came to be much diſtreſſed, and utterly undone in their eſtate and credit: and thereupon, and upon the moſt humble ſupplication, and addreſſes of Francis earl of Shrewſbury, and William Courteen, Eſq; grandſon and heir of the ſaid Sir William deceaſed, Sir John Ayton and Sir William Turner, Knts. and George Carew and Charles Whitaker, Eſqrs. (on the behalf of themſelves, and divers others intereſted in the ſaid two ſhips, Bona Eſperanza and Henry Bonadventure, and in the eſtates of the ſaid Sir William Courteen deceaſed) Sir Edward Littleton, Bart. and Sir Paul Pindar, Knt. that we would take their caſe into princely conſideration: we, out of a juſt ſenſe we then had, and ſtill have of their unjuſt ſufferings in that buſineſs, both by our own letters, under our ſign manual, to the States-General of the United Provinces, and by Sir George Downing, Knt. and Bart. our envoy extraordinary, to whom we gave ſpecial command ſo to do, required ſatisfaction to be made, according to the rules of juſtice, and the amity and good correſpondence which we then deſired to conſerve with them firm and inviolable: and whereas, after ſeveral addreſſes made to the States-General by our ſaid envoy, and nothing granted effectual for relief of our ſaid ſubjects (whom we take ourſelves in honour and juſtice concerned to ſee ſatisfied and repaid) we lately commanded the ſaid Sir George Downing to intimate and ſignify to the ſaid ſtates, that we expected their final anſwer concerning ſatisfaction to be made for the ſaid ſhips and goods, by a time then prefixed, and ſince elapſed; that we might ſo govern ourſelves thereupon, that our aforeſaid ſubjects might be relieved according to right and juſtice, and yet no ſatisfactory anſwer hath been given; ſo that we cannot but apprehend it to be not only a fruitleſs endeavour, but a proſtituting our honour and dignity to make a farther application, after ſo many denials and ſlightings. And whereas John Exton, doctor of laws, judge of our high admiralty court of England, upon our command to certify to us the value of the loſſes and damages ſuſtained by the ſaid Sir William Courteen and partners, whoſe intereſt is now veſted in our loving ſubjects Sir Edmund Turner Knt. and George Carew, Eſq; and partners, hath, upon full examination and proof thereof, made by witneſſes in our high court of admiralty, reported and certified under his hand, that the ſame do amount to the ſum of one hundred fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred and twelve pounds.

Now know ye, that, for a full reſtitution to be made to them for their ſhips, goods, and merchandize, of which the ſaid Sir William Courteen, Knt. and partners, were ſo deſpoiled as aforeſaid, with all ſuch coſts and charges as they ſhall be at for the recovery of the ſame: we, by the advice of our privy-council, have thought fit, and by theſe preſents do grant licence and authority, under our great ſeal of England, unto our ſaid ſubjects, Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for and on the behalf of themſelves, and other perſons intereſted as aforeſaid, to equip, victual, furniſh, and to ſet to ſea, from time to time, ſuch and ſo many ſhips and pinnaces as they ſhall think fit; provided always, that there be an entry made and recorded, in the admiralty courts, of the names of all ſhips and veſſels, and of their burden and ammunition, and for how long time they are victualled, and alſo the names of the commanders, before the ſame or any of them be ſet forth to ſea; and with the ſaid ſhips and pinnaces by force of arms to ſet upon, take, and apprehend any of the ſhips, goods, money, and merchandizes belonging to the ſtates-general, or any of the ſubjects inhabiting within any of their dominions or territories, wherefoever the ſame ſhall be found, and not in any port or harbour in England or Ireland, unleſs it be the ſhips and goods of the parties that did the wrong: and the ſaid ſhips, goods, money, and merchandizes being ſo taken, and brought into ſome port of our realms and dominions, an inventory thereof ſhall be taken, by authority of our court of admiralty, by the judge or judges thereof for the time being, upon proofs made before him or them that the ſaid ſhips, goods, wares, merchandizes, and money, did belong to the ſtates-general, or any of their ſubjects as aforeſaid, that they ſhall be lawful prize to the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, to retain and keep in their, or any of their poſſeſſions, and to make ſale and diſpoſe thereof in open market, or howſoever elſe, to their and every of their beſt advantage and benefit, in as ample manner as any time heretofore hath been accuſtomed, by way of reprizal, and to have and enjoy the ſame as lawful prize, and as their own proper goods: ſo that neither any captain, maſter, nor any of their company, that ſhall ſerve in perſon, or ſhall promote and advance the ſaid enterprize, in manner and form aforeſaid, ſhall, in any manner of wiſe, be reputed or challenged as an offender againſt any of our laws: and that it ſhall be lawful for all manner of perſons, as well our ſubjects as any others, to buy the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, ſo taken and apprehended by the ſaid captains, maſters, and others, and adjudged as aforeſaid, without any damage, loſs, hindrance, trouble, moleſtation, or incumbrance, to befal the ſaid buyer, or any of them, in as ample and lawful manner as if the ſhips, goods, wares, and merchandizes had been come and gotten by lawful traffic of merchants, or of juſt prizes in time of war: provided always, that all ſhips, goods, and merchandize, taken by virtue of this our commiſſion, ſhall be kept in ſafety, and no part of them waſted, ſpoiled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken, until judgment hath firſt paſſed as aforeſaid, that they are the ſhips and merchandize of the ſtates-general, or ſome of their ſubjects as aforeſaid: and if, by colour of this our commiſſion, there ſhall be taken any ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, of any of our loving ſubjects, or the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate in good league or amity with us (except the ſtates-general, or their ſubjects, as aforeſaid) and the goods therein laden ſold and embezzled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken in any place, before they ſhall be adjudged to belong to the ſtates-general, or ſome of their ſubjects, as aforeſaid: that then this commiſſion ſhall not be of ſufficient authority to take the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, or to warrant or ſave harmleſs ſuch as ſhall receive, buy, or intermeddle therein, but that both the prizes ſo taken, and the ſaid ſhips of war, ſhall be confiſcated to our uſe.

And furrher we do hereby declare, that it is our will and pleaſure, that this our commiſſion ſhall remain in full force and power, to all intents and purpoſes, until the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, ſhall, by virtue thereof, have by force of arms apprehended, taken, ſeized, recovered, and received, from the ſaid ſtates-general, or their ſubjects, one hundred and fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred twelve pounds, according to the appraiſement to be made by appraiſers upon oath, nominated and authorized in our ſaid court of admiralty, of ſuch ſhips, goods, wares, or merchandizes, as ſhall be taken from the ſaid ſtates-general, or any of their ſubjects, by virtue of this commiſſion, or ſhall otherwiſe receive ſatisfaction of the debt aforeſaid, by compoſition to be made between thoſe of the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands and the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid: notwithſtanding the preſent difference between us and the ſaid ſtates-general, depending upon general reprizes, may be agreed and compoſed; and that, in the interim, a good correſpondence may be renewed between us and the ſaid ſtates-general, but only in caſe of reſiſtance; and that, after, in cold blood, the ſubjects of the ſtates-general, if hurt or wounded, ſhall be uſed with all convenient offices of humanity and kindneſs, &c.

A proclamation for revoking the foregoing letters of marque and reprizals, publiſhed Auguſt 3, 1680.

Whereas George Carew, Eſq; had formerly granted to him letters of marque againſt the States-General of the United Provinces, for ſatisfaction of a certain demand which Sir William Courteen and others had againſt the ſaid States, and to which the ſaid George Carew was intitled; which ſaid demand has ſince, by treaty of peace between his Majeſty and the ſaid States, been totally aboliſhed and extinguiſhed, and all letters of marque and reprizal by the ſame treaty diſcharged accordingly: and whereas his Majeſty has ſince recalled and ſuperſeded the ſaid letters of marque: to the end that no perſon may be miſled, under pretence of any letters of marque and reprizal heretofore granted to the ſaid George Carew, and thereby incur the danger of the law, as pirates: his Majeſty is pleaſed, by this, his proclamation, to declare, That the ſaid George Carew has now no authority and commiſſion, by virtue of any ſuch letters of marque, to equip or ſet out any veſſel whatſoever, and that all perſons that ſhall preſume to be aiding to him in ſetting forth any ſuch ſhip, or ſerve under him, by colour of any ſuch pretended authority, ſhall be proceeded againſt as pirates, according to the utmoſt ſeverity of the law.

LETTERS PATENT, LITERÆ PATENTES, ſometimes called LETTERS OVERT, are writings of the King, ſealed with the great ſeal of England, whereby a perſon is enabled to do or enjoy that which otherwiſe he could not, and ſo called, becauſe they are open, with the ſeal affixed, and ready to be ſhewn for the confirmation of the authority thereby given. 19 Hen. VII. cap. 7. And we read of letters patent to make denizens, &c. 32 Hen. VI. cap. 16. 9 Hen. III. cap. 18. Letters patent may be granted by common perſons; but, in ſuch caſe, they are properly patents; yet, for diſtinction, the king's letters patent have been called letters patent royal. Anno 2 Hen. VI. cap. 10. Letters patent conclude with Teſte me ipſo, &c. 2 Inſt. 78. See PATENTS.

LEVANT TRADE.

Of the firſt eſtabliſhment of the Chriſtian nations in the ports of the Levant *, and of their convention and treaties with the Ottoman Port.

* Levant ſignifies, in geography, any country ſituated to the eaſt of us, or on the eaſtern ſide of any continent or country, or that on which the ſun riſes.—In matters of commerce,

L E V

merce, it is generally reſtrained to the Mediterranean Sea, or, rather, to the country on the eaſtern part of it.—Hence our trade thither is called the Levant trade; and a wind that blows from thence out of the Streights mouth, is called a Levant wind.

France was the firſt nation that made treaties of commerce with the Port. The Sieur de la Foret ſigned them in 1535, in the name of Francis I. and thereby obtained many privileges in favour of that kingdom, which they alone enjoyed, 'till the Venetians, the Engliſh, the Hollanders, and at length the Genoeſe, likewiſe obtained particular privileges to themſelves.

The chief privileges granted the French, by the conventions made by the Sieur de la Foret, were:

I. The eſtabliſhment of a court of juſtice, under the appellation of the conſulſhip, in all the parts or places where the French merchants ſhould reſide, in order to do juſtice between the French merchants, among themſelves, and between them and the Turks, with regard both to civil and criminal matters; with prohibition to the officers of the Grand Seignior to take cognizance thereof, without conſent being firſt had and obtained from the French themſelves.

II. The privileges in reſpect to the conſul himſelf, and other officers of the conſulſhip, were, that they might not be judged in criminal matters by the officers of the places where they ſhall reſide, but be ſent to the Port, or to the neareſt lieutenant of the Grand Seignior.

III. That the liberty of their religion ſhall be granted to the French.

IV. That the permiſſion of trade in all the Grand Seignior's dominions be granted to the French alone, and that all other nations be prohibited coming thither to trade, but under the French banner.

The Venetians were the firſt in favour of whom the Port deviated from this laſt article, which was, ſays our author, as honourable as beneficial to the French; and when Henry III, in 1580, ſent James de Germigny, baron de Germelles, to renew the convention, the ſubjects of the republic of Venice were expreſly excepted from the liſt of thoſe nations who were obliged to navigate under French colours.

In the treaties of 1604, obtained from the ſultan Achmet by Monſ. Savary de Breves, ambaſſador from France to the Port, the Engliſh were alſo excepted from the ſaid liſt.

Theſe laſt conventions of the French not being renewed 'till 1673, by reaſon of the ſuccours which his moſt Chriſtian majeſty ſent into Hungary and Candia, the Hollanders, and afterwards the Genoeſe, availing themſelves by this miſunderſtanding between France and the Port, obtained more favourable treaties; which although, ſays our author, expreſſed in terms leſs honourable than thoſe were with regard to France; (wherein the king is always treated as an emperor, and as the moſt ancient ally of the Port) yet they contained the moſt eſſential article in relation to their commerce; which conſiſts in the liberty of having conſuls, and trading in all places of the Levant upon their own footing, independent of France.

It may alſo be ſaid, that, in a very material point, other nations were more favourably treated than the French, becauſe the duties on importation, and exportation of theſe other nations were reduced to 3 per cent. while thoſe, which regarded the commodities of the French merchants, continued to pay 5 per cent. as they had always done: but this difference was reduced by the capitulation of 1673.

Of the regulations and polity of France with reſpect to the trade of the Levant.

As long as the commerce of the Levant remained intirely in the hands of the French, it was ſo conſiderable, that the duties thereof, upon the importation and exportation of merchandizes, paid by the French at the cuſtom-houſe of the Grand Seignior, amounted to ſeveral millions of livres per annum.

The face of things is much changed ſince that time; the treaties of commerce made between the Port and ſeveral other nations, and the civil wars of France in the reigns of Henry II, and his ſucceſſors, which diverted the adminiſtration from purſuing the commercial intereſts of France, gave the Venetians, and afterwards the Engliſh, a favourable occaſion to ſecure to themſelves this navigation, upon their own bottom.

Certain it is, that the bad conduct of the nation in other reſpects alſo reduced it's trade to a deplorable ſtate, 'till the time of Lewis XIV, who reſolved, in 1665, to ſupport and encourage it, and recommended to Monſ. Colbert, his miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate, to reſtore the commerce of the Levant, in ſome meaſure, to it's former ſplendor, if it was not poſſible to oblige other nations to trade again under the French banner.

The firſt ſtep this patriot miniſter took to reſtore this branch of commerce, was to eſtabliſh a company, conſtituted of 20 of the moſt opulent merchants of Paris, Lyons, and Marſeilles.

Another point, which then appeared to be no leſs requiſite, was, to put an effectual ſtop to the complaints of the Turks, reſpecting the bad quality of the merchandizes which the Marſeillians imported there, and to provide againſt abuſes that had happened in the conſulſhip; and which had greatly diſcredited the French nation.

In relation to manufactures, that miniſter made various regulations concerning the fabric of woollen goods deſtined for the Levant trade, which we ſhall ſee under the articles FRANCE, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES of France.

The French pieces of money of five ſols * being introduced into the trade of the Levant, the Turks were ſo greatly taken with the beautiful appearance thereof, that they very earneſtly coveted them, and gave their merchandizes in exchange for half the price, on condition that they were paid for them in this French ſpecie; which, at length occaſioned the Genoeſe alſo to introduce them into the Levant trade: but, not ſatisfied even with the great profit which they thereby experienced, they diminiſhed the ſtandard, or intrinſic value of this coin more than one half, and carried ſo great a quantity of this counterfeit money to the Levant (and the French alſo imitating their example, by having the like fabricated at Morgues) that the eyes of the Turks became, at length, opened, and they accuſed the French of this roguery; againſt whom they made great complaints, and laid that nation deſervedly under great difficulties in it's traffic. To put an end to theſe complaints, the French ambaſſador had orders to ſtem the torrent of ſuch diſcredit at the Port, by endeavouring to throw a part of the loſs upon others, who alſo were the cauſe of the deceit.

* This ſmall ſilver money, whoſe commerce made ſo great noiſe in all parts of the Levant, towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century, was called by the Turks timmins, or temins.—The impreſſion was ſo beautiful and elegant, that the Turks would take no other money but this. From the merchants, the infatuation ſpread itſelf even among the ladies, whoſe head-dreſſes and habits were adorned with them. The French, taking advantage of this frenzy, paſſed theſe timmins at firſt, for 10 ſols, which was gaining cent. per cent.: afterwards they lowered them to 7 ſols 6 deniers; and at laſt, in 1670, they were abſolutely cried down.
The avarice of the European merchants (for the Hollanders, the Genoeſe, and ſome other Chriſtian nations, had a ſhare in this traffic as well as the French) was the cauſe of this diſgrace brought upon this ſpecies of the French money. Not contented with the immenſe gain made by paſſing of good coin, they reſolved to counterfeit the ſame, and carried Louis of 5 ſols to the Levant, that were only copper ſilvered over. Orange, Avignon, Monaco, Florence, and ſeveral caſtles in the ſtates of Genoa, were the places where this infamous merchandize was fabricated, for the laſt thirteen years that this unjuſt traffic continued.
To put a ſtop to this diſorder, at leaſt to prevent the French from taking further part therein, the parliament of Provence iſſued an arrêt, the 22d of December, 1667, forbidding the Levant trade to be carried on otherwiſe than with the money of France, Spain, Morgues, and Dombes; and under pain of death to tranſport any Louis of 5 ſols to Genoa or Leghorn, or any other places on that coaſt.—This arrêt put a ſtop to ſuch deteſtable traffic in Turkey, which had put the whole empire into great confuſion.

The proſperity of the French commerce depending, in a great meaſure, on the good conduct of the conſuls eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, and his majeſty being informed that the greateſt part of thoſe who then filled theſe places, were either foreigners or obſcure perſons, in whom it was not ſafe for his ſubjects to confide; it was ordained, by an arrêt of council of the 29th of March, 1669, that all the French conſuls ſhould directly tranſmit to Monſ. Colbert their letters of authority whereby they held their conſulſhips.

In conſequence of this arrêt it was, that freſh inſtructions and powers were delivered in the two ſucceeding years to the ancient conſuls, and a number of new ones created in divers other ports of the Levant, where there had been none before.

By a declaration of the ſame year, regiſtered in the parliament of Provence, it was ordained, that all the oppreſſions which happened in the ports of the Levant, ſhould be diſcharged by the ſhips that ſhould be found in the ports and havens where ſuch oppreſſion had been made; for which purpoſe there ſhould be an aſſeſſment upon the ſhip's merchandizes.

The 12th of June, in the following year 1670, the execution of the declaration relative to the oppreſſions was appointed by a new ordonnance; in conſequence whereof, all conſuls eſtabliſhed in the Levant were expreſsly forbidden to convoke, for the future, any aſſembly of the body of the nation, under any pretext whatſoever, and this under the penalty of loſing their place, and to anſwer the ſame in their own perſons, the ſums that the ſaid aſſemblies ſhould have attempted to lay upon the whole nation; his majeſty injoining his ambaſſador at the Port to cauſe theſe ordonnances to be duly put in execution.

At the ſame time Monſ. Colbert wrote a circular letter to all the conſuls in the ports of the Levant, which conſiſted of four principal articles of polity.

By the firſt they were ordered to maintain a regular correſpondence with the Marquis of Nointel, the king's ambaſſador at the Port, in relation to what regarded the commerce of their various ports. The ſecond enjoined them to tranſmit to him conſtantly a memorial of whatever they ſhould judge

requiſite

requiſite to the advantage of commerce in their reſpective places of reſidence; as alſo another memorial, atteſted by the principal merchants of the ſaid ports, containing all the oppreſſions that the Turks made upon the French. The third article obliged them to ſend, every ſix months, to the court, as well as to the ambaſſador, a liſt of the French actually inhabiting their ſeveral ports; and likewiſe to give a faithful account of thoſe perſons of credit, probity, and good behaviour, as well as of thoſe whoſe conduct might give the Turks reaſons for any contempt towards their nation *.

* Was not this laying a good foundation for conſtant future eſteem towards the French ?

The inſtructions ſent to the marquis of Nointel contained alſo ſeveral articles of regulations.

I. The ſuppreſſion of all the impoſts of the conſulſhip, which had been made 'till then by his Catholic majeſty's miniſters at Conſtantinople, as well as all thoſe which were allotted to their ſecretaries and interpreters.

II. That, under any pretence of oppreſſion, no duties in future ſhould be raiſed, or any thing taken, by way of fee or bribe, upon the commerce of the nation in general.

III. To that end, every kind of aſſembly that uſed to be held on theſe occaſions was aboliſhed; and that every one ſhould avoid borrowing money of the Jews, and paying them monthly intereſt.

IV. That the debts, as well thoſe of the city of Marſeilles (for the payment whereof the duty of COTIMO* had been eſtabliſhed) as thoſe of the ports of the Levant, ſhould be examined and liquidated, in order to be diſcharged with the greater eaſe to trade.

* A term in marine commerce, uſed in the ports of the Levant.—It is an impoſition, or duty, which the conſuls lay, either by order of the court, or the conſent of the merchants, of ſo much per cent. upon ſhipping, either for the payment of ſome avanies (a), or for ſome other common affairs of the nation.

The arrêt of the council of 1684 ordains, that a cotimo ſhould be ſettled, at the rate of 2 per cent. upon the firſt ſhips that returned from the port of Alexandria, for an indemnification adjudged to the Levant company.

(a) Avanie ſignifies an inſult, affront, impoſition, a quarrel bred with deſign, and without cauſe. This is particularly uſed in the Levant, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seignior, to ſignify the preſents, or the fines, that the Turkiſh baſhaws, and the officers of the cuſtom-houſe, unjuſtly extort from the Chriſtian merchants under falſe pretences.—When theſe avanies relate to a particular nation, the ambaſſador and conſuls of the nation regulate them, and appoint the method of levying them among the merchants, and others of ſuch nation; which is commonly done with the advice of the chief perſons among them.

V. That no French ſhould inhabit in the ports of the Levant without expreſs permiſſion from the king's miniſter at the Port.

It was likewiſe ordained, by an arrêt of council of November 1669, that, in future, the interpreters in the ports of the Levant, reſiding at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and other places, ſhould not act in that city, unleſs they were natives of France, and appointed by an aſſembly of the body of the nation in every port, and depoſited their oath with the conſuls.

In order to be ſecure of the fidelity of theſe interpreters, the ſame arrêt regulates, that there ſhould be ſent to the ports of Conſtantinople and Smyrna, every three years, ſix young men, to be there inſtructed in the languages, and to act afterwards in the capacity of interpreters.—To add to the advantage which the nation might derive from this eſtabliſhment, his majeſty ordained, by a ſecond arrêt of October 1670, that ſix young men ſhould be ſent for the three firſt years, for the purpoſe of becoming interpreters *.

* An interpreter, or druggerman, or drogman, as they are called in the Levant, is a perſon whom the ambaſſadors of the Chriſtian countries, reſiding at the Port, have near their perſons, to aſſiſt them in point of language in treating of public affairs. The conſuls likewiſe make uſe of theſe druggermen, as well for their private uſe, as for that of the merchants of their country who traffic in the ports of the Levant, or foreigners who come to trade under the banner of their princes. The aſſiſtance of theſe interpreters being abſolutely neceſſary in the commerce of the Levant, and the good ſucceſs therein partly depending on their fidelity and ingenuity, induced Lewis the XIVth of France to iſſue an arret of council to provide a number of the natives of France, who were well educated in the language, to officiate in that uſeful capacity, that the ambaſſadors and conſuls of France ſhould never be liable to impoſition by ſtrangers, who might have no attachment to their country.—A wiſe meaſure certainly !

The ambaſſador of France, predeceſſor to the marquis de Nointel, having greatly loaded commerce with unwarrantable impoſitions; his majeſty, in order to prevent theſe abuſes, ſtrictly forbid the marquis from following their example, under any pretext whatſoever; without firſt communicating the matter to the merchants and captains who ſhould be in the ſeveral ports, for their votes, with all imaginable freedom.

The convoys which the king granted for the ſafety of the commerce of his ſubjects, more particularly of thoſe who traded to the Levant, not having the ſucceſs expected, by the miſconduct of thoſe who commanded them, in not joining the merchants in due time, or leaving them before arrival in their intended ports: his majeſty iſſued an ordonnance in May 1671, whereby he commands all chiefs of the ſquadron, captains, and other officers of the marine, ordered to convoy merchants ſhips, either in meeting them on the high ſeas, or departing from the ports of the kingdom, to convoy them ſafe to the ports whither they were bound, and on their return into the ports of the kingdom; expreſsly forbidding them, at the peril of their lives, to abandon them, under any pretence whatever, if not prevented by the violence of the winds; upon condition, notwithſtanding, that the maſters of ſuch merchantmen ſhall be ready to ſail upon the day appointed by the captains, conſuls, and principal merchants intereſted in the trade.

Before the court had obliged the conſuls to lay before them the powers whereby they enjoyed their poſts, they were granted during life: ſome had even obtained the ſucceſſion for their children, or relations, and there were ſome made hereditary, and reckoned amongſt the patrimonial effects of families. In the new reform of conſuls, they were, for the moſt part, reduced to ſix years continuance, but they might be continued, and are ſo in effect.

The rights of conſulſhip are not equal in all the Levant ports, they being in ſome places 2 per cent. in others 3.

It was by theſe firſt regulations that Monſ. Colbert began to give another face to the French commerce in the Levant, by thus providing at once for the correction of the chief abuſes which were therein committed.

There was afterwards prepared a general regulation of the polity of the conſulſhip, in regard to whatever concerns the aſſemblies and the trade of the kingdom; to which, from time to time, and almoſt to the death of Lewis XIV, there were added new articles, as the circumſtances of things required. See the article CONSULS.

That the reader may make a right judgment of the polity of the French in regard to the regulation of this branch or trade, we ſhall give the ſubſtance of the principal royal ordonnances and arrêts relating thereunto: we ſhall begin with that of the 18th of March, 1693, which follows, viz.

'His majeſty judged it requiſite to ſuppreſs the duties of conſulſhip in the ports of the Levant, for the benefit of his ſubjects, and having excepted therefrom foreigners who trade under the banner of France, and ordained that thoſe duties in regard to their merchandizes ſhould continue in the accuſtomed manner, and be appropriated to the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles [ſee the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE] his majeſty being informed that the greateſt part of the foreigners, and particularly the Jews, daily make falſe declarations of the merchandizes which they embark in French bottoms, and oftentimes do not embark any at all, and that the captains and cap-merchants [ſee CAP-MERCHANTS] of ſhips, favour foreigners by night in ſhipping their merchandizes on Turkiſh bottoms, or even in French veſſels, to the prejudice of the French merchants, who lade goods in the ſame veſſels, and who are thereby obliged to bear a more conſiderable duty than they ought, if the merchandizes of foreigners were faithfully declared: againſt which grievance it being neceſſary to provide, his majeſty has ordained, that the merchandizes of foreigners, laden on French bottoms, which ſhall not be juſtly and truly reported in the Chancery of the ſaid ports of the Levant, with reſpect both to the quality and quantity thereof, ſhall be confiſcated: that is to ſay, one half ſhall go to the benefit of the informer, and the other to the chamber of commerce; which nevertheleſs ſhall be appropriated to the public ſervice, with the conſent of the intendant charged with the care of the trade. His majeſty expreſsly forbids all captains, maſters, and cap-merchants of French ſhips, to receive by night any merchandizes from any place from whence they may be tranſported on the penalty of 1500 livres fine, nor to receive any declarations, nor ſign any bills of lading of foreigners, which are not conformable to the reports made in the ſaid Chanceries, on pain of the like fine of 1500 livres. His majeſty further ordains, that all cap-merchants ſhall ſign a manifeſto, conformable to that depoſited in the Chancery, and to ſend a copy thereof to the conſuls of thoſe places whither the veſſel is bound, that they may teſtify to the unlading, whether all the merchandizes of foreigners have been faithfully declared. His majeſty injoins all conſuls and vice-conſuls of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, to ſee that the preſent ordonnance be duly executed, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

An arrêt of the king's council of ſtate, ordaining that the French ſhips trading to the ports of the Levant ſhall not be liable to thoſe averages [ſee AVERAGES] which may be neceſſary to be laid on for the payment of the debts and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the merchandizes wherewith they ſhall be loaded, and not according to the tonnage and ſtrength of the ſhipping. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

'According to what has been repreſented to the king in council, that the repartition of the averages laid upon the French

French ſhipping which navigate in the ports of the Levant, for the payment of the debts, and other charges of the nation, is made, at preſent, with relation to the ſtrength and kind of the ſhipping only; which has occaſioned a great prejudice to thoſe whoſe loadings are not judged of by the value of the merchandizes, whereby thoſe whoſe cargoes pay as much as others of ſmaller value, whoſe freight and profits are widely different: which inequality may, in it's conſequences, leſſen the navigation of ſhipping in the Levant commerce: his majeſty, deſirous to prevent theſe evils, and to procure every advantage to his ſubjects, by extending and rendering this traffic more conſiderable; and his majeſty, being now in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, that, for the future, all French ſhips trading to the ports of the Levant, ſhall not be liable to any average that may be neceſſary to be impoſed for the payment of the debts, and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the cargoes therein contained, according to the bills of lading, and manifeſtoes of the loading; which ſhall be ſent to the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the kingdom in the ſaid ports, by the captains and cap merchants of the ſaid veſſels, &c.—Done at the royal council of ſtate, the 6th of October, 1698.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.'

Then follows a proclamation, of the ſame date, to inforce the ſaid arrêt,

Signed LEWIS.

The next arrêt of the royal council, of any conſequence, was of March 1705, in the time of the war, which ordains, That, upon the merchandizes of the Levant ariſing by the prizes made during the preſent war, and carried into the port of Toulon, there ſhall be levied 10 per cent. on the value of the ſaid merchandizes, over and above the ordinary duties paid on importation.—Extracted from the regiſters of the royal council.

'By reaſon of the repreſentations made by the mayor, ſheriffs, and deputies of the commerce of the city of Marſeilles, that the king's ſhips appointed to cruize from the port of Toulon, on the merchantmen belonging to the enemy, and alſo the privateers from the ſame port, frequently bring in prizes, whereby the magazines of the ſaid city are filled with the merchandizes of all ports of the Levant; which hinders the ſale of thoſe goods brought in by the trade of the merchants: in order to put all merchandizes of the ſame ſort upon an equality with each other, it would be neceſſary to impoſe a duty of 20 per cent. upon the merchandizes of the Levant taken as prize, as well as upon merchandizes which do not come into the kingdom by a direct commerce carried on in the Levant by his majeſty's ſubjects; or at leaſt a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem of the ſaid merchandizes taken as prize, as was practiſed in the preceding war: to which his majeſty giving attention, and conſidering the report of the Sieur Chamillart, counſellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, and being preſent in council, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, upon the merchandizes of the Levant taken as prizes during the preſent war, and brought into the port of Toulon, there ſhall be raiſed 10 per cent. ad valorem thereupon, over and above the ordinary duties of importation.—Done at the royal council of ſtate, his majeſty being preſent, held at Verſailles the 10th day of March, 1705.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.'

'This arrêt was inforced by a declaration of the ſame day,

Signed LEWIS.

See the article PRIZES.

A royal ordonnance, permitting the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, to deliver certificates of reſidence to the children and relations of the merchants of the province, who chuſe to ſettle in the Levant, provided they were 18 years of age; and alſo to ſuch women and girls whoſe huſbands or fathers are eſtabliſhed in the ſaid ports, to live there with them. Of March 1716. —By the king.

'Upon being repreſented to the king, that the families of merchants trading to the Levant are greatly prejudiced by the ordonnance of November 3, 1700, which forbids the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce eſtabliſhed at Marſeilles, to deliver certificates of embarkation, or of reſidence, to the children or relations of the ſaid merchants, nor to others who would willingly ſettle themſelves in the Levant, before 25 years of age; that, on the contrary, it ſeemeth neceſſary that theſe young people go thither betimes in order to learn the language, cuſtoms, and uſages of the Turks, and to form themſelves to thoſe rules and maxims neceſſary to the benefit and advantage of commerce; otherwiſe, thoſe men from the age of 18 to 20 are compelled to apply themſelves to profeſſions other than thoſe to which they ſeem to be born, and bred up by their parents: his majeſty being informed, that as well the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, as the French conſuls in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, make a difficulty in conſenting to the paſſage and reſidence in Turkey of the wives and daughters whoſe huſbands and fathers are eſtabliſhed there, no ordonnance or regulation being made for that purpoſe: his majeſty having conſidered the deliberations of the ſheriffs and deputies of commerce of Marſeilles, of the 5th of this month, held in the preſence of the Sieur Arnoul, inſpector of the ſaid commerce: his majeſty, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, regent, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, from the day of the publication of the preſent ordonnance, it ſhall be permitted to the ſaid ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, to grant certificates of reſidence to the children or relations of ſuch merchants of the province, and others, who would ſettle in the ports of the Levant; it appearing, by a certificate of their baptiſm, that they are full 18 years of age; it being underſtood, nevertheleſs, that they ſhall not be admitted into the aſſembly of the French nation in Turkey, 'till they are 24 years old, nor to have a vote therein 'till 25 years of age: his majeſty deſiring, that, if any of theſe young people, ſo admitted to reſide in Turkey for the benefit of trade, ſhall commit any acts of libertiniſm, or acts of reproach and ſcandal, that may bring any diſhonour upon the French nation, or draw upon it's ſubjects any oppreſſion on the part of the Turks: if there are any ſuch, they are hereby ordered to be ſent back into France, by the firſt ſhipping that ſhall depart from the port, provided it ſhall be ſo reſolved by the deliberation of the body of merchants, which ſhall be aſſembled on theſe occaſions by the conſul; to whom his majeſty injoins the due execution of the reſolutions taken in theſe caſes. His majeſty permits the wives and daughters whoſe huſbands and fathers are eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, to go thither and reſide in taking leave of the deputies of the chamber of commerce, &c. notwithſtanding the prohibitions heretofore iſſued to the contrary, &c.—Given at Paris the 17th of March, 1716.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

The next royal ordonance that took place was that of Auguſt 1716, which excludes from all public truſt of adminiſtration, and from the aſſemblies of the body of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, ſuch French merchants who ſhall there marry maids or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seignior; and excludes, likewiſe, all thoſe who are under 30 years of age, from all public truſts of adminiſtration, who ſhall marry, without the conſent of the parents, even any French young woman.

'His majeſty being informed that the children of merchants who are permitted to reſide in the Levant, in order to train them betimes to the arts of commerce, generally contract improper marriages, either with maids or widows born ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, or even with the French, the conſequence whereof commonly proves diſadvantageous to the families of theſe young people, as well as to the diſhonour of the French nation: which his majeſty being deſirous to prevent, and conſidering the deliberation of the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles, of July laſt, approved by the Sieur Arnoul, inſpector of the ſaid commerce: his majeſty, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, regent, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, from the day of the publication of this preſent ordonnance, the French merchants eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, who ſhall contract marriage with maidens or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seignior, ſhall be rendered incapable of every public truſt and adminiſtration of the body of the French nation, even from the privilege of admiſſion into their aſſemblies. His majeſty ordains, alſo, that thoſe of the ſaid merchants who are not 30 years of age, and ſhall marry, without the conſent of their parents, even any French maiden, ſhall likewiſe be excluded from all public truſts. His majeſty commands the Sieur marquis de Bonnac, his ambaſſador extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, and the French conſuls and vice-conſuls in the port of the Levant, duly to obſerve the execution of the preſent ordonnance, and that it may be made public, and regiſtered among the archives of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and in the Chancery of the ſeveral ports of the Levant and Barbary, that no one may be ignorant thereof. Given at Paris the 11th of Auguſt, 1716.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all the ſubjects of France, and others, trading in Turkey under their protection, to purchaſe any thing taken from the Turks by the Malteſe corſairs, or by any other. March 1718.

'His majeſty being informed that the Malteſe corſairs, and others who are at war with the Grand Seignior, frequently ſell the prizes which they have taken from the Turks to French traders and navigators in the ports of the Levant, and to the end that this kind of traffic may not prove highly injurious in it's conſequences, by bringing oppreſſions upon the body of

merchants of the French nation ſettled in the Turkiſh ports: all which his majeſty being deſirous to prevent, doth thereby, with the advice of the duke of Orleans, his uncle regent, expreſsly forbid all his ſubjects, and all other merchants in Turkey under his protection, from buying of the ſaid corſairs, directly or indirectly, any of the effects taken by them from the Turks, on pain of confiſcation of the ſaid effects, and a fine of 3000 livres: his majeſty commands the Sieur marquis de Bonnac, his ambaſſador extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, and all conſuls of the French nation in the Levant, to make public the preſent ordonnance, that no one may be ignorant thereof, and to have all due regard to it's execution. Given at Paris the 22d of March, 1718.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all captains of French ſhips and veſſels to embark in the Levant any Frenchman or foreigner, without permiſſion firſt had and obtained in writing, from the king's ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, or the conſuls of the ports.—October 24, 1719.

'His Majeſty being informed that the captains of French ſhips and veſſels which navigate in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, receive on board Frenchmen and foreigners, who ſometimes embark, to avoid the conſequences of bankruptcy, or other miſconduct of which they may have been guilty in the ſaid ports, which might draw grievances on the French nation, and moleſt it's commerce: his majeſty, judging proper to provide againſt ſuch-like inconveniencies, doth, by and with the advice of the duke of Orleans, regent, expreſsly forbid all captains, and maſters of French ſhips and veſſels, which navigate to the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to embark on board any perſons, under pretence of paſſage, be they either Frenchmen, or of any other nation, without the conſent firſt had and obtained in writing, from his ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, or the conſuls of the ports from whence they ſhall embark, on the penalty of a fine of 500 livres, and alſo to anſwer perſonally for the conſequences of ſuch embarkation; deſiring that, if any one unknown to them, and without their privity, ſhould get on board while they are under ſail, they ſhould be obliged, under the ſame penalties, to put ſuch perſon on ſhore, and ſend him to the conſul of the place where he might the ſooneſt land; and ſuch conſul ſhall be obliged to apprize him at the port where the eſcape ſhall have been made.—His majeſty orders his ſaid ambaſſador and conſuls not to grant thoſe permiſſions except to perſons not ſuſpected of the circumſtances beforementioned, but not to refuſe the ſame to the French, nor foreigners, without good reaſons, whereof they ſhall inform the council of the marine, and deliver diſpatches with charges.—His majeſty injoins and commands the Sieur Bonnac, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, and the conſuls at the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to publiſh and regiſter the preſent ordonnance wherever needful, &c. Given at Paris the 24th of October, 1719.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.'

An arrêt of the royal council of ſtate, in relation to the eſtabliſhment of a duty in favour of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, laid upon merchandizes coming from the Levant, charged with the payment of the appointments of the conſuls.—September 2, 1721.

'The king, being in council, ordains, that the conſuls of the ports of the Levant and of Barbary ſhould receive the duties granted to them by the arrets of the 10th of January, 1718, in the ſame manner, and as they had enjoyed them before the arrêts of the 21ſt and 24th of April, 1720; by means of which duties the conſuls ſhould be charged with the ſame expences wherewith they were charged before the ſaid arrêts: his majeſty having conſidered the deliberations of the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles, in their aſſembly of the 9th of April, 1721, by which they agreed to petition his majeſty to permit them to take upon themſelves the government of the conſulſhips, upon the following conditions: That the merchandizes which ſhall be laden in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, for France, and which paid 3 per cent. in ſome ports, and 2 per cent. in others, ſhall pay no more after the 1ſt of May; viz. the firſt 2 per cent. and the others 1 ½ per cent. which duties of 2 per cent. and 1 ½ per cent. ſhall be paid in Marſeilles, at the chamber of commerce, by the ſhips and veſſels which ſhall arrive there, according to the value of the ſaid merchandizes, at the time of their arrival.—That the merchandizes for the account of foreigners deſigned for Italy, and other countries, ſhall pay the ancient duties of conſulage.—That the value ſhall be aſcertained of the merchandizes, by the deputies and French merchants, in preſence of the conſuls and vice-conſuls of every port in the Levant, which ſhall be loaded there for the account of foreigners deſigned for the ports of Italy, and other countries, in order to ſettle the ſaid duty of conſulage, paid in the port of departure, into the hands of the proper officers, according to the form preſcribed by the arrêts of the council of the 24th of November, 1691, the 27th of January, and 8th of September, 1694.—The chamber of commerce in every port of the Levant ſhall keep neceſſary funds, for the payment of the appointments of the conſuls, and other officers, from the 1ſt of May 1721, and alſo for the other expences of the conſulſhip; which funds ſhall be ſent to the deputies of each port, and by them converted into current money in the ſaid ports; in which money the appointments ſhall be paid to the ſaid conſuls, and other officers, upon the footing of 156,463 livres per annum.—And, in order to raiſe the funds requiſite for the current expences of the conſulſhips, his majeſty permits the chamber of commerce to borrow at Marſeilles to the amount of 100,000 livres, at the rate of 5 or 6 per cent. intereſt at moſt, with intent to avoid the engagements which might be made in the Levant at a higher rate, the leaſt of which are commonly at 1 per cent. per month: his majeſty, judging the ſaid demands and offers of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles conſiſtent with the benefit and proſperity of commerce, and deſiring to procure whatever might contribute thereunto; and, being in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, the following articles, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, regent, without any regard to the arrêt of the 21ſt of January, 1721, or to the demands and offers of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles, reſolved on in their deliberations of the 9th of April following:

ARTICLE I.

That the merchandizes which ſhall be laden for France in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, and which paid 3 per cent. in ſome places, and 2 per cent. in others, ſhall pay no more for the time to come, after the 1ſt day of January, 1722, than the duties of 2 per cent. in the ports where they paid 3 per cent. and 1 ½ per cent. in thoſe where they paid 2 per cent. which duties ſhall be paid in Marſeilles, at the chamber of commerce, by the veſſels which ſhall arrive there, according to the value of the merchandizes at the time the veſſels arrive.

II.

That the ſame duties ſhall be paid upon all the merchandizes of the veſſels which ſhall finiſh their voyages in Italy, or elſewhere, into the hands of the deputies of the nation reſiding in the ports of the Levant, and according to the value of the merchandize, at the time of their departure.

III.

That the merchandize for the account of foreigners, deſigned for Italy and other countries, ſhall pay the ancient duty of conſulage.

IV.

That there ſhall be made, by the deputies and French merchants, in the preſence of the conſul or vice-conſul of each port, an eſtimation of the merchandizes which ſhall be laden for the account of foreigners, and deſigned for the ports of Italy, and other countries, in order to lay the duties of conſulage paid in the port at the departure of the veſſel, as preſcribed by the arrêts of council of the 24th of November, 1691, 27th of January, and 8th of September, 1694.

V.

That the chamber of commerce ſhall always have in each port competent funds, for the payment of the appointments of conſuls, and other officers, from the ſaid 1ſt of January, 1722, as well as for other expences of the conſulage; which funds ſhall be ſent to the deputies of each port, and by them converted into the current money of the ſaid port; in which money they ſhall pay the ſaid appointments to the conſuls, and other officers, by making the computation according to livres Tournois of France: ſo that, by reaſon of the equality of the monies, they may receive neither more or leſs than what is appropriated to them: to which end his majeſty revoketh the arrêt of his council, of the 21ſt of January laſt.

VI.

His majeſty ordains, that, on the ſaid firſt day of January, 1722, the conſuls of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, ſhall ceaſe to receive the duties of conſulage, as they did from the 1ſt of May, 1721, and forbids them to demand any 'till after the ſaid day, on penalty of reſtoring the ſums ſo received, and of loſing their places.

VII.

And, to the end that the ſaid chamber of commerce at Marſeilles may be enabled to raiſe the funds neceſſary for the expences of the conſulſhip, his majeſty permits them to borrow, in the ſaid city of Marſeilles, to the amount of 100,000 livres, at the rate of 5 per cent. intereſt at moſt, deviating, in this reſpect, from the former regulation: and all bills neceſſary to this purpoſe ſhall be expedited, in order to avoid engagements in the Levant at a greater rate.—Given at the royal council, his majeſty being preſent, held at Paris the 2d of September, 1721.

Signed FLEURIAU.'

The due execution of this arrêt was inforced the ſame day, by a proclamation ſigned by the king.

L E V

An arrêt of the royal council of ſtate, of May 1722, laying a penalty upon the captains and owners of ſhips coming from the Levant to Marſeilles, who ſhould miſrepreſent the weight and quality of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, or ſhould not repreſent them at all.

'It being repreſented to the king, that the arrêts of council of the 2d of September, and the 28th of April, 1721, by the former of which, to commence the 1ſt of January laſt, it is ordained, that the merchandizes which ſhall be laden in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, for France, on the veſſels that may arrive at Marſeilles, ſhould pay to the chamber of commerce 2 per cent. for thoſe coming from ſome of the ſaid ports of the Levant, and 1 ½ per cent for thoſe coming from others, &c.—And by the other arrêt, to commence the 1ſt of June next, his majeſty hath alſo ordained, that the ſaid merchandizes ſhould pay 3 per cent. for thoſe coming from the ſaid ports, which ought to pay 2 only, and 2 per cent. for thoſe coming from the other ports, that ought to pay but 1 ½; and his majeſty underſtanding that the receipt of the firſt duties were inſufficient to ſupport the expence of the commerce, that the chamber of Marſeilles had obliged themſelves to pay: his majeſty obſerving, alſo, that by the ſaid arrêts, there are no penalties inflicted againſt the captains and owners of the ſaid merchandizes, who ſhall conceal the quality or the weight, or who ſhould not report them, hath judged it neceſſary, to prevent the like abuſes, to ordain, and doth hereby ordain, that the captains and owners of the merchandize ſhipped in thoſe veſſels coming from the ports of the Levant to Marſeilles, who ſhall have diſguiſed the quality or quantity of their merchandizes, or not reported them, ſhall pay to the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, inſtead of the duty of 3 per cent. or 2 per cent. as ſhall be due, 20 per cent. on the merchandize ſo miſrepreſented, and not reported, upon the foot of the valuation that the duty of 3 or 2 per cent. ſhould have been paid, &c.—Given in the council of ſtate, his majeſty being preſent, the 3d of May, 1722, and

Signed FLEURIAU.'

This arret was inforced by a royal declaration of the ſame date,

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.'

A royal ordonnance, regulating the appointments that the firſt deputies of the French nation are intitled to in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, if, in caſe of death or abſence of the conſuls, they perform the offices of the conſular power.—April 1723.

'His majeſty having regulated, by his ordonnance of 1681, concerning the marine, the conſuls of the French nation in foreign countries, that, the conſulſhip being vacant, the ſenior of the deputies of the nation who officiates, ſhall exerciſe the functions of the conſul, according to the proviſion made for that purpoſe; and intending to ſettle the ſalaries for the firſt deputy, while he exerciſes the ſaid office: his majeſty doth will and ordain, that the moſt ancient of the deputies of the nation in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, who executes the conſular office in caſe of the death or abſence of the conſul, ſhall enjoy, during that time, two-thirds of the appointments appropriated to the conſul of the ſaid port, being ſubject to the ſame expence as the conſul himſelf is; and that the other one-third of the appointments ſhall remain in caſh in the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, in order to be employed in the ordinary expences of the ſaid chamber, &c. Given at Verſailles the 27th of April, 1723.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.'

A royal ordonnance, revoking thoſe of the years 1789, 1613, and 1719, and the prohibitions therein contained; in conſequence whereof it permits all Frenchmen reſiding in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and Italy, to load merchandizes for their account upon FOREIGN BOTTOMS.—January 1727.

'His majeſty cauſing to be laid before him the ordonnances made the 7th of January, 1689, the 5th of April, 1713, and the 10th of July, 1719, by which he forbids the French reſiding in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to lade any merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of other nations, upon foreign ſhipping, which do not carry French colours, under the penalties therein mentioned: and being informed that the execution of the ſaid ordonnances has occaſioned many incidents injurious to the welfare of the commerce of his ſubjects in the ſaid ports of the Levant; againſt which judging it requiſite to provide, his majeſty hereby revoketh the ſaid ordonnances of the 7th of January, 1689, and of the 5th of April, 1713, and of the 10th of July, 1719, and the prohibitions contained therein: and, in conſequence thereof, hath permitted, and doth by theſe preſents permit all Frenchmen, his ſubjects, reſident in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to lade merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of other nations, upon foreign bottoms, as they did, or might have done, before the ſaid ordonnances were enacted; which ordonnances ſhall remain void, and of no effect or authority, after the 1ſt day of March next enſuing. His majeſty injoins and commands the Sieur viſcount D'Andrezel, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, and the ſeveral conſuls of the ſaid ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to make public, and regiſter the preſent ordonnance, whereever it may be needful. He commands alſo the officers of the admiralty to make the ſame public, and regiſter it, and have due regard to it's execution.—Done at Marly the 7th of January, 1727.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, regulating what ſhould be regarded in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, on the part of the Jews, and other foreigners, who ſhall enjoy there the protection of France.—February 4, 1727.

'His majeſty being informed of the abuſes committed in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to the prejudice of his ſubjects, by the different manner in which the conſuls grant the Jews, and other foreigners, his protection, judges it neceſſary to make certain and plain regulation for ſuch protection; and, to that end, ordaineth as follows:

ARTICLE I.

That no Jew, or other foreigner, a ſubject of the Grand Seignior, or reſident in his dominions, ſhall be received under the protection of France, until he hath requeſted and obtained the ſame from the conſul, and the body of the French nation aſſembled with him; which conſul ſhall not deliver his letter of protection to the petitioners, but in conſequence of the reſolutions taken for that intent.

II.

Thoſe who ſhall ſollicit ſuch protection, ſhall give reſponſible ſecurity to anſwer for their conduct; and the ſecurity received by the conſul of the nation ſhall be recorded in the Chancery of the conſulſhip.

III.

The Jews, and other foreigners, ſo protected, ſhall carry on no commerce whatſoever of the Levant into France, either directly or indirectly, on pain of confiſcation of their ſhips and merchandize, and a fine of 3000 livres againſt the captain.

IV.

His majeſty forbids all traders, paſſengers, captains, and maſters of French ſhips and veſſels, to lend their names to the protected and other foreigners, in order to carry on the commerce of the Levant and Barbary in France, under the like pains and penalties, and a fine of 3000 livres.

V.

His majeſty likewiſe forbids all Frenchmen and foreigners reſiding in the kingdom to receive any merchandize, proviſions, or other effects belonging to foreigners reſiding in the Levant and Barbary, and coming from the ſaid countries, under the penalties before inflicted.

VI.

His majeſty alſo forbids all perſons reſiding in France to ſend any effects or merchandize to foreigners protected, who reſide in the Levant and Barbary, either for their own account or for that of the protected, under the ſame penalties above inflicted.

VII.

No Jew, or other foreigner, reſident in the Levant and Barbary under the protection of France, ſhall receive the conſignments nor commiſſions of ſhips and merchandizes coming from France into the Levant, or into Barbary, on pain to ſuch who are not ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, but protected by France, of being ſent back into their own countries by the conſul of France, in virtue of the reſolutions of the nation aſſembled; and in relation to the rajas, or ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, of being for ever excluded protection; and, in both caſes, the penalty is confiſcation of the merchandizes that ſhall be proved to be ſo ſent and conſigned, as aforeſaid.

VIII.

The captains, maſters, officers, and paſſengers of marine ſhipping ſent from France to the Levant, or Barbary, ſhall not be addreſſed or conſigned to the perſon ſo protected as aforeſaid; reſident in the ſaid ports of the Levant, for the commiſſion, barter, or exchange of their merchandize and effects, under a fine of 1500 livres penalty for every ſuch-like contravention.

IX.

His majeſty, nevertheleſs, permits the captains, officers, and paſſengers of ſhipping ſent from France, to ſell to the ſaid protected perſons the merchandizes which they have carried for their account, and to purchaſe or take, in barter or exchange, ſuch other merchandizes as they ſhall judge proper; on condition, however, that for theſe ſales, barters, or purchaſes, the ſaid captains, officers, and paſſengers, ſhall be obliged to make uſe of, at their own option, the mediation of a

French

L E V

French merchant, as their factor, which factor cannot act for them before he has duly informed the conſul and the deputies of the nation, nor pretend but to one half of the ordinary commiſſion.

X.

All captains, and maſters of ſhips, who ſhall go to the Levant or Barbary, and ſhall not have the commiſſion of the cargo of imports or exports, nor any peculiar addreſs, ſhall be obliged to apply to a French merchant, who is of the body of the nation, and who ſhall regard what is preſcribed by the preceding article.

XI.

His majeſty wills and ordains, that all the confiſcations and fines which may happen ſhall be applied as follow, viz. thoſe incurred in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, one-third to the informer, another third to the redemption of French ſlaves, and the remaining third to the national expences of the Levant port; and, as to thoſe fines and confiſcations which happen in France, one-third ſhall go to the informer, one-third to the hoſpital of St. Eſprit of Marſeilles, and the other to the profit of the chamber of commerce of the ſaid city.

XII.

His majeſty permits Jews and foreigners in the Levant and Barbary to continue, as uſual, to ſend and conſign their merchandizes into Italy, and other foreign countries, either in their own name, for their own proper account, to their French or foreign friends reſiding in the ſaid countries, and to make uſe of the ſhips carrying his majeſty's colours; whereon the neutral ſtates of Italy, and other foreigners, may alſo load, in their reſpective countries, ſuch merchandizes as they think proper, and addreſs them to their correſpondents, be they either French, Jews, or other foreigners, eſtabliſhed in the Levant or Barbary, under the protection of France.

XIII.

His majeſty further wills and ordains, that there ſhall be no alteration in the peculiar cuſtoms and uſages which have been obſerved in certain ports, with reſpect to the ceremonial, the police, and method of paying the duties to the Grand Seignior, by the foreigners protected by France. His majeſty injoins and commands the Sieur le Bret, counſellor in his councils, firſt preſident and intendant of juſtice, police, and of the finances in Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant; and alſo the Sieur viſcount D'Andrezel, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, and all the conſuls of the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to cauſe the preſent ordonnance to be publiſhed and regiſtered, wherever needful, and to have due regard to the due execution thereof.—Done at Marly the 4th of February, 1727.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, excluding from the liberty of trading in France, and from the privilege of the body of the nation, ſuch French who ſhall marry in the ports of the Levant, and the ſons of Frenchmen born in the ſaid ports, whoſe mothers are foreigners.—Auguſt 1728.

'His majeſty cauſing to be laid before him his ordonnances of the 11th of Auguſt, 1716, and the 20th of July, 1726, by the former of which it is ordained, that the French merchants eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, who ſhould marry with the girls or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seignior, ſhall be excluded from all public truſt and adminiſtration of the body of the nation; and, by the ſecond, they are prohibited from marrying, without his majeſty's permiſſion, with foreigners, ſubjects or not ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, or the ſtates of Barbary, not even with French by extraction, or thoſe born in the ſaid ports, on pain of being ſent back to France, with their ſaid wives: it having been found that the penalties inflicted by the ſaid ordonnances have not been ſufficient to prevent ſuch marriages of the French in the Levant, nor to remedy thoſe inconveniencies which ariſe therefrom, to the prejudice of the nation and it's commerce: his majeſty being informed that thoſe in particular who are born of Frenchmen and the women of the country, continue to marry, without ſubmitting to the regulations which forbid the ſame; that theſe ſame Frenchmen, knowing no other parents than thoſe which they have in that country, take their advice, aſſociate with the protected foreigners, and others, when their fathers are dead; lend their names frequently to the ſaid foreigners to trade in France, and thereby furniſh them with the means of evading the prohibitions made by divers regulations, and eſpecially by that of the 4th of February, 1727, of carrying on trade, either directly or indirectly, from the ports of the Levant, into the ports of the kingdom: againſt which his majeſty judging neceſſary to provide, after having ſeen the reſolution of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles, and the ſentiments of the Sieur Le Bret, inſpector of the commerce of the Levant, his majeſty hath ordained, and doth will and ordain as follows:

ARTICLE I.

His majeſty expreſsly forbids all Frenchmen, of what quality or condition ſoever, who ſhall contract marriage for the future in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, in violation of his ordonnances, to carry on any commerce in France, either directly or indirectly, on pain of confiſcation of their merchandize, and a fine of 3000 livres for every ſuch violation, in caſe of repetition of the ſame.

II.

His majeſty injoins the ſame prohibitions and penalties on the ſons of Frenchmen born in the ſaid ports of the Levant or Barbary, whoſe fathers are deceaſed, and whoſe mothers are foreigners, not to trade, directly or indirectly, in France, unleſs they have reſided from thence ſix years; after which they may return to the ports of the Levant, and reſide there on the ſame conditions as the French born in the kingdom.

III.

His majeſty ordains that the ſaid French who ſhould marry in future in the ſaid ports of the Levant, in violation of the ſaid ordonnances, and the ſons of Frenchmen whoſe fathers are dead, and mothers are foreigners, and who ſhall not have reſided ſix years in the kingdom of France, ſhall be excluded the liberty of aſſiſting at the national aſſemblies, and ſhall not enjoy any privilege belonging to the body of the nation.—His majeſty injoins and commands that the Sieur marquis De Villeneufe, his ambaſſador extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, alſo the French conſuls, and vice-conſuls in the ſaid ports of the Levant and Barbary, and the ſheriffs and deputies of the commerce of Marſeilles, have due regard, every one in his peculiar province, to the execution of the preſent ordonnance: and that the ſame may be made public, and regiſtered in the Chanceries of the ſaid ports, and among the archives of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, that no one may be unacquainted therewith.—Done at Fointainbleau, the 25th of Auguſt, 1728.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, concerning the patent of health that the captains and maſters of ſhips ſhould take, who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary.—September 1730.

'His majeſty being informed that the captains and owners of ſhips who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, inſtead of having duly inſpected, in every port where they arrive, the patent of health, which they ſhould take in the firſt of the ſaid ports where they began their loading, conformably to the ordonnance of the 26th of February, 1702, take ſeveral patents of health in the different ports into which they put, and do not preſent to the intendant of health at Marſeilles and Toulon, when they return, only thoſe patents which occaſion them to be treated more favourably with reſpect to their quarantine; which prevents the ſaid intendants from having knowledge of the true ſtate of health in the ports wherein the ſaid ſhips have had communication, and may thereby bring the plague into the kingdom: to prevent which calamity, his majeſty, judging it neceſſary to extend the regulations of the ordonnance of the 26th of February, 1702, hath ordained, and doth ordain as follows:

ARTICLE I.

All captains and maſters of ſhips, who ſhall depart from one port of the Levant and Barbary, wherein they have began to take in their loading of merchandize or proviſions, embark paſſengers, or receive their ballaſt, in order to load elſewhere, ſhall take their patent of health from the conſul or vice-conſul, who ſhall ſignify the true ſtate and condition of the ſaid port, with reſpect to it's healthfulneſs.

II.

The ſaid captains and maſters of ſhips ſhall not part with the firſt patent 'till their arrival in the ports of Marſeilles or Toulon, where they ſhall be obliged to repreſent the ſame to the intendants of health, on pain of ſix months impriſonment, and being deprived for ever of their freedom and privileges: to which end they ſhall be blotted out of the regiſters of captains and maſters, and ſhall not, for the future, ſerve again in the ſaid capacity, under any pretence whatever.

III.

If, in the courſe of their voyage, they touch at one or more ports in the Levant, or others of the Mediterranean, they ſhall return this firſt patent to the conſuls or vice-conſuls in the ſaid ports, to be examined, and afterwards given to the ſaid captains and maſters, without the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls retaining the ſame, and oblige them to take out a new one, under any pretence whatever, on pain of their being recalled.

IV.

The patents of health ſhall be examined by the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, as ſoon as ever required by the captains and maſters of ſhips, that their voyage may not be retarded.

V.

The conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall declare, in their viſa, the real ſtate and condition of health in the places of their reſidence, and ſhall inſert therein the intelligence which they have of the diſtempers that prevail in the other neighbouring places, on pain of being deprived of their poſt of truſt.

VI.

His majeſty forbids, under the ſame penalty, the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, and their Chanceries, to demand any du-

ties,

ties, or fees, for the viſa of the patents of health of thoſe ſhips which ſhall be involuntarily obliged to touch at the ports of the Levant and Barbary, without loading there: and with reſpect to thoſe who, having made a part of their loading in one port, ſhall touch at other ports, to take in merchandize, proviſion, or paſſengers, the captains and maſters of ſhips ſhall be obliged, in that caſe only, to pay 30 ſols for the viſa of their patent of health.

VII.

If after a captain or maſter of ſhip, having his patent examined in one port, ſhall be neceſſited to ſtay there, either by being wind-bound, or from other unforeſeen cauſe, he ſhall be obliged before his departure, to preſent his patent of health again to the conſul or vice-conſul, of the ſaid port, to ſignify upon the ſpot, and without expence, the accidents which have happened in the interval with regard to health.

VIII.

His majeſty expreſsly forbids the ſaid captains and maſters of ſhips to preſent, on their arrival in the ports of Provence, any other patent than that which has been delivered to them at the place of their firſt departure; on the back of which ſhall be the viſa, which has been endorſed at the places where they have touched during their voyage, under the ſame penalty of degradation, and ſix months impriſonment beſide.

His majeſty enjoins and commands Monſ. the count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, to have a ſtrict regard to the execution of the preſent ordonnance, to cauſe it to be read, publiſhed, and regiſtered, wherever needful; and likewiſe the Sieur le Bret, counſellor of ſtate, intendants of juſtice, police, and of the finances, in Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant, and alſo the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and the intendant of health, to pay due regard hereunto.—The conſuls and vice-conſuls of the Levant and Barbary are alſo enjoined to conform to the ſame.—Done at Verſailles, the 6th of September, 1730.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

' The count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, having duly attended to the king's ordonnance above addreſſed to us, with orders to ſee the ſame duly executed: we order and command all under our authority to conform thereunto, every one according to his ſtation; and alſo the officers of the admiralty of Provence to regiſter them among their records.—Done at Rambouillet, the 8th of September, 1730.

Signed L. A. DE BOURBON,
And underneath by his royal highneſs L'ENFANT.

The king's declaration, ſignifying that no cabbin-boy * ſhall be left in the ports of the Levant and Barbary.—October the 12th, 1730.

' LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France, to all whom theſe preſents concern, &c. We having been informed that many cabbin-boys, employed in the commerce of the Mediterranean, remain in the Levant and Barbary, by reaſon of the bad treatment which they have received on board thoſe ſhips wherein they have been embarked, and that the Muſſelmen, having found it very eaſy to ſeduce them, by reaſon of their infancy, and to influence them to the religion of the country: his majeſty deſiring to remedy a grievance that our zeal for religion, and regard to our ſubjects, do not permit us to ſuffer: for theſe and other cauſes us hereunto moving, of our certain knowledge, full power, and royal authority, we have made, and do make by theſe preſents, ſigned by our hand, expreſs prohibition to all captains and maſters of ſhips, to maltreat, or ſuffer to be maltreated by the ſhip's crew, the cabbin-boys who ſhall have embarked on board the ſhips which they command, on pain of being puniſhed, according to the exigency of the caſe: we allow only that theſe cabbin-boys ſhall ſubmit to the ordinary and uſual puniſhment: we alſo forbid the ſaid captains and maſters to ſuffer any of the ſaid boys, when in the ports of the Levant, to go on ſhore, without the guard of an officer or ſailor, in whom confidence may be repoſed, on the penalty of 300 livres fine for every ſuch boy, who, for want of this precaution, ſhall be ſtopped in the ſaid ports. We enjoin and command the conſuls, vice-conſuls, and other perſons charged with our affairs in the ſaid ports of the Levant and Barbary, to ſignify, among the liſt of the ſhip's crew, the cabbin-boys who ſhall be there detained, and what occaſioned the ſame, and whether they have been demanded by the ſaid captains and maſters, and whether, by the neglect of the ſaid captains and maſters in reporting the ſame in the liſt of the ſhip's crew, any have been detained: we will and ordain, that ſuch ſhall be cenſured and reputed as having ſuffered the ſaid boys to go on ſhore without a perſon of truſt to attend them; and therefore they ſhall be liable to the ſaid fine of 300 livres penalty: we ordain, likewiſe, that violations againſt the preſent declaration ſhall be proſecuted at the requeſt of our ſollicitor of the admiralty, &c.'

* Our reaſon for taking notice of this declaration is, to give an idea how minutely this rival nation watches the meaneſt thing that tends to the ſecurity of their commerce, and the brood of their ſeamen.

A royal ordonnance, concerning the depoſits in the Chanceries of the conſulſhips of the Levant and Barbary.—September 11, 1731.

' His majeſty being informed that there are depoſits in truſt in the Chanceries of the conſulſhips of the Levant and Barbary, of different natures, which are not always reclaimed, either by thoſe who have made them, or by their creditors or their heirs; and that ſome conſuls have diſpoſed of their ſaid depoſits, inſtead of keeping them in the manner required by the ordonnance of the 4th of December, 1691.—His majeſty, reſolving to eſtabliſh a better order in regard hereunto, ordains as follows:

ARTICLE I.

All ſums of money, merchandize, or other effects, which ſhall be depoſited in the Chanceries of the conſulſhips of the Levant and Barbary, ſhall, conformably to their ordonnance of the 4th of December, 1691, be kept in a place of the conſular houſe, appointed for that purpoſe, locked up with three different keys, one of which ſhall remain in the hands of the chancellor, another with the conſul, and a third with the principal deputy of the nation, to the end that the ſaid effects ſhall not be drawn out from the place of depoſit, excepting in their preſence.

II.

The conſuls ſhall ſignify, at the end of every year, to the ſecretary of ſtate for the department of their marine, a ſtate of the depoſits which ſhall remain in their Chanceries, mentioning, in the ſaid ſtate, the day and year when they were ſo depoſited.

III.

His majeſty ordains, that all the depoſits that ſhall be found in the chanceries of the conſulſhips of the Levant and Barbary, and which have been there depoſited for 10 years, ſhall be drawn out in one year, reckoning from the day of the publication of the preſent ordonnance in the ſeveral ports of the Levant.

IV.

His majeſty alſo ordains, that thoſe of the ſaid depoſits made leſs than 10 years, and thoſe that ſhall be afterwards made, ſhall be alſo drawn out in 10 years, reckoning from the day that they were depoſited.

V.

His majeſty ordains that the depoſits which ſhall not have been reclaimed, according to the 3d and 4th articles of the preſent ordonnance, ſhall be ſent by the conſuls of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, in order to be remitted and divided by the ſaid chamber, one half to the hoſpitals of St. Eſprit and De La Charité, of the city, for the benefit of the poor, upon condition, nevertheleſs, to deliver up the value thereof to ſuch perſons who have a right to reclaim them.

His majeſty commands the Sieur Bret, counſellor of ſtate, firſt preſident of the parliament of Aix, intendant of juſtice, of the police, and the finances of Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant, to have ſtrict regard to the execution of the preſent ordonnance, which ſhall be read, publiſhed, and fixed up wherever needful, that no one may pretend ignorance thereof.—His majeſty alſo commands the Sieur marquis De Villeneufe, counſellor of ſtate, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, to have ſtrict regard alſo to the execution of the ſame.—He enjoins the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and the conſuls of the ſeveral ports of the Levant, to conform hereunto.—Done at Marſeilles, the 11th of September, 1731.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

Regulations for the impoſts of conſuls and vice-conſuls of the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone.—Of February the 28th, 1732.

' His majeſty being informed of the different impoſts of the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the French nation, eſtabliſhed in the ports of Negropont, Cavallé, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone, laid upon the ſhipping which traffic under his flag; and having been informed that this revenue has not only little proportion to the attendants and expences of the ſaid conſuls and vice conſuls (ſome having thereby too great an advantage, and others not ſufficiently indemniſied) but alſo that the power of the ſaid conſuls and vice conſuls to receive ſuch revenue is not ſufficient to authorize them, nor intelligible enough for their direction, whereby differences frequently ariſe from the conſuls and vice-conſuls, and the captains and merchants of ſhips liable to ſuch impoſts: his majeſty, judging neceſſary to provide againſt the ſame, ordains as follows:

NEGROPONT.

The conſuls of the French nation eſtabliſhed at Negropont ſhall be intitled to a duty of 2 per cent. con ſlage on all merchandizes

L E V

chandizes and proviſions of the growth of the ſaid country, which ſhall be laden for the account of Frenchmen, or for that of foreigners, upon all ſhips carrying French colours, let the ſaid merchandize and proviſions be deſtined either for France or any foreign country in Chriſtendom.

All French ſhips going on any expedition freighted by the ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, or other foreigners, if they be laden for the account of the captain or maſter, ſhall pay to the ſaid conſul a duty of two piaſtres for anchorage, when they embark or debark merchandizes, proviſions, or paſſengers in the ports depending on the ſaid conſulſhip; or when they bring proviſion of any kind whatſoever, his majeſty, forbidding the xaction of the ſaid duty in any other caſe whatſoever.

His majeſty intends that all the ports, roads, and coaſts ſituated within the extent of the government of the pacha of Negropont, ſhall be reckoned to belong to the department of the ſaid conſul, and that all French ſhips which ſhall traffic there ſhall pay the duties before mentioned.

CAVALLE.

The conſul of the French nation eſtabliſhed at Cavalle ſhall alſo be intitled to a conſulage duty of 2 per cent. upon all merchandizes and proviſions of the product of the country which ſhall be laden there for the French account, or for that of foreigners upon ſhips carrying his majeſty's colours, let the ſaid merchandizes and proviſions be intended for France, or any foreign country in Chriſtendom.

All ſhips going on an expedition, which ſhall embark or debark, in the ports dependent on the ſaid conſulſhip, merchandizes, proviſions, or paſſengers, ſhall pay alſo two piaſtres to the conſul as a duty for anchorage, whether they are freighted by the ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, or other foreigners, or laden for the account of captains or maſters.

RHODES.

Ships carrying French colours, which ſhall go directly from the ports of France to Rhodes, and which ſhall unlade their merchandizes, or proviſions, ro which ſhall embark to carry them to France, or any foreign country of Chriſtendom, ſhall pay to the conſul of the ſaid port a duty of anchorage only; which ſhall be of ſeven piaſtres and one half for the ſhips and veſſels with ſquare ſails and of five piaſtres for barks, and all other veſſels with ſmack or triangular ſails.

The cruizers which ſhall load or unload in the ports dependent on the ſaid conſulſhip, as before repreſented, and thoſe which ſhall carry proviſions thither, ſhall pay to the ſaid conſul five piaſtres, without diſtinction of veſſels.

His majeſty intends that the ſaid conſuls ſhall receive the ſame duties on all ſhips that ſhall traffic at Stanchio and other ports dependent on the conſulſhips.

METELINE.

French ſhips which ſhall load in the iſle of Meteline, and it's dependencies, merchandizes and proviſions, to carry either into France, or into the foreign countries of Chriſtendom, ſhall pay to the vice-conſul of the ſaid port, viz. for the veſſels 12 piaſtres, and barks 8 piaſtres.

Cruizers freighted by the ſubjects of the Grand Seignior, and other foreigners, or loaded for the account of the captain or maſter, ſhall pay to the ſaid vice-conſul four piaſtres, without diſtinction of veſſel, when they embark or debark merchandizes, proviſions, or paſſengers in the ports dependent on the ſaid vice-conſulſhip, and when they carry proviſions thither.

SCIO.

The duty of anchorage for the ſhips which, going from the ports of France to Scio, ſhall unlade there, and thoſe which ſhall load in their return to France, or the foreign countries of Chriſtendom, ſhall be paid to the vice-conſul of the ſaid port, at the rate of ſeven piaſtres and a half per veſſel, and five piaſtres per bark.

Cruizers freighted by foreigners, or laden at the riſque of the captains and maſters, as before ſhewn, ſhall pay to the ſaid vice-conſul five piaſtres, all without diſtinction of veſſel, when they load or unload merchandizes, paſſengers, or proviſions, and not otherwiſe.

The vice-conſul ſhall continue to have 400 piaſtres paid him annually, by the French nation at the port of Smyrna, to bear thoſe expences with which he is charged.

MILO.

Veſſels coming from France, which ſhall unlade in the ports dependent on the ſaid conſulſhip, and thoſe which ſhall load there for the ports of France, or others of Chriſtendom; and thoſe cruizers which ſhall load or unload merchandizes, paſſengers, or proviſions, ſhall pay to the conſul of the ſaid port three piaſtres for all duties, without diſtinction of veſſel.

TINE and MICONE.

The conſul of Tine and Micone ſhall receive alſo three piaſtres for the whole duty, as well of ſhips which, coming from France, ſhall unload in the ports of the department, and thoſe which ſhall load to return to France, or other countries of Chriſtendom, as of cruizers, which ſhall take in merchandizes, paſſengers, or proviſions.

GENERAL REGULATIONS for all the ſaid ports.

All the duties before regulated in favour of the conſuls and vice-conſuls, named in the preſent regulation, ſhall be paid once only in the ſame voyage, even when the veſſel ſhall load in ſeveral ports, in the department of the ſame conſul or vice-conſul.

The ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall enjoy moreover the duties of Chancery, on the foot whereon they have been regulated in July 1692, on condition of providing thoſe with reaſonable ſalaries who ſhall devote themſelves to the buſineſs of the Chancery, &c.

In conſequence whereof, his majeſty forbids the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, under pain of extortion, and of being deprived of their office, to demand any duty of anchorage, or other, of ſhips which do not arrive at the ports and roads of their department but by force, and only to touch there, and do not lade or unlade any merchandize or paſſengers, nor carry thither proviſions.

In like manner, and under the ſame penalties, he forbids the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls to demand any other duties whatever.

His majeſty alſo forbids all captains and maſters of French ſhips, their traders and freighters, to deprive the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls of the duties appropriated by the preſent regulation; enjoining them to bring with them their acquittal for the ſame, under pain of four times the ſum, and three months impriſonment.

The captains and maſters of ſhips ſhall continue to pay the Turks the duties eſtabliſhed by cuſtom in favour of the officers, and others of the country; of which duties the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls ſhall keep a table in the ſaid Chanceries.

His majeſty enjoins and commands Monſ. the count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, to have ſtrict regard to the execution of the preſent regulation, and cauſe the ſame to be read, publiſhed, and regiſtered, wherever needful, &c.—Done at Marly, the 28th of February, 1732.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

The ordonnance of December, 1732, regulates the rank and place that the chancellors of the conſulſhip of the ports of the Levant ſhall have in the public ceremonies; which we ſhall paſs over.

An arrêt of the council of ſtate, relating to the merchandizes in pacotilles *, as the French term them, which the captains, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers carry into the Levant, as well for their own account as for that of the freighters, &c. March 1733.

'It having been repreſented to the king in council, that the French merchants eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant continue to complain of the infinite prejudice done to the trade of the nation in the ports of the Levant, for the cuſtom of the captains, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers carrying merchandizes in pacotilles, either for their account, or that of their freighters to their addreſs: his majeſty has judged neceſſary to cauſe thoſe memorials to be laid before him that have been ſent on this matter, as well by the Sieur marquis de Villeneufe, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, as by the conſuls of the ſaid ports, and the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles: among the various methods that have been propoſed to his majeſty, nothing has appeared more reaſonable than to take for the future ſuch precautions, which, without depriving the ſaid captains, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, of the liberty they have of carrying merchandizes in pacotilles into the Levant, may nevertheleſs prevent the abuſes ariſing therefrom, and put a ſtop to thoſe complaints that have been long made, and, being willing to explain his intentions upon this occaſion, the king being in council hath ordained as follows:

* This is a term in the French marine commerce, ſignifying a certain weight, or quantity of merchandizes, which the officers and ſailors are permitted to carry in their cheſts, to trade in for their own account.—It pays no freight, either in carrying out or in the returns made. It is rarely mentioned in the contract, it being a particular and verbal agreement, made between the ſailors and owners of merchantmen, particularly thoſe deſigned for foreign trade in long voyages.

ARTICLE I.

The captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers of French ſhips, carrying into the ports of the Levant merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of their freighters, ſhall be obliged for the future, from the day of the publication of the preſent arrêt, to ſell them to the French nation eſtabliſhed in the ſaid ports, and to purchaſe of them the merchandizes which they ſhall want in return; his majeſty expreſsly prohibits them from buying or ſelling any kind of merchandizes in the ſaid ports where there are French merchants eſtabliſhed, making a body of the nation, on pain of confiſcation of the ſaid merchandizes, and a fine of 500 livres, for every one who ſhall violate this arrêt: the ſaid captains and maſters ſhall alſo be diſqualified for ever acting in the ſaid capacity again.

II.

The French nation of the ſeveral ſaid ports ſhall be obliged to take for their account, at 10 per cent. under the current price, merchandizes of the ſaid captains and maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, and to ſupply them with the value thereof, either in money or ſuch merchandizes, as they ſhall require in return, at 4 per cent. above the current price in the ſaid port: his majeſty wills and ordains that the profit ariſing

as well from the diminution of the 10 per cent. on the price of goods imported, as on the augmentation of 4 per cent. upon thoſe merchandizes exported, ſhall be added to the national caſh, to diſcharge the expences of the port.

III.

Since the merchandizes carried by the ſaid captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, ſhall be paid for by the nation charged therewith, either in money or merchandize, and that, among the ſaid imported merchandizes, there are ſome who ſell them at a diſtant time, a diſcount being allowed for prompt payment: his majeſty ordains, that, upon the merchandizes imported and ſo ſold, the nation ſhall retain the uſual diſcount, independent of the 10 per cent. mentioned in the preceding article.

IV.

His majeſty alſo wills and ordains, that, if any one of the ſaid captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, buys or ſells merchandizes, in violating of the preſent regulation, the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the ſaid ports ſhall cauſe the ſaid merchandizes to be ſeized, and order the confiſcation thereof, together with the fines to be placed to the national caſh, for the uſe of the port.

V.

His majeſty nevertheleſs ordains, that the ſaid captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, ſhall buy and ſell themſelves merchandizes, in thoſe ports where there are no French merchants eſtabliſhed, making a body of the nation.

VI.

His majeſty moreover wills that the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles doth continue to take cognizance of all the merchandizes which ſhall come from the Levant for the account of the captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, alſo of the ordinary duties; even thoſe of the averages of the port, if they have not been diſcharged, as likewiſe in the caſe where the ſaid captains, maſters, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers, ſhall carry the merchandizes which they have brought in violation thereof, and unknown to the conſuls in the ſaid ports; and where there are French merchants eſtabliſhed as a body of the nation, the ſaid chamber of commerce ſhall have a ſtrict eye upon the violators, to cauſe them to be condemned in the pains and penalties hereby enacted.

His majeſty orders and commands that all officers any way concerned herein have due regard to the execution of this arrêt, &c.—Done at the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty being preſent, held at Verſailles the 17th of March, 1733.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, concerning the duties of the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone.—Of May 1733.

'The regulations of the 28th of February, 1732, being repreſented to his majeſty, whereby the duties of the conſuls and vice-conſuls are ſettled in the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone, without mentioning that which the conſuls and vice-conſuls uſually require at the rate of 4 per cent. on the price of the freight which the captains and maſters of French ſhips make in their ports: and judging that the reduction of this duty, the foundation whereof is the care of the conſuls and vice-conſuls have with regard to the ſaid freights, and the advantage thereby reaped by the ſaid captains and maſters, the receipt thereof ſhall be made for the mutual advantage of the ſeveral parties: his majeſty ordains that the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the ſaid ports, who have not appointments paid them by the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, ſhall receive for the future 2 per cent. only upon the price of the freights which the captains and maſters of the French ſhips ſhall make in their reſpective ports; forbidding the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls to exact the ſaid duty to a higher rate, and the ſaid captains and maſters not to defraud the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls thereof, under the pains and penalties enacted in the regulation of the 28th of February, 1732, which his majeſty requires ſhall be executed according to the form and tenor thereof.—His majeſty commands all officers concerned herein to ſee to the due execution hereof.—Done at Verſailles, the 27th of May 1733.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, forbidding the French merchants to conſign, directly or indirectly, merchandizes, fruits, or proviſions, to foreigners eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant.—Of February 1735.

'His majeſty being informed that the French merchants trading to the Levant make uſe of the names of ſtrangers eſtabliſhed at Marſeilles, or in other ports of the kingdom, to cauſe their merchandizes to be conſigned to other ſtrangers ſettled in the ports of the Levant, who ſhall be ordered to ſell them for the account of the ſaid French merchants, and make the returns to them: his majeſty, deſirous to prevent an abuſe equally prejudicial to the intereſts of his ſubjects and to the advantage of the commerce of the Levant, his majeſty expreſsly forbids all French merchants, and other his ſubjects trading there, to conſign, either directly or indirectly, either by themſelves or others, any ſort of merchandizes, fruits, or proviſions, even in pacotilles, to the commiſſioners, or foreign merchants, eſtabliſhed in the ſaid ports of the Levant, on pain of confiſcation of the ſame, and a fine of 10,000 livres, one half to go to the informer; and, even for the firſt default, the ſaid French merchants ſhall be for ever after rendered incapable of following the ſaid commerce of the Levant, and puniſhed alſo according to the exigencies of the caſe.

His majeſty commands all perſons in office to have due regard to the execution hereof.—Done at Verſailles, the 2d of February, 1735.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

An arrêt of the council of ſtate, concerning the impoſition of a duty of average of 1 per cent. for three years, upon the merchandizes which ſhall be carried to the ports of the Levant.—Of February, 1736.

'The king having permitted the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of the commerce at Marſeilles to borrow, for the term of three years, the ſum of 180,000 livres, with ſtipulations of intereſt at 5 per cent. to diſcharge all the debts contracted by the nation at the ports of the Levant, for which the ſaid nation pays a conſiderable intereſt, which is a burthen upon commerce: and his majeſty deſiring to put the ſaid chamber in a condition to reimburſe the ſaid ſum of 180,000 livres, in the ſame term of three years, by means of a moderate average-duty on importation, which has been propoſed to be laid upon merchandizes which are carried into the ports of the Levant: his majeſty having ſeen the reſolution of the aſſembly held upon that ſubject by the ſaid chamber, the 23d of January laſt, and the ſentiments of the Sieur Icard, inſpector of that commerce; having heard the report, and conſidered the whole, his majeſty, being in council, has ordained as follows:

ARTICLE I.

There ſhall be raiſed in every port of the Levant, during the ſpace of three years, reckoning from the day of publication of the preſent arrêt, 1 per cent. average at importation upon all the merchandizes which ſhall be carried thither from France and foreign countries, by French ſhips, or others that carry on that trade under the protection of France.

II.

The ports of Morea and Barbary, and thoſe of the Archipelago.—[ſee ARCHIPELAGO] of Satalia, and others where there are no French merchants eſtabliſhed, making a body of the nation, ſhall be excepted from the ſaid impoſition.

III.

His majeſty wills and ordains, that the piaſtres, ſequins, and other foreign ſpecies, ſhall not be liable to the ſame duty of average at importation; which ſhall be received on our merchandizes, in conformity to the tariff of the ſettlement of the price thereof, which ſhall be raiſed by the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and ſent by the deputies of the nation for this purpoſe into the ſaid ports.

IV.

His majeſty ordains that the ſaid deputies ſhall receive the ſaid duty of average at importation, in the ſame manner as the duty of average is at exportation, and appropriated to the chamber of commerce; and they ſhall keep a ſeparate account of the product of the ſaid duty, which ſhall be balanced every ſix months, in the preſence of the conſul.

V.

His majeſty enjoins all captains and maſters of French ſhips, or foreigners which ſhall be under the protection of France in the ports of the Levant, to preſent, within 24 hours after arrival, the policies and manifeſtoes of their loading, to the conſuls and deputies of the nation; and juſtly and faithfully to declare the quantity of merchandizes with which their veſſels are laden, under pain of confiſcation of thoſe not ſo declared, and a fine of 1000 livres.

VI.

If any merchant is found to evade the ſaid duty, be it either in ſupplying counterfeit manifeſtoes, or otherwiſe, his majeſty wills and ordains, that, beſides the confiſcation of the merchandizes, he ſhall be compelled to pay a fine of 3000 livres; and, if he is a trader reſident in the Levant, he ſhall be ſent back into France: the whole to be applied, viz. one-third to the informer, one-third to the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and the remainder to the hoſpital of the ſaid city of Marſeilles.

VII.

His majeſty means and intends that the ſaid duty ſhall ceaſe before the expiration of the term of three years, for which it is eſtabliſhed, if it produce, before that time, wherewith to diſcharge the ſum of 180,000 livres, borrowed by the ſaid chamber of commerce, and the intereſt of the ſame, which likewiſe muſt be diſcharged out of the ſaid duty: for which purpoſe it is ordained, that the ſaid chamber and the conſuls

shall render an exact account of the receipt which shall be made in the ports of the Levant.

VIII.

His majesty wills and ordains, that the said chamber of commerce shall keep a separate account of the product and application of the said duty; which account shall be annually balanced by the Sieur Icard, inspector of this commerce, whom his majesty enjoins to have due regard to the execution of the present arrêt.—Done at the council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 25th of February, 1736.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, permitting French ships to be consigned to merchant-strangers established in the ports of the Levant, in case they are entirely freighted by foreigners.—Of April 1737.

'His majesty being informed that the merchants of different nations who are settled in the ports of the Levant, would be more induced, than they really are, to freight French ships, by their correspondents in the ports of Italy and other foreign countries, where they find them, if the said ships might be directed and consigned to them: and his majesty's ambassador at Constantinople having also informed him, that such consignment made to foreign merchants, of French ships freighted by foreigners, would not be detrimental to the French merchants established in the said ports of the Levant: his majesty, considering the 31st article of the declaration of the 21st of October, 1727, hath permitted, and doth permit, that the ships of his subjects may be addressed and consigned to foreign merchants established in the ports of the Levant, in the case only when the said ships shall be wholly freighted by foreigners.—His majesty orders and commands Monsr. the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, and the Sieur marquis De Villeneufe, ambassador at Constantinople, to have due regard to the execution of the present ordonnance, which shall be registered in the rolls of the admiralty of Provence and Languedoc, and read, published, and fixed up wherever needful.—Done at Versailles, the 23d of April, 1737.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

An arrêt of the council of state, establishing, to commence the 1st of April, 1739, that the duty of average at importation, the raising of which was ordained by the arrêt of the 25th of February, 1736, shall be suppressed in all the ports of the Levant.—Of December 1738.

'The arrêt of council of the 25th of February, 1736, being laid before the king in his council of state, by which his majesty ordained that there should be raised, in each of the ports of the Levant, during the term of three years, reckoning from the day that the said arrêt should be received and made public, a duty of 1 per cent. average of importation upon all merchandizes which shall be carried thither from France and foreign countries, by French ships, or others carrying on trade under the protection of France: and his majesty having caused the accounts to be examined, which, since the establishment of the said duty, have been given in by the deputies of the nation in the ports of the Levant, and by the chamber of commerce, and settled by the Sieur Icard, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, in conformity to the 7th and 8th articles of the said arrêt: and having found that, the said duty being received 'till the 31st of March, 1739, ensuing, the product thereof will be sufficient to reimburse the sum of 180,000 livres, which his majesty had permitted the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles to borrow, for the said term of three years, in order to discharge all the debts contracted by the nation in the ports of the Levant: his majesty, conformable to the 7th article of the said arrêt, ordaining that the said duty should cease, for the eafement of his subjects trading to the Levant, although the said three years, reckoning from the day such receipt of duty commenced, should not be absolutely expired:—Having seen the representation of the Sieur Icard, the king, being in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, that, on the first day of April, in the year ensuing, 1739, the duty of average on importation shall be suppressed in all the ports of the Levant; that the merchandizes which shall be exported thither from France and foreign countries, shall be disencumbered from the payment of the said imposition: his majesty prohibits the consuls and deputies of the nation in the said ports, and all others, from demanding the said duty; and ordains, that the total of the amount of the receipt of the said duty, which shall be made during the six last months of the present year, and 'till the said 31st day of the month of March next, there shall be delivered, by the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, a definitive account of the produce and appropriation of the said duty, which shall be balanced by the said Sieur Icard—His majesty commands the Sieur marquis de Villeneufe, counsellor of state, his ambassador at the Port, also the Sieur Icard, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, and the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, to have a strict regard to the execution of the present arrêt: he also enjoins the consuls of the nation, in the ports of the

Levant, to cause the same to be made public, and registered in their Chanceries, and to see the same executed.—Done at the king's council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 12th of December, 1738.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.'

On the 18th of January, 1749, an arrêt was issued for the regulation of policies of assurance passed before the signing the preliminaries of peace, with regard to ships employed in the commerce of the ports of the Levant, and regulating the premiums to be allowed to the insurers, in those cases mentioned in the arrêt of the 12th of July, 1748.—But, this * being too long to insert here, we shall defer it to the article POLICY of ASSURANCE.

* This arrêt also shews what extraordinary care the French have taken of this branch of trade, in the most minute circumstance.

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all subjects who reside in the ports of the Levant and Barbary to possess themselves of any real estates.—July 1749.

'His majesty being informed that, notwithstanding the prohibitions made, none of his subjects resident in the ports of the Levant and Barbary should possess themselves of real estates, many of them are actually in possession of houses, lands, and gardens, which they pretend to have been obliged to accept in payment for debts due to them by the subjects of the Grand Seignior: and experience having manifested that this kind of property influences their residence in Turkey, prolongs their return into the kingdom at the term fixed for their residence, and gives room to litigations dangerous to the safety and tranquility of the nation: his majesty judges necessary to declare more precisely his intentions upon this subject, and, in consequence thereof, hath ordained, and doth ordain, as follows, viz.

ARTICLE I.

The consuls, chancellors, interpreters, merchants, artizans, and all other subjects of the king residing in Turkey and Barbary, shall be incapable, for the future, under any pretence whatsoever, to acquire real estate, by the way of purchase, cession, gift, or legacy, either lands, houses, gardens, rents, and other immoveables, under pain of being sent back without delay into France, and the loss of the said properties; which shall be appropriated to the body of the nation, in order to be sold, according to the laws of the country, and the amount to be remitted to the national cash of the port, to be applied to their expences ordinary and extraordinary.

II.

His majesty orders those of his subjects who possess real estates, to get rid of them as soon as possible; and, in order to prevent loss in the sale thereof, his majesty grants them 'till the 1st of January, 1751, after which term the said proprietors, or possessors, shall be liable to the penalties inflicted in the preceding article.

III.

His majesty declares that, in the present prohibition, the dwelling-house of his ambassador residing at Constantinople shall not be included, nor the dwelling-houses of the consuls, the chapels, church-yards, nor the hospital for missionaries; which the nation and the said missionaries shall continue to enjoy as heretofore, in conforming themselves, nevertheless, to what is prescribed, in respect hereunto, by the capitulations made with the Ottoman Port, and the particular orders of his majesty.

IV.

His majesty, notwithstanding, permits the French residing in Turkey and Barbary, in case of death, flight, bankruptcy of their debtors, and in default of payment, to enter their action against the immoveables, and to pursue the sale thereof 'till the absolute payment of their debts; expressly forbidding them to accept and keep such effects by way of mortgage, in order to enjoy their revenues.

V

His majesty, in like manner, forbids all his subjects from taking a farm, or the administration of lands, houses, or duties of custom belonging to the Grand Seignior, or his subjects, under any pretext whatsoever: ordaining that those who are encumbered therewith, may rather recede from their agreement, under pain of being sent back, and rigorously punished in France.

VI.

His majesty, however, permits his subjects, but only in case of absolute necessity, to take in payment the harvest, or the produce of one or several years, provided that they do not exceed the number of those fixed for the time of their residence in the Levant.

VII.

His majesty most expressly forbids all religious missionaries, French or foreigners, residing in Turkey under his protection, from making any acquisition or augmentation of house or chapel, without having first obtained the consent of his

majesty,

majeſty, and the approbation of the Ottoman Port, which ſhall not be ſollicited but through the interpoſition of his ambaſſador at Conſtantinople.

His majeſty enjoins the Sieur Deſalleurs, his ambaſſador at the Ottoman Port, the Sieur Pignon, inſpector of the commerce of the Levant, the ſheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, and all the conſuls of the French nation reſiding in Turkey and Barbary, to have all due regard to the execution of the preſent ordonnance, which ſhall be read, publiſhed, fixed up, and regiſtered wherever needful.

—Done at Compeigne, the 6th of July, 1749.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath ROÜILLE.'

REMARKS.

Theſe are the principal royal arrêts, edicts, ordonnances, and declarations, iſſued from the year 1665, by authority, for the regulation of the Levant trade belonging to the kingdom of France: whence a good judgment may be made from FACTS, to what cauſes the preſent flouriſhing ſtate and condition of that trade may be juſtly attributed: and, without a diſtinct and minute knowledge of theſe meaſures, it is not poſſible for any one to have a true idea of the policy of that nation in this reſpect. A general ſuperficial knowledge that the French take this or that meaſure alone for the regulation of their Turkey trade, will give no ſatisfactory idea of that ſeries of policy which they have obſerved for near this century paſt; and, without that, we can, perhaps, make no right judgment of the regulations neceſſary for our own Turkey trade, for want of a true knowledge of the wiſdom of France and other nations in managing theirs.

From the tenor of theſe regulations, the judicious reader will eaſily diſcern the neceſſity of conſulting the articles CONSUL, CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and MARSEILLES; to which latter place we more particularly refer under the article PROVENCE in France, that being the capital city, where the French Levant trade is carried on, and where the regulations are made of the ſeveral ſpecies of merchandizes for that commerce.

Of the regulations of the Dutch, in regard to their commerce of the Levant.

Smyrna is the principal factory of the Hollanders in the dominions of the Grand Seignior.

The Hollanders have at Smyrna a conſul, a treaſurer, three aſſiſtant judges, and a chancellor. The conſul and treaſurer may not continue in place above three years; they are, nevertheleſs, very often continued, when their adminiſtration gives content; but they muſt obtain their confirmation by a new patent.

With reſpect to the aſſiſtant judges, their employ is annual; they are propoſed by the three aſſiſtants in office, the conſul and the treaſurer, to the directors of the commerce of the Levant eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam, which commonly approve of them, and make choice of one of the three ancients to continue for the following year: he is called the firſt aſſiſtant, and the other two the new aſſiſtants.

The ordonnances, regulations, and the inſtructions of the direction of Amſterdam, which are ſent to the Levant, as well as the diſpatches of the ambaſſador of the republic reſiding at the Port, are always directed to the conſul, treaſurer, and aſſiſtants, but cannot be opened but by the conſul in full aſſembly, and in preſence of the other officers, or at leaſt of two aſſiſtants, if the third and the treaſurer happen to be abſent: the ſame is obſerved alſo when any public expence becomes neceſſary for deliberation, or to ſubſcribe other reſolutions taken in relation to commerce, which are thereby authenticated and executed, when they are ſigned by the conſul and two of the ſaid five officers.

When it is requiſite to have an aſſembly of the body of the nation, the chancellor and a druggerman [ſee DRUGGERMAN] apprize the merchants of it: when aſſembled, the conſul communicates the occaſion of their meeting, and the chancellor reads, with a loud voice, the memorials concerning the ſame; after which, the matter is decided by the plurality of votes; but the execution is referred to the conſul and the aſſiſtants.

The treaſurer ſhould always be preſent at the aſſemblies when any diſburſements of money are required; and whatever is reſolved on this head without him, may not be executed, but is declared null and void.

The differences between merchants are laid before the conſul, and are judged of by the plurality of voices, as well by him as by his aſſiſtants. Appeals from their judgment are carried before the ambaſſador reſiding at Conſtantinople, from the ambaſſador to the directors of the commerce of the Levant eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam, and from the directors to the ſtates-general; ſo that there are four degrees of juriſdiction in regard to theſe commercial deciſions.

Ordonnances made by the conſul, without the interpoſition of the aſſiſtants, are invalid.

When the conſul is called before the cadi, the officers of the cuſtoms, the captain-pacha, or other Turkiſh miniſters, before they go, they muſt aſſemble the nation to deliberate upon the matter in agitation, and take ſuitable reſolutions: afterwards the conſul negociates the affair, 'till it's concluſion.

If the conſul is cited before the adjudicatory of the country, he goes accompanied with his whole nation, and requires a copy of the demands, in order previouſly to deliberate thereupon in their aſſembly.

In caſe of the conſul's death, the ambaſſador nominates one, but only proviſionally. With reſpect to the employs of the Treaſury and Chancery, it is left to the conſul and his aſſiſtants, to appoint others; but this is in like manner, according to the pleaſure of the directors at Amſterdam.

The duty of conſulage is due for whatever is laden or unladen, either in merchandizes or ready money; the latter at the rate of 1 per cent. at importation or exportation, the other upon the footing of 2 per cent.

When there is a great deal of money in caſh, the duty of conſulage is reduced to one half, that is to ſay, to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the money, and 1 per cent. for the merchandizes; but that can be done only with the permiſſion of the directors of Amſterdam, according to the repreſentation of the conſul, the Treaſury, and the aſſiſtants, in the name of the whole nation, certifying that the demand of the merchants, in ſuch caſe, is juſt.

If, on the contrary, the caſh is exhauſted by the avanies of the Turks [ſee the beginning of this article] or by extraordinary expences, which ſometimes happen, the duties of conſulage are doubled; whereby ready money pays 2 per cent. and the merchandizes 4 per cent.

Foreigners who trade under the banner of Holland, never pay more or leſs than 2 per cent.

The treaſurer, or his deputy, are charged with the recovery of the duty of conſulage, which is required in the following manner:

Foreigners pay in white money, viz. in lion-piaſtres, the duty on merchandizes imported: in relation to ready money, the duty is taken in the ſame ſpecie.

The quantity of ready money is verified on board the ſhips, before unladen. The conſul, treaſurer, and aſſiſtants examine the ſame, bag by bag, whence they take ſome of the ſpecie, which being found of good ſtandard, they are again put into the bags, that are ſealed with the ſeal of the chancery, and afterwards the debarkation is allowed, which for the money, muſt be done all at one time. If there is any counterfeit ſpecies, it is ſequeſtered in the chancery.

Foreigners, after the departure of convoy, pay the duty of conſulage according to the tariff and bills of lading; copies whereof, after being ſigned by the captain, muſt be carried to the Treaſury.

The Dutch merchants are obliged, eight days after the departure of the convoy, to give a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandizes which they have received and loaded, and pay the conſulage-duty thereof in white money. They are generally allowed a diſcount of 6 per cent. by which they pay 94 only for 100; but, if they do not pay at the time when it is due, that is, in the month, or later, there is added to the 94 one per cent. for as many months as they poſtpone the payment: they are, however, not permitted to defer payment longer than ſix months, after which the conſul may proſecute, and oblige them to pay, or impriſon their perſons.

When the duties of conſulage are paid at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and Chio, there is liberty to ſend the merchandizes where you will; but, when they go to other places, or come from them, the conſulage is due.

The Hollanders, and thoſe under their protection muſt pay the conſulage according to the money there is in caſh, as before obſerved; but they do not pay double, either for exports or imports, on thoſe ſhips which trade under the protection of other countries, which is called the foreign conſulage: they are, nevertheleſs, obliged to pay, in the ſame manner, and under the ſame penalties, as for the merchandizes which are laden upon Dutch ſhips.

Once a year, the treaſurer, his deputy, and the whole nation, go in ceremony to church, where, after ſermon and pſalm-ſinging, they all take an oath, according to the formulary, read aloud in the congregation by the chancellor, which is, not to defraud the conſular power, either directly or indirectly, of any of the duties of conſulage, nor of any thing relating thereunto, on pain of a fine of 1000 crowns, and to be ſent away, if found perjured, and even to ſuffer other pains and penalties, if the ſtates judge proper.

Thoſe who reveal the ſecrets of the national aſſembly, are ſubject to a like chaſtiſement.

Captains, pilots, and cap-merchants, on their arrival at Smyrna, and before their departure, and before they have delivered their manifeſtoes and declarations to the conſul, are obliged to take the ſame oath, under the ſame penalties: and, moreover, the captains, found violating, are diſqualified for commanding any veſſel for ſix years.

The treaſurer keeps poſſeſſion, in the chancery, of all the money with which he is charged, reſerving ſome for common expences. The cheſt wherein the caſh is kept is of iron, with three keys, one of which is kept by the conſul, another by the aſſiſtants, and the third by the treaſurer.

No one but the treaſurer knows what money there is, for which he is not obliged to give account but to the directors of the Levant eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam. The aſſiſtants of Smyrna examine, nevertheleſs, all the receipts and expences made, and aſcertain the ſame according to the declarations of the merchants, the manifeſtoes of captains, and by what has been received or charged by foreigners by every convoy, or otherwiſe.

The treaſurer pays every three months, in money of due weight, with an agio of 10 per cent. viz.

	Piaſtres.
To the ambaſſador per annum, for his maintenance	10,000
To the conſul, ditto - - - - - - - - - -	4,000
To the treaſurer, retained in his hands - -	1,400
	15,400
Which ſum of 15,400 piaſtres, with an agio of 10 per cent. makes, in white money, that is to ſay, in lion or aſlani piaſtres [ſee ASLANI] which are of the current money of the country	16,940
More to the firſt druggerman [ſee DRUGGERMAN]	300
To the ſecond, ditto - - - - - -	300
To the third, ditto - - - - - -	150
To the chancellor - - - - - -	200
To three janiſſaries, beſides three veſts of London cloth - - - - - - - -	240
To the ſame every new year's-day	36
To the druggermen alſo for new year's gifts	36
In the whole	18,202

The treaſurer pays all the expences made at the port and at Conſtantinople, as well for preſents as for the voyages of Adrianople and others, which he reimburſes to the ambaſſador, and at Smyrna to the conſul.

The vice-treaſurer, who reſides at Conſtantinople, ſends to the treaſurer at Smyrna an account of expences that he has made, which he reimburſes, after having the ſame examined and approved by the aſſiſtants and the nation aſſembled: this aſſembly is called the aſſembly of the aſſiſtants.

The ambaſſador is obliged to pay the rent of his houſe, where he gives a room to hold the national caſh. He is alſo obliged to pay the chancellor, the druggermen, and the janiſſaries of Conſtantinople, and all other expences that regard the maintenance of his houſe and domeſtics.

The conſul of Smyrna is obliged to the ſame things, with reſerve to the appointments of the chancellor, the miniſter, the druggermen, and janiſſaries, who are paid by the treaſurer, out of the money in caſh.

The directors of the Levant trade ariſing at Amſterdam are to the number of 17. According to their inſtitution, there ſhould be three from every province; but cuſtom has made it common for ſome to have only two, and others but one. They hold the quality of miniſters, or counſellors, to the States-General, in regard to the commercial affairs of the Levant; and their power is next of kin to ſovereign in that caſe, and yet under the authority of the States. It is a place of honour, but of no profit; and the States-General chuſe only the moſt ſkilful and honourable merchants into it.

The treaſurer of Smyrna ſends every year, to the directors, an account of all expences incurred, and another of the receipt of the duties of conſulage. with the balance of the caſh-account. The firſt account contains the appointments, the avanies, the preſents, the expence of meſſengers; in fine, generally ſpeaking, it contains whatever has been expended for the ſervice of the nation, and utility of it's commerce. They ſend alſo, to the directors, the copy of the manifeſtoes, or declarations of all the ſhips, and accounts in particular of the duties of conſulage, the whole being examined, and certified by the aſſiſtant; and, if they find any error to the diſadvantage of the caſh-account, the treaſurer is reſponſible for the ſame.

All the money in caſh, the expences firſt acquitted, remains in the hands of the treaſurer. The directors have ſometimes cauſed the money to be ſent to Amſterdam, and would have eſtabliſhed this cuſtom for a conſtancy; but the body of the merchants in the Levant complaining to the States-General, and remonſtrating that the ſurpluſage of the caſh ought to be appropriated to their advantage, in leſſening the duty of conſulage, ſince they were to make the augmentation, when it fell ſhort: the States ordered, that, for the future, the ſurpluſage of the funds ſhould remain in the Levant, to be applied to eaſe the national expence.

There are at Smyrna eight or ten conſiderable houſes of trade, of which the Dutch factory is conſtituted, and who uphold the whole traffic.

All the ſubjects of the United Provinces are permitted to export merchandizes for the Levant, whether the armateurs put themſelves under the protection of convoy, or chuſe to purſue the voyage alone. The chief thing which they are obliged to obſerve is, that the ſhips carry 28 pieces of cannon, and 50 men, as well in time of peace as war.

For the due execution of this regulation, there is a commiſſary eſtabliſhed in the Texel, to viſit all ſhips intended for the Levant trade; and, if their armament is not agreeable to the aboveſaid regulation, the captain, who commands the ſhip, is mulct in the penalty of 2000 crowns for the firſt time; and, in caſe of repetition of the like violation, beſides the ſaid fine, the captain is caſhiered, and the ſhip is ſequeſtered 'till a new captain is provided.

When a convoy departs, the directors of the Levant trade require of the commiſſioners of the admiralty the number of men of war neceſſary to convoy the merchantmen, which is always granted, the armament being at the expence of the admiralty, by reaſon of the duty of 1 per cent. on the value of the loading of the veſſels, that they receive from all thoſe who enter into the ports of the State, either under convoy or otherwiſe.

The convoys that go to the Levant, commonly touch in all the ports of Spain, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Meſſina, and ſtay as many days as are neceſſary to load and unload, which is alſo regulated.

They follow the ſame orders when they are at Smyrna; but, if it happens that the merchantmen cannot be ready by the time appointed, which is generally of 90 days in time of peace, in this caſe the merchants of Smyrna, and the captains of their ſhips, preſent a petition to the conſul, the treaſurer, and the aſſiſtants, to prevail on the commandant of the convoy to ſtay till they are ready; to which he agrees if he thinks proper; though he is ſometimes permitted to ſail, if he has reaſons for ſo doing.

When the commanding officer of the convoy makes a difficulty of ſtaying for the merchantmen, by reaſon of the preciſe orders which he has received from the admiralty, all the nation oblige themſelves to indemnify the expence of his extraordinary ſtay; which otherwiſe may be thrown upon him, beſides the reproach that he may be liable to, on his return to Holland, for diſobeying his orders.

At the return of the convoys to Holland, the commandants give the journal of their voyage to the ſollicitor-general of the admiralty; who, diſapproving the days extraordinary of his ſtay, throws all the expence upon that officer, who is obliged to pay it, provided, as before hinted, he is not indemnified by the body of the nation in the Levant.

It is likewiſe the buſineſs of the ſollicitor-general of the admiralty to inform againſt the captains of men of war who have carried on contraband trade; and it is at his requiſition that they are condemned in a fine for the violation of the regulations in this reſpect, which ſtrictly forbid and puniſh a conduct of this kind. They are, indeed, allowed to lade money, either in ſpecie or bars, becauſe that does not encumber the ſhip in caſe of an engagement.

As it may happen that the men of war may be ſeparated from the merchantmen, the admiralty have a cuſtom of chuſing, among the captains who command the latter, firſt and ſecond commandants, whom the others are obliged to obey.

Ships of convoy, and generally all thoſe that come to Smyrna under the banner of Holland, pay 80 aſlani dollars anchorage, which are diſtributed partly to the cadi and governor of the caſtle, and partly among the druggermen and janiſſaries of the nation. There are alſo ſome reſerved for the ſlaves, and ſupport of a ſermon and church-yard. This diſtribution is made according to the pleaſure of the conſul.

The body of the nation forbid the lending of ſhips to the Turks; and, when they demand them, the captains excuſe themſelves under ſome pretext, which frequently diſguſts the Turks. It nevertheleſs ſometimes happens, that they take them by force; which muſt be ſubmitted to, leſt greater avanies ſhould follow.

Of the general nature of the Turkey trade in the Levant.

Though the Turks are no traders, but rather diſcouragers and deſtroyers of trade, yet, as they poſſeſs ſo great a part of the world, and ſome of the moſt fruitful, and productive of the beſt and choiceſt merchandizes, it will always induce the European parts of the world to ſend their merchants amongſt the Turks, to traffic with them.

The Turks themſelves, by their indolence and haughtineſs, deſpiſing manufacturing, and not improving the product which they enjoy, in many places, muſt neceſſarily be obliged to purchaſe of other nations the things that they ſtand in need of; which naturally encourages the merchants of other nations to come among them.

Thoſe that ſettle among them from the eaſtern part of the world, are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; thoſe from the weſtern parts are chiefly Venetians, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, with ſome Jews alſo, chiefly Italian.

The principal places of trade, on this ſide the Turkiſh dominions, reſpecting Europe, where the ſaid merchants reſide, are Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandretta, or Scanderoon, Alexandra, Tripoli, Antioch, and the iſlands on the coaſt.

There are ſome Chriſtian merchants in moſt of the iſlands belonging to the Turks, viz. at Cyprus, Candia, Rhodes, Zant, Cephalonia, and in moſt of the inhabited iſlands of the Ægean Sea, or Archipelago. [See ARCHIPELAGO]—Theſe merchants are generally French, though there are ſome Jews.

This

This commercial eſtabliſhment, by the way of factories, among the Turks, take the ſame altogether, is, in one general acceptation, called with us the Turkey trade: the manner of which trade is this, viz.

The merchants of England, France, and Holland, chiefly furniſh the Turks with fine woollen cloths, dyed ſcarlet, crimſon, purple, blue, and green; the firſt three in grain, and as rich in colour as poſſible, which raiſes their value.

The Engliſh, beſides their cloth, ſend block-tin, lead, clock-work and watch-work, both in gold and ſilver; and, all put together, the value was formerly for upwards of 300,000 l. ſterling, one year with another.

The returns which the Franks (for ſo the European Chriſtian merchants are called in Turkey) make from the Turks, and which are the product of the Turkiſh and Perſian dominions, are as follow, viz.

Raw ſilk: this, though the chief return of the whole trade, is not all the immediate produce of the Grand Seignior's dominions, but of the Perſians alſo. [See PERSIA.] It is brought from the country where it is produced to Aleppo, and from thence to Scanderoon, where the merchants trade for it.

The ſilk, thus brought raw in bales from Perſia, is ſherbaff, the Perſian word for raw ſilk, or, perhaps, for ſilk in general. When this ſherbaff ſilk is landed here, and comes into the hands of our manufacturers, it is called by a name of their own, legee. Beſides this, the Levant or Turkey merchants import another ſort of raw ſilk, which they call white ſilk, and our workmen belladine. This is ſhipped either at Cyprus or Scanderoon, on board the ſame Turkey ſhips that bring the other ſort of ſilk, but is produced in ſeveral diſtant parts of the Turkiſh dominions, as at Cyprus, at Antioch, and at Tripoli; that is, in the country adjacent to the ancient Syria, and in ſeveral of the iſlands of the Arches. The ſame ſort of ſilk is alſo ſhipped off at Smyrna.

This iſland ſilk is generally the product of the iſlands of Andros, Naxos, Zea, Thermia, Syra, Santorini, &c.

The quantity of ſilk imported formerly from theſe places, and as comprehended under the denomination of the Turkey trade, has been calculated at between 3 and 400,000 lb. weight, one year with another. That we may not ſpeak without book, the reader may take the following account, drawn from our Cuſtom-Houſe books.

Turkey ſilk imported in the port of London, in the ſeveral years 1720, 1722, and 1723.

Anno 1720	- - - - -	399,688 lb.
Anno 1721	None imported, the plague being that year in Turkey and France.	lb.
1722	- - - - -	374,401
1723	- - - - -	329,983

Note. Every pound weight in this account contains 24 ounces.

The importations for ſome years after correſponded pretty much with this proportion, except that, upon ſome occaſion, the trade met with an interruption, as in the time of the plague, and on occaſion of war. What is the ſtate of the Turkey trade at preſent, compared with what it has been, we have not room to ſhew under this head; and, therefore, ſhall be obliged to refer to the articles ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE; under which two heads, with what we have here ſaid, will be comprehended whatever is needful, in order to form a right judgment of this commerce, and of what may be further requiſite to render it more beneficial to this nation in particular. To proceed.

The other importations are,

2. Wool and yarn.
- Carmania wool, and wool of the iſlands,
- Grogram yarn, Mohair yarn, } that is, goat's hair, ſpun or twiſted,
- Cotton wool, Cotton yarn, } from almoſt all the iſlands of the Ægean Sea.

3. Gums, ſuch as gum
- Dragant,
- Sandrac,
- Seneca,
- Arabic,
- Sarcocolla.

4. Manufactures.
- Perſian ſilks,
- Carpets,
- Burdets,
- Callicoes, from the iſlands of Siphanto, Paros, &c.
- Cordevans,
- Shagreen-ſkins.

5. Drugs, dye-ſtuffs, earths, &c.
- Galls from Syria,
- Coffee from Mocha, by Alexandria,
- Balm,
- Natural balſam
- Rhubarb, from Perſia,
- Sal ammoniac,
- Turmeric from Perſia,
- Incenſe,
- Pumices from Santorini,
- Storax { Calamita, Liquida } from Samos,
- Scammony,
- Myrrh,
- Manna,
- Galbanum,
- Sena,
- Aloes hepatica,
- Olibanum,
- Zedoary,
- Eſquinethes,
- Hypoaſtri,
- Aceatrice,
- Oker, Emery-ſtone, Bolus, an earth, Adrachne, } all at Samos,
- Valonia, or velani, from the iſland of Zea,
- Coloquintida,
- Euphorbium,
- Mirabolans,
- Hypococuana, Frankincenſe, } from Perſia and Egypt,
- Maſtic, from Scio and Naxos,
- Opium, cum aliis.

6. Liquids.
- Viſney,
- Arac,
- Jallap,
- Orange flower-water,
- Vermecelli,
- Turpentine.

7. Seeds.
- Worm-ſeed,
- Clover-ſeed,
- Garden-ſeeds,
- Rice.

8. Fruits.
- Figs,
- Piſtachas,
- Raiſins of Smyrna,
- Pomegranates.

9. Woods.
- Box-wood,
- Cypreſs-wood,
- Fuſtic,
- Ebony,
- Walnut-tree.

Theſe are the principal productions with which the merchants of Europe trade among the Turks in this part of Aſia: the number of drugs may, perhaps, be greater than what are here mentioned, but theſe are the moſt conſiderable.

The chief articles are the ſilk, which comes from Georgia and Perſia, the wool, the hair, and the galls.

The cotton, as well in wool as in yarn, and alſo moſt of the goat's hair, is the product of the iſlands on the Aſian ſide of the Archipelago, and thoſe alſo of the European ſide. Some of the ſilk likewiſe comes that way to us, from Zea, Andros, Timor, Paros, Argenter, Naxos, Santorini, Syra, Thermia, and many others. Alſo from the iſland of Mycone come ſome goat's-hair and cordevans.

Theſe ſerve for the bulk of the trade; the others, perhaps, are equally uſeful in their kind, but not of equal value in general commerce.

As the Turks have little or no trade but what is, as it were, forced by the Europeans and others, ſo they have but few ſhips, compared to the extent of their naval dominions: the chiefeſt of their ſhipping is among the Grecian iſlands, and theſe are ſuch as belong to the Greeks of thoſe iſlands, not to the Turks. Alſo in the Morea and in the Black Sea they have ſome ſhipping: but, for the traffic between Egypt and the Port, they generally hire Engliſh, Dutch, or Venetian ſhips upon freight.

The Venetians, indeed, trade with the Turks in Morea, and in the gulph of Theſſalonica, and to ſome of the iſlands; and, as thoſe countries are full of Greeks, and other Chriſtian inhabitants, they carry them proper manufactures, ſuch as wrought ſilks, fine linen, bone lace, and all ſorts of haberdaſhery for the women, who delight to go gay, eſpecially in the iſles. They carry back in return according to the productions of the place, ſuch as currants, raiſins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, ſilk, &c.—This is the reaſon, perhaps, why Venice is the magazine for the ſcarlet drugs, from whence they are ſent over the whole Chriſtian world.

The produce of the iſlands is exceeding great, and aſſiſts the Turks in making returns for the goods they buy of the European merchants: for the Turks are either ſuch ſtrangers to correſpondence, or ſuch enemies to all the world but themſelves, that they have no ſuch things as exchange; ſo that, to balance their trade, they are frequently at a great loſs, if the balance runs againſt them. It is true, it may be in their favour in one place, and the contrary in another; whereby they may ſometimes bring one part to make good another; but they cultivate no epiſtolary correſpondence, no regular poſts going from one place to another, to adjuſt theſe things; ſo that moſt trade and buſineſs is executed by meſſages and expreſſes, ſuch as charoux for the government, or by ſhipping; and, as for money returned from place to place, it muſt be carried all in ſpecie.

Much leſs have they any aſſurances for the riſque of trade, or any of the uſual conveniencies of commerce that other nations have. But, as we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak more largely to this hereafter, we are under the neceſſity of referring to the articles ORIENTAL TRADE, PROVENCE, for the trade of Marſeilles, and TURKEY TRADE, in order to conſider the ſtate of our own branch in particular. See alſo the article ARCHIPELAGO.

REMARKS.

From what we have here laid before the reader, in relation to this branch of trade, and what we ſhall further add, we ſhall be enabled to make a right judgment, whether our Turkey trade is at preſent put upon a right footing, and whatever elſe it may ſtand in need of further than the late act of parliament, in order to render it of greater emolument to the kingdom in general.

LIEGE, the principality and biſhopric thereof. This country is bounded on the weſt by Brabant; Namur, and part of Hainault on the ſouth; by the foreſt of Ardennes, and part of Luxemburg, on the eaſt; by Luxemburg alſo, by Limburg, part of the duchy of Juliers, and by Pruſſian Guelderland; and, on the north, by Dutch Brabant and part of Guelderland.

The air is very temperate, and the country fruitful; and it's mountains have quarries of marble, and mines of lead, iron, and brimſtone, beſides pit coal in abundance. It's chief rivers are the Maes, Demer, Jecker, and Weſier.

DINANT is ſeated between a ſteep rock and the Maes, which makes it enjoy a pretty good trade, particularly in manufactures of braſs and iron.

MALMEDI is a ſmall town, moſtly inhabited by leather-dreſſers or woollen-drapers.

STAVELO is another ſmall town, the inhabitants of which drive a pretty good trade in woollen cloth, and other ſtuffs, and chiefly in a great quantity of leather curried here.

SPAW, or SPA, is ſituated on the little river Weſe, ſo ſurrounded with mountains that you cannot ſee it 'till you are almoſt in it. It is from the Pouxhon, or Pohon ſpring, in the market-place here, that they draw that prodigious quantity of water that is tranſported into foreign countries, eſpecially into England and Holland, ſealed up in bottles with the town ſeal. The people of the town employ themſelves in making boxes for ladies toilets, ſnuff and other boxes, varniſhed after the manner of China wares, which they ſell to the company, as they go from the wells.

VERVIERS, on the ſame river, has a very flouriſhing manufactory of woollen cloths, ſaid to be nothing inferior to thoſe made in England or Holland; ſo that their trade extends all over Germany, and even into the north of Europe, Italy, and Turkey.

Near this town ſtands the borough of HODIMONT, where they alſo make a great quantity of woollen cloths.

LIGHT-HOUSES and SEA-MARKS. A light-houſe, or beacon by ſea, erected in any place where required, is of great uſe to direct and keep mariners in the right courſe they ought to take to avoid danger: and theſe are very neceſſary in thoſe parts where there are bars, or entrances into harbours, that there muſt be high tide to carry ſhips over them.

Light-houſes and ſea-marks of various kinds, as ſometimes large trees, or buoys, muſt be allowed to be proper cautions to ſtrangers and others, that they may not precipitately run on rocks or ſands, to their ruin and deſtruction: and, in the reign of king Charles II, care was taken for erecting light-houſes and lanthorns, and other ſpecial ſea-marks; but more eſpecially for the building that moſt excellent light-houſe near Goldſton by Yarmouth, which, for it's height, curioſity, and form, was then reckoned not inferior to any, but rather excelling all or moſt in any country whatſoever.

In the fourth and fifth years of queen Anne an act paſſed for the rebuilding of a light-houſe on the Ediſtone, by the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strond; and, after the ſame is rebuilt, and a uſeful light put therein, there ſhall be paid to them, by the maſters and owners of Engliſh ſhips and barks paſſing by the ſaid light-houſe, except coaſting veſſels, one penny per ton inward, and one penny a ton if outward bound; of which the merchant is to pay a moiety, and the owner of any ſhip the other moiety: and, by ſtrangers, two-pence per ton of the burden of the ſhip or veſſel; and every coaſter two ſhillings only, for each time they paſs by the ſaid light-houſe.

The ſaid duties to be received by ſuch perſon or perſons as the ſaid maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-Houſe ſhall appoint, and where ſuch ſhips, barks, or other veſſels ſhall arrive, load, or unload; and on non-payment, to be recovered in any of the courts at Weſtminſter. Stat. 4 and 5 Ann. cap. 20.

By 3 Geo. II. cap. 36. all the powers, liberties, privileges, and authorities granted in letters patent of her majeſty queen Anne, bearing date the 13th day of July, in the 13th year of her reign, to William French, Eſq; for erecting a light-houſe on the iſland or rock called Skerries, lying in the ſea near Holyhead, in the county of Anglefea; and the ſaid light-houſe, with it's rights, members, and appurtenances, ſhall be valid and effectual, and continue for ever veſted in Sutton Morgan, his heirs and aſſigns: to the intent that he and they ſhall keep the light-houſe in good repair, and, in the night-ſeaſon, maintain a proper fire therein, ſo as the trade and navigation in the Channel may be effectually preſerved.

And the ſaid Sutton Morgan may demand and receive from the maſters and owners of every ſhip, hoy, bark, catch, veſſel, or bottom, paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing in or through St. George's Channel, by Holyhead or Wicklow, to or from any foreign port or place, or which ſhall paſs or croſs the ſaid Channel, to or from any port, creek, or place in Great-Britain ſouthward of Holyhead from or to Wicklow, or any ports or place northward thereof in the kingdom of Ireland, or that ſhall paſs, croſs, or ſail from any port, creek, or place northward of Holyhead, either from any foreign or other port, and ſail between Holyhead and the Calf of Man, or any way in St. George's Channel, to the ſouthward of Dublin; and likewiſe from all coaſters paſſing to and from any port, creek, or place in Great-Britain, north of Holyhead, from or to any port, &c. ſouth thereof; one penny per ton coming into, and the like ſum going out of the ſaid ports, places, creeks, or harbours, in Great-Britain or Ireland; and double ſuch duties for any foreign ſhip or veſſel, &c. paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing in like manner, according to their burthens. But ſhips loaded with coals, or the greateſt part of their loading being coals, paſſing from England to Ireland, ſhall only pay one voyage in every year.

And if any maſter, or other perſons, having the command of any ſhip, &c. ſhall refuſe to pay the duties, the ſaid Sutton Morgan, his heirs, &c. may ſeize any of the goods, guns, tackle, &c. of any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and keep the ſame 'till the duties aforeſaid are paid; and, in caſe of any delay in payment, for the ſpace of three days after ſuch ſeizing, he may cauſe the ſame to be appraiſed by two ſworn appraiſers, and afterwards ſell the goods, and therewith ſatisfy himſelf for the duties, together with the charge of ſeizure, &c. rendering the overplus to the owner.

And, in conſideration of the frequent and conſtant benefit the packet-boats ſailing between Holyhead and Dublin receive by this light-houſe, the poſtmaſter-general, or the commiſſioners for executing that office, ſhall pay to the ſaid Sutton Morgan the annual ſum of 50l. by quarterly payment, without any office fees, or deductions. This ſtatute extendeth not to charge any ſhips of war with the duties beforementioned.

There are large lanthorns ordered by the ſtatute, with duties payable for maintaining them, to be erected at the head of ſome keys, ſuch as at the harbour of Minehead in Somerſetſhire, on the river Severn, &c. See 10 Ann. cap. 24.

LIMBURG, in the Auſtrian Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north and eaſt by the duchy of Juliers; on the ſouth by a ſmall part of the duchy of Luxemburg, and by the country aud biſhopric of Liege, which ſurrounds it alſo on the weſt.

It has excellent mines of iron, and one of copper; the ſoil is very fruitful in wheat, fruits and fuel.

The chief rivers are the Maes, Gueule, Weſe, and Bowine.

NEAU, called EUPIN by the inhabitants, though but a borough, is more conſiderable than many cities, both for the number of it's inhabitants, which amount to about 4000, and for it's trade. They make here woollen cloths, which are ſaid to be as good and fine as thoſe made in England, eſpecially the ſcarlet, blue, and black. They have a conſiderable trade of them throughout the country, and eſpecially in Germany.

LINCOLNSHIRE, is a maritime country, and one of the largeſt in England, and is bounded on the ſouth by Northamptonſhire; on the north by Yorkſhire; has the German Ocean on the eaſt; and is bounded on the weſt with ſome parts of Yorkſhire, Nottinghamſhire, Leiceſterſhire, and Rutlandſhire; and is computed to be about 180 miles in compaſs. It is uſually divided into three parts, viz. Holland, Keſteven, and Lindſey.

I. HOLLAND is bounded on the ſouth with part of Cambridgeſhire; and on the eaſt with the waſhes, which are paſſable at ebb, but overflowed by every tide. The ſoil of this diviſion produces much more graſs than corn.

BOSTON ſtands on the river Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln, and incloſed here with artificial banks. It is, and long has been, a famous and flouriſhing town: it is now in a thriving ſtate, with conſiderable merchants for foreign trade, beſides a good inland trade; and others of the inhabitants apply much to grazing.

DUNNINGTON has a port for barges, and is remarkable for large quantities of hemp and hemp-ſeed bought here, but for nothing elſe, though it is reckoned a good market-town.

CROWLAND is ſituated among fens. The people of this place, which is pretty well inhabited, ſubſiſt chiefly upon the profit of their fiſh and wild ducks, which in the month of Auguſt are ſo numerous, being brought hither by decoy-ducks, that they drive 3000 into a net at a time, by dogs trained up to the buſineſs.

SPALDING is a neater town, and more populous than would be expected in a place encompaſſed with lakes, canals, and rivers; for the drains of Boſton and Langtoft center, as it

were, upon it, and the Welland almoſt incloſes it. Veſſels of 50 or 60 tons may come up to it.

II. KESTEVEN is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt with Holland diviſion, and on the north with that of Lindſey.

STAMFORD ſtands upon the river Welland, which is navigable to it by barges: the chief trade of this town is in malt, ſea-coal, and free-ſtone.

SLEAFORD, in a pleaſant valley, near the head of a river of it's own name, has a conſiderable trade in corn and cattle, a large market-place, and the markets on the Monday after Epiphany, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide, are equal to great fairs.

III. LINDSEY. This, which is the third and largeſt diviſion of the county, runs out with a large front into the ſea, which waſhes it's ſhores on the eaſt and north; it is ſeparated from Yorkſhire and Nottinghamſhire, on the weſt, by the rivers Trent and Dun; and, on the ſouth, is bounded by Keſteven and the Foſſe-Dyke, cut between the Witham and Trent, for the conveniency of carriage to and from Lincoln; and is parted from the Holland diviſion by Horncaſtle wapentake.

LINCOLN CITY is in this diviſion; it is built on the ſide of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham. It was formerly a very large and flouriſhing place, and made a ſtaple or mart for wooll, leather, lead, &c. but it's trade is gone to decay.

GREAT GRIMBSY, half a mile from the Humber, was alſo a place of very great trade, before it's harbour was choaked up: it's chief trade now is in coals and ſalt, brought by the Humber.

GAINSBOROUGH is a well-built town, of good trade upon the Trent.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north with the Forth; with part of Clydeſdale on the weſt; and it is divided from Mid-Lothian on the ſouth and weſt; and by the waters of Almond and Brick-Water on the eaſt. It abounds with coal, lime-ſtone, and white ſalt, beſides corn and paſturage.

LINLITHGOW is the chief or ſhire-town, and is ſo named from it's ſituation on the ſide of a lake, which is a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile over, and abounds with perch, and other ſorts of fiſh.

This town has a face of great buſineſs, with a good harbour, where there is a large Cuſtom-Houſe built; with other houſes for the uſe of merchants.

Here is a great manufacture for linen, which the water of the lake is reckoned ſo extraordinary for bleaching, that great quantities are brought hither from other parts of the country for the purpoſe.

BURROWSTOWNESS, on the coaſt, had the greateſt trade with Holland of any in Scotland, before the Union, which is now much decayed, though it has ſtill a good export of coals and ſalt, and the greateſt traffic both to Holland and France, except Leith. It is ſaid they have the moſt ſhipping, and the beſt ſeamen in the Firth, who are very good pilots for the coaſts of Norway and the Baltic, as well as Holland.

QUEEN'S-FERRY, at the point of St. Margaret's Bay, is the common paſſage at all times of tide from Lothian to Fife, to which it is about two miles over, and it is the ſureſt way from all parts of the north to Edinburgh.

LINEN. What linen is needs no definition, it being ſo well known. There are variety of ſorts, the chief materials of which are cotton, flax, and hemp.

It is difficult to ſay with certainty to whom the invention of this manufacture is owing; perhaps the original idea proceeded from that admiral phænomenon of the ſpider's-web. To diſcribe the divers ſorts, would be as needleſs as tedious, and would oblige us to leave out matter, which, we apprehend, may be more uſeful and acceptable.

As introductory to what we would offer in regard to this article, we deſire the reader would conſult what is ſaid under the articles BLEACHING, CAMBRICS, COTTON-TREE, FLAX, HEMP, LINT, YARN, IRELAND, and SCOTLAND, all which heads contain ſomething tendering to the national advancement of this manufacture.

REMARKS.

We ſhall now conſider this matter in ſome other lights, not leſs intereſting to Great-Britain than what has been ſaid under thoſe heads beforementioned.

Linen is a commodity of univerſal uſe, from the prince to the meaneſt ſubject, and a commodity that cannot be ſupplanted by any thing elſe near ſo commodious and agreeable for thoſe uſes to which it is applied. The uſe of the Indian cotton-cloth has been often attempted for ſhirting, but to no purpoſe; and muſlins for women's head-cloths and ruffles, &c. in place of cambric, but without ſucceſs. Some aſcribe this to a fondneſs of the Engliſh nation for French faſhions; a conceit which, in too many inſtances, is moſt highly detrimental to the trading proſperity of this nation, and which ought, by all poſſible means, to be diſcouraged; but there is found, by long experience, to be a ſubſtance and firmneſs in cambric which gives it a preference to muſlins, for variety of uſes.

The linen trade of Europe is chiefly in the hands of the Ruſſians, Germans, Swiſs, Flemings, Hollanders, and French.

A nation may be drained of it's wealth, and undone by foreign trade, if it takes more goods from other nations for home conſumption than it ſends out, and pays balances in gold and ſilver [ſee BALANCE of TRADE;] and therefore every wiſe adminiſtration will watch carefully over thoſe branches of commerce where the balance is againſt them, and encourage thoſe where the balance is on their ſide.

The balance of trade and money tranſactions between England and thoſe foreign linen countries is againſt England; and, by reaſon of the high duties impoſed by them upon Engliſh woollen goods, and other incumbrances on the importation and ſale of them, the balance of trade is greatly in their favour, more eſpecially if the total balances of thoſe linen countries be conſidered in a conjunctive and aggregate light; becauſe we have not diminiſhed in our imports of foreign linens in the like proportion as thoſe nations have diminiſhed in their imports of our woollen and other merchandizes; and the attempts to eſtabliſh more and more new manufactures of their own, among the European powers, muſt inevitably increaſe the evil upon us, provided we do not take every meaſure to promote an adequate compenſation for the loſſes in trade with which we are daily threatened, by almoſt every power of Europe in their turn, as demonſtrably appears throughout this work.

It is high time to look into our ſtate of the trade to the North; for it is certain in our own power, by the effectual aſſiſtance of our fellow-ſubjects in our ſettlements in America, and by the induſtry of our own people at home (if both were properly employed) to bring the balance of trade with all thoſe countries on our ſide; not only thoſe linen countries, but alſo with thoſe which ſerve us with the bulky trade and naval ſtores.—See NAVAL STORES.

The ſoil of many parts of Virginia and Maryland is exceeding rich, and fit for raiſing of hemp and flax. The ſame hands which hough and dreſs their tobacco-grounds, and cut and cure their plants, may be employed all the winter in breaking and dreſſing hemp and flax. Theſe commodities, being imported rough, may be manufactured at home, into cordage, ſail-duck, and linen of ſeveral ſorts, and will ſerve ſo far to leſſen our demands from Ruſſia and Germany of theſe goods. Great quantities of hemp and flax, to ſupply what we cannot produce at home, may alſo be raiſed in Penſylvania, North Carolina, and in ſeveral other of our own plantations; and all ſo near navigable rivers, that, by ſaving the expence of a long carriage by land, to which thoſe commodities are liable in Muſcovy, they may be imported cheaper than they can be had from thence, and poſſibly too, of a better quality, if once a becoming emulation for that purpoſe is raiſed between ourſelves and them.

Several parts of theſe colonies lie in the latitude of Egypt; and as their ſoil, in ſome places, is equally fine and rich with the ſoil of Egypt, where the fineſt flax in the world is produced, what hinders but our Britiſh plantations may be brought to produce ſuch that is no way inferior in quality?

With regard to watering the flax, the dews in thoſe parts are exceedingly rich, and, when the flax is lying on the graſs, it is thereby brought to an excellent colour, without impairing it's ſtrength in the leaſt, wherein the great art of bleaching conſiſts. See BLEACHING.

Effectual meaſures of this kind would ſecure the dependence of our plantations upon their mother-country, when they ſhall be thus cloſely united to us, by the irrefragable tie of their own intereſt, and their friendſhip and affection for their mother-country, cheriſhed by this profitable intercourſe, when we thus work, as it were, to each other's hands, and mutually ſupport and inrich one another: for, wherever obligations are reciprocal, the conſequences will be ſo likewiſe.

We are at preſent enabled to ſerve our plantations with all the manufactured goods they uſe, except linen; and the preſent ſituation of our trade with the foreign linen countries calls loudly upon us to improve and extend the manufacture of home-made linen.

Every county, and almoſt every town in England, is ſupported, and their poor employed, by ſome one particular branch of trade. This greatly contributes to bring every article of manufacture to it's utmoſt perfection, to increaſe the inland commerce, and the dependency of one part of the country on another, and thereby to advance the common intereſt and wealth of the whole. The coal-trade is the chief buſineſs of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Weſtmorland; and, as this employs their men only, the linen-trade might alſo be ſet on foot in thoſe countries, to employ their women and children.

At Darlington ſome linen is made for inland ſale; but it lies too near Leeds, and the other cloth making towns of Yorkſhire. Many inconveniencies attend the interfering of manufactures: if the ſame hands come to be employed in linen and woollen, or in any part of both, both muſt inevitably ſuffer, by being in danger of falling into diſcredit, and becoming ruined thereby: wherefore all regard ſhould be had to prevent ſuch interfering.

In Lancaſhire the linen-trade may be ſafely carried on, becauſe it does not interfere with the cotton, and that the warp

of all their fuſtians, and ſeveral other cotton goods, is made of linen-yarn.

Linen is the ſtaple of Scotland; but it was long neglected. The Scots at preſent are not, however, in ſo bad a ſituation in reſpect to this trade, as the French were in the reign of king Henry IV, or the Iriſh at the Revolution, where, by the force of public encouragement, it has arrived to an extraordinary pitch, and, it is to be hoped, will daily advance; the Scots have it not to begin, they want only to improve and extend it to the height it will admit.

The linen manufacture may be brought to as great an extent in value as any other buſineſs now carried on in Britain, except the woollen; it may employ near as many hands as the woollen does; and the linen-trade of North Britain is of as great conſequence to the nation in general, as the woollen in the ſouth, and equally deſerves the ſame care, countenance, and encouragement from the public.

The parliament has, from time to time, upon proper application, paſſed acts, and given ſuitable encouragement for the advancing, and preventing the decay of the manufactures of wooll, ſilk, cotton, mohair, &c. all which have been attended with ſome good effects.

The act of parliament made in the year 1727, for regulating the linen manufacture of Scotland, and even the ſmall funds then appropriated by parliament for it's encouragement, did that nation very important ſervice in this reſpect: the linen-trade was, in ſome meaſure, thereby retrieved, and improved beyond expectation. This enabled the Scots to conquer one of their greateſt difficulties; and, when they came to underſtand the defects, faults, and imperfections under which this manufacture laboured, and the ways and means to cure, correct, and amend them, they have brought this manufacture to a very great excellency and perfection.

In a nation ſo populous and extenſive as this iſland of Britain is, branches of buſineſs might be carried on in different parts, which might lay a foundation for diviſion and ſtrife, through an interfering of different intereſts. But it is happily otherwiſe with us; it is no leſs the intereſt of England to promote and advance the linen manufacture of Scotland, than it is the intereſt of Scotland to encourage, by their conſumption, &c. the woollen manufacture of England.

England is ſerved with fine linen from Holland, and countries adjacent to it, and with cambrics, and other ſorts of linen from Holland and France; and the balance of trade and money tranſactions with both thoſe countries is againſt England. England and the Britiſh plantations, are ſerved with great quantities of middling and low-priced linens of divers ſorts, from Sileſia, and other parts in the upper and lower circle of Saxony. Formerly thoſe countries took large quantities of woollen goods from England, and then that trade was profitable to England; but now they have manufactures of woollen in ſeveral places of their own, as before intimated, which ſerves a great part of their conſumption of low-priced cloths, and leſſens their demands for woollen goods from England, whereby the balance of trade with them is now againſt us.

The balance of trade betwixt England and Scotland, and England and Ireland, is on the Engliſh ſide; and, ſo far as England and the plantations can be ſerved with linen from Scotland and Ireland, inſtead of Holland, France, Germany, and Ruſſia, ſo far will England be a gainer by this change in the courſe of trade. The more linen the Scots and Iriſh can ſell in England, the more of the Engliſh commodities will they be enabled to purchaſe; and it may be reaſonably ſuppoſed, that their demands from England will always increaſe in proportion to the increaſe of their people and linen manufactures. It is then evidently the intereſt of England to promote and advance the manufacture of linen in Scotland and Ireland, and to give them all reaſonable advantages in the trade, in preference to foreigners, where the balance of trade is againſt us; and this ſeems to be the ſenſe of the nation, ſince all foreign linen for home conſumption pays a duty.

Foreign linen, indeed, exported to the Britiſh plantations, draws back the whole duty to a trifle; and this was a neceſſary meaſure, when our linen trade was reduced to ſo low an ebb, and the Iriſh manufacture but in it's infancy; ſo that neither Scotch nor Iriſh were able to furniſh them with any large quantity: but now that thoſe countries have, in ſome meaſure, retrieved that branch, and that the Iriſh, as well as the Scotch, are daily increaſing our quantities of linen goods, they both ought to have all the advantages in the trade, that the intereſt of England, as well as the intereſt of Scotland and of Ireland, plainly requires. This may in a great meaſure be effected, if all foreign linen, when exported to the plantations, ſhould not be allowed to drawback the duty it pays on importation, or ſuch a proportion of it, as may be thought reaſonable, to give us a preference in the trade.

When the foreign linen countries took off our woollen and other manufactures, ſomething proportionate in value to the linens we had from them, it might not avail us to think of ſupplying our own plantations with Britiſh-made linen: good policy then dictated the advancing no further in this manufacture, than an endeavour to ſupply our own European domeſtic conſumption: but, as the ſcene is now changed, as thoſe linen countries have eſtabliſhed woollen, and other manufactures of their own, and are daily eſtabliſhing more, that will interfere with the manufactures of theſe kingdoms, is it not time to retaliate upon them by a ſimilar policy? Had we taken off the drawback on foreign linens upon their exportation to the Britiſh plantations, before we were capable, or even likely to ſupply ourſelves and plantations with our home-made linens, and before the foreign linen countries had ſent up woollen and other manufactures which interfere with ours, it might and would have been impolitic, and all theſe apprehenſions of the conſequences attending ſuch meaſure, that we had twenty years ago, might be juſtly grounded. Among other things, it was then urged, 'That, 'if we ſhould be capable of producing and manufacturing 'every thing, ſo that we had no occaſion to import any one 'thing, what ſhould we be gainers of? This would deſtroy 'the great band and ligament of all foreign commerce, and 'in the end the whole nation.'—But this is arguing upon the extreme, and I may as well aſk, if we took all our produce and manufactures from foreign nations, how long ſhould we be able to trade at all?

By the induſtry of England, Scotland, and Ireland, we are now in a condition to ſupply ourſelves and our plantations with linens of our own manufacture; and, if I am rightly informed, ſeveral ſpecies of them as cheap as we can have foreign linens.—But ſuppoſing, not granting, that, as yet, our linen manufacturers have not arrived at every art in making linens ſo cheap as foreigners, or ſo good in quality, what then? Are we to give them no encouragement, 'till they are capable of ſo doing? Is that the way to rouze and animate them to emulate the foreign linen countries? Is diſcouragement the beſt policy to enable them to vie with other nations in this univerſal manufacture? When Lewis the XIVth was informed by his great miniſter Colbert, that his ſubjects would eat herrings, and expended great ſums annually therein—Then anſwered that monarch, They ſhall catch them themſelves or go without; and they have ever ſince ſupplied themſelves.—So if Britons, either in Europe or America, will wear linens, or uſe them in any ſhape, let it be the voice of Great-Britain, that we may manufacture them ourſelves or go without.

But, ſay ſome, if the drawback is taken off on the exportation of foreign linens to our plantations, will not the foreign linen countries ſome how avail themſelves of ſuch a meaſure? They have already anticipated us in this reſpect, by ſettling woollen and other manufactures of their own, and conſequently taking leſs from us than heretofore; and is it not politic in our turn to retaliate upon them in manner ſomething ſimilar to their own policy? Let us then make our own linens, as the linen countries have began to make their own woollens, &c. and take off the drawback allowed on the exportation of foreign linens to the plantations, that our's may come as cheap to our own plantations as foreign linens there will. Ah? but, ſays ſomebody, that cannot reliſh this policy, Will not the Britiſh plantations, in ſuch caſe, make their own linens? What inducement can they have to do this, when the linens we ſhall ſell them, may be made of the very materials [HEMP and FLAX] that we ſhall purchaſe from theſe plantations? for that is the footing whereon I have put the matter, to which the reader will pleaſe to attend. That trifling attempts have been made in ſome of our northern colonies upon the linen manufacture, we are no ſtrangers to; but, if our plantations were effectually encouraged in the raiſing of all raw materials for this manufacture to be carried on in their mother-country, they would ceaſe to go greater lengths in a manufacture, which requires ſo long time to bring to tolerable perfection; nor would they then ſcruple to give the preference to Britiſh linens, though they came ſomething dearer at firſt than foreign linens, when they knew ſuch Britiſh linens were made of the produce of their own plantations.

Nothing is more common than for us to complain, that our northern colonies begin to interfere with us in our Britiſh manufactures, and may in time ſupply our ſugar iſlands therewith. If this ſhould ever come to paſs, may we not thank ourſelves? For, if we in time give them ſuch effectual encouragement in planting as we may, and as the ſtate of our commerce apparently requires, they will not eaſily turn from planting to manufacturing. Planting and agriculture are beſt underſtood there, and, if any thing ſtimulates our colonies to lay this aſide for what they do not yet underſtand to any degree of perfection, it will be the ſupineneſs and diſcouragement of the mother-country to rouze them to the former.

Is it more politic to encourage the importation of foreign linens into our plantations, than to encourage thoſe plantations in the production of ſuch materials, as will enable Great-Britain and Ireland to ſupply them with home-made linens, as cheap as they can have foreign now? And why ſhould not that be the caſe, when our plantations can ſupply us cheaply and plentifully with the materials for that purpoſe?

Would

Would not due encouragement given to our plantations, in this reſpect, take away the temptation from our colonies to ſupply themſelves by ſmuggling foreign linens *? When the mother-country took off immenſe quantities of their planting productions for the linen manufactures, would it not prove unſpeakably more for their intereſt to diſcourage all ſmuggling trade of this kind, than to ſacrifice their planting intereſt? in ſuch caſe, can we imagine them to be ſo little acquainted with their own happineſs and proſperity, as not to make laws every way adequate to the prevention of ſo deſtructive an evil, and alſo vigilantly ſee to their execution?

* It has been ſaid, in oppoſition to the taking off the bounty on foreign linen, on their being exported to our Britiſh plantations, 'That the harbour of Curaſoa, the iſland of St. Euſtatia, the ports of Surinam, and the Berbices, belonging to the Dutch, are always open and free for the Engliſh to trade to. The duties on what the Engliſh import and ſell there, ſeldom amount to above 5 per cent. I remember but one inſtance when they exceeded, and that was juſt upon the peace of Utrecht, when Monſ. Carſar, after having plundered Nevis and Montſerrat, made the garriſon of Curaſoa ranſom themſelves for 1,200,000 pieces of eight or Spaniſh dollars, as I have been informed the ſum was: and, indeed, for two or three years, they made all foreigners pay 10 per cent. on all the goods they imported and ſold there: but, during that time and occaſion, which might have, in ſome meaſure, excuſed a tax on their merchandize at exportation, they were not ſo weak as to do it, well knowing, that nobody would buy goods and merchandize of them that knew where to buy cheaper; nor did they ever, in any inſtance that I know of, demand any duties on any goods that any one purchaſed in their harbours, but let him carry them where he would or could, well knowing whatever draws ſhipping, draws trade, and that draws profit or money, which all trading people want. There is not a port in the world out of Europe, where all ſorts of European goods are to be ſeen in greater plenty than there, in Curaſoa; and, I believe, there has not been a day theſe twenty years, when there were no Engliſh ſhips to be ſeen in that harbour, but this is only one port: Surinam and the Berbices lie to windward of Barbadoes, and not above three days ſail from it; ſo that the people of Barbadoes might be ſupplied from thence very conveniently, and with ſmall riſque.'
St. Euſtatia lies in ſight of our Leeward iſlands; and, as I will not put all on my own ſingle authority on this occaſion, I will tranſcribe a paſſage out of a book publiſhed ſome years ago, intitled, The Importance of the Britiſh Plantations in America to this kingdom, printed for J. Peele, p. 32, 33. where the author ſays,
'I ſhall take leave, in this place, to mention an affair, 'for which, if a remedy could be found, it would be of 'ſome advantage to us. The iſland of St. Euſtace, which 'is inhabited by the Dutch, is not above three leagues 'diſtant from St. Chriſtopher's; and, with regard to it's 'extent and produce, very conſiderable: but its road is 'the place where Dutch interlopers from the coaſt of Af'rica ſeldom fail to call at. In a few days all our Lee'ward iſlands are informed of this. In places, ſuch as 'our iſlands are, it is not much to be wondered at, if 'there are perſons who run ſome hazard for the hope of 'a conſiderable gain; ſo that all the ready money which 'they can advance at any rate, is carried by them on 'board theſe ſhips, where negroes are ſold to them fre'quently 20 per cent. cheaper than our own ſhips do af'ford them. This ready money is a great temptation to 'ſome planters, who ſell their ſugars to them at leſs than 'the current price; and, under pretence of ſending it in 'ſloops to our own ſhipping, it is ſent on board theſe in'terlopers, who, by theſe means get loaden at leſs ex'pence than our own ſhips, and carry off more money 'than a great number of our own ſhips which trade for 'three times the value. By this it is evident, that we have 'really employed a Dutch ſhip, and have paid her whole 'freight, out and home, in money, which is juſt ſo much 'loſt to the nation: nor is that the only damage; for on 'board theſe ſhips are often great quantities of fine and 'coarſe LINENS, which are ſold for ready money only.'
See Reflections and Conſiderations, occaſioned by the petition preſented to the honourable Houſe of Commons, for taking off the drawback on foreign linens, printed for T. Cooper, 1738.

So far, then, it ſeems pretty clear, 'till I hear reaſons to change ſentiments, that it is for the mutual intereſt of Great-Britain and her plantations, to promote the manufacture of linens in general; the former in the making them, and the latter in producing the requiſites of nature for that purpoſe.
It has been ſuggeſted alſo, 'That, if we take the drawback off foreign linen, to make them dearer to our plantations, in order to introduce our own linens, we muſt be obliged to take off the ſame on the exportation of all foreign linens; which will bring them ſo dear to foreign markets, eſpecially to thoſe of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, that we ſhall thereby run the hazard of loſing that trade, becauſe that thoſe foreign linens make one of the eſſential aſſortments of a ſaleable cargo for Spaniſh America.—That the productions of many nations and countries are become abſolutely neceſſary to this end; and that often much more gain and advantage will accrue to the merchant, and conſequently to this kingdom, by trading in goods of foreign manufacture than in thoſe of our own.—That in ſuch caſe, if the Britiſh merchant is not at liberty to ſort his cargo with ſuch wares as the markets he ſends to require, and at as low a rate as others can, who trade to the ſame market, he muſt be beaten out by the others, and leave the trade wholly to them,' &c.
This argument, like all of the extreme and general kind, has the fate to prove too much; for, if this is allowed concluſive, it will follow, that we muſt never preſume to think of ſuch an advancement to our linen manufacture, as to come in for any ſhare whatever in the ſupply for foreign markets.—Had ſuch-like policy prevailed in France, would they ever have had reſolution to have attempted to ſupplant us in the woollen, or any other manufacture, wherein we had the ſtart of them, as they have done? But they would not be lulled to a lethargy by ſuch ſpecious reaſoning; that it is in vain for us to think of ſupplying the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, or any other foreign country, with any of our home-made woollen, or linen manufactures; we cannot make up ſaleable aſſortments, without the woollen manufactures of England, and the linens of Germany; and therefore, if we preſumptuouſly attempt to make woollens or linens of our own to the taſte of the Spaniards, we ſhall, inſtead of increaſing, loſe that ſhare of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade we have already obtained! With what contempt would a Colbert have treated ſuch argument? Had he been influenced by it, would it not have prevented every wiſe meaſure that he ſo ſucceſsfully took for the advancement of manufactures of every kind, in order to force a trade with foreign countries? Hath not the lucrative experience of France, to the unſpeakable detriment of England, proved ſuch reaſoning frivolous and deluſory? Yet this was the principal, if not the only colourable argument urged, ſome years ſince, againſt a petition prefented to the honourable Houſe of Commons, ſetting forth, 'That the manufactures of linen now labour 'under ſeveral diſcouragements, but more particularly on 'account of the drawbacks allowed on exportation of foreign 'linens, threads, and tapes; by means whereof, conſiderable 'quantities have been, and ſtill are ſent from hence to parts 'beyond the ſeas, to the GREAT HINDRANCE of the con'ſumption of our own produce and manufactures; and there'fore praying the Houſe to give ſuch relief, as to the Houſe 'ſhall ſeem meet.'
When France firſt attempted the eſtabliſhment of the woollen manufactures, they had every difficulty to ſtruggle with, having neither the material, nor the manufactures; yet a reſolute perſeverance and ſound policy diſſipated every difficulty and diſcouragement [ſee the article FRANCE]. The firſt ſtep they took was to ſupply themſelves with woollen goods of their own fabrication, and to ſtop the importation of the Engliſh woollen manufacture, in proportion as they advanced in their own: and although, at their firſt enterprize, their manufacture was but very indifferent, yet, as the king himſelf encouraged the wear, the whole nation followed the example. This laid the firſt foundation for their proſperity in this great manufacture. After which, they exerted every politic art, in the power of human nature to ſuggeſt, in order to imitate the Engliſh in that perfection to which they had long before arrived.—Thus the moſt ſkilful and experienced manufactures in England and Holland were allured by honours and rewards irreſiſtible; and thus the groundwork was laid to vie with the Engliſh at foreign markets, in the ſtaple manufacture of the kingdom. But, as the reputation of the Engliſh woollen goods was eſtabliſhed throughout the whole world, the difficulty lay in convincing foreigners, that they had arrived at as great a perfection in this art as the Engliſh; which they did, by propagating that they had the Engliſh and Iriſh wool to work with, and Engliſh manufacturers to fabricate it; and what hindered, ſaid the French, but we may make goods in France, equal in quality with thoſe made in England? Whether they have even yet arrived to the perfection of the Engliſh, is greatly to be doubted. However, they made their cloths façon d'Angleterre; they imitated their lengths, breadths, and thickneſs, and counterfeited the Engliſh ſeals affixed to the ſame, and thereby craftily inſinuated their woollen fabric among foreign nations; and, as they have been able to afford them cheaper, they have gradually made their way, and now ſhare the woollen trade with us in all parts of the world. And, while this was accompliſhing, they found ways and means to make up their ſaleable aſſortments for the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, as well as other foreign markets; whereby the merchant and nation both gained, though not at firſt to the degree they have been able to do ſince they have arrived at a greater perfection in theſe fabrics.
And what hinders that Great-Britain and Ireland ſhould not be able to imitate the perfection of foreign linens, to as great a degree as the French have the Engliſh woollen goods? That our people want ingenuity to carry any manufactural art to the laſt perfection, will not be ſaid; that they wonderfully excel in the linen manufacture in particular, is indiſputably true; and that to ſuch a degree, it has been af-

firmed.

firmed, that foreign linen manufacturers have been themſelves deceived, by taking the Britiſh and Iriſh linens for ſome of their own. Certain it is, that a very extraordinary progreſs is now made in this univerſal manufacture; and, if we purſue the like meaſure that France has done, in relation to the eſtabliſhment of their woollen manufactories, why may we not firſt be able amply to ſupply ourſelves with home-made linen, and then attempt a competition therein with foreign nations? If we cannot raiſe hemp and flax ſufficient for our demands in Great-Britain and Ireland, will not our plantations moſt amply ſupply us, with effectual encouragement?

Neither the banks of the Nile, nor the moſt fruitful plains of Egypt, were ever more capable of producing fine flax (though formerly eſteemed the beſt in the world) than the banks of the Suſquehannah, Delawar, Hudſon's river, and the rich and fat vallies of the Engliſh North America are.—The climate of North America, with regard to the production of moſt vegetables, particularly as to HEMP and FLAX, is inferior to none in quality in the known world: they have ſo many ſorts of ſoil, that no place in any climate can ſhew more than may be ſeen there in one day's riding.

Notwithſtanding thoſe apparent advantages, which may accrue to the public weal from the advancement of this manufacture to it's laſt perfection; and notwithſtanding the reaſonableneſs of taking off the drawback upon foreign linen; yet we well know, that courts cannot at every point of time, at every criſis, do what is right and juſt for their own country, and what they would wiſh to do. The circumſtances of public affairs muſt be attended to; there is, in the concerns of ſtate, as well as in thoſe of private perſons, a ſeaſon for all things, as the wiſe man has long ſince reminded us of; and the wiſe and upright ſtatefman will watch thoſe ſeaſons, and take the advantage of favourable opportunities.

When we, therefore, occaſionally in this work, take the liberty humbly to ſuggeſt any meaſure, which we apprehend may turn to the commercial emolument of the ſtate, we would, by no means, preſume to dictate to our ſuperiors the PROPER TIME for the execution of any thing, becauſe that depends upon the real ſtate of public affairs both at home and abroad; and what may be wiſe and prudent to be done at one time, and may be attended with great national honour and advantage, may be the reverſe at other times.—Theſe reflections ſhould make the bulk of the people modeſt, and leſs cenſorious of the public meaſures in all nations, becauſe in moſt they cannot know the great wheels and ſprings of government.—In this happy land of liberty, indeed, we can as little bear with the myſteries of ſtate as of religion; and yet ſome politicians have told us, that there is a neceſſity for them in both.—But theſe things we leave to the divine and the ſtatefman; while we ſubmit to conſideration ſuch general principles only, as are deducible from facts, leaving their application to be made, as the exigencies of ſtate may occaſionally require.

That nothing may diſcourage and intimidate Great-Britain and Ireland from carrying the linen manufacture to the perfection that England has done the woollen *, it may be uſeful to give ſome calculations relating to the quantity of linen manufactured in Ireland, and of the proportion that the material of flax bears to the manufactured merchandize, by Thomas Prior, Eſq; of Dublin: which calculations may in ſome meaſure be applied to England and Scotland.

* The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that, at the beginning of this article, the utmoſt national care is recommended to prevent any injurious interfering between thoſe ſtaple manufactures, the woollen and the linen; that is to ſay, our manufacturers engaged in the former muſt not be drawn off to the latter; nor ſhould the ſituation of the one be in places too near that of the other, leſt the workmen, engaged in the one, ſhould be diverted to the other, and grow leſs expert and ſkilful in both, to the detriment of our grand ſtaple the woollen branch, and to the obſtruction of the promotion of that of the linen. For, although we have powerful competitors in the woollen, yet we ſhould by no means abate that ardor and zeal, neceſſary to ſupport that ſhare of this ineſtimable branch which we ſtill preſerve. Times may change; Great-Britain ſtill maintains her weight and dignity at foreign courts; and if her manufactural artiſts maintain their ſpirit of induſtry and ingenuity, and if once the ſtudies of commerce and it's dependent arts, conſidered in all relations become as faſhionable as thoſe of the belles lettres and polemical and phyſiological ſtudies, we may have opportunities of making ſuch treaties of commerce with other nations, as may one day give us full employment in both theſe general manufactures: new channels of trade may likewiſe offer themſelves to us, which at preſent, perhaps, can be as little foreſeen, as the diſcovery of the new world was before it happened. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, and MECHANICS.

* It is computed, ſays this judicious gentleman, that the value of linen, made in Ireland yearly, amounts to a million ſterling; and that half thereof is yearly exported, and that the remaining half is conſumed at home; reckoning five ſhillings a-head for two millions of people one with another, for all their conſumptions in linen.

It is alſo computed, that the following quantities of rough flax, ſuch as we have from Riga, worth forty ſhillings the hundred weight, will give employment for a whole year to the following number of perſons, one with another, including ſpinners, hecklers, weavers, bleachers, &c. viz. a hundred weight of flax will employ for a year two hands. A ton, or twenty hundred weight, will employ forty hands. A hundred tons will employ four thouſand hands. A thouſand tons will employ forty thouſand hands. And three thouſand one hundred and twenty-five tons will employ one hundred and twenty-five thouſand hands.

It is alſo computed that the following quantities of rough flax, worth forty ſhillings the hundred weight, when fully manufactured into linen, will, at a medium of coarſe and fine, be worth the following ſums annexed to them, viz. A hundred weight of flax, when manufactured into linen, will be worth ſixteen pounds. A ton, or twenty hundred weight, will be worth three hundred and twenty pounds. A hundred tons will yield thirty-two thouſand pounds. And three thouſand one hundred and twenty-five tons weight will yield a million ſterling.

It is alſo eſtimated, that a good acre of flax will produce three, four, five, or ſix hundred weight of flax; and if we allow four hundred weight, or thirty-two ſtone, to be raiſed from every acre one with another in a year, which is a reaſonable allowance; on that ſuppoſition, the aforeſaid three thouſand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax, which are all that are at preſent ſuppoſed to be made uſe of in our linen manufacture, before eſtimated to be of the value of a million ſterling yearly, may be raiſed from fifteen thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-five acres only; and if we allow but three hundred weight or twenty-four ſtone to be raiſed from every acre one with another, which is a low computation, then it will require about twenty thouſand eight hundred and thirty-two acres, to raiſe the aforeſaid quantity of three thouſand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax.

If theſe computations and eſtimates are true, or near the truth, as we may reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be, ſince they come from perſons well ſkilled in the linen manufacture, they will afford grounds for making the following obſervations.

It appears from theſe computations, that we have two millions of people in Ireland, yet no more than a ſixteenth part of them, viz. a hundred and twenty-five thouſand, are fully employed in the linen manufacture, our ſtaple commodity; that number being ſufficient, if employed the whole year round, to make linens to the value of a million ſterling, which is computed to be the value of all the linen yearly made at preſent, allowing eight pounds ſterling to each perſon one with another yearly for their work.

Though Ireland, which contains eleven millions of acres, hath ſeveral millions in it fit for the growth of flax, yet we ſee that there are not above thirteen thouſand acres in it employed that way: for, though ſixteen thouſand acres may be ſufficient to ſupply the three thouſand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax employed in our manufactures, yet, as we import yearly from foreign countries five hundred tons of flax, a deduction ought to be made; and, as it will be found, that we do not raiſe above two thouſand ſix hundred tons of flax of our own growth yearly, the reſt being imported, therefore thirteen thouſand acres will be ſufficient to produce that quantity, allowing four hundred weight of flax to be raiſed from each acre.

From hence it evidently follows, that, as we neither want hands nor lands, and may command and employ what number and quantity we pleaſe, and yet have a great deal ſtill to ſpare, it is in our power to double the quantity and value of our linen manufactures, by employing double the quantity of land in raiſing flax, and double the number of hands in working it up into linen, which would yield a million ſterling yearly profit to the nation, more than we make at preſent; with a great proſpect of it's continuing ſtill to increaſe, ſince we have no reaſon to apprehend that we ſhall ever want a vent for all the linens we can make.

It appears from the foregoing calculations, that the nation would receive an additional profit of ſixty-four thouſand pounds yearly for every thouſand acres that ſhould be employed, more than are at preſent, in raiſing of flax and working up the ſame into linen, and thereby employ eight thouſand hands more.

This is a motive ſufficient to engage our attention, to puſh forward this improvement as far as it will go, and to loſe no time in accompliſhing it. And, though it may be practicable to enlarge our linen manufacture to the extent and value before-mentioned, yet will it take a conſiderable time before we can make any progreſs, unleſs we can, by proper encouragements and premiums, give a new and greater ſpirit to our induſtry and endeavours.'

OBSERVATIONS on the raiſing of flax, for the effectual eſtabliſhment of the linen manufacture in Great-Britain and Ireland.

We find, by experience, that all our flax, either of our own growth or imported from abroad, is ſpun into yarn; that all our yarn is either exported or worked up into cloth at home, and that all our cloth is either conſumed at home, or ſold at a good market abroad.

It is more advantage to the kingdom to raiſe the flax ourſelves * which we make uſe of, than to import it from abroad: for thereby we ſave the price of the material imported, and do not depend on other countries for the primum of our ſtaple commodity.

* Herein we include the Britiſh plantations as a part of ourſelves, and what is ſaid in relation to the raiſing of good flax may be applied to that of hemp; ſo that we may ſtand in need of importing no material from any foreign country, in order to carry this extenſive and important manufacture to the height it will admit of.

No manufacture can be increaſed, beyond what the material of which it is made will allow; but muſt increaſe or decreaſe, in proportion to the plenty or ſcarcity of the material.

There can be no increaſe of the linen manufacture without an increaſe of yarn, nor of yarn without an increaſe of ſpinners, nor of ſpinners without an increaſe of flax.

We import great quantities of flax yearly from foreign countries, which ſhews that we do not raiſe flax enough of our own growth to ſupply our manufactures. Our chief attention, therefore, ſhould be to increaſe the number of ſpinners, and the quantity of flax.

There are as many women and children in this kingdom that do not ſpin flax, as there are that do; and many of thoſe that are now unemployed, would work, if they could procure the materials.

If we ſhould double the number of our ſpinners, as it is certainly in our power, and ſupply them with flax and wheels, we might then make double the value in linen: it is, therefore, our intereſt to provide ſufficient ſtores of flax to keep our ſpinners at work.

We find, by experience, that in the beſt ſeaſons we never raiſe flax enough for our manufactures, and that, in bad ſeaſons, we greatly fall ſhort of the requiſite quantity; we ſhould, therefore, until we can raiſe flax enough ourſelves, import large quantities of foreign flax, that our ſpinners may be ſtill kept at work, who muſt otherwiſe be idle for want of the material.

Though by bad ſeaſons, or other accidents, we ſhould happen to raiſe but little flax of our own growth, yet in ſuch a caſe, if we take proper meaſures to import large quantities of flax from abroad, we ſhould ſtill be able to make great profit by our manufacture, by gaining ſeven parts in eight of the value of the linen, by the labour employed on the flax.

Good flax-ſeed ſowed on poor, ill-cultivated ground, and bad ſeed ſowed on good, well prepared ground, ſeldom yield good flax. A due cultivation of proper ſoil, and good ſeed, muſt concur to produce good flax.

One acre of rich, well cultivated, land, ſowed with good ſeed, will produce more and better flax, than two, three, or four acres of poor land, ill cultivated, ſowed with bad ſeed, though the expence by the acre, to the ſower, may be nearly equal to both.

Since flax-ſeed of our own growth ſometimes degenerates, by reaſon of bad ſeaſons and bad huſbandry, it would be highly proper, in order to be furniſhed with good ſeed, to give ſome premiums [ſee the articles MANUFACTURES and PREMIUMS] to merchants who ſhall, for one or two years to come, import large quantities of flax-ſeed from the Baltic, or North America.

By this expedient, every perſon who ſhould be willing to ſow good ſeed, in order to raiſe good flax and ſeed, may have it in his choice to make uſe of the beſt foreign or home ſeed he can meet with.

It is found, by experience, that, in all manufactures conſiſting of different parts, they ſucceed beſt, who have particular workmen for every part: each operator, being confined to his own branch, can afford his work cheaper and in greater perfection; by this method, watches and Birmingham ware are offered ſo cheap, every part being a ſeparate and diſtinct trade, and confined to a particular ſett of workmen; and the maſter who employs them, puts all their work together, and finiſhes the whole; whereas one who undertakes ſeveral diſtinct branches at once, will hardly ſucceed in any to perfection.

In like manner, to ſucceed in the linen manufacture, one ſett of people ſhould be employed, either at home or in our plantations, and confined to the plowing and preparing of the ſoil, ſowing and covering the ſeed, to the weeding, pulling, rippling, taking care of the new ſeed, and watering and graſſing the flax, until it is lodged at home; others ſhould be concerned in the drying, breaking, ſcutching, and heckling the flax, to fit it for the ſpinners; and others at home, in ſpinning and reeling the ſame to fit it for the weaver; others ſhould be concerned in taking due care of the weaving, bleaching, beetling, and finiſhing the cloth for the market. It is reaſonable to believe, that, if theſe ſeveral branches of the manufacture were carried on by diſtinct dealers, the ſeveral parts would be better executed, and the whole could be afforded cheaper and with greater profit.

Since we find, by experience, that all our flax, yarn, and linen, find a vent, it ſhould therefore be our chief endeavour to increaſe the quantity of our flax, not only as it is neceſſary to keep our preſent ſpinners fully employed, but as it will be a means of employing many hands, that are now uſeleſs for want of it.

We find a general diſpoſition and readineſs in all our poor women to get a livelihood by ſpinning, if they could get flax and wheels to work with.

It would be a great benefit to the whole kingdom, and to every gentleman poſſeſſed of lands in particular, if all the labouring women and children on his eſtate were furniſhed with flax and wheels; and, though this ſhould be attended with ſome ſmall expence at firſt, yet this would be ſoon made good, by the profit thoſe women and children would make by their yarn, which never fails of a market; and which would enable them to repay, with gratitude, the firſt expence their kind landlords were at, in putting them in a way of getting an honeſt livelihood.

Beſides the ſeveral other articles referred to at the beginning of this, we alſo refer to thoſe of SCOTLAND and IRELAND.

A SUMMARY of the chief LAWS of ENGLAND, relating to LINENS in general.

I. Stat. 28 Hen. VIII. cap. 4. §. 2. No perſon, Engliſh nor ſtranger, ſhall put to ſale any whole piece or half piece of dowlas and lockeram, unleſs there be expreſſed upon the piece the number of yards or ells contained in ſuch piece, upon pain of forfeiture of the ſame, not containing the number of yards or ells mentioned upon the piece; one half of ſuch forfeiture to be to the king, and the other half to him that ſhall ſeize and will ſue for the ſame by action of debt, &c.

II. Stat. 1 Eliz. cap. 12. §. 1. If any perſon ſhall willingly uſe any means with linen cloth, whereby the ſame ſhall be deceitful or worſe for uſe, the cloth ſhall be forfeited, and the offender puniſhed by one month's impriſonment, and ſhall pay ſuch fines as ſhall be aſſeſſed for his offence, by the juſtices before whom he ſhall be condemned.

III. §. 2. The juſtices of oyer and terminer, and juſtices of aſſizes, and juſtices of peace, or three of them, whereof one to be of the quorum, ſhall have power to enquire, hear, and determine, the offences aforeſaid in their ſeſſions, by information or indictment.

IV. §. 3. If any perſon ſhall ſeize any ſuch deceitful linen cloth, he ſhall at the next ſeſſions of the peace, or before two juſtices of the peace, whereof one to be of the quorum, make information of the offence, and of the ſeizure of the cloth, or procure the offenders to be indicted; and ſhall be bound before the juſtices, to the uſe of the queen, in ſuch form as the juſtices ſhall think meet, to purſue the ſame matter with effect, and to give evidence, and alſo to pay the moiety of all that he ſhall recover, to the ſheriff, or other accountant, to the uſe of the queen; the one half of all the forfeitures and fines to be to the queen, and the other moiety to him that ſhall make information, or procure indictments of the premiſes, and follow the ſame with effect.

V. §. 4. The juſtices before whom any ſuch offence ſhall be tried, ſhall certify the ſame by their eſtreat into the Exchequer, yearly, at Michaelmas, and the barons of the Exchequer ſhall have power to make proceſs for ſo much as ſhall appertain to the queen.

VI. Stat. 1 Ann. ſtat. 2. cap. 8. §. 2. All ſorts of hemp or flax, and the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, imported into England directly from Ireland, by any natives of England or Ireland, being of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, upon producing ſuch certificates, and making ſuch oath, as in the act 7 Will. III. cap. 39. is required, ſhall be free from the additional ſubſidy of poundage, and all cuſtoms whatſoever.

VII. Stat. 3 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1. It ſhall be lawful for any natives of England or Ireland to ſhip in any port of Ireland in Engliſh built ſhipping, whereof the maſter and three fourths of the mariners to be Engliſh or Iriſh, any white or brown linen cloth of the manufacture of Ireland, and the ſame to tranſport into any of the plantations, the act 15 Car. II. cap. 7. notwithſtanding.

VIII. §. 2. Provided that no ſhip coming to the plantations from Ireland ſhall break bulk, until the maſter ſhall have made known to the governor, or to ſuch officer as ſhall be by him appointed, the arrival of the ſaid ſhip, with her name and the name of the maſter, and ſhall have delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, together with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, where ſuch ſhip ſhall be laden, expreſſing the particulars of ſuch lading, with the names and abodes of the exporters, and of two perſons, who ſhall have made oath before ſuch chief officer, that the ſaid goods and linen are, bona fide, of the manufacture of Ireland; and, until the maſter ſhall have made oath before ſuch governor or officer, that the ſaid goods are the ſame that he took on board by virtue of ſuch certificate,

certificate, nor until such ship shall have been searched by an officer; and, in case the commander of such ship shall break bulk before such notice given and certificate produced, and such oath made, or before such search, or if any goods of woollen manufacture not laden in England (necessary apparel of the commander and mariners excepted) or any linen goods not laden in England, nor of the manufacture of Ireland, shall be found, such ship shall be forfeited, together with all goods imported or found in such ship; one third part to her majesty, one third part to the governor of such plantation, if the ship be there seized or sued for (or otherwise that third part also to her majesty) and the other third part to him who shall sue for the same in her majesty's court in the plantations where the offence shall be committed, or in any of her majesty's courts at Westminster.

IX. §. 3. All ships coming from Ireland to any such plantation, shall be subject to the same rules to which ships coming from England are subject.

X. §. 8. Any person for any seizure made in pursuance of this act may plead the general issue, and shall have double costs.

XI. §. 9. All informations and suits for any offence against this act shall be commenced within twelve months after the discovery of such offence.

XII. §. 10. If any ship laden with goods in England, Wales, or Berwick, for any of the plantations, shall put into any port in Ireland, and shall there take in any white or brown Irish linen, the like certificate and oaths shall be made, that the said linen is of the manufacture of Ireland, as is before directed; and if upon the arrival of such ship in the plantations such certificate be produced, and oaths made, such ship, &c. shall be subject to such rules as they were subject to before the passing of this act, and no other.

XIII. §. 11. This act shall continue eleven years.

Continued by 3 Geo. 1. cap. 21.

XIV. Stat. 7 Ann. cap. 7. §. 24. European linens, sisters threads, and tapes or incle, linseed and flax, shall be exempted from the duties called the two third subsidies.

XV. Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 66. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all chequered and striped linens, and upon all linens printed, painted, stained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture, in foreign parts, which during 32 years shall be imported into Great-Britain, and may lawfully be used there (over and above all other customs) a duty of 15l. for every 100l. value.

XVI. §. 67. The said duty shall be managed and brought into the Exchequer, in the same manner as the duties upon paper.

XVII. §. 68. After the said duties upon chequered, &c. linens imported shall be paid, the commissioners and officers of the customs shall cause every piece to be stamped with a seal, to denote the payment of the duties.

XVIII. §. 69. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all silks, callicoes, linens, and stuffs, which during 32 years shall be printed, stained, painted, or dyed, in Great-Britain (such callicoes, linens, and fustians, as shall be dyed throughout of one colour only, and stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part in value shall be woollen, excepted) the duties herein after expressed (over and above the duties payable upon importation) viz. For all silks so printed, stained. or painted, in Great-Britain (silk handkerchiefs excepted) 6d. for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard for the breadth; and for all silk handkerchiefs so printed, &c. in Great-Britain, 3d. for every yard square; upon all callicoes so printed, stained, painted, or dyed, in Great-Britain, 3d. for every yard in length, one yard wide; and upon all linen and stuffs printed, &c. in Great-Britain, three halfpence for every yard in length yard wide.

XIX. §. 70. Such commissioners, as her majesty or the commissioners of the treasury appoint, shall be her majesty's commissioners for the receipt and management of the said duties, who shall have power to appoint receivers-general, collectors, comptrollers, surveyors, and other officers; and the commissioners shall cause all the monies to arise by the same duties to be paid into the receipt of Exchequer in England.

XX. §. 71. Every person who shall print, paint, stain, or dye, any such goods, shall give notice of their names and places of abode, and the rooms where they shall work or dry any such goods, upon pain to forfeit 30l.

XXI. §. 72. All persons who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. shall once in six weeks make entry at the next office of all such silks, &c. printed, &c. within such six weeks; and, if such printer, &c. be not the owner of such goods, he shall specify the names and places of abode of the owners, on pain to forfeit 50l. which entry shall be made upon the oath of the printer, &c. or of his chief workman, to the best of his knowledge or belief, unless a Quaker, and then on his solemn affirmation; and the said oaths and affirmations may be administered by the collector or supervisor, without fee.

XXII. §. 73. Provided that no person, for the making of such entries, be obliged to send further than the next market-town.

XXIII. §. 74. Every person who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. shall, within six weeks after he ought to have made such entry, clear off all the duties, upon pain of forfeiting double the duties; and no such person, after such default in payment, shall deliver or carry out any such printed, &c. goods, until he hath paid his duty, on pain to forfeit double the value of the goods.

XXIV. §. 75. The officers of the said duties shall at all times, by day or by night, and, if in the night, in presence of a constable or other officer of the peace, be permitted, upon request, to enter into the house, or other place belonging to, or used by, any person who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. and to take account thereof, and shall thereof make return in writing to the commissioners, leaving a copy (if demanded) with the printer, &c. and such return shall be a charge upon such printer, &c. and, if the officer neglect to leave a copy of his report, being demanded, he shall forfeit 40s. to such printer, &c.

XXV. §. 76. Every officer, impowered to make such charge, shall first be sworn for the due and faithful execution of his office; and the oath may be administered by the commissioners for the duties, or by any of her majesty's justices of the peace, who shall give such officer a certificate thereof.

XXVI. §. 77. The officers shall be permitted to take account of the quantities of silks, &c. in the custody of any printer, &c. to be printed, &c. and in case such officer shall miss any quantity of such silk, &c. and shall not upon demand receive satisfaction for what is become of the same, it shall be lawful for such officer to charge such printer, &c. with the duties of such silks, &c. as if the same were printed, &c.

XXVII. §. 78. If any person who shall print, &c. any the goods aforesaid, shall obstruct the officers, the offenders shall forfeit 20l.

XXVIII. §. 79. No person shall remove any the silks, &c. by him printed, &c. until the officer shall have taken account of every quantity of such goods, and until every piece be marked with a stamp, denoting the charging of the duty, upon pain of forfeiting 20l. and all the printed, &c. silks, &c. carried away without being marked, and found in the possession of any draper or other trader therein for sale, may be seized, or the value thereof recovered, one moiety for the use of her majesty, and the other moiety to the seizer or informer.

XXIX. §. 80. Upon payment of the duties for any quantity of the said goods, the collector shall give a receipt gratis.

XXX. §. 81. The said printers, &c. shall keep the goods not surveyed by the officers apart from all others of the same kinds, which shall have been surveyed, on pain to forfeit 5l.

XXXI. §. 82. If any of the said printers, &c. shall fraudulently conceal any silk, &c. with intent to deceive her majesty of her duties, the party offending shall forfeit 20l. and all the silks, &c. found in any private place, whereof no notice shall have been given, or the value thereof may be seized and recovered, one moiety to the use of her majesty, and the other moiety to the use of the seizer or informer.

XXXII. §. 83. All utensils and instruments for printing, &c. of such goods, in custody of any such printer, &c. shall be liable to the debts and duties, and also to all penalties incurred by such person, as if the debtor or offender were the true owner.

XXXIII. §. 90. No fee shall be taken by the officers from the said printers or others, for any entries, receipts, or marks, in this act mentioned, under the penalty of 5l. to the party grieved.

XXXIV. §. 91. The powers in 12 Car. II. cap. 24. or any other law of excise, shall be used in levying the duties hereby granted.

XXXV. §. 92. All penalties in relation to the said duties upon silks, &c. printed, &c. in Great-Britain, shall be levied or mitigated, as any penalty by any law of excise, or by action of debt, &c. in her majesty's courts at Westminster, or in the court of session, justiciary, or exchequer, in Scotland; and one moiety of every such penalty (not otherwise appointed by this act) shall be to her majesty, and the other moiety to him that shall sue for the same.

XXXVI. §. 93. The commissioners for the said duties on silks, &c. printed, &c. in England, Wales, and Berwick, shall have the same power as the commissioners of excise.

XXXVII. §. 94. It shall be lawful for any person who shall have paid her majesty's duties for any the said imported linens, or for any silks, &c. printed, &c. in Great-Britain, and any other person who shall be intitled to any such goods from the person who paid her majesty's duties, to export such goods for any foreign parts, giving security that the quantities to be exported shall not be relanded in Great-Britain; which security the customer or collector of the port of exportation shall take in her majesty's name.

XXXVIII. §. 95. If, after the shipping of any such goods and the giving such security, the same shall be relanded in Great-Britain, the said goods, or the value thereof, shall be forfeited.

XXXIX. §. 96. Any perſon who ſhall export ſuch chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed goods, may make proof upon oath, that the duties have been paid or ſecured (which oath the cuſtomer or collector is to adminiſter) and thereupon the cuſtomer or collector ſhall give to the exporter a debenture, expreſſing the kinds and quantities of the chequered and ſtriped linens, and of the printed, painted, ſtained, and dyed goods, ſo exported; and, the exportation thereof being certified by the ſearcher upon the debenture, the collector of the duties upon ſuch goods, in the place where ſuch exportation was, ſhall pay the duties received to the perſons or agents exporting the ſame; and, if ſuch collector ſhall not have money in his hands, the commiſſioners ſhall pay the ſaid debenture out of any duties upon chequered and ſtriped linens, printed, painted, ſtained, and dyed goods; or, if the duty of the goods exported were only ſecured, the ſame ſhall be diſcharged.

XL. §. 97. The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall provide ſeals, with which the imported linens ſhall be marked, and the commiſſioners for the ſaid duties ſhall provide ſeals (of another kind) for marking the ſaid ſilks, &c. printed, &c. in Great Britain; and the officers are required in uſing the ſame to do no damage to the goods; and, if any perſon ſhall counterfeit any ſeal provided in purſuance of this act, or the impreſſion of the ſame, to defraud her majeſty of the duties, ſuch perſon, being thereof convicted, ſhall be judged a felon without benefit of clergy; and, if any perſon ſhall ſell any printed, &c. ſilks, &c. with a counterfeit ſtamp, knowing the ſame to be counterfeited, and with an intent to defraud her majeſty, ſuch offenders, their aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants (being convicted) ſhall forfeit to her majeſty 100 l. and ſtand in the pillory two hours.

XLI. §. 98. Upon oath made by any credible perſons, that they have reaſon to ſuſpect that any printed, &c. ſilks, &c. are in the cuſtody of any draper, or other perſon dealing therein, for ſale, without having ſuch marks as are required, it ſhall be lawful for the commiſſioners within the bills of mortality, or any two juſtices of peace in other parts of the kingdom, to iſſue their warrants, requiring any officer for the ſame duties (with the aſſiſtance of a conſtable or other officers of the peace) in the day time, to ſearch for the ſame, and to open doors, cheſts, and package, and to ſeize ſuch goods, and bring them to the office next the place where they ſhall be ſeized.

XLII. §. 99. All callicoes printed, painted, or ſtained, which ſhall be within one eighth of a yard of yard broad, or not exceeding one eighth of a yard of yard broad, ſhall pay as yard broad.

XLIII. Stat. 12 Ann. ſtat 2. cap. 9. §. 6. There ſhall be paid to her majeſty upon all chequered and ſtriped linens, and upon all linens printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread and yarn before the manufacture, in any foreign parts (except buckrams, lawns, canvas, barras and Sileſia neckcloths) which during 32 years ſhall be imported into Great-Britain, and may lawfully be uſed there (over and above all other duties) 15 l. for every 100 l. value, to be paid by the importers.

XLIV. §. 7. There ſhall be paid to her majeſty upon all ſilks, callicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, which during 32 years ſhall be printed, ſtained, painted, or dyed in Great-Britain (ſuch callicoes, linens, and fuſtians, as ſhall be dyed throughout of one colour, and ſtuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greateſt part in value ſhall be woollen, excepted) the duties herein after expreſſed (over and above all other duties) viz. upon all ſilks ſo printed, ſtained, or painted (ſilk handkerchiefs excepted) 6 d. for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard for the breadth; and for all ſilk handkerchiefs ſo printed, &c. 1 d. for every yard ſquare; upon all callicoes ſo printed, ſtained, painted, or dyed, 3 d. for every yard in length, one yard wide; and upon all linen and ſtuffs printed, ſtained, painted, or dyed in Great-Britain, 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ for every yard in length, yard wide, as by 10 Ann. c. 19. The duties upon imported goods to be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

Theſe duties are made perpetual by 6 Geo. I. cap. 4. and great part of them are ſubſcribed into the South-Sea-ſtock, and the reſidue is mortgaged to the Bank, by 2 Geo. II. cap. 3.

XLV. §. 15. Every perſon that ſhall export any ſilks, callicoes, or linens, that are printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, for which a drawback is to be allowed, ſhall give notice to the officer, appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, when and where he will pack up the goods to be exported; and the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are directed to cauſe ſuch officer to ſee that the ſeals be taken off from every piece to be exported, and the officer ſhall take account of the kinds and quantities of the goods to be exported, and make a return thereof to the officer appointed to receive the ſame without fee.

XLVI. Stat. 12 Ann. ſtat. 2. cap. 19. Lawns, and ſtriped or chequered linens, being all white, and neckloths ſtriped at the end only, and alſo barras and packing canvas or buckrams, were not intended to be charged by the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. upon importation, with the duties by the ſame act granted.

XLVII. Stat. 12 Ann. ſtat. 2. cap. 21. The exception in the act 7 Ann. cap. 7. in relation to tapes or incles, ſhall extend to exempt European unwrought incle called ſhort ſpinnal, as well as wrought incle, from the payment of the two third ſubſidies.

XLVIII. Stat. 1 Geo. I. cap. 36. §. 21. All perſons who ſhall print, paint, ſtain, or dye any ſilks, callicoes, linens, or ſtuffs, at any other place than the uſual place of their reſidence or exerciſe of their trade, ſhall firſt make a particular entry thereof with the proper officer, and pay down the duties, on forfeiture of 50 l. to be recovered as by the laws of excife or action of debt, &c. and ſuch ſilks, &c. ſo printed, &c. without entry and payment of the duty, may be ſeized immediately by ſuch officer; one moiety of ſuch forfeitures to the crown, the other to the proſecutor or informer.

XLIX. Stat. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 38. It ſhall be lawful to import linſeed without paying any duty.

L. §. 39. It ſhall be lawful to export all ſorts of linen cloth of the manufacture of this kingdom, made of flax or hemp, free from all duties.

LI. Stat. 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1. The act 3 and 4 Ann cap. 8. to permit the exportation of Iriſh linen cloth to the plantations, &c. ſo far as the ſame relates to the exportation of Iriſh linen cloths to the Britiſh plantations, ſhall continue in force ſo long as the merchants, &c. of Great-Britain are permitted to import into Ireland, free of duties, white and brown Britiſh linen cloth made in Great-Britain.

LII. §. 2. All linens made in Ireland, and imported into this kingdom, may be ſhipped off again for any of his majeſty's plantations in America, without paying any duty.

LIII. Stat. 4 Geo. II. cap. 16. §. 1. All perſons who ſhall felonioufly ſteal, or hire any other felonioufly to ſteal, out of any whitening or bleaching croft, or place made uſe of by any whitſter, crofter, bowker, or bleacher, for whitening, bowking, bleaching, or drying any linen, fuſtian, or cotton cloth, or any thread, linen, or cotton yarn, tape, incle, filleting, laces or goods, expoſed to be whitened, bowked, bleached, or dried, to the value of 10 s. or who ſhall buy or receive any ſuch goods, knowing the ſame to be ſtolen, ſhall be adjudged felons without benefit of clergy, unleſs the court ſhall think it reaſonable that the party offending, inſtead of ſuffering death, ſhould be tranſported to ſome of his majeſty's plantations for ſeven years.

LIV. §. 2. If any perſon, ordered to be tranſported in purſuance of this act, ſhall refuſe ſo to be, or ſhall break priſon, eſcape, come on ſhore, or return into this realm, before the term expired, he ſhall, being convicted, ſuffer death.

Remarks.

The following authentic papers being annexed to the report from the committee appointed to examine and ſtate to the houſe of commons the matters of fact in the ſeveral petitions of the manufacturers of, and traders and dealers in, the Linen Manufactory; we have thought them uſeful, to give the reader an inſight into the real ſtate and progreſs of this manufacture in Ireland and Scotland.

Premiums given by the linen board of Ireland, for the encouragement of that manufactory.

Linen-Board.

The truſtees of the linen manufacture are reſolved to continue premiums on coarſe linens, with ſome alterations ſuited to the preſent ſtate of that growing manufacture.

They therefore propoſe to give to ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall, after the 1ſt day of November next, manufacture, or cauſe to be manufactured, the greateſt quantities of ſound merchantable linen cloth, of the breadth of 26 inches or upwards, made of cleanſed yarn, and not leſs in value than 6 d. by the yard, being ſuch as is fit for the uſe of the ſervants and negroes in the Britiſh colonies and plantations, and ſhall cauſe the ſame to be exported to Great-Britain, or to any other part of his majeſty's dominion in Europe or America, on or before the 25th day of December in the year 1750, the following premiums, on the following conditions; provided that the quantities, ſo manufactured and exported, be not leſs than thoſe which correſpond to each premium, according to the following table:

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - -	l. 300	60,000
One premium - -	250	50,000
One premium - - -	200	40,000
One premium - - -	150	30,000
Two premiums, each - -	100	20,000
Four premiums, each - -	50	10,000
Eight premiums, each - -	25	5,000
Ten premiums, each - -	20	4,000
Twenty premiums, each - -	10	2,000
Twenty premiums, each - -	5	1,000

Conditions.

I. All cloths for theſe premiums muſt be proved, upon oath, to have been made entirely of yarn ſpun in this kingdom, and,

and, all other things being equal, the preference ſhall be given to cloths, the yarn of which ſhall be ſpun from flax growing in this kingdom.

II. Strong well wrought cloths ſhall have a preference before a greater quantity of ſlighter, and not ſo well wrought cloths, provided that the leſſer quantity of better cloths be ſufficient to entitle the manufacturers to the premium applied for, according to the above table.

III. All cloths manufactured, in order to obtain any of the above premiums, ſhall be viewed, examined, and ſtamped, by an officer appointed by the board, publickly in the Linen-Hall in Dublin, or in ſome public place in the port towns from whence they are to be exported; and they ſhall be preſented to the ſaid officer, not lapped, but in folds.

IV. All perſons who have large quantities of linen to be viewed, ſhall give 15 days notice to the truſtees, or their ſecretary, of their intention to export any quantity of ſuch linen, not leſs than 4000 yards, to the end that an officer may be ſent to view, examine, and ſtamp the ſame, as aforeſaid, at that port from whence ſuch linens are to be exported, as aforeſaid; and they who have ſmaller quantities muſt give the like notice, to the end that their cloths may be viewed, examined, and ſtamped, at the ſame time, otherwiſe they muſt bring their cloths to the Linen-Hall in Dublin.

V. Indented patterns ſhall be ſent up to the ſecretary of the linen-board of each piece, and the full breadth of the cloth, marked and numbered in the piece and pattern alike, before any officer be ſent to any port whatſoever, to view, examine, and ſtamp linens.

VI. No perſon ſhall be entitled to more than one premium on thoſe coarſe linens; and, therefore,

N. B. All candidates ſhall be ſtrictly examined upon oath, as to their having really and bona fide manufactured, or cauſed to be manufactured, the linens by them entered and exported, as aforeſaid; particularly, whether any other perſon be at all concerned or intereſted in the ſaid cloths; and if, upon ſuch examination, it ſhall appear, that the ſaid cloths, or any part of them, were manufactured covertly, by or for the uſe of ſuch perſon or perſons as in their own, or in any other name, have applied for any other premium, all ſuch perſons, as well they to whom ſuch cloths are found to belong, as they in whoſe names they are entered, ſhall be for that time abſolutely incapable of any premium, although, before the diſcovery of ſuch fraud, they may have appeared or be entitled to it.

VII. Any number of manufacturers, joined in fair partnerſhip previous to the manufacturing theſe linens, are to be taken as one perſon.

VIII. Authentic certificates of the exportation muſt be produced from the collectors of the reſpective ports, at which the ſeveral cloths have been exported.

IX. No perſon is to be admitted a candidate for any of theſe premiums, who is under a contract with the linen-board, to make and export any quantity of thoſe cloths, for which theſe premiums are deſigned.

All perſons may be furniſhed with ſamples of cloths which are fit for the uſe of negroes, &c. at the Linen-Office in the caſtle of Dublin.

Dublin-Caſtle, the 7th of April, 1749. Signed by order, ARTHUR NEWBURGH.

LINEN-BOARD.

The truſtees of the linen manufacture, to encourage the raiſing and manufacturing of flax, the produce of this kingdom, have agreed to give the following premiums, viz.

I. That all perſons who ſhall, from the date hereof to the 1ſt of October, 1752, lodge, in the ſtores of the truſtees of the linen manufacture, any quantity of ſcutched flax, not leſs than 800 weight, ſhall receive 10 s. for every 100 of flax ſo lodged, provided the officers appointed by the truſtees ſhall eſtimate the ſaid flax to be worth not leſs than 35 s. per 100, and provided the ſaid perſon produce proper certificates, that he had, under the culture of flax, a quantity of ground, not leſs than two acres, and provided he makes oath, that the ſaid flax is the produce of the land ſo certified, and that he has never received the premium for it.

II. That all perſons who ſhall, from and to the time aforeſaid, lodge in the ſtores any quantity not leſs than the weight aforeſaid, ſhall receive 8 s. for every 100 weight ſo lodged, provided the officers ſhall eſtimate the ſaid flax to be worth not leſs than 30s. per 100, and provided the certificate and oath above-mentioned be alſo complied with.

III. That all perſons who ſhall, from and to the time aforeſaid, lodge, in the ſtores aforeſaid, any quantity not leſs than the weight aforeſaid, ſhall receive 6 s. for every 100 ſo lodged, provided the officers ſhall eſtimate the ſaid flax to be worth not leſs than 25 s. per 800, and provided the certificate and oath above-mentioned be alſo complied with.

Note, It is required that the quantity of ground on which the flax grew, ſhall be certified by two credible perſons in the neighbourhood, who have viewed the ſame whilſt the flax was growing thereon; and that the name of the townland, barony, and county, in which the ſaid land lies, ſhall be ſpecified in the certificate; which certificate ſhall be ſigned in the preſence of ſome neighbouring juſtice of the peace.

That the owner of the flax ſhall make oath, before two neighbouring juſtices of the peace, that the ſaid flax is his own property, and is the produce of the land certified and deſcribed as above; and that the land was in his own occupation at the time of ſowing the flax.

That the perſon who delivers the flax at the ſtores ſhall make oath, that he received the ſame from the perſon who has made the above-mentioned oath.

N. B. Such perſons who intend to apply for the above premiums, may be ſupplied with the proper form of the oath and certificate by addreſſing for the ſame to Arthur Newburgh, Eſq; in the caſtle of Dublin.

Dublin-Caſtle, the 7th of April, 1749. Signed by order, ARTH. NEWBURGH.

LINEN-BOARD.

The truſtees of the linen manufacture, finding the good effects of the premiums granted upon coarſe linens, have reſolved to extend them further: they therefore propoſe to give ſuch perſons as ſhall, after the 1ſt day of May next, manufacture, or cauſe to be manufactured, the greateſt quantity of ſound, ſtrong, thick linen cloth, of both, or either of the kinds herein after deſcribed, made of high white flaxen yarn, without any mixture of tow-yarn, and thoroughly well bleached, and ſhall cauſe the ſame to be exported to Great-Britain, or any part of his majeſty's dominions in Europe or America, between the 1ſt day of May aforeſaid, and the 1ſt day of November, 1750, the following premiums, on the following conditions, provided that the quantities of each kind, ſo exported by the reſpective candidates, be not leſs than the number of yards correſponding to each premium in the following tables:

Premiums on coarſe ſheeting, which muſt be a cloth of 800, or upwards, and of the full breadth of 40 inches and an half, or upwards when bleached.

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - - -	l. 300	30,000
One premium - - -	250	25,000
One premium - - -	200	20,000
Two premiums, each - -	150	15,000
Two premiums, each - -	100	10,000
Five premiums, each - -	50	5,000

Premiums on finer ſheeting, which muſt be a cloth of 1200, or upwards, and of the full breadth of one ell, or upwards, when bleached.

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - - -	l. 300	18,000
One premium - - -	250	15,000
One premium - - -	200	12,000
Two premiums, each - -	150	9,000
Two premiums, each - -	100	6,000
Five premiums, each - -	50	3,000

CONDITIONS.

I. All cloths entered and exported, in order to entitle the perſons entering and exporting to any of the above premiums, muſt be thoroughly bleached, without uſing rubbing-boards or rubbing-milns: and, to this and every other point that ſhall be thought neceſſary, the reſpective candidates ſhall be examined ſtrictly upon oath.

II. All cloths, as aforeſaid, muſt be brought to the Linen-Hall in Dublin (not lapped, but in the folds) to be there viewed, examined, and ſtamped, by an officer appointed by the truſtees for that purpoſe; and this view, examination, and ſtamping, ſhall be public in the Linen-Hall.

III. All thin, ill woven, or ill bleached goods, and all that ſhall be found deficient in breadth, or to have the leaſt mixture of tow-yarn, ſhall be abſolutely rejected.

IV. Thick, ſtrong, cloſe, well-wrought cloths, ſhall entitle the candidate to a premium preferably to a greater quantity of cloth, leſs thick and ſtrong, and not ſo well woven, provided the ſmaller quantity of better cloth be ſuch as intitles the candidate to the premium applied for, according to the above tables.

V. The ſame perſon may entitle himſelf to one premium on the coarſer ſheeting, and to another on the finer: but no perſon ſhall be qualified to demand or receive more than one premium on a manufacture of the ſame kind: and therefore

N. B. All candidates ſhall be ſtrictly examined upon oath, as to their having, really and bona fide, manufactured, or cauſed to be manufactured, the linens by them entered and exported, as above, particularly whether any other perſon be at all concerned or intereſted in the ſaid cloths; and if, upon examination, it ſhall appear that the ſaid cloths, or any part of them, were manufactured covertly, by or for the uſe of ſuch perſon or perſons, as

in

in their own or any other name have applied for any other premium, all ſuch perſons, as well they to whom ſuch cloths are found to belong, as they in whoſe names they are entered, ſhall be, for that time, abſolutely incapable of any premium, although, before the diſcovery of ſuch fraud, they may have appeared entitled to it.

VI. Any number of manufacturers joined in fair partnerſhip previous to the manufacturing theſe linens, are to be taken as one perſon.

VII. It is expected that all candidates ſhall mark, in the weaving, the hundreds and beares in each piece.

VIII. Authentic certificates of the exportation muſt be produced from the collectors of the reſpective ports, at which the ſeveral cloths have been exported. Such perſons as intend to apply for any of the above premiums, may be furniſhed at the Linen-Office, in the caſtle of Dublin, with ſamples of the ſeveral ſorts of cloths which are fit for ſheeting of either kind, and for which ſorts only the above premiums are intended.

Dublin-Caſtle, the 7th of April, 1749.

Signed by order,
ARTH. NEWBURGH.

An account of the quantity and duty of ſtatutable and unſtatutable linen-yarn, exported out of Ireland to Great-Britain, for twenty years, ending the 25th of March, 1750, each year diſtinguiſhed.

Years end the 25th of March.	Linen-yarn. Statutable.	Linen-yarn. Unſtatutable.	Duty.
1731	13,734 3 28	11 0 8	3,439 5 7
1732	15,309 1 22	34 0 24	3,844 9 2
1733	13,339 0 3	18 2 18	3,344 1 7½
1734	18,101 0 19	21 0 10	4,535 16 7½
1735	15,181 1 28	19 1 22	3,980 1 9
1736	14,695 1 5	48 2 8	3,698 2 1½
1737	14,680 3 5	14 3 6	3,677 11 11½
1738	15,944 2 3	1 1 0	3,986 15 1½
1739	18,182 2 16	17 3 0	4,554 10 8
1740	18,519 0 4	23 3 4	4,641 13 0
1741	21,640 0 2	16 3 12	5,418 8 7
1742	16,329 2 28	00 3 24	4,082 18 2
1743	14,130 2 13	38 2 27	3,552 0 3½
1744	17,816 0 17	194 3 14	4,551 9 4½
1745	21,687 0 3	379 1 22	5,611 9 5½
1746	27,624 0 12	117 3 8	6,964 18 8
1747	28,900 2 22	09 3 28	7,230 3 3
1748	19,399 0 14	18 3 16	4,859 4 5
1749	21,579 2 23	114 1 27	5,452 3 2½
1750	22,231 1 20	141 2 15	5,628 13 4

The value chargeable by the Book of Rates is, 5 l. for ſtatutable, and 10 l. a hundred for unſtatutable, at 120 lb. to the hundred weight.

The ports from whence linen-yarn is chiefly exported, are, Londonderry, Belfaſt, Newry, Drogheda, and, in a leſs degree, Dublin, Dundalk, and Colerain.—The port to which ſuch yarn is exported is Liverpool.

The 5 l. per cent. is by the act of cuſtoms, anno 1661.—The additional 5 l. per cent. by an act of 2 George I. 1717. T. Lill. Exr. Cuſt.

An account of the nett quantities of cotton-wool imported into Great-Britain for ſeven years, after a deduction of the quantities exported; drawn from the accounts produced before the committee.

	Pounds weight.	
1743	1,100,841	Imported.
	31,447	
	1,132,288	
	40,870	Exported.
	1,091,418	
1744	1,280,804	Imported.
	602,069	
	1,882,873	
	182,765	Exported.
	1,700,108	
1745	954,137	Imported.
	515,386	
	1,469,523	
	73,172	Exported.
	1,396,351	

Which, on a medium of theſe three years, amounts to 1,372,624 l. per annum.

	Pounds weight.	
1746	729,525	Imported.
	1,535,283	
	2,264,808	
	73,279	Exported.
	2,191,529	
1747	841,781	Imported.
	1,383,088	
	2,224,869	
	29,438	Exported.
	2,195,431	
1748	3,145,250	Imported.
	1,707,716	
	4,852,966	
	291,717	Exported.
	4,561,249	
1749	1,493,300	Imported.
	165,065	
	1,658,365	
	330,998	Exported.
	1,327,367	

Which, on a medium of theſe laſt four years, amounts to 2,568,894 l. per annum.

The report for the year 1734.

It cannot eſcape your majeſty's obſervation, that the increaſe in the number of yards is not in this laſt year ſo conſiderable as in the former: but then your truſtees apprehend, that is, in a great meaſure, to be imputed to a very large exportation of linen-yarn, which bears hard upon the weavers: but as, according to your truſtees information, 40 or 50,000 l. worth of the yarn, ſo carried from this part of the kingdom, is brought into England, and employed in the manufactures that are carried on there, they cannot ſuffer themſelves to think of any expedient for preventing it, eſpecially ſince the demand for their yarn increaſes the ſpinning, though it is ſome mortification to them, that parcels of their yarn are bought up, and exported beyond the ſeas.

Report for 1736.

The chief cauſe of the decreaſe they impute to the great export of their linen-yarn to Mancheſter, and other parts of the north of England, to be wrought up with cottons there; which they can hardly complain of, becauſe it encourages their ſpinning, and is a benefit to the united kingdom, by preventing the purchaſing of linen-yarn from abroad.

Report for 1738.

One, and indeed the principal cauſe why the making of linen-cloth for ſale is not more rapidly extended, is, that very great quantities of linen-yarn are bought up every year in Scotland, to be wrought up with cotton, and other ways in England, which produces a ſcarcity of the very materials out of which linen is made in this country; inſomuch that the quantity of yarn, which was uſually purchaſed in Scotland for about 2 s. 4 d. two or three years ago, cannot be now bought under 2 s. 7 d. or 2 s. 8 d. and this proves ſo great a drawback on the manufacture of cloth in this country, that, did not the benefit of it redound to the other part of this your majeſty's kingdom, your truſtees would find themſelves under a neceſſity of applying to your majeſty for a remedy, by act of parliament, to this inconveniency. But, as the finding yarn fit for their purpoſe in this part of the iſland, may be a convenience to your majeſty's ſubjects in the other, and as the demand for yarn from hence muſt tend to propagate ſpinning here, your truſtees have laid aſide all thought of aſking for any ſuch remedy.

Another cauſe why the manufacturing yarn into linen does not make ſuch progreſs as were to be wiſhed, is, that great quantities of yarn, eſpecially of the finer ſort, are converted into thread for foreign, as well as for our own mercats: and, as the thread manufacture of this country gains conſiderable reputation, your truſtees humbly think it ought rather to be promoted than diſcouraged.

It being therefore, in your truſtees apprehenſion, improper to attempt to remove any of thoſe cauſes which drain our mercats of yarn, and raiſe the price of it, whereby the working up larger quantities of linen is prevented, the only thing remains for them to do, is, to try to increaſe the quantity of yarn, ſo as, if poſſible, to anſwer all demands, by encouraging the ſpinning of flax, where that art is leaſt known, and conſequently moſt neglected.

Royal Sign Manual.

GEORGE R.

Truſty and well-beloved, we greet you well. Having taken under our royal conſideration your report made to us laſt Chriſtmas, and the propoſition therein contained of publiſhing and eſtabliſhing for three years, from the ſaid Chriſtmas, a plan for diſtributing the monies applicable to improvements, in manner following, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Item, For premiums, after the rate of 15s. per acre, for 2000 acres of ground to be ſown with lint-ſeed and hemp-ſeed, according to rules and conditions to be eſtabliſhed	1500	0	0
For a ſalary to a foreign-flax raiſer, at 30l. per annum	30	0	0
For defraying the maintenance of four young men, inſtructing to raiſe and break flax, at Mr. Hope of Rankeiller's lint-mill	50	0	0
For ſalaries to 12 young men inſtructed, or to be inſtructed in raiſing flax, to be ſtationed in different parts of the country, at 7l. 10s. per annum	90	0	0
For erecting two heckleries, for heckling flax, at 20l. per annum each	40	0	0
For inſtructing four young men in the art of heckling, at 4l. per annum each	16	0	0
For purchaſing four ſetts of heckles, to be given to theſe young men when inſtructed, at 6l. 10s. each ſett	26	0	0
For a ſalary to a perſon ſkilled in the raiſing, dreſſing, and heckling of flax, for ſurveying and examining the raiſers, dreſſers, and hecklers, at the places where they ſhall be ſtationed	60	0	0
For encouraging ſpinning-ſchools, for teaching the ſpinning of flax	46	0	0
For prizes to thoſe that ſhall ſpin the beſt yarn	50	0	0
For encouraging four Dutch weavers, to perfect journeymen-weavers, at 40l. per annum each	160	0	0
For purchaſing Dutch looms, with complete tackle, to be given to ſuch journeymen completed	190	0	0
For ſalaries to 55 lappers and ſtamp-maſters, at ſo many ſtations, at 10l. per annum each	550	0	0
For prizes to be given at ſuch ſtations as the truſtees ſhall appoint, to ſuch perſons as ſhall work the beſt webs of coarſe linen-cloth, of the qualities and ſizes by the truſtees to be limited	212	0	0
For ſalaries to two general riding-officers, at 125l. per annum each	250	0	0
For a ſalary to a ſkilful perſon, who ſhall viſit the ſeveral manufacturing counties, and there inſtruct the ſtamp-maſters, as well as the weavers, in the beſt method of waſhing, ſorting, ſlaying, and weaving of their yarn	130	0	0
For a ſalary to the warehouſe-keeper of the cambric	100	0	0
For defraying the expence of carrying on proſecutions againſt ſuch as tranſgreſs the laws concerning the linen and hempen manufactures	100	0	0
For procuring models of the beſt looms, and other inſtruments, for improving the linen and hempen manufactures	50	0	0
Making, in the whole, for the linen and hempen manufacture	3650	0	0

We are graciouſly pleaſed to approve of your purpoſe of publiſhing the aforeſaid plan for diſtribution of the monies intended for improvements, to continue and endure for three years from Chriſtmas laſt: and we are alſo graciouſly pleaſed to approve of the propoſitions aforeſaid, for employing 1205l. part of the ſavings in your caſhier's hands: and do hereby authorize and impower you to iſſue your precepts to your caſhier, to pay, out of the monies in his hands, the ſeveral ſums above-mentioned, to the ſeveral uſes and purpoſes aforeſaid: and this, together with your precepts to follow thereupon, and the receipts of the perſons to whom the precepts ſhall ſeverally be made paſſable, ſhall be to you, and your caſhier, a ſufficient authority and exoneration. And we do further will and direct, that, in your next annual report, you do lay before us a particular account of the monies that ſhall be ſo iſſued by you for theſe ſervices. Severally given at our court at St. James's the 12th day of May, 1740, in the 13th year of our reign.

By his MAJESTY's Command.

So ſigned, R. WALPOLE,
GEO. DODDINGTON,
SUNDON.

Prices of raw linen-yarn in Germany, as imported by De Ponthieu and Egerton, for twelve years laſt paſt, excluſive of charges and duty here.

1739.	6	lb. a bundle, at	10	d. ½ a lb.
	7	ditto	9	½
	8	ditto	8	1
	9	ditto	7	½
1740.	6	ditto	10	1
	7	ditto	9	½
	8	ditto	8	½
	9	ditto	7	½
1741.	6	ditto	10	¾
	7	ditto	9	¾
	8	ditto	8	¾
	9	ditto	7	¾
1742.	6	ditto	10	¼
	7	ditto	9	¼
	8	ditto	8	¼
	9	ditto	7	¼
1743.	6	ditto	10	½
	7	ditto	9	½
	8	ditto	8	½
	9	ditto	7	½
1744.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	
1745.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	
1746.	6	ditto	11	¾
	7	ditto	10	¾
	8	ditto	9	¾
	9	ditto	8	¾
1747.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	
1748.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	
1749.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	
1750.	6	ditto	12	
	7	ditto	11	
	8	ditto	10	
	9	ditto	9	

The duty upon yarn here, from 1739 to 1747, was 2d. ½ per pound weight: and, from 1748 to 1750, 2d. ⅞, beſides charges and freight, which, on coarſe linen-yarn, comes to near ¼ per pound.

Iriſh premiums, as publiſhed in the Daily Gazetteer of Tueſday, February 25, 1746.

IRELAND.

A bounty of 1d. ½ per yard being granted by the Britiſh parliament on all Britiſh or Iriſh linens, made of flax or hemp of the value of 6d. per yard, and not exceeding 12d. per yard, that ſhall be exported out of Great-Britain to the plantations, &c.—The Linen Board have agreed to give the following premiums, viz.

1ſt. 500l. To ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall manufacture, or cauſe to be manufactured, the greateſt quantity

tity of ſound merchantable linen-cloth, of 26 inches breadth, or upwards, made of cleanſed yarn, not leſs in value than 6d. per yard, nor more than 10d. being ſuch as is fit for the uſe of the ſervants and negroes in the Britiſh colonies and plantations; and ſhall cauſe the ſame to be exported to Great-Britain between the 1ſt of May, 1746, and the 1ſt of May, 1747, provided the quantity ſo exported be not leſs than 50,000 yards.

2d. 400 l. On the like conditions, to ſuch as have not obtained the firſt premium, and to export not leſs than 40,000 yards.

3d. 300 l. On the like conditions, to ſuch as have not obtained the firſt or ſecond premiums, and to export not leſs than 30,000 yards.

4th. 200 l. To ſuch as have not obtained the firſt, ſecond, or third premiums, and to export not leſs than 20,000 yards.

5th. 100 l. To ſuch as have not obtained the firſt, ſecond, third, and fourth premiums, and to export not leſs than 10,000 yards.

1,500 l.

For exporting 150,000 yards is 2d. $\frac{4}{10}$ of a penny each yard, over-and-above 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per yard, given by the Engliſh parliament.

N. B. The Iriſh give all utenſils for the linen manufactory, as looms, reeds, hatchels, wheels, reels, and ſalaries to a foreman and a whitſter, beſides ſeed to ſow hemp and flax.

Dublin Caſtle, March 7, 1745.

The truſtees of the linen manufacture of Ireland give notice, that they will give conſiderable encouragement to ſuch flax-dreſſers (to be approved of by the truſtees) as ſhall come from any parts beyond the ſeas, into, and ſettle and carry on their trade in that kingdom.

Propoſals to be addreſſed to Arthur Newburgh, Eſq; at the caſtle of Dublin.

Signed by order,

ARTHUR NEWBURGH.

Premiums given by the Linen-Board of Ireland, for manufacturing, or cauſing to be manufactured, great quantities of coarſe linen, between the 1ſt of May, 1747, and the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1748, fit for the uſe of ſervants and negroes in the Britiſh colonies and plantations.

	Yards.	l.
Meſſieurs Jebb, who manufactured —	275,643	500
Mr. William Lefanu — —	253,606	400
Mr. Ellis Price — — —	135,011	300
Mr. Lewis Laurent — —	71,594	200
Mr. John Pemberton — —	53,882	100
Mr. Thomas Reed — —	37,475	50
Mr. Jonah Tanner — —	31,604	50
Mr. Daniel Dickenſon — —	19,236	25
Mr. William Willan — —	11,165	25
Mr. John Starkey — —	9,271	25
Mr. Henry Dempſy — —	3,777	20
Mr. Thomas Gamble — —	2,146	20
Mr. John Croſs — —	1,902	10
Mr. George Holmes — —	1,538	10
Mr. Richard Dillon — —	869	5
Mr. John Newett — —	621	5
		1745

Extracted from the Gentleman and Citizen's Almanac, for the year 1751.

Premiums on coarſe Linens, for the year ending the 1ſt of November, 1749, were paid by the Linen-Board to the following perſons, viz.

	Yards.	l.
Mr. Richard Jebb, who cauſed to be manufactured and exported the greateſt quantity, viz. - -	208,873	500
Mr. William Lefanu — —	180,345	400
Mr. Ellis Price — —	142,140	300
Mr. Lewis Laurent — —	62,406	200
Mr. Abraham Cheborn — —	37,817	100
Meſſieurs Jonathan Tanner and John Starkey each 50 l. — —	——	100
Richard Diſton, Thomas Gamble, Dan. Dickinſon, George Holmes, each 25 l.	——	100
Thomas Read, Henry Dempſy, John Newett, Benjamin Robertſon, Frank Taylor, each 20 l. — —	——	100
John Duff, Samuel Greenwood, George Booth, John Pemberton, Richard Brynington, James White, Jonathan Newett, John Holmes, Andrew Hartford, each 10 l. — —	——	90
Jonathan Tanner of Bandon, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a uſeful manufacturer in that part of the kingdom, had an additional premium of —	——	40
	In all	1,930

The other premiums promiſed by the Linen-Board were not due in October 1750.

REMARKS on the LINEN MANUFACTURE in general.

From the ſtate of the caſe of the linen manufacture, as before given, the neceſſity of it's utmoſt advancement manifeſtly appears; and that not only amply to ſupply ourſelves and our plantations, but to put ourſelves in a condition to participate in the ſupply of foreign countries. And what weighty and concluſive objections can be made againſt the probability of ſo doing? Is not Great-Britain, in conjunction with Ireland, and the aid of her plantations, as capable of ſupplying themſelves with all flaxes and hempen linens, as France heretofore was to ſupply themſelves with the woollen manufactures? Do we not labour under far leſs difficulties and diſcouragements in the one reſpect, than that nation did in the other? If we are once arrived to the pitch of being able fully to furniſh ourſelves, what hinders that we cannot exclude the wear of foreign linens, as France has that of foreign woollen goods? There was a time, when it might, perhaps, be our intereſt, in ſome degree, to import foreign linen; it was ſo when thoſe foreign linen countries took an equal value, or more, of our woollen, or any other manufactures, than we did of their linens: but no one, I believe, will undertake to demonſtrate that the caſe is ſo at preſent.

On the contrary, the balance of trade is greatly in our diſfavour with the foreign linen countries in general; and, before the evil further increaſes, is it not prudential to think of a remedy? When diſadvantages of this kind grow to a certain height, they frequently become irremediable, without coming to an open rupture with ſuch foreign countries wherewith we are ſo circumſtanced: but, if we are wiſe enough gradually to decline purchaſing of their produce and manufacture, in the like proportion as they do ours, we ſhall not only ſave the national treaſure, but preſerve peace and tranquillity with thoſe very nations.—And, when this general manufacture ſhall be brought to a height ſufficient to ſupply ourſelves and plantations with a commodity as cheap and good in quality as foreign linens, what hinders but we may caſt about for foreign markets for the vent of our linens, as the French have done for their woollens? But, if we never put ourſelves into a condition of ſupplying ourſelves, how can we ever expect to have any ſhare in the ſupply of other nations?

Should it be ſaid, as has been, that the ineffectuality of the late cambric act ſhews the improbability, if not the impoſſibility of preventing the ſmuggling importation of foreign linens, and, therefore, it is in vain to attempt the advancement of our linen trade.—That the reſemblance between cambrics and other fine linens, both foreign and Britiſh, is ſuch, that very few, and thoſe only of the greateſt experience, can pretend to diſtinguiſh them.—That, this diſtinction being principally grounded on circumſtances capable of being eaſily varied or diſguiſed, ſuch as length, breadth, bleach, dreſs, and package, the moſt experienced dealer cannot determine with any degree of certainty, becauſe he can never be ſure that he ſees the goods in their original or cuſtomary form: and upon this principle it is, that the moſt ſkilful give up all remnants and waſhed linens, as utterly undiſtinguiſhable.—Whence it follows, ſay theſe objectors to the prohibition of foreign linens, that it can never be made to affect the wearer thereof; and, if ſo, it may from experience in other inſtances be concluded, that no penalties will be found ſufficient to deter the ſeller, though it ſhould be much eaſier to detect and convict him than from the nature of the thing is poſſible.—Should this, and much more, be urged in the like ſtrain, ought this to diſcourage us from attempting to go greater lengths in this lucrative manufacture? Does not the ſucceſsful example of France in the woollen manufacture ſhew the experimental invalidity of all arguments of this kind?

In relation to the reſemblance between foreign linens imported into this kingdom of the favoured nations, and that whoſe linens are intended to be excluded, it is to be feared that the latter can never be effected without the former is ſo too; and ſince our Britiſh and Iriſh linens do, in many reſpects, nearly reſemble the foreign linens at preſent, and are ſo daily improving, that no doubt can be made of their arriving at the like degree of perfection, if due encouragement is not wanting among ourſelves: ſince this is the caſe, our own linens can never take general place in the kingdom, 'till all foreign linens whatever are abſolutely excluded, becauſe thoſe of the favoured foreign nations cover, conceal, and increaſe the ſmuggling of the other. To lay the axe to the root of the evil, therefore, what expedient can be more natural and effectual than to prevent the importation of either, as we become capable to ſupply ourſelves? Theſe were the meaſures which the French ſucceſsfully took with regard to the eſtabliſhment of their woollen manufactory; for, when they ceaſed to

take

take the Engliſh woollen goods, Holland attempted to ſupply them, but they were reſolute, and excluded all foreign woollen manufacture, and contented themſelves with the wear of their own, though very coarſe and indifferent at their firſt attempt, rather than not gain the victory in trade which they ſo wiſely aimed at.

If this, on impartial examination, ſhould be found the beſt policy that Great-Britain and Ireland can purſue, in order to the ſucceſsful eſtabliſhment of the linen manufacture in general, what can be a more natural introduction to this deſireable end, than to take off the drawback upon foreign linens, and to encourage the production of flax and hemp in our own plantations to the utmoſt? And, when once theſe general manufactories, by our own conſumption and that of our plantations, are brought to a pitch of perfection no way inferior to thoſe of the foreign linen countries, have we not as good chance to partake of the ſupply of ſuch foreign nations as want them, as the French had in the woollen manufactory? Cannot the Britiſh and Iriſh linen manufactures imitate the lengths, breadths, bleach, dreſs, and package of foreign linens, as well as the French did with reſpect to the Engliſh woollen goods? See the article FRANCE.

If then, upon the whole, it ſhall appear to be right commercial policy to advance our linen manufactories to their full extent, upon thoſe principles which we have humbly ſuggeſted, can it be wrong policy to uſe every endeavour to prevent the importation of French cambrics, which ſwept away 200,000 l. a year of our ready * caſh? If the end has not hitherto been ſo effectually anſwered as could be wiſhed by every true friend to his country, is it prudential to ſlacken in our endeavours? Does it not more become the wiſdom of the nation to try every expedient, 'till the great end ſhall be anſwered, than to give up a point of ſuch national importance? Can any thing be inſuperable to the ſuperlative wiſdom and reſolution of a Britiſh parliament? The unſpeakable advantage which Scotland and Ireland have already received from the linen manufacture, ſhould fill every Briton with the warmeſt zeal for it's utmoſt encouragement in theſe kingdoms.—What immortal honour is deſervedly due to the great earl of Strafford, who firſt introduced the linen manufacture into Ireland, by ſowing great quantities of flax-ſeed, and ſetting up ſeveral looms at his own expence, to invite the Iriſh to follow that trade, without prejudice to England, which has proved, and is, at this day, their greateſt benefit and ſupport ‡? Is there not infinitely more glory in being the founder of a manufacture which has given bread to millions, than to have been the greateſt conqueror upon earth? See SCOTLAND and IRELAND, and the ſeveral other articles before referred to under this.

* While the French, at the beginning of the war, in 1742, were ſecretly aſſiſting the Spaniards, before hoſtilities commenced between the Engliſh and French, alderman Janſſen moſt zealouſly endeavoured to put the nation upon diſtreſſing the latter, by preventing the importation of their cambrics.—Among other meaſures taken by this gentleman, he was, as I am informed, at the expence of inſerting, for ſeveral months together, in the Daily Advertiſer, which contributed not a little to open the eyes of the kingdom, 'That two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, paid 'annually to France for it's CAMBRICS, amount (from the 'time of the peace of Utrecht) to above SIX MILLIONS.' ——To this the author thereof ſubjoined the following very natural query,—'Whether our having furniſhed the French 'with ſo immenſe a ſum may not have greatly forwarded 'their deſtructive ſchemes, and partly have been the occa'ſion of this expenſive war, which we, conſequently, are 'the leſs able (by the above-mentioned ſum of ſix millions) 'to carry on, &c.'—Though the judicious efforts of this worthy gentleman have not hitherto anſwered the national expectation, yet it may prove a good ſtep towards it, if meaſures adequate to the evil are taken by the parliament. —If one expedient will not do, ſhould we ever ceaſe trying 'till we fall upon what will?

Though this gentleman's good intentions to ſerve his country, in this reſpect, have not hitherto ſo effectually anſwered as could be wiſhed, yet many of his endeavours have been ſucceſsful.—He attacked ſmuggling in general, and particularly that of teas and French brandies, as being the chief baſis of this deteſtable practice. He publiſhed ſeveral judicious pieces on this occaſion, and particularly a PLAN for reducing the exciſe on teas; which being afterwards adopted by the honourable Houſe of Commons, an act paſſed in 1745, which took place at Midſummer the ſame year; whereby the exciſe upon tea was reduced from 4s. to 2s. per pound, to prevent ſmuggling: by which wiſe meaſure the revenue was immediately doubled, and has continued to encreaſe ever ſince.—See our article TEA. In conſequence of the eyes of the nation being opened, an act paſſed in the year 1743-4 for prohibiting the wear of FRENCH CAMBRICS, which not proving effectual, ſeveral other acts paſſed afterwards to enforce this prohibition, which at length, had the deſired effect; inſomuch that at this day 1764, the manufacture of cambric in FRANCE is almoſt entirely broke up; and the ladies here wear nothing but plain flowered, and ſtriped MUSLINS, from the EAST-INDIES, with GAUSES, BLONDS, &c. &c. of BRITISH FABRIC. He was elected member of parliament for the city of London in the year 1747; and this worthy repreſentative has alſo been ſucceſsful in various other of his public-ſpirited attempts. At the breaking out of the late war, a memorial was drawn up, in order for it's being preſented to the duke of Newcaſtle, ſetting forth reaſons for the packets being continued between Dover and Calais; which memorial was begun to be ſigned by ſome merchants. Of this the alderman getting early intelligence, he drew up a counter-memorial to his grace, to which, in three days time, he obtained the ſignature of near 300 of the principal merchants of the city of London. This had ſo good an effect, that the injurious correſpondence by that channel was interrupted during the whole war.—Mr. Janſſen was likewiſe principally concerned at a moſt critical point of time (that of the rebellion 1745) in that capital meaſure for preſerving the public credit of the kingdom, by obtaining a ſubſcription of the principal merchants and traders of the city of London, to take bank-notes in payment; for which the alderman had the thanks of his late royal highneſs the prince of Wales, together with his picture, and thoſe likewiſe of the then prime miniſter.—He firſt ſet on foot, at a great expence, the revival of the herring-fiſhery in theſe kingdoms, in the year 1750, by which 20,000 perſons, at one time, have been employed in it's different branches; and it is to be hoped, that it will prove as inexhauſtible a mine of treaſure to Britain as it has done to a neighbouring nation.——Theſe things I mention in honour to this meritorious gentleman, not only to the end that ſuch virtues may never be forgot, but to inſpire others with the like public ſpirited principles; for, the more examples we have of this kind, the more will our commercial proſperity be advanced.—This is my only motive, having never exchanged a ſingle expreſſion with that gentleman in my life.

‡ See the earl of Strafford's Letters and Diſpatches, &c.—By the Rev. Mr. Knowler.—Dedication to the earl of Malton.

LINT, in regard to the linen manufacture. This manufactory can never arrive in England, Scotland, and Ireland, to that perfection it has done in foreign countries, unleſs every part of the whole operation, from the raiſing the flax to the completion of the intire manufacture, be vigilantly attended to.—The beſt flax-dreſſer [ſee FLAX] when he does his utmoſt, cannot finiſh of the beſt lint (for bad and unripe lint, or lint not fully watered, or ſpoiled in the watering, will not bear the expence of dreſſing, and is indeed not worth dreſſing, nor ought it to be dreſſed) above 12 pounds weight in a day; and a well contrived lint-mill will dreſs, at the rate of every hand employed in it, 16 pounds in a day. The cheapeſt that good lint can be dreſſed by the hand, is at leaſt one third more than it coſts by the mill.—A farmer where our linen manufactures are eſtabliſhed, and who is in the practice of ſummer-fallowing his ground, cannot, perhaps, do a thing more for his advantage than to ſend in an able-bodied young man to be bred to the Flanders way of flax-dreſſing, and to ſow annually an acre or more, of the richeſt fallow ground with lint, to keep this ſervant conſtantly employed in managing and dreſſing it; if his farm lies within a few miles of a lint-mill, he may raiſe as much flax as can be dreſſed by this ſervant, and the help of the mill, and ſend it, from time to time, to the market in ſmall parcels for ſale, ſo ſoon as it is ready for the firſt heckle.

There muſt be at every ſuch lint mill, beſides the boys that attend the breaking and the ſcutching of the mill, at leaſt two or three ſkilful flax-dreſſers, to finiſh the flax by the hand, and to pull and draw it in, in which they are careful never to put the root and ſeed-end together, as is too often done, through inadvertency, in Scotland and Ireland, but keep it always carefully in the ſame way it grew, to the very laſt operation, whether it be heckled or dreſſed for ſpinning by bruſhes, as the fine lint is; and, in ſpinning, the thread is always drawn from the root-end, and not by the bucht from the middle, according to the practice of ſome ordinary ſpinners.

There is a lint-mill in Scotland, upon the water of Eden, a little above Cowpar in Fife, which is ſaid to be brought to the greateſt perfection, and is a compleat pattern to be followed by all who intend to erect lint-mills, and to follow this uſeful and beneficial trade.—At the ſame mill the proprietor carries on another branch alſo, viz. the keeping heckles and ſkilful hecklers, for dreſſing the lint for ſpinning.

REMARKS.

The woollen manufacture of England never came to it's perfection 'till the buſineſs of the woollſtapler came to be a trade; and it muſt be the ſame with the linen.—Here is a fine branch of buſineſs for any gentleman who has the conveniency of water for erecting a lint-mill; he may either raiſe lint himſelf, or buy it in the boon from others, and dreſs it by his mill for the heckle; he may have his heckles in a convenient houſe near to it, for dreſſing and ſtapling the lint by proper heckles, into fine dreſſed flax, fine dreſſed tow, common tow, backings and beards, for the ſervice of the country ſpinners.

LITHUANIA, the great duchy, in Poland. This large country has Greater Poland and Pruſſia on the weſt; part of Muſcovy on the eaſt; Livonia, the Baltic Sea, and part of Muſcovy, on the north; Red Ruſſia, Volhinia, and Podolia, on the ſouth; and the Ukrain on the ſouth-eaſt.

It's chief rivers are the Boryſthenes, or Nieper, Dwina, and Niemen.

The

L I V

The air is generally thick and foggy, becauſe of it's many woods and lakes; that it is not near ſo fruitful as Poland, yet has plenty of wax, honey, mead, pitch, tar, and timber, and abounds with black cattle, ſheep, ermins, ſables, and all manner of furrs. But their greateſt trade of export is to Holland, &c. with their pitch, tar, and timber, for which they receive woollen cloth, ſalt, and wines.

VILNA, the capital of a palatinate ſo called, is a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy.

GRODNO ſtands partly on a hill, by the river Niemen. Some reckon it the metropolis of Lithuania. The houſes are generally of wood and very mean; but it has a good trade, the merchandizes of ſeveral parts of Lithuania being tranſported from hence to Dantzic.

KOWNO, near the influx of the river Niemen into the Wilna, is a well-built town, and much frequented by German merchants.

MOHILOW, ſeated on the Nieper, is a large, well-built, and populous city: it's market is much frequented by the Muſcovites, who tranſmit their furrs from hence into Poland and Germany.

LIVES [ANNUITIES upon LIVES.] Under the article LEASES we were obliged to enter into the doctrine of annuities upon lives, which are computed upon the principles of the learned Dr. Halley and Mr. Abraham De Moivre, and tables formed therefrom by Mr. Richards, applicable to great variety of caſes. But, ſince the time that theſe great men wrote, there have been other ingenious gentlemen, who have entered into the rationale of their principles, and have made ſuch objections thereto that deſerve attention; for, when the intelligent reader has the ſubſtance impartially laid before him that has been urged on all ſides, he will be the better able to diſcern where the truth lies. This I ſhall do with all the brevity and perſpicuity that I can. See the article ANNUITIES.

The principal gentleman that diſſented from thoſe eminent mathematicians, with any ſort of reputation, is Weyman Lee, Eſq;—'I am ſenſible, ſays this ingenious author, that a man ought to go on good grounds when he preſumes to attack calculations made by ſo great a maſter of thoſe things as Dr. Halley, &c.'—With much more in the gentleman-like ſtrain, which becomes all men of ſcience. 'The chief exception, continues he, which I take to the doctor's table, is, that, where the value of an annuity for a life in one period of it is computed with the value of an annuity for a life in another period of it, the term to which ſuch value in one period is equal, does not vary by a proportional degree of decreaſe from the term to which ſuch value in another period is equal.—In conſequence whereof, the chance of the duration of the annuity does not ſink by the ſame degrees as the chance of vitality decreaſes: nor does the value of the annuity itſelf, could it be conſidered even abſtractedly from the dependent life, decreaſe, from one period of life to another, in a juſt proportion.

The meaning hereof will beſt appear by the following tables. An example, however, may be uſeful.—An annuity for the life of a perſon between the age of 15 and 20, is in value 13—33, which is equal to a term of 26—2—61; and an annuity for the life of a perſon between the age of 20 and 25, is in value 12—78, which is equal to a term of 25—0—00 according to the doctor's table; and, if we deduct 12—78 out of 13—33, the remainder will be 00—55, and this is the decreaſe in the value; and, if we deduct 25—0—00 out of 27—2—61, the remainder will be 2—2—61, and this is the difference in the term in thoſe two periods.

This will be more obvious if expreſſed thus: a perſon of the age between 15 and 20 has a chance to live 27 years, 2 quarters and 61 days; and one of the age between 20 and 25 has a chance to live 25 years; that is, leſs than a perſon of the precedent age 2 years, 2 quarters, and 61 days: this is what is called the difference of the term of years from one period of life to another: and, ſince the decreaſe in value will always correſpond to the difference in the term, the value of the annuity in the ſecond period is leſs than that in the firſt period by 00—15 in decimals, which is equal to a term of 2—2—61 in reverſion, after a term of 25—0—00.—So that the doctor's table does not preſerve a juſt proportion in this inſtance; that is, ſuch a proportion as can be juſtified by any bills of mortality, or be accounted for by any FACTS that ever happen in nature.

To ſhew this defect the clearer, I have inſerted the doctor's table in No. III. following; and, ſince the ſame exception lies againſt Mr. Hayes's, Mr. Richards's, and Mr. Morris's tables for the value of annuities on a life, I have inſerted a part of them likewiſe, in the tables No. IV, V, and VI; and to each of them I have added three calculations of my own: the firſt column of which contains an account of the term of years, and parts of a year, to which every life is equal, as it correſponds to the value on the tables reſpectively: the ſecond gives the ſeveral differences in the term of years, and the third the decreaſes in the value of the annuity, from one period of life to another, as they come out on the ſeveral tables reſpectively.—In my own table, No. II. I have inſerted ſolely the term to which a life is equal, becauſe the value of the annuity will of courſe attend on, and be equal to the term; and to *this* a third column is added, which gives this difference in the term, according to ſuch tables, and the decreaſe in the value will be in the very ſame proportion: from whence, and by an inſpection into the ſeveral tables, and a compariſon of them together, we may diſcern which of them beſt preſerves that proportional difference in the term and decreaſe in the value which ought to be obſerved in this caſe.

Since then theſe tables are all of them more or leſs defective in this material point, I ſhall confine my reflections ſolely to Dr. Halley's tables, though my reaſoning in general is applicable to all of them equally.

The particular periods of life, which are defective in this reſpect, are 20 and 40: in the firſt of which the difference in the term is much too great, and in the latter too ſmall. In the firſt column of this table, which contains the ages of perſons, we have 20, which is the period including the lives from 20 to 25; and againſt it, in the fourth column, which gives the difference between the term in that period, and the term in the preceding, we find the difference to be 2—2—61: and, in the ſame fourth column, we ſee the difference for the preceding period to be 00—2—30, and that of the ſubſequent one to be 2—0—46: and this difference 2—2—61, compared with ſuch the precedent and ſubſequent difference, is ſuch a proportion as cannot be maintained by any bills of mortality, at leaſt any that ever I ſaw, or by any reaſon in the nature of the thing.

If we conſult the modern bills of mortality for London, where the ages of perſons dying are diſtinguiſhed in periods from 10 years to 10 years; and, in the extract added in the following tables, it appears that the number of perſons dying in the period between 20 and 30 is leſs than the number dying between 30 and 40; and, if we ſhould ſuppoſe, of thoſe dying between 20 and 30, one half were of the age between 20 and 25, and the other half between 25 and 30, which is a more favourable ſuppoſition than there are juſt grounds to make, yet, ſince the difference in the intermediate period, viz. between 20 and 25, ought to bear a proportion to the precedent and ſubſequent one, it ſhould therefore be ſomething greater than the precedent, and ſomething leſs than the ſubſequent one: whereas, in this intermediate period, the difference is 2—0—31 more than in the precedent one, which is an extravagant decreaſe; and it is alſo more than the ſubſequent one by 00—2—15, when the ſubſequent difference, if there were any variation, ought undoubtedly to be the greater, for that fewer perſons, out of an equal number, die between 20 and 25, than between 25 and 30; and if we ſhould ſuppoſe, as before, that the number of perſons dying of the age between 20 and 25, and between 25 and 30, was the ſame; yet the number co-exiſting in the firſt of the two periods muſt be greater than in the ſecond, and, conſequently, the chance of mortality in the latter period muſt be greater than in the former, the ſame number dying out of a leſs number living: and, therefore, the difference in the latter ought to be greater.

At the time, indeed, when the doctor compoſed this table, the bills of mortality for London were not publiſhed with the diſtinction of the ages of the ſeveral perſons dying, ſo that theſe bills could be no guide to him. But then the Breſlaw table was before him when he wrote; and if this be the ſtandard, whereby to try this table for the value of annuities for life, my objection of the want of a proportionable difference in the term and decreaſe in the value is ſtronger upon an inſpection into that table, than in any other light whatever. If then we conſult the Breſlaw table, which we have inſerted among the following, it will appear that the number of perſons dying in a year between 15 and 20 is 30, the number between 20 and 25 is 31, and between 25 and 30 is 36. Upon which it may be obſerved, though the number co exiſting in the firſt of theſe periods is greater than that in the ſecond; yet that the number dying in the firſt is leſs than the number in the ſecond, and the ſame obſervation holds good in comparing the ſecond with the third period: whence it follows, that the difference in the term ought to be in proportion correſpondent, or, in other words, ſuch difference in the term ought to bear a proportion anſwering to the increaſe in the chance of mortality: and, if the Breſlaw table be a rule for the increaſe of the chance of mortality, it muſt be a rule for the difference in the term, and yet, for this difference in the term, we ſee that the proper proportion is directly contradicted, or unpreſerved.

Many have a notion, that the age of 30 is the beſt age on which to have an annuity depending, for that thoſe under this age are expoſed to more caſualties than thoſe arrived to ſome maturity of age and diſcretion; and, therefore, that the chance of vitality in the younger part of life is more uncertain than at the age of 30, or thereabouts. But Dr. Halley diſcovered no ſuch thing in the bills of mortality for Breſlaw, nor can any one diſcover it in the Breſlaw tables, which he formed from thence; for there the number of perſons dying in the period from 10 to 20 is 63, from 20 to 30 is 67, and from 30 to 40 is 86. If we look into the modern bills of mortality for London, and my extract from thence, there we find the caſe to be the ſame in the main, though not in the ſame proportion, and that the number of thoſe dying in

L I V

the older period of life greatly exceeds the number in the younger: and the account there ſtands thus. Out of every 1000 perſons dying, there die of the age between 10 and 20, 30; of the age between 20 and 30, 72: and, of the age between 30 and 40, 93: and from hence it appears evi dently, that this notion of the beſt age of life is not a juſt one.

But, if there was a better foundation for the notion than there appears to be, and if there was room for a latitude in the calculation of the chances of mortality for the age between 10 and 30, this can avail nothing in the age of 40 or thereabouts; and yet in the period of 40 we have an improper proportion in the difference of the term, for that it is too ſmall, when compared with the difference in the periods on both ſides of it. In this inſtance, indeed, the deviation is not great; but, if any difference were made, it ſhould have been greater in this than in the precedent, and leſs than in the ſubſequent period; that is, it ſhould grow greater and greater gradually, as the age of life advances: whereas the difference is leſs in this period, than in the periods on either ſide. And, ſince all that has been urged againſt the want of proportion by an over-difference, is equally applicable to this caſe of an under-difference; I ſhall only add, that I believe no bills of mortality whatever or any thing in nature do, and that I am very ſure the bills of mortality for Breſlaw or for London do not, warrant the one or the other.

Theſe are the ſingle articles in this table which are moſt exceptionable; but, in truth, this defect goes through the whole performance, which I will ſhew by an inſtance that demonſtrates the defect. The doctor, on the bills of mortality for Breſlaw, obſerves, and I believe all mankind will agree it to be true in the reſt of the world as well as there, that, out of a certain number of perſons in the decline of life, more die in a year, or any determinate number of years, than thoſe do out of an equal number of perſons in the youth and vigour of life: and he has himſelf given us the Breſlaw table, as a ſcheme of the increaſe of mortality, according to the advance in age. Now, if the chance of mortality increaſes, and the chance of vitality decreaſes, in proportion to the advance in age; and, if the value of an annuity for a life, or the number of years to which a life is equal, which differs in nothing but the manner of expreſſion, does depend on the chance of the vitality of the life, and on nothing elſe, as moſt certainly it does, it evidently follows, that the value of an annuity for a life, or the number of years to which a life is equal, muſt decreaſe faſter, and by greater degrees in the older than in the younger ſtages of life, and in the ſame proportion as the chance of vitality decreaſes

Let us ſee now how this difference or decreaſe in the term will ſtand, if we put together the whole of the decreaſes for the four periods of younger life, of middle life, and of the oldeſt life. The whole then for the firſt ſet is a term of 7—1—46, for the ſecond 7—0—15, and for the third 7—1—00: which, we ſee, is directly contrary to the rule laid down, and almoſt inverts the proportion. If we would know what is the right and juſt proportion to be obſerved, and might depend on the Breſlaw tables as giving us ſuch proportion, and this author's table for the value of annuities was framed from thoſe tables; on a computation from thence, the caſe, as between the perſons of the youngeſt and the oldeſt period of life, ſtands thus. The number of perſons co-exiſting above the age of 10, and under 30, which contains the four periods of younger life, conſiſting of 20 years, is in all 11875; and the number of perſons dying out of them in one year is 130; that is, one in 91, or thereabouts. The number of perſons exiſting above the age of 55, and under 75, which contains the four periods of older life, conſiſting likewiſe of 20 years, in all 3726; and the number of perſons dying out of them is 204, that is one in 18, or thereabouts. The proportion here then is plainly five to one: that is, of an equal number of perſons of each ſtage of life, the number of the older ſtage of life dying a year will be five, and of the younger ſtage one only: or, if one perſon only be nominated of each ſtage of life, the chance of mortality on the ſide of the perſon of the older ſtage of life againſt the perſon of the younger ſtage is five to one.

Whether this proportion of the increaſe of mortality, as it ariſes from a computation on the Breſlaw table, be a juſt one, I neither affirm nor deny; but, be it right or wrong, this author's table for the value of annuities for a life was framed from thence; and, therefore, the difference or decreaſe in the term, from one period of life to another, and between the periods of younger and elder life, ſhould bear ſuch a proportion to one another on the table for the value of annuities, as the increaſe of the chance of vitality in one period of life bears to that increaſe in another period, according to the Breſlaw table: and I may appeal to the doctor's own calculation, whether the decreaſes given in one table are conformable to the decreaſes in the other table, or are agreeable to any rule, which ariſes from the nature of the life of man.

I might reſt the matter here; but ſince it may be urged, although the proportional decreaſe contended for is not preſerved, when we compare it, as we have hitherto done, with the ſcheme of the difference of the term; yet if we compare it with a ſcheme of the decreaſe of the value, and the table of annuities is framed by a computation from the value and not from the term, there poſſibly the proper proportion may be well enough preſerved. For this reaſon I made the calculation inſerted in the fifth column of the table No. III. which contains an account of the decreaſe of the value of an annuity from one period of life to another, computed by the values only; and we find the very ſame defects here as we had before, and in the very ſame inſtances: and, indeed, it muſt of neceſſity ſo come out, ſince the value and the term do always reciprocally correſpond.

The ſingle periods of life which we found fault with, according to the ſcheme in the terms, were 20 and 40; and in theſe two articles the ſame error occurs upon this ſcheme as we met with on the former. On the period 20 we objected, that the decreaſe, when compared with the precedent and ſubſequent one, was too great; and here the ſeveral decreaſes of theſe three periods being, as ſtated decimally, 11,55,51, it appears plainly on the face of them that the middle one, viz. that for the period 20, is greater than the precedent one by a difference much too large, and alſo greater than the ſubſequent one, when undoubtedly it ought to be ſomething leſs. And as for the period 40, to avoid repetitions, I would refer you to the ſcheme itſelf; an inſpection into which does plainly enough diſcover the defect; for the decreaſe in that period is leſs than in either of thoſe on each ſide, and therefore cannot poſſibly be in a proper proportion to both of them.

Theſe, indeed, are not very great miſtakes, or however, by a ſmall variation might be rectified; but, if they were ſet right, yet the grand error will ſtill remain, viz. want of proportion through the whole ſcheme. The decreaſe in the four firſt ſtages of life is, indeed, in value, computed by way of decimals, 1—7; and in the latter ſtages is 3—91; notwithſtanding which, in reality, there is no great difference in theſe two decreaſes, and what difference there is lies on the wrong ſide, viz. on the ſide of 1—72, that being the greater decreaſe of the two. To ſay that 1—72 value in decimals, is ſomething greater than 3—91 value in decimals, ſeems to be a paradox, and, if ſaid of them ſimply and ſingly taken, is manifeſtly a contradiction: but then they may be ſo placed with reference to ſomething elſe, or may be conſidered as part of, or taken out of, ſomething elſe in ſuch a manner, as that the firſt ſhall be a value greater than the ſecond. For inſtance, 1, ſimply taken and by itſelf is certainly not ſo much as 2 ſo taken, but 1 conſidered as part of 10, or as drawn out of 10, is ſomething greater than 2, conſidered as part of 40, or as drawn out of 40; for the one is a tenth, and the other a twentieth part only of the thing to which it ſtands related: and that this is the caſe here will appear from hence.

A term for 90 years, intereſt computed at 6 per cent. is in value 16—58; and the proportion inverted is a true one; 16—58 in value is equal to a term of 90 years: now, if out of 16—58 we draw 41 decimals, the remainder will be 16—17, and 16—17 is equal to a term of 60 years, and no more; ſo that a ſubtraction of 41 decimals only leſſens the term here 30 years. A term for 21 years, at the ſame rate of intereſt, is in value 11—76; and, if we draw out of this 41 decimals, the remainder will be 11—35, and 11—35 is equal to a term of 12—2—30: ſo that the ſubtraction of 41 decimals out of the ſhorter term leſſens that term only one year and an half, or little more; whereas a ſubtraction of 41 decimals out of the longer term leſſens that term 30 years. From hence it is plainly ſeen, that one and the ſame value in decimals, drawn out of a greater given value in decimals, and out of the longer term to which ſuch given value is equal, leſſens the term out of which it is ſubtracted in a much greater degree, than the ſame value in decimals, drawn out of a leſs given value in decimals, and out of the ſhorter term to which ſuch given value is equal, leſſens the term out of which that is ſubtracted. Therefore it may be true, that 1—72 value in decimals, though not half ſo great a value as 3—91, drawn out of one value, ſhall leſſen the term out of which it is ſubtracted as much, or more, than 3—91 value in decimals, though more than double the value of the other, drawn out of another value, ſhall leſſen the term out of which that is ſubtracted.

If we examine out of what theſe two values 1—72, and 3—91, are reſpectively drawn, it appears that 1—72 is drawn out of the value 13—44, which is equal to a term of 28—1—00; that is, out of the greater given value, and the longer term correſponding: and 3—91 is drawn out of the value 9—21, which is equal to a term of 13—3—30, that is, out of the leſs given value and the ſhorter term correſponding. If we proceed in the computation, and apply this, it ſtands thus. The value 1—72, ſubtracted from 13—44, leaves a value 11—72: the value 11—72 is equal to a term of 20—3—45: a term of 20—3—45 ſubtracted from a term of 28—1—00 leaves a term of 7—1—46; and this is the decreaſe in the term for the four periods of younger life. The value 3—91, ſubtracted from 9—27, leaves a va-

lue

L I V

lue 5—30; the value 5—30 is equal to a term of 6—2—30; a term of 6—2—30, ſubtracted from a term of 13—3—30, leaves a term of 7—1—00; and this is the decreaſe in the term for the four periods of older life. Therefore, upon the whole, whether the decreaſe here be taken immediately from the term, or be computed from the value, and ſo to the term, this decreaſe in the term comes out to be one and the ſame; that is, the decreaſe of the term in the ſtages of younger life is greater than in the ſtages of older life: and, conſequently, the gradual decreaſe of the chance of vitality, in proportion to the increaſe of age, is not preſerved: which was the thing to be demonſtrated, and I think is fully done. Again:

By Dr. Halley's table for the value of annuities for lives, the life of a perſon aged 10 is equal to a term of 28—1—00; the life of the ſame perſon, when aged 30, is equal to a term of 20—3—45: the difference between theſe two terms is evidently 7—1—46: that is, in 20 years time the life of this perſon, whilſt in the younger periods of life, is decreaſed or grown leſs in computation a term of 7—1—46. The life of this perſon, when aged 30, is equal, as noted before, to a term of 20—3—45: the life of the ſame perſon, when aged 50, is equal to a term of 13—3—30; the difference between theſe two terms is 7—0—15; that is, in theſe 20 years time the life of this perſon, in theſe middle periods of life, is impaired or grown leſs, upon an eſtimate, a term of 7—0—15. The life of this perſon, when aged 50, is equal, as noted before, to a term 13—3—30; the life of the ſame perſon, when aged 70, is equal to a term of 6—2—30; the difference between theſe two terms is 7—1—00; that is, in 20 years time in the oldeſt periods of life, the life of this perſon is grown worſe and diminiſhed, upon the chance, a term of 7—1—00: ſo that the difference or decreaſes in the term will ſtand thus; for the 20 years in youngeſt life 7—1—46, for the 20 years in middle life 7—0—15, and in the oldeſt of all 7—1—00.

Now, ſince this table for the value of annuities is conſtructed on the foundation of the table of mortality for Breſlaw, it ought to agree with, and be conformable to that table, or there is a defect in the ſtructure; but, on looking into this latter table, it appears that the number of perſons dying in the firſt period, that is, between 10 and 31, is 138; in the ſecond period, between 30 and 51, the number is 196; and in the laſt period, between 50 and 71, the number is 215; and yet the number of perſons co-exiſting is greater in the younger than in the older period of life, and gradually decreaſes as age increaſes: from whence it is plainly ſeen in this calculation, as well as in the former, that the table of annuities has no ſort of conformity with the table of mortality, though the one be built, in the main, on the foundation of the other. And, as this want of conformity between theſe two tables, in a proportionable decreaſe, runs through the whole, ſo I cannot forbear obſerving the foul error that it makes in one particular inſtance, ſuch as moſt certainly overthrows the juſtice of this table for annuities, and of the rule too by which it was framed.

The value of an annuity for a life of 10 years of age is by this table 13—44, which is equal to a term of 28—1—00: and the value of an annuity for a life of 70 is 5—32, which is equal to a term of ſix years and two thirds. If we conſult the Breſlaw table, the even chance of the duration of the life of 10 years of age is 41 years and over, and the chance of the duration of the life of 70 is ſix years, and about two-thirds of a year. Now, that an annuity for the life of a perſon aged 10 years ſhould be in value 13—44, that is, ſhould be equal only to a term of 28—1—00, when his life, on the even chance, is equal only to ſix years and two-thirds: I ſay, that the chance of the duration of the annuity in one caſe ſhould fall ſhort of the chance of the duration of the life, and ſo much as thirteen years; and in the other caſe, that the chance of the duration of the annuity and of the life ſhould be ſo near an equality, or the very ſame, has ſomething in it ſo much of the abſurd, that I cannot reconcile it to my underſtanding. And yet, if we compute the value of an annuity for a life of 80, and make uſe of the rule which the doctor preſcribes and made uſe of in framing his table for ſuch value, we ſhall diſcover ſomething ſtill more extraordinary, viz. that an annuity for ſuch a life will be in value 3—84, which is equal to a term of four years and an half, when on the Breſlaw table, the even chance of the duration of ſuch a life is not full four years; which I think is ſo palpable a contradiction to common ſenſe, that nothing can maintain the rule by which it was produced.

A ſecond objection lies againſt Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, viz. that, being computed for the ſeveral rates of 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent. they give us ſuch a value of an annuity for a life, as that one and the ſame life is equal to different terms for each rate of intereſt. There is no room for this defect in Dr. Halley's or Mr. Morris's tables, they being computed for a ſingle rate of intereſt only; but, in truth, the objection does lie againſt the doctor's rule for forming theſe tables; for that any table drawn by this rule, and for more rates of intereſt than one, will have the ſame defect. This appears plainly enough by Mr. Richards's tables, which were conſtructed by this rule; and that this of neceſſity muſt be the caſe in all tables for variety of intereſts drawn by the rule, will appear, when I come to ſpeak to the rule itſelf.

As to Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, that theſe two tables for every rate of intereſt gives us ſuch a value of an annuity for a life, as does in fact make one and the ſame life equal to a different term of years, and what that variance is on each of them, may be beſt and moſt plainly ſeen by the ſhort ſchemes in tables No. VII. and No. VIII. The firſt of theſe gives us the value of an annuity for a life of 30 years of age, and the term to which ſuch value is equal at the ſeveral rates of intereſt, as ſtated by Mr. Hayes himſelf; and it is marvellous to me how he could make the computation, and not ſee the abſurdity of the ſuppoſition on which it muſt be grounded: and the other gives the value of an annuity for a life of 12 years of age, at the like ſeveral rates of intereſt, as ſtated by Mr. Richards, and the term to which ſuch value is equal, as I compute the ſame.

Now I ſay, that the values ſtated in theſe two tables, thus correſponding to, and producing a different term of years to which one and the ſame life is equal, according to the ſeveral rates of intereſt at which the calculation are made, undoubtedly are, and neceſſarily muſt be wrong for that reaſon, becauſe they produce ſuch different terms. This being the caſe on both theſe tables, and ſince Mr. Hayes has not acquainted us what rule he made uſe of in forming his table, and Mr. Richards informs us that he built on Dr. Halley's hypotheſis, and it is evident he did ſo: and, ſince one and the ſame defect goes through both tables, I ſhall apply myſelf chiefly to Mr. Richards's table, and the rule by which that was conſtructed: only I take notice here, that my obſervations on one of them, in moſt inſtances, and eſpecially in that which I have before-mentioned, will equally affect and be applicable to the other, whatever was the rule by which it was framed.

I ſuppoſe no one will controvert thoſe points: that he who has an annuity for the life of a perſon, has an annuity for ſuch a term of years as ſuch a perſon in fact ſhall live; and when he buys it, the term of years to which any perſon's life ſhall be prolonged being uncertain, that he buys it for ſuch a time as there is a chance or reaſonable probability that the perſon may live whoſe life is nominated: and I am ſure it is poſſible, that five ſeveral annuities, at the five ſeveral rates of intereſt in theſe tables, may be granted on one and the ſame life, as well as on different ones. To ſay then, that in caſe of one annuity there is a chance or probability that the perſon on whoſe life the annuity depends may live for 30 years, or near it; in caſe of a ſecond annuity, that he may live for 29 years, or thereabouts; and on a third, on a fourth, and on a fifth annuity, or each of them, that he can, and probably may, live for a different term of years, IS RIDICULOUS AND ABSURD TO THE LAST DEGREE *.

* Nor does the learned Mr. Lee ſtand alone in judgment upon this occaſion; the ingenious Mr. Hardy, who very lately wrote a tract, entitled, A complete Syſtem of Intereſt and Annuities; founded upon new, eaſy, and rational principles, &c. ſays in his preface, 'That having occaſion, ſome years ago, to compute the value of annuities on lives, I had recourſe to the rules delivered by Dr. Halley and Mr. De Moivre; when obſerving, that the purchaſeable term to be paid for, or the probable time that the ſame perſon ſhould live, was made to depend upon, and varied according to the RATE OF INTEREST, which, having no connection with the probability of living, put me upon conſidering thoſe purchaſes in an intire new light, and upon conſidering to find eaſy and univerſal rules for approximating their values.'—What this gentleman's rules are, and the foundation of them, we cannot enter into under this head, but refer what he and the judicious Mr. Simpſon have ſaid upon this occaſion, to the article MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY], and ſuch other articles to which we have referred.

And, if we take a particular inſtance, and ſuppoſe two annuities only, at the two different rates of 4 and 8 l. per cent. to be granted to two diſtinct perſons on the life of one and the ſame nominee; to ſay, with regard to the annuitant who purchaſes at 8 per cent. that the nominee, on whoſe life the annuity depends, may or has an even chance to die in 25 years; but, with regard to the annuitant who purchaſes at 4 per cent. that the ſame individual perſon may probably live, or has a chance to live 30 years, is a flat contradiction; and is, in effect, to aſſert, either that one of the annuities will continue after the nominee is dead on whoſe life it depends, or that the other will ceaſe whilſt the nominee is living for whoſe life it is to continue; when the annuities muſt both determine at one and the ſame time, on the death of the nominee.

Now, if Mr. Richards's tables were the reſult of Dr. Halley's obſervations, and were calculated by the method preſcribed by him, or by Mr. De Moivre, as I believe they were; yet if the error I have mentioned proceeds from the foundation or the method, as moſt certainly it does, I apprehend it will prove, that the one or the other of them is wrong, much more ſtrongly, than the foundation or the method will prove that the calculations are right, notwithſtanding the great authority of the inventors of them: and, therefore, ſince

the operations upon them have produced ſuch abſurd effects, I don't ſee they are of any ſignificance, except to have demonſtrated that the inſtructions are wrong. I muſt confeſs I do not know any method, and very much queſtion whether there be any, to adjuſt the value of an annuity for a life, but by computing for what term there is a chance or probability ſuch life ſhall continue; and, when that is done, the common tables, which give us the value of any term of years at a ſtated intereſt, give us at the ſame time the value of an annuity for the life ſought after at that rate of intereſt. But, ſince Dr. Halley has found out and publiſhed another rule for this purpoſe, we will conſider it.

The rule then which he preſcribes, and which he and Mr. Richards made uſe of, to form theſe their tables for the value of annuities on a ſingle life, is grounded on the Breſlaw table, and ſome propoſitions deduced from thence. The Breſlaw table exhibits the whole number of people ſuppoſed to be living in that city at a certain time, and the ſuppoſed current age of them all, from the birth to the age of 84: and at preſent I will ſuppoſe, though I do by no means grant, that this table gives a true account of the perſons living there, and their ſeveral ages. To aſcertain the different degrees of vitality in all ages of life, this author advances this propoſition: 'If the number of perſons of any age remaining 'after one year, be divided by the difference between that 'and the number of the age propoſed, it ſhows the odds that 'there is, that a perſon of that age does not die in one 'year. For inſtance, a perſon of 25 years of age has the 'odds of 560 to 7, or 80 to 1, that he does not die in a 'year: becauſe that of 567 living, of 25 years of age, there 'do die no more than 7 in a year, leaving 560 of 26 years 'old.'

Here I have given the author's propoſition and inſtance in his own words; but, if I may beg leave to expreſs my meaning of them in my way, which, perhaps, may tend to explain and illuſtrate them, I ſhould ſay: That the number of perſons living of any age propoſed was the number of chances belonging to a perſon of that age; that the number of perſons living of any ſubſequent age, ſuppoſe at one year's, at ten years, or at twenty years diſtance, was the number of chances with him, or the number of chances that he had to live to ſuch ſubſequent age; and that the difference between the number of perſons living of the age propoſed, and the number of perſons living of the ſubſequent age, that is, the number of perſons dying in that time was the number of chances againſt him, as the chances that he would die within that time, or before he arrived at ſuch ſubſequent age.—In the inſtance here given, a perſon of the age of 25 has 567 chances, ſo many perſons being living of that age; of the age of 26, which is the next year, there are 560 perſons living, and within the compaſs of that year, there have died ſeven perſons, ſo that, on the life of a perſon of 25, there are 560 chances with him that he lives to the end of one year, ſo many being living at the end of that year, and there are ſeven chances againſt him that he dies within that time, ſo many being dead in that time.—This method, if purſued, gives the chances for him and againſt him in like manner, for any other ſubſequent year. For inſtance; the number of perſons living of the ſaid age of 25 is 567, the number of perſons living at ten years end, or of the age of 35, is 490; the difference between theſe two numbers, or the number of perſons dying in that time, is 77; therefore the chances with him, or the chances that the perſon lives to ten years end, are 490; and the chances againſt him, or the chances that he dies within that time, are 77.

I have here avoided the uſe of the word odds, becauſe it is an equivocal term, and may mean the odds in the number of chances, or the odds in the value of theſe chances; and inſtead thereof I make uſe of the expreſſion, chances with him, or chances againſt him, and ſhall do ſo hereafter. And, I am afraid, we ſhall find that the doctor, or Mr. de Moivre, or both, in the computation of the value of annuities for lives, have, in ſome inſtances, brought to account more chances of vitality on lives than belong to them; in other inſtances, have inſerted ſuch chances as do not and cannot belong to them; and in ſome caſes have aſſigned wrong values to right chances: and, where any of theſe miſtakes are committed, all the algebra in the univerſe will never prove that the ſum total of the values ariſing on ſuch computations will be the true value of the annuities enquired after.

The doctor having deduced his propoſition from the Breſlaw table, and aſſerted, that the valuation of annuities for lives depends on it; and having laid it down for a maxim, that a purchaſer of an annuity on a life ought to pay for ſuch parts only of the value of the annuity as he has chances that his nominee is living, which is undoubtedly true; and having told us how the preſent value of a ſum of money, payable at any future time, and at any rate of intereſt, may be known: and given us a ſcheme for that purpoſe, at the rate of 6 per cent. intereſt; he aſſumes, from the foregoing propoſition, 'That, as the number of perſons living after a year, or 'after any number of years, are to the number of perſons 'dead within that time, ſo are the number of chances with 'him to the number of chances againſt him, that the perſon nominated is then living:' in conſequence of which, the rule for aſcertaining the value of an annuity for a given life will be this: 'As a number of perſons living of an age 'propoſed is to the number living after one year, or after 'any number of years; ſo the preſent value of the ſum 'payable at the end of one year, or at the end of the given 'number of years, is to the ſum which ought to be paid 'for the chance which the perſon has to enjoy his annuity 'for that one year, or the given number of years.' And, in the concluſion he adds: 'If this operation be repeated 'for every year of the perſon's life, that the ſum of all the 'preſent values of theſe chances is the true value of an annuity for ſuch perſon's life:' and that by this rule he framed the table he gives us, which is for the value of annuities on a ſingle life at 6 per cent. intereſt.

I will not poſitively ſay, that the author, in forming his table, did not himſelf obſerve his own rule, becauſe he ſays he uſed ſome compendia in forming it; and in ſeeking a ſhorter way he might poſſibly miſs the right way.—The rule, in ſhort, is this: we are, in the firſt place, to compute what is the value of an annuity for one year of the life, beginning at the age of the perſon nominated, looking upon it as an abſolute annuity for one year, allowing out of it a value proportionate to the chance of mortality ariſing in that year, and this is done by the firſt part of the rule: and then we are to proceed in the ſame manner for every year of ſuch nominee's life; and it is aſſerted, that all theſe values, put together, are the value of the annuity on ſuch a life. But then the latter part of the rule, where it directs that this operation muſt be repeated for every year of the nominee's life, does not expreſsly ſay for what number of years this computation muſt be made: but I cannot find out that it is capable of any other meaning than one of theſe two; either that it muſt be made for ſo many years as the nominee has an even chance to live, or for ſo many years as he has any chance at all, or a poſſibility to live. However, let the computation be made, in which way of the two he pleaſes, it produces a value different from what this table gives; one of them a value much under, and the other a value little over, the value exhibited in the table, and this is the caſe in more inſtances than one.

The value exhibited in the table for an annuity on a life of ten years old, intereſt computed at 6 per cent. is 13—44; and, if an annuity be granted for 10,000l. per ann. ſuppoſe on the life of A of ten years old, the total value of it will be 130: 400l. To ſhow that this is not the true value of ſuch an annuity, even on a computation made according to the rule here laid down, I have made a calculation purſuant to that rule, for every year of ſuch a perſon's life, from the age of his life when nominated, that is, from ten years old, to the extremity of old age, that is, to 100 years old, and have ſet it forth in table No. IX. following. In this table, and in the ſecond column, we have the preſent value of ſuch an annuity, payable at the end of each year for 90 years on an abſolute term, tranſcribed from this author; and, in the ſixth and laſt column, we have the preſent value of ſuch an annuity, payable at the end of each year for 90 years, on the chance of mortality on the life of a perſon of ten years of age, formed exactly, I think, by the rule given. And, becauſe the chance of mortality is calculated by the Breſlaw table, I have inſerted that likewiſe in table No. X. with an additional computation for 16 years, from the age eighty-four to the age of an hundred, omitted in the former table.'

Remarks.

We have judged it neceſſary to enter ſo far into this delicate ſubject, and the objections made to the long embraced hypotheſis of the learned Dr. Halley, and the foundation built thereupon by Mr. De Moivre and others (for the objections againſt the latter are not leſs weighty than thoſe againſt the former, though we have not room fully to conſider them here) in order to ſhew the reader, who is deſirous to go to the root of this matter, that the works of the learned Wayman Lee, Eſq; are well deſerving his attentive peruſal.—There have, indeed, been ſome objections made to Mr. Lee's eſſay, but whoever compares them candidly and impartially with the reply that he has made to them, will hardly think, I am at preſent inclined to believe, that the fundamentals of his reaſoning are at all invalidated. However, thoſe who may ſtill be of opinion, that what Dr. Halley, Mr. De Moivre, and Mr. Richards have ſaid, will ſtand the teſt, will find the ſubſtance thereof in this work, under the articles Annuities and Leases; and the chief objections that have been made againſt them, under the articles Lives, and Mortality [Bills of Mortality.]

For the reader's further ſatisfaction, the following is the connected ſubſtance that Mr. Lee endeavours to prove, in oppoſition to Dr. Halley, Mr. De Moivre, Mr. Richards, and others, on Leases and Life-Annuities.

Part I.

That there is no ſure rule extant before his for valuing leaſes—The method of valuing leaſes for lives by much the moſt erroneous

L I V

erroneous.—A variety in the value of theſe eſtates ariſes from the difference of the land-tax, and in the quantity and quality of the buildings on them.—To aſcertain the value of leaſes, that they be reduced to annuities free from all reprizes, and that money be computed at 1 per cent. above the legal rate.—To do this, the rent, and all payments certain, to be deducted.—As alſo the land-tax, repairs, and incidental charges.—The author of a treatiſe called, The Value of Church and College Leaſes conſidered, charges theſe articles to the leſſee's account.—His reaſon for this aſſertion invalid. —His inſinuations that leaſeholders, in purchaſing and renewing their eſtates, make 6 per cent. of their money, not true.—Of the great difference between the value of lands of inheritance and leaſeholds, in the purchaſe, on any variation of the intereſt of money.—A riſe in the purchaſe of lands, of no ſervice to owners of leaſes, or of fee-ſimple lands, any farther than they have power to ſell their eſtates.—The reverend author, in ſtating his caſe, kept a reſerve of ſome money, to raiſe his tenant's fine for renewing; and therein acted cunningly, but not very fairly.—This fund will do very little, if any thing, more than raiſe the fine, and make the income of each purchaſer the ſame.—If intereſt of money ſinks, and fines are raiſed, the income of the leaſeholder muſt ſink in proportion to both of them.—The true ſtate of the compariſon between the purchaſers of one eſtate and the other, is, What is the natural produce of each, and how it will ariſe?—If the land-tax, repairs, and incidental charges, are to come out of the leſſee's eſtate; the owner, though the intereſt of his money reſerved comes in aid, will have only 3l. 10s. per cent. for his money.—Mr. Richards, in his treatiſe on this ſubject, admits a tenant to be conſidered for the two laſt articles; but not for the land-tax, for a reaſon very ſingular.—The author contends, that he ought to be conſidered on all the articles.—This aſſertion proved, from the caſe given by the reverend author, otherwiſe ſuch a purchaſer will not have 3 per cent. for his money ſo laid out. —The ſame proved from the reaſon and the juſtice of the thing.—The way to adjuſt the quantum of the land-tax for a term, ſtated at 10 per cent. per ann. at a medium.—The ſame on repairs, and ſtated at the ſame ſum in common caſes. —On this article, many exceptions to be made out of the general rule.—On houſes in particular, 20 per cent. might be little enough.—The common method, in caſe of houſes, viz. to compute the money laid out at a higher rate of intereſt, not a ſafe one, and compared with the author's in an inſtance.—The article for charges and accidental loſſes the author divides into two; one for managing the eſtate, the other for aſſuring it, and paying the rent in all events; and ſtates each at 5 per cent.—The deductions, the ſame as ſuppoſed by the reverend author, to be going out of a fee-ſimple eſtate, viz. 30 per cent.—Inſtead of theſe two allowances of 5 per cent, Mr. Richards, in ſtating the value of leaſes, computes the tenant's annuity at one rate of intereſt, and the outgoings in rent at another.—The method not right; the reaſons why not, and the abſurd conſequences ſhewn.—The objections of no weight, that tenants, eſpecially in public leaſes, covenant to pay their rents free from taxes and reprizes.—Money, laid out in theſe eſtate, to be computed at 6 per cent.—That a purchaſer, ſo valuing his money, will make 6 per cent. a vulgar error.—Shown, how money laid out in ſuch purchaſes is to be reimburſed, and computed what part is to ariſe from the ſurpluſage of the rents, what from the ſimple, and what from the compound intereſt of ſuch ſurpluſage.—This computation demonſtrates, that the leſſee is not to be charged with the land-tax, &c.—Though theſe eſtates are reduced to abſolute annuities, yet not ſo valuable as ſuch.—The author's method of computing the fine to be paid on renewals.—This compared with the common one, and a new one by Mr. Richards, and the difference ſhewn by inſtances.—A particular abſurdity following from Mr. Richards's method.—Where one year's rent only may be a juſt fine for renewing ſeven.—Mr. Richards ſtates the fine on ſuch renewal higher than his own rule admits.—He profeſſes here to have no conſideration of the land tax; and yet in ſome caſes, in effect, he does, or muſt conſider it.—The author doubts the truth of the fact alledged, that the laity, in renewing 7 years, generally take 2 ½ years value.—The reaſon for raiſing fines above the old price of one year's value, conſidered; with obſervations on Æcroid's tables.—The cenſure of tenants as impoſing on landlords in their fines, and landlords as ſubmitting to them, not well grounded.—Where churchmen and colleges can't get fines to the value of their eſtates, the remedy propoſed, by letting the leaſes expired, conſidered, and the ſucceſs of it doubted.—Such a procedure not an act of prudence, and a law to oblige them to it unreaſonable.—That they are not obliged to do it, either as a point of duty or juſtice to their ſucceſſors, as the law now ſtands.—Churchmen and colleges, now and then, to ſink a fine and augment the ſmall livings in their gift; a better project for promoting the intereſt of the Church of England and the univerſities, than taking their eſtates into their own hands.—What influence the decreaſe in the value of money, and the increaſe in the price of the neceſſaries of life, have in this matter, conſidered.—Of the nature and uſe of the tables for purchaſing annuities or leaſes, for years, or in renewing them.

Part II.

To eſtimate the chance of the duration of a life, and to aſcertain the value of leaſes and annuities for life, &c.—Leaſes for life, as well as for years, muſt be reduced to abſolute annuities.—The neceſſity of making ſuch computation, to put a right value on ſuch intereſts.—The author's table exhibits the term to which any ſingle life, therein mentioned, is equal.—Dr. Halley's table, for the value of annuities for a life, which were conſtructed by a different rule, not a right one.—The author's exception to it, viz. that it does not preſerve a proper decreaſe in the value of an annuity, or in the terms to which ſuch value is equal, from one period of life to another.—The ſame exception lies againſt Mr. Hayes's, Mr. Richards's, and Mr. Morris's tables, for the like annuities.—The author confines himſelf to Dr. Halley's table, and ſhows the defect in two remarkable inſtances, quoad the decreaſe in the term.—The age of 30 not the beſt age of life whereon to have an annuity, occaſionally ſhown.—This defect goes through the whole table.—This ſhown to be the caſe in the decreaſe of the value of the annuity, as well as in the term, in ſingle inſtances, and through the whole table. —The table, in this particular, in no ſort conformable to the Breſlaw table, though ſaid to be conſtructed from thence.—Objections to Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, that the value of the annuities there given is ſuch, that one and the ſame life is equal to a different term as the Rate of Interest varies.—Dr. Halley's rule for valuing theſe annuities conſidered.—The value of an annuity for a life of 10 years of age, given in his table, not the true value, as it ariſes on a calculation made by this rule, and the calculus ſet forth.—That the value of ſuch an annuity, where rightly computed by the rule, is not the true one, proved by poſitions of the doctor's.—The falſity of the rule ſhown from hence, for that it produces ſuch ſums as cannot be the value of ſuch annuities, proved by inſtances.—Shown wherein the error of the rule lies.—Theſe proofs deſtroy the foundations of Dr. Halley's and Mr. De Moivre's rule.—The chance of the duration of a life, the ſole meaſure of the value of the annuity depending thereon.—The author's method of forming his tables of the chances of vitality.—This table drawn chiefly from the bills of mortality of London.—Obſervations on a treatiſe, called, A true Eſtimate of the Value of Leaſehold Eſtates; in which a life of 30 years of age is ſtated as the beſt, and equal only to a term of 14 years, and other lives in proportion.—Obſervations on the bills of mortality for London; alſo on a certain ſociety known to the author, and on the nominees in the government annuities on ſurvivorſhip.

Part III.

To eſtimate the chance of the duration of two or more lives, and to aſcertain the value of annuities and leaſes for ſuch lives, &c.—This the moſt difficult part of the work, and moſt weakly performed by all writers on this ſubject.—The method of computing the value of theſe annuities preſcribed by the author, to whoſe tables Sir Iſaac Newton's name is prefixed, a very bad one.—Mr. Hayes's method worſe than the former.—Mr. Morris's the ſame with Mr. De Moivre's, and conſidered with it.—Mr. Richards's tables, formed by Mr. de Moivre's rule, do not give the true value of theſe annuities.—Theſe tables wrong, becauſe his tables for the value of annuities for a ſingle life are wrong.—A caſe ſtated by the author, which ſhews theſe tables to be falſe throughout. —Mr. de Moivre's rule for valuing theſe annuities conſidered, and ſhown to be falſe.—The doctor's and Mr. de Moivre's method, for aſcertaining the value of annuities for two or for three lives and the ſurvivor, not the ſame.—The doctor's hypotheſis, for adjuſting the chance of the duration of two lives, not right, ſhown by lines and figures.—The error of this hypotheſis, and Mr. De Moivre's method, ſhown by Mr. Richards's tables conſtructed from thence.—Mr. Richards's tables for the value of annuities for three lives, proved erroneous.—That the term, to which the value of annuities for one or more lives is equal, ſhould vary as the Rate of Interest varies, which is a neceſſary conſequence of the hypotheſis, greatly abſurd.—Mr. De Moivre's rule for valuing theſe annuities ſhown to be falſe.—That his rule does not agree with the doctor's rule for calculating the value of annuities either for two or three lives.—The author's rule for valuing annuities for two or more lives, by computing the chance of the duration of the given lives.—Compared with Mr. De Moivre's rule.—The juſtice of the author's method ſhown, and proved from Dr. Halley's own way of reaſoning.—A compariſon of the chance of the duration of two or three lives, where the computation is made in Dr. Halley's or Mr. De Moivre's method, and when in the author's.—The author's tables.

TABLE I.

Shewing the value of annuities for the term, and at the intereſt in the table, in years, quarters, and days, and the centeſimal parts of a year, correſponding to the quarters and days.

Term of years.	3 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	4 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	5 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	6 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	7 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	8 per cent. Y.	Q.	D.	C.P.	Term of years.
1	—	3	80	97	—	3	77	96	—	3	69	95	—	3	69	94	—	3	66	93	—	3	62	92	1
2	01	3	58	91	01	3	47	88	01	3	40	86	01	3	29	83	01	3	22	81	01	3	11	78	2
3	02	3	29	83	02	3	11	78	02	2	80	72	02	2	62	67	02	2	44	62	02	2	29	58	3
4	03	2	77	71	03	2	44	62	03	2	14	54	03	1	77	46	03	1	51	39	03	1	22	31	4
5	04	2	29	58	04	1	69	41	04	1	29	33	04	0	77	21	04	0	36	10	03	3	87	99	5
6	05	1	02	42	05	0	84	23	05	0	25	07	04	3	62	92	04	3	07	77	04	2	44	62	6
7	06	0	87	24	05	3	87	99	05	3	14	79	05	2	29	58	05	1	51	39	05	0	77	21	7
8	07	0	11	03	06	2	80	72	06	1	77	46	06	0	77	21	05	3	80	97	05	3	—	75	8
9	07	3	22	81	07	1	62	42	07	0	40	11	06	3	18	80	06	2	03	51	06	1	—	25	9
10	08	2	22	56	08	0	33	10	07	2	80	71	07	1	40	36	07	0	07	02	06	2	77	71	10
11	09	1	14	29	08	3	—	75	08	1	22	31	07	3	47	88	07	2	—	50	07	0	51	14	11
12	09	3	87	99	09	1	44	37	08	3	44	87	08	1	47	38	07	3	69	94	07	2	14	54	12
13	10	2	62	67	09	3	80	97	09	3	51	39	08	3	36	85	08	1	40	36	07	3	55	90	13
14	11	1	29	33	10	2	18	55	09	3	51	89	09	1	14	29	08	2	87	74	08	0	87	24	14
15	11	3	80	97	11	0	36	10	10	1	47	38	09	2	77	71	09	0	40	11	08	2	22	56	15
16	12	2	33	59	11	2	51	04	10	3	33	84	10	0	36	10	09	1	73	45	08	3	36	85	16
17	13	0	69	19	12	0	55	15	11	1	07	27	10	1	80	47	09	3	03	76	09	0	44	12	17
18	13	3	11	78	12	2	51	64	11	2	66	68	10	3	29	83	10	0	22	06	09	1	44	37	18
19	14	1	36	35	13	0	44	12	12	0	29	08	11	0	58	16	10	1	29	33	09	2	36	60	19
20	14	3	51	89	13	2	33	59	12	1	77	46	11	1	80	47	10	2	33	59	09	3	25	82	20
21	15	1	62	42	14	0	03	01	12	3	25	82	11	3	03	76	10	3	29	83	10	0	07	02	21
22	15	3	69	94	14	1	69	46	13	0	58	16	12	0	11	03	11	0	22	06	10	0	73	20	22
23	16	1	69	44	14	3	33	84	13	1	84	48	12	1	18	30	11	1	07	27	10	1	44	37	23
24	16	3	62	92	15	1	—	25	13	3	14	79	12	2	18	55	11	1	80	47	10	2	11	03	24
25	17	1	55	40	15	2	40	61	14	0	33	09	12	3	11	78	11	2	55	65	10	2	62	67	25
26	17	3	40	86	15	3	80	97	14	1	44	37	13	0	—	—	11	3	29	83	10	3	22	81	26
27	18	1	22	31	16	1	22	31	14	2	51	64	13	0	77	21	11	3	87	99	10	3	66	93	27
28	18	3	—	75	16	2	51	64	14	3	51	89	13	1	55	40	12	0	51	14	11	0	18	05	28
29	19	0	62	17	16	3	80	97	15	0	47	13	13	2	29	58	12	1	11	28	11	0	58	16	29
30	19	2	29	58	17	1	14	29	15	1	40	36	13	2	03	76	12	1	51	58	11	1	03	26	30
31	19	3	84	98	17	2	25	57	15	2	33	59	13	3	66	93	12	2	18	55	11	1	36	35	31
32	20	1	44	37	17	3	36	85	15	3	18	80	14	0	33	09	12	2	66	68	11	1	66	43	32
33	20	3	—	75	18	0	40	11	16	0	—	—	14	0	84	23	12	3	18	80	11	2	—	50	33
34	21	0	44	12	18	1	44	37	16	0	69	19	14	1	47	38	12	3	58	91	11	2	22	56	34
35	21	1	84	48	18	2	44	62	16	1	44	37	14	2	03	51	13	0	03	01	11	2	44	62	35
36	21	3	29	83	18	3	40	86	16	2	14	54	14	2	47	63	13	0	36	10	11	2	66	68	36
37	22	0	62	17	19	0	36	10	16	2	73	70	14	2	87	74	13	0	66	18	11	2	87	74	37
38	22	1	87	49	19	1	29	33	16	3	40	86	14	3	33	84	13	1	—	25	11	3	18	80	38
39	22	3	14	79	19	2	22	56	17	0	03	01	14	3	69	94	13	1	25	32	11	3	40	86	39
40	23	0	40	11	19	3	11	78	17	0	55	15	15	0	11	03	13	1	47	38	11	3	62	92	40
41	23	1	62	42	20	0	—	—	17	1	18	30	15	0	44	12	13	1	66	43	11	3	80	97	41
42	23	2	77	71	20	0	73	20	17	1	66	43	15	0	73	20	13	1	84	48	12	0	03	01	42
43	24	0	—	—	20	1	51	39	17	2	11	53	15	1	11	28	13	2	11	53	12	0	18	05	43
44	24	1	07	27	20	2	25	57	17	2	55	65	15	1	40	36	13	2	29	58	12	0	29	08	44
45	24	2	11	53	20	2	84	73	17	3	07	77	15	1	66	43	13	2	44	62	12	0	40	11	45
46	24	3	11	78	20	3	55	90	17	3	47	88	15	2	—	50	13	2	58	66	12	0	47	13	46
47	25	0	07	02	21	0	18	05	17	3	84	98	15	2	22	56	13	2	73	70	12	0	55	15	47
48	25	1	—	25	21	0	73	20	18	0	29	08	15	2	44	62	13	2	87	74	12	0	62	17	48
49	25	1	80	47	21	1	33	34	18	0	62	17	15	2	66	68	13	3	07	77	12	0	69	19	49
50	25	2	62	67	21	1	80	47	18	1	—	25	15	2	87	74	13	3	18	80	12	0	77	21	50
51	25	3	40	86	21	2	36	60	18	1	29	33	15	3	14	79	13	3	29	83	12	0	84	23	51
60	27	2	66	68	22	2	40	61	18	3	66	93	16	0	62	17	14	0	—	—	12	1	40	36	60
70	29	0	44	12	23	1	51	39	19	1	33	34	16	1	5	39	14	0	40	11	12	1	69	44	70
80	30	0	77	21	23	3	55	90	19	2	33	59	16	2	—	50	14	0	55	15	12	1	80	47	80
90	31	0	—	—	24	1	03	26	19	3	—	75	16	2	29	58	14	0	66	18	12	1	84	48	90
100	31	2	36	60	24	2	—	50	19	3	36	85	16	2	40	61	14	0	73	20	12	1	87	49	100
Fee	33	1	29	33	25	0	—	—	20	0	—	—	16	2	61	67	14	1	14	29	12	2	—	50	Fee

TABLE II.

Shewing, in the firſt column, the age of perſons; in the ſecond the term of years and quarters to which any given life in thoſe periods is computed to be equal, according to my way of making the eſtimate; to which I have added, in the third column, the difference or decreaſe in the term, from one period to another.

Ages of perſons from			Term to which ſuch lives are equal.		Decreaſe in the term.	
10	to	15	28	0	—	—
15	—	20	27	2	0	2
20	—	25	26	3	0	3
25	—	30	25	3	1	0
30	—	35	24	2	1	1
35	—	40	23	0	1	2
40	—	45	21	1	1	3
45	—	50	19	1	2	0
50	—	55	17	0	2	1
55	—	60	14	2	2	2
60	—	65	11	2	3	0
65	—	70	8	0	3	2
70	—	75	4	0	4	0
75	—	80	2	—	—	—
80,	&c.	—	1	—	—	—

From this, and the precedent table, is readily ſeen the value of an annuity for any life, given at any rate of intereſt: for this table gives the term to which the life is equal, and the precedent table gives the value, or years purchaſe, to which ſuch term is equal, that is the value of the annuity.

TABLE III.

Shewing, in the firſt column, the age of perſons; in the ſecond, the value of annuities for every fifth year of age, from the 10th to the 70th year of man's life, as ſtated by Dr. Halley, intereſt computed at 6 per cent.: to which I have added, in the third column, the years, quarters, and days, to which ſuch value correſponds; in the fourth column the difference, or decreaſe in the term, from one period to another; and, in the fifth, the difference or decreaſe in the value, in the ſame manner.

Ages of perſons.	Years value, or purchaſe.		Term to which ſuch value is equal.			Decreaſe in the term.			Decreaſe in the value.	
10	13	44	28	1	—	0	0	—	—	—
15	13	33	27	2	61	0	2	30	—	11
20	12	78	25	0	—	2	2	61	—	55
25	12	27	22	3	45	2	0	46	—	51
30	11	72	20	3	45	2	0	—	—	55
35	11	12	18	3	45	2	0	—	—	60
40	10	57	17	1	10	1	2	35	—	55
45	09	91	15	2	—	1	3	10	—	66
50	09	21	13	3	30	1	2	61	—	70
55	08	51	12	1	12	1	2	18	—	70
60	07	60	10	2	—	1	3	12	—	91
65	06	54	08	2	—	2	0	—	01	06
70	05	30	06	2	30	1	3	61	01	24

Table IV.

Shewing the value of annuities for life, at the ages mentioned, intereſt computed at 4 per cent, as ſtated in Mr. Hayes's tables; with the ſame additions as in the precedent tables.

Ages of perſons.	Years value. or purchaſe.	Term to which ſuch value is equal.	Decreaſe in the term	Decreaſe in the value.
30	15 . 54	24 3 23	0 0 —	0 —
35	14 51	22 0 55	2 2 68	1 03
40	13 49	19 3 28	2 1 27	1 02
45	12 41	17 2 22	2 1 06	1 08
50	11 28	15 1 45	2 0 77	1 13
55	10 10	13 0 84	2 0 61	1 18
60	08 80	11 0 33	2 0 51	1 30
65	07 16	08 3 07	2 0 26	1 54
70	05 54	06 1 84	2 1 13	1 72

Table V.

Shewing the value of annuities for a life, at the ages mentioned, intereſt computed at 6 per cent. as ſtated by Mr. Richards; with the ſame addditions as in the precedent table.

Ages of perſons.	Years value, or purchaſe.	Term to which ſuch value is equal.	Decreaſe in the term.	Decreaſe in the value.
7	13 42	28 0 39	0 0 —	0 —
12	13 36	27 3 —	0 1 36	0 06
17	12 99	25 3 74	1 3 17	0 37
22	12 54	23 3 76	1 3 89	0 45
27	11 97	21 3 —	2 0 76	0 57
32	11 47	20 0 —	1 3 —	0 50
37	10 90	18 0 77	1 3 14	0 57
42	10 24	16 1 10	1 3 67	0 66
47	09 58	14 2 74	1 2 27	0 66
52	08 91	13 0 50	1 2 24	0 67
57	08 11	11 1 76	1 2 65	0 80
62	07 08	09 2 —	1 3 76	1 03
67	05 90	07 2 —	2 0 —	1 18
72	04 78	05 3 11	1 2 80	1 12
77	03 29	03 3 11	2 0 —	1 49
82	01 36	01 1 80	2 1 22	1 93

Table VI.

Shewing the value of annuities for a life, at the ages mentioned, intereſt computed at 4 per cent. as ſtated by Mr. Morris: with the ſame additions as in the precedent tables.

Ages of perſons.	Years value, or purchaſe.	Term to which ſuch value is equal.	Decreaſe in the term.	Decreaſe in the value.
10	16 72	28 0 68	0 0 —	0 —
15	16 53	27 2 68	0 2 —	0 19
20	15 62	25 0 22	2 2 46	0 91
25	14 80	22 3 68	2 0 45	0 82
30	13 96	20 3 45	2 0 23	0 84
35	13 08	18 3 60	1 3 75	0 88
40	12 29	17 1 15	1 2 45	0 76
45	11 39	15 2 30	1 2 75	0 90
50	10 45	13 3 15	1 3 15	0 94
55	09 55	12 1 18	1 1 88	0 90
60	08 40	10 2 —	1 3 18	1 15
65	07 12	08 2 50	1 3 31	1 28
70	05 70	06 2 45	2 0 05	1 42

Table VII.

Shewing, in the firſt column, the rate of intereſt; in the ſecond, the value of an annuity for a life of 12 years of age tranſcribed from Mr. Richards's, tables: to which I have added, in the third column, the term of years to which ſuch value correſponds, as I calculate the ſame.

Intereſt.	Value.	Term of years.
4	17 20	29 3 —
5	15 23	29 1 44
6	13 36	27 3 —
7	11 72	25 1 23
8	10 67	25 0 —

Table VIII.

Shewing, in the firſt column, the rate of intereſt; in the ſecond, the value of an annuity for a life of 30 years of age, extracted from Mr. Hayes's tables: to which I have added, in the third column, the term of years to which ſuch value correſponds, as ſtated by Mr. Hayes himſelf.

Intereſt.	Value.	Term of years.
4	15 54	25
5	13 12	22
6	11 27	20
7	09 83	18
8	08 68	16

L I V

Mr. Hayes ſeems to me, in this table, firſt to have ſtated to what term of life of 30, or any other age, is equal, and from thence to have computed the values: now, in what way of thinking, or on what grounds, he could, in the firſt inſtance ſuppoſe that one and the ſame life could be equal only to a term of 16 years, and, at the ſame time, be equal to a term of 25 years, I confeſs exceeds my comprehenſion.

Table IX.

Exhibiting a computus of the value of an annuity of 10,000l. per annum, for a life of ten years of age, made according to Dr. Halley's rule, for every year of life to an hundred years of age.

Age.	Multiplied	By	Produces.	Integrals. Fract.
1	9 434	653	6 160 402	9 319—543
2	8 900	646	5 749 400	8 698—022
3	8 396	640	5 373 440	8 129—171
4	7 921	634	5 021 914	7 597—297
5	7 472	628	4 693 044	7 099—605
6	7 050	622	4 385 100	6 634—026
7	6 650	616	4 096 400	6 197—183
8	6 274	610	3 827 140	5 789—611
9	5 919	604	3 575 076	5 408—388
10	5 584	598	3 339 232	5 051—521
11	5 268	592	3 118 650	4 718—058
12	4 970	586	2 912 420	4 406—054
13	4 688	579	2 714 352	4 106—286
14	4 423	573	2 534 379	3 834—105
15	4 173	567	2 366 091	3 579—372
16	3 930	560	2 204 160	3 334—386
17	3 714	553	2 053 842	3 107—115
18	3 503	546	1 912 638	2 893—365
19	3 305	539	1 781 395	2 695 —000
20	3 118	531	1 655 658	2 504—514
21	2 941	523	1 538 143	2 326—657
22	2 775	515	1 429 125	2 162—043
23	2 618	507	1 327 326	2 008—038
24	2 470	499	1 232 530	1 864—426
25	2 330	490	1 141 700	1 727—153
26	2 198	481	1 057 238	1 599—299
27	2 074	472	978 928	1 480—648
28	1 956	463	905 628	1 370—058
29	1 845	454	837 630	1 267—143
30	1 741	445	774 745	1 017—053
31	1 643	436	716 348	1 083—485
32	1 550	427	661 850	1 001—189
33	1 462	417	609 654	922—212
34	1 379	407	561 233	849—064
35	1 301	397	516 497	781—256
36	1 227	387	474 849	710—251
37	1 158	377	436 566	660—306
38	1 092	367	400 764	606—198
39	1 031	357	368 067	556—551
40	972	346	336 312	508—524
41	972	335	325 620	492—468
42	972	324	314 928	476—292
43	972	313	304 236	460—176
44	972	302	293 544	444—060
45	726	292	211 972	320—472
46	726	282	204 732	309—483
47	726	272	197 472	298—494
48	726	262	190 212	287—505
49	726	252	182 952	276—516
50	543	242	131 406	198—528
51	543	232	125 976	190—386
52	543	222	120 546	182—244
53	543	212	115 116	174—102
54	543	202	109 686	165—621
55	406	192	77 952	117—615
56	406	182	73 892	111—521
57	406	172	69 832	105—427
58	406	162	65 772	99—333
59	406	152	61 712	93—239
60	303	142	43 026	65—061
61	303	131	39 693	60—033
62	303	120	36 360	55—005
63	303	109	33 027	49—638
64	303	98	29 694	44—610
65	227	88	19 976	30—146
66	227	78	17 706	26—520
67	227	68	15 436	23—223
68	227	58	13 166	19—607
69	227	49	11 123	16—547
70	169	41	6 929	10—319
71	169	34	5 746	8—458
72	169	28	4 732	7—105
73	169	23	3 887	5—582
74	169	20	3 380	5—075
75	126	18	2 268	3—285
76	126	16	2 016	3—033
77	126	14	1 764	2—442
78	126	12	1 512	2—190
79	126	10	1 260	1—599
80	94	8	752	1—091

This laſt ſum, divided by 661, leaves a remainder.

L I V

TABLE IX. continued.

Age.	Multiplied.	By	Produces.		Integrals.	Fractions.
81	94	7	658	divided by 661, leaves		—658
82	94	6	564			—564
83	94	5	470			—470
84	94	4	376			—376
85	71	3	213			—213
86	71	2	142			—142
87	71	1	71			—071
88	71	½	35			—035
89	71	¼	17			—017
90	53	¼	13			—013
Totals	167 728		89 253 482		135	027—635

N. B. Where this computation is carried on for 41 years only, the produce is	130—265—347
Where carried on for 58 years, the produce is - - -	134—486—512
Where carried on for 90 years, the produce, as above, is - -	135—027—635
That is, in the firſt caſe, the value is -	13— 02
In the ſecond caſe, the value is - -	13— 44
In the laſt caſe, the value is - -	13— 50

From whence it is apparent, where the value of ſuch an annuity is ſtated at 13—44 only, as in Dr. Halley's table, that there is an omiſſion of 32 years in making the calculation.

TABLE X.

Shewing the number of perſons living in the city of Breſlau in Sileſia, and their ages current reſpectively, from 1 to 84 years of age.

Age current.	Perſons living	Age current.	Perſons living.
1	1000	6	710
2	855	7	692
3	798	8	680
4	760	9	670
5	732	10	661

The reſt of this table is inſerted in the third column of the precedent table, and need not be here repeated: and I have there added the age current, and perſons living from 84, where Dr. Halley breaks off, to age an hundred; and the table, with theſe additions, makes the total number of perſons there living to be the ſame as ſuppoſed by the doctor, viz. 34,000.

TABLE XI.

An extract of, and ſome calculations on, the BILLS of MORTALITY for LONDON, including only thoſe born alive.

The ſeveral years.	1730.	1731.	1732.	1733.	1734.	1735.	Totals.	Medium.	in 1000
Under two years of age	9734	9234	8865	11082	10091	9082	58088	9681	387
Between two and five -	2448	2096	1517	2409	2830	1963	13263	2210	88
Five and ten - -	1092	932	716	957	1228	755	5680	946	38
Ten and twenty - -	901	806	611	754	829	691	4592	765	30
Twenty and thirty - -	2048	1916	1627	1857	1718	1605	10771	1795	72
Thirty and forty - -	2471	2351	2175	2564	2212	2158	13931	2325	93
Forty and fifty - -	2373	2261	2121	2685	2154	2138	13732	2288	91
Fifty and ſixty - -	1713	1839	1741	2196	1668	1684	10841	1806	72
Sixty and ſeventy - -	1577	1500	1581	1871	1324	1339	9192	1532	61
Seventy and eighty - -	1001	913	974	1188	793	872	5741	956	38
Eighty and ninety - -	622	628	660	804	484	565	3753	625	25
Ninety and an hundred -	138	108	121	198	66	84	715	119	5
An hundred and upwards	9	5	12	12	4	12	54	9	in 2786—1
Under ten years of age -	13274	12262	11098	14448	14149	11800	77031	12837	
Above ten - - -	12853	12327	11623	14129	11252	11148	73322	12220	
Totals - - -	26127	24589	22721	28577	25401	22948	150353	25057	

LIVONIA, in Sweden, has the gulph of Finland on the north, that of Riga on the weſt, Muſcovy and Ingria on the eaſt, and part of Lithuania on the ſouth. Though in ſome parts it is marſhy, yet it is very fruitful, generally ſpeaking, yielding corn, paſture, and honey in abundance.

It is divided into two parts, viz.

I. ESTONIA, the moſt northern part of this country, bounded on the ſouth by Letten, on the eaſt by Muſcovy; on the north it has the gulph of Finland, and on the weſt the gulph Riga, or of Livonia.

REVEL, the capital of this diviſion, ſtands on the coaſt of the gulph of Finland, 225 miles eaſt from Stockholm.

It was not reckoned a town of great trade till about 1477, when it could eaſily preſerve it's commerce with Muſcovy, and other places, on account of its advantageous ſituation and commodious harbour. It broke off it's union with the Hanſe-towns in 1550, and it's trade was removed to Narva by the Czar: but the Muſcovites, having taken it in 1711, have reſtored it's trade, which they now are very careful to preſerve. See HANSE-TOWNS.

NARVA, ſtands on a river of the ſame. This city enjoyed for a long time the privilege of the Hanſe-Towns; but the wars between Sweden and Muſcovy had ſo ruined it's trade, that it could not recover it in many years, nor did it laſt, but at the expence of Revel. The war between the Engliſh and Dutch proved advantageous to it, the Archangel trade being then interrupted.

PARNAW, on the gulph of Riga, is a ſmall city, but a place of good trade, a great quantity of corn, eſpecially, being ſhipped hence for the Netherlands.

II. LETTEN, has the Baltic on the weſt, Eſtonia on the north, Muſcovy on the eaſt, and the river Dwina on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt.

RIGA, the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia, is ſituated in a large plain on the weſtern bank of the river Dwina, 6 miles from the mouth of it, which makes a commodious harbour called the gulph of Riga.

The trade which this city drives with England, Holland, Muſcovy, and the towns of the Baltic, renders it extremely populous and very conſiderable. There are in the town almoſt as many ſhops as houſes. Above a thouſand veſſels arrive here yearly laden with corn, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, planks, furrs, and ſkins of all ſorts. Ruſſian leather, aſhes to make ſoap and glaſs, &c. all which are tranſported to England, France, Germany, Holland, and other countries, and exchanged for the commodities of the more ſouthern climates. They reckon that above 200 merchantmen arrive every year in the port of Riga.

LOADMANAGE, is the hire, ſometimes ſo called, which the pilot of a ſhip receives of the maſter, for conducting the ſhip up the river, or into port.

PETTY-LOADMANAGE, and primage is due, to the maſter and mariners for the uſe of his cables and ropes to diſcharge the goods, and to the mariners for loading and unloading of the ſhip or veſſel; it is commonly about 12 d. per ton. 32 Hen. VIII. 14.

If the ropes break in hoiſting of goods out of the ſhip into the lighter or boat, the maſter muſt anſwer if the goods be damnified or loſt. Leg. Oleron. cap. 10. See OLERON's LAWS.

But, if the ropes break at the crane in taking them out of the lighter (although, till they are landed, they are not out of the maſter's cuſtody) yet the wharfinger ſhall anſwer.

LODESMAN, a kind of pilot eſtabliſhed for the ſafe-conduct of veſſels in and out of harbour, or up and down navigable rivers.

With

With regard to France, in places where it is found neceſſary to eſtabliſh pilots and lodeſmen to conduct veſſels into, and out of the entries of ports and navigable rivers, their number ſhall be regulated by the officers of the admiralty, with the advice of the aldermen and moſt eminent merchants of the place.

II. No perſon ſhall exerciſe that function 'till he is arrived to the age of 25, and received before the officers of the admiralty, after having been examined in their preſence, and in that of two aldermen, or eminent merchants, and two ancient pilots, with the like number of ancient maſters of ſhips.

III. The pilots, lodeſmen, ſhall be examined in the knowledge and experience they ought to have of the fabric and working of ſhips, and of the courſes of the tide, of the ſand banks, currents, ſhelves, rocks, and other impediments, that may render difficult the entry of the rivers, ports, and harbours, in which they are eſtabliſhed.

IV. They ſhall be obliged to have their ſhallops always provided with anchors and oars, and to be in a condition to go to ſuccour ſhips upon the firſt order or ſignal, under pain of ten livres, and a greater penalty, according to the exigency of the caſe.

V. We forbid, under pain of corporal puniſhment, all mariners, not being received pilots, lodeſmen, to offer themſelves to conduct ſhips into, or out of ports or rivers.

VI. However, the maſters of ſhips, for want of pilots, may make uſe of fiſhermen to conduct them.

VII. If a pilot comes aboard a ſhip, where there is already a fiſherman, before ſhe be paſt the dangerous places, the pilot ſhall be received, but the fiſherman's hire ſhall be deducted from his.

VIII. A pilot, undertaking to conduct a veſſel while he is drunk, ſhall be fined in five livres, and ſhall not exert the function of pilot during one month.

IX. We enjoin the pilots to conduct firſt the ſhips that firſt require their ſervice; and we forbid them to prefer the moſt remote to the neareſt, under pain of 25 livres.

X. We likewiſe forbid them to go farther than to the roads, to meet veſſels coming into ports or harbours, to go aboard of ſhips without the maſter's conſent, and to leave the ſhips they bring in, 'till they are come to an anchor and moored in the port; and thoſe they carry out, 'till they are in the high ſea, under pain of the loſs of their wages, and a fine of 30 livres.

XI. The maſter of the ſhip ſhall be obliged, as ſoon as the pilot gets aboard, to tell him how much his veſſel draws, under pain of 25 livres fine, to the benefit of the pilot, for every foot concealed.

XII. In every port ſhall be made, at the ſuit of our attorney, with the advice of the magiſtrates or two eminent merchants, a regulation for the wages of pilots; which ſhall be inſerted in a public writing, and a copy of which ſhall be left in the admiralty-office, and another affixed upon the key.

XIII. The pilots and mariners ſhall not exact greater ſums than thoſe ſpecified by the regulation, under pain of corporal puniſhment, except in time of a ſtorm and imminent danger; in which caſe the officers of the admiralty, with the advice of two merchants, may tax their wages higher, having regard to the work they have done, and the danger they have run.

XIV. We declare null all promiſes made to pilots and mariners while in danger of ſhipwreck.

XV. We enjoin the pilots daily to view the roads of the places where they are eſtabliſhed, to hoiſt the anchors left there, and, within 24 hours afterwards, to make their declarations to the officers of the admiralty.

XVI. If they diſcover any alteration in the channel, and ordinary paſſage of ſhips, or that the buoys and ſea-marks are not right placed, they ſhall be obliged, under pain of ten livres, to acquaint the officers of the admiralty, and the maſter of the key therewith.

XVII. It ſhall be free for the maſters and captains of French or foreign ſhips to take ſuch pilots as they pleaſe to conduct them into the ports and harbours, without being obliged to make uſe of the ſame to conduct them out again.

XVIII. A pilot that ignorantly runs a ſhip aground, ſhall be whipped by the hand of the hangman, and for ever deprived of his employment; and as for ſuch as maliciouſly and deſignedly run a ſhip upon a rock, bank, or ſhore, he ſhall be puniſhed with death, and his body hung up upon a maſt planted near the place of the ſhipwreck.

For the laws by which pilots are regulated, ſee the article PILOTS.

LOGWOOD, or CAMPEACHY-WOOD, as ſome call it, is called alſo BRASILETTO, or JAMAICA-WOOD; and is, ſays Pomet, the heart of the trunk of a large tree, which grows plentifully in Campeachy and Jamaica, and in Santa Cruz in America, where there are whole foreſts of it. And, according to Lemery, it grows in ſeveral other parts of the Weſt-Indies.

The tree is bigger or leſs, according to the ſoil that produces it; it riſes with a trunk thick and ſtrait, covered with a thin bark plain and ſmooth, of a ſilver grey or yelloviſh colour; the leaves are like thoſe of the bay, and, held in the mouth, afford a ſcent like the clove, which has made it to be oftener taken for the clove-tree than any other, by reaſon of the delicate flavour, which has given it the name of the Indian aromatic laurel. Among the leaves comes a ſmall fruit, adhering to the branches by a little ſtalk like the cubeb, and has at the other end a ſmall crown; the fruit is of a dun colour, the taſte ſharp and piquant, but agreeable enough, taſting like a clove, and therefore called moſtly clove-berry; it contains three ſmall kernels like muſk-ſeed.

We may obſerve here, that it affords three ſorts of commodities very good and ſaleable; the firſt is the wood, which ſhould be choſen firm and undecayed; and cut, not ſawed at the ends. This wood chiefly employs the dyers, who uſe it to dye blue and black. The ſecond commodity is the leaf, which may be uſed inſtead of malabathrum, where that is ordered, as this leaf has more virtues than that; the Americans uſe them for fomentations, to cure the palſy, and other diſeaſes proceeding from cold cauſes. The third is the fruit, which the French uſe in imitation of the Engliſh, as being a very ſtrong aromatic, and proper on ſeveral occaſions: as this has been known but of late years, the French have had but little commerce therein, beſides what their privateers of St. Maloes in time of war have taken from England. The grocers in France call it clove-berry, from it's likeneſs to that ſpice in ſmell and taſte, and it is called with us all-ſpice, as having analogy to cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, and is very much uſed in all ſauces. Lemery thinks it poſſeſſes all the ſeveral properties, qualities, and virtues of thoſe ſpices, though poſſibly not in ſo large a meaſure, in reſpect to it's body; for that it conſiſts of more earthy parts than any of them, except cinnamon; but the tincture, or oil of it, extracted from it's feculent part, are not much inferior to what may be extracted from thoſe: ſo that we muſt allow this drug to be ſtomachic, cephalic, cardiac, uterine, nephritic, and arthritic; it is alexipharmic and diuretic, comforts the brain and nervous parts, refreſhes and ſtrengthens the whole animal œconomy, and reſtores the natural functions of life where weakened.

It has been long known among the dyers, for the dyeing of blacks and blues, as intimated, but it is only of late that it has been introduced into medicine: it is found to be chiefly an excellent aſtringent, and is given in form of an extract in diarrhœas with great ſucceſs.

A repreſentation from the honourable board of trade to his late majeſty king George I. aſſerting and proving the right of the ſubjects of Great-Britain to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, September 25, 1717.

To the king's moſt excellent majeſty.

May it pleaſe your majeſty,

The right honourable Paul Methuen, Eſq; one of your majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, having tranſmitted to us on the 15th of November laſt, by order of his royal highneſs, a letter or memorial he had received from the marquis de Monteleone, ambaſſador extraordinary from his Catholic majeſty, relating to the trade carrying on in the Weſt-Indies, and to the ſettlement made by your majeſty's ſubjects on the iſland of Triſt, and on or near the lake or marſh de Terminos, in the province of Jucatan: in which parts he repreſents, 'That they employ themſelves in cutting of log-'wood, or (as the Spaniards call it) Campeachy-wood; and 'that the Spaniſh viceroy and governor had propoſed to 'diſlodge them from thence, but that his ſaid Catholic ma-'jeſty would not ſend his orders before he had given your 'majeſty notice of it, not doubting, but that according to 'all the treaties of peace, and particularly that made at 'Utrecht, your majeſty would oblige your ſaid ſubjects to 'leave the aforeſaid lake de Terminos, and give poſitive or-'ders to your governors at Jamaica, and of the other iſlands, 'not to ſuffer the leaſt trade to be carried on for Campeachy-'wood, and to declare, that if, in the ſpace of eight months, 'they do not leave the ſaid place, they ſhall be looked upon 'and deemed as pirates.'

We beg leave to repreſent to your majeſty, that, although we did humbly propoſe ſuch methods as we eſteemed proper and neceſſary to ſupport the cutting of logwood in the Weſt-Indies, when the ſaid Mr. Methuen was on his departure for Madrid; yet on this occaſion, when a trade of ſo great importance to our navigation and the American colonies is in danger of being loſt, we have again carefully peruſed the books and papers in our office, and received from the merchants and others the fulleſt information we can hope to obtain, which hath taken up much time: and we do now humbly crave leave to lay before your majeſty the paſt and preſent ſtate of this trade, with the arguments that formerly engaged your majeſty's royal predeceſſors to protect and ſupport the ſame; to which we ſhall add ſome obſervations, and the reaſons that induce us to conclude your majeſty's ſubjects have now as full and ample right to this trade, as to any other liberty or privilege that has been allowed by the crown of

Spain, and enjoyed by them, by virtue of any treaty whatſoever.

In the firſt place, therefore, it muſt be obſerved, that logwood is one of the products of the province of Jucatan, which extends itſelf into the north ſea in form of a peninſula, about 100 leagues in length. The Spaniards are poſſeſſed of San Franciſco de Campeachy, it's capital town and port, which has been thrice taken by the Engliſh; and, beſides, they have two other inland towns, Merida and Valladolid, of no great importance, having few inhabitants; but the reſt of the province, before the logwood-cutters were ſettled, was in a manner wholly deſolate and uninhabited.

Nevertheleſs, it muſt be allowed, that the Spaniards had, from time to time, cut wood in ſeveral places near their own ſettlements; but, during the hoſtilities that were committed in the Weſt-Indies before the year 1667, they deſerted that employment, being frequently interrupted by the privateers, both by ſea and land, who by degrees became acquainted with the coaſt, and with thoſe parts where the wood grew, that were moſt remote from the Spaniards, they at laſt fell into the trade, and laid the foundation of their future eſtabliſhment.

Their firſt ſettlements were near to Cape Catoche: but upon (if not before) the publication of the treaty concluded at Madrid in 1667, by the earl of Sandwich, they likewiſe ſettled near Suma Sunta, adjacent to the Laguna de Terminos, and to Triſt and Beef Iſlands, which being the moſt convenient place for cutting of wood, and a tolerable harbour for their ſhips and veſſels, the whole trade ſoon centered there. For, notwithſtanding the aforeſaid treaty was principally intended to ſettle and adjuſt our commerce with his Catholic majeſty's dominions in Europe, yet, 'a general, 'firm, and perfect amity, confederation, and peace, being 'thereby agreed and concluded (as in the firſt article) between 'the two crowns, to be obſerved inviolably, as well by land 'as by ſea and freſh waters, and between the countries, king-'doms, dominions, and territories belonging unto, or under 'the obedience of either of them, &c.' It was concluded, that the peace extended to America as well as Europe; whereupon many of the Britiſh privateers that had before uſed thoſe ſeas, to the great interruption of commerce, were then induced to quit their former courſe, and to ſettle with the logwood-cutters in the Laguna de Terminos; ſo that, in the year 1669, their numbers were conſiderably increaſed, and great quantities of wood were tranſported both to Jamaica and New England.

The American treaty for reſtraining depredations in thoſe parts, being afterwards concluded by Sir William Godolphin in July 1670, added to their ſtrength, by encouraging ſeveral others of the privateers, or ſeamen, to fall in with this employment of cutting wood, to which it was now generally ſuppoſed they had a right by the ſaid treaty.

And, as the logwood-trade was of the greateſt importance to Jamaica, on the 10th of March 1671, Sir Thomas Lynch, then governor of that iſland, not having received any orders how to govern himſelf in this affair, tranſmitted to the lords of the council the reaſons that induced him to encourage the ſame under proper regulations.

1ſt, That the Engliſh had done ſo divers years.

2dly, It was in deſolate and uninhabited places.

3dly, That this ſeems a poſſeſſion granted by the American treaty.

4thly, It might give a right to ſeclude the Dutch and the French, if we ſhould break with Spain.

5thly, The Spaniards had not, to that time, made any complaints of it.

6thly, This employ makes the reducing of the privateers more eaſy. And,

7thly, That it will employ 100 ſail annually, and bring in more to his majeſty's cuſtoms and the nation's trade, than any colony the king hath.

While theſe arguments were under conſideration, the earl of Arlington laid, before the lords of the committee, a letter from Sir Thomas Modyford, the late governor of Jamaica, dated the 16th of May 1672, wherein, after he had given an account of the great extent or compaſs of the country, in which the logwood grows; how meanly the Spaniſh towns on the foreſaid tract of land were peopled, and of the places frequented by the Engliſh; he adds,

That they have uſed this trade for three years paſt, at firſt finding it by the ſea ſide, but afterwards, being forced to go four or five miles up into the country for their refreſhment, they had planted Indian proviſions, and built houſes there to keep themſelves and their proviſions from the ſun and rain: that, in general, they had affirmed to him, never to have ſeen any Spaniards or other perſon, in all the time of their working, although they had gone ſix or ſeven miles farther into the country to kill deer, &c. This poſſeſſion, he ſays, in the Weſt Indies, is held the ſtrongeſt that can be, viz. felling of wood, building of houſes, and clearing and planting the ground.

Sir Thomas Lynch, to confirm what he had before aſſerted, and to juſtify his proceedings, in November 1672, ſends home the copies of ſeveral depoſitions he had taken from the maſters of ſhips, and others concerned in the logwood-trade, and a proclamation he had iſſued out for the better regulation and ſecurity thereof, importing,

That whereas he was informed, by the oaths of many credible witneſſes, that his majeſty's ſubjects have uſed to hunt, fiſh, and cut wood in divers bays, iſlands, and parts of the continent, not frequented or poſſeſſed by any of the ſubjects of his Catholic majeſty, and had, for ſome years, peaceably done the ſame without any moleſtation; nevertheleſs, divers veſſels having been ſeized at anchor and under ſail, by ſome pirates and fugitives of this iſland, and being in danger of being ſo ſurprized again, therefore he orders and appoints all veſſels ſailing out of Port Royal, for the aforeſaid lawful employments, to go out together in ſmall ſquadrons, four at leaſt in company, and to give bond to keep company with, and to obey him, whom he ſhould make commander for the voyage, and their mutual defence, and what they ſhould lawfully do in their own defence, and for the preſervation of his majeſty's ſubjects, their ſhips and goods, be authorized and warranted, &c.

In January following, the ſecretary to the lords of the committee, by their order, adviſes the ſaid Sir Thomas Lynch, that he had acquainted him with their lordſhip's pleaſure fully, concerning cutting of logwood, and that they did altogether allow of the ſame, provided thoſe rules were obſerved, which they had formerly directed, and which were agreeable to what the ſaid governor himſelf had already mentioned.

This allowance of carrying on the trade, as aforeſaid, gave freſh vigour to thoſe engaged in it, though about this time the Spaniards began to interrupt them in the proſecution thereof, and to diſpute their right to that liberty they had ſo long quietly enjoyed.

For we muſt inſiſt on it, as an undoubted and unconteſted fact, that from the publication of the treaty of 1667, until about two years after the concluſion of the American treaty, the logwood-cutters had never been in the leaſt diſturbed or moleſted in their employment, either directly or indirectly; nor does it appear that the Spaniſh governors took any umbrage at it, or made any complaint about it; much leſs did they pretend to an excluſive right, or that it was contrary to the laws of their commerce.

Nay, ſo far were they from expreſſing any reſentment on this account, or making it a pretence to juſtify the firſt hoſtilities they committed, in violation of the treaties both of 1667 and 1670; that when Sir Thomas Lynch ſent to Don Fernando Franciſco Deſcavedo, the governor of St. Franciſco de Campeachy, to demand ſatisfaction for two Engliſh ſhips, which had logwood on board, and were taken by ſome Spaniſh men of war; in his anſwer to that charge on the 6th of April 1672, he takes no notice of our cutting logwood, or that thoſe ſhips had any on board, or that we had ſettled on the Laguna de Terminos; nor had he any other complaint to make by way of retaliation, ſave that an Engliſh veſſel had taken a Spaniſh bark at the Laguna de Terminos bound to Tobaſco; which is the more remarkable, becauſe the ſaid Laguna was, at that time, and had been ſeveral years actually in our poſſeſſion.

It muſt likewiſe be farther urged, that before the queen-regent of Spain had publiſhed a royal cedula, bearing date the 22d of June 1672, which orders, 'That ſuch as ſhould 'make invaſion, or trade without licence in the ports of the 'Indies, ſhould be proceeded againſt as pirates, &c.' It does not appear that cutting of logwood was eſteemed by the Spaniards to be an invaſion, and trading without licence; but, by virtue of this cedula, it was at length carried to that height, that, if our ſhips had but any logwood on board, they were confiſcated without remedy.

Upon this ſubject, the earl of Arlington, on the 19th of March 1674, wrote to Sir William Godolphin, then ambaſſador at Madrid, as follows:

'In a word, his majeſty is ſo ſenſible of the ſufferings of his 'ſubjects in this particular, that you muſt endeavour, by all 'the ſkill you have, to procure ſome liberty for the cutting of 'logwood, in thoſe remote parts, where the Spaniards have 'none, and his majeſty's ſubjects have had long abode and 'reſidence; and the rather, for that we find, by all the re-'plies we have ſeen, they juſtify themſelves by that ſingle 'point of cutting logwood, nay, even of finding it on board, 'our veſſels, which to us appears very unreaſonable.'

And Sir Lionel Jenkins, the judge of the admiralty, in his report to his late majeſty king Charles II. of the 8th of October 1675, intimated, 'That the American treaty does re-'quire a farther elucidation and adjuſtment between your 'majeſty and the crown of Spain; for it appears by the judg-'ment of the queen in the matter of Campeachy, and by their 'cedulas reales, that they affix a new interpretation upon 'that treaty, in declaring what ſhall be private or not pri-'vate, prize or not prize, without communicating, it ſeems, 'with your majeſty, and without publication, that may 'reach your majeſty's ſubjects.'

Thus by a Spaniſh auto, or a decree of that court, which was inconſiſtent with, and made (ex poſt facto) after the ratifications of a public and ſolemn treaty, it was manifeſtly intended, not only to debar the Britiſh ſubjects of that liberty

berty they enjoyed before the said treaty was made, but, in some measure, to deprive them of their common right of all nations; whereas, if your majesty's subjects did actually hold and possess the Laguna de Terminos, and the parts adjacent, at the time of the conclusion of the American treaty, as hath been already proved, the last clause of the 7th article will determine to whom the same belongs, viz.

'Moreover it is agreed, that the most serene king of Great-'Britain, his heirs and successors, shall have, hold, and 'keep, and always possess, in full right of sovereignty, seigni-'ority, possession, and propriety, all the lands, countries, 'islands, colonies, and other places, be they what they will, 'lying and situate in the West-Indies, or in any part of Ame-'rica, which the said king of Great-Britain and his subjects 'now hold and possess, insomuch that they neither can nor 'ought hereafter to be contested or called in question for them, 'upon any account, or under any pretence whatsoever.'

And, as long as the 8th article of the same treaty subsists, it will appear very extraordinary, that the Spaniards should pretend to any dominion or power in the ports or havens where they neither had fortifications nor magazines, or in those places which were not possessed by them, because these descriptions are undoubtedly laid down by the treaty, as the sole and distinguishing marks of the sovereignty of the crown of Spain in those parts and places, which only we were to forbear sailing to and trafficking in, while all other ports and places were left open and free.

But, notwithstanding the said treaty was so strong in our favour, the Spaniards having thereby compassed the two main ends they proposed to themselves, viz.

1st, The securing their West-India trade to themselves, by excluding us, and consequently all other nations, from trafficking with them: a point which could never be before obtained, though it was strenuously insisted on in the reign of king James I. and afterwards in 1630.

2dly, The dispersion of the privateers, who had long miserably harrassed and distressed the Spaniard's settlements, and notably checked the increase both of their power and trade in those parts, but are now entirely reduced, by the great care of the English governors, and by their entering into the logwood-trade.

Yet the only advantages Great-Britain aimed at by the treaty, viz. that her subjects might carry on their trade without interruption, and peaceably enjoy those places they then held and possessed, were, in a great measure, absolutely defeated.

For, after the publication of the aforesaid royal cedula, many of our ships were made prizes under that pretence, sometimes by Spanish men of war, at other times by English pirates, seduced by the governors into the service of Spain, and afterwards by the Biscayneers, that were sent to cruize on those seas.

And, upon the same pretence, in April 1680, several ships under the command of Don Philippo de Varedda Villegas, arrived at the island of Trist and the Laguna de Terminos, attacked our logwood-cutters, while separated from one another, and dislodged them from thence.

Moreover, the Spanish governors encouraged by this success, and little regarding the just right of your majesty, or your subjects, even to plantations still more distant from their dominions, did soon resolve upon another expedition, and, in 1682, surprized New Providence, one of the Bahama Islands.

But these places were again soon re-peopled, and the trade from Trist and the Laguna, in 1682, was greater than ever.

The rise and progress of the logwood-trade, from about the year 1667 to the year 1682, being thus stated, and laid before your majesty, we presume it would be too tedious, and not very material to the point in question, to enter into the particulars, how, and in what manner, it was afterwards constantly carried on; and how it has been from time to time interrupted and supported until the year 1713, when the adjustment and settlement thereof was again under consideration, both at Madrid and Utrecht.

But since the Spanish ambassador insists on it, that by the treaty of peace made at Utrecht, in which (he says) it is stipulated, 'That the lands or other places, which had been 'taken in the Indies during the war, should be evacuated; 'your majesty is engaged to oblige your subjects who are 'come to the lake de Terminos, to leave it immediately.'

We most humbly take leave to represent farther to your majesty:

That if his excellency would hereby insinuate, that your majesty's subjects are but lately, and during the war, come to the Laguna de Terminos, that is a mistake in fact; for it appears by the aforementioned depositions, sent by Sir Thomas Lynch and Sir Thomas Modyford, that they were there in 1669, and for some time, or years before; and it is well known to the Spaniards, that they have been ever since possessed of that part of the country, except for two or three months after the aforesaid assault in 1680.

Neither will what the said ambassador asserts from the treaty, answer the end for which it was produced.

By the 8th article it is, indeed, agreed by his Catholic majesty, 'not to alienate any of his territories in the West-'Indies, to the French or any other nation; and upon this 'condition her late majesty engages, that she will endeavour 'and give assistance to the Spaniards, that the ancient limits 'of their dominions in America be restored, &c. if it shall 'appear that they have in any manner been broken into, and 'lessened in any part, since the death of king Charles II.'

But to argue from hence, that the Laguna de Terminos, in possession of the English before the year 1670, must be evacuated, when this treaty has only reference to what has passed since the demise of the said king Charles II. is very extraordinary.

But, if the ambassador refers to the memorial on the affairs of commerce, that was signed at Madrid the 13th of July 1713, by the lord Lexington and the marquis de Bedmar, we must confess, that the article relating to the logwood-trade, proposed therein by his lordship, had not then it's effect: but we are assured it was from thence, among other things, referred to the discussion of the plenipotentiaries at Utrecht.

What passed particularly on this affair at Utrecht, doth not appear to us; but by the treaty of commerce concluded the 28th of November following (of which the said ambassador takes no notice in this memorial) and wherein the several interests of the two crowns and their subjects, with respect to commerce, were more particularly under consideration, it is manifest, that the rights and liberties, insisted on by the British subjects in the West-Indies, were adjusted by the lords plenipotentiaries; and that a clause in the treaty, which determines this contest relating to the cutting of logwood, beyond all possibility of dispute for the future, was then agreed upon and concluded; it being expresly stipulated in the first article after the confirmation and ratification of the American treaty in 1670, as follows: 'Without any prejudice, how-'ever, to any LIBERTY, or POWER, which the subjects 'of Great-Britain enjoyed before, either through RIGHT, 'SUFFERANCE, or INDULGENCE.'

If therefore this comprehensive clause (which relates only to the West-Indies) confirms, secures, and re-establishes those liberties, which the subjects of Great-Britain enjoyed in America before the treaty in 1670, it necessarily follows:

That they having then enjoyed the liberty of cutting logwood, without any interruption (as hath been fully proved) either through RIGHT, SUFFERANCE, or INDULGENCE, they are again entitled by this treaty, to the same liberty, in as plain and express words as can be used or imagined.

And, that your majesty may be more fully apprized of the importance of this trade, the same will be effectually demonstrated by the following account of the quantities of logwood imported since the war, viz.

	T.	C.	Q.	lb.
In 1713 - - - -	2189	15	3	22
1714 - - - -	4878	14	3	24
1715 - - - -	5863	12	1	14
1716 - - - -	2032	17	2	9
In four years,	14965	00	3	9

That is, communibus annis, tons 3741, which cannot be computed at less than 60,000 l. per ann. though the price is at present reduced from 40 l. to 16 l. per ton, whereas, before your majesty's subject were settled there, it was worth 100 l. the ton.

Nor is this trade less necessary than beneficial to your majesty's dominions, by reason of the great encouragement it gives to our seamen and shipping, which at all times require a particular attention, but now especially, when it is daily observed, that very many British mariners, either through defect of the laws, for want of employment at home, or in hopes of greater advantage abroad, enter themselves into foreign service.

Upon the whole, therefore, we are humbly of opinion,

That the subjects of this your majesty's kingdom, for some years before, as well as after the conclusion of the American treaty in 1670, did enjoy an uninterrupted liberty of cutting logwood in the Laguna de Terminos, and in other places not inhabited by the Spaniards in the province of Jucatan, either through right, sufferance, or indulgence.

That the said American treaty did establish a right in the crown of Great-Britain to the Laguna de Terminos and the parts adjacent, those places at the time of the treaty, and for some years before, being actually in the possession of the British subjects.

That the royal cedula, issued out by the court of Spain, was a violation of the aforesaid treaty, forasmuch as the carrying on the trade to the Laguna de Terminos was thereby interpreted an invasion, and the logwood-cutters accounted pirates.

And that your majesty's subjects having been (at least) suffered to enjoy the liberty of cutting logwood as aforesaid, before the conclusion of the American treaty (although your majesty should not insist on your said right to the Laguna de Terminos) yet that the same liberty is absolutely granted and confirmed by the treaty of commerce made at Utrecht.

And

And we do farther think it our duty to repreſent to your majeſty, that, although the ſaid Spaniſh ambaſſador ſeems to declare, in his memorial, that no attempt ſhould be made to diſlodge your ſubjects ſettled on the Laguna de Terminos, in a leſs time than eight months from the date of his ſaid memorial; yet they were diſlodged and taken priſoners in the ſame month the memorial was delivered, as appears by ſeveral affidavits ſent to this board by general Hamilton, your majeſty's governor of the Leeward Iſlands.
All which is moſt humbly ſubmitted.

SUFFOLK,
J. CHETWYND,
CHARLES COOKE,
J. MOLESWORTH,
D. PULTENEY,
M. BLADEN.

Whitehall, Sept. 25, 1717.

REMARKS.

We find, by the foregoing repreſentation, that the logwood-trade, as carried on by us in the bay of Campeachy, came to be conſidered with the utmoſt care and circumſpection by the Board of Trade and Plantations, in the year 1717, who ſolemnly reported to his late majeſty George I. that we had an undoubted right to that trade, in which the ſubjects of the crown of England had been maintained and ſupported by former kings, his majeſty's predeceſſors.
This logwood-trade having been a bone of contention between England and Spain, ever ſince the American treaty of 1670, and the principal, if not the only cauſe of the late war with Spain, which hath coſt the two nations ſo much blood and treaſure, and being not yet ſettled, may poſſibly be the cauſe of another war between us and Spain, wherein all Europe may be involved; I ſhall take leave, with all humble ſubmiſſion, to ſuggeſt an expedient, in the ſequel, to public conſideration, which may probably prove happily inſtrumental to prevent the calamities and miſeries of war, in future, upon the like occaſion. Previous to which, I ſhall briefly ſtate the origin and nature of this commerce, as it has been carried on by the Engliſh in the bay of Campeachy; which may ſerve to elucidate ſome parts of the foregoing repreſentation made by the lords of trade to the late king.
Campeachy is ſituated within the great bay of Mexico; yet the bay of Campeachy itſelf is a pretty large bay: it extends from Cape Condeſedo, on the eaſt point, to St. Martin's, on the weſt, which is about 120 leagues: it bends into the ſouthward ſomething in the form of an half-moon. The eaſt part of this bay is in the province of Yucatan. Compeachy is the only ſea-port of this province, and is ſituate on the ſouth-eaſt of the bay; Merida is the capital, and many other towns lie further up the country. The land hereabouts is ſandy, and not very fruitful; the inhabitants make a coarſe ſort of cotton cloth, and gather ſalt-petre and ſalt, with which they ſupply the neighbouring places.
Near the bottom of this bay is a tract of land that was long in poſſeſſion of the ſubjects of the crown of England, who carried on the logwood trade from thence to Jamaica, and our northern colonies. This tract of land includes the iſlands called Port-Royal, Triſt, and Beef-Iſland; which form a ſound between them and the main land, about three or four leagues wide. Into this ſound ſtream various rivers and creeks, which run far into the country; and, upon the banks of theſe rivers and creeks, are produced groves of logwood-trees. Theſe three iſlands, and the land within them, comprehend all that the Engliſh poſſeſſed after the conqueſt of Jamaica, and are in length no more than about 20 leagues, but not quite ſo much in breadth, including the ſpace of water in the harbours and ſound. The chief town and harbour where the Engliſh reſided, was Triſt, in latitude 18° north, and longitude 101° weſt of London.
The origin of this logwood-ſettlement was thus: after the conqueſt of Jamaica, the privateers frequently cruized in the bay of Campeachy for prizes, which they often met with: and ſome of theſe, having logwood only on board, the privateers deſtroyed, as being ignorant of it's value at that time of day. At length one Capt. James brought a Spaniſh capture laden with this wood to England; which, proving a good prize, firſt taught the worth of this commodity; and, before the war was over, the privateer's men, having learned where this wood grew, ſettled themſelves in the beforeſaid places, and employed their time in cutting of this wood honeſtly, and preparing it for ſale, and carrying the ſame to Jamaica and New England; from whence the logwood-traders imported ſupplies of what they wanted. At length the knowledge of this trade reaching England, upwards of 200 ſail of ſhips were employed in it in a ſeaſon: ſo conſiderable a trade was once carried on by the Engliſh in the bay of Campeachy; and the ſame might have been continued uninterruptedly to this day, had it not been for an unpardonable neglect in the government of England at that time. For had advantage been taken to have eſtabliſhed the Engliſh government at this ſettlement, when there were above 1700 of the ſubjects of the crown of England then; and had proper fortifications been raiſed for the ſecurity of this trade and ſettlers, we ſhould have had no diſputes, perhaps, at this time of day with Spain, about our right of trade and poſſeſſion.
At the time we are ſpeaking of, others of the Britiſh logwood-cutters and traders had ſettled themſelves within the bay of Honduras, upon a large river, called the river Belleſe, which abounds alſo with logwood, and where the bulk of the logwood that has come to England for ſeveral years paſt has been cut: and this river has been uninterruptedly, to this day, in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh logwood-cutters and traders, and their ſlaves. And, about 42 miles up this river, the ſubjects of the crown of England have built a large town, with palmeta and oſnabrigs, and hoiſted Engliſh colours, as a teſtimony of their dependency on theſe kingdoms, and of their trading under the banner of Great-Britain.
During the poſſeſſion of this ſettlement by the ſubjects of the crown of England, they have cut and exported large quantities of logwood to Europe, and imported whatever they had occaſion for; and this ſometimes in Britiſh bottoms, and ſometimes in ſhips belonging to the inhabitants, many of whom have been men of worth, even from 10 to 30,000 l. ſterling.
By a letter which I received, dated March 20, 1740-1, from a merchant of South Carolina, a man of known veracity, who had himſelf, as a captain of a merchantman, uſed the logwood-trade to this river for above twenty years, and thereby acquired a fortune competent to commence merchant; I was informed that the logwood-traders had, at their own expence, fortified, in ſome meaſure, the mouth of this river; and, as the Britiſh government had not been pleaſed to take ſuch notice of them as they judged the importance of the trade required, they had alſo conſtituted a kind of government among themſelves, and eſtabliſhed a governor to their fort, whoſe name was ——— Sharpe, and him alſo they made the factor-general for their logwood, allowing him good commiſſion for acting in this capacity, as alſo a handſome ſalary as governor of the fortreſs: all which, I have good reaſon to believe, was done at the inſtigation, and by the advice and direction of my correſpondent, who was not a little beloved by the logwood-traders at this river.
At the firſt ſettlement of this logwood colony in the river Belleſe, which was at the time when that of Campeachy was, the Engliſh were aſſiſted by the Moſketoe Indians, who acknowledge the ſovereignty of the crown of Great-Britain, and pay homage, and take the oaths to every new governor of Jamaica, on his firſt arrival: and theſe Indians have ever ſince been ſteady and faithful friends and allies to thoſe traders, in the ſupport and preſervation of this colony. In 1718, the Spaniards of Patent attempted to diſpoſſeſs the Britiſh logwood traders from the town and river of Belleſe; but his excellency governor Shute, of the province of Maſſachuſets, having commiſſioned to their protection Capt. William Wier, of the ſhip King George, together with the aſſiſtance of their old friends and allies, the Moſketoe Indians, they repulſed the Spaniards; and the Engliſh have remained in poſſeſſion of this logwood ſettlement ever ſince; and, from a poſſeſſion equal in time to that of the bay of Campeachy, from the felling of wood, clearing and planting the ground, and building of houſes where no Spaniards were ever known to inhabit, they judge they have as good a right to this colony as any of the Britiſh planters have to their eſtates in America; ſuch acts as theſe being deemed, in the Weſt-Indies, to give the ſtrongeſt right and title to ſuch plantations. Moreover, this river, and the land circumadjacent thereto, has been claimed, from time immemorial, by the Moſketoe Indians, who being the original natives of this place, and of the lands hereabouts, and having never been conquered by the Spaniards, nor ſubmitted to their dominion, but have long been faithful friends and allies to the Engliſh nation; they have, by virtue of ſubmitting to the ſovereignty of the crown of England, and that crown's acceptance of ſuch their ſubmiſſion, put themſelves and all their lands and territories under the dominion of the Britiſh government; and, therefore, in conſequence hereof, this river, and land adjoining thereto, claimed by the Britiſh logwood-cutters and traders, became annexed to the crown of England, from our firſt poſſeſſion of the ſame. This gives England even a much ſtronger right and title to this logwood colony, than the lords commiſſioners of Trade and Plantations aſſert, in the preceding repreſentation to his late majeſty, we have to that of Campeachy. And although this identical river, and lands adjoining thereto, are not expreſsly mentioned by the lords of Trade and Plantations, yet they are neceſſary implied in the UTI POSSIDETIS, and alſo under theſe expreſs terms, where their lordſhips ſay, 'Whereas, if 'your majeſty's ſubjects did actually hold and poſſeſs the La-'guna de Terminos, and the PARTS ADJACENT, at the 'time of the concluſion of the American treaty, as hath been 'already proved, the laſt clauſe of the ſeventh article will 'determine to whom the ſame belongs, &c.'—For this river Belleſe, and the lands adjoining thereto, inhabited by the Britiſh logwood traders, are the parts adjacent to the Laguna de Terminos, this river, though in the bay of Honduras, ſtretching itſelf to the Laguna de Terminos within a few leagues, through moraſs and impaſſable land, and therefore, may as juſtly be ſaid to be PARTS ADJACENT to the ſaid

LOG

ſaid Laguna de Terminos, as Triſt and Beef-Iſland in the bay of Campeachy may. And, when the Spaniards diſpoſſeſſed the ſubjects of the crown of England from the Laguna de Terminos, and Triſt and Beef-Iſland in the bay of Campeachy, many of thoſe logwood-traders joined their brethren on this river Belleſe, by the way of Honduras Bay, they not being able to come at the ſame by the way of the Laguna de Terminos in the bay of Campeachy.

When we hear of ſhips being taken in the bay of Honduras with logwood, I do not ever remember to have heard, in any of our public accounts, the particular place ſpecified from whence the ſubjects of the crown of England got their logwood; which has occaſioned an egregious miſtake, many imagining that no Britiſh veſſel has any right to go into the bay of Honduras at all, and, therefore, that whatever ſhips are found there muſt certainly have been engaged in the illicit trade, and, conſequently, ſuch ſhips are legal captures to the Spaniards: whereas the caſe may be, and generally is, quite otherwiſe; for thoſe veſſels go from Jamaica to this Britiſh logwood colony that has been ſo long ſettled on the river Belleſe, and which, to the beſt of my recollection, lies near to Aſcenſion Bay*; about two degrees and a quarter to the northward of the gulph of Honduras; for I never yet ſaw it in any map whatever.

* From the minute intelligence which I received from the beforementioned captain of a merchantman, who had uſed the logwood-trade to this river above twenty years, I drew two maps of this river, upon a large ſheet of vellum; the one I preſented to Sir Robert Walpole, late lord Orford, in the year 1738, and the other I have ſomehow loſt; but, as that which I preſented to the late Orford, may very probably be ſtill in the hands of ſome body belonging to that noble family; I ſhall be greatly obliged if they would be pleaſed to favour me with the ſame, in order to have it engraved for this work, and the original ſhall be returned. If they ſhould be ſo kind, let them pleaſe to ſend the map to Meſſ. John and Paul Knapton, bookſellers in Ludgate-Street, or to my houſe at Brompton, near Kenſigton.

The iſland of Ratan, in the bay of Honduras, was taken poſſeſſion of in order to ſecure the logwood-trade of the river Belleſe; and I have ſome reaſon to believe, in conſequence of what I did myſelf the honour to lay before Sir Robert Walpole, in relation thereto; for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, and the aid of the Moſketoe Indians, would have always protected the logwood-trade of this part.

But as this logwood colony, as well as that in the bay of Campeachy, gives ſuch umbrage and jealouſy to the Spaniards, that this trade is carried on chiefly to cover and promote an illicit commerce with their colonies, where we have no more right to trade directly to, than other nations have to the Britiſh colonies: as the ſituation of theſe colonies are likely ever to create miſunderſtandings and heart-burnings between the crowns of England and Spain, it would be happy for both nations if ſome reaſonable and moderate expedient could be thought of, to prevent any future rupture, upon this occaſion, between the two kingdoms. To which end I crave leave, with all humble ſubmiſſion, to ſuggeſt the following meaſures, viz.

1. That although it is apparent we have an undoubted right to the logwood-trade in the bay of Campeachy, as repreſented by the honourable the lords of Trade and Plantations; and alſo the ſame right to this trade in the aforeſaid river Belleſe, in the bay of Honduras; yet, in order to convince his Catholic majeſty, and the whole world, that the Britiſh nation is deſirous to maintain a ſtrict and inviolable amity with Spain, let the crown of Great-Britain abſolutely give up and renounce their right to the logwood-trade in the one or the other of theſe places; and let the renunciation of the one, and the right of the other, be ratified and confirmed by a new and explicit convention, as ſhall be agreed upon between the two crowns.—And as the abſolute right to the whole of the Campeachy ſettlement may be judged by the court of Spain to be of more conſequence to them, and the logwood-trade carried on there by the Britiſh nation more likely to cover an illicit trade than the ſettlement on the river Belleſe, in the bay of Honduras; let Great-Britain abſolutely give up and renounce, by ſuch convention, her right to the logwood-trade in the bay of Campeachy, upon expreſs condition only, that her abſolute right to the logwood-trade upon the ſaid river Belleſe be alſo ratified and confirmed by the ſaid logwood convention.

2. That all the logwood, cut by the Spaniards in the bay of Campeachy, ſhall be carried in Spaniſh bottoms to Jamaica, and there ſold to the Britiſh ſubjects, at ſuch a fixed price as ſhall be ſtipulated in the ſaid new convention.

3. That the ſubjects of all other powers whatſoever ſhall be excluded from the cutting of logwood in the bay of Campeachy, or the purchaſe of logwood at firſt hand of the Spaniards, in any part of the ſaid bay of Campeachy.

4. That the ſubjects of the crown of England ſhall have the free and uninterrupted liberty of trade and navigation to the ſaid river Belleſe, in the bay of Honduras, and to fortify the ſame in ſuch a manner as they ſhall judge proper for their ſecurity.

5. That logwood on board of any Britiſh ſhip ſhall not be deemed contraband goods, nor ſhall any Britiſh ſhip whatever be ſearched by the Spaniards upon the high ſeas.

6. That all Britiſh ſhips catched in the ports of New Spain, ſave in the logwood port at Belleſe river, and except drove thither by ſtreſs of weather, &c. as agreed by ſubſiſting treaties, ſhall be liable to be taken, with their cargoes, and confiſcated by the Spaniards to their ſole uſe.

Theſe are the outlines of what I would humbly ſubmit to public conſideration, in order to prevent any future broils between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, in regard to this branch of commerce; leaving ſuch additions and alterations to be made as ſhall be judged requiſite to anſwer the end propoſed.—If the Spaniards ſhould not acquieſce to ſome meaſures of this, or ſome other kind, in order to regulate the logwood-trade, it is apparent that they have no intention to keep friendſhip with this nation.

Further Remarks, on the unreaſonableneſs of the Spaniards to inſiſt upon the ſearch of Britiſh ſhips upon the high ſeas of America.

That Great-Britain does not inſiſt upon this point of No Search of their ſhips upon the open ſeas, from any chicaning motive or view, to cover an illicit trade to the Spaniſh colonies in America, but from an upright and honourable intention, to ſecure and maintain an uninterrupted freedom of navigation to and from her own colonies in America; will appear, it is humbly preſumed, from the cleareſt evidence and conviction, that the court of Spain can reaſonably deſire or expect. For,

1. The courſe of the winds in thoſe ſeas between the tropics, it muſt be obſerved, is generally between the eaſt and north-eaſt, which are diſtinguiſhed commonly by the name of trade-winds; and, cloſe to the coaſts of the great iſlands of Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, and Porto-Rico, there are alſo alternate land and ſea-winds. The land-winds blow right off from the iſlands, on which ſide ſoever you are; they begin about ſun-ſet, and blow ſometimes 'till eight or nine o'clock in the morning, and are ſucceeded by ſea-breezes.

2. There is likewiſe a ſtrong rapid current to the weſtward, along the ſouth ſide of all theſe beforementioned iſlands; and this is occaſioned by the trade-winds blowing from the Canary iſlands over all the Atlantic Ocean. This current forces the ſea very violently upon the coaſt of Guaiana, which turns it through between the iſlands of Trinidada and Barbadoes: this rapid current is confined between the continent and the iſlands of Porto-Rico, Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba, and continues it's force to Cape Gratias Dios, being all the way accelerated in it's violent rapidity by the wind that ſtill follows it.

3. At Cape Gratias Dios the ſame current bends it's courſe to the northward; and, as it paſſes between Cape Catoche, on the iſthmus of Jucatan and the weſt end of Cuba, becomes ſtill far more rapid and violent than any where elſe. Theſe things premiſed, the neceſſity, the abſolute and indiſpenſible neceſſity Britiſh ſhips are under, for ſecurity of their navigation only, of keeping as cloſe as they poſſibly can to the Spaniſh coaſt, will appear obvious and indiſputable. For,

The neareſt courſe of our ſhips from Great-Britain, or from our northern colonies to Jamaica, is, either along the ſouth ſide of Porto-Rico and Hiſpaniola, or directly between thoſe two iſlands, or between Hiſpaniola and the iſland of Cuba. It is very true, indeed, upon a bare ſurvey of the map, it does not appear, to the theoriſt and unexperienced land-man, that Britiſh ſhips are under the abſolute neceſſity of approaching very near to the Spaniſh coaſts; but thoſe who have been experienced in the navigation of thoſe ſeas, well know, that, even in the greateſt calms, they are continually forced extremely near; nay, ſo near as within piſtol-ſhot of the Spaniſh coaſts, and are ſometimes forced full upon the Spaniſh ſhore, to the immediate deſtruction of their veſſels: and this is occaſioned by the inceſſant rapidity of the beforementioned current, and the chopping ſeas our ſhips meet with between theſe iſlands, even after a calm; for it muſt be obſerved, that the dying winds, after any thing of tempeſtuous weather, always leave a ſtrong ſea running to the weſtward: ſo that our outward-bound ſhips, not from any view to an illicit trade, are neceſſitated, for the ſecurity of their navigation only, to keep as near to the Spaniſh ſhore as they poſſibly can, with ſafety from the ſhore itſelf, for the benefit of the land-winds, and to avoid the dangerous and often fatal effects of the rapid current, and the chopping ſeas.

And, with regard to thoſe ſhips which are homeward-bound from Jamaica, there is ſtill a far greater neceſſity for their ſailing as cloſe to the Spaniſh coaſt as, with ſafety, they poſſibly can. For thoſe ſhips which load at King's-Town or Spaniſh-Town in Jamaica, or any where to the eaſtward thereof, frequently attempt to return to England and our northern colonies thro' the Windward Paſſage, between Cuba and Hiſpaniola, where they are always certain of meeting with the wind and current againſt them from the eaſtward, except they haul cloſe over upon the coaſt of Cuba, for the benefit of a land-wind, as before obſerved, and to avoid the violence of the current, which runs againſt them.

Without our ſhips keeping thus cloſe to the Spaniſh coaſt, it is abſolutely impoſſible to ſail to the eaſtward at all, through

the Windward Paſſage: and, notwithſtanding they do keep as cloſe to the ſhore as they can, and take all imaginable advantage of the ſhelter of the land, and of the land-winds; yet, in ſpite of all the aſſiſtance they can thus receive, they frequently lie beating there for ſeveral weeks together; and, after all their endeavours, are at laſt too frequently compelled to bear away round cape St. Anthony, at the weſt end of the iſland of Cuba, from whence they ſteer their courſe through the gulph of Florida: and this courſe moſt of our ſhips which load to the weſtward of King's-Town, or Port-Royal, chuſe, as being the quickeſt paſſage.

And, in the paſſage of Britiſh ſhips from Jamaica, through the gulph, we are alſo under the ſame neceſſity of keeping as cloſe to the ſouth-weſt part of Cuba, and as cloſe to the weſt and north-weſt part, as the ſhoal of the Collarado will, with ſecurity, admit: for, if our ſhips do not keep cloſe to the land in this critical place, the north-weſt current is here ſo exceſſively ſtrong, violent, and rapid, that it forces our ſhips often 50 or 60 leagues, or more, to the weſtward; and, when they are at ſuch a diſtance from the land in this place, it is with the greateſt difficulty they are able to recover it again; but, if they do, it may be ſeveral months firſt, which is certainly no little injury to our trade and navigation.

We have a memorable inſtance of the danger of this north-weſt current, in the late confederate war of queen Anne. A conſiderable fleet of merchantmen, under the convoy of a large ſquadron of men of war, made this miſtake of keeping too wide of the land, upon doubling the weſt end of Cuba, and ſtretched ſo far to the north that they judged themſelves out of the ſight of Cuba, and plied the wind in that latitude 'till they thought themſelves the height of the gulph of Florida; then ſtood to the northward accordingly, 'till they imagined themſelves quite clear of the gulph, and congratulated the admiral upon the occaſion, whoſe name at preſent I do not recollect, but I think it was admiral Benbow. After which, crowding full ſail with a briſk gale of wind in the night, to their great aſtoniſhment, ſaw the land right a-head, which proved to be in the very bottom of the bay of Apalache. This was occaſioned by the rapidity of the north-weſt current; and, had not the whole fleet immediately changed their courſe, this miſtake would certainly have proved fatal to them. There are numberleſs inſtances of merchantmen, which, by not keeping as cloſe to the Spaniſh coaſt as they poſſibly could, with ſafety from the ſhore, in this place have met with this current; which has either proved the loſs of their veſſels, or ſeveral months retarded their voyage.

Should it be objected, by the Spaniſh miniſtry, that the current, all the way taken notice of, does not always ſet ſtrong to the weſtward, but that it ſometimes changes, and ſets to the eaſtward. To this it is anſwered, That, although, it is certain the main current does ſometimes ſet to the eaſtward; yet this is but very ſeldom, and never of any long continuance on that point: beſides, the time of ſuch changes is altogether uncertain, and, therefore, our ſhips cannot take the advantage of ſetting out when the current ſhould happen to favour them.

Unleſs, therefore, the Engliſh nation can make the winds and the currents to obey them in the ſeas of America, they cannot, conſiſtent with their natural rights of navigation, ſubmit to have their ſhips ſearched, under any colour or pretence whatſoever; nor can they ſubmit to any limitation of courſe or diſtance whatever, in ſailing by the Spaniſh coaſts, ſo as to preſerve and maintain a freedom and ſafety of navigation to and from their own plantations.

I have dwelt the longer upon this point, judging it of the laſt importence to our navigation in America; and never having heard this point, in all the debates that have been, for above theſe 20 years about it, ſtated in it's clear and full light, I hope it will not prove an unacceptable ſervice to my country to make this public, having had the ſame confirmed to me for ſeveral years paſt, by a great number of ſkilful and experienced captains of merchantmen, who, I am perſuaded, could have no view to deceive me in my enquiries.

Of the illicit, or contraband trade, ſaid by the Spaniards to be carried on by the Engliſh, and other nations, in Spaniſh America.

The ſubject on which I am at preſent engaged, naturally leading to the conſideration of that part of the trade of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies which is commonly called illicit, or contraband, it may not be uſeleſs to take ſome notice of it, in this place; and, firſt, it may be neceſſary to be informed of the ſentiments of the Spaniards themſelves in relation to this matter; which we find in the works of the learned Spaniard Don Geronymo de Uztariz *.

* See vol. I. cap. 29.

'In a treatiſe already mentioned, ſays this great ſtateſman, 'entitled, The Intereſt of England ill underſtood; in the war 'which was carried on in the year 1704, we have a detail of 'the various ſorts of merchandize brought from England to 'Spain and Portugal, of which the principal is fiſh, with a re-'mark that three parts are for Spain, and the fourth for Portu-'gal; but that the profits are very different. The returns from

'Portugal are made in commodities and fruits exported, ſuch 'as tobacco, wine, ſugar, ſpices, and ſalt; while thoſe of Spain 'are much more advantageous to the Engliſh, as they princi-'pally conſiſt of bullion, and bars of ſilver: for the wine, 'wooll, and other commodities they take back, are far from 'being a balance for the goods brought into Spain.

'In the ſame book it is alſo ſaid, That one of the principal 'branches of commerce which the Engliſh poſſeſs in America, 'conſiſts of an illicit traffic with his majeſty's provinces, by 'introducing their merchandize by way of Jamaica; and the 'return is uſually in bullion, wood, and cocheneal; and they 'eſtimate their gain by this ſingle traffic at ſix millions of 'dollars yearly, and draw even more money from the Spaniſh 'dominions by way of Jamaica than Cadiz: nor ought this 'to be ſtrange, ſince, in the month of Auguſt 1722, there 'arrived in England 30 veſſels freighted from Jamaica; and, 'if we conſider the barrenneſs of that iſland, one muſt be 'convinced that a principal part of their loading had been 'drawn from Spaniſh America: and the caſe is the ſame with 'the other numerous and frequent convoys that paſs back-'wards and forwards from England to Jamaica, where, for 'the reaſon given above, and the few inhabitants of that 'iſland, a ſmall part of the numerous goods carried over will 'be conſumed there; and, therefore, they diſpoſe of the reſt 'to the Spaniards, as the Engliſh themſelves confeſs. More-'over, the ſame book mentions the danger this branch of 'their commerce will be expoſed to in the courſe of a war *, 'they had unjuſtly declared againſt us, ſince we could put a 'ſtop to it with ſix frigates, ſtationed to ſcour thoſe ſeas.'

* However good an opinion the learned Spaniard may entertain of this Engliſh writer, yet the advantage reaped in the late war, as well as in that of queen Anne, in Jamaica, by means of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade carried on from thence, ſhews that this author was much out in that foreſight to which he pretended. Some years ſince I met with this author, tranſlated into French; and, if I remember right, the original was reputed to have been wrote by a noted Engliſh Jeſuit, who reſided in the city of London, and who, of courſe, was no friend to the Proteſtant intereſt; and, therefore, wiſhed ſucceſs to the Popiſh confederacy at that time, and wrote that treatiſe then to ſpirit up the Spaniards and French againſt England and her allies. But if foreigners form their judgment of the commerce and power of this kingdom, from the party writings of either ſide, with which we abound, it is not to be admired that they are frequently miſled in regard to ſome very eſſential points.—And ſome of thoſe writers, who would be thought very zealous in their country's intereſt, have been the inſtruments of doing her the greateſt miſchief. We would by no means be underſtood to reſtrain the liberty of the preſs in any degree, while a becoming decency, and the character of the gentleman is preſerved, that privilege being the great palladium of all our liberties: but I would obſerve, that our own people at home, as well as foreigners abroad, are too often egregiouſly impoſed upon by the party writings of all ſides. This many wiſe and good men have lamented; and, I am willing to flatter myſelf, that this work wherein I am engaged will, in relation to commercial affairs, prevent evils of this nature; for party artifice has too often a great ſhare in thoſe concerns; having endeavoured, to the utmoſt of my ability, to guard againſt every thing of that kind; for the grand pole-ſtar by which I have endeavoured to conduct myſelf, is the general proſperity and happineſs of Great-Britain in particular; and that without any intention whatever to injure any other nation, unleſs the rouſing of my countrymen to beat them in honeſt induſtry, art, and ingenuity, will be ſaid to be ſo.

That an illicit and contraband trade hath ſometimes been carried on by the ſubjects of the crown of England, from Jamaica to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, will hardly be denied; and ſo it hath been, and daily is, by the ſubjects of other nations. This, however, is no palliation of what is wrong in itſelf. Such is the ineffectuality both of divine and human laws, that no trading nation can abſolutely prevent the ſmuggling and contraband trade, even within their own dominions, much leſs are they able to prevent their ſubjects from practiſing the like in foreign countries. No nation is more ſenſible of theſe things than that of Spain; for, although their laws are very rigorous and ſevere againſt ſmuggling in Spaniſh America: though they erected a gallows at Panama, to put a ſtop to it: yet they have not hitherto been able to do it. And, while their own ſubjects will carry on an illicit trade with foreigners, it is no wonder that the latter will run the hazard likewiſe.

Every nation has a right to enact what laws they judge proper for the regulation, as well of the trade and navigation of their reſpective colonies and plantations, as of the mother-ſtate. But theſe laws and regulations ſhould never interfere with ſubſiſting public treaties, nor with the laws of nations, which give every ſtate a right and freedom of navigation to and from their ſeveral colonies and plantations: for ſuch laws and regulations which interfere with public treaties, and the laws of nations, muſt tend to deſtroy all amity with ſuch nations who make them.

If the ſhips of Spain, in their navigation to and from their American colonies, ſail near to any of the Engliſh or French colonies, would not the Spaniards highly reſent it, if the Engliſh

liſh or French ſhould detain and ſearch their ſhips on the high ſeas, upon the pretence of their having been concerned in an illicit and contraband trade? But if the Engliſh or the French, or any other nation, catched the ſhips of Spain in the ports of any of their colonies and plantations, carrying on an illicit and contraband trade, Spain neither could or would complain, if ſuch of their ſhips and cargoes were ſeized and confiſcated: Spain would not think this any infraction of treaties, or any violation of the law of nations; it would be uſing ſmugglers as they deſerve.—So whenever the Spaniſh officers in America have really catched either the Engliſh, French, or Dutch ſhips or veſſels, in any of the Spaniſh ports, carrying on an illicit and contraband traffic, thoſe courts never have, or ever will complain, if the Spaniards ſeize and confiſcate ſuch ſhips and veſſels; nor will the captures themſelves ever have the confidence to complain, whenever this is the caſe: all ſtates, on theſe occaſions, muſt ſubmit to the laws of nations for the reciprocal ſecurity of their commerce and their revenues.

This ſeems to be the natural and right light wherein the Spaniards, if unbiaſſed by ſelf-partiality, ſhould conſider this matter; they ſhould, as England, and every wiſe trading nation muſt and will, enact the moſt ſalutary laws for the government of their colonies and plantations, to prevent evils of this nature; and have ſuch upright governors and active and vigilant officers, as will ſuppreſs, inſtead of promote and encourage, for private intereſt, this infamous traffic. What difficulties has not the government of England had to ſuppreſs ſmuggling, and yet has not been able to eradicate it; though it is certain, that, from the vigilance, vigour, and reſolution of the adminiſtration, the knot is broke of the moſt notorious and enormous villains of this ſtamp; whereby this deteſtable commerce is greatly decreaſed. But every trading nation has theſe mal-practices to bear with more or leſs: and, would the court of Spain take the like meaſures that England has been obliged to do, and hang up thoſe of their own ſubjects, whom they find any way concerned in, and in any reſpect encouraging a contraband trade, they might ſoon, perhaps, put a ſtop to it, notwithſtanding the great extent of their coaſts; and, in ſuch caſe, the ſubjects of England, France, and Holland, muſt of courſe ceaſe to be concerned therein.

But, if the Spaniards are really in earneſt to ſuppreſs this illicit traffic in their American dominions, and do not ſuffer the ſame to be countenanced with a view to make a handle of; ſhould they not let their ſubjects in thoſe parts have a conſtant and full ſupply of ſuch aſſortments of merchandizes, by the legal way of Old Spain, wherein they know they ſtand in need? If this is not regularly and effectually done, how can it be expected that the ſubjects of the crown of Spain, in any part of America, will want ſuch merchandizes wherein they ſtand in need, if there is a poſſibility of coming at them in any ſhape? If then the principal cauſe of the illicit and contraband trade carried on in Spaniſh America by the ſubjects of the ſeveral other ſtates of Europe, as well as by the ſubjects of the crown of Great-Britain, may be aſcribed to the deficiency of the laws of Spain, or to the bad execution of their laws in New Spain; if the commerce from Old Spain to New is not ſo wiſely regulated by the due ſailing of their galloons and regiſter-ſhips, &c. as it might be, to afford their ſubjects in America ſuch a conſtant ſupply of merchandize as they muſt and will have, does not the fault in this reſpect lie in the court of Spain itſelf?

When the South Sea company poſſeſſed and exerciſed the Aſſiento contract, Spain was inceſſantly complaining of the illicit commerce carried on by the means, and under the cover of the exerciſe of that contract: that is now at an end; and, if there was any truth in theſe ſuggeſtions of the crown of Spain, all illicit trade occaſioned thereby has ceaſed with the Aſſiento itſelf.

There may be probably enough ſtill ſome degree of illicit trade carried on as well by the ſubjects of the crown of England in Spaniſh America, as by the ſubjects of other powers: but, will a mere ſuſpicion of this in the crown of Spain juſtify their detention and ſearch of Britiſh or any other ſhips, indeed, upon the high ſeas? We have ſeen the apparent and inevitable neceſſity under which our Britiſh ſhips in particular lie, to ſail as near as poſſibly they can, with ſafety, to the Spaniſh coaſts, in their lawful navigation to and from the Britiſh colonies and plantations; without which, our people are frequently liable either to loſe their lives and ſhips, by reaſon of the winds and currents, or to have their voyage ſome months retarded: we have ſeen likewiſe the foundation of our right, by treaties, to the logwood-trade in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; and the unreaſonableneſs of the Spaniards, in preſuming to detain and ſearch our ſhips upon the high ſeas, in their navigation to and from our logwood or other colonies, under the pretext of having been engaged in illicit trade: we have alſo ſeen, that logwood, the produce of thoſe places which have been particularized in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, is as much a Britiſh commodity, as ſugar, rice, and tobacco are Britiſh commodities, in any of our other colonies; and that the Spaniards have not the leaſt foundation to condemn any Britiſh veſſel for having logwood on board; for that ſuch conduct is an apparent violation of ſubſiſting treaties.

With reſpect to the article of cacao-nuts, that may be on board Britiſh ſhips, it is well known that they likewiſe are the product of our own ſettlements in America; ſo that all the diſpute between Great-Britain and Spain is reduced to the ſimple point of pieces of eight, which is the current coin of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. To which we would obſerve, this is a ſpecie, that all the European nations which trade in a lawful manner by way of Old Spain to New, have in return together with other commodities from Spaniſh America, for the merchandizes which they ſend thither; and it is well known, that Spaniſh pieces of eight are looked upon in the light of a commodity, by all thoſe nations who traffic with Spain, and is accordingly bought and ſold among them; and, indeed, ſo are the foreign coins, more or leſs, of the principal trading nations of Europe: nay, the chief current coins of Europe are, in ſome degree, in a perpetual circulation over the whole traffickable world. And theſe pieces of eight, which the other European nations receive from Old Spain, are again carried back to America, and diſſeminated among all the colonies and plantations belonging to the ſeveral potentates therein intereſted: in the French, Dutch, and Portugueze colonies, there are Spaniſh pieces of eight to be ſeen in the way of traffic, and ſo there are guineas and louis d'ors, &c. Our northern colonies trade with the French iſlands, and our iſlands frequently trade with the Dutch in America, whereby, in the currency of trade, Spaniſh pieces of eight, as well as divers other foreign coins, are conſtantly paſſing from colony to colony; but this will not prove that, when ſuch Spaniſh pieces of eight are found on board Britiſh, or any other veſſels belonging to theſe European nations who have ſettlements in America, theſe veſſels have been carrying on an illicit and contraband trade with the Spaniards in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; theſe identical pieces of eight might come into their hands, in conſequence of the legal commerce of Old Spain; and, if they are afterwards carried to circulate among all the colonies in America, which is frequently the caſe; will this juſtify the Spaniards in ſearching, much leſs in taking or condemning the ſhips of any European power, for having ſuch ſpecie on board, who have any right to trade in America? This will juſtify them the leaſt of any, in taking Britiſh ſhips on the high ſeas of America; becauſe theſe ſhips often take out this ſpecie with them, wherewith to facilitate their commerce among the Britiſh colonies in general; and are obliged, as we have ſeen, to navigate even within gun-ſhot of the Spaniſh coaſt, merely for ſecurity of their lives, their ſhips, and their cargoes.

Such was the ſituation of the Engliſh and Spaniſh intereſts in America, before the year 1667, that the latter attempted an expreſs prohibition of trade to all other nations, to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; this they laboured long but ineffectually to procure; they met with conſtant oppoſition to any ſtipulation of this kind in their favour, in the reigns both of queen Elizabeth and king James; and this was thought to be one of the principal cauſes that brought the brave Sir Walter Ralegh to the block

In the reign of Charles the Iſt, the Spaniards renewed their ſollicitations for a clauſe of this nature in the treaty, then concluded between Spain and England, and offered a conſiderable ſum of money to procure it, but they were ſtill unſucceſsful; nor could all the honours and favour they heaped upon Charles II. during his exile, prevail with him to grant them any promiſe for that purpoſe, in caſe he was reſtored to the crown. In conſequence of this being the ſtate of the caſe, at the time we are ſpeaking of, between England and Spain, the Spaniſh governors were abſolutely reſtrained, by orders from the court of Madrid, from permitting any other nation to trade with the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. Nay, we endeavoured to have this liberty explicitly confirmed by treaty to us; but this being contrary to maxims, which, by long uſage, had acquired the ſtrength of fundamental laws in that monarchy, we could never obtain it. This was the intent of the embaſſy of Sir Richard Fanſhaw in the year 1664. However, in later days we have been more moderate: Great-Britain ſeems, at preſent, to require nothing of the crown of Spain, in order to preſerve an inviolable friendſhip with that nation, but what is her indiſputable right; and that ſhe certainly has to the cutting of logwood in ſuch parts of the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, as have been before repreſented. She alſo has an indiſputable right to a free and uninterrupted navigation to and from her own colonies in America, as well as the Spaniards have to theirs; and that without any detention or ſearch of their ſhips whatſoever upon the high ſeas, by Spaniſh guarda coſtas or others, under pretence of ſuſpecting them to have contraband goods on board.

REMARKS upon the whole of this article of LOGWOOD, before the laſt war.

It is too notorious to need proof, that the late war was occaſioned by the depredations, which were committed by the Spaniards upon Britiſh ſhips trading to and from our logwood and other Britiſh colonies in America; and it is well enough

enough known to the whole world, that the long forbearance of the court of Great-Britain to come to an open rupture with the crown of Spain, upon this occaſion, is ſcarce to be paralleled in hiſtory: and, if the accounts we have of late received from Jamaica and the northern colonies be true, there is too much reaſon to believe, that the Spaniards are about to act the like ſcene over again, that occaſioned the war. If this ſhould be the caſe, as I hope it will not, I have humbly ſubmitted an expedient to public conſideration, to prevent thoſe evils with regard to the logwood-trade, that is as much calculated for the intereſt of Spain as that of Great-Britain. In what has been urged in relation to that point, and the ſearch of Britiſh ſhips upon the high ſeas of America, I have not ſhewed the leaſt partiality towards my own country; I have ſtated only the naked facts without exaggeration, which generally eclipſes the truth.

It is to be wiſhed, that our logwood ſettlements were ſituated elſewhere, that might give no umbrage or jealouſy to the Spaniards; it is therefore I have propoſed the aſcertaining our right to that colony in the RIVER BELLESE; in ſailing to and from which, our Britiſh traders can give no cauſe of ſuſpicion that they intend an illicit and contraband trade, under colour of the logwood-trade: and every impartial Spaniard muſt allow, that it is condeſcenſion enough in the crown of England to give up their right to the logwood-trade, in Campeachy, upon the conditions ſuggeſted, in caſe the Britiſh right is explicitly aſcertained, by treaty, to that ſmall river Belleſe. But, if the court of Spain ſhould not acquieſce in ſo fair and equitable a propoſition, which I have done myſelf the honour humbly to ſubmit to conſideration; it will demonſtrate that the crown of Spain is determined to break with Great-Britain at all events, if they ſhould continue to take our ſhips in the manner they did before the late war, in 1741. And, if this ſhould prove to be the real diſpoſition of that court, if we were even to give up the whole logwood-trade, they would nevertheleſs take our ſhips in ſailing to and from our other colonies; ſo that there would be no end of conceſſion upon conceſſion.

If this ſhould ever come to be the caſe, the regulations of the logwood-trade, propoſed by Sir Thomas Lynch governor of Jamaica, may, perhaps, be firſt naceſſary to be ſettled, viz. that all ſhips trading to our logwood colonies ſhould ſail together in ſmall ſquadrons, as is taken notice of in the repreſentation of the lords commiſſioners of trade before quoted. In a word, every prudential meaſure ſhould be tried to ſettle this point in an amicable manner between the two crowns, if there is a poſſibility of ſo doing.—But the moſt effectual pacific meaſures to be taken, we humbly apprehend, ſhould be in ſuch a commercial way, as would pinch the Spaniard in the moſt tender point.—Whatever could be thought of in this ſhape ſhould be eſſayed, before the ſword is again drawn upon the like occaſion; and, if every endeavour of this kind in the court of Great-Britain proves fruitleſs, then all imaginable weight and dignity ſhould be given to the adminiſtration by unanimity at home, that ſuch alliances with foreign powers might be made, and ſuch effectual meaſures taken by the parliament, as would bring the Spaniards to terms of reaſon and juſtice with a nation, by which they gain more than by any other whatſoever, and in whoſe power it may one day be to do them more miſchief than another ſtate whatever *.—But nothing can be a greater folly, we conceive, than for a trading nation to go to war, 'till every meaſure, poſſible to be thought of, is tried to prevent it; and yet every wiſe meaſure taken previouſly to prepare for it, before we ever attempt to ſtrike the blow again, that, when do ſtrike, we may do it with ſuch ſecrecy and effectuality, as may make the Spaniards repent their maltreatment of a nation that has bore ſo much to preſerve peace with them: and, if once, as I heard a great man ſay, previouſly to a declaration of war with Spain, it was the ſenſe of a Britiſh parliament to addreſs the throne, that they would grant ſupplies to carry on a war againſt Spain, upon condition only that Great-Britain ſhould HOLD WHAT POSSESSIONS THEY GOT IN THE WAR, this would be no ill-judged ſtep to prevent one; but, if we had one, it would occaſion our whole ſtrength to be levelled, where it would be moſt ſenſibly felt.

* Did not the Spaniards experience this, by our taking the Havannah in the laſt war?

REMARKS.

The foregoing was the ſtate of our LOGWOOD article, before the laſt war; but by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, that point is ſettled as follows, in the XVIIth article of the ſaid treaty, "His Britannic majeſty ſhall cauſe to be demoliſhed all the FORTIFICATIONS which his ſubjects ſhall "have erected in the BAY OF HONDURAS, and OTHER "PLACES of the territory of Spain in that part of the world, "four months after the ratification of the preſent treaty: "And his Catholic majeſty ſhall not permit his Britannic "majeſty's ſubjects, or their workmen, to be diſturbed, or "moleſted, under any pretence whatſoever, in the SAID "PLACES, in their occupation of CUTTING, LOADING, and "CARRYING AWAY LOGWOOD. And for this purpoſe, "they may build without hindrance, and occupy without "interruption, the houſes and magazines which are neceſſary for them, for their families, and for their effects: "And his Catholic majeſty aſſures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of thoſe advantages and powers on "the Spaniſh coaſts and territories, as above ſtipulated, immediately after the ratifications of the preſent treaty."

We find that, at length, this long conteſted point, reſpecting the LOGWOOD TRADE, is ſettled by treaty, which it never was explicitly before. For the Spaniards would never before acknowledge, that we had any right to cut logwood in the BAY OF HONDURAS; but by the ſaid article, the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty are permitted to CUT, LOAD, and CARRY AWAY logwood from the ſaid bay, and wherever elſe they had erected fortifications, upon condition only of their demoliſhing ſuch fortifications.

But ſince the ſaid DEFINITIVE TREATY has been made between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, the following accounts having been reported to be tranſmitted to the court of London, it will be neceſſary to record the ſame in this work; though we are willing to hope, that the court of Spain will diſavow what follows, or it may poſſibly be attended with a freſh war; for the conſequences of which, ſee our article NEW MEXICO.

Philadelphia, May 10. By the Olive Branch, captain Robinſon, from Honduras bay, we have advice, that the Spaniards had forbad the Engliſh from cutting wood in the bay; upon which they had ſent an expreſs to Jamaica for aſſiſtance. The following is a tranſlatton of a letter from the Spaniſh general to the commanding officer in the bay.

SIR,

The king, my maſter, having appointed me to the employment of governor and captain-general of this province, with eſpecial order to comply entirely with what his majeſty granted to the crown of England, and ſtipulated in the 17th article of the definitive treaty of peace, ſigned at Paris the 10th day of February, this year, commanding me likewiſe that with all poſſible diſpatch, I ſhould proceed on my voyage, which I could not do ſo ſoon as I deſired, for various diſappointments which happened. I arrived at Campeachy the 7th inſtant, and having taken poſſeſſion the 24th, I was informed of your arrival at Balis in the month of April, alſo five veſſels, and that immediately the people were diſperſed as far as Rio Hondo, practiſing from that time the cutting of logwood, by virtne of the treaty of peace. You did not preſent the royal ſchedule that my ſovereign expedited for this end, nor the licence of the king of England for the aforeſaid effect.

This being granted, I am obliged by the king, my lord, in his royal confidence of the government of this province, and to comply entirely with the ſaid 17th article of the definitive treaty of peace, as I ſaid before, to diſpatch the commandant of the fort of Bacalar, don Joſeph Roſado, with this, requiring you, that in conſideration of the want of inſtruments for your introduction, and having extended yourſelves, gathering fruits as in your own country, without waiting to ſettle the limits with the neceſſary ſolemnity that ſhould have ſecured your eſtabliſhment, you will be pleaſed, with all ſpeed, to give the neceſſary advice to all your community that are in Rio Hondo, to retire to Balis; and I expect you will preſent me with the royal ſchedule, that the king, my maſter, diſpatched to this end, or with orders from the king of Great-Britain for this effect; and there is no doubt but I ſhall then attend to it with that care and equity I am commanded; iſſuing for that purpoſe the neceſſary orders to all the commandants, cabos, military and juſticiary of all the diſtricts in their juriſdiction; by which means the ſuſpicion of the fatal conſequences will ceaſe, which will be inevitable if ſuch conduct is continued, ſufficient to deſtroy the good harmony between the two nations, and happy tranquillity we enjoy, if the remedy is not occurred to in time, and our ſovereign will manifeſtly ſee how we intereſt ourſelves, that their juſt and laudable intentions take effect, for which I am ſo ready on my part, as is manifeſt by my toleration, that you and all your nation remain at Balis, and I promiſe myſelf the ſame on your parts, proteſting always that for the reſult of what may happen by ſuch irregular introduction and exceſs of cutting logwood, thoſe who commit, or do not remedy them, will be reſponſible after all. I hope you will favour me with an anſwer by hand of the ſaid commandant of Bacalar, and other commands moſt to your ſatisfaction, to manifeſt to you the deſire I have to ſerve you. God guard you many years, as he can, and I deſire. Your moſt humble ſervant, kiſſes your hands,

PHILIPE REMIRES DE ESTINOS.

Marida, in Jucatan, 29th of December, 1763.

Seir Don JOSEPH MAUD.

Don Joſeph Roſado, lieutenant of infantry in the hatallion of Caſtillia, and commandant of this garriſon and royal fort of St Philip, of Bacalar, and it's juriſdictions.

Notwithſtanding that the ſerjeant Dioniſius Chavaria, who is detachedto the look-out of St. Anthony, has the neceſ-

ſary

ſary orders, that the Engliſh logwood cutters of Rio Hondo, do retreat to Balis, without permitting them to make any demur, becauſe that ſince the 4th inſtant, when the order of the governor and captain-general was by me intimated to them, they have had competent time to evacuate the river, carrying away the utenſils of their houſes. I order and command the ſaid ſerjeant, that he receive eleven ſoldiers of this garriſon, well armed, which, with four there before, completes the number of fifteen, to remain at the ſaid look-out; that with them he is not to permit any Engliſh veſſel, under any pretext, to enter the mouth of this river; on the contrary, if any flats remain in the river, they are to go out, with the utenſils of their houſes, with ſo much brevity, as not to permit them to ſtop any where, but retire totally; as likewiſe thoſe from the New River; beeauſe in the order intimated to them, it is expreſſed, that the retreat ſhall be to Balis, and no other part; and to act on the contrary, they expoſe themſelves to evident danger, as by their diſobedience they loſe their negroes, and find themſelves under a violent arreſt. This order he ſhall manifeſt to as many as are not yet gone out, that by this means it arrive at the notice of all the baymen, and at no time they may plead ignorance. And all that is done on the ſubject by the ſaid ſerjeant, he ſhall give me punctual advice; as alſo of what may occur, to adviſe his excellency the governor and captain-general, from whom I have orders to execute what may be needful;—in caſe of contumacy, diſobedience, or rebellion, laying to the charge of the baymen, all the reſults that may happen between the ſovereigns, for not executing what they are ordered, and that it appear to the ſaid ſerjeant what is hereby ordered; and that he fulfil his obligation with that zeal, love and conduct he ought. This order is given in this garriſon and royal fort of St. Philip, Bacalar, this 22d of February, 1764.

JOSEPH ROSADO.

I, the ſerjeant Dioniſius Chavaria, certify, that the above is a true copy of the order I received this day from the commandant don Joſeph Roſada,

Jo. MAUD,
JA. GRANT, DIONISIUS CHAVARIA.
STEPHEN ARCHHOLD.

To his excellency William Henry Littleton, Eſq; governor and captain-general of the iſland of Jamaica, and other the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and vice-admiral of the ſame, &c. the humble petition of the principal ſettlers on the Bay of Honduras, for cutting of logwood, and the commanders of veſſels now lying there to load,

Humbly ſheweth,

That your petitioners by virtue of the preliminary treaty of peace (in the 17th article whereof it is ſtipulated, that the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty ſhall have the privilege of cutting and carrying away logwood in the Bay of Honduras; with liberty to build houſes and magazines, neceſſary for themſelves and families) in the month of April 1763, came down here for the aforeſaid purpoſe of cutting logwood; and on their firſt arrival, diſpatched a letter to the commandant of Bacalar, being the neareſt Spaniſh ſettlement; who returned for anſwer, that he would tranſmit it to the governor and captain-general of the province of Jucatan; whoſe orders on the ſubject, he, the ſaid commandant, communicated to your petitioners, which was to comply entirely with the 16th article of the preliminary treaty of peace.

That afterwards, by virtue of a letter from the ſaid governor of Jucatan, No. 1, in the anſwer to a letter from Joſeph Maud, one of your petitioners, a copy of which is No. 2, ſeveral of your petitioners went into Rio Hondo, to cut logwood; and from that time unmoleſted followed their occupations, till the 4th of this inſtant February, in good harmony and correſpondence with the Spaniards, by frequent letters from the governor of Jucatan, and anſwers by Joſeph Maud, one of your petitioners, all hereunto annexed, at which time don Joſeph Roſado, commandant of Bacalar, delivered the ſaid Joſeph Maud, one of your petitioners, the letter from the governor of Jucatan aforeſaid, No. 3, ordering your petitioners to retreat to Balis, 'till they produce either a ſchedule from his Catholic majeſty, or orders from the king of Great-Britain, to authorize them to cut logwood. In conſequence whereof, your petitioners, with all poſſible diſpatch, endeavoured to withdraw their effects to the New River and Balis, in both which rivers your petitioners had formerly ſettlements. But on the 23d inſtant they were again diſturbed, by an order from the commandant of Bacalar, directed to the ſerjeant of the guard at the mouth of Rio Hondo, an authentic copy of which is likewiſe annexed, No. 4, by which your petitioners are ordered to evacuate every river except Balis, where it is admitted them to ſtay a little while, but, as your petitioners believe, not to have the privilege of cutting logwood even there; that your petitioners are hereby driven to the greateſt diſtreſs, not having any plantations to maintain themſelves and families; that by means of ſo total a ſtagnation of buſineſs, many of your petitioners, and commanders of veſſels, that have lain for ſome time here, are in the greateſt danger of wanting proviſions; that they have diſpoſed of their cargoes to your petitioners, the ſettlers, who, by reaſon of being driven from their occupations, are incapable of paying for them; and that the veſſels lately arrived, not ſeeing any proſpect of immediate payment, refuſe to ſell their proviſions. Theſe are the miſeries your petitioners experience from the inhumanity of the Spaniards.

And your petitioners likewiſe humbly repreſent to your excellency, that not having any legal authority for ſettling diſputes with each other, they find themſelves reduced to a ſtate of anarchy and confuſion, nor have the injured any method to ſeek redreſs; that your petitioners humbly apprehend, that without order it is impoſſible for any community long to ſubſiſt.

Your petitioners therefore humbly pray, that your excellency will be pleaſed to grant them ſuch relief as their own diſtreſſed circumſtances require, and your great wiſdom ſhall direct; and your petitioners ſhall ever pray.

Further REMARKS.

In anſwer to the ſaid petition of the logwood-cutters to governor Littleton, it has been obſerved, that it is evident, from the ſaid petition, that from the month of April 1763, to the 4th day of February 1764, the logwood cutters had remained undiſturbed in the occupation and poſſeſſion of all that had been ſtipulated by the treaty of peace; and that the ſuſpenſion of their logwood cutting, had been in conſequence of a letter of the 29th of December 1763, written to Joſeph Maud, by Philipe Remires de Eſtinos, captain-general of Jucatan, who had arrived at Campeachy the 7th of the ſame month. Before the arrival of this Spaniard, the letter of the 17th article had been ſtrictly obſerved on the part of his countrymen in America: but as ſomething relative to ſecuring this trade to the Engliſh, and preventing the Spaniards from being impoſed on by PRETENDERS TO THE RIGHTS OF BRITISH SUBJECTS, had been foreſeen to be abſolutely neceſſary to be eſtabliſhed, that ſtipulation had been agreed on between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, and, according to don Remires's words, it conſiſted in obliging the logwood-cutters, either to be furniſhed with the ROYAL SCHEDULE WHICH SPAIN HAD EXPEDITED TO THIS END, OR WITH THE LICENCE OF THE KING OF ENGLAND, FOR THE AFORESAID EFFECT, and which was unknown before his arrival.

It appears, that it had been foreſeen by the contracting parties, that the merchants of Holland, France, and of all the maritime powers, would diſcern the advantages that might be derived from the above article of the treaty of peace; and from ſuch view, that ſhips would be fitted out in thoſe countries, and navigated by Engliſh ſeamen, would undoubtedly be ſent to the BAY OF HONDURAS, to poſſeſs themſelves of thoſe advantageous ſtipulations, which were intended for Great-Britain only.

And the late war having deſtined ſuch numbers of the Engliſh to the ſea-ſervice, more than peace can employ, and by that means forced the Engliſh ſailors into foreign ſervice, ſailors for the above purpoſe could not be wanting. Whence it ſhould ſeem, it became abſolutely neceſſary, that either the above-mentioned SCHEDULE or LICENCE ſhould be found in the hands of thoſe who were cutting logwood, as the beſt preſervative both of THE ENGLISH AND SPANISH RIGHTS, from the invaſion of others by fallacious means, and a mutual benefit to both nations.

That the want of thoſe authorities is the chief reaſon for the ſuſpenſion of the logwood-cutting, ſeems evident from the words of don Philip Remires, that in conſideration of the want of inſtruments for your introduction, &c. " And I ' expect you will preſent me with the royal ſchedule that ' the king my maſter diſpatched to this end, or orders from ' the king of Great-Britain for this effect; and there is no ' doubt but I ſhall then attend to it with the care and ' equity I am commanded, iſſuing for that purpoſe the ne- ' ceſſary orders to all the commanders, cabos, military and ' juſticiary of all the diſtricts of their juriſdiction, &c."

By the 17th article of the treaty, the Engliſh are entitled to the cutting of logwood only: but it ſeems by the words of Remires, uncontradicted by the petitioners to governor Littleton, ' that they had extended themſelves, gathering fruits ' as in their own country, and without waiting to ſettle ' the limits with the neceſſary ſolemnity that ſhould have ' ſecured their eſtabliſhment.'

That ſome proper meaſures are neceſſary to reſtrain the privilege of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood from the Bay of Honduras, to the ſubjects of Great-Britain only, and to preclude the ſubjects of all other ſtates and empires from the like privileges, was certainly what was intended by their Britannic and Catholic majeſties: but if foreign merchants, by the means of Engliſh ſailors in their ſervice, ſhall invade the rights of Britiſh ſubjects, and reap in part, or in whole, thoſe advantages that were intended for the ſubjects of Great-Britain only, this is an injury to the mercantile ſubjects of England, as well as detrimental to Spain; and ought to be prevented for their mutual benefit.

And it ſeeming by DON REMIRES's conduct, that a SCHEDULE or a LICENCE is to be the touchſtone ſignifying ſuch Britiſh right and privilege, by both courts, it ſhould be complied with: and it is a pity that this point was not explicitly ſtipulated by the treaty; but if the diſadvantages on both ſides were not foreſeen till experienced, and the matter has ſince the treaty took effect, been agreed on by both crowns as Don Remires has repreſented, it ſhews that a good harmony ſubſiſts between them, and that the expedient intimated is to be exerciſed in future to ſtrengthen that deſirable harmony. And certain it is, that the indiſcriminate permiſſion of all who ſhall call themſelves Engliſhmen, to this beneficial right of cutting logwood, would, in a great meaſure, defeat the advantages which are fixed by treaty to the ſubjects and merchants of this iſland: and if the reſident logwood-cutters at Honduras, and the Britiſh merchants who ſend ſhips thither to trade with Britiſh logwood-cutters, are both duly authorized by ſchedule or royal licence, it will prevent foreign interlopers from partaking of thoſe Britiſh rights, under the mark of being Engliſh merchants, becauſe they have a few Engliſh ſailors on ſhip-board to countenance them in their unjuſtifiable logwood traffic.—And if the meaſures mentioned, or any other that may prove ſtill more effectual to anſwer the end propoſed ſhould do ſo, then England will enjoy the excluſive right and privilege of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood, which may prove a greater benefit to us, than was perhaps apprehended to ariſe from the logwood article in the DEFINITIVE TREATY.

To this it has been obſerved, that if a ſchedule from the court of Spain, or a licence from the court of England had been agreed on, or known to be neceſſary for our logwood-cutters to have carried with them to the coaſt of Honduras, why has this nation been kept ſo long in ignorance thereof? Why were not the governors of our colonies, and particularly of Jamaica, duly furniſhed with them, in order to give the requiſite authority to thoſe who engaged in that buſineſs? But it appears, our governors were no way apprized that ſuch authorities were needful, and therefore were furniſhed with no ſuch to diſtribute, nor knew how to act upon diſcovery of the conduct of Spain towards the logwood-cutters; they could only tranſmit accounts thereof to the court of England, while the poor people were ruining, by expences and loſs of time, occaſioned by Spaniſh chicanery.

But if the care of our logwood-trade might not have been entruſted to our ſelf-intereſted traders, who would hardly fail to diſcover all illicit intruders, for the ſake of not being interfered with in what ſo nearly concerns themſelves; it was certainly neceſſary to prevent any miſunderſtanding between the contracting crowns, to have had it EXPRESSLY STIPULATED IN THE DEFINITIVE TREATY, that ſuch royal ſchedules and licences were the authorities required by treaty to entitle Britiſh ſubjects to their right in the logwood-trade in the Bay of Honduras; and then none, we may preſume, would have attempted the trade, without being furniſhed with ſuch: and if this has been an overſight in the treaty, it may eaſily be ſupplied, without drawing the ſword again upon this account, provided the Spaniards are not inſincere; if they are, they may ſoon rue it, perhaps. See our article MEXICO, our laſt REMARKS thereon.

While this work is printing, we find the following paragraph in the LONDON GAZETTE. ST. JAMES's, July 21, 1764.—'In anſwer to the repreſentations made by his majeſty's ambaſſador at the court of Madrid, upon the late tranſactions of the governor of Jucatan, and his proceedings towards the Britiſh ſubjects employed in cutting LOGWOOD in the BAY OF HONDURAS, the Spaniſh miniſtry have replied, That they have not received any advices from that governor relative to this affair; but that it is certain the Catholic king has given poſitive orders to the governor of Jucatan to abide by, and obſerve the XVIIth article of the laſt treaty of peace, and that he will not approve of the conduct of his ſubjects who act in contravention to it. That it is the intention of his Catholic majeſty, that no one ſhall impede the Engliſh in their cutting LOGWOOD in the ſtipulated places; and he will diſapprove of the governors and miniſters whenever they act to the contrary, and renew the moſt ſtrict orders to that effect.'

LONGITUDE, as it regards navigation, to which our work has an affinity, is the diſtance of a ſhip or place, eaſt or weſt from another, computed in degrees of the equator. This diſtance being reckoned in leagues or miles, or in degrees of the meridian, and not in thoſe proper to the parallel of latitude, is uſually called departure *.

* Departure, in navigation, ſignifies the eaſting or weſting of a ſhip, with reſpect to the meridian(a) it departed or ſailed from. Or, it is the difference of longitude, either eaſt or weſt, between the preſent meridian the ſhip is under, and that where the laſt reckoning or obſervation was made — This departure any where, but under the equator, muſt be accounted according to the number of miles in a degree, proper to the parallel the ſhip is under.

(a) The meridian is an imaginary circle ſuppoſed to paſs through the poles of the earth, and any given place. So that the plane of the terreſtrial meridian is in the plane of the celeſtial one. Hence, 1. As the meridian inverts the whole earth, there are ſeveral places ſituated under the ſame meridian. 2. As it is noon-tide whenever the center of the ſun is in the meridian of the heavens, and as the meridian of the earth is in the plane of the former, it follows, that it is noon at the ſame time, in all places ſituate under the ſame meridian. 3. There are as many meridians on the earth, as there are points conceived in the equator. In effect, the meridians always change, as you change the longitude of the place; and may be ſaid to be infinite, each place from eaſt to weſt having it's ſeveral meridians.

To diſcover the longitude at ſea is a problem that has hitherto perplexed all mathematicians; although, for the ſolution thereof, great rewards have been publickly offered by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, Spaniards, and other nations: this being the only thing wanting to render navigation perfect. Various are the attempts that authors have made for this purpoſe, and various the methods they have propoſed, but without ſucceſs, ſo that the palm is ſtill unaſcertained. The methods taken to arrive at this point are different. What moſt of them aim at, is a method of determining the difference of time between any two points on the earth: for every 15 degrees of the equator anſwering to an hour, i. e. one degree to 4 minutes of time, and one minute of a degree to 15 ſeconds of time; the difference of time being known, and turned into degrees, will give the longitude, and vice verſa. This ſome have pretended to effect, by chronometers and automata of various kinds, but always in vain; no time-keeper, excepting a pendulum (which cannot be applied at ſea) being ſufficiently exact for the purpoſe.

Others ſearch for a means to find the longitude in the heavens: for, if the exact times of any celeſtial appearance be known for two places, the difference for thoſe times gives that of the longitude of thoſe places. Now, in the ephemerides *, we have the motions of the planets, and the times of the celeſtial phænomena; as the beginning and ending of eclipſes, conjunctions of the moon with other planets, it's entrance into the ecliptic, &c. accurately calculated for ſome one place. Therefore, if the hour and minute be known, wherein any of the ſame phænomena are obſerved in an unknown place, the difference between the hour and minute of that place, and that other to which the tables are computed, and conſequently the difference of their meridians and their longitude from each other, are known alſo.

* Ephemerides in aſtronomy, ſignifies tables calculated by aſtronomers, ſhewing the preſent ſtate of the heavens for every day at noon; that is, the place wherein all the planets are found at that time.—It is from theſe tables, that the eclipſes, conjunctions, and aſpects of the planets are determined, and horoſcopes, or celeſtial ſchemes, conſtructed, &c.

The difficulty here, does not conſiſt in the exact finding of the time, which is eaſily had from the ſun's altitude or azimuth, but the defect lies in the fewneſs of proper celeſtial appearances capable of being thus obſerved: for all ſlow motions (v. gr. that of Saturn) are excluded, as ſhewing but a little difference in a conſiderable ſpace of time; and it being required in this caſe, that the phænomenon be ſenſibly varied in two minutes time, an error of two minutes in time produces another of thirty miles in the longitude.—Now there are no phænomena in the heavens that have theſe requiſites, excepting the ſeveral ſtages of an eclipſe of the moon, her longitude, or place in the zodiac; her diſtance from the fixed ſtars, or appulſe to them; her ingreſs into the ecliptic, or the points of her orbit, where that cuts the ecliptic; and the conjunction, diſtance, and eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites.

1. The method by the eclipſes of the moon is eaſy, and ſufficiently accurate, were theſe eclipſes every night. At the moment wherein we ſee the beginning or middle of a lunar eclipſe by a teleſcope, we have nothing to do but take the altitude or azimuth of ſome fixed ſtar, from which the hour and minute are eaſily found; or without the altitude, if the ſtar be in the meridian.—This hour and minute, therefore, thus found, and compared with that expreſſed in the tables, gives the longitude.

2. The moon's place in the zodiac is a phænomenon more frequent than that of her eclipſes; but then the obſervation thereof is difficult, the calculus complicated, by reaſon of two parallaxes, ſo that it is ſcarce practicable at ſea, in general, to any tolerable degree of accuracy.—Indeed, by waiting 'till the moon comes into the meridian of the place, and then taking the altitude of ſome remarkable ſtar (the altitude being ſuppoſed to be firſt known) from this altitude and the latitude, we ſhall be able to find the time pretty accurately, though it will be better to do it by ſome ſtar in the meridian. —Now, the time being found, it will be eaſy to find what point of the ecliptic is then in the meridians or mid heaven. —Thus we ſhall have the moon's place in the zodiac, correſponding to the time of our place.—Then, in the ephemeris, we find what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when the moon is in that part of the zodiac: thus we ſhall have the hour and minute of the two places for the ſame time, the difference of which will give the difference of longitude.

3. In regard there are many times when the moon cannot be obſerved in the meridian, there is therefore another ſtill more

frequent phænomenon, from which the longitude is ſought, viz. the moon's appulſe and receſs from the fixed ſtars: for from thence the moon's true place may be inveſtigated for the given time of obſervation.—But this method, by reaſon of the parallaxes, and the ſolution of oblique ſpherical triangles, and the various caſes, is ſo difficult and perplexed, that mariners will ſcarce ever be able to make uſe of it.

4. To find the longitude by the moon's ingreſs into the ecliptic, obſerve the moment of that ingreſs: then, in the ephemeris, ſee what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when that ingreſs happens.—The difference between theſe times gives the difference of longitude.

5. The phænomena of Jupiter's ſatellites are generally preferred to thoſe of the moon, for finding the longitude; by reaſon the former are leſs liable to parallaxes, and do further afford a very commodious obſervation, in every ſituation of that planet above the horizon.—Their motion is very ſwift, and muſt be calculated for every hour, and for that reaſon are not found in the common ephemerides.—Now, to find the longitude by means of theſe ſatellites, with a good teleſcope, obſerve a conjunction of two of them, or of one of them with Jupiter, or any other the like appearance: and, at the ſame time find the hour and minute from the meridian altitude of ſome ſtar; then, conſulting tables of the ſatellites, obſerve the hour and minute wherein ſuch appearance happens in the meridian of the place to which the tables are calculated.—This difference of time, as before, will give the longitude.

All methods, which depend on the phænomena of the heavens having this one defect, that they cannot be obſerved at all times; and being, beſides, difficult of application at ſea, by reaſon of the motion of the ſhip; there are ſome, who leaving the moon and the ſatellites, have recourſe to clocks, and other automata; which, could they be made perfectly juſt and regular, ſo as to move with the ſun, without either gaining or loſing, and without being affected with the change of air and of climates, the longitude would be had with all the eaſe and accuracy imaginable: nothing more being required, but to ſet the machine by the ſun at the time of departure, and when the longitude of any place is deſired, to find the hour and minute from the heavens (which is done at night by the ſtars, and in the day by the ſun;) for the difference between the time thus obſerved, and that of the machine, gives the longitude.—But no ſuch machine has been yet diſcovered, wherefore recourſe has been ſtill further had to other methods.

Mr. Whiſton and Mr. Ditton have propoſed a method of determining the longitude by the flaſh and report of great guns.—Sounds, it is known, move pretty equably in all their ſtages: if then a mortar or great gun be exploded at a place whoſe longitude is known, the difference, it was judged, between the time wherein the flaſh (which moves, as it were, inſtantaneouſly) is ſeen, and the ſound, which moves at the rate of four ſeconds in a mile, is heard, will give the diſtance of thoſe places from each other; whence, if their latitudes be known, the difference of longitude will be likewiſe known. Moreover,

If the hour and minute of the exploſion be known, ſay they, (for the place where it is made) by obſerving the hour and minute from the ſun and ſtars, at the place whoſe longitude is required; the difference between thoſe times will give the difference of longitude. And,

If the ſaid mortar be loaded with an iron-ſhell full of combuſtible matter, and hoiſted perpendicularly, it will carry the ſame a mile high, which will be ſeen near an hundred miles; if therefore neither the ſound ſhould be heard, nor the flaſh ſeen, the diſtance of any remote place from that of the mortar may be determined from the altitude of the ſhell above the horizon of the place unknown: and, the diſtance and latitude known, the longitude is eaſily found.

According to this ſcheme, it was propoſed to have ſuch mortars fixed at proper diſtances and at known ſtations, on all the frequented coaſts, iſlands, capes, &c. and to be exploded at certain hours, for the obſervation of mariners.

This method, however, plauſible in theory, has the fate of all the reſt, and is found uſeleſs in the practice, as being extremely troubleſome, and yet precarious.—It ſuppoſes that ſounds may be heard 40, 50, or 60 miles: of which, it is true, we have inſtances, but they are very rare: and, ordinarily, the report of a cannon is not heard above half ſo far, and ſometimes much leſs.—It ſuppoſes ſound to move always with equal velocity; whereas, in fact, it's velocity is increaſed or diminiſhed as it moves with or againſt the wind.—It ſuppoſes alſo, the ſtrength of powder uniform, and that the ſame quantity carries the ſame range: the contrary whereof is known to every gunner.—We ſay nothing of thick cloudy nights, when no lights can be ſeen; nor of ſtormy nights, when no ſound can be heard, even at inconſiderable diſtances.

We have another method of finding the longitude, propoſed by the ſame Mr. Whiſton, viz. by the inclinatory, or DIPPING NEEDLE. This dipping, or inclinatory-needle, is a magnetical needle ſo hung, as that, inſtead of playing horizontally, and pointing out north and ſouth, one end dips, or inclines to the horizon, and the other points to a certain degree of elevation above it. Or,

A dipping-needle may be defined to be a long ſtraight piece of ſteel, every way equally poiſed on it's center, and afterwards touched with a load-ſtone, but ſo contrived, as not to play on the point of a pin, as does the common horizontal needle, but to ſwing in a vertical plane, about an axis parallel to the horizon: and this in order to diſcover the exact tendency of the power of magnetiſm.

The inventor of the dipping-needle was an Engliſhman, Robert Norman, a compaſs-maker for mariners, in Wapping, near the city of London, about the year 1576. The occaſion of the diſcovery he himſelf relates, viz. that it being his cuſtom to finiſh and hang the needles of his compaſſes, before he touched them, he always found that, immediately after the touch, the north point would bend, or decline downwards, under the horizon: inſomuch that, to balance the needle again, he was always forced to put a piece of wax on the ſouth end, as a counterpoiſe.

The conſtancy of this effect led him, at length, to obſerve the preciſe quantity of the DIPS, or to meaſure the greateſt angle which the needle would make with the horizon. This, in the year 1576, he found at London to be 71° 50′; but the dip varies, as well as the horizontal direction.

Burrows, Gilbert, Ridley, Bond, &c. endeavoured to apply this diſcovery to the finding of the latitude; and the laſt author, going farther, propoſed likewiſe the finding of the longitude thereby: but, for want of obſervations and experiments, he could go no length.

Mr. Whiſton, being furniſhed with the further obſervations of Col. Windham, Dr. Halley, Mr. Pound, Mr. Cunningham, Pere Noel, Pere Feuillee, and his own, has improved greatly on the doctrine and uſe of this needle, brought it to more certain rules, and endeavoured to find the longitude thereby.

In order to this he obſerves, 1ſt, That the true tendency of the north or ſouth ends of every magnetic needle is not to that point in the horizon to which the horizontal needle points, but towards another directly under it, in the ſame vertical, and in different degrees under it, in different ages, and at different places.

2dly, That the power by which a horizontal needle is governed, and all our navigation ordinarily directed, is proved to be but one quarter of the power, by which the dipping-needle is moved; which ſhould render the latter far the more effectual and accurate inſtrument.

3dly, That a dipping-needle, a foot long, will plainly ſhew an alteration of the angle of inclination, in theſe parts of the world, in half a quarter of a degree, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ geographical miles; i. e. ſuppoſing that diſtance taken along, or near a meridian; and a needle of four feet, in two or three miles.

4thly, A dipping-needle, four feet long, in theſe parts of the world, will ſhew an equal alteration along a parallel; as one of a foot long will ſhew along a meridian, i. e. this will, with equal exactneſs, ſhew the longitude, as that the latitude.

This depends on the poſition of the lines of equal dip, in theſe parts of the world, which are found to lie about 14 or 15 degrees from the parallels.

Hence he argues, that, as we can have needles of 5, 6, 7, 8, or more feet long, which will move with ſtrength ſufficient for exact obſervation; and ſince microſcopes may be applied to the viewing of the ſmalleſt diviſions of degrees on the limb of the inſtrument; it is evident the longitude at land may be found thereby, to leſs than four miles.

And, as there have been many obſervations made at ſea with the ſame inſtrument, by Noel, Feuillee, &c. which have determined the dip uſually within a degree, ſometimes within half, or a third of a degree, and this with ſmall needles of five or ſix, or, at the moſt, nine inches long; it is evident, the longitude may be found even at ſea, to leſs than half a quarter of a degree. Thus much premiſed, the obſervation itſelf follows:

To find the longitude or latitude by the dipping-needle.—If the lines of equal dip below the horizon be drawn on maps, or ſea-charts, for good obſervations, it will be eaſy, from the longitude known, to find the latitude; and, from the latitude known to find the longitude, either at ſea or land.

Suppoſe, e. gr. you were travelling, or ſailing, along the meridian of London, and found the angle of dip, with a needle of one foot, to be 75°; the chart will ſhew, that this meridian, and the time of dip, meet in the latitude of 50° 11′; which, therefore, is the latitude ſought. Or,

Suppoſe you was travelling, or ſailing, along the parallel of London, i. e. in 51° 32′ north latitude, and you found the angle of the dip to be 74°; this parallel, and the line of this dip, will meet in the map in 1° 46′ of eaſt longitude from London; which is, therefore, the longitude ſought: yet this ſcheme alſo, has proved impracticable and unſucceſsful in it's application.

Since every method which hath been hitherto attempted, hath proved abortive, and the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea remains ſtill the great deſideratum in navigation; it is imprudent to depend longer upon any one of thoſe methods which have been yet tried; the difficulties in each being palpable, and, perhaps, abſolutely inſuperable.

Another

Another method, lately ſtarted, whereby this important diſcovery has been attempted, is, by A NEW AND UNIVERSAL PROBLEM, BY WHICH THE LONGITUDE AT SEA, IN THE DEAD-RECKONING, AND THE DISTANCE OF THE SHIP'S RUN, ARE SAID TO BE CORRECTED BY THE SAME OBSERVATION THAT THE LATITUDE IS, AND TO THE SAME CERTAINTY, WITHOUT ANY REGARD TO LEE-WAY, CURRENT OF THE SEA, OR VARIATION OF THE COMPASS. By the Rev. Richard Locke, an Engliſhman.

As this is a problem, ſaid by the reverend author to be entirely new, and the truth thereof to be not only founded upon geometrical demonſtration, but experimental practice at ſea, where he affirms he has tried the ſame; it ſeems to deſerve due public notice and attention.

That the public might be informed of this diſcovery, the author firſt printed and publiſhed the fact, as he declares, the 24th of January, 1751, in the London Evening-Poſt. After which he was adviſed to publiſh the problem, and the demonſtration thereof, in a pamphlet; which he has done, within the compaſs of 14 pages, addreſſed to the honourable the COMMISSIONERS appointed to inſpect the longitude, and to the PUBLIC in general. Which being ſent to me the laſt year, and recommended by ſeveral worthy gentlemen, as a matter conſiſtent with a Dictionary of Commerce, and neceſſary to be publiſhed therein; I was prevailed upon to give the ſame a place in this work, under the firſt head that occurred, where I could do it with any ſort of propriety: and the reader will find the whole under the article COMMANDERS of SHIPS; with an addreſs to them, as requeſted to try the ſame experimentally at ſea. But,

As thoſe gentlemen, without diſparagement to their high importance and utility to the ſtate, are, in the general, better acquainted with the ordinary practical rules of navigation*, as they are commonly taught them by rote, and not by reaſon and demonſtration, they may be preſumed not to be competent judges of the demonſtrative part, which, Mr. Locke ſays, he has given, and, therefore, may not as yet be attentive to the experimental trial and practice of what that gentleman has offered for their ſervice: wherefore, the author has thought proper to reduce his diſcovery, for the benefit of all practical navigators, to the few following plain rules and precepts; which, he ſays, are the reſult of his demonſtration. See the article COMMANDERS of SHIPS, for the whole of what he has communicated.

* An objection that ſome have made againſt the ſtudy of mathematical learning is, that we ſee, in the ordinary buſineſs of life, theſe affairs are carried on and managed by ſuch as are no great mathematicians, as ſea men, ſhip-wrights, engineers, mill-wrights, ſurveyors, gaugers, clock-makers, glaſs-grinders, &c. and that the mathematicians are commonly ſpeculative, retired, ſtudious men, that are not for an active life and buſineſs, but content themſelves to ſit in their ſtudies, and pore over a ſcheme or a calculation. To which there is this plain and eaſy anſwer: The mathematicians have not only invented and ordered all the arts above-mentioned, and moſt others by which theſe grand affairs are managed, but have laid down precepts, contrived inſtruments and abridgments ſo plainly, that common artificers are capable of practiſing by them, though they underſtand not a tittle of the grounds on which the precepts are built: and in this they have conſulted the good and neceſſities of mankind.

Thoſe affairs demand ſo great a number of people to manage them, that it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good, or even tolerable mathematicians. The only thing then to be done was, to make their precepts ſo plain, that they might be underſtood and practiſed by a multitude of men. This will beſt appear by examples. Nothing is more ordinary than diſpatch of buſiueſs by common arithmetic, by the tables of ſimple and compound intereſt, annuities, &c. yet how few men of buſineſs underſtand the reaſons of the rules given in common arithmetic, or the conſtruction of thoſe tables that are made, but ſecurely rely on them as true. They were the good and the thorough mathematicians, that gave theſe precepts ſo plain, and calculated theſe tables, that facilitate the practice ſo much. Nothing is more univerſally neceſſary than the meaſuring of planes and ſolids: and it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good mathematicians, as that there may be one that underſtands all the geometry requiſite for ſurveying, and meaſuring of priſms and pyramids, and their parts, and meaſuring ſruſtums of conoids and ſpheroids, in every market-town, where ſuch work is neceſſary.

The mathematicians, therefore, have inſcribed ſuch lines on their common rulers, and ſliding-rules, and adapted ſo plain precepts to them, that every country carpenter and gauger can do the buſineſs accurately enough, though he knows no more of the rationale of thoſe inſtruments, tables, and precepts he makes uſe of, than a hobby-horſe. So, in navigation, it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good mathematicians as would be neceſſary to ſail the hundredth part of the ſhips of the nation. But the mathematicians have laid down ſo plain and diſtinct precepts, calculated neceſſary tables, and contrived convenient inſtruments, ſo that a ſeaman, that knows not the truths on which his precepts and tables depend, may practiſe ſafely by them. They reſolve triangles every day, that know not the reaſon of any one of their operations. Seamen, in their calculations, make uſe of artificial numbers, or logarithms, that know nothing of their contrivance: and, indeed, all thoſe great inventions of the moſt famous mathematicians had been almoſt uſeleſs for thoſe common and great affairs, had not the practice of them been made eaſy to thoſe who cannot underſtand them. From hence it is plain, that it is to thoſe ſpeculative retired men we owe the rules, the inſtruments, the precepts for uſing them, and the tables which facilitate the diſpatch of ſo many great affairs, and ſupply mankind with ſo many conveniencies of life. They were the men that taught the world to apply arithmetic, aſtronomy, and geometry to ſailing, without which the needle would be ſtill uſeleſs. Juſt the ſame way, in the other parts of mathematics, the precepts that are practiſed by multitudes, without being underſtood, were contrived by ſome few great mathematicians.

The rules as given by Mr. Locke, for the uſe of practical navigators, are as follow: which I am requeſted to add to what has been ſaid under the preceding article of COMMANDERS of SHIPS; and, if they ſhould prove to be true, it will be very extraordinary that the moſt eſſential part of the practical art of navigation ſhould be reducible to a quarter of a ſheet of paper.

TO ALL GENTLEMEN SEAMEN, MARINERS, AND OTHERS, OF ALL NATIONS, WHO ARE ANY WAY CONCERNED IN PRACTICAL NAVIGATION:

A plain, eaſy, and practical method to diſcover the LONGITUDE AT SEA, for the ſafety and preſervation of ſhipping. By RICHARD LOCKE, an ENGLISHMAN.

The two principal things to be regarded, to obtain the true longitude at ſea, are, to meaſure as correct a diſtance of the ſhip's run as can be, by the half-minute glaſs and log-line, and to make a true obſervation of latitude.

And, when you caſt up the day's work, or traverſe, to find the longitude and latitude in the common way, take their courſes as entered on the log-board, without making any allowance for lee-way, variation, or currents; and, if you find the latitude in the traverſe to be more than the latitude in the obſervation, take, or ſubtract, the difference from the latitude in the traverſe, and add it to the longitude.—But, if you find it leſs in the traverſe than in the obſervation, take the difference from the longitude, and add it to the latitude; always remembering, that the latitude in the traverſe muſt be made equal to the latitude in the obſervation; and, what is more or leſs, to add to, or ſubtract from the longitude.—This is to be done every time you make an obſervation; and when you have got the miles of eaſting or weſting, if they are in the ſame latitude, divide them by the miles of one degree in that latitude.—If of different latitudes, divide them by the miles of the middle latitude, between the two obſervations.—And this will give the longitude in degrees, as mentioned in my book, or it may be found by the following eaſy table.

By theſe inſtructions, carefully obſerved, any iſland or place, whoſe longitude and latitude are known, may be hit upon a meridian, as near as you can make your obſervation of latitude.

A TABLE of the geometrical miles of one degree of LONGITUDE for every degree of latitude.

Lat.	Miles.	Lat.	Miles.	Lat.	Miles.
1	59,8	31	51,0	61	29
2	59,6	32	50,5	62	28
3	59,4	33	50,0	63	27
4	59,2	34	49,5	64	26
5	59,0	35	49,0	65	25
6	58,8	36	48,5	66	24
7	58,6	37	48,0	67	23
8	58,4	38	47,5	68	22
9	58,2	39	47,0	69	21
10	58,0	40	46,5	70	20
11	57,8	41	46,0	71	19
12	57,6	42	45,5	72	18
13	57,4	43	45,0	73	17
14	57,2	44	44,5	74	16
15	57,0	45	44,0	75	15
16	56,6	46	43,5	76	14
17	56,3	47	43,0	77	13
18	56,0	48	42	78	12
19	55,6	49	41	79	11
20	55,3	50	40	80	10
21	55,0	51	39	81	9
22	54,6	52	38	82	8
23	54,3	53	37	83	7
24	54,0	54	36	84	6
25	53,6	55	35	85	5
26	53,3	56	34	86	4
27	53,0	57	33	87	3
28	52,5	58	32	88	2
29	52,0	59	31	89	1
30	51,5	60	30.	90	0

N. B. To find the middle latititude by this table, add the miles of the two obſerved latitudes together, and divide the ſum by 2, which gives the middle latitude.

RICHARD LOCKE.

RE-

REMARKS.

This gentleman, Mr. Locke, appears to be very ſanguine with regard to the truth of his diſcovery; and therefore has, in his before-mentioned book, given a general challenge to all the mathematicians in the world to confute it, or ſhew any other method of diſcovering the longitude at ſea, that may be depended upon.—The cauſe of this challenge, it ſeems, was, if I am rightly informed, by reaſon of ſome perſonal maltreatment that the author thinks he met with, from ſome mathematicians in England, upon the publication of the firſt edition of his pamphlet.—How this matter ſtands between thoſe gentlemen, I am no otherwiſe acquainted than by hear-ſay.—It is pity that men of ſcience ſhould have any rancour towards each other — Time and experience will ſhew whether the problem is true or falſe, in the application made of it to the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea.

There is one thing I would beg leave to obſerve, before I diſmiſs this matter; that, as Mr. Locke has generouſly communicated his problem to the public, ſo that every body now may be maſters of it, and put the ſame in practice at ſea, without any difficulty or expence; it is neceſſary that the public ſhould be put upon their guard, and not be impoſed upon by granting rewards to ſuch who may pretend to diſcover the longitude at ſea, by other ways and means, when they really make uſe of Mr. Locke's diſcovery for that purpoſe.

OBSERVATIONS, ſince the above, upon the article LONGITUDE.

Under the article of COMMANDERS OF MERCHANTS SHIPS, is contained the whole of Mr. Locke's new problem for the diſcovery of the LONGITUDE AT SEA; which the author was requeſted to infert ſeveral years ago, in the firſt edition of this work, as a record, (if the demonſtration therein ſaid to be given, ſhould be found to be true, as well from experience as theory) to aſcertain Mr. Locke's right to the reward promiſed, to the diſcoverer of a matter of ſuch importance. The ſame was alſo inſerted in the ſecond edition of this work; and the ſame is requeſted to be continued in this the third edition of this work, made in the preſent year 1765, by the executors of Mr. Locke, who has ſeveral years ſince been dead, in going to America, to make a further trial of the truth of his new problem; of which he had often declared he was thoroughly convinced, by what he had experienced at ſea: but, he was deſirous to have repeated and inconteſtible evidence and conviction thereof, before he made proper application to the Britiſh parliament, as was his intention.

In conſequence of the death of Mr. Locke, it is requeſted that ALL GENTLEMEN, who are thorough judges of the ſaid new problem, and are of opinion that the ſame is demonſtrably true, and is actually the diſcovery of THE LONGITUDE AT SEA; or has been any way conducive to the diſcovery thereof; and any COMMANDERS OR MASTERS OF SHIPS, who ſhall have tried and experienced the truth of Mr. Locke's diſcovery, would apply to MR. POSTLETHWAYT, the author of this Dictionary, AT HIS HOUSE IN PINNERS-COURT, NEAR THE PAY-OFFICE, IN BROAD-STREET, NEAR THE ROYAL-EXCHANGE, LONDON; and if they prove any way inſtrumental to obtain any public reward for Mr. Locke's diſcovery, Mr. Poſtlethwayt is authorized by the executors of Mr. Locke, to treat with them upon the occaſion.

The ACTS of PARLIAMENT relating to the diſcovery of the LONGITUDE at SEA.

An act for providing a public reward for ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall diſcover the longitude at ſea, in the 12th of queen Anne.

Whereas it is well known, by all that are acquainted with the art of navigation, that nothing is ſo much wanted and deſired at ſea, as the diſcovery of the longitude, for the ſafety and quickneſs of voyages, the preſervation of ſhips, and the lives of men: and whereas, in the judgment of able mathematicians and navigators, ſeveral methods have already been diſcovered, true in theory, though very difficult in practice, ſome of which (there is reaſon to expect) may be capable of improvement, ſome already diſcovered may be propoſed to the public, and others may be invented hereafter: and whereas ſuch a diſcovery would be of particular advantage to the trade of Great-Britain, and very much for the honour of this kingdom; but, beſides the great difficulty of the thing itſelf, partly for the want of ſome public reward, to be ſettled as an encouragement for ſo uſeful and beneficial a work, and partly for want of money for trials and experiments neceſſary thereto, no ſuch inventions or propoſals, hitherto made, have been brought to perfection: be it therefore enacted, by the queen's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That the lord high admiral of Great-Britain, or the firſt commiſſioner of the admiralty, the ſpeaker of the honourable houſe of commons, the firſt commiſſioner of the navy, the firſt commiſſioner of trade, the admirals of the red, white, and blue ſquadrons, the maſter of the Trinity-Houſe, the preſident of the Royal Society, the royal aſtronomer of Greenwich, the Savilian, Lucaſian, and Plumian profeſſors of the mathematics in Oxford and Cambridge, all for the time being; the right honourable Thomas earl of Pembroke and Montgomery, Philip lord biſhop of Hereford, George lord biſhop of Briſtol, Thomas lord Trevor, the honourable Sir Thomas Hanmer, Bart. ſpeaker of the honourable houſe of commons, the honourable Francis Robarts, Eſq; James Stanhope, Eſq; William Clayton, Eſq; and William Lowndes, Eſq; be conſtituted, and they are hereby conſtituted commiſſioners for the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea, and for examining, trying, and judging of all propoſals, experiments, and improvements relating to the ſame; and that the ſaid commiſſioners, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any propoſal or propoſals that ſhall be made to them for diſcovering the ſaid longitude; and in caſe the ſaid commiſſioners, or any five or more of them, ſhall be ſo far ſatisfied of the probability of any ſuch diſcovery, as to think it proper to make experiments thereof, they ſhall certify the ſame, under their hands and ſeals, to the commiſſioners of the navy for the time being, together with the perſons names who are the authors of ſuch propoſals; and, upon producing ſuch certificate, the ſaid commiſſioners are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any ſuch ſum or ſums of money, not exceeding two thouſand pounds, as the ſaid commiſſioners for the diſcovery of the ſaid longitude, or any five or more of them, ſhall think neceſſary for making the experiments, payable by the treaſurer of the navy: which ſum or ſums the treaſurer of the navy is hereby required to pay immediately to ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall be appointed by the commiſſioners for the diſcovery of the ſaid longitude, to make thoſe experiments, out of any money that ſhall be in his hands, unapplied for the uſe of the navy.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That, after experiments made of any propoſal or propoſals for the diſcovery of the ſaid longitude, the commiſſioners appointed by this act, or the major part of them, ſhall declare and determine how far the ſame is found practicable, and to what degree of exactneſs.

And, for a due and ſufficient encouragement to any ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall diſcover a proper method for finding the ſaid longitude, be it enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That the firſt author or authors, diſcoverer or diſcoverers, of any ſuch method, his or their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſhall be intitled to, and have ſuch reward as herein after is mentioned; that is to ſay, to a reward, or ſum of ten thouſand pounds, if it determines the ſaid longitude to one degree of a great circle, or ſixty geographical miles; to fifteen thouſand pounds, if it determines the ſame to two thirds of that diſtance; and to twenty thouſand pounds, if it determines the ſame to one half of the ſame diſtance; and that one moiety, or half-part of ſuch reward, or ſum, ſhall be due and paid, when the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, do agree that any ſuch method extends to the ſecurity of ſhips within eighty geographical miles of the ſhores, which are places of the greateſt danger; and the other moiety, or half part, when a ſhip, by the appointment of the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, ſhall thereby actually ſail over the ocean, from Great Britain to any ſuch port of the Weſt-Indies, as thoſe commiſſioners, or the major part of them, ſhall chuſe or nominate for the experiment, without loſing their longitude beyond the limits before mentioned.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That, as ſoon as ſuch method for the diſcovery of the ſaid longitude ſhall have been tried and found practicable and uſeful at ſea, within any of the degrees aforeſaid, that the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, ſhall certify the ſame accordingly, under their hands and ſeals, to the commiſſioners of the navy for the time being, together with the perſon or perſons names who are the authors of ſuch propoſal; and, upon ſuch certificate, the ſaid commiſſioners are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for the reſpective ſum or ſums of money, to which the author or authors of ſuch propoſal, their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſhall be intitled, by virtue of this act; which ſum or ſums the treaſurer of the navy is hereby required to pay to the ſaid author or authors, their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, out of any money that ſhall be in his hands, unapplied to the uſe of the navy, according to the true intent and meaning of this act.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any ſuch propoſal ſhall not, on trial, be found of ſo great uſe as afore-mentioned, yet if the ſame, on trial, in the judgment of the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, be found of conſiderable uſe to the public, that then, in ſuch caſe, the ſaid author or authors, their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſhall have and receive ſuch leſs reward therefore, as the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, ſhall think reaſonable, to be paid by the treaſurer of the navy on ſuch certificate, as aforeſaid.

An act to render more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea; with regard to the making experiments of proposals made for discovering the longitude; and to enlarge the number of commissioners for putting in execution the said act, in the 26th of George II.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea; the commissioners therein and thereby named and constituted, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that shall be made to them for discovering the said longitude; and, in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who are authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners are thereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary for making the experiments, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is, by the said act, required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for discovery of the said longitude to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his hands unapplied for the use of the navy: and whereas, for a due and sufficient encouragement to any such person or persons as shall discover a proper method for finding the said longitude, it is likewise enacted by the said act, That the first author or authors, discoverer or discoverers, of any such method, his or their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intitled to and have such reward, as in the said act is particularly mentioned: and whereas, by another act of parliament made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present majesty, intitled, An act for surveying the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, in order to the more exact determination of the longitude and latitude thereof; reciting in part of the said act of parliament, made in the twelfth year of the reign of her said late majesty queen Anne; and also reciting that it was absolutely necessary, for making the discovery useful at sea, and for the security of ships approaching near the shores, that the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, should be first surveyed, and the longitude and latitude of such places determined more exactly than had then been done; and likewise reciting that some doubts had arisen, whether, by the words of the said act of parliament made in the twelfth year of queen Anne, the said sum of two thousand pounds appointed for making such experiments, or any part thereof, could be applied for such survey, or fixing the longitude or latitude of such places, it was enacted by the said act made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present majesty, That the said commissioners for discovering the longitude, or any five or more of them, should have full power to apply such part of the said sum of two thousand pounds, mentioned in the said first recited act, as had not then been laid out in experiments, as they shall think necessary for the making such survey, and determining the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands, on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and that such sum or sums, part of the said two thousand pounds; which the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, should think necessary, should be paid immediately by the treasurer of the navy, to such person or persons as should be appointed by the said commissioners for the discovery of the longitude, to make such survey, and determine such longitude and latitude, out of the money that should be in the hands of such treasurer unapplied for the use of the navy; and whereas a competent number of the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, have (by virtue of the powers vested in them, by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of queen Anne) heard and received several proposals made to them at different times, for discovering the said longitude, and were so far satisfied of the probabilities of such discoveries, that they thought it proper to make experiments thereof, and accordingly certified the same, from time to time, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the name of master John Harrison, who was author of the said proposals; whereupon bills were made out for several sums of money, amounting in the whole to one thousand two hundred and fifty pounds, all which respective sums were paid to the said John Harrison by the treasurer of the navy, pursuant to the directions of the said last mentioned act of parliament, as parts of the said two thousand pounds therein mentioned; which the said commissioners for discovering the said longitude thought necessary for making the said experiment: and whereas a like competent number of the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude did (by virtue and in pursuance of the powers vested in them by the said several above-mentioned acts of parliament) appoint master William Whiston to survey and determine the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and did also apply the further sum of five hundred pounds (other part of the said sum of two thousand pounds mentioned in the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of queen Anne (which they thought necessary for the making such survey, and determining the said last mentioned longitude and latitude, and which said sum of five hundred pounds was paid to the said William Whiston accordingly by the treasurer of the navy: and whereas by reason of the several payments made by the treasurer of the navy to the said John Harrison and William Whiston respectively, as aforesaid, amounting in the whole to one thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds, the said commissioners for discovering the said longitude have at present, by virtue of the said acts of parliament, power only to apply the sum of two hundred and fifty pounds and no more (being the remainder of the said two thousand pounds) towards making any further experiments which they may think proper and necessary to be made, in order to discover the longitude: and whereas, from the experiments which have already been made in pursuance of the powers vested in the said commissioners as aforesaid, there is great reason to expect, that by continuing to encourage ingenious persons to invent and make further improvements and experiments, in order to discover the said longitude, such discoveries may at length be produced as will effectually answer that end, and thereby contribute very much to the advantage of the trade and honour of this kingdom: therefore, for enabling the said commissioners to cause such further experiments to be made as they shall think proper for the purposes aforesaid, be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said commissioners constituted by the said act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of the late queen Anne, for the discovery of the longitude at sea, and for examining, trying, and judging of all proposals, experiments, and improvements, relating to the same, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that have been or shall hereafter be made to them for discovering the longitude at sea; and in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such proposal or discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same under their hands and seals to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who shall be the authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners of the navy are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, over and above the aforesaid sum of two hundred and fifty pounds, being the remainder of the two thousand pounds mentioned in the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of the late queen Anne, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary for making any experiments in pursuance of this act, or either of the said former acts above-mentioned, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy for the time being is hereby required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his the said treasurer's hands unapplied for the use of the navy.

And whereas many of the commissioners, appointed by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, are deceased; be it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the governor of the royal hospital for seamen at Greenwich for the time being, the judge of the high court of admiralty for the time being, the secretaries of the treasury for the time being, the secretary of the admiralty for the time being, and the comptroller of the navy for the time being, shall be, and they are hereby added to, and joined with, such of the commissioners appointed by the said act for discovering the longitude, as are surviving; and the said persons, hereby appointed commissioners, shall and may act, to all intents and purposes, for putting in execution the said former acts, and this present act, as fully and effectually, as if they had been appointed commissioners by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne.

Anno Secundo Georgii III. Regis. CAP. XVIII.

An act for rendering more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled,

intitled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, with regard to the making experiments of proposals made for discovering the longitude.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, the commissioners therein named, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that shall be made to them for discovering the said longitude; and in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who are authors of such proposals; and upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners are thereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary, for making the experiments, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is, by the said act, required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the said commissioners to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his hands unapplied, for the use of the navy. And whereas, for a due and sufficient encouragement to any such person or persons as shall discover a proper method for finding the said longitude, it is likewise enacted by the said act, That the first author or authors, discoverer or discoverers, of any such method, his or their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intitled to, and have, such reward as in the said act is particularly mentioned: and whereas by another act of parliament made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intitled, An act for surveying the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, in order to the more exact determination of the longitude and latitude thereof, it was enacted, That the said commissioners for discovering the said longitude, or any five or more of them, should have full power to apply such part of the said sum of two thousand pounds, mentioned in the said first recited act, as had not then been laid out in experiments, as they should think necessary for the making such survey, and determining the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and that such sum or sums, part of the said two thousand pounds, which the said commissioners, or any five, or more of them, should think necessary, should be paid immediately by the treasurer of the navy, to such person or persons as should be appointed by the said commissioners to make such survey, and determine such longitude and latitude, out of the money that should be in the hands of such treasurer unapplied, for the use of the navy: and whereas by an act made in the twenty-sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intitled, An act to render more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, with regard to the making experiments of proposals made for discovering the longitude, and to enlarge the number of commissioners for putting in execution the said act, the further sum of two thousand pounds was directed to be applied in such manner as the commissioners for the discovery of the longitude should think necessary, for making further experiments: and whereas the said commissioners have, by virtue of the powers vested in them by the said several acts before-mentioned, heard and received several proposals made to them, at different times, for discovering the said longitude, and have, accordingly, certified the same, from time to time, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, whereupon, bills have been made out for several sums of money, amounting in the whole to four thousand pounds: all which respective sums have been paid to several persons, by the treasurer of the navy, pursuant to the directions of the said acts of parliament; which the said commissioners, for discovering the longitude, thought necessary for making the said experiments: and whereas, by reason of the several payments made by the treasurer of the navy to the several persons as aforesaid, the said commissioners have, by virtue of the said acts of parliament, expended the whole of the sums thereby granted for the purposes aforesaid: and whereas, from the experiments which have already been made in pursuance of the powers vested in the said commissioners as aforesaid, there is great reason to expect that, by continuing to encourage ingenious persons to invent and make further improvements and experiments, in order to discover the said longitude, such discoveries may at length be produced as will effectually answer that end, and thereby contribute very much to the advantage of the trade and honour of this kingdom: therefore, for enabling the said commissioners to cause such further experiments to be made as they shall think proper for the purposes aforesaid, be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said commissioners, constituted by the said several acts of parliament before-mentioned, for the discovery of the longitude at sea, and for examining, trying, and judging, of all proposals, experiments, and improvements, relating to the same; or any five or more of them, shall have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that have been, or shall hereafter be, made to them for discovering the said longitude at sea; and in case the said commissioners, or any five, or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such proposal or discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who shall be the authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners of the navy are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five, or more of them, shall think necessary for making any experiments in pursuance of this act, or any of the said former acts above-mentioned, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum, or sums, the treasurer of the navy, for the time being, is hereby required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his the said treasurer's hands, unapplied for the use of the navy.

LORINERS, bridle-smiths, or bit-makers. They make all the metallic appurtenances belonging to bridles, harness, &c.

LORRAIN and BAR, belonging to France, is bounded on the north by Luxemburgh and the palatinate of the Rhine, on the east by Alsace, on the south by Franche Comté, and on the west by Champagne. It's length from north to south is about 110 English miles, and it's greatest breadth from east to west about 100.

This country is divided into three parts, viz. I. The dutchy of Lorrain. II. The dutchy of Bar. And III. The three bishopricks.

The air in general is very temperate and wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn, wine, hemp, and pastures: there are a great many mines of iron, lead, and some of silver and copper.

Their salt-springs are so numerous, that they yield 200,000 l. per ann. The chief rivers are the Maese, the Moselle, and the Sarre, which rise in the south of Lorrain, and run north through this country. In the last war between France and the emperor Charles VI. which ended in a peace concluded in the year 1735, one of the articles was, That the duke of Lorrain should yield his country to France; at least that king Stanislaus, father of the present queen of France, should have the dominion of Lorrain, with the title of duke during his life; and that, after his decease, Lorrain should be united to the crown of France; and that the duke of Lorrain, in consequence thereof, should be constituted grand duke of Tuscany in Italy, after the death of the then reigning grand duke; which happening anno 1737, the duke of Lorrain took possession of Tuscany, and yet remains sovereign of it, and is since elected emperor. See FRANCE, in regard to LORRAIN.

LOTTERY, a kind of public game at hazard, frequent in England, France, and Holland, in order to raise money for the service of the state, which is appointed with us by the authority of parliament, and managed by commissioners appointed by the lords of the treasury for that purpose.

It consists of a certain number of blanks and prizes, which are drawn out of wheels, one of which contains the numbers, and the other the corresponding blanks or prizes.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating thereto.

I. Stat. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 1. All lotteries are public nuisances, and all patents for lotteries are void and against the law.

II. §. 2. No person shall keep open or draw, or throw at, any lottery, either by dice, lots, cards, balls, numbers, figures, or any other way whatsoever; and every person that shall open or shew, to be played or drawn at, any lottery, shall forfeit 500 l. one third part to his majesty, one other third part to the poor of the parish, and the other third, with double costs, to the party that shall sue for the same; and the parties offending shall likewise be prosecuted as common rogues.

III. §. 3. Every person that shall play, throw, or draw at, any lottery, shall forfeit 200 l. one third part to his majesty, one third to the poor of the parish, and the other third with double costs, to the person that shall sue for the same.

IV. Stat. 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 56. Justices of peace, mayors, bailiffs, head officers, constables, and other her majesty's civil officers,

officers, are required to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to prevent the drawing of any ſuch unlawful lottery; and every perſon who ſhall ſet up, or publiſh the ſetting up, any unlawful lottery, with intent to have ſuch lottery drawn, ſhall forfeit 100l. one third part to her majeſty, one other third to the poor of the pariſh, and the other third with coſts, to the party who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

V. Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 109. Every perſon who ſhall keep any office for making inſurances on marriages, births, chriſtenings or ſervice, or any office under the denominations of ſales of gloves, of fans, of cards, of numbers, of the queen's picture, for the improvement of ſmall ſums, or the like offices, under the pretence of improving ſmall ſums, ſhall forfeit 500l. one third part to her majeſty, one other third to the poor of the pariſh, and the other third, with coſts, to the perſon who ſhall ſue for the ſame; and every printer or other perſon, who ſhall publiſh the keeping any ſuch office, ſhall forfeit 100l. to be diſtributed as the penalty laſt mentioned; and every perſon who in any office, before the 24th of June 1712, ſet up for making inſurances on marriages, &c. or under any other the denominations aforeſaid, or any like denominations, for improvement of ſmall ſums, ſhall make, or ſuffer to be made, any new inſurances on marriages, births, chriſtenings, or ſervice, or receive any payments for improvement of ſmall ſums, ſhall forfeit 100l. to be diſtributed in like manner.

VI. Stat. 5 Geo. I. cap. 9. §. 43. All ſubſcriptions for ſale of the chances, or part of the chances, to ariſe on the tickets iſſued by virtue of the act of this ſeſſion; and all ſuch kind of undertaking, ſhall be within the meaning of the acts againſt private lotteries, and the perſons buying, ſelling, ſubſcribing, or taking ſubſcriptions for the purchaſe of ſuch chances of any tickets made out in purſuance of any act for a public lottery, or on the numbers of ſuch tickets, without having the original tickets in their cuſtody and right, ſhall be liable to the penalties inflicted on ſuch as ſhall be concerned in private lotteries; and every ſuch offender ſhall for every chance, ſo ſold or ſubſcribed for, forfeit 100l. over and above any former penalties; one moiety to the crown, the other to ſuch perſon as in his own right ſhall, at the commencement of the drawing of ſuch lottery, be poſſeſſed of the ticket on which ſuch chance ſhall be ſold or ſubſcribed for.

VII. Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 2. §. 36. Every perſon who ſhall ſet up or keep any office or place under the denomination of ſales of houſes, lands, advowſons, preſentations to livings, plate, jewels, ſhips, goods, or other things, for the improvement of ſmall ſums of money; or ſhall ſell or expoſe to ſale any houſes, &c. by way of lottery, or by lots, tickets, numbers, or figures; or ſhall make, print, advertiſe, or publiſh, propoſals or ſchemes for advancing ſmall ſums of money by ſeveral perſons, amounting in the whole to large ſums, to be divided amongſt them by the chances of the prizes in any public lottery; or ſhall deliver out tickets to perſons advancing ſuch ſums, to intitle them to a ſhare of the money, according to ſuch propoſals or ſchemes; or ſhall make, print, or publiſh any propoſal or ſcheme of the like kind, and ſhall be thereof convicted on the oath of one witneſs by two juſtices of peace where ſuch offence ſhall be committed or the offender found, the perſon ſo convicted ſhall (over and above any former penalties) forfeit 500l. one third to the crown, one other third to the informer, and the remaining third to the poor of the pariſh where the offence ſhall be committed, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods by warrant of the juſtices, and ſhall alſo be committed to the county gaol for one year, and 'till the 500l. be paid; perſons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter ſeſſions.

VIII. §. 37. All perſons who ſhall be adventures in ſuch ſales or lotteries, or ſhall contribute to ſuch ſales or lotteries, ſhall forfeit double the ſum contributed, to be recovered with coſts; one moiety to the crown, the other to the informer.

IX. Stat. 9 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 4. If any perſons ſhall, by colour of any authority from any foreign prince or ſtate, ſet up or keep any lottery, or undertaking in the nature of a lottery, or ſhall make, print, or publiſh, any propoſals or ſcheme for ſuch lottery, and ſhall within this kingdom ſell or diſpoſe of any tickets in any foreign lottery, and ſhall be convicted on the oath of one witneſs before two juſtices, &c. where ſuch offence ſhall be committed, or the offender found, ſuch offender ſhall (over and above any former penalties) forfeit 200l. one third to the crown, one other third to the informer, and the remaining third to the poor of the pariſh, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods by warrant of the juſtices, and ſhall alſo be committed to the county gaol for one year, and 'till the ſaid ſum be ſatisfied.

X. §. 5. Perſons, aggrieved by the judgment of the juſtices may appeal to the next quarter ſeſſions.

XI. Stat. 4 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 12.[3] A yearly ſum of 24,000l. out of the additional duties on ſtamped vellum, parchment, and paper (granted by 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 25.) ſhall be a fund for annuities of three per cent. to contributors in a lottery, until redemption by parliament, and ſhall be paid half-yearly at Chriſtmas and Midſummer to the caſhier of the bank.

XII. §. 13. It ſhall be lawful for any perſons to contribute ſums of 10l. and for every ſuch ſum of 10l. they ſhall be intereſted in ſuch lot in the ſaid yearly fund, as is herein directed.

XIII. §. 31. The ſaid annuities of three per cent. ſhall be free from taxes.

XIV. §. 32. The bank of England ſhall employ one to be their chief caſhier, and one other to be their accountant-general; and the ſaid caſhier, to whom the ſaid monies ſhall be iſſued for payment of the ſaid annuities, ſhall without delay apply the ſame accordingly, and render his account thereof according to the courſe of the Exchequer; and the ſaid accountant-general ſhall inſpect all receipts and payments of the ſaid caſhier, and the vouchers relating thereunto; and all perſons who ſhall be intitled to any of the ſame annuities ſhall be poſſeſſed thereof as a perſonal eſtate, and the ſame ſhall not be deſcendable to the heir, and ſhall not be liable to foreign attachment.

XV. §. 33. The ſaid annuities of three per cent. ſhall be of one capital or joint ſtock, on which the ſame annuities ſhall be attending, and ſhall be called the joint ſtock of lottery annuities for the year 1731; and all perſons, in proportion to their reſpective annuities, ſhall have a ſhare in ſuch ſtock; and ſuch ſhares ſhall be transferrable and deviſeable in the ſame manner as is preſcribed by act of parliament in the firſt year of his late majeſty's reign, touching the annuities after the rate of 5 per cent. and no ſtamp duties ſhall be chargeable on ſuch transfers, and the governor and company of the bank of England ſhall continue a corporation 'till the ſame ſhall be redeemed.

XVI. §. 34. No fee ſhall be taken for paying the ſaid annuities of three per cent. by the ſaid caſhier; and no fee ſhall be taken for any transfer, upon pain that any officer offending ſhall forfeit 20l. to the party aggrieved.

XVII. §. 35. Theſe additional duties upon ſtamped vellum, &c. ſhall be applied (charges excepted) to pay the annuities of 3l. 10s. per cent. and then to pay the ſaid annuities of three per cent.

XVIII. §. 36. Deficiencies ſhall be made good out of ſupplies to be granted by parliament, or out of the ſinking fund.

XIX. §. 37. Monies iſſued out of the ſinking fund ſhall be replaced out of the firſt ſupplies to be granted in parliament.

XX. §. 38. The ſurplus of the additional ſtamp duties ſhall be reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament.

XXI. §. 39. Upon one year's notice in the London Gazette, and upon the Royal Exchange, by authority of parliament, at any of the half-yearly days for payment, and upon repayment of the principal ſum and all arrearages, the ſaid annuities ſhall ceaſe; and the ſaid additional duties upon ſtamped vellum, &c. ſhall be redeemed. And any vote of the houſe of commons to be ſignified by the ſpeaker in writing ſhall be ſufficient notice.

XXII. Stat. 6. Geo. II. cap. 35. If any perſon ſhall ſell or deliver any ticket in any foreign lottery, and ſhall be convicted upon action or information, or upon oath or affirmation of one witneſs before two juſtices of peace where ſuch offence ſhall be committed or the offender found, the perſon ſo convicted ſhall forfeit 200l. one third to his majeſty, one third to him who ſhall make information of the offence, and the remaining third to the poor of the pariſh, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, and alſo ſhall be committed to the county goal for one year, and from thence 'till the ſum of 200l. be paid.

XXIII. §. 30. Any perſons aggrieved by the judgment of ſuch juſtices, ſhall have liberty to appeal to the next quarter ſeſſions.

Remarks.

In France there have been ſeveral lotteries, in favour of hoſpitals.

M. Le Clerc has compoſed a treatiſe of lotteries, wherein is ſhewn what is laudable, and what blameable in them.—Gregory Leti has alſo a book on the ſubject of lotteries.—Father Meneſtrier has a treatiſe on the ſame, publiſhed in 1700, where he ſhews their origin and uſe among the Romans.—He diſtinguiſhes ſeveral kinds of lotteries, and ſpeaks of chances, and reſolves ſeveral caſes of conſcience relating thereto.

The preſent lottery in England, eſtabliſhed by authority, may be judged very uſeful; the motive thereto being for the purchaſe of the Museum, or collection of Sir Hans Sloane, and of the Harleian collection of manuſcripts; and for providing one general repoſitory for the better reception and more convenient uſe of the ſaid collection, and alſo of the Cottonian library, and of the additions thereto. See the article Museum.

Among the ſeveral miſtakes that are committed about chance, ſays the ingenious Mr. de Moivre, one of the moſt common, and leaſt ſuſpected, is that which relates to lotteries. Thus, ſuppoſing a lottery, wherein the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is as five to one, it is very natural to conclude, that therefore five tickets are requiſite for the chance of a prize; and yet it may be proved demonſtratively, that four tickets are more than ſufficient for that purpoſe, which will be confirmed by often repeated experience.

In the like manner ſuppoſing a lottery, wherein the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is as 39 to 1 (ſuch as was the lottery in England of 1710), it may be proved, that, in 28

tickets, a prize is as likely to be taken as not; which, though it may ſeem to contradict the common notions, is nevertheleſs grounded upon infallible demonſtration.

When the play of the royal oak was in uſe, ſome perſons who loſt conſiderably by it, had their loſſes chiefly occaſioned by an argument of which they could not perceive the fallacy. The odds againſt any particular point of the ball were 31 to 1, which intitled the adventurers, in caſe they were winners, to have 32 ſtakes returned, including their own; inſtead of which they having but 28, it was very plain, that, on the ſingle account of the diſadvantage of the play, they loſt $\frac{1}{8}$ of all the money they played for. But the maſter of the ball maintained that they had no reaſon to complain, ſince he would undertake that any particular point of the ball ſhould come up in 22 throws; of this he would offer to lay a wager, and actually laid it when required. The ſeeming contradiction between the odds of 31 to 1, and 22 throws for any chance to come up, ſo perplexed the adventurers, that they begun to think the advantage was on their ſide, for which reaſon they played on and continued to loſe.

The principles whereon a knowledge in the doctrine of chances is founded, are as follow, viz.

1. The probability of an event is greater or leſs, according to the number of chances by which it may happen, compared with the whole number of chances by which it may either happen or fail.

2. Wherefore, if we conſtitute a fraction whereof the numerator is the number of chances whereby an event may happen, and the denominator and number of all the chances whereby it may either happen or fail, that fraction will be a proper deſignation of the probability of happening. Thus, if an event has 3 chances to happen and 2 to fail, the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$ will fitly repreſent the probability of it's happening, and may be taken to be the meaſure of it.

The ſame thing may be ſaid of the probability of failing, which will likewiſe be meaſured by a fraction, whoſe numerator is the number of chances whereby it may fail, and the denominator the whole number of chances, both for it's happening and failing: thus the probability of the failing of that event, which has 2 chances to fail and 3 to happen, will be meaſured by the fraction $\frac{2}{5}$.

3. The fractions, which repreſent the probabilities of happening and failing, being added together, their ſum will always be equal to unity, ſince the ſum of their numerators will be equal to their common denominator: now, it being a certainty that an event will either happen or fail, it follows, that certainty, which may be conceived under the notion of an infinitely great degree of probability, is fitly repreſented by unity.

Theſe things will eaſily be apprehended, if it be conſidered that the word probability includes a double idea; firſt, of the number of chances whereby an event may happen; ſecondly, of the number of chances whereby it may either happen or fail.

If I ſay that I have three chances to win any ſum of money, it is impoſſible from that bare aſſertion, to judge whether I am like to obtain it; but if I add that the number of chances either to obtain it or to miſs it, is 5 in all, from hence will enſue a compariſon between the chances that favour me, and the whole number of chances that are for or againſt me, whereby a true judgment will be formed of my probability of ſucceſs: whence it neceſſarily follows, that it is the comparative magnitude of the number of chances to happen, in reſpect to the whole number of chances either to happen or to fail, which is the true meaſure of probability.

4. If, upon the happening of an event, I be intitled to a ſum of money, my expectation of obtaining that ſum has a determinate value before the happening of the event.

Thus, if I am to have 10 l. in caſe of the happening of an event which has an equal probability of happening and failing, my expectation before the happening of the event is worth 5 l. for I am preciſely in the ſame circumſtances as he who at equal play ventures 5 l. either to have 10 l. or to loſe his 5 l. Now he who ventures 5 l. in an equal play, is poſſeſſor of 5 l. before the deciſion of the play; therefore my expectation, in the caſe above-mentioned, muſt alſo be worth 5 l.

5. In all caſes, the expectation of obtaining any ſum is eſtimated by multiplying the value of the ſum expected by the fraction which repreſents the probability of obtaining it.

Thus, if I have 3 chances in 5 to obtain 100 l. I ſay that the preſent value of my expectation is the product of 100 l. by the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$, and conſequently that my expectation is worth 60 l. For,

Suppoſing that an event may equally happen to any one of 5 different perſons, and that the perſon to whom it happens, ſhould, in conſequence of it, obtain the ſum of 100 l. it is plain, that the right which each of them in particular has upon the ſum expected is $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100 l. which right is founded in this; that if the 5 perſons, concerned in the happening of the event, ſhould agree not to ſtand the chance of it, but to divide the ſum expected among themſelves, then each of them muſt have $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100 l. for his pretenſion.

Now, whether they agree to divide that ſum equally among themſelves, or rather chuſe to ſtand the chance of the event, no one has thereby any advantage or diſadvantage, ſince they are all upon an equal foot, and conſequently each perſon's expectation is worth $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100 l. Let us ſuppoſe farther, that 2 of the 5 perſons concerned in the happening of the event, ſhould be willing to reſign their chance to one of the other three, then the perſon to whom theſe two chances are thus reſigned, has now three chances that favour him, and conſequently has now a right triple of that which he had before, and therefore his expectation is now worth $\frac{3}{5}$ of 100 l.

Now, if we conſider that the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$ expreſſes the probability of obtaining the ſum of 100 l. and that $\frac{3}{5}$ of 100 is the ſame thing as $\frac{3}{5}$ multiplied by 100, we muſt naturally fall into this concluſion, which has been laid down as a principle, that the value of the expectation of any ſum is determined by multiplying the ſum expected by the probability of obtaining it.

This manner of reaſoning, though deduced from a particular caſe, will eaſily be perceived to be general, and applicable to any other caſe.

Corollary.

From what precedes it neceſſarily follows, that if the value of an expectation be given, as alſo the value of the thing expected, then dividing the firſt value by the ſecond, the quotient will expreſs the probability of obtaining the ſum expected; thus if I have an expectation worth 60 l. and that the ſum which I may obtain be worth 100 l. the probability of obtaining it will be expreſſed by the quotient of 60 divided by 100, that is, by the fraction $\frac{60}{100}$, or $\frac{3}{5}$.

6. The riſk of loſing any ſum is the reverſe of expectation, and the true meaſure of it is the product of the ſum adventured, multiplied by the probability of the loſs.

7. Advantage or diſadvantage, in play, reſults from the combination of the ſeveral expectations of the gameſters, and of their ſeveral riſks.

Thus ſuppoſing that A and B play together, that A has depoſited 5 l. and B 3 l. that the number of chances which A has to win is 4, and the number of chances which B has to win is 2, and that it were required in this circumſtance to determine the advantage or diſadvantage of the adventurers, we may reaſon in this manner: ſince the whole ſum depoſited is 8, and that the probability which A has of getting it is $\frac{4}{6}$, it follows, that the expectation of A, upon the whole ſum depoſited, is $8 \times \frac{4}{6} = 5\frac{1}{3}$, and for the ſame reaſon the expectation of B, upon that whole ſum depoſited, is $8 \times \frac{2}{6} = 2\frac{2}{3}$.

Now, if, from the reſpective expectations which the adventurers have upon the whole ſum depoſited, be ſubtracted the particular ſums which they depoſit, that is, their own ſtakes, there will remain the advantage or diſadvantage of either, according as the difference is poſitive or negative.

And therefore, if from $5\frac{1}{3}$, which is the expectation of A upon the whole ſum depoſited, 5, which is his own ſtake, be ſubtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$ for his advantage; likewiſe, if from $2\frac{2}{3}$, which is the expectation of B, 3, which is his own ſtake, be ſubtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$, which, being negative, ſhews that his diſadvantage is $\frac{1}{3}$.

Theſe concluſions may alſo be derived from another conſideration; for if from the expectation, which either adventurer has upon the ſum depoſited by his adverſary, be ſubtracted the riſk of what he himſelf depoſits, there will likewiſe remain his advantage or diſadvantage, according as the difference is poſitive or negative.

Thus in the preceding caſe, the ſtake of B being 3, and the probability which A has of winning it, being $\frac{4}{6}$, the expectation of A upon that ſtake is $3 \times \frac{4}{6} = 2$; moreover, the ſtake of A being 5, and the probability of loſing it being $\frac{2}{6}$, his riſk ought to be eſtimated by $5 \times \frac{2}{6} = 1\frac{2}{3}$; wherefore, if from the expectation 2 the riſk $1\frac{2}{3}$ be ſubtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$ as before for the advantage of A; and, by the ſame way of proceeding, the diſadvantage of B will be found to be $\frac{1}{3}$.

It is very carefully to be obſerved, that what is here called advantage or diſadvantage, and which may properly be called gain or loſs, is always eſtimated before the event is come to paſs; and, although it be not cuſtomary to call that gain or loſs, which is to be derived from an event not yet determined, nevertheleſs, in the doctrine of chances, that appellation is equivalent to what in common diſcourſe is called gain or loſs.

For in the ſame manner as that he who ventures a guinea in an equal game, may, before the determination of the play, be ſaid to be poſſeſſor of that guinea, and may, in conſideration of that ſum, reſign his place to another; ſo he may be ſaid to be a gainer or loſer who would get ſome profit, or ſuffer ſome loſs, if he would ſell his expectation upon equi-

table terms, and ſecure his own ſtake for a ſum equal to the riſk of loſing it.

8. If the obtaining of any ſum requires the happening of ſeveral events that are independent on each other, then the value of the expectation of that ſum is found, by multiplying together the ſeveral probabilities of happening, and again multiplying the product by the value of the ſum expected.

Thus ſuppoſing, that in order to obtain 90l. two events muſt happen, the firſt whereof has 3 chances to happen and 2 to fail, the ſecond has 4 chances to happen and 5 to fail, and I would know the value of that expectation; I ſay,

The probability of the firſt's happening is $\frac{3}{5}$, the probability of the ſecond's happening is $\frac{4}{9}$; now, multiplying theſe two probabilities together, the product will be $\frac{12}{45}$, or $\frac{4}{15}$, and this product being again multiplied by 90, the new product will be $\frac{360}{15}$ or 24, therefore that expectation is worth 24l.

The demonſtration of this will be very eaſy, if it be conſidered, that, ſuppoſing the firſt event had happened, then that expectation, depending now entirely upon the ſecond, would, before the determination of the ſecond, be found to be exactly worth $\frac{4}{9} \times$ 90l. or 40l. (by art. 5.) We may therefore look upon the happening of the firſt, as a condition of obtaining an expectation worth 40l. but the probability of the firſt happening has been ſuppoſed $\frac{3}{5}$, wherefore the expectation ſought for is to be eſtimated by $\frac{3}{5} \times 40$ or by $\frac{3}{5} \times \frac{4}{9} \times 90$, that is, by the product of the two probabilities of happening multiplied by the ſum expected.

And likewiſe, if an expectation depends on the happening of one event, and the failing of another, then it's value will be the product of the probability of the firſt happening, by the probability of the ſecond's failing, and of that again by the value of the ſum expected.

And again, if an expectation depends on the failing of two events, the rule will be the ſame, for that expectation will be found by multiplying together the two probabilities of failing, and multiplying that again by the value of the ſum expected.

And the ſame rule is applicable to the happening or failing of as many events as may be aſſigned.

Corollary.

If we make abſtraction of the value of the ſum to be obtained, the bare probability of obtaining it will be the product of the ſeveral probabilities of happening, which evidently appears from this 8th article, and from the corollary to the 4th.

Hitherto I have confined myſelf to the conſideration of events independent; but for fear that, in what is to be ſaid afterwards, the terms independent or dependent might occaſion ſome obſcurity, it will be neceſſary, before I proceed any farther, to ſettle entirely the notion of theſe terms.

Two events are independent, when they have no connection one with the other, and that the happening of one neither forwards nor obſtructs the happening of the other.

Two events are dependent, when they are ſo connected together, as that the probability of either's happening is altered by the happening of the other.

In order to illuſtrate this, it will not be amiſs to propoſe the two following eaſy problems.

1. Suppoſe there is a heap of 13 cards of one colour, and another heap of 13 cards of another colour, what is the probability of taking two cards at a venture out of each heap, I ſhall take the two aces?

The probability of taking the ace out of the firſt heap is $\frac{1}{13}$; now it being very plain, that the taking or not taking the ace out of the firſt heap has no influence in the taking or not taking the ace out of the ſecond, it follows, that, ſuppoſing that ace taken out, the probability of taking the ace out of the ſecond will alſo be $\frac{1}{13}$; and therefore thoſe two events being independent, the probability of theſe both happening will be $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{13} = \frac{1}{169}$.

2. Suppoſe that, out of one ſingle heap of 13 cards of one colour, it ſhould be deſigned to take out the ace in the firſt place, and then the deux; and that it were required to aſſign the probability of doing it; we are to conſider, that although the probability of the ace's being in the firſt place be $\frac{1}{13}$, and that the probability of the deux's being in the ſecond place would alſo be $\frac{1}{13}$, if that ſecond event were conſidered in itſelf without any relation to the firſt; yet that, the ace being ſuppoſed as taken out at firſt, there will remain but 12 cards in the heap, and therefore that, upon the ſuppoſition of the ace being taken out at firſt, the probability of the deux's being next taken will be altered, and become $\frac{1}{12}$; and therefore we may conclude, that thoſe two events are dependent, and that the probability of their both happening will be $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{12} = \frac{1}{156}$.

From whence it may be inferred, that the probability of the happening of two events dependent is the product of the probability of the happening of one of them, by the probability which the other will have of happening, when the firſt ſhall have been conſidered as having happened; and the ſame rule will extend to the happening of as many events as may be aſſigned.

9. But to determine in the eaſieſt manner poſſible, the probability of the happening of ſeveral events dependent, it will be convenient to diſtinguiſh, by thought, the order of thoſe events, and to ſuppoſe one of them to be the firſt, another to be the ſecond, and ſo on: which being done, the probability of the happening of the firſt may be looked upon as independent; the probability of the happening of the ſecond is to be determined from the ſuppoſition of the firſt's having happened; the probability of the third's happening is to be determined from the ſuppoſition of the firſt's and ſecond's having happened, and ſo on: then the probability of the happening of them all will be the product of the multiplication of the ſeveral probabilities, which have been determined in the manner preſcribed.

We have ſeen before how to determine the probability of the happening or failing of as many events independent, as may be aſſigned; we have ſeen, likewiſe, in the preceding article, how to determine the probability of the happening of as many events dependent, as may be aſſigned; but, in the caſe of events dependent, how to determine the probability of the happening of ſome of them, and, at the ſame time, the probability of the failing of ſome others, is a diſquiſition of a greater degree of difficulty; which, for that reaſon, will be more conveniently transferred to another place.

10. If I have ſeveral expectations upon ſeveral ſums, it is very evident that my expectation upon the whole is the ſum of the expectations I have upon the particulars.

Thus ſuppoſe two events ſuch, that the firſt may have three chances to happen, and two to fail; and the ſecond four chances to happen, and five to fail; and that I be intitled to 90l. in caſe the firſt happens, and to another like ſum of 90l. in caſe the ſecond happens alſo, and that I would know the value of my expectation upon the whole: I ſay, the ſum expected in the firſt caſe being 90l. and the probability of obtaining it being $\frac{3}{5}$, it follows that my expectation, on that account is worth $90 \times \frac{3}{5} = 54$; and again, the ſum expected in the ſecond caſe being 90, and the probability of obtaining it being $\frac{4}{9}$, it follows that my expectation of that ſecond ſum is worth $90 \times \frac{4}{9} = 40$; and, therefore, my expectation upon the whole is worth 54l. + 40l. = 94l.

But if I am to have 90l. once for all, for the happening of one or the other of the two aforementioned events, the method of proceſs, in determining the value of my expectation, will be ſomewhat altered; for, although my expectation of the firſt event be worth 54l. as it was in the preceding example, yet I conſider that my expectation of the ſecond will ceaſe upon the happening of the firſt, and that, therefore, this expectation takes place only in caſe the firſt does happen to fail. Now the probability of the firſt's failing is $\frac{2}{5}$; and, ſuppoſing it has failed, then my expectation will be 40; wherefore $\frac{2}{5}$ being the meaſure of the probability of my obtaining an expectation worth 40l. it follows, that this expectation (to eſtimate it before the time of the firſt's being determined) will be worth $40 \times \frac{2}{5} = 16$, and, therefore, my expectation upon the whole is worth 54l. + 16l. = 70l.

If that which was called the ſecond event, be now conſidered as the firſt, and that which was called the firſt, be now conſidered as the ſecond, the concluſion will be the ſame as before.

For the application of theſe principles to the doctrine of chances in general, and, among the reſt, to the article of lotteries. But, to underſtand the rationale of the theorems raiſed by Mr. De Moivre, for this and other purpoſes of play, I would refer the reader to that ingenious writer himſelf; but the reader ſhould be prepared with a competent knowledge of algebra, and then the ſteps which that gentleman has taken to come at the ſolution of the various problems he gives, will be eaſily followed.

In a lottery, whereof the number of blanks is to the number of prizes as 39 *to* 1 *(ſuch as was the lottery in* 1710*) to find how many tickets one muſt take to make it an equal chance for prizes.*

Multiply 39 by 0,7*, and the product, 27,3, will ſhew that the number of tickets requiſite to that effect will be 27, or 28 at moſt. Likewiſe in a lottery, whereof the number of blanks is to the number of prizes as 5 to 1, multiply 5 by 0,7, and the product, 3,5, will ſhew that there is more than

equality

equality of chance in four tickets, for one or more prizes, but leſs than equality in three.

* For the reaſon of this and the following rules, as applied to lotteries, ſee De Moivre's Introduction to the Doctrine of Chances.

REMARK.

In a lottery, whereof the blanks are to the prizes as 39 to 1, if the number of tickets in all were but 40, the proportion abovementioned would be altered, for 20 tickets would be a ſufficient number for the juſt expectation of the ſingle prize, it being evident that the prize may be as well among the tickets which are taken, as among thoſe that are left behind.

Again: if the number of tickets in all were 80, ſtill preſerving the proportion of 39 blanks to one prize, and, conſequently, ſuppoſing 78 blanks to two prizes, this proportion would ſtill be altered; for, by the doctrine of combinations, it will appear that the probability of taking one prize or both, in 20 tickets, would be but $\frac{139}{361}$, and the probability of taking none would be $\frac{177}{316}$; wherefore the odds againſt taking any prize would be as 177 to 139, or very near as 9 to 7.

And, by the ſame doctrine of combinations, it will be found that 23 tickets would not be quite ſufficient for the expectation of a prize in this lottery, but that 24 would rather be too many; ſo that one might with advantage lay an even wager of taking a prize in 24 tickets.

If the proportion of 39 to 1 be oftener repeated, the number of tickets requiſite for the equal chance of a prize will ſtill increaſe with that repetition; yet let the proportion of 39 to 1 be repeated never ſo many times, nay an infinite number of times, the number of tickets requiſite for the equal chance of a prize would never exceed $\frac{7}{10}$ of 39, that is, about 27 or 28.

Wherefore, if the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is often repeated, as it uſually is in lotteries, the number of tickets requiſite for a prize will always be found, by taking $\frac{7}{10}$ of the proportion of the blanks to the prizes.

In a lottery, conſiſting of 40,000 *tickets, among which are three particular benefits, what is the probability that, taking* 8000 *of them, one or more of the particular benefits ſhall be amongſt them?*

SOLUTION.

Firſt, In the theorem belonging to the remark in Mr. De Moivre's Doctrine of Chances, page 76, ſecond edition, there being ſubſtituted reſpectively 8,000, 40,000, 32,000 3, and 1, in the room of c, n, d, a, and p, it will appear that the probability of taking one preciſely of the three particular benefits, will be $\frac{8000.\ 32000.\ 31999.\ 3}{40000.\ 39999.\ 39998.} = \frac{48}{125}$ nearly.

Secondly, c, n, d, a, being interpreted as before, let us ſuppoſe $p = 2$, hence the probability of taking preciſely two of the particular benefits will be found to be $\frac{8000.\ 7999.\ 32000.\ 3}{40000.\ 39999.\ 39998.} = \frac{12}{125}$ nearly.

Thirdly, Making $p = 3$, the probability of taking all the three particular benefits will be found to be $\frac{8000.\ 7000.}{40000.\ 39999.}$ $\frac{7008}{39998} = \frac{1}{125}$, very near. Wherefore, the probability of taking one or more of the three particular benefits will be $\frac{48 + 12 + 1}{125}$, or $\frac{61}{125}$, very near.

It is to be obſerved, that thoſe three operations might have been contracted into one, by inquiring the probability of not taking any of three particular benefits, which will be found to be $\frac{32000.\ 31999.\ 31998}{40000.\ 39999.\ 39998} = \frac{64}{125}$, nearly; which being ſubtracted from unity, the remainder, $1 - \frac{64}{125}$, or $\frac{61}{125}$, will ſhew the probability required, and, therefore, the odds againſt taking any of three particular benefits will be 64 to 61 nearly.

To find how many tickets ought to be taken, in a lottery conſiſting of 40,000, *among which are three particular benefits, to make it as probable that one or more of thoſe three may be taken as not.*

SOLUTION.

Let the number of tickets requiſite to be taken be $= x$, it will follow, therefore, from the remark belonging to the XXth problem in De Moivre, page 76, that the probability

of not taking any of the particular benefits will be $\frac{n-x}{n} \times \frac{n-x-1}{n-1} \times \frac{n-x-2}{n-2}$; but this probability is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$; ſince, by hypotheſis, the probability of taking one or more of them is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, from whence we ſhall have the equation $\frac{n-x}{n} \times \frac{n-x-1}{n-1} \times \frac{n-x-2}{n-2} = \frac{1}{2}$; which equation being ſolved, the value of x will be found to be nearly 8252.

N. B. The factors whereof both the numerator and denominator are compoſed, being but few, and in arithmetic progreſſion, and beſides, the difference being very ſmall in reſpect of n, thoſe terms may be conſidered as being in geometric progreſſion: wherefore, the cube of the middle term, $\frac{n-x-1}{n-1}$, may be ſuppoſed equal to the product of the multiplication of thoſe terms; from whence will ariſe the equation $\frac{\overline{n-x-1}^{3}}{\overline{n-1}} = \frac{1}{2}$, or, neglecting unity in both numerator and denominator, $\frac{\overline{n-x}^{3}}{n^3} = \frac{1}{2}$, and, conſequently, x will be found to be $= n \times 1 - \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}}$, or $n \times 1 - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{4}$, but $n = 40{,}000$, and $-1\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{4} = 0.2063$; wherefore $x = 8252$.

In the remark belonging to the ſecond problem, a rule was given for finding the number of tickets that were to be taken to make it as probable that one or more of the benefits would be taken as not; but in that rule it was ſuppoſed, that the proportion of the blanks to the prizes was often repeated, as it uſually is in lotteries: now, in the caſe of the preſent problem, the particular benefits being but three in all, the remaining tickets are to be conſidered as blanks in reſpect of them; from whence it follows, that the proportion of the number of blanks to one prize being very near as 13332 to 1, and that proportion being repeated but three times in the whole number of tickets, the rule there given would not have been ſufficiently exact; for which reaſon it was thought neceſſary to give another rule in this place.

Suppoſing a lottery of 100,000 *tickets, whereof* 90,000 *are blanks, and* 10,000 *are benefits, to determine accurately what the odds are of taking or not taking a benefit in any number of tickets aſſigned.*

SOLUTION.

Suppoſe the number of tickets to be ſix; then let us inquire into the probability of taking no prize in ſix tickets: which to find, let us make uſe of the theorem ſet down in the corollary of the XIXth problem [ſee De Moivre, page 75 and 76] wherein it will appear that the number of chances for taking no prize in 6 tickets, making $a = 10{,}000$, $b = 90{,}000$, $c = 6$, $p = 0$, $n = 100{,}000$, will be $\frac{90000}{1} \times \frac{89999}{2} \times \frac{89998}{3} \times \frac{89997}{4} \times \frac{89996}{5} \times \frac{89995}{6}$, and that the whole number of chances will be $\frac{100000}{1} \times \frac{99999}{2} \times \frac{99998}{3} \times \frac{99997}{4} \times \frac{99996}{5} \times \frac{99995}{6}$; then dividing the firſt number of chances by the ſecond, which may eaſily be done by logarithms, the quotient will be 0.53143; and this ſhews the probability of taking no prize in 6 tickets; and, this decimal fraction being ſubtracted from unity, the remainder, 0.46857, ſhews the probability of taking one or more prize in 6 tickets; wherefore the odds againſt taking any prize in 6 tickets will be 53143 to 46857.

If we ſuppoſe now, that the number of tickets taken is 7, then carrying each number of chances above written one ſtep farther, we ſhall find that the probability of taking no prize in 7 tickets is 0.47828, which fraction being ſubtracted from unity, the remainder will be 0.52172, which ſhews the odds of taking one prize, or more, in 7 tickets, to be 52172 to 47828.

REMARK.

When the number of tickets taken bear a very inconſiderable proportion to the whole number of tickets, as it happens in the caſe of this problem, the queſtion may be reſolved as a problem depending on the caſt of a die; we may, therefore, ſuppoſe a die of 10 faces, having one of it's faces ſuch as the ace, repreſenting a benefit, and all the other nine repreſenting blanks, and inquire into the probability of miſſing the ace ſix times

times together, which, by the rules given in the Introduction *, will be found to be $\frac{9^6}{10^6} = 0.53144$, differing from what we had found before but one unit in the fifth place of decimals: now, if we inquire into the probability of miſſing the ace ſeven times, we ſhall find it 0.47829, differing alſo but one unit in the fifth of decimals, from what had been found before; and, therefore, in ſuch caſes as this, we may uſe both methods indifferently, but the firſt will be exact, if we actually multiply the numbers together; the ſecond is only an approximation.

* See De Moivre's Introduction to the Doctrine of Chances, page 9, 10, 11, &c.

But both methods confirm the truth of the practical rule given in the third problem [in De Moivre's Introduction] about finding what number of tickets is neceſſary for the equal chance of a prize; for multiplying as it is there directed, the number 9 repreſenting the blanks, by 0.7, the product, 6.3, will ſhew that the number requiſite is between 6 and 7.

The ſame things being given as in the before-mentioned problem, ſuppoſe the price of each ticket to be 10l. and that, after the lottery is drawn, 7l. 10s. be returned to the blanks, to find in this lottery the value of the chance of a prize.

Solution.

There being 90,000 blanks, to every one of which 7l. 10s. is returned, the total value of the blanks is 675,000l. and, conſequently, the total value of the benefits is 325,000l. which being divided by 10,000, the number of the benefits, the quotient is 32l. 10s. and therefore one might, for the ſum of 32l. 10s. be intitled to have a benefit certain, taken at random, out of the whole number of benefits: the purchaſer of a chance has, therefore, one chance in ten for the ſum of 32l. 10s. and nine chances in ten for loſing his money; from whence it follows, that the value of his chance is the tenth part of 32l. 10s. that is, 3l. 5s. and, therefore, the purchaſer of a chance, by giving the ſeller 3l. 5s. is intitled to the chance of a benefit, and ought not to return any thing to the ſeller, although he ſhould have a prize; for the ſeller having 3l. 5s. ſure, and nine chances in ten for 7l. 10s. the value of which chances is 6l. 15s. it follows that he has his 10l.

Suppoſing ſtill the ſame lottery as has been mentioned in the two preceding problems of De Moivre, let A engage to furniſh B with a chance, on condition that, whenever the ticket on which the chance depends, ſhall happen to be drawn, whether it proves a blank or a prize, A ſhall furniſh B with a new chance, and ſo on, as often as there is occaſion, 'till the whole lottery be drawn; to find what conſideration B ought to give A, before the lottery begins to be drawn, for the chance or chances of one or more prizes, admitting that the lottery will be 40 days in drawing.

Solution.

Let 3l. 5s. which is the abſolute value of a chance, be called s.

1. A, who is the ſeller, ought to conſider, that the firſt day he furniſhes neceſſarily a chance, whoſe value is s.

2. That the ſecond day he does not neceſſarily furniſh a chance, but conditionally, viz. if it ſo happen that the ticket on which the chance depends, ſhould be drawn on the firſt day; but the probability of it's being drawn on the firſt day is $\frac{1}{40}$; and, therefore, he ought to take $\frac{1}{40}s$ for the conſideration of the ſecond day.

3. That, in the ſame manner, he does not neceſſarily furniſh a chance on the third day, but conditionally, in caſe the only ticket depending (for there can be but one) ſhould happen to be drawn on the ſecond day, of which the probability being $\frac{1}{39}$, by reaſon of the remaining 39 days, from the ſecond incluſive to the laſt, it follows, that the value of that chance is $\frac{1}{39}s$.

4. And, for the ſame reaſon, the value of the next is $\frac{1}{38}s$, and ſo on.

The purchaſer ought therefore to give the ſeller $1 + \frac{1}{40} + \frac{1}{39} + \frac{1}{38} + \frac{1}{37} \ldots\ldots + \frac{1}{2}$, the whole multiplied by s, or $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} \ldots\ldots + \frac{1}{40}$, the whole multiplied by s. Now, it being pretty laborious to ſum up thoſe 40 terms, we have here made uſe of a rule which Mr. De Moivre has given in the ſupplement to his Miſcellanea Analytica, whereby may be ſummed up, in a very ſhort time, as many of thoſe terms as one pleaſes, though they were 10,000 or more; and, by that rule, the ſum of thoſe 40 terms will be found to be 4.2785 very near, which being multiplied by s, which in this caſe is 3.25, the product is 13.9. will ſhew that the purchaſer ought to give the ſeller about 13l. 18s.

Corollary.

The value of the chance s for one ſingle day that ſhall be fixed upon, is the value of that chance divided by the number of days intercepted between that day incluſive, and the number of days remaining to the end of the lottery: which, however, muſt be underſtood with that reſtriction, that the day fixed upon muſt be choſe before the lottery begins, or that, if it be done on any other day, the ſtate of the lottery muſt be known, and a new calculation made accordingly for the value of s.

Remarks.

A knowledge in the doctrine of chances is not only applicable to all kinds of hazards of this nature, but may likewiſe be a help to cure a kind of ſuperſtition, which has been of long ſtanding in the world, viz. that there is in play ſuch a thing as luck, good or bad. I own there are a great many judicious people, who, without any other aſſiſtance than that of their own reaſon, are ſatisfied, that the notion of luck is merely chimerical; yet I conceive, that the ground they have to look upon it as ſuch, may ſtill be farther inforced from ſome of the following conſiderations.

If, by ſaying that a man has good luck, nothing more was meant, than that he has been generally a gainer at play, the expreſſion might be allowed as very proper in a ſhort way of ſpeaking: but, if the word good luck be underſtood to ſignify a certain predominant quality, ſo inherent in a man, that he muſt win whenever he plays, or at leaſt win oftener than loſe, it may be denied, that there is any ſuch thing in nature.

The aſſertors of luck are very ſure, from their own experience, that at ſome times they have been very lucky, and that at other times they have had a prodigious run of ill luck againſt them, which, whilſt it continued, obliged them to be very cautious in engaging with the fortunate; but how chance ſhould produce theſe extraordinary events, is what they cannot conceive: they would be glad, for inſtance, to be ſatisfied, how they could loſe fifteen games together at piquet, if ill luck had not ſtrangely prevailed againſt them. But, if they will be pleaſed to conſider the rules given by Mr. De Moivre, they will ſee, that though the odds againſt their loſing ſo many times together be very great, viz. 32767 to 1, yet that the poſſibility of it is not deſtroyed by the greatneſs of the odds, there being one chance in 32768 that it may ſo happen; from whence it follows, that it was ſtill poſſible to come to paſs, without the intervention of what they call ill luck.

Beſides, this accident of loſing fifteen times together at piquet is no more to be imputed to ill luck, than the winning with one ſingle ticket the higheſt prize in a lottery of 32768 tickets is to be imputed to good luck, ſince the chances in both caſes are perfectly equal. But if it be ſaid, that luck has been concerned in this latter caſe, the anſwer will be eaſy; for let us ſuppoſe luck not exiſting, or, at leaſt, let us ſuppoſe it's influence to be ſuſpended, yet the higheſt prize muſt fall into ſome hand or other, not by luck (for by the hypotheſis that has been laid aſide) but from the mere neceſſity of it's falling ſomewhere.

Thoſe who contend for luck, may, if they pleaſe, alledge other caſes at play, much more unlikely to happen than the winning or loſing fifteen games together, yet ſtill their opinion will never receive any addition of ſtrength from ſuch ſuppoſition. For, by the rules of chance, a time may be computed, in which thoſe caſes may as probably happen as not; nay, not only ſo, but a time may be computed in which there may be any proportion of odds for their ſo happening.

But ſuppoſing that gain and loſs were ſo fluctuating, as always to be diſtributed equally, whereby luck would certainly be annihilated, would it be reaſonable in this caſe to attribute the events of play to chance alone? I think, on the contrary, it would be quite otherwiſe, for then there would be more reaſon to ſuſpect that ſome unaccountable fatality did rule in it: thus, if two perſons play at croſs and pile, and chance alone be ſuppoſed to be concerned in regulating the fall of the piece, is it probable that there ſhould be an equality of heads and croſſes?

It is 5 to 3 that in 4 times there will be an inequality; it is 11 to 5 in 6, 93 to 35 in 8, and about 12 to 1 in 100 times: wherefore, chance alone by it's nature conſtitutes the inequalities of play, and there is no need to have recourſe to luck to explain them.

Further, the ſame arguments which explode the notion of luck, may, on the other ſide, be uſeful in ſome caſes to eſtabliſh a due compariſon between chance and deſign: we may imagine chance and deſign to be, as it were, in competition with each other, for the production of ſome ſorts of events, and may calculate what probability there is, that thoſe events ſhould be rather owing to one than to the other. To give a familiar inſtance of this; let us ſuppoſe that, two packs of piquet cards being ſent for, it ſhould be perceived that there is, from top to bottom, the ſame diſpoſition of the cards in both packs; let us likewiſe ſuppoſe that, ſome doubt ariſing about this diſpoſition of the cards, it ſhould be queſtioned,

tioned, whether it ought to be attributed to chance, or to the maker's deſign: in this caſe, the doctrine of combinations decides the queſtion, ſince it may be proved by it's rules, that there are the odds of above 26,313,083 millions of millions, of millions of millions, to one, that the cards were deſignedly ſet in the order in which they were found.

From this laſt conſideration we may learn, in many caſes, how to diſtinguiſh the events, which are the effect of chance, from thoſe which are produced by deſign: the very doctrine, that finds chance where it really is, being able to prove by a gradual increaſe of probability, 'till it arrive at demonſtration; that where uniformity, order, and conſtancy reſide, there alſo reſide choice and deſign.

Laſtly, one of the principal uſes to which this doctrine of chances may be applied, is the diſcovering of ſome truths, which cannot fail of pleaſing the mind, by their generality and ſimplicity; the admirable connection of it's conſequences will increaſe the pleaſure of the diſcovery; and the ſeeming paradoxes wherewith it abounds, will afford very great matter of ſurprize and entertainment to the inquiſitive. A very remarkable inſtance of this nature may be ſeen in the prodigious advantage which the repetition of odds will amount to; thus, ſuppoſing I play with an adverſary who allows me the odds of 43 to 40, and agrees with me to play 'till 100 ſtakes are won or loſt on either ſide, on condition that I gave him an equivalent for the gain I am intitled to by the advantage of my odds; the queſtion is, what I am to give him, on ſuppoſing we play a guinea a ſtake? The anſwer is 99 guineas, and above eighteen ſhillings*, which will ſeem almoſt incredible, conſidering the ſmallneſs of the odds of 43 to 40. Now, let the odds be in any proportion given, and let the number of ſtakes played for be never ſo great, yet one general concluſion will include all the poſſible caſes, and the application of it to numbers may be wrought in leſs than a minute's time.

* Guineas were then at 21 s. 6 d.

I have explained, in my introduction to the Doctrine of Chances, ſays Mr. De Moivre, the chief rules on which the whole art of chances depends; I have done it in the plaineſt manner that I could think of, to the end it might be (as much as poſſible) of general uſe. I flatter myſelf that thoſe who are acquainted with arithmetical operations, will, by the help of the introduction alone, be able to ſolve a great variety of queſtions depending on chance; I wiſh, for the ſake of ſome gentlemen who have been pleaſed to ſubſcribe to the printing of my book, that I could every where have been as plain as in the introduction; but this was hardly practicable, the invention of the greateſt part of the rules being entirely owing to algebra; yet I have, as much as poſſible, endeavoured to deduce from the algebraical calculation ſeveral practical rules, the truth of which may be depended upon, and which may be very uſeful to thoſe who have contented themſelves to learn only common arithmetic.

On this occaſion, I muſt take notice to ſuch of my readers as are well verſed in vulgar arithmetic, that it would not be difficult for them to make themſelves maſters, not only of all the practical rules in this book, but alſo of more uſeful diſcoveries, if they would take the ſmall pains of being acquainted with the bare notation of algebra, that might be done in the hundreth part of the time that is ſpent in learning to write ſhort-hand.

On the abuſe of LOTTERIES.

At the beginning of this article we have touched upon the ordinary uſe that is made of lotteries; it may be likewiſe neceſſary to take notice of the ill conſequences that attend them; which will be more briefly done from the few following queries.

1. Whether public or ſtate lotteries have not a tendency to uphold the ſpirit of gaming among the people in general; and whether this does not ſo corrupt and vitiate the minds of the maſs of the people, as to draw them from honeſt labour and induſtry in their trading employments, thereby render them poor and indigent, and occaſion a general depravity of morals.

2. Whether experience has not ſhewn, that even the fortunate who become ſuddenly rich by this means, are more generally unhappy than otherwiſe they would be?

3. Whether the wiſeſt and beſt intentioned acts of parliament, in relation to lotteries, are not too often ſhamefully and ſcandalouſly evaded, and give room to lottery jobbing and public impoſition; and whether there have not been ſome late inſtances of this, in open defiance and violation of the beſt laws for the regulation of a lottery, which has given a general diſguſt to the nation?

4. Whether ways and means, far more eligible than thoſe of lotteries, may not always be fell upon, to raiſe money for any public exigency; and whether lotteries ought not to be the laſt reſource upon theſe occaſions?

LOUISIANA, the extent, as well as the natural hiſtory of this country has been variouſly repreſented. In relation to the former, father Hennipin and Mr. Sale have extended it at an extravagant rate; nor have the French, who have aſſumed a right to this part of America, thought proper yet to aſcertain it's boundaries at all, for by their accounts it remains boundleſs. See our firſt map of NORTH AMERICA, in oppoſition to that of the Sieur D'Anville, which was executed under the patronage of Louis duke of Orleans, firſt prince of the blood. See alſo our article MAPS.

The more modeſt of their geographers, who are aſhamed to aſſert that this province is without any limitation at all, ſay it is bounded on the ſouth by the gulph of Mexico, on the north by the Illinois, and by the territories of the Paniaſſus, Paoducas, Oſages, Tionontetecagas, Chavanons, and other wild nations, on the eaſt by the part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina, and on the weſt by New Mexico and New Spain. They ſay further, it extends itſelf from north to ſouth about 15 degrees, that is, from 25 to the 40th of north latitude, and from eaſt to weſt about 10 or 11, that is, from 86 to 96, or 97, for the boundaries are nothing leſs than certain, according to father Charlevoix. And,

The maps of Mr. De Liſle give thoſe boundaries at a much greater extent, eſpecially on the north ſide, where they make it contiguous to Canada, ſo that part of it is bounded, according to him, by New York, Penſylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the weſt by the rivers called Rio Bravo and Salado. Other French maps publiſhed at Amſterdam, anno 1720, extend it's northern boundaries ſtill farther on the authority of Monſ. Le Sueur, who ſailed up the river of St. Lewis or Miſſiſſippi above 706 leagues from it's mouth, and adds, that the river is known to flow 100 leagues ſtill higher; ſo that, according to him, the northern boundaries of Louiſiana may reach as far as the northern pole.

Neither are thoſe on the north-weſt leſs uncertain, the Miſſouri, a great river, which gives name to a vaſt tract of land, flowing from that point into the Miſſiſſippi, more than 400 leagues above it's mouth; ſo that if we except the ſouth, where the ſea bounds it, all the reſt muſt be left to uncertainty, and ſo it is like to remain 'till theſe boundaries are ſettled on the eaſt with the Engliſh, and on the weſt with Spain: 'till then, they will be ſtill liable to diſputes, and, perhaps, to a continual fluctuation, according as either of the three nations ſhall have opportunity to enlarge their conqueſts in this part of America.

Certain, however, it is, that Louiſiana contains the greateſt part of thoſe new diſcovered lands eaſt and weſt of the Miſſiſſippi river, which, at firſt, had the name of Florida given to them by Sebaſtian Cabot, a Portugueze, who was ſent upon this deſign by our Henry VII. See the article FLORIDA.

The Spaniards, indeed, lay claim, if not to the firſt diſcovery, at leaſt to the firſt ſettlement on this continent, anno 1512, when John Pontio de Leon firſt unſucceſsfully landed and built a fort there. The Spaniards, ſince then, made ſeveral attempts upon this country, but the adventurers were maſſacred by the Indians, ſo that it was not 'till the reign of Charles X. of France, that his ſubjects attempted a ſettlement on this coaſt, yet they were defea ed by the Spaniards. Theſe laſt, however, were ſoon after puniſhed in the ſame kind by the French, but nevertheleſs theſe could not obtain ſufficient help to ſettle a colony there, 'till anno 1684, when Monſ. de la Sale diſcovered, with great difficulty, the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, and built fort St. Lewis on that bay; and, he being aſſaſſinated, the place was again abandoned 'till anno 1698, when Capt. Iberville diſcovered the river Miſſiſſippi, and chriſtened the whole country Louiſiana, and made ſeveral ſettlements, which have been ſince very much improved, eſpecially from the year 1720.

For 'till that time the Spaniards had ſome forts on the coaſt, particularly that of Penſacola, about 14 leagues eaſt of the iſle of Dauphin, the moſt conſiderable ſettlement belonging to the French, where they were ever oppoſing the French from ſettling in that country, and diſputing their title to it; ſo that they cannot be properly ſaid to have been rightly fixed in thoſe poſſeſſions 'till then: of ſo late date is their eſtabliſhment there.

Authors and travellers give variety of accounts in relation to the natural hiſtory of Louiſiana. With reſpect to it's being extravagantly extolled about the year 1720, as the Frenchmen's paradiſe, great allowances muſt be made for all that was ſaid at that time, by reaſon of the uſe that was intended to be made thereof, in order to countenance the ſyſtem, as it was called in France, which was partly bottomed on the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme. See MISSISSIPPI COMPANY.

Certain it is, that ſeveral of their rivers, which overflow at certain ſeaſons, render the country very fertile and pleaſant. Nothing is ſaid to be more delightful than their meadows, which are fit for the reception of any ſeed. In ſome parts, the ſoil yields three or four crops in a year, for the winter conſiſts of heavy rains, without nipping froſts. We find there not only all the variety of trees, in great quantities, which Europe affords, but divers others unknown to the Europeans, ſome of them very valuable, ſuch as their tall and excellent cedars, a tree which diſtils a gum, ſaid to exceed our nobleſt perfumes; and the cotton-trees, which are here of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with no little

variety of game, fowl, cattle, and every thing that life can deſire.

The chief rivers wherewith Louiſiana abounds, beſides thoſe before-mentioned, are the St. Francis, St. Anthony, Tombeau, River of Oxen, the Black River, the Oviſconſing, Illinois, Sabloniere, and many more; but the moſt conſiderable is the Mobile, by reaſon of the fine country it waters on both ſides, and the ſettlement of the Chicachas, Cattas, Nanibas, Mobilans, and other nations that inhabit on each ſide of it, but more eſpecially for it's fine bay, and the French ſettlement upon it. It deſcends from the mountains in the country of the Illinois, about 20 leagues, or more, north of the Chicachas, and, after a courſe of above 200 leagues ſouthward, through ſome fine fertile plains and rich meadows, empties itſelf into the gulph of Mexico. The bay of this river is reckoned 30 leagues broad, and receives two others, viz. that of the Alibamons, which comes from the eaſt, and that of the Chicachas, which flows from the north. It is on the weſt coaſt of this bay that the French have ſettled the moſt conſiderable colony they have in all Louiſiana, which is likewiſe inhabited by ſeveral nations, ſuch as the Tomez, Apachi, Mobilans, Chattas, &c. who traffic with them at Fort Lewis, on the ſame bay. They are none of them conſiderable, except that their vicinity to Georgia, Carolina, and Florida, makes their friendſhip ſo valuable, that they are much courted on all ſides, eſpecially by the Engliſh, who leave no means untried to gain them over to their intereſt. In regard to the other rivers of Louiſiana, their names, courſes, lengths, mouths, &c. we refer the reader to our map of North America, they being too many in number to admit of a particular deſcription in a work of this nature.

The chief bays of this country, beſides thoſe of the Miſſiſſippi and that of the Mobile, are thoſe of St. Roſe, Penſacola, St. Andrew, or Sandy Bay, St. Joſeph and St. Bernard, or St. Lewis. That of St. Roſe is guarded by an iſland of the ſame name, which is very long, and extends itſelf quite to the bay of Penſacola. The channel between it and the land is wide and deep enough for any ſhips to ſail from one to the other of thoſe bays. The iſland is well wooded, and abounds with variety of game. The tides here are more regular, according to Charlevoix, than in other parts of the Mexican gulph; and the tide flows in 12 hours regularly. Penſacola hath often paſſed from the Spaniards to the French, and been fortified and diſmantled by turns, but was, at length, yielded by the latter to the former, and is now part of Florida.

The bay of St. Lewis, called by the Spaniards St. Bernard, is moſt weſtern on all this coaſt, is large and commodious. It was diſcovered, according to the French, by Monſ. de la Salle, a French gentleman, anno 1685, who landed and made a ſettlement, and built a fort there, and called it St. Lewis. This bay, however, muſt not be confounded with another ſmall one of the ſame name, which lies more eaſtward of this, over-againſt Pont-Chartrain. This ſettlement proved but of ſhort duration.

The places of note in Louiſiana, beſides thoſe we have already had occaſion to mention, are New Orleans, Pont-Chartrain, and Maurepas, about 10 or 12 leagues above the country of the Oumas, and 18 from the ſea, which yet may be ſailed, with a good wind, in 20 hours. The ſoil about it is rich and fertile, and the climate, in general, excellent.

Pont-Chartrain is chiefly noted for the lake of it's name, by which the French have found out a more ſafe and expeditious communication with the river Miſſiſſippi, to avoid the danger and difficulty of ſailing up that river by it's principal mouth. From this lake they enter into that of Maurepas, from which they go on, by means of the canal or river Iberville, into that of Miſſiſſippi. When that cannot be eaſily done, they carry their merchandizes by land from the bay, into the lake Pont-Chartrain, which diſcharges itſelf quite to the country of the Oumas, who are ſeated on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi, a little above New Orleans, and thence purſue their journey up that river, according to La Martiniere. If this be the caſe, it ſhews that this mouth and bay is not of ſo eaſy and quick paſſage to that town as father Charlevoix would inſinuate.

Remarks on Louisiana before the laſt war.

Under the articles British America, Canada, and Florida, we have ſhewed the nature and extent of thoſe colonies, and alſo of the dangers that may one day attend the vicinity of the two latter to the Britiſh colonies in North America.

That the boundaries of Louiſiana and Canada are very great, and yet very uncertain, is manifeſt from all the accounts the French have given of them. To what end can the limits of ſo extenſive a country, cloſe upon the back of all our colonies in North America, be left in ſuch a ſtate of uncertainty by the French, but with a view that, when the occaſion offers, they may become as near neighbours as they pleaſe to the Britiſh colonies, in order to take ſuch advantage therefrom as may beſt quadrate with their grand ſyſtem of commercial dominion in America? See British America. Is it not neceſſary, therefore, that the boundaries of the French, as well as thoſe of the Spaniards at Florida, ſhould be ſo juſtly ſettled and aſcertained, that no miſunderſtandings may thereby be occaſioned between the ſaid crowns? Have not the Spaniards, as well as the Engliſh, experienced what unjuſtifiable incroachments have been made by the other power in this part of America? Should not the late accounts which we have had from America, in relation to a very conſiderable illicit commerce ſaid to be carried on by the French, from the Miſſiſſippi to Mexico, alarm the Spaniards infinitely more than a little logwood-trade being carried on by the Engliſh in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, where the Engliſh have ſo apparent a right of trade? See the article Logwood. Will not a large contraband trade, carried on by the French from hence to Spaniſh America, proportionably injure the lawful trade carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch, by the way of Old Spain to New Spain? Is the neighbourhood of the French to the Spaniards upon the Miſſiſſippi leſs dangerous to the latter than to the Britiſh colonies? If the before-mentioned accounts from America ſhould prove true, does not an opportunity offer itſelf to the Engliſh and Dutch, to make ſome advantage of with the court of Madrid?

Is it not notorious, that the French, by virtue of their Louiſianian and Canadian ſettlements, have gained, and are ſtill endeavouring more and more to gain, ſuch an aſcendancy over the Indian nations in general, that may one day prove unſpeakably injurious, if not abſolutely deſtructive of the very being of the Britiſh colonies; provided the Indian affairs are not made as much the ſtudy of the Engliſh as of their politic competitors?

Nothing more manifeſts the wiſdom of the French meaſures purſued in North America than that, although there is hardly any ſingle neighbouring colony but what might ſoon become a match for all Canada alone, yet the French, by a proper management of their Indian Allies, keep all the Britiſh northern colonies, both in time of peace and war, in a conſtant alarm, dread, and apprehenſion of danger. But it is to be feared, that thoſe affairs have not been ſo clearly and faithfully repreſented in England as could be deſired by every true friend to the intereſts of this kingdom; for, had that been the caſe, it is not to be doubted but the moſt effectual meaſures would have been taken by the crown of Great-Britain, to prevent every kind of danger that might be reaſonably apprehended to attend thoſe colonies, which England has nurſed with ſo much tenderneſs, and with ſo great proſperity to thoſe colonies themſelves, as well as emolument to herſelf. And that the reciprocal ties of intereſts may be the more and more cemented between this kingdom and her American colonies in general, is a point which I have ſincerely laboured throughout this work; and, as the article before us affords me a freſh opportunity to purſue the ſame principles, I ſhall, with what brevity I can, ſubmit a ſummary of the beſt intelligence I have been able to collect in relation to the further ſecure poſſeſſion and the commercial proſperity of thoſe colonies.

The crown of England, it is certain, has not hitherto been ſparing in expence to cheriſh thoſe important plantations, in order to raiſe them to the pitch of ſplendor wherein we at preſent behold them; and, therefore, thoſe plantations themſelves ſhould not, nor do I believe they will, be at all lukewarm, now it is in their power, in regard to their own maintenance, ſafety, and felicity: they have, indeed, given teſtimony to the contrary, and the crown and parliament have not ſhewed any inſenſibility to their late laudable zeal; nor will they ever ſhew, we may preſume, any indifference towards their trading intereſts, when they are not repugnant to thoſe of their mother-ſtate.

The people of England are already ſufficiently incumbered with taxes, though it muſt be allowed that many wiſe meaſures have been taken to render the burden light and eaſy; and it is to be hoped, that the like conſiſtency of public meaſures will prevail, to render it lighter and lighter. The colonies themſelves, therefore, jointly, ſhould chearfully contribute towards whatever expence may attend the more effectual regulation of their trade and frontiers; for it is full time that they ſhould look to their ſecurity, and moſt unnatural to expect ever to hang on the breaſt of their mother-country.

Whatever pretences may be made, it is moſt certainly true, that the preſervation of the whole range of Britiſh colonies upon the continent of America depends in a great meaſure upon a proper regulation of the Six Indian Nations, and the ſecurity of the frontiers of New York, both to the northward and ſouthward. It has been, therefore, propoſed by thoſe who ſeem to be well acquainted with the intereſt of thoſe colonies, and to have their welfare and proſperity at heart,

1. That a good ſtrong regular fortification is abſolutely neceſſary to be erected, without delay, at Wood Creek, or near it, becauſe it is not impoſſible to bring great guns to bear againſt it from Crown-Point; from whence the French always pour in their parties upon our more northern colonies, in time of war. Here, alſo, it will be neceſſary to have a magazine of all kinds of warlike ſtores, both for the offenſive and defenſive, with ſnow ſhoes, ſmall hatchets, &c.— This will, in a great meaſure, protect the Britiſh poſſeſſions; and from thence a deſcent upon Canada, when occaſion ſhall require, may not be impracticable.

2. That

2. That ſuch fort be able to contain 500 men in time of war, and never leſs than 100 in time of peace.
3. That there be an addition of 200 independent companies, to the four already eſtabliſhed here, from the Highlands of Scotland; the wilder the better for a common garriſon there.
4. That all the lands from FORT NICHOLSON to FORT ANNE, that is, all the lands upon the CARRYING-PLACE, and thoſe adjacent, be ſet apart for the uſe of ſuch Highlanders only as will ſettle there, and to be properly aſſiſted in their ſettling for the firſt two or three years: to each man and his wife 100 acres, and to each ſingle perſon 50 acres, without fee or reward, to them and their heirs for ever.
5. That near this fort, at a proper diſtance, there be erected a ſmall BLOCK-HOUSE, ſufficient for 30 Indians, to be maintained there on conſtant pay, during a war, viz. five from each of the Six Nations, to be relieved and regulated in ſuch manner as the Six Nations themſelves think moſt proper.
6. That commiſſioners from all the colonies be appointed to meet annually at NEW YORK, or ALBANY, in order to ſettle their reſpective quota's towards the general expence, and for the erecting ſuch other forts and block-houſes as may be thought neceſſary.
7. That thoſe commiſſioners jointly be impowered to lay out lands (not already granted) moſt conveniently ſituated for a good frontier; and that theſe lands be laid out in townſhips, after the NEW ENGLAND manner, for a competent number of families, to be granted to them and their heirs, ten years at leaſt, clear of all taxes and quit-rents.
8. That in each townſhip there be erected a good ſtrong church, with loop holes, and a few field pieces, which may ſerve for a retreat upon occaſion.—That theſe townſhips ſhould not conſiſt wholly of Germans, or other foreigners *.

* 'Philadelphia may one day repent,' ſays our author, who ſeems to be a worthy, honeſt, old Britiſh ſoldier, 'the vaſt 'importation of thoſe people among them; they are moſt 'of them old ſoldiers. I have reaſon to know ſomething 'of their ſpirit, having had ſome hand in diſarming 600 'of them, upon account of a mutiny in this province; and 'it was my fortune to command ſome of them upon the 'expedition againſt Canada, in 1711. A ſociety of free-'men, as the Philadelphians are, abſolutely diſclaiming 'the uſe of arms, and, at the ſame time, encouraging the 'introduction of great numbers of old foreign ſoldiers, who 'hardly know what the word Liberty means, is a contraſt 'which they only can account for.' See the Importance of gaining and preſerving the Friendſhip of the Indians to the Britiſh intereſt conſidered.

9. That a ſtring of block-houſes be erected, ſo as to make the communication, or an alarm, from one garriſon, or block-houſe, to another, eaſy, by ſmoaks, properly diſpoſed, in the day-time; or by throwing up a number of rockets, or firing great guns in the night-time *.—Such an expedient would be of great uſe during the war, as the Indians never attack but by ſurprize, and would greatly diſcourage the parties of the Indian enemies, as it would keep our own garriſons upon the watch, and our out-ſcouts ſtrictly to their duty.

* I do not think it at all impracticable to convey an alarm from Albany to New York in one night, if rockets or great guns were properly diſpoſed and attended. Let us ſuppoſe, for example, a party of French and Indians abroad, which ſeldom happens without being diſcovered by ſome out-ſcout or other: upon diſcovery, if in the day-time, let there be one great ſmoak, and one great gun fired; which, if taken up by the other garriſons, I am confident that party would hardly proceed. In order to diſcover what courſe the party may take, let there be three ſmoaks, two pretty near to one another, and the third at a proper diſtance, either to the eaſtward or weſtward, &c. which will point out the courſe taken.—This may be improved.

10. That in each of the SIX NATIONS there be built a fort of ſome kind or other, where, and in what manner, that particular nation ſhall beſt approve.
11. That in the ONONDAGO country, where their general councils are held, and the archives of the Six Nations are preſerved, ſomething more than common be erected: this will do honour to the Britiſh nation, and greatly encourage the Indians, eſpecially in time of war; and while their old men, women, and children, are ſecure in a fort, with a ſmall party of Chriſtians, their excurſions will be more free and frequent: but this ſecurity ought to be left altogether to their own choice; whether by erecting one ſingle fortification for the retreat of the whole (the SENECAS I ſhould chuſe, being a fine country, where great encouragement ought to be given to ſettlers, and where the Indians are leſs tainted with Chriſtian vices) or whether each nation ſhould have their proper retreat, or ſecurity.

What has hitherto prevented our Indians in their excurſions againſt the enemy is, in my humble opinion, in a great meaſure owing to the apprehenſions of having their cattles cut off in their abſence; they have been often threatened, and, indeed, at preſent, they have nothing to truſt to but their heels. And nothing has prevented the attempt, but the reſolutions of the CACHNAWAGES, their principal fighters (but deſerters from our MOHAWKS) not to ſpill the blood of their relations and countrymen.

And the ſame natural affection has prevented our Indians from doing, what I am confident they would have done, had they been ſure not to have met with their friends and countrymen, the CACHNAWAGES. Proper methods, therefore, ought to be taken to recover thoſe Indians; which, I conceive, is very far from impracticable.

The villainous treatment thoſe people have met with at ALBANY, from the handlers, was the original cauſe of that deſertion: and undoubtedly, for the ſame reaſons, many more do, and will deſert, if proper remedies are not ſpeedily applied.

For this purpoſe it is requiſite to obſerve, that, without a proper REGULATION OF THE TRADE BETWEEN THE INDIANS AND THE ENGLISH, ALL OTHER ENDEAVOURS ON THE SIDE OF THE LATTER, TO GAIN AND PRESERVE THE FRIENDSHIP OF THE FORMER, WILL AVAIL BUT LITTLE. I ſhall not, at preſent, enter into a detail of the GREAT INJURIES DONE BY THE ENGLISH TO THE INDIANS, IN THEIR INTERCOURSE OF COMMERCE: certain it is, that theſe poor people have, for many years, been under the direction of the people of ALBANY, whoſe intereſt it was TO DECEIVE AND DEFRAUD THEM; and, that they have been deceived and defrauded, is too notorious to be gainſaid: inſtances in abundance might be produced, but they are really too ſhocking to relate. Nor is this any new thing, as appears from the following preamble to an act of parliament of the 13th of queen Anne.—But I have not heard of any act of the like kind ſince, though the miſchief has been daily increaſing.

'Whereas great endeavours have, from time to time, been 'uſed by her majeſty's governors and commanders in chief of 'this colony, to ſettle a trade, and to have commerce with 'ſuch Indian nations as live beyond our five confederated na-'tions; which, in proceſs of time, might not only be very 'advantageous, but alſo of great ſecurity to the frontiers of 'this colony, at or near Albany, in time of war; and ſeve-'ral of the ſaid Indians being lately come to the city of Al-'bany, in order to trade with the inhabitants thereof; but 'ſeveral private perſons, not regarding the ſafety of this colo-'ny, but only deſigning their own private lucre, have, and 'do daily, uſe many indirect means to ENGROSS THE TRADE 'INTO THEIR HANDS, by their contrivance with thoſe who 'are employed by the ſaid Indians to carry them in their wag-'gons to Albany; and, having once gotten the peltry, bea-'vers, or other furrs of the ſaid Indians, in their poſſeſſion, 'hinder them to make the beſt of their market, to the ruin 'of the ſaid trade, and the ALIENATION OF THE AFFEC-'TIONS OF THE SAID INDIANS FROM THIS COLONY; and, 'inſtead of ſecuring the friendſhip of the ſaid Indians, will, 'if not prevented, cauſe them to be our enemies, &c.' This act to continue for two years.

The chief principles to be laid down in the management of our Indians are, firſt, by all means to endeavour to underſell the French: and the next is to do juſtice to the Indians in thoſe ſales. For which reaſon, I ſhould adviſe that this trade, inſtead of being wholly under the direction of the people of Albany, who are moſt of them, if not altogether, traders or handlers, and whoſe intereſt it is to take all advantages of thoſe poor people, and that with impunity, as they have no body to complain to, the principal directors being all traders themſelves, and, of courſe, Socii criminis.

2. That it be put under the direction of one ſingle perſon of capacity and integrity, of his majeſty's appointment, during good behaviour, with a handſome allowance, in the nature of a SUPERINTENDENT OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, with full powers to do ſummary juſtice upon all occaſions.
3. That he be debarred trading directly or indirectly, upon the ſevereſt penalties.
4. That he take his inſtructions from the governor and council; and report to them, at leaſt twice a year, a ſtate of our Indian affairs, in order to be laid before his majeſty or the board of trade.
5. That he be obliged to make a tour through the SIX NATIONS, once a year at leaſt, with a proper equipage, and ſome ſmall preſents for the chief men; when and where he may receive complaints, and redreſs grievances.
6. In order to ſave the crown the expence of ſuch an officer, it may be adviſeable, that, as there are two ſurveyors-general of the cuſtoms upon this continent, at an allowance of a guinea a day, and 60l. ſterling yearly, each of them, for a clerk, upon the demiſe of either, that officer be ſet apart for this uſe: one ſurveyor-general being ſufficient here for all the purpoſes of the cuſtoms, thoſe officers being rather in the nature of preventive officers, that is, their chief buſineſs is to prevent any European goods being imported from any part but from Great-Britain and Ireland, and to prevent the exportation of any of the enumerated commodities to any parts but to Great-Britain, &c. There are no revenues collected by the officers here, nor no accounts worth mentioning to comptroll: ſo that it ſeems, that one of thoſe officers at leaſt, may be very well ſpared for the above purpoſes, and much better employed.
7. That there be a handſome allowance made for two interpreters at leaſt; one, indeed, for each nation, I ſhould not think too much, and one of them always to attend the principal officer.

8. That

8. That there be a ſmith * appointed by the principal officer, with a proper allowance, in each nation, with two apprentices, in order to multiply interpreters; for want of which, I doubt, we have often been miſled and impoſed on; and, if thoſe ſmiths were obliged to teach one or two Indian youths of the beſt capacities to read and write Engliſh, it might be of no ſmall ſervice, as nothing is more wanted than honeſt interpreters.

* This is the moſt uſeful mechanic than can be among the Indians, eſpecially a gunſmith to keep their arms conſtantly in good order, their whole ſubſiſtence and traffic depending on hunting and ſhooting.

9. That every perſon, employed by the public in this ſervice be prohibited trading, directly or indirectly, under ſevere penalties, and give ſecurity for the due execution of his duty; and to be on oath obliged to repreſent faithfully, every grievance which, he conceives, the Indians meet with from the traders. As monopolies in general are the bane of trade, this commerce ſhould be open and free for all his majeſty's ſubjects; by which means a number of buſh-lopers, as the Dutch call them, and the French, who are indefatigable in this point, coureurs de bois, are created; a ſet of men, who, from their acquaintance with the woods and Indians, are importantly uſeful upon many occaſions, eſpecially, in time of war.

10. That there be lodged in the hands of every ſmith, or agent for that purpoſe, Indian goods, to the value of l. always by them, which they are to diſpoſe of for the uſe of the public, according to invoices from New York, fixing the prices of the goods, as well as of the furrs and ſkins, and by no means to exact further upon the Indians. This is the method, and the only method, I humbly conceive, by which we can underſell the French, and will prove a means to regulate the whole Indian trade: and this is the method taken in the government of New-England, which is in the following manner, viz.

By an act of 12 Geo. I. it is enacted, 'That proviſions, 'cloathing, &c. ſuitable for carrying on a trade with the 'Indians, not exceeding the value of 4000 l. be procured 'at the coſt and charge of the province, and the produce ap'plied for ſupplying the Indians, by ſuch perſons as ſhall be 'annually choſen, &c. and likewiſe annually produce fair ac'counts of their proceedings; which ſupplies ſhall be lodged 'to the eaſtward, at, &c.

'That a ſuitable perſon be choſen annually at each of the 'places where any of the goods, &c. are lodged, which 'truck-maſters ſhall be under oath, and give ſufficient ſecu'rity for the faithful diſcharge of that truſt, and ſuch in'ſtructions as they ſhall receive from time to time: and 'ſhall keep fair accounts of their trade, and dealings with 'the Indians, and ſhall return the ſame, together with the 'produce, to the perſon or perſons who ſhall be appointed to 'ſupply them with goods. And they ſhall not trade with 'the Indians, directly or indirectly. That the truck-maſ'ters ſell to the Indians at the price ſet in the invoices ſent 'them from time to time, without any advance thereon; 'and ſhall allow the Indians for their furrs, and other goods, 'as the markets ſhall be at Boſton, according to the lateſt 'advices from the perſon or perſons that ſhall ſupply them 'for the ſame commodities of equal goodneſs.

'Rum to be given to the Indians in moderate quantities, by 'the truck-maſters only.

'No perſon whatſoever, other than the truck-maſters, and 'they only as ſuch, ſhall or may preſume by themſelves, or 'any other for them, directly or indirectly, to ſell, truck, 'barter, or exchange, with any Indian or Indians, any wares, 'merchandizes, or proviſions, within ſix miles of any 'truck-houſe, &c. on penalty of forfeiting 50 l. or ſix 'months impriſonment.'

From hence I have only to obſerve, that, had our Indian trade been under ſuch a regulation, or indeed any regulation at all, we ſhould have leſs to apprehend at this time of day; and it is certainly high time to make a beginning.

11. A grand fair yearly eſtabliſhed in the Six Nations, to be kept alternately, would be extremely uſeful; to begin firſt in the ONONDAGO country, the next year in the SENECA country, &c. of which all the nations, far and near, may have due notice; and where the ſuperintendant, or inſpector-general before humbly propoſed, ſhould always attend: and, the prices of goods being fixed from the lateſt invoices from NEW YORK, it would be a great inducement to the diſtant nations of Indians, as well as our own, to purchaſe, and would at the ſame time be a check upon the handlers at OSWEGO, as well as elſewhere.

One eſſential article in our trade with the Indians, and upon which, in a great meaſure, the whole depends, has been hitherto much neglected on our part; and that is, from us they have the cheapeſt Engliſh arms and ammunition, and of courſe the worſt upon the face of the earth: the French take the utmoſt care to ſupply them with what is really good, and at a cheaper rate than we can afford the beſt of ours: by which means, I doubt, they will ever be able to underſell us in that eſſential article, unleſs ſome effectual methods are fallen upon to prevent it. The French purchaſe Indian goods both in Holland and in England for thoſe very Indians. Or, why might not thoſe colonies manufacture their own powder in the MOHAWK's country, where ſaltpetre may be had in abundance, from thoſe vaſt beds of pigeon's-dung? In ſhort, the Indians muſt have good powder and arms; and, where the beſt is, there they will go; and, according to the preſent ſituation of things, they will depend upon the French for it. Could we get the better of this one article, all that attachment and intercourſe our Indians have at preſent with CANADA, would, I am confident, ſoon be at an end.—This is a matter well deſerving conſideration.

12. That inſtead of ſupporting this trade by way of licence, which has hitherto been but oddly managed, there be a duty, applicable only to Indian affairs, and thrown into the joint ſtock, upon all Indian goods exported hither by land or water; and likewiſe upon all furrs and ſkins imported, under the direction of the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms; thoſe, appointed by the country, have generally more regard to their friends than their duty. This has been formerly practiſed, and, it is humbly conceived, will anſwer every purpoſe much better.

As this affair will create a yearly expence, ſuch as no one colony can well bear, let there be a ſcheme prepared for each colony's paying their proportion. Moſt certain it is, as before obſerved, that, if ever NEW YORK, ALBANY, and HUDSON's river, ſhould get into other hands, every other colony would ſoon follow; and, while that is ſecure, all the more northern colonies will be ſo too. If what has been ſaid ſhould appear true, is it poſſible to doubt but that they will readily comply? In anſwer to that trite objection, viz. as we have all the trade to this part [meaning NEW YORK and ALBANY] we ought to be at all the expence: in God's name, let each contributing colony have it's townſhip upon the frontiers, with proper magazines, and one or more trading houſes, and a ſloop, and make the moſt of it.

The names of the provinces that form the republic of Holland, with their ſeveral rates towards the yearly expence of the government, according to the proportion of 100 guilders, and the order in which their deputies to the ſtates general vote, are as follows:

	Guil.	Stiv.	Den.
Guelderland, with the county of Zutphen	5	12	3
Holland, with Weſt Frieſland or North Holland	58	6	2½
Zealand	9	3	8
Utrecht	5	16	5
Frieſland	11	13	2
Overyſſel	3	11	5
Groningen, with the Omlands	5	16	7½
	100	00	0

(This may ſerve for ſomething of a model.)

The people of New York have been at an infinite expence upon the whole, from the beginning, in fortifying, and in preſents to the Indians, with very little aſſiſtance from their neighbour colonies; a charge which that province is hardly able to bear, and moſt unreaſonable, as every other colony upon the continent is, in ſome degree or other, concerned in the preſervation of the friendſhip of the Indians, and the ſecurity of our frontiers. This, however, has been but palliating matters, and doing things by halves: whenever the colonies think fit to join, the Indian affairs will wear quite another aſpect. The very name of ſuch an happy confederacy will greatly encourage our Indians, ſtrike terror into the French, and be a means to prevent their inſupportable inſults and incroachments, which they daily make with impunity.

A long ſeries of ill uſage from the traders has given the Indians but a very indifferent opinion of our morals; and of late, from ſeveral abortive expeditions, they begin, I doubt, to ſuſpect our courage; than which, nothing can more affect our intereſt with them. They of themſelves are honeſt, ſuch at leaſt as have not been debauched by the Chriſtians, and brave in their way, and deſpiſe knaves and cowards. It will, therefore, require ſome addreſs, and not a little expence to recover our character.

If all this is to no purpoſe, and that they will ſtand out, let us not deſpair, but that, upon a proper repreſentation to his majeſty, of the abſolute impoſſibility for this colony alone to bear the expence of ſettling and preſerving our Indian affairs upon ſuch a footing as they really ought to be, his majeſty, from his wonted goodneſs, will undoubtedly, not only aſſiſt them himſelf, but oblige the other colonies to aſſiſt them; in proof of which paternal care, give me leave here to inſert ſome of his inſtructions to the late governor Montgomerie in 1727, upon this very occaſion.

Inſtruction 83. 'Whereas it has been thought requiſite, that 'the general ſecurity of our plantations upon the continent 'of America be provided for by a contribution, in proportion 'to the reſpective abilities of each plantation: and whereas 'the northern frontiers of the province of New York, being 'moſt expoſed to an enemy, do require an extraordinary

'charge

'charge for the erecting and maintaining of forts neceſſary 'for the defence thereof: and whereas orders were given by 'king William III. for the advancing 500 l. ſterling, to- 'wards a fort in the ONONDAGO country, and of 2000 l. 'ſterling, towards building the forts at ALBANY and SCHE- 'NECTADY; and likewiſe by letters under his royal ſign 'manual, directed to the governors of divers of the planta- 'tions, to recommend to the councils and general aſſemblies 'of the ſaid plantations, that they reſpectively furniſh a pro- 'portionable ſum towards the fortifications on the northern 'frontiers of our ſaid province of New York, viz.

RHODE ISLAND and PROVIDENCE.

Plantations l.	150
'CONNECTICUT	450
'PENSYLVANIA	350
'MARYLAND	650
'VIRGINIA	900
Making together	2500

'And whereas we have thought fit to direct, that you alſo 'ſignify to our province of NOVA CÆSAREA, or NEW 'JERSEY, that the ſums which we have at preſent thought 'fit to be contributed by them, if not already done, in pro- 'portion to what has been directed, to be ſupplied by our 'other plantations as aforeſaid, are 250 l. ſterling for the di- 'viſion of EAST NEW JERSEY, and 250 l. ſterling for the 'diviſion of WEST NEW JERSEY: you are, therefore, to 'inform yourſelf what has been done therein, and what re- 'mains further to be done, and to ſend an account thereof 'to us, and to our commiſſioners for trade and plantations, 'as aforeſaid.

'84. And you are alſo, in our name, inſtantly to recom- 'mend to our council, and the general aſſembly of our ſaid 'province of NEW YORK, that they exert the utmoſt of 'their power, in providing, without delay, what further 'ſhall be requiſite for preparing, erecting, and maintaining 'of ſuch forts in all parts of that province, as you and they 'ſhall agree upon.

'85. And you are likewiſe to ſignify to our ſaid council, 'and the ſaid general aſſembly, that for further encourage- 'ment, that beſides the contributions to be made towards 'the raiſing and maintaining of forts and fortifications on 'that frontier as above-mentioned, it is our will and plea- 'ſure, in caſe the ſaid frontier be at any time invaded by an 'enemy, the neighbouring colonies and plantations upon 'the continent ſhall make good, in men, or money in lieu 'thereof, their quota of aſſiſtance, according to the follow- 'ing repartition, viz.

	Men.
'MASSACHUSET'S BAY	350
'NEW HAMPSHIRE	40
'RHODE ISLAND	48
'CONNECTICUT	120
'NEW YORK	200
'EAST NEW JERSEY	60
'WEST NEW JERSEY	60
'PENSYLVANIA	80
'MARYLAND	160
'VIRGINIA	240
Making together	1358

'Purſuant whereunto you are, as occaſion requires, to call 'for the ſame; and, in caſe of any invaſion upon the 'neighbouring plantations, you are, upon application of the 'reſpective governors thereof, to be aiding and aſſiſting to 'them in the beſt manner you, and as the condition of your 'government will permit.'

As to this inſtruction, his majeſty, I doubt, has not been thoroughly informed, becauſe, upon an invaſion, conſider- ing the diſtance and dilatorineſs of aſſemblies, the miſchief, in all probability, would be over before we could have any aſſiſtance. I ſhould, therefore, think it adviſeable, that thoſe proportions be immediately detached to the frontiers, upon the firſt news of a war; there to remain, and to be re- cruited during the war, at the expence of the ſaid colonies. I ſhudder, continues the author, to think what would have been the fate of ALBANY, had not theſe troops, deſigned againſt CANADA, been accidentally there; more eſpeci- ally as the people of ALBANY, at that time, where afflict- ed with an epidemical diſtemper, which carried off great numbers.

From hence his majeſty's care is apparent; and why thoſe in- ſtructions have not been hitherto duly obſerved, is what I ſhall not take upon me to determine: I cannot, however, help thinking, that, from upwards of forty years obſerva- tions upon the conduct of our colony aſſemblies, and the little regard paid by them to the royal inſtructions; if it is left altogether to them, the whole will end in words and alterca- tion only. By the above inſtructions it appears, that his ma- jeſty has been fully apprized of the conſequences of leaving this colony unguarded, as well as of it's inability to anſwer his moſt gracious intentions.

I ſhould therefore adviſe, that the quota's be doubled; which they can now very well bear, and both the CAROLINA's added, and the whole inforced by an act of the Britiſh legiſlature. In that caſe, if this ſcheme, or ſomething ſimilar to it (as I am very far from thinking but that it will admit of many im- provements, and for that purpoſe it is offered) is duly exe- cuted; I will venture to propheſy, that, in a few years the whole furr-trade will be in Britiſh hands, and that the furr- trade company in CANADA will ſink, upon which the very being of that company depends.

I have only further, adds this honeſt gentleman, with great ſubmiſſion to adviſe, that the meeting of the Indians be alter- nate, one year at New York, which will add but very little to the expence, and where the commiſſioners from thoſe con- tributing colonies may more conveniently attend; and where, it is to be hoped, the Indians may receive ſome better im- preſſions of our people than they have hitherto done at AL- BANY; the next year any where but at ALBANY or SCHE- NECTADY: that the preſents made to the Indians upon thoſe occaſions, as ſoon as viewed, and divided by the particular nations, be packed up again, in ſuch manner as may make the carriage the eaſieſt, of which they themſelves will be the beſt judges, and locked up, and the keys to be delivered to the principal SACHEM of each nation, and not to be opened 'till they arrive in their own country: for I believe I may venture to affirm, that the greateſt part of thoſe preſents, made them upon theſe ſolemn occaſions, ſeldom go further than ALBANY or SCHENECTADY, but are bought up by the handlers for rum, and afterwards ſold to the Indians, when drunk, at an exorbitant rate: I would propoſe this method, being well aſſured there is no law can be contrived, or oath framed, to bind a handler.

As to our ſouthern frontiers, the city, &c. I mean of NEW YORK, let thoſe be altogether under the direction, and at the expence of the colony of NEW YORK, hoping withal, his majeſty will be graciouſly pleaſed to favour them with a ſmall detachment of gunners, and one engineer, for a time at leaſt, together with ſome artillery and ammunition. Large ſums have been expended, or rather ſquandered away, on this ac- count, by the country, to very little purpoſe. Let there be two batteries erected at the NARROWS, one on each ſide, in proper places, and with breaſt-works only; any fortifica- tions there may fall into the enemy's hands, and have bad conſequences. Theſe batteries ſhould be under the care of the adjoining counties; that on the eaſt ſide under the care of the regiment of King's County, and that on the weſt ſide under the care of the regiment of Richmond County.

Our utmoſt endeavours muſt be, in the firſt place, to prevent the enemy's landing; and alſo, in the next place, to prevent a bombardment. For this purpoſe it may be neceſſary to view the coaſt below the two firſt batteries. Should an ene- my land at or near NEW UTRECHT, the march is eaſy, even with cannon, from thence to the ferry, of which we ſhould ſoon feel the effects. Low batteries, as I would have all thoſe to be, even with the water if poſſible, at RED or YELLOW HOOK, will be a means to prevent a bombard ment, and the enemy's landing upon LONG ISLAND. A ſmall battery upon KENEDY's ISLAND may be of uſe. Let there be ſeveral ſmall batteries fixed round NUTTEN ISLAND, of heavy cannon, and it were to be wiſhed they were all ſuch; and one ſtrong intrenchment in the middle, for a number of troops.

At the eaſt end of the town a good battery will be neceſſary, as well as ſeveral along HUDSON's RIVER.

I would not have any of thoſe batteries exceed five guns, but to be placed the thicker: ſhips generally aim at one battery at a time; beſides, it is impoſſible to know where a ſhip may lie: in this caſe, it is odds but ſome of our batteries may take her up. Breaſt-works, with block-houſes, inſtead of ſtockadoes, would anſwer all purpoſes much better, be of much leſs ex- pence, and laſt longer.

As to the fort, and the lower batteries, they are altogether ill deſigned, and as badly executed; but as our late engineer has reported, to his excellency the governor, the failures, and the improvements that may be made, ſo as to reſiſt any ſud- den attack, we hope a matter of this conſequence will be no longer diſregarded.

It is a conſtant rule, that every detached work, however in- ſignificant in itſelf, ſhould have it's ammunition at hand, to be come at without difficulty or danger; one hundred weight at leaſt of powder to each gun.

The regiments of Suffolk, Queen's, and King's Counties, Richmond, and Weſtcheſter, will be force ſufficient to de- fend the city, if they can be brought together with regula- rity and certainty: to which, however, may be added the militia of Connecticut and Eſſex County. Let all the other counties bend their force towards the frontiers.

Beacons, or rather ſmokes, in the day-time, and rockets, or great guns, in the night, for this purpoſe, will be abſolutely neceſſary. It will be no great difficulty to carry an alarm to the caſt end of Long Iſland, to Richmond County, and Weſtcheſter, at the ſame time, in a very few hours; upon which, every man that keeps a horſe ought to make the beſt of his way to the city, and not to wait the forming into com-

Our ancient poſſeſſions in North America, between the ſea and mountains, appear from many ſurveys, as well as from all the maps and other accounts we have of them, to be, at a medium, about three degrees of longitude, or 140 miles broad, in a ſtrait line: and they extend from GEORGIA, in latitude 32°, to the BAY OF FUNDY, in latitude 45°, (which is much farther, both north and ſouth, than the lands appear to be of any great value) which makes 13 degrees difference of latitude, or 780 miles: this length, multiplied by the breadth 140, makes 109,200 ſquare miles. This is not above as much land as is contained in Britain and Ireland; which, by Templeman's ſurvey, make 105,634 ſquare miles. Inſtead of being as large as a great part of Europe, as we are commonly told, all the lands we poſſeſs in North America, between the ſea and mountains, do not amount to much more than theſe two iſlands. This appears farther, from the particular ſurveys of each of our colonies, as well as from this general eſtimate of the whole.

Of the extremity of theſe lands, both north and ſouth, which we poſſeſs, are very poor and barren, and produce little or nothing, at leaſt for Britain. It is only in our middle plantations, Virginia, Maryland, and Carolina, chiefly, where the lands produce any ſtaple commodities for this kingdom. In ſhort, it is only the more rich and fertile lands on and about Cheſapeak bay, with the ſwamps in the Carolina's, &c. like the lands on the Miſſiſſippi, that turn to any great account to this nation, in all NORTH AMERICA.

This makes the quantity of lands, that produce any ſtaple commodity for Britain in North America, incredibly ſmall, and vaſtly leſs than what is commonly imagined. It is reckoned, that there are more ſuch lands in Virginia, than in all the reſt of our colonies; and yet it appeared from the public records, about 26 years ago, that there was not more land patented in that colony, which is the oldeſt of any in all North America, than is in the county of Yorkſhire in England, to wit, 4684 ſquare miles; although the country was then ſettled to the mountains.

If we examine all our other colonies, there will appear to be as great a ſcarcity and want of good lands in them, at leaſt to anſwer the great end of colonies, the making of ſtaple commodities for Britain, and exportation. In a word, our colonies are already ſettled to the mountains, and have no lands, either to extend their ſettlements, as they increaſe and multiply, to keep up their plantations of ſtaple commodities, or to enlarge the Britiſh dominions, by the number of foreigners that remove to them, 'till they paſs thoſe mountains and ſettle on the MISSISSIPPI.

This ſcarcity of land in our colonies, proceeds from the mountains with which they are ſurrounded, and by which they are confined to this narrow tract, and a low vale along the ſea-ſide. The breadth of the continent, from the Atlantic ocean to the Miſſiſſippi, appears to be above 600 miles (of 60 to a degree) of which there is about 140 at a medium, or 150 at moſt, that lie between the ſea and mountains; and there is ſuch another and rather more fertile tract of level and improveable lands, about the ſame breadth, between the weſtern parts of thoſe mountains and the Miſſiſſippi: ſo that the mountainous country, which lies between theſe two, is equal to them both, and makes one half of all the lands between the MISSISSIPPI and ATLANTIC ocean; if we except a ſmall tract of a level champaign country upon the heads of the OHIO, which is poſſeſſed by the SIX NATIONS and their dependants. Theſe mountainous and barren deſerts, which lie immediately beyond our preſent ſettlements, are not only unfit for culture themſelves, and ſo inconvenient to navigation, whether to the ocean or to the Miſſiſſippi, that little or no uſe can be made of them; but they likewiſe preclude us from any acceſs to thoſe more fertile lands that lie beyond them, which would otherwiſe have been occupied long ago, but never can be ſettled, ſo at leaſt as to turn to any account to BRITAIN, without the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI; WHICH IS, AS IT WERE, THE OCEAN OF ALL THE INLAND PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA, BEYOND THE APALACHEAN MOUNTAINS, WITHOUT WHICH THOSE INLAND PARTS OF THAT CONTINENT CAN NEVER TURN TO ANY ACCOUNT TO THIS NATION.

It is our ſituation in NORTH AMERICA, that renders all that continent beyond our preſent ſettlements, of little or no uſe to theſe kingdoms, and makes the poſſeſſion of the MISSISSIPPI abſolutely neceſſary to reap the benefit of it.

How neceſſary ſuch ſettlements on the MISSISSIPPI may be, will farther appear from what we poſſeſs on this ſide of it. The lands in North America are, in the general, very poor and barren; and if any of them are more fertile, the ſoil is light and ſhallow, and ſoon worn out with culture. It is only the virgin fertility of freſh lands, ſuch as thoſe on the MISSISSIPPI, that can render this part of the world permanently advantageous to their mother country. Such lands in our colonies, that have hitherto produced their ſtaple commodities, are now pretty well exhauſted and worn out; and when their lands are worn out, neither the value of their commodities, nor the circumſtances of the planters, will admit of manuring them, at leaſt to any great advantage to this nation.

The ſtaple commodities of North America are ſo groſs and bulky, and of ſo ſmall value, that it generally takes one half of them to pay the freight, and other charges in ſending them to England; ſo that unleſs our planters have ſome advantage in making them, ſuch as cheap, rich, and freſh lands, they never can make any; their returns to England are then neglected, and the trade is gained by others who have theſe advantages, ſuch as thoſe who may be poſſeſſed of the Miſſiſſippi, or by the Germans, Ruſſians, Turks, &c. who have plenty of lands, and labour cheap: by which means they make more of our ſtaple of North America, TOBACCO, than we do ourſelves; while we cannot make their ſtaple of HEMP, FLAX, IRON, POT-ASH, &c. By that means our people are obliged to interfere with their mother-country, for want of the uſe of thoſe lands, of which there is ſuch plenty in North America, to produce theſe commodities that are ſo much wanted from thence.

The conſequences of this may be much more prejudicial to this nation, than is commonly apprehended. This trade of North America, whatever may be the income of it, conſiſts in thoſe groſs and bulky commodities, that are the chief and principal ſources of navigation; which maintain whole countries to make them, whole fleets to tranſport them, and numbers of people to manufacture them at home; on which account, this trade is more profitable to a nation, than the mines of Mexico and Peru. Though our fiſhery and ſugar trades are of great advantage to us, yet the tobacco trade alone employs more ſeamen in Britain, than either the fiſhery or the ſugar trade *; and brings in as much money to the nation, as moſt of the other products of all America at preſent.

* There were 4000 ſeamen employed in the tobacco trade in the year 1733, when that trade was under conſideration of the legiſlature; and we may at leaſt reckon them now 4500.
By the ſame accounts taken by the cuſtom-houſe officers, it appeared, that the number of Britiſh ſhips employed in all America, including the fiſhery, was 1400, with 17,000 ſeamen; beſides between 9 and 10,000 ſeamen belonging to North America, who are all ready to enter into the ſervice of Britain, on any emergency or encouragement. Of theſe there were but 4000 ſeamen employed in the fiſhery from Britain; and about as many, or 3600, in the ſugar trade. In ſhort, the trade of North America is the capital nurſery for Britiſh ſeamen, and muſt be rendered more and more ſo, as the great ſtaples of hemp, flax, iron, pot-aſh, ſilk, wine, indico, timber, pitch and tar, and every ſpecies of naval ſtores, &c. ſhall increaſe.

But thoſe commodities that afford theſe ſources of navigation, however valuable they may prove to the public, and this kingdom in particular, are far from being ſo to individuals: they are cheap, and of ſmall value, either to make or trade in; and for that reaſon they are neglected by private people, unleſs the public takes care to give them all due encouragement, and to ſet them about thoſe employments; for which purpoſe nothing can be more abſolutely neceſſary, than the proviſion of good and proper lands, ſuch as thoſe on the Miſſiſſippi; without which, our deſirable improvements in this part cannot be expected.

The many advantages of ſuch lands that produce a ſtaple for this nation in North America, are with difficulty duly repreſented. The whole intereſt of the nation in thoſe colonies depends upon them, if not the colonies themſelves. Such lands alone enable the colonies to take their manufactures and other neceſſaries from Great-Britain, to the mutual advantage of both. How neceſſary that may be, will appear from the ſtate of thoſe colonies in North America, which do not make one with another, as much as is ſufficient to ſupply them only with the neceſſary article of cloathing; not to mention the numerous other things they ſtand in need of, and take from their mother-country; and how they are enabled to pay, is ſome difficulty to reconcile. Our colonies in North America, have found it extremely difficult to make equivalent returns for what they take from us; and they would find it ſcarce poſſible to ſubſiſt much longer, if at all, in a ſtate of dependance for all their manufactures, and other neceſſaries, unleſs they are provided with other lands that may enable them to purchaſe them; and where they will find any ſuch lands, but upon the Miſſiſſippi, is more than we can tell.

When their lands are worn out, are poor and barren, or in an improper climate or ſituation, ſo that they will produce nothing to ſend to Britain, ſuch lands can only be converted into corn and paſture grounds; and the people in our colonies are thereby neceſſarily obliged, for a bare ſubſiſtence, to interfere with Britain, not only in manufactures, but the produce of their lands.

By this we may perceive the abſurdity of the popular outcry, that we have already LAND ENOUGH, and more than we can make uſe of in NORTH AMERICA. They who may be of that opinion ſhould ſhew us, where that land is to be found, and what it will produce, that may turn to any account

to the nation. Thoſe people derive their opinion from what they ſee in Europe, where the quantity of land that we poſſeſs in NORTH AMERICA will, no doubt, maintain a greater number of people than we have there. But they ſhould conſider, that thoſe people in Europe are not maintained by the planting of a bare raw commodity, with ſuch immenſe charges upon it, but by farming, manufactures, trade, and commerce; which they will ſoon reduce our colonies to, who would confine them to their preſent ſettlements, between the ſea-coaſt and the mountains that ſurround them.—For more matter, ſee our article MISSISSIPPI, our REMARKS thereon ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

LUBECKERS.

As of old time the common councils of the free and imperial city of Lubeck, and ſeveral other towns upon the North and Eaſt Seas, have been in union with divers towns of the United Provinces, for defence of the liberty of trade, and of the rights belonging thereunto: and as now the States-General of the United Provinces, together with the burgomaſters and common council of Lubeck, have found it convenient, in the preſent conjuncture, to treat about renewing the aforeſaid union and amity, by their reſpective deputies, who, after ſeveral conferences, and reports made, agreed upon the articles following:

I. That this union ſhall not be offenſive, but only for preſerving the freedom of commerce, &c. that the reſpective citizens and ſubjects of the union may enjoy the ſame without moleſtation, and mutually protect each other; ſo that the manifold difficulties detrimental to their common trade may be removed.

II. The union ſhall not, however, prejudice the friendſhip of the emperor, or holy empire, or of France and Great-Britain. And alſo the town of Lubeck is willing to remain in obedience to the emperor; and none of the leagues, rights, &c. they have together, ſhall be changed by theſe perſents, but remain in full power, ſalvo præſenti fœdere.

III. Thoſe of the union ſhall faithfully obſerve the articles, and confirm them by oath.

IV. The States-General ſhall manage this union to the beſt advantage of the common cauſe; but ſo as the common council of Lubeck may have a vote in all the deliberations; for which purpoſe, a perſon from that town ſhall always reſide at the Hague, or ſuch other place as the ſtates may meet at. And the States-General may depute ſome perſon to reſide at Lubeck: provided always, that, if any other of the Hanſe-Towns enter into the union, it may be determined, whether it may not be fit the ſaid deputy ſhould reſide elſewhere.

V. Thoſe of the union ſhall contribute to the charges to furniſh ſhips, foot and horſe, in ſuch manner as ſhall be neceſſary.

VI. And if thoſe who interrupt commerce and navigation, on being amicably required to deſiſt, refuſe, thoſe of the union ſhall defend themſelves vigorouſly againſt them.

VII. And, if war ſhould follow, thoſe of the union ſhall recall their ſubjects from the ſervice of the adverſe party, on pain of death and confiſcation of eſtates. Nor ſhall it be allowable to procure or ſend to the adverſe party money, troops, ſhips, &c. on pain of corporal puniſhment.

VIII. And if the adverſe party ſhould arreſt the ſubjects perſons, ſhips, &c. of thoſe of the union, or ſurprize them at ſea, orders ſhall be given to make reprizals, and mutually to aſſiſt each other on that occaſion.

IX. The ſhips of thoſe of the union may freely enter each other's harbours, to victual or refit, uſing no violence, and thankfully paying for what they take.

X. The ſubjects of the union ſhall, in all their countries, enjoy the privileges of a citizen, and even the right of ſucceſſion, without diſtinction of religion, as that is practiſed in the holy empire, ſo they ſubmit to the laws of the place.

XI. None of thoſe of the union ſhall enter into any treaty, without conſent of the others, nor do any thing prejudicial to the others, but mutually endeavour to maintain each other in poſſeſſion of their liberties and privileges.

XII. So that no truce nor peace ſhall be made with the enemy, but with common and reciprocal deliberation and conſent of all the members.

XIII. This league ſhall remain in force fifty years; which term, with common conſent, may be prolonged; but if, during the ſame, or when expired, any of the union receive damage by reaſon of it, they ſhall mutually aſſiſt each other againſt all perſons whatſoever.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or city, eſpecially any of the other Hanſe-Towns, deſire to enter into this union, they ſhall be received on reaſonable conditions. See HANSE-TOWNS.

In witneſs whereof, two copies of theſe preſents have been made, and confirmed by oath, and ſealed with the ſeals of the States-General, and town of Lubeck, and ſigned by their reſpective clerk and ſyndic, each party retaining one copy. Done in May 1613, and underwritten,

By order of the States-General,

Signed AERSSEN.

And by order of the honourable the common council of the town of Lubeck,

Signed MARTIN NORDAMUS,
Syndic of the Republic of Lubeck.

Duchy of LUXEMBURG, in the Auſtrian Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north by the biſhopric of Liege, a ſmall part of Limburg, and the territory of Strablo; on the eaſt by the country of Eyffel, and the electorate of Treves; on the ſouth by Lorrain, or rather now by French Luxemburg; and on the weſt it extends to the river Maes.

The climate here is mild and temperate; but the ſoil is not equally fruitful every where; but it abounds with game, as ſtags, deers, hares, &c. There are iron mines here, which furniſh almoſt all Germany with that metal.

Chief rivers are the Moſelle, Owitz, Sour, and Semoy.

LUXEMBURG is the capital of this province.

ARLON, ſituate near the ſpring-head of the river Semoy, was formerly a conſiderable place, very well peopled; but having ſuffered very much by the wars, and been diſmantled, it is now only a borough.

BASTOGNE, near the foreſt of Ardenne, is ſo well peopled, has ſuch a good trade, and is ſo well built, that the people of the country call it Paris in Ardenne; though it is conſiderably decayed from what it once was.

VIANDEN has a conſiderable trade in woollen cloths, with which they furniſh the whole province. There are alſo here a great many tanners. The adjacent hills produce ſome wine, pretty much like the Moſelle wine.

SAINT VIST has a good trade in cattle, and is the ſtaple town of the whoſe province, it lying in the great road to Liege, Cologne, Treves, and other cities in Germany.

GRAVE-MACHEREN is a ſmall, but a pretty town, the inhabitants of which have a good trade of Moſelle wine, which grows plentifully on the neighbouring hills.

LYONNOIS, in France. This government, or province, is bounded on the north by that part of Burgundy called Mâconnois; on the eaſt by the Saone and the Rhône, which part it from Breſſe and Dauphiné; on the ſouth by Vivarais and Velay; and, on the weſt, by the mountains of Auvergne.

This province is pretty fruitful in corn, wine, and fruit; it produces particularly excellent cheſtnuts.

It's chief rivers are the Rhône, Saone, and Loire, beſides ſeveral others of leſs note.

The trade carried on in this government is pretty conſiderable, and conſiſts chiefly in cheſtnuts, paper, fine toys, guns, muſkets, piſtols, and all ſorts of iron-works.

The capital city is LYONS, on the conflux of the Saone and the Rhône, and one of the fineſt and moſt conſiderable cities in Europe, for it's ſituation, extent, and riches, it carrying on a moſt flouriſhing trade.

THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, WITH RELATION TO THE FOLLOWING PARTICULARS, viz.

SOME LAWS CONCERNING LINENS. See article LINENS.

LINENS, chekered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, imported, after payment of the duties, are to be marked or ſtamped with a ſeal or mark, to denote the ſame. 10 Ann. c. 19. §. 67. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 14, 16.

——— Stamps or ſeals to be provided by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, which they may alter as occaſion requires.

——— Counterfeiting the ſtamps, felony.

——— People ſelling linen knowingly with ſuch counterfeit ſtamps, their aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants, are to forfeit 100l. and to ſtand in the pillory for two hours. 10 Ann. c. 19. §. 94. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 15.

——— If deſigned to be again exported; before ſhipping, notice muſt be given to the proper officer appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, when and where they are to be packed up, who is to take off the ſeals, and return an account of the kinds and quantities to the officer appointed to receive the ſame. 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 17.

LINENS IRISH, imported into this kingdom, may afterwards be exported to the Britiſh plantations in America, DUTY FREE. 3 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 2.

——— In SCOTLAND, expoſed to ſale, or deſigned to be exported, not marked with the ſtamp of a royal burgh, &c. penalty 5 s. per piece. 10 Ann. c. 12. §. 3.

——— Counterfeiting ſuch ſtamp, penalty 50l. or a year's impriſonment, if the offender prove inſolvent. 10 Ann. c. 21. §. 4.

——— Printed, ſtained, painted or dyed, &c. in Great-Britain, exported, the DRAWBACK and REGULATIONS of exportation. See the END OF LETTER D.

——— Britiſh and Iriſh, the bounty and regulations of exportation. See Ditto.

WITH RESPECT TO LOGWOOD.

LOGWOOD, alias blockwood, may be imported by any perſons, and freely uſed in dyeing. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 26. See the latter end of P. containing an abſtract of the laws relative to the PLANTATIONS.

M.

MACE. In the deſcription of the nutmeg, we have occaſionally mentioned this ſpice, which is the ſecond coat or covering of the kernel of that fruit. It is a thin and flat membranaceous ſubſtance, of an oleaginous nature, and of a yellowiſh colour. We meet with it in flakes of an inch or more in length, which are divided into a multitude of irregular ramifications; it is of an extremely ſmooth ſurface, and of a tolerable cloſe texture, yet friable, and very eaſily cut to pieces. It is of an extremely fragrant, aromatic, and agreeable ſmell, and of a pleaſant, but acrid and oleaginous taſte. It is to be choſen new, not dry, and of a fragant ſmell, tough, oleaginous, and of a good yellow. The people who collect the nutmeg fruit, cut it open and throw away the pulpy ſubſtance or external coat; they then ſee the mace covering the nutmeg, wrapping itſelf every way round it's outer woody ſhell. The mace is at this time of a red colour; they take it carefully off from the nutmeg, and lay it in the ſun for the whole day. In this time, it's colour, from a ſtrong blood-red, becomes duſky; it is after this carried to another place where the ſun has leſs power, and there expoſed again to it's rays the few hours they reach thither.

By this means it dries gently, and remains tough, and retains it's fragrancy and colour in a great degree; if it were dried more haſtily, it would be whitiſh, brittle, and would loſe much of it's ſmell. After this it is ſlightly ſprinkled over with ſea-water, and then put up into bales, in which it is preſſed down firm and cloſe, by way of preſerving it's fragrance and conſiſtence.

There is great caution to be had to the ſtate in which it is packed up, for, if it be too dry, it will be broke and loſe much of it's fragrance; and, on the other hand, if too moiſt, it will be ſubject to breed worms and other inſects.

Mace abounds with the ſame ſort of oil that is found in the nutmeg; but it is thinner in the mace, and is in a greater quantity. If the oil be ſeparated by diſtillation, what comes firſt over of it is thin and limpid like water, and is of the moſt fragrant ſmell; what follows this is yellowiſh and ſomewhat thicker; and, finally, a third kind comes over if the fire be made more violent, which is reddiſh; and all three of theſe are ſo ſubtile and volatile, that, if they are not kept in veſſels very cloſely ſtopped, they will in great part evaporate into the air, all their finer parts flying off. An oil may alſo be drawn from mace in the ſame manner as from the nutmeg, by expreſſion; it is afforded in a larger quantity this way than from the nutmeg, and is of a ſomewhat ſofter conſiſtence.

Mace is carminative, ſtomachic, and aſtringent; it poſſeſſes all the virtues of the nutmeg, but has it's aſtringency in a ſmaller degree. It affects the head in the ſame manner as the nutmeg, if taken in a large doſe, and people have become delirious for ſome hours, after an immoderate uſe of it. The oils of mace and nutmeg, whether prepared by diſtillation or by expreſſion, are ſo much of the ſame nature, that they may be indiſcriminately uſed for one another on all occaſions. They give eaſe in cholics, and often in nephritic caſes, taken internally from one drop to five or ſix of the diſtilled oil, or an equal quantity of the expreſſed; and, externally, they are of uſe to rub paralytic limbs; they alſo aſſiſt digeſtion, and will often ſtop vomitings and hiccoughs, only by being rubbed on the regions of the ſtomach. The nurſes have a cuſtom of applying oil of mace by expreſſion to children's navels to eaſe their gripes, and that often with ſucceſs; and we are aſſured by authors of credit, that, rubbed on the temples, it promotes ſleep. The oils by diſtillation are very properly added to the ſtronger cathartics in form of pills, and prove excellent correctives.

MACEDONIA; it's boundaries are Servia and Bulgaria on the north, Bulgaria and the Archipelago on the eaſt, Levadia on the ſouth, and Albania on the weſt. It is rich in divers mines of gold, abounds with corn, paſture, cattle, veniſon, and in ſome parts it produces wine and oil. Here are many rivers and mountains, but none very remarkable, except mount Athos.

The Turks divide it into three parts, viz. JAMBOLI, which extends, from the gulph of Salonichi on the ſouth, to the borders of Romania on the north-eaſt and north, having Macedonia Proper on the weſt, and the Archipelago on the eaſt.

MACEDONIA PROPER, has Jamboli on the eaſt, Comenolitari on the ſouth, Albania on the weſt, and Bulgaria on the north.

COMENOLITARI, is the moſt weſtern and ſouthern part of Macedonia.

SOLONICHI, or SALONICA, the metropolis of all Macedonia, and the ſeat of a Turkiſh præfect, ſtands at the bottom of a gulph, to which it gives it's name. It is 150 miles diſtant from Sofia in Bulgaria towards the ſouth, 260 from Conſtantinople to the weſt, 160 from the iſthmus of Corinth to the north-weſt, and 140 from the neareſt coaſt of the Adriatic Sea to the eaſt. In the neighbourhood of it, towards the weſt, runs the river Vardar, which abounds with fiſh, and the banks of which are adorned with beautiful trees.

MACHINE, in general, ſignifies any thing that ſerves to augment, or to regulate moving powers: or it may be defined any body deſtined to produce motion, ſo as to ſave either time or force.

Machines are divided into ſimple and compound.

Simple machines, are thoſe otherwiſe called mechanical powers. See MECHANICAL POWERS.

The ſimple machines are the balance, lever, pulley, wheel, wedge, and ſcrew; the compound are conſtituted of ſeveral ſimple ones combined together. The latter are innumerable, as well in their form as their application.

REMARKS.

The lower branches of manufacture, wherein the price is paid chiefly to labour, contribute moſt to the increaſe of labouring hands. The price of art riſes above mere labour, in proportion as genius is a ſcarcer commodity than ſtrength. Commercial ſtates regard an increaſe of riches as ſynonymous to an increaſe of power, though it be only a mark or ſign of it, and that not infallible. The following inſtance may ſerve to ſet the worth of ingenuity above bodily ſtrength in a full light, as well as to ſhew their different effects on numbers and real power.

In Ruſſia, they had no other way of making planks, 'till near the end of the laſt century, but by hewing or chipping away a whole tree to the neceſſary thickneſs; notwithſtanding which, they could afford to ſell them cheaper than their neighbours. Two Ruſſians might, poſſibly, with hard labour, finiſh a plank in a day in this inartificial way, in the ſame time, two common ſawyers could, with eaſe, cut out 20 good planks.—Without troubling ourſelves with the loſs of timber, if both are ſold at a neighbouring port for the ſame money, it is plain the Ruſſian muſt work for $\frac{1}{20}$ part of the ſawyer's wages: if a ſawyer in Sweden can get ten pence a day, the Ruſſian muſt be paid with one halfpenny. It is ſaid their renowned Czar, when in London, gave a hundred guineas for the picture of a favourite lady, finiſhed probably in the ſpace of a day. This ſum is more than one of his ſubjects would earn, in the above-mentioned way of hewing planks, by the labour of ſixty-nine years and fifteen days, or as much as fifty thouſand four hundred of them would gain in one day. Should the returns of two nations be equal, whilſt one traded in paintings alone, and the other in planks, hewed in this method, it is evident there muſt be fifty thouſand four hundred ſubjects in the latter, for every ſingle one in the former.

An increaſe of wealth may attend a decreaſe of numbers and real ſtrength, for which reaſon the balance of money is leſs to be regarded. The exports of our nation may, at preſent, exceed a million in the lower branches of bays, ſerges, druggets, and flannels, and this may employ a million of hands. In a courſe of years we will ſuppoſe this trade to be changed for that of wrought works, tapeſtry, painting, and ſtatuary, in which our exports might amount to two millions; for which a thouſand hands, full employed, would be more than ſufficient.

Here we ſee it poſſible that our wealth may be annually increaſed a million, whilſt our real ſtrength is decreaſed in the

proportion

proportion of a thouſand to one. There is nothing incompatible in the arts of ingenuity and thoſe of labour, and all the plainer trades may be retained, notwithſtanding the higher arts are introduced, in which caſe we ſhould be both a richer and greater people.

The above inſtances may bear a farther application; the carpenter, by the contrivance of the long ſaw, performs as much in a day, as twenty Ruſſians with the axe; but, beyond this, there are in Sweden a kind of mills turned by water, and ſo contrived, as to take in large trees on the upper ſide the ſtream, and deliver them out on the lower, ſawed into planks, in a few minutes. One of theſe mills will, at leaſt, make 500 planks, whilſt the poor Ruſſian could hew out a ſingle one, when the way of hewing was practiſed; ſo that it performs the buſineſs of 1000 Ruſſians, or 50 common ſawyers, in a day, with the attendance of a ſingle perſon.

If theſe two nations yearly brought to market an equal quantity of planks at the ſame price, they who uſed the method moſt artificial, would be leaſt numerous; but, as there would be a greater plenty of money in proportion to inhabitants here, they would to appearance be richer, in the ſame proportion as they were fewer. Apparent plenty of money is a ſtrong attractive. The conveniencies of life are generally plentiful, where money appears ſo. Perhaps the ſmaller nation may make up it's numbers equal to the other, by theſe temptations to invite ſtrangers. Ingenuity in one inſtance is never ſingle, the ſame genius will ſtrike out NEW TRADES, which invents compendious methods of performing the old ones, and new employments call for new hands.

The more ingenious nation will likewiſe ſtand the beſt chance to gain the whole market; for, beſides that MACHINES generally do the work truer and better than the hand, the labour ſaved by them is ſo very great, that, if the materials are equally plentiful, they who uſe the machine muſt underſell the others in a vaſt diſproportion. For, as in this inſtance, both are ſuppoſed to work only to live, proviſions can be in no part of the world dearer than another, in the proportion of 500 to 1. A larger quantity, wrought in a more compendious manner, may call for as many hands, as a leſs quantity in a way more laborious. All theſe conſiderations tend to make up their numbers, which will be richer, more improved, and more ingenious, either to defend or acquire; for ingenuity is generally an overmatch for ſtrength.

On the other hand it may be argued, that here, as in the mechanics, what we gain in expedition we loſe in ſtrength: it can never be that the foreign market, by the uſe of the MACHINE, or all the conſequences of ingenuity, can be ſo much increaſed as the home one is leſſened, or in the proportion of 500 to 1. Numbers of men are real power: an equal number of labourers are generally ſtronger than the ſame number of mechanics. A good writer of the preſent age explodes the uſe of machines, even of water-mills for grinding corn, L'Eſp. des Loix, vol. ii. p. 116, 117. The beſt conſtituted ſtates have reſtrained them by laws; by what appears from authors, the Romans uſed chiefly hand-mills, and, if we may judge from the ſilence of Ariſtotle, Pliny, and Seneca, machines were very few and ſimple, either amongſt the Greeks or Romans. Theſe arguments a little vindicate the abſurd policy of the old duke of Muſcovy, who, when a perſon offered him a project for towing up a barge with eighteen hands, which then employed an hundred and ten, ordered him immediately into baniſhment.

In ſuch a variety of reaſons, it is not eaſy to determine, to what degree the uſe of machines in general ſhould be admitted. States without commerce regard chiefly the increaſe of numbers and their home markets; and commercial ſtates are too apt to conſider wealth alone, and foreign markets. Without prejudice to either, machines or engines may be allowed in the following caſes.

1. When they do ſuch buſineſs as cannot be performed by hand at all. Of this kind are pumps, fire-engines, water-engines, looms, wine and oil-preſſes, hand-mills for grain, and perhaps horſe-mills.

2. Where the commodities wrought by them are ſuch as would not be uſed at all, except they were done by the machine, either being not cheap enough or not good enough for conſumption, when prepared by hand. Under this head are the mills for making paper, thoſe for forging, drawing, ſlitting, iron, copper, fulling of cloth and leather, and making gunpowder.

A people without commerce may ſafely refuſe to admit ſtocking-looms, ſawing-mills, throwing-engines, weaving or ſpinning-engines, mills for ſtriking files, cutting watch-wheels, making nails, and all the variety of inventions produced by a rivalſhip amongſt nations contending for commerce; and private men for orders.

Commercial ſtates muſt have their eyes on their neighbours, and, if they deſign to engroſs foreign markets, muſt provide for the cheapneſs of labour at home; goods muſt be made cheap to render them of general uſe abroad and at home. Engines for ſhortening buſineſs ought to be rejected, or not admitted in commercial ſtates; when the commodity is not at all ſold abroad, when it affects not the price of labour, when the machines would leſſen our home markets, more than increaſe our foreign ones. See the article LABOUR.

MADDER, is one of the long and ſmall roots, diſtinguiſhable from all the others by it's remarkable red colour and firm texture. It is brought to us in pieces of four, five, or more inches in length, but ſeldom in the thickeſt part exceeding the bigneſs of a gooſe quill. It's ſurface is wrinkled, with a number of furrows running principally in a longitudinal direction; it is light, though of a firm texture, and, for a root of that ſmall ſize, not eaſily cut. It's colour is a ſtrong but ſomewhat duſky red, both on the outſide and within, but ſomewhat brighteſt where freſh cut. It has very little ſmell, but it is of a very remarkable taſte, and diſtinguiſhes plainly in it a mixture of ſweet and bitter, and a very manifeſt aſtringency with this.

Madder is to be choſen in long and thick roots ſound throughout, hard to be broken in any part, and, when cut, of a good colour. It is not ſubject to adulterations, ſo that, if it be ſound and well dried, it is always good, unleſs it have been kept too long, and this is eaſily diſcovered by it's wanting taſte. Madder is cultivated in vaſt quantities in ſeveral parts of Holland; the Dutch ſupply all Europe with it, and make a vaſt advantage of the trade in it; it is very wonderful, that no other nation has attempted the cultivating it; there is no doubt but it would ſucceed very well in France, Germany, or with us, and much ground might be employed this way, to ten times the advantage that it is at preſent. What the Dutch ſend over for medicinal uſe is in the root, which is only dried and ſent over without any preparation; the greateſt quantity, however, is uſed by the dyers: this they uſually ſend in coarſe powder, ground in mills; they make two kinds of this ground madder, the one is the whole root ground, juſt as taken out of the earth and dried; the other is cleaned from the cortical part, which is of a duſkier colour than the reſt, and then ground to powder. This is diſtinguiſhed from the other, by it's being of a paler and more agreeable colour.

The plant which produces the rubia root is of the number of the tetandria monogynia of Linnæus, and one of the herbæ ſtellatæ of Mr. Ray. It grows to two feet high; it's ſtalks are ſquare and rough; it's leaves are oblong and narrow, and ſtand four at a joint in manner of a ſtar. It's flowers grow in cluſters at the upper part of the ſtalks, and are very ſmall, and of a pale yellowiſh-green colour; theſe are followed by a fruit conſiſting of two ſeeds. It has been deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the name of rubia ſativa, and rubia tinctorum.

The root is an attenuant, and has the credit of being a vulnerary of the firſt rank. It is at preſent given with ſucceſs in chronic caſes, where there are obſtructions of the viſcera. It promotes the menſes and urine, and is good in jaundices, dropſies, and obſtructions of the ſpleen. It's doſe is from five grains to fifteen, but it is ſeldom given ſingly. It frequently makes an ingredient in infuſions and decoctions, among other medicines of the ſame intention, and it gives theſe an elegant colour.

It is alſo uſed in great quantities by the dyers, for red and other colours.

MALT, is barley prepared, to fit it for making a potable liquor called beer or ale.

OBSERVATIONS on the manner of MALTING.

This ſubject is of large extent, and, if duly proſecuted, might tend to the enrichment of the preſent arts, or the diſcovery of new ones. For, on regulating the growth, and curing of vegetable productions, depends the perfection of corn, wines, malt, bread, ſugar, tobacco, ſpice, drugs, ſimples, dyeing ſtuffs, and the like. And new diſcoveries, either in vegetation, or curation of vegetables, might eaſily introduce new trades; as has been the caſe in ſugar, tobacco, wines, ſpirits, &c.

By experiments in vegetation, we here propoſe to ſhew the methods of regulating or conducting this natural power for the ſervice of arts, by directing it to anſwer particular ends. Thus, by ſtopping ſhort towards the beginning of vegetation in barley, we procure malt; and, by permitting the grapes to hang 'till they grow not only ripe, but almoſt dry, upon the vine, we procure rich ſweet wines. And thus we may ſtop vegetation at any period, or continue it longer than ordinary, according as the occaſions of different arts require.

By experiments in curation of vegetables, we have ſhewn the methods of collecting, preparing, and ſecuring vegetable commodities, ſo as that they may long remain ſound, perfect, and fit for ſervice. And thus our preſent deſign will conſiſt of two parts: the one relating to the ways of growing vegetables, according to the uſes for which they are intended; and the other to the gathering and preſerving them, ſo as to have them conſtantly ready at hand, when they come to be required in uſe.

The firſt experiment, therefore, is calculated to ſhew the method of ſtopping the natural proceſs of vegetation in the ſeed, ſo as to prepare grain, pulſe, nuts, maſt, and roots, for the making of beer, vinegar, and ſpirits. The ſecond is

is deſigned to ſhew the method of curing both fermented and unfermented vegetable juices, ſo as to make them keep ſound and good for ſeveral years. The third experiment tends to ſhew the method of curing vegetable juices by decoction, or inſpiſſation, for the ſervice of brewing and diſtilling.

A parcel of garden-beans being plucked up, after they had been ſuffered to lie in the ground about ſix weeks in the winter ſeaſon, each bean was found beginning to ſplit, or ſeparate, into it's two lobes; whilſt the radicle was ſhot out ſome inches downwards, and had begun to take root in the ground; the plume alſo, which becomes the ſtalk of the bean, being riſen to the height of two inches. In this ſtate a few, being dried over a clear fire, were found turned to a kind of bean-malt, that taſted ſweetiſh, but mealy betwixt the teeth, and diſſolved freely in warm water, ſo as to afford a wort fit for fermenting, with yeaſt, into a kind of beer or ale.

This experiment inſtructs us in the ordinary proceſs of malting, which, in the caſe of barley, is conformable hereto; and, in the caſe of malting Indian corn, is the proceſs itſelf.

In making malt from barley, the uſual method is to ſteep the grain in a ſufficient quantity of water for two or three days, 'till it ſwells, becomes plump, ſomewhat tender, and tinges the water of a bright brown, or reddiſh colour. Then, this water being drained away, the barley is removed from the ſteeping-ciſtern to the floor, where it is thrown into what they call the wet couch; that is, an even heap, riſing to the height of about two feet. In this wet couch the capital part of the operation is performed; for here the barley ſpontaneouſly heats and begins to grow, exactly in the ſame manner as in our preſent example of beans; ſhooting out firſt the radicle, and, if ſuffered to continue, then the plume, ſpire, or blade. But the proceſs is to be ſtopped ſhort at the eruption of the radicle, otherwiſe the malt would be ſpoiled. The way of ſtopping it, is to ſpread this wet couch thin over a large floor, and keep it turning once in four or five hours, for the ſpace of two days, laying it ſomewhat thicker each time. After this, the malt is again thrown in a large heap, and there ſuffered to grow ſenſibly hot to the hand, as it uſually will in twenty or thirty hours time; then, being ſpread abroad again and cooled, it is thrown upon the kiln, to be dried criſp without ſcorching.

This is the general proceſs of malting, wherein almoſt every malſter has his ſecret, or particular way of working. But, to render the operation perfect, the following cautions muſt be obſerved: (1.) That the barley be newly thraſhed, or at leaſt newly winnowed. (2.) That it be not mixed, or made up of different ſorts. (3.) That it be not over-ſteeped in the ciſtern, or ſo long as to make it ſoft. (4.) That it be well drained. (5.) That it be carefully looked after in the wet couch, ſo as to ſtop the firſt tendency of the blade to ſhooting. (6.) Another caution is, to turn the wet couch inſide outermoſt, if the barley comes, that it ſhoots more in the middle than on the ſides. (7.) To keep it duly turning after it is out of the wet couch. (8.) To give it the proper heating in the dry heap. (9.) To dry and criſp it thoroughly upon the kiln, but without a fierce fire, ſo as to be ſeveral days in drying a kiln of pale malt. And, if theſe directions be carefully obſerved, the malt will always be good.

The method of malting Indian corn, or Virginia wheat, is much leſs laborious. For, if this corn be buried two or three inches deep in the earth, and covered with the looſe mould, dug up to make room for it, in ten or twelve days time the corn will ſprout, and appear like a green field; at which time being taken up, and waſhed or fanned from it's dirt, it is immediately committed to the kiln, and by this means it becomes good malt, exactly as beans ſo treated would do.

It is obſervable of this corn, that both it's root and blade muſt ſhoot to a conſiderable length, before it will make malt. And, perhaps, this is the caſe, in all large-bodied grain and nuts.

Remarks.

It might be of ſervice to tranſer this eaſy experiment to the making of malt for barley, rice, and the other ſmall grains and ſeeds; but the attempt may be attended with difficulties, becauſe, in the making of malt, the barley muſt only be ſuffered to grow in it's root, and not in the blade; whence it would be difficult, at firſt, to hit the exact time for taking it out of the ground. And, again, as the grain is ſo ſmall, it might prove troubleſome to ſeparate it from the earth or mould. However, the thing may deſerve to be tried.

It is a conſideration of a higher nature to determine the phyſical effect procured by malting, and whether the end may not be obtained by cheaper and leſs laborious means. The phyſical difference betwixt malted and unmalted corn appears to be the production, or extrication of a ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance in the malt, which is wanting under that form in the corn. And it is this ſweet ſubſtance alone, which we require in malt for the making of beer, ale, vinegar, and inflammable ſpirits. But even unmalted corn, duly treated, may be made to afford beer, ale, vinegar, and ſpirits: this, therefore, may intimate to us a way of making ſuch liquors, without the formal extrication of any remarkably ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance. And, according to ſome trials, unmalted corn affords half the quantity of inflammable ſpirit by fermentation and diſtillation, as the ſame corn would do when malted. And, ſuppoſe that unmalted corn were to be made into a kind of dough or paſte, fermented with yeaſt, as is uſual for bread, and then baked, would not this be a cheap ſubſtitute for malting? They are ſaid to brew after this manner in ſome countries. At leaſt it deſerves to be tried, how much beer, ale, vinegar, and ſpirit, might be procured this way, compared with that other of malting.

On the other hand, if only a ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance be required in malt, are there not cheaper and eaſier ways of procuring it than by malting? Do not many trees afford ſuch a ſaccharine juice, by tapping in the ſpring, without prejudicing the trees? Is not young green corn itſelf remarkably ſweet; and does not this ſweet juice enter the compoſition of the ear, and there remain fixed, or almoſt loſt in a ſaccharine form, 'till recovered by malting? Here is a door opened for explaining the nature of ſweetneſs, and deducing the particular hiſtory of ſugar; which is a work, that, for it's uſefulneſs in trades and ordinary life, deſerves to be conſidered. And, 'till ſome conſiderable progreſs is made in a work of this kind, the art of malting, and all thoſe that depend upon it, will not arrive at perfection. See the article Sugar.

Thoſe who are diſpoſed to go upon the enquiry, may pleaſe to compare the art of ſtarch-making with that of malting; and particularly try, whether ſome conſiderable uſes might not be made of the refuſe liquors produced in both arts. The high-coloured liquor drained away in the ſteeping ciſtern is a vegetable tincture, that might, if not by itſelf, yet by being uſed inſtead of water to ground malt, be worth fermenting and diſtilling for ſpirit: and the ſtarch-makers refuſe liquors have been obſerved to contain a quantity of inflammable ſpirit.

Our preſent experiment may in this reſpect be made general, that it ſhews us there are different times of ſtopping, or preventing, the farther growth of vegetables, for the ſervice of arts. And this doctrine may be extended to the forming a ſett of general rules, for gathering the different parts of plants, at different ſeaſons of the year, for different uſes.

Thus roots, for inſtance, to be had perfect, ſhould be gathered and dried in the ſpring, before the leaves are formed; leaves ſhould be gathered, when they are fully opened, but before the flowers appear; flowers when they are not fully opened, and ſome, as red roſes, in the bud. Seeds are to be gathered when full ripe, and beginning to dry, before they fall ſpontaneouſly; and trees are generally beſt felled and ſlawed for their bark in the beginning of the ſpring. But all this is to be underſtood of the common uſes of the ſubjects; for there are many particular occaſions, which require them immature. Thus buckthorn-berries ſhould be ripe gathered, for making the ſyrup; but unripe, for making the painter's colour called ſap-green.

An Abstract of the acts of parliament which have been made in relation to Malt.

I. Malt imported from beyond the ſeas before the 24th of June yearly, forfeited, or the value. See the acts of 13 and 14 of Will. III. cap. 5. §. 27. and 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 1. cap. 2. §. 25, 28.—12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 3.—And the malt act yearly.

II. —— Made in Scotland, and brought into England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed,

By ſea, { Muſt be entered with the proper officer of the port, and the 6d. per buſhel paid before landing, unleſs certificates be produced that the 3d. per buſhel has been paid in Scotland; in which caſe only 3d muſt be paid, on forfeiture, or the value.

By land, { Muſt paſs through Berwick or Carliſle, and be there entered, and the like duty of 6d. or 3d. per buſhel paid in ready money, on forfeiture, or the value.

III. —— Brought by land beyond the ſaid towns, without entry, or payment of duty, forfeited, or the value. 11 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 6. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 10. And ſee the malt-act yearly.

IV. —— Exported, not to draw back the exciſe.—9 Geo. I. cap. 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 7. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 48. For the bounty and regulations of exportation, ſee the article Corn.

V. —— Barley, oats, or other grain unmalted, mixt therewith for exportation, the forfeiture is 5s. per buſhel.—1 Geo. I. cap. 2. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4.

VI. —— Entered and made for exportation only, not to be charged with exciſe. 13 and 14 Will. III. cap. 5. §. 22, 23, 24, 32. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 48.

VII. —— Deſigned to be made for exportation, previous notice muſt be given to the malt officer, of the quantity of corn intended to be continued in each ſteeping, and of the hour when it is deſigned to be taken off the kiln. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 49. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 16, 17.

VIII. ——Such corn to be kept ſeparate, upon forfeiture of 5 s. per buſhel; and each ſteeping to be kept ſeparate 'till meaſured, upon forfeiture of 50 l.—And ſee the malt-act yearly.

IX. —— When fit for exportation, muſt be meaſured, in the preſence of an officer, and carried directly on ſhip-board, or elſe locked up ſeparately, under the joint locks of the proprietor and officer, 'till delivered out for exportation, upon forfeiture of 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 51. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 17.—And ſee the malt-act yearly.

X. —— Locks or doors opened, or entrance made into the ſtorehouſe where ſecured, or any quantity of the malt conveyed away without the knowledge or conſent of the officer, the penalty is 100 l. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 18.—And ſee the malt-act yearly.

XI. —— Storehouſes to be cleared, and all the malt therein exported within every nine months after the beginning to make uſe of them, upon penalty of 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 57. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 19, 20.—And ſee the malt-act yearly.

XII. —— When deſigned to be removed for exportation, 40 hours previous notice muſt be given to the officer, that he may ſee the ſame meaſured and delivered out, and remain on board the veſſel 'till it is cleared out. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 5, 53, 55. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4.

XIII. —— The officer to give a certificate, directed to the officer at the place of exportation, expreſſing the quantity, maker's name and place. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 54.

XIV. —— Such certificate not delivered, forfeiture 50 l.

XV. —— When deſigned to be ſhipped, at leaſt 48 hours previous notice muſt be given to the officers, on forfeiture of 5 s. per buſhel. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 6. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 57.

XVI. —— During the time of ſhipping, when goods are not actually putting on board, the hatches muſt be locked down, with two locks to each hatch, one to be provided at the charge of, and to be kept by the proprietor, and the other by the officer: the hatches to be kept ſo locked down from the time of being fully loaded, 'till the time of ſailing out of port. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 56.

XVII. —— Makers, neglecting or refuſing to perform the requiſites of this act, forfeit 50 l.

XVIII. —— Oppoſing officers, or breaking the hatches locked down, penalty 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 58.

XIX. —— Makers to be allowed 3 d. per quarter, in conſideration of the charges of ſtorehouſes, meaſuring, &c. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 59.

An exciſe certificate for malt made for exportation.

No. 9.—Hants collection.—Southampton diviſion.—January 2, 1730.

Theſe are to certify whom it may concern, that Mr. A. B. of C. maltſter, did, between the 29th day of November and the 14th day of December 1730, enter one hundred and five quarters and one buſhel of barley [or other grain] and made the ſame into one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, for exportation; and that, on exportation thereof, the ſaid A. B. is, by virtue of an act of the 3d of George II. intitled to the bounty, or premium, of 2 s. 6 d. per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-ſeven quarters and four buſhels of malt, being according to the allowance of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, ſo malted for exportation: which ſaid allowance amounts to the ſum of 19 l. 13 s. 9 d.

D. E. Officer.

One of which certificates muſt be produced for every ſeparate parcel of malt ſhipped on each veſſel, and muſt be carefully examined by the collector and comptroller, and, if found to be interlined, obliterated, or erazed, muſt not be accepted; but, if regularly made out, muſt be preſerved, in order to be annexed to the debenture, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.

A debenture for malt.

As to the form of a debenture for malt exported, it will appear, by the following example *, that it is not much different from thoſe before preſcribed under the article CORN; but that which is to be particularly noted is, that the bounty for malt is not to be computed on the real quantity ſhipped off, as for all other corn, but † after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, as ſhall appear by a certificate from the officers with whom the corn or grain intended to be made into malt for exportation was entered; although, in the making of ſuch malt, the barley, or other grain, ſhould either be actually run out to a greater, or ſhould not be run out to ſo great a quantity, as is in proportion to thirty quarters of malt, for every twenty quarters of corn from which it was made.

* 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 91, &c.
† 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

The form of the debenture.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat A. B. That the malt herein mentioned is not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

14° die Januarii 1730, coram nobis,

B. C. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

Theſe are to certify, That I A. B. of Southampton, did, on the 10th day of January, 1730, enter for Rotterdam, on the ſhip Goodfellow of Hull, a Britiſh ſhip, whereof William Miller the maſter, and two-thirds of the mariners, are his majeſty's ſubjects, one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, Wincheſter meaſure, and that the price of malt, Wincheſter meaſure, in the port of Southampton, the laſt market-day, did not exceed twenty-four ſhillings per quarter.
Witneſs my hand, the 10th day of January, 1730.

A. B. ——

Juravit A. B. That the contents of the abovementioned certificate are true, coram nobis,

B. C. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

By a certificate produced to us from the proper officers of exciſe (which is hereunto annexed) it appears, that the aforeſaid one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt were made from one hundred and five quarters and one buſhel of barley, or other grain.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 50 l. that the malt abovementioned (the danger of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

And, by an act of the 3d of Geo. II. the ſaid A. B. is intitled to a bounty, or premium, of two ſhillings and ſixpence per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-ſeven quarters four buſhels of malt, being according to the rate of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, malted for exportation.

B. C. Collector,
C. D. Cuſtomer,
D. E. Comptroller.

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

The one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt abovementioned were ſhipped in the ſaid ſhip, the 12th day of January, 1730.
Certified the 14th of January, 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
G. H. Land-Waiter.

The veſſel abovementioned is Britiſh-built, the maſter and two-thirds of the mariners his majeſty's ſubjects.

H. J. Surveyor of the act of navigation.

On the back of the aforegoing malt debenture.

The bounty money to be paid for the malt within mentioned, amounts to nineteen pounds, thirteen ſhillings, and nine-pence - - -	l.	s.	d.
	19	13	9

B. C. Collector, C. D. Cuſtomer, D. E. Comptroller.

And, if the collector has not money in his hands ſufficient to pay the bounty, it muſt be certified to the commiſſioners, in like manner as for other corn.
And to theſe debentures muſt be annexed the exciſe certificate or certificates, from which the bodies of the debentures were filled up, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.
And when, for want of money, any corn-debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, before they are delivered to the exporters, they muſt be entered in a particular book, to be kept for that purpoſe, after the following form: and from thence muſt be tranſcribed a duplicate, in the ſame form, which muſt be ſigned by the collector and comptroller, and tranſmitted to the commiſſioners as often as any debentures are made out and certified, in order to be compared with the debentures when produced for payment.

Port of Southampton.

Corn-debentures certified to the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms.

When certified.	Date of debentures.	Exporter's name.	Ship's name. and place.	Maſter's name.	Whither bound.	Species of corn. Wheat. Q.	B.	Rye. Quart.	Barley. Q.	B.	Malt. Q.	B.	Bounty, or ſums certified. l.	s.	d.	When duplicates ſent to the commiſſioners.
1730 27 Jan.	1730 8 Jan.	Caleb White	Goodfellow of Hull.	W. Miller	Rotterdam	91	1	49	38	5			36	3	0¾	1730. 28 January

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

A bond for the exportation of malt.

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas, in purſuance of an act of parliament paſſed in the 3d year of his majeſty's reign, intitled, 'An act for continuing the duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry, in that part of Great-Britain called England, and for granting to his majeſty certain duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry, in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, for the ſervice of the year 1730; for exempting from the ſaid duties cyder and perry uſed for diſtilling; for aſcertaining the bounty for malt exported; for the better preventing fraud in the malting corn for exportation; for making good the deficiency of a late malt-act; and for giving further time to clerks and apprentices to pay duties omitted to be paid for their indentures and contracts:' the above-bounden Caleb White hath produced, unto the collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in the port of Southampton, a certificate from the office of Exciſe, certifying that the ſaid Caleb White did, between the 29th day of November and the 14th day of December, 1730, enter one hundred and five quarters and one buſhel of barley [or other grain] and made the ſame into one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, for exportation; and that, on exportation, the ſaid Caleb White is, by virtue of the aforeſaid act, intitled to the bounty, or premium, of two ſhillings and ſix-pence per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-ſeven quarters and four buſhels of malt, being according to the allowance of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, ſo malted for exportation: which ſaid allowance amounts to the ſum of nineteen pounds, thirteen ſhillings, and nine-pence.

And whereas the ſaid Caleb White hath entered for exportation the ſaid one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, on board the Goodfellow of Hull, Britiſh-built, whereof William Miller, the maſter, and two-thirds of the mariners, are Britiſh, bound for Rotterdam.

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That, if the ſaid one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, and every part thereof, ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas (the dangers of the ſeas excepted) and that the ſaid malt, or any part thereof, ſhall not be again landed in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey; then this preſent obligation to be void, and of none effect, or elſe to remain in full force and virtue.

But, for the greater eaſe of the exporters, by preventing any difficulties that they may lie under, by being obliged to give bond at the time of entry; it is thought that the intention of the law will be fully anſwered, though ſuch bond be not taken 'till after the malt is ſhipped; and then the bond may be taken in the following form:

A bond for the exportation of malt, to be taken after the ſhipping.

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Caleb White hath this day entered for exportation, with the collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in the port of Southampton, to be ſhipped on board the Goodfellow of Hull, whereof William Miller is maſter, now riding at an anchor in ———, and bound for Rotterdam, one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt.

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That, if the ſaid one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, and every part thereof (except ſo much thereof as ſhall be endorſed on the back of this bond, by the above-bounden Caleb White, and certified by the ſearcher not to have been ſhipped) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas (the danger of the ſeas excepted) and that the ſaid malt, or any part thereof, ſhall not be landed again in Great-Britain, or in the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey: that then this obligation ſhall be void and of none effect, or elſe remain in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

The form of the certificate to be produced, in order to diſcharge the aforementioned, and all other bonds, and the confirmation of the truth thereof, may be as follows:

We the under-written Britiſh merchants, reſiding at Rotterdam, do certify that there were landed, out of the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller maſter, ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, thirty-eight quarters five buſhels of barley, for the account of Caleb White, merchant in Southampton. In witneſs whereof, we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals. Dated in Rotterdam, the 17th of March, 1730, N. S.

Charles Wells *,
Joſeph Farrel *.

I know the above ſigning to be the hand-writing of Mr. Charles Wells of Rotterdam.

George Jones.

I know the above ſigning to be the hand-writing of Mr. Joſeph Farrel of Rotterdam.

Samuel Palmer.

And if, upon a careful and diligent examination, the collector is ſatisfied of the truth and reality of ſuch certificates, and of the credit of the perſons certifying, he may cancel the bonds taken at expiration, and forthwith deliver them up, noting the ſame on the certificate, as follows:

5th of April, 1731.
Cancelled the bond, by virtue of the above certificate.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

In the 26th year of the reign of his late majeſty Geo. II. an act was made for allowing intereſt upon certain debentures for the bounty granted on the exportation of corn, the ſubſtance of which is as follows, viz.

That whereas, by an act in the 1ſt year of Will. and Mar. for encouraging the exportation of corn, &c. [ſee the article CORN] every one who ſhall put on ſhip-board, in ſuch manner as by the ſaid act directed, any ſort of corn therein mentioned, with intent to export the ſame to parts beyond the ſea, and ſhall duly perform every requiſite therein required, as before ſhewn, ſhall have and receive of the commiſſioners, collectors, or other perſons appointed to collect the duties of cuſtoms, in any port where the ſame corn ſhall be ſo ſhipped, for every quarter of barley or malt, 2s. 6d. for every quarter of rye, 3s. 6d. for every quarter of wheat, 5s. which ſums the ſaid commiſſioners or collectors are authorized and required to pay to ſuch exporter, on demand: and whereas, by a clauſe in an act made in the 12th and 13th years of the reign of king William III. for granting an aid to his majeſty for defraying the expence of his navy, &c. it is enacted, That, if the collector of the cuſtoms of any port wherein corn ſhall be exported, ſhall not have ſufficient in his hands to pay ſuch ſums of money which ſhall be due to any exporter, by virtue of the ſaid act of Will. and Mar. ariſing out of the duties out of which it ought to be paid, upon demand, that then ſuch collector ſhall give the exporter, without fee or reward, a certificate under his hand of what is due to ſuch perſon for the corn, &c. exported; certifying to the cummiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London that he hath not monies in his hands to pay the ſame; which certificate being annexed to the debenture, and produced at London as aforeſaid, the ſaid commiſſioners of the cuſtoms there are authorized and required, on demand by the perſon that ſhall bring the ſame, to cauſe the monies thereby due to be paid in three months, by the general receiver or caſhier of the cuſtoms, &c. And

Whereas, by reaſon of the great quantity of corn which of late hath been exported, the revenue applicable to the payment of ſuch bounties, &c. hath not been ſufficient to pay all ſuch monies, and divers debentures for ſuch monies remain unpaid: now, for making a reaſonable compenſation for ſuch delay of payment, and to the end that the nation may continue to enjoy the benefits deſigned by the ſaid bounties, be it enacted, &c.

That if, after the 25th day of March, 1753, any debenture for the bounty on corn exported, payable as aforeſaid, ſhall remain unſatisfied more than ſix months next following the day when the ſame ſhall have been produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London, then, and in ſuch caſe, for the forbearance of ſuch money as, after the expiration of the

ſaid

aid ſix months, ſhall be due on ſuch debenture, intereſt, after the rate of three pounds per cent. per annum, ſhall be allowed to the proprietors thereof, his, her, or their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſuch intereſt money to be computed from the end of the ſaid ſix months, until the money due on ſuch debenture, together with ſuch intereſt, ſhall be paid, or until money ſufficient ſhall be received in the hands of the ſaid general receiver of the cuſtoms for that purpoſe, and proper notice ſhall be given thereof.

That ſuch to whom ſuch monies may be due, may not avail themſelves of their neglect to demand the ſame, it is further enacted, That, when money ſufficient ſhall be reſerved as aforeſaid, for payment of the principal and intereſt due on ſuch debentures, the ſaid general receiver ſhall give notice in writing, to be fixed on three or more doors of ſome public place or places in the Cuſtom-Houſe London, and to be adverti ſed in the London Gazette, that, on a certain day, to be limited in the ſaid notice, and on the four days next following ſuch day (ſo as ſix days, at the leaſt, intervene between the date of ſuch notice, and the day ſo limited, and ſo as Sundays and holidays be not included in the number of ſuch four days) he ſhall be ready to pay the principal and intereſt due on ſuch debentures; after the expiration of which five days, if the payment of ſuch principal and intereſt ſhall not be demanded purſuant to the ſaid notice, all intereſt on ſuch debenture ſhall ceaſe.

Provided always, that the principal monies due thereon, with ſuch intereſt as ſhall be likewiſe due thereupon, before the expiration of the time limited in the ſaid notice, ſhall be paid on demand, at any time afterwards.

And if there ſhall be, at any time thereafter, money in hand ſufficient to diſcharge the debentures, and notice be given thereof, the intereſt thereon ſhall ceaſe, &c.

Provided nevertheleſs, that the principal and intereſt be paid in courſe, without undue preference to any of the proprietors.

The day of preſentment to be indorſed on the certificate of debenture; and an order for the payment and intereſt to be ſigned by the commiſſioners, &c.

The payment to be made of the principal and intereſt without fee.

Debentures made aſſignable.

Where there is not money in hand to pay the bounty on corn exported from Scotland, a certificate to be granted. And

The debenture to be paid by the receiver-general in three months.

Such debentures, remaining unſatisfied for ſix months, to carry 3l. per cent. intereſt.

Notice to be given when the ſame are ready to be diſcharged, and intereſt to ceaſe from thence.

If there ſhall be, at any time thereafter, money in hand ſufficient to pay off the debentures, and notice be given thereof, the intereſt thereon ſhall ceaſe, &c.

Debentures in Scotland to be paid by the general receiver, and without undue preference.

MAN, [the ISLE of MAN,] lies between Britain and Ireland. It is, from north to ſouth, twenty-eight miles long, nine broad, and 160 ſquare miles. The ſoil is very fruitful, and produces ſuch ſtore of barley, wheat, rye, and oats, as does not only furniſh the neceſſary uſes of the iſland, but likewiſe gives leave for the exportation of great quantities. According to the diſtinction of north and ſouth it is different; in the firſt it is healthy and gravelly, and in the other they have good meadow and paſture-ground; and the air in general is eſteemed extremely wholeſome.

A ridge of mountains runs almoſt the length of the iſland, which ſupply the inhabitants with exceeding good water, and excellent peat for fuel.

The black cattle are generally leſs than thoſe of England; the gentlemen have good draught and ſaddle-horſes: there is a very ſmall ſort bred in the mountains, about three feet three inches high.

They have no coal-mines yet diſcovered, but good quarries of a black marble, and other ſtones for building. They have mines of lead, copper, and iron, which have formerly been worked to good advantage.

This iſland was given by Henry IV. anno 1405, to John lord Stanley; and in this honourable houſe it has ever ſince continued, except for 12 years during the civil wars, when it was granted to the lord Fairfax, but returned to it's ancient lords at the Reſtoration.

Upon the death of the late lord Derby without iſſue male, it devolved to the heirs female; and the preſent lord of Man and the Iſles is the duke of Athol.—They have moſt of the prerogatives of kings.—The number of inhabitants are about 20,000.

The principal towns are only four, which are all ſituate near the ſea; each of them has it's harbour, or a caſtle or fort to defend it.

CASTLE-TOWN, to the ſouth, about 210 miles from London, longitude 4. 37. latitude 53. 56.—Here the governor and moſt of the lord's officers reſide; and here the courts of juſtice are held.

PEEL, or HOLM-TOWN, to the weſt.—Within theſe few years ſeveral merchants have ſettled here, and built good houſes and noble vaults, &c.

DOUGLAS-TOWN is much the richeſt, has the beſt market, and is the moſt populous of any in the whole iſland. As it has of late increaſed in trade, it has done ſo in buildings. The harbour, for ſhips of tolerable burthen, is the ſafeſt in the iſland; and, within theſe few years, they have built a fine mole into the ſea, which, when perfected, will be one of the beſt harbours in any part of the three kingdoms, and will be of great ſervice for ſhips to find ſhelter in diſtreſs.

RAMSEA, to the north, is the moſt noted for a ſpacious bay, in which the greateſt fleet may ride at anchor, with ſafety enough in all winds, but the north-eaſt; and, in that caſe, they need not be embayed. They have lately made a good harbour, that will bring more trade to the town, which formerly ſubſiſted on fiſhing.

The trade of this iſland was very much improved before the year 1726, when foreign merchants found it their intereſt to touch here, and leave part of their cargoes, either to bring the remainder under the cuſtom of butlerage, or becauſe the duties of the whole would be too great a ſum to be paid at once in England; or, laſtly, to lie here for a market, the duties and cellarage being ſo ſmall.—But, the late lord Derby having farmed out his cuſtoms to foreigners, the farmers inſolence and impudence drew on the juſt reſentment of the government of England, who paſſed an act, anno 1726, by which the people of the iſland were cut off from the liberties and privileges of a fair trade with England.

They improve their lands either by lime, by ſea-wreck, or by folding their ſheep and cattle in the night, and during the heat of the day, in little incloſures, which are removed from place to place every year; and the lands are ſoon ſo inriched by the urine and dung of the cattle, that they yield plentiful crops of corn; but oat-cakes are the common bread of the country.

The commodities of this iſland, beſides their black cattle (of which 600 may, by the act of navigation, be imported yearly into England) are lamb's-wool, fine and coarſe linen, and coarſe woollen cloth, hides, ſkins, honey, and tallow; but it's great and ſtaple commodity heretofore was herrings, of which near 20,000 barrels have been exported in one year.

The herring-fiſhing ſeaſon is between July and Allhallows-Tide. The fleet of boats (which are about two tons burthen) is under the government of the water-bailiff on ſhore, and under one called a vice-admiral at ſea, who, by the ſignal of a flag, directs them when to ſhoot their nets, &c.

There is due to the lord of the iſle, as a royalty, 10s. out of every boat that takes above 10 meaſe (every meaſe being 500 herrings) and 1s. to the water-bailiff.

Here are mills both for corn and fulling of cloth, which are worked in the ſummer-time, when there is greateſt plenty of water, many of the rivulets not having ſufficient to drive a mill the greateſt part of the year; which has put them upon inventing a ſort of mill, ſo cheap that it is no great loſs, though it ſhould ſtand ſtill ſix months in the year.

Notwithſtanding the ſtrictneſs of the laws againſt offences committed in the iſland, it is a place of refuge for crimes that are committed out of it, as well as for debts that are not incurred in it.—This iſland is alſo a ſanctuary for goods, there being no cuſtom paid, nor officers to receive it; ſo that wine and brandy from France, rum from the Weſt-Indies, and callicoes, and other Eaſt-India goods from Holland, are often put aſhore here into warehouſes, and afterwards run, in ſmall boats, into Ireland, Scotland, and the weſt of England.

Since the inhabitants, who were formerly chiefly employed in huſbandry, have turned their heads to this more gainful trade of ſmuggling, they have much more ſhipping than they had, and dwell more upon the ſea-coaſt than they uſed to do, where, as may be judged of the increaſe of their port-towns, new buildings, and gay appearance, &c. they grow rich. This coaſt, except the harbours abovementioned, is rocky and dangerous, and not practicable without good pilots.

REMARKS on the SMUGGLING TRADE carried on at the ISLE of MAN before the laſt WAR.

Extract of a letter from Newry, dated October 3, 1753, concerning running of goods from the Iſle of Man, and publiſhed in the principal news-papers in London, and in the country.

'Our tea-trade is long ſince loſt, and is likely to be followed by that for ſpirits and tobacco, ſuch quantities being daily run from the Iſle of Man, that, if the commiſſioners do not ſoon find ſome means of effectually preventing it, the fair trader muſt be obliged either to fall in with the practice, or be ruined. It is computed that his majeſty's revenue ſuffers at leaſt 10,000l. per annum by ſuch clandeſtine dealings in thoſe parts, as this illicit trade is now moſt in the hands of perſons of property: ſo that the dealers all around are ſupplied at home, on much eaſier terms than they can be from the fair trader here. One great encouragement is, the freight being paid down on ſhipping the goods, and the wherries, if taken, not only ſuffered to eſcape, but the boatmen rewarded with a few anchors, to induc

induce them not to be over-diligent in getting away another time; ſo that, when a barge is not in ſight, they boldly make their port in open day, and thus find their account in this deſtructive commerce, their freight being two Engliſh ſhillings for an anchor of 10 gallons, which is almoſt equal to that for goods imported from the Weſt-Indies.

Nor are the ſmugglers here leſs daring than numerous; for, notice being lately ſent by them to the coaſt-officers, that ſuch a day they intended to carry a conſiderable quantity of run goods from the neighbouring mountains, the officers and their aſſiſtants, on coming to prevent it, found near 60 perſons, mounted and in arms, who divided into parties, and the officers doing the like, and, by this means being prevented from aſſiſting each other, they attacked, diſarmed, and groſsly abuſed them. One of the officers having in the engagement fired among them, and ſhattered a man's leg, examinations have been ſworn againſt him, and all his companions, to take off their evidence: who muſt now undergo a trial, for having endeavoured to diſcharge their duty.

Theſe are the effects of a petty independent ſovereignty ſubſiſting in the heart of the Britiſh dominions, which ſerves for an aſylum to out-laws and bankrupts, and may be conſidered as a fortreſs in the hands of our enemies (that trade being principally ſupported by the French) a conſtant drain of our caſh, and the ruin both of his majeſty's revenue, and the fair trade of theſe kingdoms.'

Some Reasons for annexing the Isle of Man to the Crown of Great Britain.

In the 12th of George I. cap. 28. by an act then paſſed, the lords of the Treaſury were impowered to treat with the earl of Derby, and his heirs, for the purchaſe of all right to the Iſle of Man; and this act was founded upon the almoſt impoſſibility of preventing ſmuggling from that iſland, while it remained as a petty ſovereignty in the hands of a proprietor.

The late lord Derby, from ſome notion he had formed of being able to leave the Iſle of Man by will, would not treat with the Treaſury. The duke of Athol, the preſent proprietor, may probably be diſpoſed to part with it, upon good terms, eſpecially when it is conſidered the moſt part of his revenues ariſe from ſmall duties and cuſtoms paid the iſland upon prohibited goods entered, and afterwards ſmuggled upon the coaſts of England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland, which, though no method has yet been found out to prevent in any degree (not one in an hundred of the boats or veſſels concerned in the ſmuggling trade being taken at ſea, or ſeized afterwards) it cannot therefore be ſuppoſed that the legiſlature will ſuffer it long to be carried on to ſuch an enormous height, which now calls loudly for the ſerious attention of every perſon that wiſhes well to the trade and welfare of theſe kingdoms.

The Iſle of Man is ſituated in the midſt of the three kingdoms, not above ſix or ſeven hours ſail from the neareſt parts of Scotland, Ireland and England. It is the greateſt ſtore-houſe, or magazine, for the French, and other nations, to depoſit prodigious quantities of wines, brandies, coffee, teas, and other India goods, which are carried off in ſmall boats and wherries, built for that purpoſe. To aſcertain the quantity, the houſe of commons may order the collectors of the noble proprietor's cuſtoms in the iſland, to lay before them their books of entries, for the laſt ſeven years, of goods; 999 parts of which, out of 1000, are ſmuggled upon our coaſts; upon ſuch an examination of theſe officers, the whole ſcene would come out.

Of late years, a new and deſtructive trade has been ſet up by Iriſh Papiſts, who have cheated their creditors, and carried their effects to the Iſle of Man; and that is, by importing ſuch quantities of teas, and other India goods, as ought greatly to alarm the India company. Perhaps they do not know to what a height it is come; or elſe it is hardly poſſible they ſhould ſit ſtill, and not complain of whole ſhip-loads of teas, and other India goods, brought in for ſome years paſt from Denmark, as well as Holland and France; and all ſmuggled upon our coaſts. The captain of a cruizer, did venture to do his duty, and attempted (as he thought he was warranted to do by act of parliament) to ſeize a Dutch dogger, valued at 12,000l. ſterling, which run from him aſhore upon the iſland, where ſhe was bound. But the man found himſelf miſtaken. Acts of parliament, and Engliſh commiſſions, could not protect him in that petty principality; they ſeized his men, who had taken poſſeſſion of the dogger, threw them into a goal, where 5 of them will lie, perhaps, till their death. The captain himſelf narrowly eſcaped, with two men and a boy, to Whitehaven, from which place he wrote his complaints to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms. If theſe gentlemen were called upon by the houſe of commons, not only for theſe papers, but alſo for ſuch informations as they have received for ſome years paſſed, from the collectors of Whitehaven and Liverpool, and their officer in the Iſle of Man, no doubt could remain of the abſolute neceſſity of annexing this iſland immediately to the crown of Great-Britain.

Query, Whether the officers in the Iſle of Man are not guilty of an act of rebellion, in ſeizing the king's boats and arms, and detaining them? Another pernicious practice carried on by ſome Iriſh fugitive Papiſts ſettled in the iſland, who are countenanced and protected, is this; they enter tobacco in rolls from ſeveral ports of Great-Britain for ſome foreign parts, receive the drawback, then carry it to the iſle of Man, and run it back again from thence to Scotland, England, or Ireland, and Wales. This muſt always be attended with perjuries, very little regarded by ſuch perſons who have firſt cheated their own creditors, and then rob the public. Here the cuſtoms are actually robbed of great ſums of money.

The iſle of Man is likewiſe a great detriment to the Britiſh diſtillery. Moſt of the ſhips that now go from Liverpool to Guinea, &c. touch there for their brandies, wines, and India and other goods, &c. not of Britiſh manufacture.

Theſe, and many other inconveniencies and miſchiefs ariſe from ſuffering this iſland any longer to be in a manner independent of Great-Britain. And a fuller account of the practices carrying on there will be publiſhed, if theſe be not ſufficient to awaken all true friends of Great-Britain.

The remedy propoſed is, To agree with the preſent proprietor to relinquiſh his right to the Iſle of Man, and, in lieu of it, to grant him, and his heirs, an annual ſum out of the cuſtoms of England for ever, or in any other way that ſhall be deemed more eligible: and ſuch an annuity will be a ſaving to the government of ſome thouſands a year, expended to very little purpoſe, in maintaining cruizers and officers, &c. to guard againſt it's illicit and pernicious trade, and ten times the number will never prevent ſmuggling from that iſland. This article alone cannot be leſs than 15 or 20,000l. a year, including, in this eſtimation, the officers in Ireland, who are kept there on the ſame account; beſides the loſs to the revenue, upon the moſt moderate computation, of at leaſt 200,000l. a year; and the loſs to the fair trader, and particularly the India company, which may be as much more.

The late purchaſe of the hereditable juriſdictions in Scotland, hath ſet an excellent example, which deſerves imitation. And, indeed, the reaſons of annexing this petty royalty to the crown hold ſtronger than in any of the others. For the detriment which the whole kingdom ſuſtains by the alienation of it, is much greater than that which aroſe from all the royalties and juriſdictions of Scotland. The loſs to the nation, and the gains to the French, are inexpreſſibly great. And, as all the ſums drained from us are employed by them, in time of war, to hire troops, and pay armies to fight againſt us, it will be no exaggeration of the truth to ſay, that, ſince the peace of Utrecht, they have drawn more money from us, by means of their trade with this ſmall iſland, than was ſufficient to maintain 30,000 men with a train of artillery, during the late war in Flanders. Would the French have ſuffered a like ſovereignty of Belliſle, formerly in poſſeſſion of the family of the famous duke of that name? It plainly ſhews they would not.

In ſhort, this iſland may be looked upon as a fortreſs in the hands of our enemies, draining us of our ſpecie (for all theſe goods are paid for with Engliſh coin): and alſo continually annoying us in the ſenſible parts, our trade and commerce. And the whole queſtion is, Whether we ought to diſpoſſeſs them or not? A queſtion that admits of no diſpute, if the public good and welfare of our country are to determine it! —Nor can there be any one good reaſon aſſigned, why this iſland ſhould remain ſo long in a manner independent of Great-Britain.

If we look back, and conſider how many millions of debt the honeſt part of theſe kingdoms is burthened with, by ſubmitting for ſo many years to be plundered by ſuch gangs of thieves, can we poſſibly call ourſelves a civilized people? Have we the leaſt right to complain of groaning under ſuch a load of taxes, without ſo much as looking back to one of the principal cauſes of our miſeries, or even thinking, as the paſt is irretrievable, of a preventive remedy, againſt our abſolute future deſtruction, and againſt our becoming, if not a prey to one another, certain victims to a power, ever aiming at our ruin? Now then, let that Britiſh ſpirit awaken, with that attention to the national good, it has ſo often ſignalized itſelf for; directed by thoſe calm, ſerious, and deliberate conſultations, which are alone the ſureſt means, to perfect the cure of the greateſt evils, without pique or reſentment againſt any ſett of men, without ſeeking vengeance for, but rather pardoning all paſt offences. Thus ſhall we ſee the morals of our people, corrupted by the little attention paid to the enforcing the execution of the laws, recover their former ſoundneſs, and thoſe innumerable and invaluable lives preſerved for our employment, ſtrength, and happineſs, which are now ſuffered to be waſted by ſpirituous liquors, under the thin pretence of incapacity of redreſs, leſt the revenue ſhould ſuffer a diminution. See Smuggling.

MANUFACTURERS.

The principal Laws of England relating to Manufacturers and Artificers.

Perſons employed in making up the woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, or iron manufactures, embezzling or purloining any

wefts, thrums, or ends of yarn, or any other materials of wool, hemp, flax, cotton, or iron, with which intruſted, or that ſhall reel falſe or ſhort yarn, being thereof convicted by oath of one witneſs, or confeſſion, before one juſtice, &c. ſhall forfeit double the value of damages done, for the uſe of the poor. On neglect or refuſal to pay, to be ſent to the houſe of correction 'till ſatisfaction made; if not able, to be kept there not above fourteen days, publickly whipped, and kept to hard labour. Buyers and receivers of, &c. liable to the ſame puniſhment, 1 Ann. c. 18. This act at firſt was temporal, but by 9 Ann. c. 30. was made perpetual.

By 13 Geo. II. If any perſon working woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, or iron manufactures, ſhall embezzle or illegally diſpoſe of the materials, or ſhall reel ſhort yarn, being convicted as preſcribed by 1 Ann. ſhall forfeit double the damages ſuſtained with coſts: and, in caſe immediate payment ſhall be neglected, the juſtice ſhall commit the offender to the houſe of correction, to be whipped, and hard labour, not exceeding fourteen days. And, on further conviction for embezzling any of the materials, the perſons ſhall forfeit four times the value (whether the ſame be or be not made up) ſuſtained, with coſts. And, if payment with coſts be neglected, ſuch juſtice ſhall commit to the houſe of correction and to hard labour, not exceeding three months, nor leſs than one, and to be publickly whipped in the market-town, at the market-place or croſs, once or oftener. And, by Geo. II. every perſon who ſhall buy or take by way of gift, pawn, ſale, &c. from any in the act of 1 Ann. mentioned, any woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, or iron manufactures, knowing the ſame to be embezzled, ſhall ſuffer the like forfeiture as the perſons purloining the materials; all which forfeitures are by 13 Geo. II. to be applied, one moiety to the uſe of the party injured, and the other to the poor of the pariſh, with benefit of appealing. If any perſon employed in cutting or manufacturing of gloves, breeches, leather, boots, ſhoes, or other goods, ſhall fraudulently embezzle any of the ſaid goods or materials, or ſhall purloin or exchange any gloves, &c. when manufactured, or leſſen the value, either before or after made into wares, the perſon muſt make a reaſonable recompence, not exceeding double the value of the goods; one half thereof to the party aggrieved, and the other to the poor. But if no goods, and ſhall refuſe to pay, the offender ſhall be for every offence committed to priſon, and kept to labour fourteen days, and ſhall be whipped; and for a ſecond offence ſhall forfeit four times the value which the owners ſhall ſuſtain, with coſts adjudged by the juſtice. And, not paid, ſuch juſtice may commit to the houſe of correction or priſon to labour, not exceeding three, nor leſs than one month, and ſhall cauſe the offenders to be whipped in the market-place or croſs once or oftener. And every perſon, who ſhall knowingly buy or receive by way of pawn, &c. from any perſon whatſoever (except of or from the perſon in whom the property is) ſuch perſon ſhall make ſuch ſuitable recompence, within two days after the fact ſhall be determined, or elſe be ſubject to diſtreſs, and, for want thereof, liable to the like puniſhment as is directed on perſons as ſhall embezzle goods, &c. and ſo for any ſubſequent offence. The ſtat. 13 Geo. II. proving deficient, the 22d of Geo. II. enacts, if any perſon hired to make any felt or hat, or work up any woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, iron, leather, furr, hemp, flax, mohair, or ſilk manufactures made up of wool, &c. or any of the ſaid materials mixed, ſhall, after the 24th of June 1749, purloin or diſpoſe of materials, whether wrought or not into merchantable wares, or ſhall reel falſe or ſhort yarn, the juſtices may commit the perſon to the houſe of correction or public priſon, to labour, for fourteen days, and to be once publickly whipped at ſome public place; and, if a further offence, the juſtices may commit to the houſe of correction or public priſon to labour, not exceeding three, nor leſs than one month, and may order the perſons to be whipped at ſome public place, &c. twice or oftener.

If perſons ſhall buy, or take in gift, pawn, &c. from any employed to make any felt or hat, to work up the woollen, linen, &c. manufactures made of wool, &c. or ſilk, or any of the ſaid materials mixed, thrums, or ends of yarn, whether made up or not, knowing the perſon to be hired, and not having the conſent of the perſon hiring; or ſhall buy or take, in any manner whatſoever, from any perſon, any of the ſaid materials, whether wrought or not, knowing the ſame to be embezzled, the perſon convicted ſhall, for the firſt offence, forfeit 20l. and, if not paid, ſhall be committed to labour for fourteen days, or 'till payment; and, if within two days before the ſaid fourteen, the ſame ſhall not be paid, may order the perſon to be publickly whipped, once or oftener; and, if a further conviction, ſhall forfeit 40l. and, in caſe the ſame be not immediately paid, the juſtice ſhall commit to labour, not exceeding three, nor leſs than one month, unleſs forfeitures be ſooner paid; and, if not paid within ſeven days before the time, may order ſuch offenders to be publickly whipped twice, or oftener; and the ſaid forfeitures of 20l. and 40l. after ſatisfaction to the party injured, with coſts, ſhall be diſtributed amongſt the poor.

If aggrieved, may appeal; and the juſtices, in the general or quarter-ſeſſions, are finally to determine the appeal, and award coſts; and if, on hearing, the judgment of the juſtice ſhall be affirmed, ſuch appellant ſhall pay the ſum adjudged, or, in default, ſhall ſuffer the penalties inflicted upon perſons who ſhall neglect to pay.

If any ſhall be convicted of purloining the materials, or receiving the ſame, juſtices may iſſue a warrant to any perſon, in the preſence of a conſtable, &c. in the day to ſearch the houſes, and other places, and, if there ſhall be found any materials of wool, &c. to bring ſuch materials before the ſaid juſtice, to be detained; and, if within 24 days, it ſhall appear the perſons from whoſe houſes, &c. the ſaid materials ſhall be taken, are the owners, then ſuch materials ſhall be reſtored; but, if it ſhall not appear, the ſame ſhall be deemed purloined, and the juſtices may direct them to be ſold, and the money (charges deducted) to be diſtributed to the poor. The ſaid juſtices ſhall, within three days after materials brought, give notice, under hand and ſeal, to the perſon convicted, appointing time and place for his proving his property ſo detained, which ſhall be within twenty, and not leſs than eighteen days, after notice is given; and, if the perſon convicted ſhall be detained in priſon, the juſtice may cauſe a copy of the notice to be delivered to the keeper, who is to bring before ſuch juſtice the perſon named in ſuch notice; and, if ſuch keeper refuſe, he ſhall forfeit to the perſon in ſuch notice the value of the materials, to be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale of the goods of ſuch keeper.

Any aggrieved may appeal to the general or quarter-ſeſſions; and, in the mean time, the diſpoſal of materials ſhall be poſtponed. Notice under the hand of the perſon intending to appeal, ſignifying his intention, given to the juſtice before the diſpoſal of ſuch materials. The juſtices may ſummon and examine witneſſes, and may determine the appeal, and, if the appellant ſhould not proſecute, the judgment of the juſtice ſhall be affirmed, and may award coſts.

If any perſons, intruſted with materials to manufacture, ſhall not uſe them, and ſhall delay, for twenty days after ſuch materials ſhall be manufactured, to return (if required by the owner) ſo much as ſhall not be uſed, ſuch neglect ſhall be an embezzling; and, being convicted, ſhall ſuffer as perſons convicted of embezzling.

Any one juſtice, upon complaint on oath or affirmation of any offence within the county, may iſſue his warrant, and may determine the matter.

If any perſon who, after the 24th of June, 1749, ſhall work up any of the manufactures for any one maſter, ſhall neglect the performance thereof, by procuring himſelf to be retained by any other, before he ſhall have compleated the work, he ſhall be ſent to hard labour, not exceeding one month.

This act not to repeal any of the proviſions in the 13th, 14th, and 20th Car. II. for regulating the trade of ſilk-throwing, or in 8 and 9 Will. III. for the further encouragement of the manufacture of luſtrings.

No perſon ſhall, by virtue of the ſaid acts, or of this act, ſuffer puniſhments twice for one fact.

By 22 Geo. II. the ſeveral clauſes in the 12th of Geo. I. and all the proviſions and forfeitures ſhall, after the 24th of June, 1749, extend to journeymen dyers, hot-preſſers, and all employed about the woollen manufactures, and journeymen, ſervants, and labourers, and others, making of felts or hats, or in any of the manufactures of ſilk, mohair, furr, hemp, flax, linen, cotton, fuſtian, iron, or leather, or about any manufactures of wool, &c. or of any materials mixed, in as ample manner as the proviſions and forfeitures are by the ſaid act to extend to the ſeveral perſons therein: and the forfeitures incurred againſt the ſaid act, by any employed about the ſaid manufactures, ſhall be recovered as the forfeitures contained in the act of 12 Geo. I. are directed to be recovered.

Remarks on the Encouragement of Manufactures in Foreign Countries.

It is a maxim generally received, that one of the moſt effectual means to ſettle and improve commerce, or any other political intereſt, is the patronage of princes. Diſpenſing rewards, and exciting emulation, by inveſting with honours, and other marks of diſtinction, thoſe perſons who, by the force of genius or application, have made new diſcoveries, or improved upon any thing laudable, and conducive to the intereſt of the public; more eſpecially ſuch as, upon the ſtrength of their own genius, and at their ſole charge, have ſet up and maintained manufactures, and other works beneficial to the community; and when the introduction of them has been intirely owing to their induſtry and public ſpirit.

This point we ſhall only treat in a general way, as it is not poſſible to preſcribe rules for the conduct of it on particular occaſions, ſince the honours, as well as rewards and encouragements, are always to be diſpenſed according to the ſtation, and other circumſtances of the claimants, and with an eye to the charge they ſhall have been at, and the benefits that ſhall reſult to the public from them.

It is good policy to give yearly penſions, in order to draw over, and engage to ſtay in any country, able maſters in manufactures, fulling, dyeing, and other works, either to introduce

introduce theſe ſorts of buſineſſes, or to improve ſuch as have been already eſtabliſhed, by advancing them to a degree of perfection and goodneſs that is certain to make them eſteemed, and procure them a market every where.

As this has been the caſe of the tapeſtries of Flanders, the cloths of Abbeville, England and Holland, as alſo the ſilks of Lyons in France, ſo artificers, or workmen, ſetting up new and profitable manufactories in foreign countries, it is uſual alſo to allow, for a certain term, an immunity from all troubleſome offices, houſes to live in, workſhops, and a diſpenſation from ſome duties; numerous inſtances of which have been produced in divers parts of this work; and, at the ſame time, for a further encouragement, ſums of money have been granted, to enable them to bear the firſt expence, which uſually runs high. But, in reſpect to this advance of money, or the other encouragements, we are as little able to preſcribe ſtated rules, as there muſt neceſſarily be a variety of caſes, according to the ſituation of the projectors, and the benefit that will ariſe from the undertaking. However, it will be always prudent and neceſſary, perhaps, for them to give ſufficient ſecurity to repay, at ſtated times, all monies that ſhall be advanced to ſet up and maintain the manufactories, and other works, which they have laid themſelves under an obligation to do, both in reſpect to the number of looms, the quality of the manufacture, and the time that ſhall be ſtipulated with them; all of them circumſtances very eſſential, and for which it behoves trading ſtates to explain and covenant very fully; for, ſhould there be a failure in any one of them, the main purpoſe would not be attained, all the pains, and all the indulgences that had been diſpenſed them, thrown away, and the prince have a juſt right to with-hold what had been offered on his ſide, as alſo to put their bonds in execution; and, if there be ſtill a deficiency, to call upon their ſecurities immediately to replace the monies that had been advanced, and to return the houſes, and other things, in the ſtate and condition they were received.

And yet it will be always reaſonable to ſhew ſome favour and moderation, and not treat them with the utmoſt rigour, when it ſhall appear that the miſcarriage aroſe from accidents that could not be foreſeen, and not from villainy, or a deliberate intent to defraud; both becauſe they merit indulgence, as they erred involuntarily, and, for fear of the rigour they ſhall be treated with, diſcourage the honeſt and ingenious from entering into the like covenant and undertakings.

As often as maſters or directors of any manufactures faithfully execute what they undertake and covenant, and from the eſtabliſhment and continuance of their manufactures there will enſue great advantages to the public, it is alſo cuſtomary, and good policy, to remit them a part, or even the whole advance-money: for it may ſerve as a reward, and a freſh encouragement, and alſo a means of raiſing emulation in others, to project ſuch other things that are conducive to the public intereſts.

It has been uſual, alſo, to grant an excluſive privilege for undertakings of this kind, that, for a certain number of years, no other perſon manufacture the commodities they are under an obligation to introduce and eſtabliſh; but, before indulgences of this nature are ever diſpenſed, we ought to conſider the affair thoroughly; and when, for ſpecial reaſons, it is found abſolutely neceſſary, in order to obtain a national end, they are even then to be limited and guarded with the utmoſt precaution, leſt they be converted into monopolies, that are of great profit to the proprietor, but of the utmoſt prejudice to the public. Moreover, in diſpenſing them, though it be with all poſſible precaution, it ought at leaſt to be attended with the following circumſtances; of it's being a new fabric of ſome kind, and very difficult to be ſet on foot; that there will enſue an improvement to commerce, and a conſiderable advantage to the public, as it happened in France, and lately in Spain, in order to revive and eſtabliſh glaſs-houſes.

To this end was granted an excluſive privilege, for a certain number of years, in conſideration of it's being an undertaking of great fatigue and conſiderable charge; and as the event was uncertain, they put to great riſque their pains and money therein employed.

Lewis XIV. king of France, in the year 1665, during the miniſtry of John Baptiſt Colbert, granted alſo an excluſive privilege, and other advantages, in order to ſettle a tin manufacture in ſeveral parts of that kingdom, as it is a very uſeful commodity, and of great conſumption every-where; and, at the expiration of the term covenanted, the patent was renewed, in the year 1695, in favour of Iſaac Robelin, engineer, director of the fortifications of Burgundy, and company; to which partnerſhip, it was renewed for another term, in the year 1700, as appears from the patent granted them.

When it ſhall be found expedient to grant an excluſive privilege, it ſhould be done for as ſhort a time as poſſible, and under due limitations, in order that the manufacture and traffic thereof may become the more freely and expeditiouſly extended. But thoſe privileges ought to be the more generally reſtrained to fabrics that are entirely new, or of an extraordinary improvement upon the old.

Other advantages, of an inferior kind, and attended with leſs public inconvenience, will prove ſufficient for works and inventions of a lower nature. When goods, taken to be manufactured by private hands, are nearly of the ſame ſort as ſome already made in the country, though they may be of ſuperior quality, as it is from this very ſuperiority that, with a little diligence, they may be imitated in their own manufactures, there will be no reaſon to grant privileges, indulgences, and other diſtinguiſhing encouragements, which ſome have moved for, as in ſuch caſes they ought to be common and general; for any thing ſingular and excluſive would be a great prejudice to other manufactories of the kingdom; which being of equal moment, or little inferior, may, with equal propriety, claim and enjoy the ſame advantage; and, if they ſhould not obtain it, the conſequence will certainly be, that, favouring a branch, we ſhall deſtroy the root.

The ſage Spaniard Uztaritz obſerves, That, by the tariff which Lewis XIV. aſſiſted by the great penetration and ſkill of his vigilant miniſter, John Baptiſt Colbert, publiſhed in the years 1664 and 1667, all foreign cloths imported into France paid a duty of above 25 per cent. while thoſe manufactured in his own kingdom were allowed to go abroad, paying only one per cent. and other commodities were exported free of all duty. This appears from the various edicts, and other ordinances, that we have quoted throughout this work; and I may add, that, to encourage the manufactories of that large and plentiful province of Languedoc, the government of France ſettled a premium, of about 13 ſhillings ſterling, to be given to the maſters for every piece of fine cloth meaſuring 30 French yards, that they ſhould manufacture and ſend abroad.

In regard to materials, they obſerve a rule ſo contrary (but equally advantageous) that they impoſe heavy duties upon the exportation of them, and ſometimes prohibit it entirely, under rigorous penalties, as we do in England with our wool, that our own country may reap the benefit of that large gain which ariſes from working it up. But they lay very ſmall duties, often none at all, upon the importation of materials which they are in want of, eſpecially for their manufactures. This is practiſed in Holland with reſpect to Spaniſh wool, which is imported free, as appears from their own tariff, publiſhed at Amſterdam in the year 1710; for ſo dextrous are they, and attentive to the general intereſt of the ſtate, that they have conſtantly in their eye, and gather the fruits of a piece of experience, that this is a mine more fruitful of gain, riches, and plenty, than thoſe of Potoſi; ſince, by working up into cloth a certain portion of wool, that ſtands them in 20 ſhillings, they produce from it the amount of above five times that ſum: [ſee the article WOOL:] for they calculate that, in a yard of fine cloth, the wool it is made of amounts to a fifth of it's value, and the reſt is labour, dyeing, and other expences: ſo that there remains, as it were, to the manufacturer, an intereſt of four fifths; and a million of money in materials he can improve to the value of five millions: and this ſhews how expedient it is to encourage manufactures, in order to trade, in a great meaſure at leaſt, without our own commodities.

The preſent ſyſtem of Spain to advance in their manufactories of every kind, as publiſhed before the laſt war.

The ſame author adds, in another place, in order to rouze the Spaniards to trade, that, in regard to manufactories, care muſt be taken to eſtimate the advantages of each particular, according to the quality, number of people, materials, fruits, and addreſs of the reſpective diſtricts: for, in the article of manufactories, ſucceſs does not entirely depend upon the goodneſs and plenty of fruits and materials a country produces: theſe defects and wants may be made up by management and induſtry. In proof of it, many examples might be produced, were it not ſufficient to mention Holland and Genoa, in whoſe diſtricts, though barren of ſilk, good wool, and dyeing materials, many and prime manufactories of theſe and other ſorts are flouriſhing. And, as Spain poſſeſſes theſe and other materials in great plenty and perfection, and is equally furniſhed with all the neceſſary proviſions for the working hands, which the territories of Holland and Genoa are alſo deſtitute of, and the nation is ſtill the ſame as in former times, there is reaſon to believe that every thing which has been formerly, may be again, whenever due encouragement ſhall be given by them in power, eſpecially when thoſe heavy fetters are taken off, which with our own hands we have laid upon the manufactures, and the ſale of them both at home and abroad, as well by exceſſive taxes upon proviſions conſumed by the working hands, and the materials they make uſe of, as by the heavy and repeated duty of the alcavala at every ſale of them, and the 15 per cent. which manufacturers, by the book of rates, are to pay upon exportation, contrary to the natural and political maxim obſerved by other nations.

Nor can I forbear dwelling upon theſe two points, manufactures and a reform of the duties, and frequent mention of them, as they are the root, which, by a prudent cultivation, is to produce the remedy for our misfortunes, and give new

life to the monarchy: for it is certain, that the exceſs of theſe duties is the original cauſe of the deſtruction of our manufactories, a neceſſary conſequence of which is the loſs of an advantageous commerce (which is now fallen into the hands of foreigners) as alſo the diſpeopling, and preſent inability of Spain.

For a better illuſtration of this point, and the happy conſequences that depend upon it, ſuppoſe there were ſet on foot, for inſtance, 60,000 new looms in theſe kingdoms, which would be replacing a conſiderable part of thoſe which are ſaid to be in ancient times.

As I am ſatisfied there are now in the kingdom of Valencia above 2000 looms, of ſilk and wool; in the principality of Catalonia above 500: and in the kingdom of Granada 1000, including both ſorts; and there are alſo in other provinces manufactures of ſilk, though not very conſiderable, and in almoſt all of them no contemptible number of looms for the ſeveral fabrics of wool, ſuch as the middling and coarſe cloths, bays, ſerges, camblets, druggets, &c. one may, I think, without raſhneſs, ſuppoſe the ſilk and woollen looms that are now in Spain, to be 10,000. Now theſe, with the 60,000 new ones that have been imagined to be ſet up, would amount to 70,000; and one may reckon 14,000, or about a fifth part of them, to be ſilk looms, and the remaining 56,000 of fine, middling, and coarſe wool, of which laſt there is no leſs conſumption, &c. See the article CATALONIA.

REMARKS.

Throughout the whole of this work, much has been urged for the encouragement of manufactures in general, from repreſentations of what has been done to this end in France and Holland, &c. as well as what is, at preſent, doing in Spain, for revival of their old manufactures, and the eſtabliſhment of new of every kind that their country will advantageouſly admit of. We have likewiſe endeavoured to animate our artiſts of every denomination with ſuch a ſpirit of emulation, not only in relation to each other, but foreigners, as we hope may tend to the advancement of our old, as well as the invention of new arts and manufactures. Some of the articles, under which theſe particulars may be turned to are, ARTIFICERS, BISCAY, BLEACHING, BLACK, BLUE, CALLICO-PRINTING, CANDIDATE, CATALONIA, CHEMISTRY, CLOTH, FLAX, HEMP, FRANCE, FULLER'S-EARTH, GLASS, ROYAL SOCIETY, and divers other heads referred to from theſe.

We begin to be now convinced, that we are nearly as much enriched by the labours of our fellow-creatures, as by the productions of the earth; and, if we have reaſon to rejoice at the abundance which nature, from year to year, produces for us, we may reap no leſs reaſonable ſatisfaction from all the variety of employments in human ſociety, and eſpecially by means of our manufactural arts. The firſt proofs of this have been taken from the numberleſs kinds of buſineſs, which our ſervants and the very meaneſt labourers perform for us; not in our houſes only, but from one end of the earth to the other: what they are doing on the banks of Newfoundland, at Potoſi, at Mocha, or in the iſland of Amboyna, concerns us no leſs than the being decent in our apparel and habitations. Let us conſider the reaſons we have to eſteem artizans of every kind for their induſtry, and find new motives, from the numberleſs ſervices they do us, to rectify our way of thinking concerning them.

It is cuſtomary for all ſuch as are under no neceſſity of labouring with their hands, to place themſelves at an infinite diſtance above the working trading people; ſome affix an idea of meanneſs to their condition, and their contempt of it is univerſal. The man who draws up a coveyance, or a bill in Chancery, would think himſelf diſgraced by marrying his daughter to a clothier, a weaver, or a taylor. He may, indeed, be very dextrous, cautious, and judicious, in his draughts and pleadings, and extremely well verſed in the forms and precedents of the courts; but theſe qualifications demand not leſs the admiration which is due to the induſtry of a man, who makes us cloth and ſilk for our apparel.

A perſon, whoſe buſineſs is to recover certain rights, is treated by us with abundance of ceremony and reſpect, and yet we ſcarce vouchſafe to take notice of a labourer or a gardener, to whom our enjoyment of the fruits of the earth is owing. But this miſtake is not a new thing: it has conſtantly made it's way into the moſt polite nations, in proportion as their luxury had introduced a falſe taſte of delicacy. That Scipio*, who had declared war againſt Jugurtha, ſtanding candidate for the office of curule ædile, when he was a young man, and, (as the cuſtom was) paſſing through the place where the country tribes, as well as thoſe who reſided at Rome, were then aſſembled, bowed to one, ſpake obligingly to another, and, amongſt the reſt, ſhaking hands with a labouring man whom he knew, and feeling them hard and callous, he could not forbear joking with him upon it. We gentlemen, ſays he, walk only upon our feet, and ſhall you bring up a faſhion of walking upon your hands alſo? This jeſt coſt him dear; for it was told immediately from one to another, even thro' the very loweſt ranks; and all the tribes, being offended to think they were reproached for their love of labour, unanimouſly rejected this banterer, whom the effeminacy of the city had rendered arrogant and impertinent.

* Scipio Naſica Valer. Maxim. Lib. VII. cap. 5. n. 2.

Moſt of thoſe who follow a working trade, have been ſo accuſtomed, among us, to be ſet aſide, and treated without any ſort of civility or regard, that we find them quite confounded, or appearing under an extreme ſurprize, whenever the magiſtrates, the clergy, or other perſons of diſtinction, condeſcend to converſe or talk with them as to fellow-citizens and freemen; ſuch they are in reality: our treatment of them is therefore a diſhonour to ourſelves, and our own haughty airs ought to make us bluſh.

The laws of ſubordination have never, in ſtrict juſtice, authorized any perſon to talk to manufacturers as if they were ſlaves. We ſhould inſpire them with ſome ſentiments of honour, and encourage their induſtry, would we only ſeem to be ſenſible of their worth, and ſpeak to them with good nature and affability. But we ſhall be always very far from forming their manners, or attaching them to us, if we entertain a contempt for their perſons, or remain ſo ignorant as we are at preſent of the excellency of their arts: our very ignorance of their merit in ſociety is the cauſe of our indifference towards them.

When our reaſon firſt begins to open, we are talked to for ſix years together about the future in rus, and the ſupine in um, without hearing one word of the perfection and uſefulneſs of the arts, or the induſtry of people that follow employments by which our lives are ſupported. When our reaſon begins to acquire more ſtrength, it is put under the direction of maſters, who, after a vaſt deal of preparation, demonſtrate that we have a body, and that there are other bodies round us: or ſpend whole hours, nay even days in proving, that of two propoſitions contradictorily laid down, concerning a poſſible future which may never happen, the one is determinately true, and the other determinately falſe, and the like metaphyſical jargon.

The learning to diſtinguiſh rightly the productions of the globe which we inhabit, the ties whereby all the people dwelling on it are united, and the various labours they are employed in, are things the moſt neglected. Every one of us has ſeen the ſail of a windmill, and the wheel of a water-mill in action: we know alſo, that theſe machines grind corn, and reduce the bark of trees to powder: but we know nothing of the ſtructure of them, and can hardly avoid confounding a carpenter with an hewer of wood.

We all carry watches in our pockets, but do we know the mechaniſm of the fuſee round which the chain is wound? Do we underſtand the uſe of the ſpiral line which accompanies the balance? It is juſt the ſame as to the moſt common trades: we know the names of them, and no more. Inſtead of endeavouring to gain a reaſonable knowledge of commerce, manufactures, and mechanics, which are the delight and ornament of that ſociety wherein we are to ſpend our lives; we pique ourſelves on attaining all the niceties of quadrille, or bury ourſelves in ſolitude, upon ſpeculations that have no foundation but in our whimſical imaginations. And, if little judgment is ſhewn in the choice of our pleaſures, a ſtill greater want of it will probably appear in our ſtudies. We run after whatever makes the moſt noiſe, and the moſt ſenſible people are at laſt obliged to confeſs, that they repent more the loſs of the time they have employed in ſtudying the ſubtleties and fooleries of the ſchools, the arts of pedantry, and the crack-brained altercations of enthuſiaſtic zealots, than of what they have ſpent in the learning of muſic, which is ſometimes an amuſement to them.

The father or mother of a family, the head of a community, a merchant, a lawyer, a juſtice of peace, or any of thoſe who have the government either of the actions or conſciences of others, may be never the worſe for not underſtanding the monades of Leibnitz, or the diſputative bombaſt of the dogmatiſts. But there is no one of them who would not acquit himſelf better in his employment, was he to acquire a true knowledge of the arts and trades wherein the common people are buſied. This kind of philoſophy is a thouſand times more to be eſteemed, than thoſe ſyſtems whoſe inutility is their leaſt fault.

Some philoſophers, conſidering that diverſity which appears in the labours and inclination whereby men are diſtinguiſhed, have attributed the cauſe of it to the diſpoſitions alone of certain bodies that govern them, and have from thence drawn objections againſt the ſpirituality of the ſoul; being more forward, as is commonly the caſe, to decide concerning the nature of ſuch things as God has hid from us, than to make us ſee and adore that all-wiſe hand, which, by regulating the differences of our abilities as well as of our wants, has thereby prepared all the links of the great chain of ſociety. Others have been of opinion, that the variety of arts is owing to the diſcovery philoſophy has made of the wants of mankind, and the means of providing for them. The only reaſon they have not mentioned, is what they ſhould have found out firſt.

If we are ſupplied with ſhoes, linen, and woollen cloths, or candles, &c. it is not becauſe there are pedantic philoſophers

in the world. It is not they who have taught us to whiten the wax, or handle the ſhuttle: they move commonly in ſpheres very diſtant from us; and, if they ever do condeſcend to give their opinion of the inſtruments we make uſe of, it is only to inform us, that ſuch and ſuch a thing is wanting, without endeavouring in the leaſt to ſupply ſuch defects by any better inventions. The chiefs of colonies have aſſembled workmen, and legiſlatures have appointed regulations for different profeſſions: but the workmens, as well as peoples wants, were before the colonies were founded; and the legiſlature, who eſtabliſhes rules for the exerciſe of mens talents, is by no means the inventor of them. Human prudence employs what it has received, not what it has created. Moſt ſpeculative philoſophers have nothing to be proud of: they cannot claim any thing as their own, except uſeleſs opinions and queſtions that cannot be anſwered. We owe every thing to a wiſe providence, which has made no account of them, as to bearing any part of the labours neceſſary to ſociety, but which has provided for them effectually by the rich variety it has infuſed into the minds of men. In a word, we don't invite a man of a very mean capacity to take upon him the conduct of great affairs, nor one of a fine genius to lop the trees in a foreſt.

The different biaſs of our minds precedes our wants; and, as God is the author of our wants, he is alſo the real author of the different diſpoſitions which are found proper to provide for them. He has likewiſe, by another precaution, rendered his work infallible: for, leſt the wants, the intereſts, or the conſtitution of each particular ſhould be inſufficient to breed up and perpetuate the different kinds of workmen neceſſary to the bulk of mankind, God has inſpired an inclination in all children to imitate whatever hits their fancy.

We regard this as a trifle of no conſequence; whereas it is, in truth, ſomething reſembling, as it were, an inſpiration of the Deity, productive of the greateſt good; for it is this that affords us a conſtant ſupply of the moſt uſeful workmen, and fills the meaneſt profeſſions as well as the moſt exalted.

A child conceives an advantageous idea of what he ſees his father do: he follows him ſtep by ſtep, and goes on in his profeſſion; or, if he quits it, it is becauſe he is more induſtrious, and finds himſelf capable of riſing higher. One may truly affirm, that imitation is of much greater ſervice to us than invention; for inventions appear but very ſeldom, whereas imitation is found in all countries, and at all times.

If, from the firſt and only original of ſo many uſeful trades, we would deſcend to what is to be found curious in them (and often the moſt common things deſerve our greateſt attention) we ſhould find throughout, that the progreſs we may make in theſe entertaining and really uſeful reſearches, leads the mind equally to emulation and gratitude.

Our countryman Mr. Locke ſays, in his treatiſe of Education, 'that I have one thing more to add, which, as ſoon as 'I mention, I ſhall run the danger of being ſuſpected to 'have forgot what I am about, and what I have above written concerning education, all tending towards a gentleman's calling, with which a trade ſeems wholly to be inconſiſtent. And yet, I cannot forbear to ſay, I would 'have our young gentlemen learn a trade, a MANUAL 'TRADE; nay, two or three, but one more particularly.

'The buſy inclination of children being always to be directed to ſomething that may be uſeful to them, the advantages, 'propoſed from what they are ſet about, may be conſidered 'in two kinds; 1. Where the ſkill itſelf that is got by exerciſe, is worth the having. Thus ſkill not only in languages, and learned ſciences, but in painting, turning, 'gardening, tempering, and working in iron, and all other 'uſeful arts, is worth the having. 2. Where the exerciſe 'itſelf, without any conſideration, is neceſſary or uſeful for 'health. Knowlege in ſome things is ſo neceſſary to be 'got by children whilſt they are young, that ſome part of 'their time is to be allotted to their improvement in them, 'though theſe employments contribute nothing at all to 'their health: ſuch are reading and writing, and all other 'ſedentary ſtudies, for the cultivating of the mind, which 'unavoidably take up a great part of gentlemens time, quite 'from their cradles.

'Other manual arts, which are both got and exerciſed by 'labour, do many of them, by that exerciſe, not only in 'creaſe our dexterity and ſkill, but contribute to our health 'too, eſpecially ſuch as employ us in the open air. In theſe, 'then, health and improvement may be joined together, 'and of theſe ſhould ſome fit ones be choſen, to be made 'the recreation of one, whoſe chief buſineſs is with books 'and ſtudy.

'For a country gentleman I ſhould propoſe one, or rather 'both theſe, viz. gardening or huſbandry in general, and 'working in wood, as a carpenter, joiner, or turner, theſe 'being fit and healthy recreations for a man of ſtudy or buſineſs. For, ſince the mind endures not to be conſtantly 'employed in the ſame thing or way, and ſedentary and ſtudious men ſhould have ſome exerciſe, that at the ſame 'time might divert their minds and employ their bodies; I 'know none that could do it better for a country gentleman 'than theſe two, the one of them affording him exerciſes 'when the weather or ſeaſon kept him from the other, &c.

'The great men among the ancients underſtood very well 'how to reconcile manual labour with affairs of ſtate, and 'thought it no leſſening to their dignity, to make the one 'the recreation of the other. That, indeed, which ſeems 'moſt generally to have employed and diverted their ſpare 'hours, was agriculture. Gideon amongſt the Jews was 'taken from threſhing, as well as Cincinnatus amongſt the Romans, from the plough, to command the armies of their 'countries againſt their enemies; and it is plain, their dexterous handling of the flail, or the plough, and being good 'workmen with theſe tools, did not hinder their ſkill in 'arms, nor make them leſs able in the arts of war or government. They were great captains and ſtateſmen, as 'well as huſbandmen. Cato Major, who had with great 'reputation borne all the great offices of the commonwealth, 'has left us an evidence under his own hand, how much he 'was verſed in country affairs; and, as I remember, Cyrus 'thought gardening ſo little beneath the dignity and grandeur of a throne, that he ſhewed Xenophon a large field 'of fruit-trees, all of his planting. The records of antiquity, both amongſt the Jews and Gentiles, are full of 'inſtances of this kind, if it were neceſſary to recommend 'uſeful recreations by examples.

'Nor let it be thought that I miſtake, when I call theſe, or 'the like exerciſes of manual arts, diverſions or recreations: 'for recreation is not being idle (as every one may obſerve) but eaſing the wearied part by change of buſineſs: 'and he that thinks diverſion may not lie in hard and painful labour, forgets the early riſing, hard riding, heat, cold 'and hunger of huntſmen, which is yet known to be the 'conſtant recreation of men of the greateſt condition. 'Delving, planting, inoculating, or any the like profitable 'employments, would be no leſs a diverſion, than any of 'the idle ſports in faſhion, if men could but be brought to 'delight in them, which CUSTOM AND SKILL IN A TRADE 'will quickly bring any one to do. And I doubt not, but 'there are to be found thoſe, who, being frequently called 'to cards, or any other play, by thoſe they could not refuſe, have been more tired with theſe recreations, than 'with any the moſt ſerious empoyment of life; though the 'play has been ſuch as they have naturally had no averſion 'to, and with which they could willingly ſometimes divert 'themſelves.

'Play, wherein perſons of condition, eſpecially ladies, waſte 'ſo much of their time, is a plain inſtance to me, that men 'cannot be perfectly idle, they muſt be doing ſomething. 'For how elſe ſhould they ſit ſo many hours toiling at that, 'which generally gives more vexation than delight to people, 'whilſt they are actually engaged in it? It is certain, GAMING leaves no ſatisfaction behind it to thoſe who reflect 'when it is over, and it no way profits either body or mind: 'as to their eſtates, if it ſtrikes ſo deep as to concern them, 'it is a TRADE then, and not a RECREATION, wherein few, 'that have any thing elſe to live on, thrive; and, at beſt, 'a thriving gameſter has but a poor trade on it, who fills 'his pockets at the price of his reputation.'—Thus far Mr. Locke.

Altho' this recommendation of the exerciſe of manual trades to the gentry, by ſo great a man as Mr. Locke, ſeems to be intended only for health and recreation, yet I cannot help thinking but this remark may be extended ſtill to a greater degree of public utility. For, if the Britiſh nobles and gentry were, from their infancy, habituated to the manual exerciſe of any manufacture, and thereby became ſo far experimentally knowing in it's nature and operation, as to have a diſtinct idea of each part, and thence be capable of forming a good judgment of the whole thereof: if our people of diſtinction in general ſhould, by this means, obtain a reliſh to pry deeply into the practical nature of the various manufactural and mechanic arts, and, to this recreative knowledge and ſalubrious exerciſe, they ſhould add the political ſtudy of the commercial and money affairs of the ſtate; is it not reaſonable to conceive, that the conjunctive wiſdom of the repreſentatives of the nation, in general, could never be liable to deceit and impoſition by any diſtinct order of manufacturers, in oppoſition to the intereſt of the whole? Among a numerous gentry, if this once becomes faſhionable, there would ariſe taſtes for the exerciſe of different manual trades and arts; and, from their united knowledge, they would diſcern not only the true intereſt of every diſtinct branch, but the connection and dependency of each upon the other, and be thereby capaciated to judge of the real benefit of the whole, without detriment to any peculiar part: committees of the honourable houſe of commons would be capable of ſo prying into the nature of all trades, and every branch of commerce, foreign as well as domeſtic, that it would be ſcarce poſſible to be deceived by thoſe who conſulted their own advantage, in oppoſition to that of the community. Would not manual exerciſes of this kind tend more to the intereſt and glory of the nation, as well as the benefit of individuals, than that

itch of gaming which ſo unhappily prevails, for want of more rational amuſements, which contribute to invigorate the body, and inſtruct the mind in uſeful practical arts?

Would if not be more honour for a gentleman in parliament to be able to ſay, when any thing in relation to the woollen, linen, ſilken, &c. manufactures, came before that great aſſembly, that I have exercifed myſelf at the loom, and made ſeveral pieces of woollen or linen cloth, and ſilk, &c. and I know the management of the wool from the fleece, and the flax from the ſeed, and the ſilk from the worm; and, therefore, in what ſuch manufacturers repreſent to the houſe is falſe and impoſitious in ſuch reſpects, &c.—Would not, I ſay, this rebound infinitely more to the glory of ſuch a gentleman, than to have the reputation of the keeneſt gameſter, or the boldeſt fox-hunter?

Throughout ſeveral parts of this work we have ſhewn the uſefulneſs of many branches of experimental philoſophy to the intereſts of land and trade; and, as gentlemen ſtand in need of exerciſe and amuſement, here alſo is another ſcene, which will for ever delight and inform; a ſcene that will adminiſter endleſs improvement to all the manufactural and mechanic arts.

But, leſt ſome perſons of honour and quality ſhould ſtill remain unconvinced from what we have already urged throughout this work, in relation to the reciprocal dependency between the intereſt of land and trade, it may be uſeful to give a further idea of the national advantages ariſing from the manufactural arts.

It would certainly be worth the while of any gentleman to underſtand the whole progreſs of a manufacture, from it's commencement to it's conſumption, and how much it pays to the ſubſiſtence of the people. This appears from the ſuppoſition of 100 broad cloths ſent to Turkey, and the returns of raw ſilk, that are manufactured for our own conſumption, which is as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
Suppoſe a clothier buys at market 50 packs of wool, picked and ſorted, at 10 l. per pack	500	—	—
With which wool he makes 100 broad cloths; and the manufacture thereof, in carding, ſpinning, weaving, milling, dreſſing, &c. as they are uſually brought to, and ſold white at Blackwell-Hall, will amount to about the firſt coſt of the wool - -	500	—	—
So that theſe 100 cloths are ſold by the clothier to the merchant at 10 l. per cloth - -	1000	—	—
And the merchant pays for dyeing of the ſaid 100 cloths, $\frac{1}{3}$ part in grain colours, at 7 l. and two-thirds in ordinary colours, at 30 s. per cloth - - -	333	6	8
Alſo, for ſetting, drawing, preſſing, packing, &c. 15 s. per cloth - -	75	—	—
The ſaid 100 cloths will coſt the merchant 14 l. 1 s. 8 d. per cloth on board, which amounts to - - -	1408	6	8
And, to repay him their coſt and charges here, and their charges abroad, with a bare allowance for inſurance, and the intereſt of his money, they cannot purchaſe leſs, I ſhould think, than 22 great pounds of ſherbaffee (or Perſia fine raw ſilk) for every cloth.			
Thus he probably receives, for the ſaid 100 cloths, 2200 pounds weight of the ſaid raw ſilk.			
Now, if the half-part of this ſilk is wrought up into plain coloured tabbies, the manufacturers will receive 13 s. 7 d. per lb. -	747	1	8
And, if the other half-part is wrought up into rich flowered ſilks brocaded, the manufacturers will receive 1 l. 19 s. 9 d. per lb.	2186	5	—
And the additional charge of dyeing, ſuppoſe but of $\frac{1}{8}$ part of the ſaid ſilk, into grain colours, at 9 s. per lb. - -	123	15	—
Then the coſt and charges of 100 woollen cloths, ſhipped from London to Turkey, and the manufacture of the raw ſilk, brought from thence in return thereof, muſt amount to - - - -	4465	8	4
The freight of the ſaid 100 cloths, and of the ſaid 2200 lb. of raw ſilk, is computed at	40	12	6
Cuſtoms on the ſaid 2200 lb. of raw ſilk, at - - - -	156	15	—
Engliſh factor's commiſſion abroad on the ſale of the cloth, and on inveſting the returns in ſilk as aforeſaid, computed at - -	100	—	—

It is here clearly repreſented to the view of the reader, that every 2200 lb. weight of raw ſilk imported from Turkey, and manufactured here for our conſumption, without paying any thing to the merchant's or mercer's gain, pays to the landholders, the labourers, and the crown, the ſum of - - 4762 l. 15 s. 10 d.

If any thing is to be added for the merchant's and the mercer's gain (and we may depend upon it they will not be at the trouble of driving their trades for nothing) we may very well affirm that the whole coſt of this manufacture for conſumption cannot be leſs than 5000 l. ſo that 2200 pounds weight of Turkey raw ſilk, manufactured here, pays the ſum of 5000 l. to the ſubſiſtence of our own people.

This account takes the return upon 100 cloths exported to Turkey, and makes them pay 5000 l. to the ſubſiſtence of our people; but we have heretofore exported annually two hundred times as many cloths for Turkey, and received, for about half that quantity of cloth, the ſame kind of returns in raw ſilk for our own conſumption; and, conſequently, our own conſumption of Turkey ſilk paid for the ſubſiſtence of our own people the ſum of 500,000 l. per annum, beſides what is paid by the other half of that trade.

But if the conſumption of 5000 l. value of Turkey ſilk manufactured pays 500 l. to the landed intereſt, for the wool that is exported to Turkey in manufacture, then the annual conſumption of 500,000 l. value of that ſilk muſt pay 50,000 l. per annum to the landed intereſt.

And yet this is not all that the landed intereſt might receive annually by means of this half-part of the Turkey trade; the crown and the ſubjects, who receive nine times as much for cuſtoms and labour, pay, perhaps, a ninth part of what they receive to the landed intereſt for cloaths and proviſions; by which means the conſumption of Turkey ſilk manufactured in England, either directly or indirectly, pays a fifth part of it's whole value to the landed intereſt; that is, it pays directly one tenth part of the value of the ſilk by the woollen manufacture exported, and as much more by enabling the people to purchaſe neceſſary cloaths and proviſions, of which as much more is paid to the landed intereſt.

It will be objected here, that the 10 l. above-mentioned upon a pack of wool is not paid to the landed intereſt, ſince a part of it is paid to the ſhepherd's wages, and a part to the labour of picking and ſorting this wool.

It is very true: but then, conſidering how much of the product of the lands is exported to purchaſe dyeing goods, and eſpecially cocheneal, for our purchaſing of which with Engliſh manufactures, the tenth part of the price of the whole ſilk manufacture may be very well ſaid to be paid for the product to the landed intereſt.

But what a condition would the lands be in, if it were not for this trade and manufacture? It is evident, that, of every 5000 l. value of manufacture from Turkey ſilk, 500 l. is paid for the manufacturing of the Engliſh wool that is ſent abroad, 333 l. 6 s. 8 d. to the charge and labour of dyeing, 75 l. to other labour beſtowed on that manufacture, 747 l. 1 s. 8 d. for manufacturing one half of our returns, and 2186 l. 5 s. of the other, beſides 123 l. 15 s. for dyeing the ſame in grain colours; add to this the freight of 40 l. 12 s. 6 d. beſides the charges to factors abroad, and merchants and mercers at home; and it will appear that near 4000 of every 5000 l. value, or that near 400,000 of every 500,000 l. value of Turkey ſilk wrought in England, is paid to the labour of the manufactures and others beſtowed upon it.

Now what ſhall the people do for ſubſiſtence, when they are deprived of this 400,000 l.? Certainly they muſt come to the pariſh and the lands for a maintenance. We are obliged, therefore, to this part of the Turkey trade, this which imports raw ſilk from that country, that it has payed formerly 100,000 l. per annum to our lands, and ſaved them from maintaining as many people as are now ſubſiſted, at their own charge, to the value of 400,000 l. per annum. I think this is enough to ſhew, that the TURKEY TRADE ought to be the care of every gentleman in England.

Further REMARKS.

The improvement of practical arts and manufactures does greatly depend on the judgment and ingenuity of artizans and manufacturers themſelves; I mean, chiefly upon thoſe who are at the head of any manufacture; for the fancies of mankind are ſoon tired with the ſame faſhion; artiſts and manufacturers, therefore, muſt ever be upon the wing of invention: our neighbour nation, we know, is famous for being the grand parent of all modes and faſhions in dreſs, furniture, and almoſt every thing elſe. From hence they ſeem to derive a ſort of dominion, in this reſpect, over the whole world, the conſequence of which may, one day, give them the dominion in commerce; for that nation which ſhall carry the neweſt and moſt ornamental modes to foreign countries, in their manufactural and mechanic trafficable inventions, will, at length, carry away the trade.—If our Britiſh manufacturers will plod merely in their old-faſhioned roads, while our competitors are daily ſtriking into ſuch new ones as pleaſe the general taſte more, will not the trade of the one gradually grow out of date, whilſt that of the other is ever growing young and flouriſhing?

We are ſurprized that French faſhions ſhould be ſo prevalent in England, as well as all Europe. Is not this a ſign that they have, ſome-how and by ſome means, obtained the knack of gaining an aſcendency, in this reſpect, over all other nations? Our Britiſh manufacturers, and other well-meaning Britons, may blame the taſte of the world herein, and may be ſo fond of their own modes, 'till they may only keep them within themſelves, and thereby loſe all their foreign traffic. The taſte of the world muſt be pleaſed, and our artiſts muſt follow that taſte, or the traffic will inſenſibly leave them.—We may boaſt of our being the old ſhop for the woollen manufacture, but the French have cut us out with their new one; we may value ourſelves upon the ſubſtance, ſtrength, and excellency of our manufactures, but, if foreign nations like rather the ſlight and tawdry than what we call the ſolid and ſubſtantial, the ſubſtance will be converted into ſhadow, and the ſhadow into ſubſtance: I mean, in plain Engliſh, the French ſlight and ſhowy manufactures, which can be had for two thirds, perhaps, of the expence of what the Engliſh call their ſolid and ſubſtantial, will become the ſubſtantial commodities, and the ſolid the ſhadowy; for, in this ſenſe, I term that manufacture the ſubſtantial, which ſells the more univerſally.

It is not my intention to inſinuate any thing to the diſparagement of our Britiſh manufactories in general, or to depreciate the ſkill and ingenuity of our artiſts: on the contrary, I am perſuaded their labours, in general, are rather ſuperior, than otherwiſe, to any nation whatever.—All that I would mean to ſignify is, that I have obſerved an over-fondneſs in our manufacturers to ſtick too tenaciouſly to one and the ſame form of fabrics, whereby they loſe the trade, while our rivals, who purſue the contrary meaſures, gain it out of their hands.—This I take to be the true ſtate of the caſe; and, therefore, may deſerve the moſt ſerious attention of the public.

Throughout the courſe of this work I have ſhewn, from numerous inſtances, founded on FACT and REALITY, the wiſe and vigilant meaſures that have been, for above half a century, and ſtill are ſteadily taken, by our moſt dangerous trading competitor, to bring every branch of their mechanic and manufactural arts to the laſt perfection.—This is done by bringing up every claſs of their practical artiſts to excel in their reſpective employments.—None are admitted to the freedom of any of their trading corporations, without the actual performance of a maſter-piece of workmanſhip, in the real preſence of a number of jurats, ſolemnly ſworn for that purpoſe. See the article CANDIDATE. See alſo the various manufactural trades and arts deſcribed in this performance.—The ſervitude of their apprentices to the arts and manufactures is longer, and better regulated, than that of other countries.—See the article APPRENTICE.—The art of DESIGNING, which highly tends to the improvement of our capital manufactures, has been long publickly encouraged in FRANCE, and ſhamefully neglected in England. See the article DESIGN, and the article ENGRAVING.—In ſhort, the men of learning in France have, within theſe few years, greatly turned their ſtudies to the improvement of the old, and invention of new arts and trades, thinking the value of their old-faſhioned ſtudies of infinite leſs uſe to their country than what they have adopted.—To ſuch a degree is this ſpirit now arrived in that kingdom, that, by late accounts from thence, we are informed that they have begun to ſet on foot SOCIETIES FOR THE PERFECTING OF TRADES AND MANUFACTURES, EXCLUSIVE OF THEIR SEVERAL ACADEMIES, IN HOPES THE FORMER MAY HAVE AS APPARENT AN EFFECT IN PROMOTING THE MECHANIC AND MANUFACTURAL SKILL AND INDUSTRY, AS THE LATTER HAVE VISIBLY CONTRIBUTED TO PROMOTE TRUE SCIENCE, AND A SPIRIT OF ENQUIRY. Would it be any diſcredit to copy MODES of this kind from our neighbours?

So unſpeakably great are the advantages ariſing to commercial ſtates from manufactures, that it is not to be admired thoſe ſtates ſhould endeavour to decoy the ſubjects of ſuch importance from each other. Nor will the moſt rigorous laws and ſevereſt penalties prevent it; there ſeem to be but two things which will prove effectual to this purpoſe: the one is, a love that ſuch people muſt have to their native country; the other is, to live comfortably and get money.

In regard to the former of theſe, nothing can be more conducive thereto than the wiſdom of our conſtitution, both in church and ſtate; yet experience ſhews that alone will not do; for men will ſooner live proſperouſly under the worſt government, than they will ſtarve under the beſt. The great point, therefore, is to advance our commerce, that they may all live well, and their families proſper, ſo that we may have a conſtant race and ſucceſſion of the moſt experienced and adroit artiſts of this kind.

As ſo much depends upon the art and ingenuity of this claſs of people, ſhould any wiſe meaſure tending thereto be neglected? With reſpect to apprentices in this employment, we have ſhewn, throughout this work, what other nations do; but the ordinary methods taken by us, in relation to this great point, are nothing like ſo wiſely calculated to render them ingenious.—Nor, when they are out of this juvenile ſtate of ſervitude, the methods taken by us to know whether they have well or ill ſpent their time, are not ſo well adapted as thoſe of our competitors, which we have repeatedly ſhewn. How, therefore, can we but expect that our own artiſts ſhould decline in ingenuity, while thoſe of our rival nation are advancing.—This is the caſe of our common laborious working manufacturers and artizans, when comparatively conſidered with thoſe of France.—And, in regard to the principal undertakers and conductors of our capital manufactures, who find the fortunes wherewith to carry them on, and who are, or ſhould be, the great inſtruments to improve our old manufactures, as well as to ſtrike out ſuch new that will hit the taſte of foreign countries, they have met with no encouragement in this kingdom like unto what they have met with in France, as hath been made appear in variety of inſtances.

People are convinced now, that the chief ſtates of Europe are ſtriving for the dominion in commerce; knowing, if they once obtain that, they cannot want the like in empire. And, ſince it is ſelf-apparent, that the ſuperiority and dominion in commerce ſo materially depends on our manufactural arts, does it not nearly concern the conſtant proſperity and happineſs of theſe kingdoms, to think of every meaſure that may contribute to the advancement of thoſe important arts amongſt us?

In the management of the more eſtimable manufactures, there is required not only an extraordinary dexterity, care, and ingenuity, on the part of the common workmen, to execute their reſpective parts to the neceſſary perfection; but there is required alſo, in the principal undertakers and managers of ſuch manufactures, a judgment and ſagacity requiſite to conduct and controul every diſtinct part, in order that the whole may turn to profit and honour.

Too many, perhaps, may imagine, that the meaneſt capacity and the moſt awkward wretches are equal to the working and laborious part of our manufactures, and therefore that the ordinary methods whereby thoſe perſons are trained up from their infancy, are adequate to their employment. I cannot help differing from ſuch who think ſo. Where great agility and dexterity of limbs are required in a manufacture, the ſtature, make, and diſpoſition of youth, ſhould be taken into conſideration, in order that a right judgment might be made, whether he is formed by nature for the employment intended. The human ſpecies differ as much among themſelves as the brute creation; the horſe that is fitted by nature for the race or the ſaddle, will not do for the coach, the waggon, or the plough, &c.

Thoſe children who are brought up at the public expence, either in charity-ſchools or hoſpitals, &c. are ſo much the children of the public, that they have a right to diſpoſe of them. And, as the nation ſtands in need of a conſtant ſupply of the manufactural and mechanical artiſts, the public have a right to bring up theſe children who are maintained by charitable benefaction, in ſuch a manner as they ſhall judge proper, in order to render theſe children the more ſkilful and ingenious in thoſe arts. Wherefore, in regard hereunto, the following queries are ſubmitted, viz.

1. Whether the education of the children of the poor, who are maintained by public charity, does not require a general reformation, to the end that they may become more ingenious in the mechanical and manufactural arts, than their preſent manner of bringing up will admit of?

2. Whether ſuch children of the public ſhould not be duly claſſed out, from their make and genius, at a ſuitable age, by proper governors, inſpectors, and directors of pariſhes, &c. and apprenticed out to ſuch manufactural and mechanic buſineſs, as they may prove the moſt fitted for by nature?

3. Whether the ſooner they are brought to practiſe thoſe manual trades, that do not require ſtrength beyond their years or their natural make, the nation is not likely to have a more dextrous and ingenious race of working manufacturers, &c.?

4. Whether ſuch ſchools ſhould not be conſtituted, by LAW, WORKING SCHOOLS, and that only two hours of their time in the day ſhould be allotted to learn to read and write, &c.?

5. Whether it may not be expedient to think of proper ways and means to excite an emulation among theſe manufactural children, to excel in their reſpective manual trades?

6. Whether thoſe children, being apprenticed out to maſter-manufacturers 'till they are 24 years of age, might not ſomewhat contribute to enable our manufacturers ſo to lower the price of their goods, that the nation might not ſuſtain ſuch injury as we do, from other countries underſelling us?

7. Whether maſter-manufacturers ſhould not be allowed a certain number of thoſe children for apprentices, and no more; and whether thoſe trades, that are in the moſt declining condition, ſhould not be entitled to more of theſe children as apprentices, than thoſe which are in a pretty flouriſhing condition?

8. Whether infant children at two years of age, whoſe parents cannot maintain them, and therefore are willing to reſign them to the public to be brought up to ſome honeſt manufacture, ſhould not be duly provided for by the public for

that

that purpoſe; and whether ſuch meaſures would not prevent many infant children being brought up by their diſtreſſed parents, in a ſcene of theft and iniquity; and whether this would not be making ſuch a uſeful and happy proviſion for poor children, as to lay the axe to the root of thoſe immoralities, which might otherwiſe grow up with them, from the bad example of their parents?

9. Whether it would not greatly conduce to encourage theſe youths, to excel in their peculiar manual arts, provided they were entitled, after the expiration of their apprenticeſhip, to a certain premium, proportionate to their ingenuity and good behaviour in their maſter's ſervice?

If, from the preceding, or ſuch-like meaſures, the kingdom ſhould be always well ſupplied with a ſucceſſion of adroit and ingenious working manufacturers, the maſter-manufacturers and undertakers will never want hands to execute their moſt delicate inventions, which will greatly contribute to the national improvement of theſe arts; for, if thoſe upon whom the inventive arts depend, cannot have a number of proper workmen to execute what they contrive, it is a diſcouragement to invention.

The next matter that naturally falls under conſideration, according to this train of thinking, is, how, and in what manner, the inventive faculty of our maſter-manufacturers may be ſo aſſiſted, as to deſign ſuch a perpetual ſeries of new modes and faſhions in their fabrics, as may ſcarce ever fail to hit the taſte of foreign nations.

Having dwelt ſo long upon this head already, for brevity's ſake, what I have further to ſuggeſt, may be beſt done by a few ſhort general propoſitions.

1. That, in order conſtantly to pleaſe the taſte of foreign countries in our Britiſh manufactures, it is neceſſary to conſult the climate, the diſpoſition, and way of thinking and judging of the ſeveral ranks of people in ſuch countries, what manufacturers they ſupply themſelves with, and what they generally import from other nations.

2. Of theſe particulars our maſter-manufacturers ſhould not only inform themſelves by reading the beſt accounts we have of theſe things, but ſhould conſult and adviſe with our merchants; and, before they put themſelves to too great an expence in their inventions, to get ſuch merchants to ſend over patterns of their new improvements to ſuch foreign countries, in order to have the opinion thereon of the foreign merchants and tradeſmen in ſuch countries.

3. That various foreign markets be thus tried with one and the ſame improved manufactures: for what will ſuit one, frequently will many.

4. That our maſter-manufacturers conſtantly obtain of our merchants, from foreign countries, the patterns of ſuch manufacture as are ſent by France, or any other foreign nation, and ſell well in other countries, and the price which our merchant exporters can afford to give our maſter-manufacturers for ſuch goods.

5. That our maſter-manufacturers think of every kind of materials which the earth, or the brute creation, affords, whereby they might chiefly improve any ſort of our old manufactures, or by means thereof might invent any new kind.

6. That our maſter-manufacturers, from having all ſorts of ſuch-like materials always before them, may think of the moſt natural, cheap, and elegant methods of compounding and working divers materials together, ſo as always to afford ſome new improvement.

7. That they make conſtant enquiry after various ſorts of foreign materials, and obtain ſuch ſmall ſamples of them, as may be compounded and worked ſtrongly and beautifully with ſome of our own materials, or with our own and the materials of ſeveral foreign countries, &c.

8. That our maſter-manufacturers gain a knowledge of any new invented looms, or other machines, or any kind of inventions, which are uſed in foreign countries, whereby they make ſuch fabrics that pleaſe the taſte of foreign nations better than the preſent Britiſh.

9. That, in order to obtain ſuch knowledge, the maſter-manufacturers concerned in the ſame branches contribute by a joint purſe, to ſend deputies over to any foreign country, either ſome one or more of their own body, with intent to get a thorough knowledge of ſuch new invented looms, machines, &c.——Or, that they ſend a perſon abroad for that purpoſe, who is well ſkilled in mechanics, ſo as they may be able to bring away ſuch new invention into their own country.

10. That, as ſome peculiar improvement in divers ſorts of fabrics of wool, ſilk, velvet, tapeſtry, &c. may frequently depend on new invented machines, &c. it ſeems neceſſary that our maſter-manufacturers ſhould endeavour ſo to inform themſelves of the principles of mechanical powers, as to be able to think for themſelves, in what manner any improvements in their fabrics might be made, by means of ſuch new invented looms, machines, &c.—Or, when they have deſigned any new invention in their mind, which they cannot execute, by means of their ordinary looms and machines, ſuch manufacturers, if they cannot themſelves invent a machine ſuitable to the occaſion, ſhould apply to ſome able practical mechanic, or conſult ſome ſkilful mathematician, who may have more particularly turned himſelf to mechanical inventions, &c.

11. That our maſter-manufacturers be bred up regularly to the art of DESIGNING; more particularly thoſe in the ſilk, linen, velvet, and tapeſtry, &c. fabrics, which will greatly help their invention with what may pleaſe the fancies of foreigners. See the articles DESIGN and ENGRAVING.

12. That public rewards be given to all ſuch, although they are not manufacturers, who ſhall make any capital improvements in any of the old Britiſh fabrics which are exported to foreign markets, or ſhall invent any new ones for the benefit of exportation.

13. That all Britiſh maſter-manufacturers endeavour, to their utmoſt, to keep their capital diſcoveries as much as they can a ſecret from foreigners, who may ſend their ſpies over to obtain a knowledge of them.

For more matter that has conſonancy herewith, ſee the ſeveral articles referred to at the beginning of this article.

An abſtract of an act of parliament for the effectual puniſhing of perſons convicted of ſeducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain; and to prevent the exportation of utenſils made uſe of in the woollen and ſilk manufactures from Great-Britain or Ireland, into foreign parts, and for the more eaſy and ſpeedy determination of appeals, allowed by another act relating to perſons employed in the ſame manufactures therein mentioned. 23 Geo. II.

Whereas by an act of the 5th of Geo. I. intitled, An act to prevent the inconveniencies ariſing from ſeducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain into foreign parts, it is enacted, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall contract with, or endeavour to entice, any manufacturer or artificer of or in wool, iron, ſteel, braſs, or any other metal, clock-maker, watch-maker, or any other artificer or manufacturer of Great-Britain, to go out of this kingdom, into any foreign country out of his majeſty's dominions, and ſhall be lawfully convicted thereof, in the manner preſcribed by the ſaid act, the perſon or perſons, ſo convict, ſhall be fined any ſum not exceeding 100l. for ſuch firſt offence, &c. and ſhall be impriſoned for the ſpace of three months, 'till ſuch fine ſhall be paid.—And, if any perſon or perſons, having been once convict as aforeſaid, ſhall offend again, and be ſo convict a ſecond time of the like offence, in ſuch caſe, the perſon, ſo convict a ſecond time, ſhall be fined at the diſcretion of the court, and ſhall be impriſoned for twelve months, 'till ſuch fine be paid.—And whereas, notwithſtanding the penalties to which offenders againſt the ſaid act are thereby ſubjected, divers wicked perſons have of late ſeduced into foreign parts ſeveral artificers in the woollen and other manufactures; and it is become neceſſary to make ſome more effectual proviſion to prevent evils ſo deſtructive to the trade of this kingdom, &c. Therefore, for preventing the ſaid pernicious practice for the future, &c. be it enacted, &c. That if, at any time after the 24th of June 1750, any perſon or perſons ſhall contract with, entice, perſuade, or endeavour to perſuade, ſolicit, or ſeduce any manufacturer or artificer, of or in wool, mohair, cotton, or ſilk, or of or in any manufactures made of wool, mohair, cotton, or ſilk, or any of the ſaid materials mixed one with another, or of or in iron, ſteel, braſs, or any other metal, or any clock-maker, watch-maker, or any other manufacturer, workman, or artificer, of or in any other of the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, of what nature or kind ſoever, to go out of this kingdom, or out of the kingdom of Ireland, into any foreign country, not within the dominions of, or belonging to, the crown of Great-Britain, and ſhall be lawfully convict thereof, &c. the perſon or perſons ſo convict ſhall, for every artificer, workman, or manufacturer, ſo by him, her, or them, reſpectively contracted with, enticed, perſuaded, ſollicited, or ſeduced, ſeverally forfeit the ſum of 500l. and ſhall ſuffer impriſonment for 12 calendar months without bail or mainprize, and until ſuch forfeiture ſhall be paid.—And, for a ſecond offence, they ſhall forfeit 1000l. and be impriſoned for two years.—Proſecution to be commenced within twelve months after the offence committed.

Perſons, exporting the utenſils made uſe of in the woollen and ſilk manufactures from Great-Britain or Ireland into foreign parts, ſhall forfeit the tools and 200l. penalty.

Officers of the cuſtoms and revenue impowered to ſeize all ſuch tools as ſhall be found on board ſhips bound to foreign parts, and the ſame to be ſold after condemnation, and the produce to go to the king and the officer. Captains of veſſels, permitting ſuch utenſils to be put on board, to forfeit 100l. Captains of his majeſty's ſhips to forfeit 100l. and to be caſhiered.

Officers of the cuſtom-houſe, ſigning cockets, &c. for the exporting of ſuch tools to forfeit 100l. and his employment. One moiety of the forfeitures to go to the king, the other to the proſecutor.

Proſecutions to commence within ſix months after the fact committed, and the perſon ſo ſued may file common bail, and plead

plead the general iſſue.—And, if found not guilty, may give this act, and the ſpecial matter in evidence.—If the proſecutor become nonſuit, &c. the defendant ſhall recover treble coſts.

MANURE for land. The matters uſed for this purpoſe are various, as well in different countries, as in different parts of the ſame countries. The moſt ordinary are dung, lime marle, and peat, ſea-ſhells, ſuch as thoſe of cockles, periwinkles; all which muſt be applied according to the quality of the ſoil.

REMARKS.

The temperaments of earth in general may be diſtinguiſhed into three claſſes, ſand, loam, and clay. Sand is a collection of ſolid, ſtony, and looſe particles, and ſcarce capable of coheſion alone. The parts of this earth, in proportion to their enlargement and variation from a globular figure, are gradually changed into gravel, or a couch of pebbles. Theſe different ſtony ſoils are capable of receiving water, oil, ſalts, fire, air, and all the principles of vegetation into their interſtices; but can never retain them for any conſiderable time, ſince the nutrimental mixtures ſlide through the vacuities as eaſily as they at firſt filled them. To prepare this kind of land for cultivation, it muſt be properly tempered with a ſuitable loam, clay, or marle.

Pure earth is a maſs of little clods, extremely fine, and qualified for an immediate conjunction with each other, and for continuing imbodied in that manner. When the earth is very compact, and it's conſtituent particulars are not ſeparated by any cavities, it forms ſoils of clay, marle, or chalk, which retain the juices they receive, but are not very tractable to the impreſſions of water, heat, or air. The fibres of plants can hardly penetrate theſe ſoils, and their culture is rendered very difficult; but, if theſe are duly mixed with a ſand that will keep them ſuitably open, they may be profitably cultivated.

Loam, or, that earth which is a medium between ſand and clay, is a powder which partakes of the pliancy of ſand and the conſiſtency of pure earth, and may be called a compoſition of minute ſupple maſſes, ſomething ſpongy in their nature, and eaſily diſunited by labour. They readily open to the influences of the air, and are very retentive of what they receive. Plants can ſhoot their fibres into this ſoil without obſtruction, and are accommodated with a copious nutriment.

The juſt temperament of the ſoil, which we call loam, is manifeſt by the pliancy of the parts that compoſe it, and by the vigour of it's productions. But we too often meet with a diſproportion in it's qualities, and this earth of an intermediate nature may be ſandy in ſeveral degrees, without being ſand itſelf; or it may reſemble marle, without having any real intermixture of that ſubſtance.

When a ſoil is either too lean or compact, they are corrected with variety of manures, according to the intention. Horſe-dung, which is light and dry, is laid to advantage on a ſoil of mould, where little clods are apt to imbody with each other; and an intermixture of cow-dung, which is fat and binding, is appropriated to a ſandy ſoil. By theſe expedients conſiſtence is given to the one, and rarefraction to the other, which is a judicious and profitable proceeding.

The more induſtrious have recourſe to a method ſtill more efficacious and durable in it's effects, ſince it ſtrikes at the cauſe of the evil. They open the ground to a certain depth, either in their garden or ſome adjoining ſpot, and endeavour to find a bed of earth entirely different in it's qualities from the land they would rectify. They intermix and thicken a dry and ſandy ſoil with a proper quantity of mould, or at leaſt with a marſhy earth, which is frequently no more than a black and binding loam. But they open and diſunite a marly earth, by mixing it with a large quantity either of river ſand, or of that which is found in ſubterranean veins of gravel.. When the earths are thus blended together, they are thrown into heaps, 'till the different ingredients have had time to incorporate in a proper manner. The beams of the ſun, the winds and froſts, together with the conſtant action of the air, will complete the preparation of the whole, and we may then plant in a ſoil entirely new.

But, as we acquire knowledge by very imperfect ſteps and degrees, and may be eaſily deceived in the choice of a ſoil, which appeared to us ſufficiently qualified to improve our own land; it will be prudent to make the firſt experiments on a ſmall quantity of earth, 'till we are ſatisfied by very apparent ſucceſs, that our endeavours to meliorate the whole will not prove ineffectual.

The eſſential particulars to be regarded are, your permitting the blended, or artificial ſort, to be fallow, a year at leaſt, before you begin to plant; and your compleating the mixture not in a parſimonious manner, but to the depth of three or four feet: otherwiſe, whatever you plant will inevitably periſh, when their roots begin to penetrate into another vein of earth, which will wound them by it's unpliant coheſion, or parch them up by it's dryneſs.

If the ſoil be groſs and difficult to be moved, or ſpongy to an extreme degree, your lands ſhould be raiſed towards the middle, and ſunk at the extremities into ſuitable ſlopes; by which means the water that would otherwiſe chill your lands, were it to remain upon them too long, flows off towards the alleys, and may ſink into ſuch a drain, as will convey it to the ditch that bounds the fields.

Whatever may be the nature of the ſoil, we find an excellent effect from clearing the alleys, in the winter-ſeaſon, of their ſnow, and throwing it on the beds, where fertility is greatly improved by this method.

Upon eſtates of any conſiderable ſize, where lands lie united, there are often variety of ſoils, and by a proper mixture and compoſition of the one with the other, according to the principles before laid down, the one ſort of land or ſoil will contribute, in a great meaſure, to meliorate the other; ſo that, with due judgment, grounded upon repeated experimental trials, by ſmall quantities, the proper manures for many lands very frequently lie contiguous to each other, and yet remain unknown to the proprietor or the farmer, for want of a competent knowledge in the proper mixture and compoſitions of earths, ſo as reciprocally to aid and aſſiſt each other; in order to make a compoſt ſoil, which will help to forward, expedite, and increaſe the general principle of fertility. But,

I fear there is one general miſtake, in relation to the nature of manure, that runs through all our practical principles of agriculture; which is, that we are too apt to imagine that the great principle of fertility depends upon the application of certain kinds of groſs matter to particular ſoils: whereas I humbly conceive, that all groſs matter, as dung, lime, marle, or any other groſs earth whatever, have not inherent and eſſential to them thoſe great virtues which are generally imagined; but, by the admixture and incorporation of theſe ſorts of earths with others, either to open or ſhut different ſoils, ſuitable to their reſpective qualities; ſuch compoſitions of earths contribute to prepare ſoils only for the more effectual reception of the virtues of fertility; for thoſe augmentative virtues of fertility may, perhaps, upon due experimental trials, be found to exiſt in the water, the air, the dew, ſnow, light, and fire; and that ſoils, or groſs earths of any kind, are no more helpful to the great principle of vegetation than as a MATRIX, conſtantly to receive and nouriſh the inceſſant influence of fertility.

If then it ſhall appear, that the nature of vegetation in general, by repeated unerring experience, is grounded upon theſe plain and obvious principles, it may poſſibly open an extraordinary door for univerſal improvements in every branch of vegetation. For, if this be the real caſe, it will naturally lead us to the mixture of ſuch ſorts of earths as will neceſſarily tend either to looſen or ſhut others, ſo that the ſpongy principle may be the better promoted, in order to receive more copiouſly the influences of fertility that are inherent and eſſential to the water, the rain, the dew of heaven, as the ſacred oracles of God ſtile it, light and fire, &c.

We are but too ſenſible that our reaſonings about the wonderful and intricate operations of nature are ſo full of uncertainty, that, as the wiſe man truly obſerves, hardly do we gueſs aright at the things upon earth, and with labour do we find the things that are before us.

And this obſervation we find ſufficiently verified in vegetable nature, whoſe abundant productions, though they are moſt viſible and obvious to us, yet are we much in the dark about the nature of them; becauſe the texture of the veſſels of plants is ſo intricate and fine, that we can trace but few of them, though aſſiſted with the beſt microſcopes.

We find, by the chemical analyſis of vegetables, that their ſubſtance is compoſed of ſulphur, volatile ſalt, water, and earth; which principles are all endued with mutually attracting powers, and alſo a large portion of air, which has a wonderful property of ſtrongly attracting in a fixed ſtate, with a power which is ſuperior to vaſt compreſſing forces; and it is by the infinite combinations, action, and reaction of theſe principles, that all the operations in animal, as well as vegetable bodies, are affected.

Theſe ſhort obſervations may excite to further reſearches of this nature, which is the chief end of introducing them in a work of this kind. See AGRICULTURE, CHEMISTRY, EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY.

On the MANURING and CULTIVATING the LANDS of GREAT-BRITAIN and IRELAND in general, in order to render LABOUR and COMMODITIES cheap.

In order to introduce what I have further to ſay upon the manuring or cultivating of lands, which is, at preſent, a point arduouſly laboured in France, with a view to leſſen the price of commodities in general, it may be proper to lay down and illuſtrate ſome principles relating to money, which may deſerve to be regarded as maxims perhaps.

This, indeed, I intended to have done under the article MONEY; but, conſidering that it would not be ſo properly adapted to what I would urge in relation to lands, and alſo that I ſhould have matter of a different kind to come under the head of MONEY; I judge, upon the whole, it will be beſt to come in here.

I. Money, i. e. gold and ſilver, being, by the conſent of moſt nations, become counters for adjuſting the value of all things elſe, and balancing accounts between man and man, and the means by which commodities of all kinds are procured and transferred from one to another, is hence become the ſole medium of trade.

II. Money can be brought into a nation that hath no mines, by the means of trade only, i. e. by ſuch nations exporting more goods in value than they import: for, in proportion as the value of the exports exceeds the value of the imports, money, which muſt balance the account, increaſeth faſter or ſlower [ſee the article BALANCE of TRADE]; and, contrariwiſe, where the imports exceed the value of the exports, the caſh of ſuch nation muſt proportionably diminiſh: this is called, and doth conſtitute, the general balance of the trade of all nations that have not mines.

III. Money will be moſt plentiful where the mines are: as the quantity of coals will be greater at Newcaſtle, than at any place that is ſupplied only with coals from thence: and, conſequently, I mean, that gold and ſilver will as certainly be leſs valuable where the mines are, than at any other place which is ſupplied by them with thoſe metals.

IV. That the prices of the produce of manufactures of every nation will be higher or lower, according as the quantity of caſh circulating in ſuch nation is greater or leſs, in proportion to the number of people inhabiting ſuch nation. See the article CASH.

To illuſtrate this, let it be ſuppoſed that we have ten millions of caſh, and as many people in England; it is evident they have twice as much money amongſt them, in proportion to their number, as they would have, if their number were doubled, and the quantity of caſh remained juſt the ſame. And therefore I think, they could give but half the price for things in general in this caſe, that they could do when they were but half the number, with the ſame quantity of money circulating amongſt them. Wherefore, if the people increaſe, and the caſh doth not increaſe in like proportion, the prices of things muſt fall; for all the people muſt have neceſſaries, to procure which they muſt all have money: this will divide the ſame quantity of caſh into more parts, that is, leſſen the parts; and then it is evident they cannot pay ſo much for their neceſſaries, as when the ſame caſh, divided into fewer parts, makes the parts greater.

The prices of all things in this kingdom, ſome centuries ago, were vaſtly lower than they are now. In the reign of king Henry VIII. it was enacted, that butchers ſhould ſell their meat by weight; beef at an halfpenny, and mutton at three farthings per pound: and, if we look back to the reign of king Edward III. we find wheat was ſold at two ſhillings per quarter, a fat ox for a noble, a fat ſheep for ſixpence, ſix pigeons for a penny, a fat gooſe for two pence, a pig for a penny, and other things in proportion. See Baker's Chronicle.

Since the great difference of the prices of theſe things now, to what they then ſold for, is undoubtedly owing to the great quantity of gold and ſilver, which ſince that time hath been brought into this kingdom by commerce, it follows, that the prices of things will certainly riſe in every nation, as the gold and ſilver increaſe among the people; and, conſequently, that, where the gold and ſilver decreaſe in any nation, the prices of all things muſt fall proportionably to ſuch decreaſe of money, or the people muſt be diſtreſſed, unleſs the number of people decreaſe in as great proportion, as the caſh decreaſeth in any ſuch nation.

V. Banking, ſo far as one is paid with the money of another, that is, where more caſh notes are circulated, than all the caſh the bankers are really poſſeſſed of will immediately anſwer; ſo long, we ſay, as this credit is maintained, it hath the ſame effect, as if there was ſo much more caſh really circulating amongſt the people, and will be attended with thoſe conſequences; that, as the price of things will hence be raiſed, it muſt and will make us the market, to receive the commodities of every country whoſe prices of things are cheaper than ours.

And, though we ſhould lay on duties, or prohibit ſuch goods, this will not prevent the miſchief, becauſe we ſhall not be able to carry our commodities thus raiſed to any nation, where things are cheaper than ours; and becauſe ſuch nations will hence be enabled to ſet up many of our manufactures, &c. and by their cheapneſs ſo interfere in our trade at all other foreign markets, as to turn the balance of trade againſt us, which will diminiſh the caſh of the nation. The ſame thing muſt be underſtood of all public ſecurities whatever, that operate as money amongſt us.—This ſhews the ill effects to commerce of a large paper circulation, by means of our national debts, ſtocks, funds, duties, and taxes. See the articles CIRCULATION, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, DUTIES, BUBBLES, TAXES.

VI. The plenty or ſcarcity of any particular thing is the ſole cauſe whence any commodity or thing can become higher or lower in price; or, in other words, as the demand is greater or leſs, in proportion to the quantity of any thing, ſo will ſuch thing, whatſoever it is, be cheaper or dearer. Nor can any arts or laws make this otherwiſe, any more than laws or arts can alter the nature of things.

VII. All things that are in the world, are the produce of the ground originally, and thence muſt all things be raiſed. The more land, therefore, ſhall be improved and cultivated, &c. the greater will the plenty of all things be, and the more people will it alſo employ. And, as the produce will hence be increaſed, ſo will the conſumption of all things increaſe too; and, the greater the plenty becomes this way, the cheaper will every thing be.

And thus will money become plentiful, becauſe leſs money will purchaſe every thing, in juſt the ſame proportion as the plenty of every thing ſhall reduce the prices, by the increaſe of every thing in reſpect of the demand. And, if this method be ſufficiently purſued, the plenty may be increaſed ſo much, as to make victuals and drink half the price that they are at now; which will make the price of the labour of working people much lower, for the rates of labour are always ſettled and conſtituted of the price of victuals and drink: and all manufactures will be vaſtly cheaper, for the value of all manufactures is chiefly conſtituted of the price or charge of the labour beſtowed thereon. This therefore ſhews how to make money plentiful, viz.

Firſt, By thus making the neceſſaries of life cheaper, to ſuch a degree as ſhall be found effectual to reduce the preſent rates of labour, and thereby the price of every thing elſe ſo much, that the money, now circulating amongſt the people, may extend a vaſt deal further than it now will do.

Secondly, We ſhall hence be enabled to make and export our manufactures at much lower prices, and this muſt needs cauſe us to export abundance more of them to thoſe nations that now take them of us; beſides, this will enable us to carry our produce, &c. further and cheaper, to induce other nations to take them of us, who now perhaps do not take any of our goods; whence the caſh of the nation will certainly increaſe, by raiſing the value of our exports above the value of our imports; that is, the general balance of trade will thus be in our favour, or money will thus be made plentiful.

VIII. Plenty of money never fails to make trade flouriſh; becauſe, where money is plentiful, the people in general are thereby enabled, and will not fail to be as much greater conſumers of every thing, as ſuch plenty of money can make them: therefore trade is always found to flouriſh, i. e. increaſe, as money grows more plentiful amongſt the people. The year 1720 was a proof in fact of this maxim. And hence the revenue muſt needs increaſe likewiſe, if the duties are always levied on the things which the people conſume and uſe.

IX. Where trade flouriſhes (we mean where the balance of trade is conſiderably in favour of any nation) there the people always increaſe greatly, and become generally happy, whence ſuch nations ever grow potent and formidable. This hath always been found true in fact, and is almoſt ſelf-evident.

X. It is the ſtrength, honour, and intereſt of every government, that their ſubjects be as numerous, as the continent they govern will ſupport in an happy condition; and, as the happineſs (i. e. the riches) and numbers of the ſubjects are greater or leſs, ſo will the ſtrength, honour, and revenue of every government be.

XI. A kingdom or ſtate may have more people in it, than the land it contains can well ſupport; that people therefore muſt be wretched, and that government weak, 'till ſo many of the poor people, as diſtreſs each other by their numbers, are removed where they can have land to ſupport them. The caſe is the ſame exactly in every nation, where the land which is cultivated doth not afford enough to make all things very plentiful, for this alone can make people happy.

XII. The quantity of land to be further put to cultivation and tillage, muſt be ſo great, as to increaſe the plenty of every thing to ſuch a degree, that the PRICE of every thing may by that plenty be ſo greatly lowered, that the rates of labour may alſo thereby be lowered, 'till MONEY thence come to be plentiful amongſt the people in general. 'Till this end be anſwered, nothing material is effected, nor can trade be effectually enlarged abroad, or relieved at home: for the cultivation of land is the principal natural encouragement which trade can receive; becauſe all things muſt firſt come out of the ground, and, according as the produce of the earth is more or leſs plentiful, ſo will the conſumption of all things be greater or leſs; that is, ſo much more or leſs trade will there be amongſt the people. On this the revenue of the nation doth ſo much depend, that the whole amount of it will be greater or leſs, as this is, or is not duly encouraged; beſides, the ſame ſums will effect more or leſs accordingly.

XIII. The caſh of any nation will always decreaſe and become ſcarce, in proportion as the rents are raiſed, above what the plenty of money, circulating in trade amongſt the people, will well enable them to pay; and, where there is not land enough cultivated to keep down the rents, and thereby to remedy this miſchief and ſupport the people, it may go to ſuch an extream, as to leave very little money in the nation. For, where rents are raiſed, every thing elſe muſt and will riſe too: whence other nations will be able to

ſupply

ſupply our market; and, as moſt of our commodities will hence become too dear to be taken by them in return, ſo we ſhall ſend much leſs of our goods to other foreign markets; whereby the balance of trade will turn againſt us, and draw off our money, as long we have any.

XIV. Rents have been advanced, from this principle, which alone can poſſibly raiſe the price of any thing, viz. a demand for farms, &c. in greater proportion than they were well to be had.

And, as this hath in a greater meaſure hindered the people from going on, as ſuch demand for farms ſhews they naturally would, in cultivating more land as they increaſed in numbers, ſo that the ſurplus or increaſe of the people have been obliged to employ themſelves in TRADES, MANUFACTURES, and PROFESSIONS, 'till they have ſo much overſtocked and embaraſſed all theſe, that their trades, &c. will not anſwer to ſupport them, whilſt at the ſame time the neceſſaries of life, and rents have been greatly advanced, to what they were formerly.

This, therefore, muſt be remedied, or multitudes muſt be ruined: nor can the gentleman eſcape: for, if money becomes ſo ſcarce (as it certainly in a great meaſure is at preſent amongſt the people) that the fruits of the earth will hardly bring money enough to ſupport the farmers, and pay all charges excluſive of rent; as many gentlemen already find, who, on that account, are obliged to take their farms into their own management: this being the caſe, the gentlemen, we ſay, can fare no better than to become ſkilful induſtrious farmers themſelves, and get their living by that means, 'till money, as it hath herctofore been, becomes plentiful enough to pay all charges, with a ſurplus to pay rent; which will be done, whenever the rents are lowered enough to make money plentiful amongſt the trading part of the people, but not ſooner.

XV. If all the gentlemen in the nation would lower their rents at the requeſt of the people, this could not anſwer the end; becauſe the demand for the fruits of the earth, which the land at preſent cultivated can produce, is, and will continue to be ſo great, if the people be not diminiſhed, as neceſſarily to keep the price higher than the money circulating amongſt them will well enable them to pay for; and becauſe, until many more of the people are employed in cultivation, &c. to leſſen the number of poor, and make greater plenty, all kinds of trade, manufactures, and profeſſions, muſt needs continue ſo overſtocked with numbers of people employed in them, as abſolutely to ſpoil them all, as to the profits, which is the ſole end of trade. Wherefore, the natural way to lower the rents, can only be, by putting ſuch very great tracts of waſte land into cultivation, as may make farms abound; which will lower and make the rents eaſy, and will employ the people, not in cultivation only, but in every kind of manufacture, trade, and calling. For all this will be the neceſſary conſequence of cultivating ſuch large tracts of waſte land, as muſt be cultivated to make farms abound, and rents eaſy.

Senſible we are, that propoſitions of this kind, 'till they are thoroughly examined and ſcrutinized, will meet with objections at firſt from gentlemen of landed eſtates: ſince, ſay they, if the plenty of all productions of the land be ſo greatly increaſed, that the whole thereof ſhould become a great deal cheaper than at preſent, the general rental of the kingdom muſt neceſſarily be lowered, in proportion thereto: we are ſo apprehenſive of the temporary prevalence of this prejudice againſt what has been ſuggeſted on this head, that it may not be eaſily removed: but, ſuppoſing that the conſequence of incloſing and cultivating great quantities of more lands, both in Great-Britain and Ireland, ſhould occaſion a fall in the general rental, we conceive it will not prove any real loſs to the proprietors. For,

What has been urged is a weighty argument to ſhew, that the ſcarcity of money among the people will unavoidably diſable the farmers to pay their rents. To this cauſe, which naturally leſſens the conſumption of all things, in proportion as the national caſh grows ſcarcer, and thereby keeps the fruits of the earth from riſing to a price, that might enable the farmers to pay their rents, it muſt be aſcribed, that corn, &c. frequently ſcarce fetches money enough to pay all charges, excluſive of rent, and not to the plenty of corn, conſidered in itſelf. For, cheap as corn is, the number of poor, as moſt pariſhes find, is greatly increaſed of late years: this is apparent, from the numbers we are continually tranſporting, and the neceſſity of erecting workhouſes for the poor, and the complaints of tradeſmen all over the kingdom, which have been, and are very great, and very juſt. Now ſuppoſe corn, &c. conſiderably advanced, to enable the farmers to pay their rents, what muſt become of the trading part of the nation, who already, with juſtice, complain they can hardly get money to ſupport themſelves at the preſent rates of things? And how much more would the poor and their calamities increaſe, by ſuch a riſe of neceſſaries, together with the ſtill greater decay of trade it muſt occaſion; ſince, if the prices of things were to be advanced, the people in general, for want of money, muſt, if poſſible, be ſtill leſs conſumers, and conſequently occaſion juſt ſo much leſs buſineſs amongſt them, who have already much too little? Beſides, it is always found that as trade leſſens (or is divided amongſt more particulars, which is much the ſame thing in effect) the profits of trade leſſen in ſtill greater proportion to the buſineſs tranſacted.

But to proceed: To ſhew that gentlemen will loſe nothing by falling the rents, let it be ſuppoſed, that all the land in the kingdom were to be raiſed 20 l. per cent. per ann. ſince the land would bear no more corn, graze no more cattle, &c. than it now doth, muſt not the corn and cattle, &c. be conſiderably advanced? and muſt not the labourer, whoſe neceſſaries muſt then coſt more, have more for his labour? and muſt not timber to make carriages, and for every other uſe, coſt more to fell and hew it, &c. and muſt not horſes, to draw the fruits of the earth, &c. to market, be more valuable; and conſequently carriage, and every manufacture coſt more too? All things would certainly thus be raiſed, if money could be found to circulate them at ſuch an advance. And then, ſince gentlemen are conſumers, and muſt buy every thing as well as others at this advance, what would they be advantaged by receiving 20 per cent. per ann. more, and paying that at leaſt, if not more, for what they want?

But if gentlemen ſhould ſay, this would be ſo as to what they ſpend, yet what they ſave and lay up, would be more: for inſtance, Suppoſe a gentleman of 1000 l. per ann. now ſpends 500 l, and lays up 500 l. per ann. if eſtates were thus raiſed, he would at the ſame rate ſpend 600 l. and lay up 600 l. per ann. But how would he be the richer, ſince, the price of every thing being raiſed in like proportion at leaſt, which is an unavoidable conſequence, his 600 l. would purchaſe no more than 500 l. did before? Wherefore, gentlemen would, in this caſe, be not one jot advantaged.

If, therefore, rents ſhould fall 30 per cent. per ann. every thing would certainly fall, in at leaſt the ſame proportion; ſo that gentlemen would loſe nothing but the name of ſo much per annum; which, I think, the argument above doth ſufficiently evince. But, leſt the name of loſing ſo much per annum ſhould be a prejudice, ſtrong enough to prevent the execution of this ſo neceſſary propoſal, let it be further conſidered, that empty houſes, the number of which at preſent is very great, and will be greater ſtill, if this method be not taken to fill them; I ſay, empty houſes, if they can be filled, are real eſtates as well as land. Now, if money be thus made plentiful, as it certainly may, this plenty of money will ſoon make trade flouriſh; and a flouriſhing trade will ſoon enable the people to occupy more houſes, and hereby the NUMBER OF PEOPLE likewiſe will ſoon be increaſed; ſo that landlords taken in their full extent *, including landlords of houſes, as well as of land, will thus certainly be gainers, by falling their eſtates ſo much as ſhall be needful to make money plentiful, which will ſoon fill their houſes.

* Dr. Nichols, in his Conference with a Theiſt, page 64, ſays, To conſider farther, how mightily this nation of ours hath increaſed within a century or two; notwithſtanding the many civil and external wars, and thoſe vaſt drains of people that have been made into our plantations, ſince the diſcovery of America: how the city of London hath doubled itſelf within theſe forty years, notwithſtanding the laſt great plague; and how the country hath increaſed, though not in the like, yet in a conſiderable proportion, &c.

But it may be ſaid, if lands muſt fall 30 per cent. which is near a third, to fill the houſes, and but an eighth, or a ninth of the number of houſes, as I ſhall ſhew, remain to be filled; how are landlords, taken in the full ſenſe of the word, including landlords of houſes as well as of land, gainers? To which we anſwer, that the rents are now raiſed above their proper value; for the proper value of any thing is really no other than what the money circulating among the people will well enable them to pay; nor can any greater value be long ſupported, by any means whatſoever.

But it will be aſked, How ſhall we know when the prices of things are at this proper value? I anſwer, that as the price of labour is always conſtituted of the price of neceſſaries, and the price of all other things chiefly of the price of labour, whenever the price of neceſſaries is ſuch, that the labouring man's wages will not, ſuitably to his low rank and ſtation as a labouring man, ſupport ſuch a family, as is commonly the lot of many of them to have, the price of neceſſaries being then evidently ſo much too high, every thing elſe is ſo too, or then may the prices of things juſtly be ſaid to be above this proper value.

But it will appear, perhaps, that gentlemen will be the richer for falling all the lands in the kingdom 20 or 30 per cent. per ann. provided this fall be effected only by the addition and cultivation of ſo much more land, as will make farms ſo plentiful, as to reduce the rents of lands to ſuch degree. For,

If it ſhall appear that landed gentlemen would be the poorer, if all the lands in the kingdom were raiſed 20 per cent. per ann. it ſhould ſeem the reverſe muſt neceſſarily follow; i. e. that he would be the richer, if all the lands were fallen 20 or 30 per cent. per annum; that is to ſay, 70 or 80 l. would certainly

certainly purchaſe more, if all the lands were ſo fallen, than 120l. would do, if all the lands were ſo raiſed: which we ſhall endeavour to prove.

If all the lands were raiſed 20 per cent. per ann. it is certain they would not produce more, but, perhaps, leſs, than they now do, by putting it, in ſome degree, out of the farmer's power to exerciſe ſo much ſkill and be at ſo much expence to cultivate them, as they could do before the rents were ſo raiſed: we ſay, ſince the land could, however, produce no more than it now does, all the produce, whatever it conſiſts of, muſt be ſold, not only for all the 20 pounds more, but there muſt be profits likewiſe on all thoſe 20 pounds to enable the farmers to buy whatever they want at higher prices; which every thing muſt needs be advanced to, from thus raiſing the produce; which, as it paſſes through every mechanical and manufactural hand, muſt ſtill have proportionably increaſed profits on the thus raiſed prime coſt, before it comes to the conſumer; who, therefore, muſt thus certainly, in the end, not only pay all the advanced 20l. rent, but likewiſe the neceſſary profits thereon through all the ſeveral hands it muſt paſs: and, ſince the price of labour [ſee the articles LABOUR and MANUFACTURERS] which adds the greateſt value to every thing, muſt be enhanced alſo, it is manifeſt, the ſame quantity of produce muſt be dearer, by all the firſt advanced 20l. rent, and by ſuitable profits to all the ſeveral hands through which it muſt paſs, together with a greater charge of labour thereon; whence it follows, that if the ſame quantity of produce muſt thus coſt a great deal more, than all the 20l. rent, by which it was firſt enhanced, the parts muſt coſt more too in ſuch proportion; ſo that we need not ſcruple to aſſert, that 140l. could not, in this caſe, purchaſe what 100l. now doth: whence it appears, that gentlemen, who are conſumers in common with others, would thus evidently be much the poorer for ſo raiſing their eſtates; and, therefore, it ſhould ſeem an undeniable conſequence, that they would be the richer by lowering their eſtates 20 or 30 per cent. per ann. ſince it muſt be equally certain, that 70 or 80l. would purchaſe more, in this caſe, than 100l. does at preſent; as it is certain 120l. in the other caſe, would not purchaſe ſo much as 100l. now does.

And this both accounts for, and verifies an obſervation, which ſome gentlemen make, and wonder at, viz. that they experience they cannot live ſo hoſpitably on the ſame eſtates as their anceſtors did, who had vaſtly much leſs income from them, than their ſucceſſors now have, who make this obſervation.

If therefore, gentlemen find themſelves ſtraitened, by raiſing rents above what the circulating money will enable them to pay, how great muſt the ſtraits and difficulties prove which are brought on the people, out of whom ſuch heavy rents are raiſed?

It may probably be objected, that this argument concludes too much; ſince, if 70l. will, in this caſe, purchaſe more than 120l. why will not nothing purchaſe more than ſomething? To which it may be anſwered, There is a proper point, at which it will ſtop of itſelf, which is this: whenever the wages of the labouring man and price of neceſſaries are made ſo near equal, that he can, ſuitably to that low rank in life, maintain ſuch a family as he, in common with all the human kind, may be preſumed to raiſe: when the labouring man's wages will do this, the rent the lands will then bear, is that proper and fit rent, which will enable gentlemen to purchaſe more of every thing, than any larger rents can enable them to do: which may be proved thus:

Suppoſe the rents raiſed ſo much, as neceſſarily to carry the price of goods, to conſumers in general, to higher rates than the money they can get will enable them to purchaſe what they really want; this will make a kind of unnatural plenty of goods, preſenting themſelves for buyers, who, though they really want them, cannot find money wherewith to purchaſe them, and therefore are compelled to abridge their neceſſary wants as much as they can: this depreſſes the value of thoſe goods (which thus in the end muſt want buyers) below the rates which the rents have made neceſſary; and this will inevitably keep the produce of the land which the farmers bring to market ſo low, that they cannot make it anſwer to bear all charges, and pay their rents; whence gentlemen muſt find it difficult, if not impoſſible, to get their rents; whilſt, at the time, whatever they buy, as hath been proved, will neceſſarily be dearer in a greater proportion, than ever the rents can be raiſed; whereby it ſeems plain, that ſuch rents of land in general, as will neareſt comport with the point above-mentioned, will always purchaſe moſt of every thing.

There is yet another weighty argument to induce gentlemen to make money plentiful, by an annual additional culture of a due proportion of land; that is, a due regard to the happineſs of their own families. For, let it be conſidered, that men come into this world to raiſe a new generation, and depart out of it. Now, the term of life, men will be found to have one with another, from the time of marriage to their death, is very little more than 20 years: in which time, one marriage with another, we may ſuppoſe, produces about four children, who live to man's eſtate: ſuppoſe a gentleman of 2000l. per ann. to make proviſion for his children, lays up 500l. per ann. which, in 20 years, will be 10,000l. ſaved for them, and which divided into four parts, including the widow's ſhare, which muſt often happen, can be but 2500l. for each child's ſhare: and, ſince this is not only much inferior to the eſtate it was ſaved out of, but hardly ſufficient, viz. the intereſt thereof, to maintain a ſingle perſon handſomely, moſt of the children muſt be introduced into trade, to improve their money for their families, or they will ſoon reduce it to nothing. If trade be languiſhing and diſtreſſed, it cannot be expected but many ſuch will ſink in the general difficulties trade lies under: wherefore, if there be any way practicable to make the money plentiful amongſt the people in general, which never fails to make trade flouriſh, it ought to be done, not only from a common principle of affection to the public good, but for the particular benefit of every gentleman's own immediate offspring, many of whom are ſure to be affected, as trade proſpers or decays.

But the languiſhing condition of trade is by ſome aſcribed to the luxury of people, concerning which let it be conſidered:

It is expected of every man, that he provide for himſelf and family a ſupport; but this expectation is unreaſonable, if things are not ſo wiſely conſtituted in their own nature, that every one may attain this end.

The ways men have to attain this ſupport, are the exerciſe of their ſeveral occupations.

Theſe ariſe ſolely out of the mutual wants, &c. of mankind. Children, who can do little or nothing towards ſupplying themſelves, make about half the buſineſs of the world, ſince more than half the human race die under 17 years of age.

If the people muſt retrench in their expence, they muſt do ſome or all theſe things, viz. wear fewer and worſe cloaths, &c. eat leſs and worſe victuals, employ fewer or no ſervants, occupy leſs houſe-room, and uſe leſs light and fuel, and ſpend little or no money in any pleaſure or diverſion; and, inſtead of wine or ſtrong beer, drink ſmall beer or water, and avoid marriage, as many certainly do, becauſe it creates a greater expence than they can ſupport. Would not this leſſen the conſumption of every thing, and hinder many from ſupporting themſelves and families, by making ſo much leſs buſineſs amongſt the people, and thereby greatly increaſe the number of poor; who, if no other way be found to employ them, which tillage alone in this caſe can do, muſt become a much greater burthen than they are? Beſides, where the poor increaſe, the profits of trade will be ſtill more and more reduced, through loſſes, and want of trade, and the efforts of ſuch great numbers of indigent people, as muſt be ſtriving to ſupport themſelves in the reduced quantity of trade that remains. And muſt not the revenue be greatly diminiſhed likewiſe, ſince in this caſe the conſumption of things, on which the revenue entirely depends, muſt be leſſened very much? A beggarly people can neither pay great taxes or great rents.

Inſtead, therefore, of urging the people to be leſs conſumers, things ſhould be made ſo plentiful, that they might be greater conſumers, that trade and commerce might increaſe, and not diminiſh. Hereby luxury would find it's natural and proper bounds, which, if any man tranſgreſſed in an extraordinary meaſure, he would be ſufficiently whipped with his own rod.

Moreover, with reſpect to the nature of luxury, thoſe that are not influenced by the natural motives to frugality, will not eaſily be reſtrained by any other whatſoever.

The natural motives to frugality are theſe, preſent proviſion for families, and fortunes for children.

They who neglect the former, muſt ſoon ſuffer want; and they who would provide for the latter, muſt conſider what the term of life is, which they may reaſonably hope for, and take care that their gains and expences are proportioned to the end deſigned.

As perſons muſt, generally at leaſt, have tolerable fortunes themſelves, who ſhall be able to provide fortunes for their children, let it be ſuppoſed, that a man ſets out with 2000l. and by ſkilful and prudent management he gains, one year with another, about 500l. If men who have ſuch fortunes muſt not live a little decently, whence can trade, which entirely depends on, and terminates wholly in the conſumption of things, ariſe? How can landlords expect any conſiderable rents for their houſes, &c. and to pay rent and taxes, and all other charges, and maintain a middling family in London, with decency ſuitable to a reputable tradeſman, when 250l. per ann. is nothing ſuperfluous, even where all things are managed with great œconomy?

But ſuppoſe, in this caſe, ſuch a man ſhould lay up, one year with another, 200l. and that for 20 years, which is, I believe, much about the term men have to raiſe and provide for families, he then would add 4000l. to his firſt 2000l. which makes 6000l. together, to be divided amongſt four children, which I take to be the number one marriage with another raiſes; this ſum, therefore, will be but 1200l. for each child's ſhare, if a like ſum be reſerved for the widow; and if there ſhould be no widow, but 1500l. for each child, which will not often ſet them in better circumſtances than their parents

rents ſet out in: but, if things muſt be worſe than this, families muſt ſoon ſink into poverty. And, ſince theſe things are ſubject to many and great contingencies, nobody ought to think 25 l. per cent. per ann. even on ſuch a capital employed in trade, too great gain; eſpecially, conſidering what ſkill and pains are neceſſary to reach this end, and to what great riſk money employed in trade is always expoſed, beſide the preſent and future proviſion with which families are to be ſupplied out of it.

Nothing ought to be deemed luxury in a tradeſman, whilſt he lives at about half the income of his buſineſs; yet in prudence he ought not to make too great a figure, becauſe of the uncertain and fluctuating nature of trade, which may happen ſome time or other, by misfortune, if not otherwiſe, to turn againſt him; and becauſe, the more he can lay up for his children, the more will he have done towards raiſing them to better ſtations in life.

Nor ought it to be deemed luxury in a tradeſman if he ſpends the whole income of his buſineſs, if ſuch expence be unavoidable, when the utmoſt frugality and good management are exerciſed in ſuch a man's family.

Peace and plenty comprehend all the felicity mankind were deſigned to enjoy in this mortal ſtate; and are ſo well known to conſtitute the happineſs of the world, that they are proverbial terms to expreſs the compleateſt general felicity; which undoubtedly ſuggeſts, that they have by experience been found to anſwer the end.

Wherefore, if there be any difficulty among the people, it muſt be owing to the defect of one or both of theſe.

As we are now in peace, it muſt be owing to the deficiency of plenty that the trade of this nation is in ſuch a languiſhing condition; the truth of which the numerous complaints to the parliament, and great number of empty houſes, abundantly evince.

Where tillage and cultivation of land are not annually to a conſiderable degree increaſed, even peace, and the natural increaſe of mankind, do neceſſarily produce a general decay of trade.

For peace, which puts an end to the vaſt buſineſs which war neceſſarily creates, obliges thoſe that were employed, and found their livelihood by the affairs of war, to employ themſelves in the trade and buſineſs which the peaceable ſtate of affairs produce; and, as hereby there is a much greater number of people to be ſubſiſted on ſo much leſs buſineſs as the ending a war puts a period to, it is apparent this muſt divide the remaining buſineſs into a great many more parts; whence the profits, which ought to be ſo much augmented as the buſineſs to each particular becomes leſs (becauſe the expence of living will not be leſs) are always found by experience to leſſen, in a greater proportion than the buſineſs to each particular leſſens. This is the inevitable conſequence of having a greater number of people in any trade, where the buſineſs tranſacted by them all is no greater than when the ſame trade and buſineſs were in ſo much fewer hands; and hence ruin muſt happen to many whoſe trades are thus unhappily circumſtanced.

Beſides, peace, lowering the intereſt of money, brings many more people into trade, who either cannot live on the reduced intereſt of their money, or are not ſatisfied to do ſo, and, therefore, enter on trade to improve their money to better advantage; and ſuch, having abundance of money to employ, muſt needs take a great deal of buſineſs from thoſe that had it before, by doing buſineſs at much leſs profit than it was before done, that they may employ the large ſums they bring into trade. This muſt needs make it very difficult for people of much leſs fortunes to get a living, greatly increaſe the number of poor, and empty the houſes too, by diſabling the people to pay ſuch rents as they did before. This ſtate of things will alſo drive many out of the nation, to get their livings by the arts they have learned here.

The heavy debts and taxes which war hath laid this nation under, ſufficiently evince that war is not the natural means to make trade flouriſh, ſince the conſequences are ſtill ſo burthenſome to us. And, if we look back to the condition France was reduced to by queen Anne's war, which introduced both famine and peſtilence amongſt them, and occaſioned the people to ſurround the dauphin's coach in crowds, and cry out, Peace and bread! Bread and peace! Surely theſe things may fully convince us that war is a very great calamity.

Peace, therefore, being the only natural foundation of happineſs to any nation, and trade the particular means whereby the people can be employed and ſubſiſted, the promoting and improving trade ſhould be always conſulted, and eſpecially in time of peace, which is favourable to ſuch a deſign.

In general, there ſhould never be any reſtraints of any kind on trade, nor any greater taxes than are abſolutely unavoidable; for if any trade, by this means, be cramped and fettered, thoſe who ſubſiſted by the buſineſs, which now hath reſtraints and burthens laid upon it, will be rendered incapable of purſuing it, and, of conſequence, they muſt be employed ſome other way, or drove out of the kingdom, or maintained at the public charge; which laſt is always an additional grievance, and ultimately falls upon trade, and ſhould, if there be any poſſible way which might employ them, be prevented.

That there are natural means to ſubſiſt all mankind in a happy condition, manifeſtly appears from the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Supreme Being, who hath taken ſuch ample care of all the creatures below us, that they want no good thing, nor ſuffer any hardſhips but what unreaſonable men bring upon them. Wherefore, if the Almighty hath ſo wiſely and graciouſly provided for all the creatures below us, for whoſe happineſs other beings evidently appear to be deſigned, it muſt be abſurd to imagine he hath diſpoſed things ſo, that unhappineſs in any degree ſhould unavoidably ariſe to man, whom he hath placed at the head of all his works in this world. Therefore, whatever difficulties mankind meet with muſt be owing to their own miſmanagement, in not looking through the nature of providence with reſpect to themſelves.

One branch of that providence, which men ſhould attend to and conſider, is, that mankind as certainly increaſe as other animals and vegetables, and, therefore, that increaſe muſt continually be employed in cultivating proportionably more land: for otherwiſe, being all conſumers, there muſt continually be greater numbers ſubſiſted on the produce of the ſame land which was before cultivated; and this will increaſe the demand for the produce, and inhance the price of it, whilſt the increaſing people muſt employ themſelves ſolely in trades, manufactures, &c. to enable them to ſubſiſt: whence it muſt needs come to paſs, that trades, manufactures, &c. will ſoon be overſtocked; that all the increaſe of the people cannot be ſubſiſted this way, ſeeing the neceſſaries of life, for which they all ultimately work, will all the while be growing dearer, and the people leſs able to purchaſe them. And, as I take this to be very much our preſent caſe, ſo this propoſition of cultivating proportionably more land, appears to me to be one natural remedy to be applied; the happy effects of which, if ſufficiently executed, will ſoon diſcover to be an univerſal benefit, notwithſtanding any imaginary appearances to the contrary.

But I think it needful here to obſerve at what rate mankind increaſe, becauſe their happineſs certainly depends on cultivating ſtill more and more land in ſuch proportion. We will conſider this matter upon the principles of Sir William Petty, who has endeavoured to ſhew that mankind will abſolutely double themſelves in 360 years, notwithſtanding the contingency of wars and plagues; therefore, accordingly, the quantity of land which every year ſhould be taken in and new cultivated, muſt be at leaſt a 360th part of the quantity at preſent in cultivation.

Now, if England be 320 miles long, and 290 miles wide, it muſt, ſuppoſing it's length and breadth to be every-where alike, contain 92,800 ſquare miles: but, as England is not ſo regular a figure, I ſuppoſe it will be needful to deduct a third of it's contents for it's irregularity, towns, and rivers, and then there will be about 62,000 ſquare miles contained in it.

Suppoſe that at preſent but about half, that is, 31,000 ſquare miles, are cultivated, a 360th part of that, viz. 86 ſquare miles at leaſt, ſhould every year be further added, and taken into cultivation, to hold proportion to the natural increaſe of mankind: and if a greater part of England be already improved than I have ſuppoſed, or if mankind increaſe much faſter than Sir William Petty above aſſerts, then the addition every year muſt be greater in ſuch proportion.

But, as nothing like this hath hitherto been done, it is evident to demonſtration that hence all trades, occupations, manufactures, and profeſſions, are overſtocked with numbers, and embarraſſed: and hence rents have been advanced, by the demand which the increaſe of people hath occaſioned for land; conſequently living is become much more chargeable than formerly, and the people leſs able to ſupport themſelves: beſides, the inhancing the price of neceſſaries hath either advanced our commodities, or made them ſo much worſe in quality, that our neighbour-nations have not taken ſo many of them as they would otherwiſe have done; and we probably muſt have taken more commodities from them for this reaſon. And thus, it is to be feared, that the general balance of trade and money is againſt us; that is, the gold and ſilver of this nation have, by this means, been really diminiſhed, notwithſtanding the great increaſe of paper credit and circulation; and the prodigious exportation of gold and ſilver, of late years, is a ſtrong indication of it, whatever pretences may be advanced concerning it to the contrary.

And, if our trade goes on ſo, and our competitors, more or leſs, ſupplant us therein, we ſhall, in time, loſe our real caſh, and be obliged to carry on our buſineſs with paper currency only.

But if, to prevent theſe evils, we do, as faſt as poſſible, put a very great quantity of land into cultivation more than at preſent is cultivated, our poor will be employed, the empty houſes filled, and our manufactures become much cheaper and better; and this will both increaſe our exportations to the nations we now trade with, and give riſe to other foreign markets to vend our goods at, and prevent the exceſſive importation of foreign goods amongſt ourſelves: by which po-

ſcy, the general balance of commerce will not only be turned in our favour, pro tempore, but, in conjunction with the other meaſures we have ſubmitted throughout this work, the ſame may always be kept ſo, and money thereby become plentiful enough amongſt the people in general, and their happineſs be increaſed in proportion to their ſteady purſuit of ſuch honeſt and induſtrious meaſures: and, perhaps, there is no other way in nature to compaſs this end, and effectually to recover the trade of the nation: for thoſe nations that can work cheapeſt, muſt have the money, ſo certain as they always will have the commerce; to which I will add, that the people will always flow into thoſe nations that get the money (i. e. have the general balance of trade in their favour) becauſe trade, which is the means of procuring money and landed eſtates, is that which employs and ſubſiſts them.

And it may deſerve conſideration, whether theſe meaſures, ſteadily backed and forwarded by ſuch others which we have occaſionally ſubmitted, may not prove a more effectual way than ſome that have been propoſed, ſo to multiply our own people, without giving any diſguſt or uneaſineſs to the native-born ſubjects, that we may have as little ſcarcity as dearneſs of labour among ourſelves.

And as to the purchaſe of eſtates, which is always governed by the intereſt of money, they will be valued at as many years purchaſe as they would, if the annual rental had not fallen; and, though the ſums they ſell for muſt be leſs in proportion as the rents ſhall be lowered, yet the money will have, at leaſt, all the ſame effects apply it how you pleaſe.

The great number of empty houſes within the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and places within the bills of mortality*, will certainly, in time, be attended with reducing the rents, perhaps, full one half, if the methods propoſed be not applied to prevent it.

* By the bills of mortality of the year 1730, which, by the preceding and ſucceeding years, appears to be a moderate year, there died in London and Weſtminſter, and the ſuburbs thereof,

		Perſons.	The medium of which age is	One year makes amongſt them	Years.
Under	2 years old	10,368	13,908		10,368
Between	2 and 5	2,448	under 10	3 ½	8,568
	5 10	1,092	years	7 ½	8,190
	10 20	901		15	13,515
	20 30	2,048		25	51,100
	30 40	2,471		35	86,485
	40 50	2,373		45	106,785
	50 60	1,713		55	94,215
	60 70	1,577		65	102,505
	70 80	1,601		75	75,075
	80 90	622		85	52,870
	90 110	138		95	13,110
		2		101	202
		1		102	102
		2		103	206
		3		104	312
		1		105	105

By the no. of deaths, 26,761, div. the yea. they lived, 623,713, and 23 years, and about one third, according to this bill of mortality, appears to be the par-term of human life; multiply the deaths by this term, ſhews the number of people living in the bills of mortality to be about 624,423 perſons; and, if we ſuppoſe the houſes, one with another, to contain 10 fouls, then the number of houſes inhabited will be 62,442.

By a ſurvey taken in the year 1732, 8000 houſes appeared to be empty in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and places within the bills of mortality; moſt of which lett, at an average, for 20l. per ann. at which rate, there was upwards of 160,000l. rent yearly loſt in the bills of mortality, more than a ninth part of the whole building being empty. By this bill of mortality it alſo appears, that more than half the human race die under 10 years of age: and, if we conſider the number of young perſons, under and over this age, who live to ſupply the places of thoſe that die in all the ſtages of life above this term, there can be no doubt that children make about half the buſineſs of the world, as I have aſſerted. And though it appears, by this bill of mortality, that the term of life, on the par, is about 49 years, excluding all thoſe that die at 20 years and under, yet I cannot imagine the term men have to raiſe and provide for families in the marriage-ſtate doth much exceed 20 years, ſince it is pretty certain marriages in general commence a few years at leaſt later than the age of 20 years, and are undoubtedly generally diſſolved by the death of one of the parties, before they both reach the term of 49 years.

We are ſenſible the great number of empty houſes is aſcribed to the increaſe of buildings: but, whoever conſiders that there are not leſs than 6 or 700,000 people in the bills of mortality, and that, according to the natural increaſe of mankind, at the loweſt computation, of doubling in 360 years, the increaſe will be near 40,000 people ſince that time*; he will be neceſſarily obliged to aſcribe the empty houſes to other cauſes, and not to the increaſe of building ſolely. However, ſince they are built, and their being inhabited, or ſtanding empty, will certainly have ſuch an influence on the rents of the kingdom, and the revenue likewiſe, it behoves us to take the proper methods to fill them; which I am confident will ſoon be effected by cultivating land enough to make a plenty of money amongſt the trading part of the people in general, but not otherwiſe.

* We are not inſenſible that Mr. Derham, in his Phyſico-Theology, ſhews that the deaths in London, as in moſt great cities, are greater than the births; whence an objection may ſeem to ariſe to the increaſe above-mentioned; which I think is of no weight, becauſe if a nation will abſolutely double itſelf in about 360 years, notwithſtanding wars and plagues, cities muſt do ſo too: nay it is plain, by what Dr. Nichols ſays, London increaſed at ſo much greater rate as to double itſelf in 40 years, notwithſtanding the laſt great plague, which happened in that period.

But further, if the people increaſed, as Dr. Nichols ſays they did, ſo as to double themſelves in London in forty years, notwithſtanding the laſt great plague, which happened within the period he wrote of; and the country increaſed, though not in the like, yet in a conſiderable proportion (and I hope his authority is ſufficient to bear me out) then the buildings ſince the peace of Utrecht, which hath by no means, I think, been in proportion to one fourth of ſuch an increaſe of people, cannot be the reaſon to which the vaſt number of empty houſes can be aſcribed.

But the empty houſes muſt be aſcribed to ſuch a diminution of trade, and, conſequently, of caſh amongſt the people, which makes it ſo difficult for the people to get money to ſupport them, that many are become incapable to pay their rents, and many muſt have forſaken the nation on this account: for the people will diminiſh where the means of getting a livelihood is not well to be attained ſuitable to their ſeveral ranks and ſtations; which is a neceſſary conſequence where the general balance of trade becomes againſt any nation.

For it is evident, ſuch a nation hath amongſt them juſt ſo much buſineſs leſs than their own ſeveral wants create, as the amount of the balance againſt them is, which leſſening their caſh, at the ſame time, in the like proportion, brings a double inconvenience with it, viz. want of money and employment: and, if things are ſuffered to go on ſo, the people muſt diſperſe and diminiſh. And therefore this maxim, well known amongſt merchants, appears well founded, it being only the reverſe of what is ſhewn above, That the people always increaſe in whoſe favour the balance of trade is conſiderable; as it muſt needs have been in ours, in that period of time Dr. Nichols wrote of; ſince, notwithſtanding ſo great an increaſe of the people, the prices of every thing, as is well known, rather advanced all the time, which they could not have done if the caſh of the nation (without the great paper circulation, occaſioned ſince by our public debts and taxes) had not increaſed in yet greater proportion than the people increaſed, as I think the illuſtration of the fourth preceding maxim evinces.

Hence therefore it appears, that every nation ought to keep trade on ſuch a foot, as always, on the whole, to have the balance in their favour: for, if mankind double themſelves only in 360 years, if the real caſh of the nation be not augmented every year 360th part, the people muſt in a few years be diſtreſſed for want of money, unleſs all things be made at leaſt ſo much cheaper to prevent it.

And, as the means of doing this is in the power of every nation, that has waſte land enough to improve to increaſe their plenty*, and thereby reduce the price of things; ſo the improving ſo much waſte land as anſwers this end; will furniſh employment, and conſequently a livelihood for the people; and will always, not only prevent a conſiderable number of houſes from ſtanding long empty, but will continually cauſe more to be added all over the kingdom; as the vaſt increaſe Dr. Nichols aſſerts there was, particularly in London, within forty years, beſides the great increaſe in the country in the ſame time, doth fully ſhew.

* Dr. John Laurence, in his Syſtem of Agriculture, p. 45, ſays, Without all queſtion, improvement of lands, of what kind ſoever, makes riches and plenty, and plenty calls together inhabitants, and people to conſume it. And p. 47, he ſays, So plain it is, that incloſure is the greateſt encouragement to good huſbandry and remedy for beggary, the poor being employed by the continual labour beſtowed on ſuch land, which is doubly repaid by the fruitful crops it annually yields.

That we may put this matter paſt all doubt, let it only at preſent be granted, which we ſhall ſhew hereafter, that the people in London and Weſtminſter were really doubled in about forty years; ſince this, nor any thing like this, could be the effect of the natural increaſe of mankind, it muſt have ſome other powerful cauſe: this cauſe, we apprehend, was a flouriſhing trade, which we thus prove, viz.

The

The people were doubled in the city of London, and increaſed too in the country, though not in the like, yet in a conſiderable proportion; nevertheleſs, the prices of neceſſaries, and all other things in general, were higher than thoſe things were forty years before: now this, by our fourth preceding maxim, was abſolutely impoſſible, if the caſh of the nation had not been vaſtly increaſed alſo. Wherefore, as we have no mines, the caſh could be increaſed only by exporting ſo many more goods in value than we imported. As this is, in itſelf, that which conſtitutes a flouriſhing trade in any nation; ſo we ſee the effect was the doubling the people in London; wherefore, let our trade be again put on ſuch a foot, that we may be able to raiſe our produce and commodities of every kind, as cheap as any nation can raiſe, or make any thing, whereby they may interfere in any branch of our trade; and the ſame effect will again manifeſt itſelf, and conſequently not only fill the empty houſes, but cauſe more to be added.

As it hence appears abſolutely needful to keep trade on a foot, whereby the balance may always, on the whole, be in our favour; ſo it is certain, the mines which are continually giving gold and ſilver, do afford ſufficient to ſupply ſuch a needful balance. For the gold and ſilver, which the mines, ſince the Europeans have poſſeſſed them, have not only furniſhed Europe in general with quantities equal to the increaſe of mankind ſince that time, but ſo much more gold and ſilver, as to enhance the price of all kinds of commodities throughout Europe in general; and eſpecially in thoſe nations who have, either directly or indirectly, had the moſt conſiderable trade with the countries where the mines are: and this, in all probability, they will always continue to do; but, if not, we ſhall ſhew, in ſome future parts of this work, how to do that which will always be equivalent.

And, with reſpect to the countries which are thus continually furniſhing this balance to the reſt of the world, they, having the mines, have that which is equivalent to ſuch a balance in their favour.

We have before laid it down as a maxim, that gold and ſilver (i. e. money) will be moſt plenty where the mines are: let it then be ſuppoſed, that the people poſſeſſed of the mines could furniſh themſelves with the neceſſaries and pleaſures of life by the produce of their own country, and therefore ſhould think fit to prohibit the exportation of gold and ſilver, and ſhould thereby be effectually able to prevent the exportation thereof, which is undoubtedly impoſſible: if we ſuppoſe theſe nations to make ſuch prohibition, and at the ſame time continue to work thoſe mines, ſo that they are perpetually yielding more and more gold and ſilver, how great muſt the increaſe of thoſe commodities ſoon become? And, ſince gold and ſilver are of little uſe, beſides procuring the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, which alone are real riches, and for which gold and ſilver are now univerſally exchanged; would not the great plenty of theſe commodities, thus continually increaſing, cauſe proportionably ſo much more gold and ſilver (with which they would at length be incumbered) to be given for the more neceſſary produce and fruits of the earth? And would not this ſo depreſs the value of gold and ſilver, by their plenty amongſt them, as to give occaſion and encouragement to all the world to go to this market with their produce and manufactures, which they can and will ſell for a vaſt deal leſs gold and ſilver, than what ſuch goods of their own raiſing would in this caſe be ſold for? Nay, they would find it a convenience to be eaſed of the burthen of the gold and ſilver, which the mines, if continually worked, would produce, as certainly as it is a relief to any country to export any other ſuperfluous commodities: for, if they do not ceaſe to work the mines, when they have raiſed gold and ſilver enough to be burthenſome, they muſt and will certainly drop their cultivation and manufactures; ſince men will not eaſily be induced to labour and toil, for what they can get with much leſs trouble, by exchanging ſome of their exceſs of gold and ſilver for what they want.

And, if they ſhould be ſuppoſed, as is natural enough in this caſe to drop their cultivation of land and manufactures, which are much the ſloweſt and moſt laborious way of ſupplying themſelves with what they could ſo eaſily and readily procure by exchanging gold and ſilver, which they too much abound in, they would certainly, in a great meaſure, loſe the arts of cultivation of land, and that of manufactures alſo; which has long been the caſe of a neighbouring nation, by the acceſſion of wealth which the Weſt-Indies afforded: whence they are at beſt but a beggarly nation, with their immenſe treaſure, and the conduit pipes to diſperſe the gold and ſilver thro' other parts of the world; which other nations drain them of, by making goods cheaper than they can do, and that to ſuch a degree, that the mines are ſcarcely ſufficient to anſwer their ordinary occaſions, even in times of peace: and, though they are ſenſible of this, yet they find by experience they can't prevent it.

The caſe is the very ſame, in ſome degree, in every nation, whoſe quantity of real or artificial caſh is large enough to ſupport the prices of their goods, conſiderably above the rates ſuch goods bear in other nations round about them. Whence it is obvious, that all prohibitions, with regard to coin and bullion, as well as all other commodities, muſt be injurious to commerce; becauſe, beſides all other miſchiefs thereby occaſioned, they are always deſigned to reſtrain the money from going out of the nation; which will be eternally impracticable, whilſt the general balance of trade is againſt a nation.

We confeſs that we judge it moſt nationally beneficial to prevent the importation of all foreign commodities, as much as poſſible, but not by acts of parliament, ſuch reſtraints, perhaps, being no good to commerce in general; it is therefore we recommend the raiſing ſuch goods ourſelves, ſo cheap as to make it impoſſible for other nations to find their account in bringing them to us: as this is the only natural and effectual prohibition of ſuch things as we would not receive from abroad; ſo I wiſh every nation in the world would do the like, as much as ever they can; for then the plenty of every thing would be ſo great, that all mankind would be happy, if this world is capable of making them ſo; for we are not partial to our own country, but wiſh all mankind to be as happy as I wiſh my country and myſelf. Upon the whole, the reader will obſerve what we aim at.

Firſt, That it is of no conſequence, whether any nation hath a vaſt deal of gold and ſilver, or very little money amongſt them, if ſufficient care be taken to make the plenty of every thing great enough, to render the money they have amply extenſive, to circulate their trade in every branch, and fully to employ and ſupport all their people; which muſt and will make them all happy, and certainly cauſe them to have vaſtly more foreign trade, by their thus being able to make and ſell their manufactures, and produce them at lower rates than their neighbour nations can do. And this is abſolutely in the power of every nation, that will cultivate land enough to effect it, unleſs any nation ſhould have more people in it than they have land to ſupport them; which may eaſily be known, from the demand there will be for land, and raiſing the rents in conſequence thereof, 'till the prices of neceſſaries become ſo dear, that the wages of the labouring people will not purchaſe what is needful for the ſupport of their families; and there be no more land left to cultivate, and remove this miſchief, which will fall more or leſs on every occupation, in proportion as the poor become thereby poorer and more and more diſtreſſed.

In this caſe, there is no relief but tranſporting the people where they can have land enough for them.

Secondly, It is of little or no conſequence to the trade of any nation, whether the people ſpend near or all their gains, provided they do not ſpend more than they really gain, for this diſables them to make good their contracts; or whether they are generally frugal, and lay up conſiderably. For the trade of a nation doth very little depend on theſe things, but entirely on employing the people in cultivation of land in general, in proportion to the other employments of mankind; that the neceſſaries of life, which all ultimately work for, may be ſo plentiful, that the meaneſt of the people may eaſily attain a ſufficiency of them, for plenty of theſe comprehends all human felicity.

Remarks on the whole of this article of Manuring and Cultivating additional quantities of Land.

Reducing the preſent Rates of Labour appears ſo abſolutely neceſſary to increaſe our foreign and domeſtic trade, that we have endeavoured to ſhew, as well under this head, as others ſynonimous and correſpondent therewith, how this very important and intereſting matter may be effected, to the great advantage of every claſs of people within the community; and the way that has been propoſed at preſent, 'till taxes upon our native commodities can be greatly leſſened, or abſolutely annihilated, is, perhaps, the only one whereby to procure ſo great a bleſſing: and this method will cauſe multitudes of the Britiſh ſubjects to become the poſſeſſors of property, who otherwiſe will never have a ſhilling to ſpare.

What we have urged, upon this occaſion, we ſhall endeavour to corroborate in the ſequel, where any natural opportunity ſhall offer: for, as the principles of trade in general, whereon we have endeavoured to proceed, ſeem to be founded in the eternal and immutable nature of things, and the conſtitution of the world itſelf; ſo we are inclined to think that they are capable of ſtrict demonſtration, let them be viewed in whatever national light they can.—As certain branches of trade, indeed, may, in the proceſs of time vary, either by increaſing or otherwiſe, or ſhifting their channel, or by any great alteration in the ſtate of public affairs, &c. in ſuch caſes, perhaps, it may be neceſſary to deviate occaſionally from ſome of thoſe maxims which prevail throughout this work.—This will ever be the fate of what is mutable; but the neceſſity of any temporary variation, in the application of our general principles, will ſcarce be thought an argument of their imperfection and invalidity.

MAP, a plain figure, repreſenting the ſurface of the earth, or a part thereof, according to the rules of perſpective *.

* Perſpective is the art of delineating viſible objects on a plain ſurface, ſuch as they appear at a given diſtance or height, upon a tranſparent plane, placed perpendicularly to the horizon between the eye and the object.

Though

Though nothing can repreſent the heavens or the earth in their natural appearances ſo exactly as a globe, yet the two hemiſpheres, either of the heavens or of the earth, may be repreſented upon a plain ſuperfices, which are generally called projections of the ſphere *.

* Projection of the ſphere in plano, is a repreſentation of the ſeveral points or places of the ſurface of the ſphere, and of the circles deſcribed thereon, or of any aſſigned parts thereof, ſuch as they appear to the eye ſituate at a given diſtance, upon a tranſparent plane placed between the eye and the ſphere.
The moſt uſual projection of maps of the world is that on the plane of the meridian, which exhibits a right ſphere, the firſt meridian being the horizon: the next is that on the plane of the equator, wherein the pole is in the center, and the meridians the radii of the circle.—This repreſents a parallel ſphere.

If you ſuppoſe a globe to be cut in halves juſt at the equator, and each hemiſphere repreſented on a plane, it is called a projection of the globe upon the plane of the equator. Then the equinoctial line will be the circumference, and the two poles of the world will be the centers of thoſe two projections, and all the meridian lines will be ſo many ſtraight lines, or ſemidiameters, meeting in the center. This is the moſt common method of repreſenting the celeſtial globe and the ſtars.
If the globe be cut aſunder at the horizon of any particular place, and thus repreſented on a plane, it is called the projection on the plane of the horizon: then the zenith and nadir will be the centers of thoſe projections, and the horizon is the circumference: the two poles will be placed at ſuch a diſtance from the circumference, as the pole of the world is elevated above the horizon of that place; and the meridian will be repreſented as curve lines, meeting in the pole-point, excepting only that meridian that paſſes through the zenith, which is always a right line. This is a more uncommon projection of the ſphere, tho' it is much uſed in dialling.
The moſt uſual way of deſcribing the earthly globe on a plane, or a map, is to ſuppoſe the globe cut in halves about the firſt meridian, at the iſland Faro, or Teneriff: this is a projection on the plane of the meridian; then the firſt meridian will determine the circumference: the pole-point will ſtand in the upper and lower parts of that circle, and the other meridians will be curve lines, meeting in the pole-points, except that which paſſes through the center of the projection, which is a right line.
Here the equator will be a ſtraight line, or diameter, croſſing all the meridians at right angles, and at equal diſtances from the two poles.
Here the two tropics of Cancer and Capricorn are drawn at their proper diſtances, of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the equator; and the two polar circles are at the ſame diſtance from the poles.
In this projection the ecliptic is ſometimes a ſtraight line, cutting the middle of the equator obliquely in each hemiſphere, and ending where the two tropics meet the meridian: but ſometimes the ecliptic is drawn as a curve line, or an arch, beginning where the equator meets the meridian, and carried upward juſt to touch the tropic of Cancer in one hemiſphere, and downward to touch the tropic of Capricon in the other. It is in this form the maps of the world are generally drawn, in two large hemiſpheres.
Note here, that it is impoſſible to repreſent a ſpherical body exactly in it's due proportion upon a plane; and, therefore, the artificial meridians, or lines of longitude, parallels of latitude, &c. are placed at ſuch different diſtances, by certain rules of art, and the degrees, marked on them, are often unequal, but ſo drawn as may moſt commodiouſly repreſent the ſituation of the ſeveral parts of the earth with regard to one another.
The meridian, or circumference of theſe circles, is divided into four quarters, and each marked with 90 degrees, beginning from the equator, and proceeding towards the poles. Theſe figures, or numbers, ſhew the latitude of every place in the earth, or it's diſtance from the equator; and, at every 10 degrees, there is a parallel of latitude drawn on purpoſe to guide and direct the eye in ſeeking the latitude of any place.
The equator of each hemiſphere is divided into 180 parts, which makes 360 in the whole; and the ſeveral meridians, or lines of longitude, cutting the equator at every 10 degrees, direct the eye to find the longitude of any place required.
As the equator, the ſeveral lines of longitude, of latitude, &c. cannot be repreſented on a plane exactly as they are on a globe, ſo neither can the ſeveral parts of the world, kingdoms, provinces, iſlands, and ſeas, be repreſented in a map exactly in the ſame proportion as they ſtand on a globe; but, as the diviſions of degrees in a map are bigger or leſs, ſo the parts of the land and ſea are repreſented there bigger or leſs, in a moſt exact proportion to thoſe lines of longitude and latitude amongſt which they are placed.
Therefore, though the length, breadth, or diſtance of places on a map of the world, cannot be meaſured by a pair of compaſſes, as they may be on a globe, yet you may count the

number of degrees to which ſuch lengths, breadths, or diſtances correſpond, and thereby you may compute their real dimenſions, though not always ſo well as on a globe.
Thus much ſhall ſuffice concerning maps that repreſent the whole world, or the globe of earth and water. Let us next conſider thoſe maps which repreſent particular parts of the world, kingdoms or provinces: theſe are generally drawn in a large ſquare, and are to be conſidered as parts of a projection on the plane of the meridian.
From the top to or toward the bottom of the ſquare are drawn meridians or lines of longitude; and the number of degrees of longitude are divided, and marked on the upper and undermoſt line of the ſquare.
From ſide to ſide are drawn parallels of latitude, and the degrees of latitude are marked on the two ſide lines.
Thus you may eaſily find on a map what is the longitude or latitude of any place given, or you may find the point where any town ſtands, or ſhould ſtand, when the true longitude and latitude of it are given.
Note, In ſuch maps of particular countries the longitude is not always reckoned from the firſt meridian, as Faro, or Teneriff, but oftentimes it is reckoned from the chief city of that kingdom which is deſcribed in the map.
Obſerve farther, that, though in globes and maps of the whole world the longitude is reckoned from the weſt toward the eaſt, yet, in ſmaller maps, it is often reckoned both ways, as Briſtol is $2\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of weſtern longitude from London, Amſterdam has near five degrees of eaſtern longitude.
Note alſo, that, when a ſmall country is repreſented in a large map, the lines of longitude and parallels of latitude are drawn not merely at every 10 degrees, as in the globe, but ſometimes at every five degrees, and ſometimes at every ſingle degree.
Let it be obſerved, alſo, in large maps, that deſcribe any particular country or province, as a ſingle or double crooked waving line ſignifies a river, when it is made ſtrong and black; ſo a public road is deſcribed by a ſingle or a double line, drawn from town to town, not quite ſo curled nor ſo ſtrong as a river is, but ſtraight or winding, as the road itſelf happens: and, where the roads lie through a broad plain, or great common, without houſes or hedges, they are ſometimes deſcribed by a double row of points.
As villages and ſmaller towns are deſcribed by a little circle, or ſmall round o, in maps of larger countries, where the cities are repreſented by the figure of a houſe or two, with a ſpire or ſteeple: ſo, in maps of ſmaller countries or provinces, the little towns and villages are deſcribed by the figure of a houſe or two, and great towns or cities are marked like ſeveral buildings put together, in proſpect, or elſe the naked plan of thoſe very towns or cities is drawn there, and diſtinguiſhed according to their ſtreets.
As maps are drawn to deſcribe particular countries by land, ſo a deſcription of coaſts or ſhores, and of the ſeas, for the uſe of mariners, is called a ſea-chart; and it differs from a map chiefly in theſe particulars:
I. A map of the land is full of names and marks, deſcribing all the towns, countries, rivers, mountains, &c. but, in a ſea-chart, there are ſeldom many parts of the land marked or deſcribed, beſides the coaſts or ſhores and the ſea-ports, the towns or cities that border upon the ſea, and the mouths of rivers.
II. In a map the ſea is left as an empty ſpace, except where the lines of longitude and latitude, &c. are placed: but, in ſea charts, all the ſhoals or ſand, and ſhallow waters, are marked exactly according to their ſhape, as they have been found to lie in the ſea, by ſounding the depth in every part of them.
III. In ſea-charts, the meridians are often drawn in ſtraight and parallel lines, and the lines of latitude are alſo ſtraight parallels, croſſing the meridians at right angles. This is called Mercator's projection; and the points of the compaſs are frequently repeated and extended through the whole chart, in a multitude of croſſing lines, that whereſoever the mariner is upon the ſea, he may know toward what point of the compaſs he muſt ſteer, or direct his veſſel, to carry it toward any particular port; and that we may be able to ſee, with one caſt of an eye, the various bearings of any port, coaſt, iſland, cape, &c. toward each other.
IV. The ſea is alſo filled, in ſea-charts, with various numbers or figures, which denote the depth of water, and ſhew how many fathom deep the ſea is in thoſe places where the number ſtands: theſe are called ſoundings.
V. In ſea-charts there is not ſuch care taken to place the north parts of the world always directly upright and before the face of the reader; but the coaſts and countries are uſually deſcribed in ſuch a poſition as may afford the fitteſt room to bring in the greateſt variety of ſhores and ſeas within the compaſs of the ſame chart, whether the eaſt, weſt, or north, be placed directly before the reader.
Maps are laid down and proportioned to a certain ſcale, which is always taken from the degrees of latitude.
The degrees of latitude are always marked on the eaſt and weſt ſides of the map.

The degrees of longitude are always marked on the north and fouth ſides of the map.

A degree of latitude is always of the ſame breadth: wherefore the diſtance of two places ſeated directly north and ſouth, is immediately known by knowing the different latitudes; but a degree of longitude is of different extent, for this is the diſtance of a place from the firſt, or ſome other meridian.

When Ptolemy invented the way of diſtinguiſhing the ſituation of places, he did it by parallel and meridian lines; the latter paſſing round the globe through the equator and poles, and the former lying parallel to the equator; which parallel lines were found very convenient for marking the latitude into degrees and minutes. Then, for longitude, he fixed upon Teneriff, one of the Canary Iſlands, as the moſt weſtern part of the then known world; which, having a very high mountain, was a good mark for mariners, and the fitteſt place from whence to begin a general computation.

Accordingly, all the old maps begin their eaſt longitude from Teneriff; and, becauſe then only one ſide of the globe was known, the degrees were only 180; but, ſince the diſcovery of America, they are carried quite round to 360. This method was always eſteemed, and Teneriff reckoned a good ſtandard meridian, 'till the French, who like nothing which they themſelves do not invent, thought proper to alter it, and make the iſland of Faro their new meridian, which, by late obſervation, lies juſt two degrees more weſt: wherefore, to prevent confuſion, our modern geographers and delineators of maps make the metropolis of their own nation the firſt real meridian: and, in this caſe, longitude is two-fold, being, from London, either weſt or eaſt, as at ſea it is computed from ſome known port or head-land. The longitude of any place from London being known, the difference in the hour of the day is alſo known: for, as the ſun performs his diurnal circuit in 24 hours, he gains in each hour 15 degrees, being a 24th part of 360, or one degree in four minutes; ſo that, at any place 15 degrees eaſt of us, noon is an hour ſooner with them, as it is an hour later with thoſe who live 15 degrees weſt from us.

If a clock, or any time-piece, could be ſo made as to go equal and true, at any ſeaſon or diſtance, the theory of longitude at ſea would be no longer a myſtery: but, as that is impracticable, our modern aſtronomers have contented themſelves with obſerving the ſolar and lunar eclipſes; for, if their appearances and calculations are exactly known with us, and the ſame appearances are obſerved in any other part of this globe, the difference ariſing from thoſe times will ſettle the difference in longitude, by the foregoing rule. See LONGITUDE. The eclipſes alſo of Jupiter's moons, and the ſpheroidal figure of the earth, two important diſcoveries of the ſeventeenth century, will each, in their turn, lead us farther on a true ſyſtem of longitude.

Laſtly, though all degrees of latitude are equal in length, yet degrees of longitude vary in every new parallel of latitude: for, all the meridian lines meeting and interſecting each other at the poles, the degrees of longitude do naturally diminiſh, as they proceed either way from the equator.

The latitude and longitude of a place being known, you may find it immediately in the map, by drawing a line or thread croſs the map both ways, and, where the two lines cut one another, the place ſtands.

The earth being a globe, a map of the whole earth moſt neceſſarily conſiſts of two parts, both ſides of the globe not being viſible at once. Accordingly, in an univerſal map, the right-hand circle ſhews the old world, or Europe, Aſia, and Africa; and the left-hand circle ſhews the new world, or America.

Upon the general map are marked the circles correſpondent to thoſe in the ſphere, namely, the equinoctial line, the two tropics, and the two polar circles, all which croſs the map from eaſt to weſt; and the firſt meridian ſurrounding the two hemiſpheres from north to ſouth, the parallels lying from north to ſouth, at 10 degrees diſtance; and the meridians, at the ſame diſtance from weſt to eaſt, are alſo marked upon general maps. Particular maps, being part of this, retain the meridians and parallels belonging to that particular part, which are made ſmaller or larger, as the paper on which it is drawn will admit; and the diſtance of places mentioned in it are always exactly proportioned to the breadth of the parallels: ſo that, let a map be ever ſo ſmall, the diſtance of places is exactly ſhewn, if meaſured according to the degrees of latitude in that particular map.

REMARKS RELATIVE TO THE PERFIDIOUS DESIGN OF FRANCE IN THEIR MAP-MAKING.

The utility of maps and charts is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to ſay any thing concerning them, in relation to that point: but they have their abuſe, as well as uſe, more eſpecially the former, viz. maps; and this has been practiſed with no little artifice and effrontery, in order to deceive the whole world, if ſuch a thing was poſſible: for certain it is, that ſome foreign map-makers have taken unaccountable liberties in parcelling out the globe of the world at their pleaſure. Whether this may be looked upon as their own Sic volo, ſic jubeo, or that of ſome body elſe behind the curtain, with a view to anſwer ſome purpoſes not ſo honeſt and laudable as could be wiſhed, we ſhall not take upon ourſelves to determine: yet we think it incumbent on us to take ſome notice of a matter of this nature, that the Engliſh reader may be ſo put on his guard as not to receive French coin for ſterling.

Whoever is acquainted with the hiſtory of our Britiſh colonies and plantations, and the cauſe and foundation of thoſe firſt royal grants and charters given by the crown of Great-Britain to it's ſubjects, for raiſing theſe colonies and plantations, muſt be ſenſible, that ſome neighbouring nations have attempted to make unwarrantable and ſhameful incroachments upon the Britiſh rights of trade and poſſeſſions in the American world, as well as elſewhere: and thoſe rights are not only uſurped by their map-makers by dint of ſcale and compaſs, but are aſſumed and juſtified in many reſpects elſewhere; which always has, and ever will tend to deſtroy the public tranquillity, 'till thoſe points are impartially and honourably ſettled and adjuſted between the intereſted potentates.

We are ſorry to be under the diſagreeable neceſſity of ſaying this, in regard to any nation, the end of our labours being to promote peace and good harmony with all, and to be as little inſtrumental in ſtirring up broils between one foreign country and another, was it in our power, as between our own and others. But nothing can be ſo effectually preſervative of general peace and tranquillity among all nations, as the juſt eclairciſſement of their reſpective rights of commerce and poſſeſſions; for, if theſe are left unaſcertained, it will always give a handle for animoſities.

That our readers may judge how far our Britiſh rights of commerce and poſſeſſion remain as yet undetermined, we refer them to the following articles, viz. BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, CALIFORNIA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA. And how far a certain foreign map-maker has attempted to invade the Britiſh rights, by the means of pen, ink, and paper, we alſo refer the reader to our MAPS of NORTH AMERICA, placed at the end of our Firſt Volume, where he will find the following rectification of the French map by Monſieur D'Anville, viz.

That Monſ. D'Anville has very partially included within the bounds of French Canada, to the ſouth and eaſt of the lake Ontario, the country poſſeſſed by the five Indian nations, named by the French the Iroquois: whereas they are the allies, and under the protection of the crown of Great-Britain by treaty*: ſo that, in right of them, the Engliſh have a claim, not only to all the lands ſouth of the river St. Lawrence (including the French ſettlements about the Champlain, and other lakes) which were the original property of thoſe Indians and their dependents, but alſo all the lands in and about the five great lakes, viz. lake ONTARIO, ERIE, the HURONS, MICHIGAN, and the UPPER LAKE, which the Five Nations have ſubdued, or made tributary.

* According to the treaty of Utrecht it is ſtipulated,—Galliæ ſubditi Canadam incolentes, aliique, quinque nationes (a), ſive cantones Indorum, Magnæ Britanniæ imperio ſubjectas, ut & cæteros Americæ indigenas eidem amicitiâ conjunctos, nullo in poſterum impedimento aut moleſtiâ afficiant, &c. That is to ſay, the ſubjects of France inhabiting Canada, and others, ſhall hereafter give no hindrance or moleſtation to the five nations, or cantons of Indians, ſubjects to the dominion of Great-Britain, nor to the other natives of America, who are friends to the ſame, &c.

(a) The five original confederate Indian nations are the SENEKAS, CAYNGAS, ONONDAGAS, ONEEDAS, and MOHOCKS; the TUSCARROES, MISSASAGOS, and other tribes, and ſince incorporated with them. Therefore, as all the land ſouth of St. Lawrence's River is the original property of the Five Nations, with their allies and tributaries, the French can have no ſhadow of pretence to any part of this country; and their ſettlement about CHAMPLAIN LAKE is mere depredation, contrary to the Britiſh title, which is derived from agreement and purchaſe.

The limits of NEW SCOTLAND, or ACADIA, by the ſame treaty, are St. Lawrence's River on the north, Penobſcut River on the weſt, and St. Lawrence's Gulph on the eaſt: therefore the boundary line drawn by Monſ. D'Anville in his map, croſs theſe provinces, from lake ONTARIO to the ISTHMUS at the bottom of FUNDY BAY, is an ARBITRARY FICTION, falſe and unjuſt, and ſeems to be done for our Britiſh map-makers to copy, and miſguide the whole nation, if poſſible; for which reaſon we have ſtruck it out, having juſt authority ſo to do, and have put the whole word CANADA on the weſt ſide of St. Lawrence's River.

The line that parts French Canada from Britiſh Canada was ſettled by commiſſaries after the peace of Utrecht, making a curve from Davis's Inlet, in the Atlantic Sea, down to the 49th degree, through the lake Abitibis to the North-weſt Ocean: wherefore Monſ. D'Anville's dotted line eaſt of James's Bay is likewiſe falſe.

The French map-makers having alſo exciſed near one half of our ſettlements, by drawing a pretended line from St. Lawrence's River down to Georgia, we think it our duty to inform the public that the ſame is a romantic preſumption, void of all authority; for, by public Indian treaties, our right is far beyond the great lakes, and ſouth-weſt to the Chickaſas

nation, by the branches of the Miſſiſſippi: and, ſince many of the Indian people among the ſaid lakes are united with the Iroquois Indians near New York, either by covenant or conqueſt, it is an idle vanity to ſuppoſe a dotted line in a French map will exclude the Engliſh from all thoſe nations, where their trade and dominions ſo viſibly extend.

In this reſpect, alſo, we have in our maps endeavoured to reſtore the Engliſh ſettlements to part of their juſt pretenſions: and, indeed, by the grants of our kings we might, perhaps, have carried our pretenſions quite through Louiſiana, weſtward to the South Sea, without being guilty of incroaching on the juſt rights of the French, as the French map-makers have been of incroaching on ours.

By ſeveral treaties made and renewed with the CHERAKEES, the CHIKASAS, the NAUTCHES, and the other CREEK NATIONS, the ſubjects of his BRITANNIC MAJESTY have a right of poſſeſſion at leaſt from LAKE ERIE to the CHIKASAS, at the river Miſſiſſipi: whereas, in many of thoſe parts, the French have no other title but that of intruſion and force. Their map-makers, therefore, are adviſed to put their LOUISIANA farther weſt, as is partly rectified in our firſt map of North America, for no part of the APALACHY MOUNTAINS is any fixed boundary to the BRITISH EMPIRE in AMERICA.

Theſe inſtances, with a great many others we could give, which relate as well to other countries as our own, point out, perhaps, the true reaſon and motive why the French have long endeavoured to engroſs the care of geography to themſelves; and it muſt be confeſſed, by the meaſures taken by them, they have brought it to greater perfection than any nation in Europe. This is owing to the proper encouragement which it's profeſſors meet with in France, who were never ſo numerous as at preſent.

Our neighbours appear to be particularly zealous for the advancement of geography, in order, it may be, to extend their commerce and dominions firſt upon paper, to pave the way to do it hereafter in reality; for, by their map-makers throwing out their incroachments and depredations in this ſeemingly harmleſs and inoffenſive way firſt, they ſo feel the pulſe of other nations, that they can paſs a good judgment what lengths they may preſume to go in any important n———n; and may, with a better grace, authenticate their pretenſions, by producing to our commiſſaries their own infallible maps.

There is an office in the French marine, for depoſiting charts and plans, to be made uſe of for the benefit of navigation: a regulation proper to be eſtabliſhed in every maritime trading nation *.

* Monſ. Bellin on this occaſion obſerves, in the preface to his Collection of Memoirs, 'That it is difficult to correct 'the chartseffectually, ſince it requires extraordinary helps, 'out of the power of a private man to procure, and which 'thoſe only who are at the head of affairs are able to provide. There is no poſſibility of collecting all the materials neceſſary for ſuch a deſign, but by eſtabliſhing an 'office for the purpoſe, like that of charts, plans, and 'journals, belonging to the marine of France.'—And will not the ſame hold good in relation to maps? And would not ſuch an inſtitution as this, both with regard to charts and maps, and the journals of all curious navigators, well become the wiſdom of the Britiſh nation? Certain it is, that the great diſagreement which is apparent between charts and maps, renders ſomething of this kind abſolutely neceſſary. Thoſe maps publiſhed by Monſ. D'Anville, and which we have tranſlated into Engliſh for this work, and greatly corrected and improved, eſpecially in regard to the ſecurity of our Britiſh rights of trade and poſſeſſions, coſt the duke of Orleans, by whoſe order they were undertaken, ſeveral thouſand pounds ſterling: and whether our maps, engraved by thoſe great artiſts Mr. Emanuel Bowen, geographer royal to his Britannic majeſty, Mr. Kitchen, and Mr. Seale, are not executed with reſpect to the engraving parts full as well as the French, and better than any before done in England, is ſubmitted to the public. But theſe are not the only ſpecimens we have of the great abilities of thoſe Engliſh artiſts in the art of engraving: their general maps of England and Wales, together with their particular maps of the counties, printed on ſuperfine atlas paper, and ſold by J. Tinney, at the Golden Lion in Fleet-ſtreet, London, demonſtrate that they are inferior to no artiſts in their way, in the whole world. And, 'till theſe gentlemen did exert themſelves, it cannot be denied but the French greatly excelled us in this particular; but, ſince we have ſuch celebrated artiſts of our own, it is to be hoped they will receive all encouragement from the public, that their merits entitle them to. Maps are not only of important uſe to the nation, by aſſerting our rights of commerce and poſſeſſion to the face of the whole world; but, by being a general manufacture, will now be acceptable in all foreign nations, ſince, at length, we have the honour of being inferior to no country whatever in this particular. I am very ſorry to ſay, but it is matter of fact, that not only our map-makers and map-engravers, but our engravers in general, have long laboured under great difficulties and diſcouragements. There is one thing I would crave leave to mention at preſent; that, as a neighbouring nation gives ſuch remarkable encouragement for the advancement of geography, it is very ſtrange the royal geographer of Great-Britain ſhould enjoy only the title without a ſalary. Certain I am, if this matter was properly repreſented to his moſt gracious majeſty, ſo ſuperlatively good and benevolent is our beloved ſovereign, that he would as chearfully grant his geographer a ſtipend as a title.

The count de Maurepas, being at the head of the marine, about the year 1737, to remove the complaints which at that juncture lay againſt the French charts, and provide an accurate ſett for the uſe of the king's ſhips, ordered Mr. Bellin to undertake the taſk, and publiſh by degrees a ſett of new charts, for all parts of the ocean: which taſk he has at length in a great meaſure performed.

Another inſtance we have of the care of this nation to excel in their charts, is that of Le Neptune Oriental, ou Routier Général de Côtes des Indes Orientales, & de la Chine, par Monſ. Mannevillette, publiſhed in the year 1745, and dedicated to Monſeigneur Orry de Fulvy, counſellor of ſtate, intendant of the finances, and royal commiſſary to the Eaſt-India company.

The ingenious and elaborate author tells his patron in the dedication, 'That 'till now, my lord, ſays he, our navigation to the Eaſt-Indies hath depended on foreigners. Guided 'only by the Engliſh and Dutch charts, we learnt, as it 'were, only from thoſe two nations, the way to conduct ourſelves at our firſt eſtabliſhment. Upon their inſtructions 'the good or ill ſucceſs of our voyages depended. At the 'beginning of our navigation into theſe ſeas, it was neceſſary 'to make uſe of their helps, they having more frequented 'thoſe ſeas than we. But, ſince our own experience has 'procured us more certain knowledge to be relied on, we 'have diſcovered their charts to be very erroneous; they are 'no longer uſeful to navigators, than to reunite in one body 'all the diſcoveries ſucceſſively made, and therefrom to compoſe charts more correct.'

ESSENTIAL REMARKS on MAPS, ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

The foregoing remarks, we think proper to let remain, that poſterity may know in what a precarious and unſettled ſtate our poſſeſſions were in NORTH AMERICA, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY aſcertained their boundaries; which are now ſo clear and explicit as to admit of no future diſputes, either between Great-Britain and France, or the former and Spain, with relation to the colonies upon the American continents. See AMERICA, for the DEFINITIVE TREATY at large, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, CANADA, LOUISIANA, and ſuch other articles we from them refer to.

MARBLE is a kind of beautiful ſtone, dug out of quarries, in large maſſes; and is of ſo compact a texture, as to take a delicate poliſh: it is greatly uſed by way of ornament in columns, ſtatuary, tombs, altar-pieces, chimney-pieces, ſlabs, tables, &c.

There are great varieties of marble, which are denominated from their colour, their country, their grain, their degree of compactneſs and hardneſs, their weight, &c. Some are of one colour, as white or black, others variegated with ſtains, clouds, and veins, &c. They are all opake, excepting the white, which, when cut thin, is ſomething tranſparent.

It is both endleſs and uſeleſs to deſcribe the infinite different varieties; it is ſufficient to obſerve, that thoſe which are of the firmeſt texture, and greateſt gravity, and take the fineſt poliſh, appear the moſt beautiful to the eye, and are the moſt eſtimable for every kind of ornament.

MARCASITE, a ſulphureous metallic mineral.

As it is generally found among the metallic ores, it is always impregnated with the qualities of them, and of other foſſils, whence they aſſume various colours, and degrees of coheſion. There are only three diſtinct ſpecies of it in the ſhops, viz. marcaſite of gold, ſilver, and copper; the one of a bright ſilver colour, the other of a bright gold colour, and the third of a dull white.

The ſilver-coloured is a very beautiful body, of compact texture, though ſomewhat irregular, and very ponderous. It is found conſtituting whole ſtrata of great extent, though not of great thickneſs; ſometimes, like many other bodies naturally conſiſting of ſtrata, it is found in irregular and broken maſſes. It is, when broken, of an uneven ſurface, and made up of multitudes of irregularly ſhaped flaky bodies, of various ſizes, wrapping round one another.

It very freely and readily gives fire with ſteel, and makes no effervescence with aqua fortis.—When put into the fire, it cracks and burſts, yielding a blue flame with a ſulphureous ſmell: it burns thus for a conſiderable time, and calcines to a ſtrong deep red.

This is it's uſual appearance, but it is liable to great varieties; ſometimes it contains a lead ore, ſometimes of tin, and often a ferrugineous matter.

It is found in abundance in the lead and tin mines of ſeveral parts of England, and is no leſs common in other countries; our counties of Devonſhire, Derbyſhire, and Cornwall, have large quantities of it.

The

The golden-coloured marcaſite is rather more beautiful and glittering than the former. It is of leſs compact texture than any other marcaſite. It is conſiderably heavy, and uſually found in long but thin ſtrata, ſometimes in large and miſſhapen modules. In ſome parts the texture is, as in the other marcaſites, more lax and open than in others; and it is to this irregularly foliaceous ſtructure, that all their other varieties are owing. It is naturally of a fine ſtrong gold yellow, but varies at times into a paler or redder hue, and, like the others, ſometimes exhibit the rainbow colours in reflection.

It gives fire pretty readily with ſteel, but much leſs freely than the ſilver ſpecies. It makes no efferveſcence with aqua fortis, and, when put into the fire, it ſeldom burſts, but is gradually covered with a pale blue flame, which burns leſs time than that of the former, and calcines to a deep purple.

The other ſort is a ſpecies of leſs beauty than the preceding kinds in it's ordinary ſtate; it is a very ſolid ſubſtance, of a compact and firm texture, and is conſiderably heavier than any of the other. It is extremely hard, and requires a ſtrong blow to break it: and is of a pale and dead white, like the colour of tarniſhed pewter, and ſomewhat bright, but much leſs ſo than the other kinds: when broken, it appears at a ſlight view an uniform maſs, but, when more ſtrictly examined, is found compoſed of irregular flakes like the other kinds; but theſe are more cloſely laid together than in any other ſpecies, and differ from all the reſt, in that, when ſtrictly examined, they are found to be of an obſcurely ſtriated texture.

It freely and readily ſtrikes fire with ſteel, and gives larger and brighter ſparks than any other body of this ſort.

It makes no efferveſcence with acids, and burſts in the fire, burning violently with a deep blue flame of a ſtrong ſulphureous ſcent.

It is liable to all the varieties of the firſt kind, but has them much more rarely; it is common in Devonſhire, Cornwall, and many other counties, and lies at all depths, ſometimes in regular ſtrata, ſometimes filling up the horizontal cavities of thoſe of coal, or different ſtones.

Remarks.

By marcaſites, metallurgiſts generally underſtand all thoſe mineral, earthy, and ſulphureous matters, that are otherwiſe called pyrites, fire-ſtones, braſs lumps, mundics, or the like. For, though theſe may be diſtinguiſhed in reſpect of leſſer differences, yet in general they are all a compoſition of ſulphur, uninflammable earth, and a ſmall proportion of metal.

A ſhort analyſis of marcaſites.

Take half a pound thereof reduced into powder, and put it into an earthen retort; which being placed in a naked fire, fit on a capacious glaſs receiver, and lute the junctures well with a mixture of loam and horſe-dung, then give degrees of fire up to the ſtrongeſt: let all cool, and take off; you will find at the bottom of the receiver a ſmall proportion of acid liquor, like the ſpirit of ſulphur made by the bell, and a conſiderable quantity of flowers of ſulphur ſublimed to the top.

The caput mortuum being taken out, and fluxed with about half it's weights of iron filings, will afford generally a ſmall lump of a reguline metallic ſubſtance.

Hence we ſee, that marcaſites chiefly reſolve into ſulphur, and a more fixed earthy part; which, being treated as an ore, yields a proportion of metal. And hence, perhaps, all the pyrites, braſs lumps, mundics, and marcaſites, are but cruder kinds of ore, and, if brought to maturity, they would have proved real ores.

Marcaſites, upon lying long in the open air, attract it's humidity, and thence grow hot, in ſome meaſure diſſolve, form an efferveſcence on their ſurface, and gradually turn into a vitriol, of the ſame kind with the metal they contain. Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green or martial; if copper, blue or cupereous. On this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, now practiſed in ſeveral parts of England. See Vitriol.

From the heating, fuming, and firing of theſe ſulphureous earths, by the moiſture of the air, we may, perhaps, learn the origin of hot baths, mineral waters, damps, and fires in mines. For it is found, that a pile of theſe ſulphureous earths, being barely moiſtened, will at firſt ſmoke, and at length take fire, and burn like glowing coals.

Theſe experiments likewiſe ſhew us a way of examining theſe marcaſites (which have been taken frequently for rich ores, both in England and elſewhere) and of extracting the metal they may hold, after having firſt ſeparated their ſulphur. Many ſkilful metalliſts have been impoſed upon by a ſpecious ſhew of theſe marcaſites, for they uſually have a great ſpecific gravity, and ſome of them a greater than real ores: whence again they may poſſibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, or unfixed ſtate. But to bring this matter to the teſt, to try the validity thereof, requires a more than ordinary knowledge in metallurgy. See Metallurgy.

MARINERS.

Of mariners and ſeamen.

A mariner, or ſeaman, is under the command of the maſter of a ſhip, that is hired to work therein, and do all common buſineſs for the ſailing and preſervation of the ſhip. The ſhip's crew are called mariners, and owe obedience to the maſter, who hath the ſupreme rule on ſhipboard, and therefore his authority is much countenanced by law.

If a mariner rebels or commits a fault, and the maſter lifts up the towel three times before him and he do not ſubmit, the maſter at the next place of land may diſcharge him: and, if he refuſes to go aſhore, he ſhall loſe half his wages, and all his goods in the ſhip; but, if the mariner ſubmits, he is to receive his whole wages.

A maſter of a ſhip may juſtify the giving moderate and due correction to his men: but, if a mariner aſſaults the maſter on ſhipboard, he ſhall pay five ſols, or loſe his hand; yet it is ſaid he may after one ſtroke defend himſelf. Leg. Oleron. c. 14. By the ancient Rhodian laws, the maſters, mariners, &c. that ſail together, were to take an oath of fidelity, or mutual engagement. Sea Laws 83.

Mariners are not to depart from on ſhipboard when they are in full pay (which is always when they break ground) without the maſter's licence for ſo doing; nor may they in any caſe quit the ſhip, without leaving a ſufficient number to guard her: they muſt aſſiſt one another both at ſea and in port, or upon the oath of their fellows of any refuſal ſhall loſe their wages: if mariners in a ſtrange port leave their ſhip, not having the licence of the maſter, or without faſtening her with four ropes, the loſs, if any happen, falls upon them; they are alſo to attend the ſhip until ſhe be diſcharged, and ballaſted anew; and, if any mariner, during the time of her diſcharge or lading, labours not with the reſt of the mariners but abſents himſelf, he ſhall pay a fine to the others pro rata: and the mariners are not only to diſcharge and deliver goods out of the ſhip, but likewiſe, if no porters or carriers be in thoſe parts, they muſt carry the ſame themſelves for ſuch hire as other workmen ſhould have had for it. Lex Mercat. Malines, 104, 105.

In a ſtrange country, the one half of the ſeaman, at leaſt, ought to remain on ſhipboard; and thoſe who go aſhore, are to keep ſobriety and abſtain from ſuſpected places, and not be abſent on pain of being puniſhed, like unto him who abſents, when the ſhip is ready to ſail. If it happens otherwiſe than well with the maſter, the mariners are obliged to bring the ſhip to the port from whence ſhe was freighted, without any delay, except it be otherwiſe provided: and a mariner ſhall forfeit his wages, if the ſhip break in any part, and he doth not help with all his diligence to ſave the goods on board. Ibid.

Where a mariner is hired, and he deſerts the ſervice before the voyage is ended, by the law marine and the common law, he ſhall loſe his wages: and it has been adjudged, that if the ſhip do not return, but periſhes at ſea, either by tempeſt, enemies, fire, &c. the mariners ſhall not have their wages; for, if they were allowed to have wages in theſe caſes, it is preſumed their beſt endeavours would be wanting to preſerve the ſhip; and the mariners ſhall loſe their wages, as well as the owners their freight. If the ſhip unlade any part of the cargo, the mariners ſhall have their wages; but, if after they have unladen the veſſel at any port abroad, they demand the ſame, with an intention of leaving the ſhip, the maſter may detain a reaſonable proportion thereof as his ſecurity, 'till they have brought back the ſhip. Leg. Oleron. c. 18. 1 Siderf. Rep. 179. 1 Keb. 830.

It was held by Holt chief juſtice, That, if a ſhip is loſt before ſhe arrives at any port of delivery, the ſeamen loſe all their wages; if ſhe be loſt after ſhe comes to a port of delivery, then they only loſe their wages from the laſt port of delivery; but in caſe they run away, though after they come to any port of delivery, they loſe all their wages. Hil. 13 Will. III. 3 Salk. Rep. 23.

A mariner being hired for a ſimple mariner, if afterwards in the voyage he finds hiring to be a pilot, or other officer of a ſhip, by the law marine he may paſs over, reſtoring his former hire, and ſo it is, if he marry abroad: but if a mariner ſhall depart the ſhip, at the maſter's command, and the maſter do not take another, if any damage happens to the ſhip or goods, the maſter muſt anſwer. Mariners may not carry out of the ſhip any drink, nor above one meal of meat; and, if they embezzle the goods on board, &c. they are accountable to the maſter, the maſter to the owners, and the owners to the merchant or freighter. Though in caſe of a ſtorm, if goods are caſt overboard for lightening the ſhip, the mariners, making oath that it was done for preſerving the veſſel, ſhall diſcharge the maſter: ſo if goods or merchandize in ſuch caſe receive damage at ſea, by the oath of the maſter and mariners they may be cleared. Leg. Oleron. c. 7, 14.

If a mariner ſhall commit any fault, by reaſon of which the maſter, owners, or the ſhip, anſwers damage to the merchant, an action will lie againſt him. But, when a mariner is on ſhipboard, he ought not to be arreſted by any one

for debt, nor to be taken away from thence, for the ſhip is compared to a man's dwelling-houſe, which is as his caſtle, and a ſure refuge by law; unleſs it be for a ſworn debt, or penalty to the king, &c. the wages and goods of ſuch mariners ſhall in theſe caſes be liable; and, if a mariner takes up money or buys clothes on credit, and the ſame is entered in the purſer's books, this will entitle a diſcount of ſo much of his wages, as the ſame amounts unto. Moll. 212. Lex Mercat. of Malines, 105.

In caſe a ſhip happens to be ſeized for debt, or otherwiſe become forfeited, the mariners ſhall receive their wages, except, through any act of theirs, there be a forfeiture of all; if the ſhip be laden with prohibited goods, as wool, and the like, though it ſubjects the veſſel to forfeiture, yet it deprives not the mariners of their hire, who have faithfully performed their parts, and for which the ſhip is obliged. Trin. 7 Jac. B. R. A mariner may either keep his portage or allowance of goods in his hands, or let the ſame out to freight, by the laws of Oleron. Lex Mercat. of Malines, 104.

The act 2 Geo. II. c. 36, for better regulations of ſeamen in merchants ſervice, has ordained, That no maſter or commander of any ſhip or veſſel ſhall carry any ſeaman or mariner, except his apprentices, to ſea, without firſt coming to an agreement or contract for their wages; which agreement ſhall be in writing, ſigned by the maſter and mariners, on pain of forfeiting 5 l. to the uſe of Greenwich-hoſpital, to be recovered by information, upon the oath of one or more witneſſes, before a juſtice of peace, &c.

And, if any ſeaman or mariner ſhall deſert, or refuſe to proceed in the voyage on board any veſſel, after he has ſigned ſuch contract, he ſhall forfeit to the owners of the ſhip the wages due to him at the time of his deſerting, or refuſing as aforeſaid: and, in caſe he deſerts or abſents from any ſuch ſhip, wherein he hath ſo contracted to ſerve, upon application to any juſtice of the peace, he may iſſue his warrant to apprehend ſuch ſeaman; and, on his refuſal to proceed on the voyage, the juſtice may commit him to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour not exceeding thirty days, nor leſs than fourteen. And by the ſame ſtatute, if any ſeaman ſhall abſent himſelf from the veſſel to which he belongs, without leave of the maſter, or other chief officer having the charge of ſuch ſhip, he ſhall, for every day's abſence, forfeit two days pay, for the uſe of Greenwich-hoſpital; and, if he ſhall leave the veſſel to which he belongs, before he hath a diſcharge in writing from the maſter, he ſhall forfeit one month's pay, to the uſes aforeſaid: and the maſters or owners of ſhips are impowered to deduct, out of the wages of any ſeaman, the penalties and forfeitures incurred by this act; and thoſe penalties which are to be applied to the uſe of Greenwich-hoſpital, ſhall be paid by the maſters of ſhips, to the officer at any port, who collects the 6 d. a month, deducted out of ſeamen's wages for the uſe of the ſaid hoſpital; and, neglecting to do it within three months, they ſhall forfeit treble value. Ibid.

Alſo by the ſaid act, on the arriving of any ſhip in Great-Britain, from parts beyond the ſeas, the maſter ſhall be obliged to pay his ſeamen their wages, within thirty days, if demanded (except the contract for ſerving be to the contrary) or at the time the ſeamen ſhall be diſcharged, which ſhall firſt happen; deducting thereout the penalties and forfeitures, and not paying the ſame, ſhall be liable to a penalty of 20 s. over and above the wages due to each ſeaman, to be recovered by the ſame ways as the ſaid wages are recoverable; and no ſeaman or mariner ſhall fail in any ſuit for recovery of his wages, for want of producing the contract with the maſter on whom it lies, to produce the ſame, if neceſſary. This act ſhall not extend to debar any mariner or ſeaman, belonging to any merchant ſhip or veſſel, from entering into his majeſty's ſervice, on board any of his ſhips; nor ſhall ſuch ſeamen or mariner, for his entry therein, forfeit the wages due to him during the time of his ſervice in ſuch merchant-ſhip or veſſel; nor ſhall ſuch entry be judged a deſertion from the ſhip. Stat. 2 Geo. II.

By the ſtatute of 1 Geo. II. ſeſſ. 2. c. 14. for encouraging ſeamen voluntarily to enter into the king's ſervice, &c. the governors, miniſters, and conſuls in foreign parts, or where none ſuch are reſident, any two or more Britiſh merchants there reſiding, are authorized and required to provide for all ſeamen, ſubjects of Great-Britain, that ſhall by ſhipwreck, or other unavoidable accident, be driven or caſt away in ſuch foreign parts or places, and ſhall ſubſiſt them by an allowance after the rate of 6 d. per diem each, &c. and put them on board the firſt ſhip of war arriving there in convenient time, or they may be ſent by any merchant ſhips wanting men, or others bound for any port in Great-Britain.

Maſters of ſhips abroad ſhall take on board four men for each hundred tons of which their veſſels conſiſt, and receive from the commiſſioners of the navy 6 d. a day, for the paſſage and proviſion of every ſeaman, from the day of their imbarkation homewards, on producing a certificate of the man's being taken on board, and the time when, &c.

By the acts 9 Geo. II. c. 25. and 10 Geo. II. c. 14. a ſmall ſum of ſo much per ton is to be paid by all maſters of veſſels, &c. trading from any part of his majeſty's dominions to Cadiz, and port St. Mary's in Spain, or to the port of Leghorn, to perſons appointed by the conſuls and a majority of Britiſh merchants there; and ſuch maſters paying it ſhall be reimburſed by their freighters, or the perſons to whom the goods are conſigned, &c. and the money to be applied for relieving ſeamen ſhipwrecked, or taken in war, and other perſons being Engliſh ſubjects in diſtreſs in the ſaid ports.

Remarks ſince the laſt War, and the Definitive Treaty of 1763.

In what a precarious and unſettled ſtate the boundaries as well as the trade of our colonies in North America have been for many years, ſee our articles British America, French America, Louisiana, Canada, and the article Map. In what manner the boundaries of the colonies on that continent have been aſcertained between Great-Britain and France, by the Definitive Treaty, ſee our article America, and ſuch other to which from the preceding we refer.

As it is expected, that from the preſent Britiſh ſouthern colonies on the continent of America, we ſhall produce hemp, flax, ſilk, pot-aſh, wine, oil, raiſins and currants, we may hope for a proportionable increaſe in our navigation to theſe parts, and in conſequence thereof a ſuitable augmentation of British Mariners, who will contribute to defend our new acquiſitions in time of war, and advance their trade in time of peace.

Some authentic law caſes, determined in the courts of judicature in England, in relation to mariners.

Hooke verſus Moreton.

Mr. Eyre moved for a prohibition to be directed to the admiralty court, to ſtay a ſuit there upon a libel by the mate of a ſhip for mariners wages, upon ſuggeſtion of the ſeveral ſtatutes, which reſtrain the admiralty from proceeding upon contracts made upon the land. And (by him) the admiralty has no original juriſdiction of ſuch ſuits, 13 Rep. 51. And, though they are in their nature maritime, yet the place where the contract is made, alters the caſe, 12 Rep. 79, 80. Therefore the admiralty has no juriſdiction of charter-parties, nor of policies of aſſurance, 4 Inſt. 141. Prohibition granted to a ſuit is for a mariner's wages, 1 Sid. 331. Beſides, that in this caſe the ſuit is by a ſingle mariner; and, therefore, it is the ſame thing to him, to ſue here at common law, or in the admiralty. And the caſe of Woodward verſ. Bonithon, Raym. 3, is a caſe in point. For, though the ſuit was for other things as well as for mariners wages, yet, if a prohibition had not lain for the wages, the prohibition ſhould have been granted quoad, &c. Objection, 1 Ventr. 343. Anſwer, That is no authority in this caſe, becauſe the motion was made there after ſentence; and, if it does not appear in the libel that the court had not juriſdiction, no prohibition ſhall be granted after ſentence. See 2 Roll. Abr. 318. 12 Co. 77.

Mr. Pratt againſt the prohibition argued, That, if all the mariners ſue for wages in the admiralty, the King's-Bench at this day will never grant a prohibition, 1 Ventr. 343. and there is no difference where the ſuit is by one mariner or many, 2 Ventr. 181. Alleſon v. Marſh, in point; and the mate of the ſhip is but one mariner. Objection. Raym. 3. Woodward v. Bonithon. Anſwer. There the contract was for other things as well as for mariners wages, and the contract is entire; and, per curiam, there is no difference where one mariner libels and where many: for the reaſon why the King's-Bench permits mariners to libel in the admiralty for their wages, is not only becauſe they are privileged to join in ſuit in the admiralty, whereas they ought to ſever at common law, becauſe the contracts are ſeveral; but alſo by the maritime law mariners have ſecurity in the ſhip for their wages, and it is a ſort of implied hypothecation to them: therefore the King's-Bench allows mariners to ſue in the admiralty for their wages, becauſe they have the ſhip there for ſecurity.

But the queſtion is here, whether the mate of a ſhip differs from any other mariner; for, if the plaintiff had been a ſingle mariner, doubtleſs no prohibition would have been granted. And it ſeemed to the court, that the mate is but a mariner; and, per Holt chief juſtice, heretofore the common law was too ſevere againſt the admiralty, it did not allow ſtipulations; but at this day they are always allowed. Ruled, That Mr. Pratt move the court for their opinion at another day. Lord Raymond, 397.

Clay verſus Snelgrave.

The defendant, as executrix to the maſter of a ſhip, libelled in the admiralty court for the wages owing to the teſtator by the owner. On which the plaintiff, to have a prohibition, ſuggeſted the ſtatute of 15 Rich. II. cap. 3. that the admiralty court ſhall not have cognizance of contracts made upon the land, and ſhews this contract to have been made upon the land. And this caſe was ſeveral times moved by Sir Bartholomew Shower, and Mr. Acherley, for the prohibition, as well

well in Michaelmas as Hilary and Eaſter terms laſt paſt, as in this preſent term; and it was oppoſed by Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall; and the counſel for the prohibition argued, That prohibitions are grantable de jure, and are not diſcretionary in the court. Raym. 3, 4. That the caſe in Winch rep. 8. was the firſt caſe where a prohibition was denied in caſe of a ſuit by mariners for their wages in the admiralty court; and the denial was grounded upon compaſſionate reaſons, becauſe they were poor men, and becauſe there they might join in action, but here they muſt ſever; but the ſaid caſe is contrary to the reaſon and grounds of the law, for, where the contract is made upon the land, though the ſervice was done upon the ſea, it is out of the juriſdiction of the admiralty; and ſo vice verſa, if the ſervice was done upon the land, and the contract upon the ſea. 12 Co. 79, 80. Staunf. 51. C. Hob. 212. A conſultation is always denied in caſe of a ſuit by mariners, if there is a charter-party [ſee CHARTER-PARTY] and the ſealing of a writing cannot make any difference in reaſon, Raym. 3, a prohibition granted where the maſter libelled alone. Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall è contra for the defendant ſaid, That the caſe of mariners was now ſettled, and ought not to be ſtirred; but that the great reaſon why they are permitted to ſue there is, the ſhip is the debtor, and, by the law of the admiralty, they may attack her, which they cannot do by the common law; and, in the admiralty court, they may all join in ſuit, whereas, by the common law, they muſt bring ſeveral actions: that the caſe of the maſter is not different, for the ſhip is ſecurity to him, and he is but a mariner, and his wages are wages at ſea.

But however, where the maſter dies in the voyage, as he did in this caſe, there can be no reaſon to exclude his executors from ſuing in the admiralty, becauſe he had no opportunity of bringing his wages to account with the owners; and in 2 Ventr. 181, Alleſon verſus Marſh, the purſer, though an officer of the ſhip, was allowed to ſue for his wages in the admiralty; and in 2 Keb. 779. Pl. 6. Rex verſus Pike, a prohibition was denied, where the maſter and mariners joined in a ſuit in the admiralty for their wages. (But Holt ſaid, that a prohibition ought to have been granted quoad in the ſaid caſe.) And he cited a caſe, Hil. 27 and 28 Car. II. C. B. between Cooker and Older, where Atkins and Ellis juſtices were of opinion, That a prohibition ought to be granted to the ſuit in the admiralty court by the maſter of a ſhip for his wages; but North chief juſtice, and Windham juſtice, held the contrary opinion. But Holt chief juſtice ſaid, That it is an indulgence that the courts at Weſtminſter permit mariners to ſue for their wages in the admiralty court, becauſe they may all join in ſuit; and it is grounded upon the principle, Quod communis error facit jus; but they will not extend it to the maſter of the ſhip, eſpecially if he was maſter at the beginning of the voyage here in England, and the contract was made with him here. Poſſibly if the maſter of a ſhip died in the voyage, and another man took upon him the charge of the ſhip upon the ſea, ſuch caſe might be different. As in the caſe of Groſſwick verſus Louthſley, where it was held in this court lately, that, if a ſhip was hypothecated, and money borrowed upon her, at Amſterdam, upon the voyage, he who lent the money may ſue the admiralty for it: and this court granted a conſultation in the ſaid caſe. But in another caſe, where the money was borrowed upon the ſhip before the voyage, the King's-Bench granted a prohibition, and the parties acquieſced under it. There are many precedents, in the court of admiralty, of ſuits by the mariners for their wages, but none for the maſter of the ſhip. And the caſes differ; for the mariners contract upon the credit of the ſhip, and the maſter upon the credit of the owners of the ſhip, of whom generally he is one. The opinion of lord Hobart, That, where there is matter of property to be tried, a prohibition ſhall be granted is a little too hard. Gould juſtice agreed with Holt, and ſaid, he was of opinion that prohibitions were grantable of right, though it had been controverted in his time. To which Holt chief juſtice ſaid, That Hale chief juſtice, and Windham juſtice, held prohibitions to be diſcretionary in all caſes; but Kelynge chief juſtice was of the contrary opinion; and he ſaid, He did not eſteem them to be matter of right. Then Mr. Northey moved, That the court would compel the plaintiff to put in bail to the action, to be brought for the wages at common law, or otherwiſe deny the prohibition; which, he ſaid, had been done often. Holt chief juſtice confeſſed, That the court had ſometimes interpoſed, and procured bail to be given; but it was by conſent, and in caſe of the proprietor himſelf; but, in regard that in this caſe the plaintiff was a purchaſer without notice, there was no reaſon; and a prohibition was granted. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 397.

Baily verſus Grant.

Upon the motion of Mr. Raymond, towards the end of laſt Michaelmas term, a rule was made to hear counſel of both ſides, the firſt day of this term, why a prohibition ſhould not be granted to the court of admiralty, to ſtay a ſuit there by the mate of a ſhip, for his wages. And he urged, That the admitting the mariners to ſue there, was rather an indulgence than any proper juriſdiction that they had to hold plea there of wages ariſing upon a contract made upon the land; and that it was a long while before it was permitted, but that now it ought not to be extended any farther: that, in the caſe of a maſter of a ſhip, a prohibition was granted laſt Trinity term, between Clay and Snelgrave (ante 576.) that this ſeemed to be a middle caſe, but rather inclining to that of the maſter; becauſe, in caſe of the death of the maſter, he ſucceeded in the government of the ſhip, and was always overſeer of all the other mariners: that the ſame motion was made Mich. 10 Will. III. B. R between Hooke and Moreton (ante 397.) and that the rule was made as here, to hear counſel, &c. and, upon it's being many times moved, no prohibition was made, and they proceeded no farther in the admiralty; for which, &c. But è contra ſerjeant Hall argued, That no prohibition ought to be granted; and of that opinion was the whole court, becauſe the mate is not diſtinguiſhable from other mariners, only in title: he contracts with the maſter, and is as his ſervant, and, therefore, does not differ from the mariners. But the maſter contracts with the owners upon their credit; whereas the mate contracts only with the maſter, and not upon the credit of the owners, but upon the credit of the ſhip: and, therefore, the rule was diſcharged. The ſame rule was made this term, upon a motion in the Common-Pleas. See 2 Ventr. 181. Marſh verſus Alleſon. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 632.

Upon a motion for a new trial in an action for a ſeaman's wages, Holt chief juſtice ſaid, That, if the ſhip be loſt before the firſt port of delivery, then the ſeamen loſe all their wages; but, if after ſhe has been at the firſt port of delivery, then they loſe only thoſe from the laſt port of delivery; but if they run all away, although they have been at a port of delivery, yet they loſe all their wages. Lord Raymond, vol. i. page 639.

John Edwards, and Elizabeth his wife, widow and executrix of Capt. Jenefer, verſus Sir Richard Child, Shepherd, and others, owners of the ſhip Succeſs, and the Eaſt-India company.

In 1693, Jenefer was appointed captain of the ſhip Succeſs, on a voyage to India, at 10l. per month wages, and to have two ſervants, the one at 30s. per month, and the other at 20s. per month wages. Jenefer, the maſter, and the defendants, the part-owners, enter into a charter-party with the Eaſt-India company, in which recital was made, that the company had paid to the maſter and mariners in part of freight, 1200l. by way of impreſt-money; and further agreed, that the ſeamen, at the end of every ſix months during the voyage, ſhould receive one months wages, and that, until ſix days after the return of the ſhip to the port of London, the Eaſt India company were not to pay any freight, ſave the ſaid impreſt-money, which was not to be returned, although the ſhip ſhould be loſt in the voyage: and therefore, by the direction of the company, Jenefer the commander, when he hired the ſeamen, took bonds from them not to demand any wages 'till the return of the ſhip to the port of London, and that they ſhould not demand any wages, if the ſhip was loſt before her return to London.

The ſhip ſailed to Bengal, and there delivered her outward-bound cargo. In her return home the ſhip was taken by the French, on the coaſt of Ireland, and the captain and mariners made priſoners.

The captain was ſued by the mariners for their wages, being four months, that became due at Bengal, the firſt delivering port; and, although the bonds were given in evidence, yet the mariners recovered their wages, in an action tried before the lord chief juſtice Holt.

The bill by the plaintiffs, the wife being the executrix of Capt. Jenefer, was to recover about 800l. he had been forced to pay to the mariners, and likewiſe to have the captain's own wages, and the wages of his ſervants, for four months, that became due at Bengal, the firſt delivering port.

Upon producing of precedents, where relief had been given in like caſes, viz. the caſe of Sir Humphry Edwin and Capt. Stafford, againſt the Eaſt India-company, in 1695, and the caſe of Buck and Sir Thomas Rawlinſon, affirmed upon an appeal in the houſe of peers: notwithſtanding the Eaſt-India company had taken bonds from the mariners, not to demand their wages, unleſs the ſhip returned to the port of London, the lord chancellor decreed the plaintiffs to be paid the wages due to Capt. Jenefer, for himſelf and ſervants, and likewiſe what Jenefer had paid to the ſeamen, with intereſt and coſts. Vernon's Reports, vol. ii. p. 727.

MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, and MARINE TREATIES, relating to trade and navigation.

Under the following articles we have repreſented, in our Firſt Volume, many eſſential particulars which have relation to marine commerce, of which it may be requiſite to apprize the reader; viz. ADMIRALTY, ASSURANCE of ſhipping and merchandizes, AVERAGE, BARATRY, BILLS of LADING, BOTTOMRY, CAP MERCHANT, CHARTER-PARTY, CONVOYS and CRUIZERS, FLOTSAM, GREEN-

WICH HOSPITAL, HANSE-TOWNS, HYPOTHECATION, and INDULTO.

In this our Second Volume we continue the ſame ſubject, under theſe ſeveral particular heads, viz. MARINERS, MARQUE, LETTERS of, MASTERS of SHIPS, NAVAL AFFAIRS, OLERON, it's LAW of marine trade, PILOTS, PORTS and HAVENS, PIRACY, PRIZES, QUARENTINE, RHODIAN LAWS of marine trade, SEA LAWS, SALVAGE, SHIPPING, WISBUY LAWS of marine trade, WRECKS, &c. &c.

Under the preſent article, we ſhall give an abſtract of the principal MARINE TREATIES concluded ſince the year 1600, between the chief princes, ſtates, and ſovereigns of Europe, which may be uſeful to have recourſe to upon peculiar occaſions.

The firſt piece of this nature that occurs is the memorable league into which the STATES-GENERAL entered with the republic of LUBECK, in the year 1613, which was ſolemnly confirmed about two years and eight months afterwards, and ſtrengthened by the acceſſion of moſt of the other HANSE-TOWNS, upon the following occaſion:

The king of Denmark having, ſome time before, laid heavy taxes upon their ſhips ſailing through the ſtraights of the Sound, &c. [ſee the article DENMARK] they found the new impoſitions not a little detrimental to their navigation; and the northern traffic being none of the moſt inconſiderable branches of the Dutch trade, as well as of that of the HANSE-TOWNS, they ſoon began to let their uneaſineſs appear, and ſo negociated their buſineſs among themſelves; and the town of Lubeck firſt brought the buſineſs to a concluſion, by means of the following treaty with the States-General; in which, though not a word is ſaid of his Daniſh majeſty, that prince eaſily penetrated into the deſign of that combination; and, the new confederates being, on the other ſide, apprehenſive of his reſentment, it was thought convenient to fortify the alliance, by receiving into it ſeveral of the other HANSE-TOWNS, who judged it their intereſt to join with the others, with a deſign to enter into a vigorous war with the king of Denmark, whoſe late impoſitions they were reſolved not to pay: for though they pretended that their alliance was only defenſive, they certainly intended to reduce that prince to a neceſſity of aboliſhing the beforementioned taxes; which may be gathered from the treaty as it hereunder follows:

A treaty between the States of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries, and the town of Lubeck, concluded in the year 1613.

As of ancient time the honourable the common-council of the free and imperial city of Lubeck, and ſeveral other towns ſituate on the northern and eaſtern ſeas, have been in union and amity with divers towns of the free United Provinces, for the defence of the liberty of navigation, trade, and commerce, &c.—And as now their high mightineſſes the States-General of the United Provinces, &c. have found it neceſſary to negotiate and treat about the renewing the aforeſaid union, by the noble deputies, &c.—Who, after ſeveral conferences, have agreed together, treated, conſented, and concluded upon the points and articles following:

I. That this union be only for maintaining the freedom of navigation and commerce in the northern and eaſtern ſeas, the ſole intent being, that the reſpective ſubjects of the union, according to the law of nations, &c. may accordingly enjoy the ſame without moleſtation; ſo that the ſubjects of the ſaid union may reciprocally defend and protect each other, againſt ſuch as would diſturb them, that the difficulties detrimental to the common trade and navigation may be removed, &c.

II. In ſo doing, this union ſhall not be prejudicial to the friendſhip of his imperial majeſty, nor the holy empire, nor to their royal majeſties of France and Great-Britain. &c.

III. Thoſe of the union ſhall faithfully obſerve theſe articles, and confirm them by oath.

IV. The States-General ſhall manage this union to the beſt advantage of the common cauſe; but in ſuch manner, as the common-council of Lubeck may give a voice in all the deliberations; for which purpoſe a perſon from Lubeck ſhall always reſide at the Hague, on behalf of the town; and the States-General may depute ſome perſon to reſide at Lubeck, the better to deliberate with the council of that place.

V. Thoſe of the union ſhall contribute towards the charges, according to the obligations into which they are entered, in order to furniſh ſhips, foot and horſe, &c.

VI. If ſuch who interrupt commerce and navigation, after having been amicably required to deſiſt, refuſe, againſt juſtice and reaſon, to do it, thoſe of the union ſhall defend themſelves vigorouſly, to ſecure to them ſuch liberty of commerce and navigation.

VII. If the conſequence hereof ſhould be a war, thoſe of the union ſhall recall their ſubjects from the ſervice of the adverſe party, on pain of death, and confiſcation of their eſtates. Nor ſhall it be allowable to procure, or ſend to the adverſe party, money, troops, ſhips, ammunition, arms, proviſions, &c. on pain of corporal puniſhment; and all endeavours ſhall be uſed to prevent their receiving ſuch ſuccours from other places.

VIII. And, if the adverſe party ſhall arreſt the ſubjects, ſhips, merchandizes, or debts of thoſe of the union, or ſurprize them at ſea, and carry them off, orders ſhall be given to the towns and countries of the union to make reprizals, and mutually to aſſiſt each other.

IX. The ſhips of thoſe of the union may freely enter into the harbours and rivers of each other, to provide neceſſaries, or to refit; but no violence ſhall be uſed, and they ſhall pay for what they take.

X. The ſubjects of the union ſhall, in all their countries, enjoy the privileges of a citizen, and even the right of ſucceſſion, which ſhall deſcend without diſtinction of religion, as permitted in the holy empire; but every one ſhall ſubmit himſelf to the laws of the place.

XI. None of thoſe of the union ſhall enter into any treaty, or be reconciled to the enemy, without the conſent of the others: on the contrary, all the members ſhall endeavour to keep their citizens, inhabitants, ſhips, merchandizes, and effects, free from all damage, and to maintain them in their liberties and privileges, &c.

XII. So that no peace or truce ſhall be made with the enemy, but with the reciprocal conſent of all the members.

XIII. This league ſhall remain in force for 50 years, which, with the common conſent, may be prolonged.—If, during the ſame, or even after the expiration thereof, any of the union receive any damage by reaſon thereof, whether by ſea or land, they ſhall mutually aſſiſt each other againſt all perſons whatſoever.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or city, and eſpecially if any of the other Hanſe-Towns, deſire to enter into this union, they ſhall be received upon reaſonable conditions.

In witneſs whereof, two copies of theſe preſents have been made, and confirmed by oath. and ſealed with the ſeals of their high mightineſſes the States-General, and of the ſaid town of Lubeck, and ſigned by their reſpective clerk and ſyndic; of which copies each party has retained one.—Done in the month of May, in the year 1613, and underwritten,

By order of the States-General,

Signed AERSSEN.

And, by order of the honourable the council of the town of Lubeck,

Signed MARTIN NORDAMUS,

Syndic of the republic of Lubeck.

Here follows the ſecond league, concluded between the Dutch and the republic of Lubeck, together with ſeveral of the other Hanſe-Towns; which, though it be much to the ſame effect with the former, is of too great importance not to deſerve a place in this work.

A treaty of alliance, between the United Provinces of the Low-Countries and the Hanſe-Towns, concluded in the month of December, 1615, in conſequence of that concluded with the town of Lubeck in the year 1613.

As not only the Hanſe-Towns of the eaſt, ſituate upon the Eaſtern Sea, together with thoſe upon the Wexel, the Oder, the Elbe, and the Weſer, and the neighbourhood thereof, but likewiſe ſeveral towns of the Low-Countries, ſituate upon the Northern and Southern Seas, as alſo thoſe ſituate on the Maeſe, the Wale, the Rhine, and the Yſſel, and other ſtreams and rivers flowing into the Northern and Southern Seas have been comprehended in the common league of the Hanſe-Towns, and have remained in a firm union and friendſhip with one another, and have obtained of the neighbouring kingdoms and countries many common liberties, privileges, and prerogatives, which, by their united counſels, ſtrength, and forces, and by the defenſive arms of ſeveral of them, have been defended and maintained; and, as the Hanſe-Towns of the Low-Countries have, in latter times, by reaſon of a tedious war, and other accidental miſunderſtandings, being hindered from aſſiſting at the general meetings of the Hanſe-Towns, and, by reaſon of their own burthens, have not been able to bear the charges of the common league, which ſome of their neighbours have taken to be a rupture and ſeparation, and which has occaſioned ſeveral uneaſy burthens upon the freedom of traffic, commerce, and navigation, which ought to be remedied; that has put a freſh obligation upon the parties concerned, to think of ways and means by which, with the divine aſſiſtance, theſe inconveniencies may be removed, and the aforeſaid liberties and common rights and prerogatives may be re-eſtabliſhed and confirmed. And as, in this ſucceſſion of time, the greater part of the Hanſe-Towns do look upon their high mightineſſes the States-General of the United Provinces as members of their ſtate, and not judging it convenient to labour ſeparately towards the ſaid re-eſtabliſhment,

re-eſtabliſhment, but in conjunction with their high mightineſſes, ſince, by that means, the treaty that ſhall be concluded will be more uſeful, more profitable, and more convenient, there having been of late years, ſeveral deliberations upon that ſubject, upon which the burghermaſters and the common-council of the free and imperial city of Lubeck did treat with the aforeſaid lords the States-General, in the month of May in the year 1613: for theſe cauſes, after mature deliberation, the ſaid lords the States-General have, by their deputies, together with thoſe of the Hanſe Towns of the eaſt, renewed the antient friendſhip and union that was between them; and, in order to unite themſelves yet more cloſely, have concluded and agreed upon the points and articles following:

I. That this union ſhall not be offenſive with regard to any; but only for maintaining and preſerving the freedom of navigation and commerce in the Northern and Eaſtern Seas, and ſhall not be any otherwiſe underſtood: ſo that thoſe of the union reſpectively, and their ſubjects, may, without any impediment, enjoy the benefit of the laws of nations, and all the liberties, rights, and privileges uſual in the aforeſaid Northern and Eaſtern Seas, and in the rivers, ſtreams, and other currents. All thoſe of the union ſhall defend conjointly, and protect their citizens, inhabitants, and ſubjects, who may be by unjuſt means moleſted by others, and to whom commerce may be forbidden, or upon whoſe merchandizes any particular impoſt may be laid in going or coming; to the end that the ſaid impediments and redoubled impoſts, ſo prejudicial to commerce and navigation, may be aboliſhed, and the ſame may be freely carried on throughout the holy German empire, and may be increaſed for the benefit and advantage of thoſe of the union.

II. Wherefore this union ſhall not be prejudicial to the friendſhip contracted with his imperial majeſty and the holy empire, with their majeſties of France and Great Britain, and with the evangelical electors and circles of the holy empire, and which has been hitherto maintained with their lordſhips the States-General, and likewiſe with the honourable Hanſe-Towns, who have been 'till now under the protection and obedience of his imperial majeſty and the holy empire, and every town that has a mediate authority, all the leagues, rights, ſtatutes, ordinances, and obligations, ſhall remain in their full force; the whole, however, Salvo præſenti fœdere.

III. Thoſe of the union ſhall ſincerely obſerve and maintain the preſent articles, which they ſhall confirm by oath.

IV. Their lordſhips the States-General ſhall manage this union to the beſt advantage of all the members thereof; but in ſuch a manner, however, that in all undertakings, each party ſhall freely give their voice: for which end there ſhall always be a reſident at the Hague from the Hanſe-Towns of the eaſt, who ſhall give his advice in what concerns the union; and the States General may appoint another perſon to reſide at Lubeck, or at ſuch other place as occaſion ſhall require; to the end that the mutual advices and opinions may be the more eaſily communicated, and what ſhall be neceſſary may be effected.

V. Thoſe of the union ſhall keep in good order, and well provided, at their expences, the ſhips, and troops of foot and horſe, and all things belonging thereto, according to the contributions which each is obliged to furniſh, and for the time that ſhall be judged convenient; and ſhall cauſe them to repair to the places whither it ſhall be thought neceſſary to ſend them, according as the name of every Hanſe-Town of the union, and the quotas of the ſaid contributions, are contained in the particular writings.

VI. And, in caſe it happens that thoſe that would cauſe any impediments to be given to navigation and commerce, againſt the aforeſaid privileges and treaties agreed to, will not deſiſt, after having been thereto amicably required, and according to the rules of juſtice, reaſon, and equity, thoſe of the union ſhall proceed againſt them defenſively; the deſign of the union being only to aſſure the liberty of commerce and navigation. And if it ſhould happen that any of the towns of the union ſhould, becauſe thereof, or by reaſon of any particular privilege, ſuffer any damage, the ſaid town ſhall be forthwith aſſiſted, 'till liberty is obtained, and reparation of damage made.

VII. And if, by the common conſent, war ſhould break out, thoſe of the union ſhall command their inhabitants and ſubjects, whether ſeamen or ſoldiers, that are in the ſervice of the adverſe party, to abandon the ſame under pain of death and confiſcation of effects. Nor ſhall it be allowable to ſend from the towns and countries of their obedience, to the ſaid adverſe party, money, troops, ſhips, ammunition, arms, proviſions, or ſuch other things; but, on the contrary, that ſhall be forbidden, on pain of corporal puniſhment; and all endeavours ſhall be uſed, as far as it is poſſible, to hinder others from furniſhing them.

VIII. And in caſe, alſo, the adverſe party ſhould arreſt the perſons, ſhips, merchandizes, and debts of the ſubjects of thoſe of the union, or if they are ſurprized at ſea, or taken or carried off, they ſhall make reprizals in the countries of thoſe of the union; and, in that caſe, they ſhall mutually aſſiſt and defend one another.

IX. The ſhips of thoſe of the union may frequent the rivers and harbours of each other, without any let or hindrance, and there refit their veſſels, and provide themſelves with all manner of neceſſaries; upon condition that no violence be uſed, but that they thankfully pay for every thing they take.

X. The ſubjects of thoſe of the union ſhall every-where enjoy, in the towns and countries thereof, the rights of citizens, and ſhall inherit ſuch ſucceſſions as belong to them, according to the cuſtoms of the place, without any diſtinction of religion, as it is practiſed and permitted in the holy empire; but every one ſhall behave himſelf as a citizen, and ſhall ſubmit and conform himſelf to the laws of the place.

XI. None of thoſe of the union ſhall make any agreement with the adverſe party, without the conſent of the others, nor ſuffer any thing to be done to the prejudice and damage of the others; but, on the contrary, ſhall endeavour to maintain the common tranquillity, and to keep each others citizens, inhabitants, ſubjects, ſhips, merchandizes, and effects, free from all moleſtation, and ſecure to them the enjoyment of the liberties and privileges aforeſaid.

XII. A peace, or truce, with the adverſe party, muſt be concluded with the common advice and conſent of all, and not otherwiſe.

XIII. This league ſhall remain in force twelve years, and ſhall be prolonged with the common conſent. But if any of thoſe of the union, during the ſaid league, or even after the expiration thereof, ſhould be attacked or injured by reaſon thereof, all the members ſhall mutually aſſiſt one another.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or town, deſire to enter into this league, they ſhall be received, with the common conſent, upon reaſonable terms.

In witneſs whereof, divers uniform copies of theſe preſents have been drawn up, for their high mightineſſes and the Hanſe-Towns, which ſhall be confirmed by oath, and by the appoſition of the reciprocal ſeals, after that a report thereof has been made. Concluded in the month of December, in the year 1615.

REMARKS.

Theſe leagues having, for the moſt part, wrought the deſired effect, and deterred the enemies of the Hanſeatic liberties from proſecuting the deſigns that were ſuſpected to have been formed againſt them, things continued much in the ſame condition till the year 1640, or thereabouts, that the Hanſe-Towns, being again diſturbed with freſh jealouſies, began to renew and fortify their former league, and take all the other neceſſary meaſures for preventing a ſurpriſal from any of their real or ſuppoſed enemies.

In order thereunto, the towns of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburgh, firſt began to enter into a ſtrict alliance among themſelves, by a negotiation then ſet on foot, and at laſt brought to a concluſion between them, by a treaty dated the 24th of November, 1641; which being pretty long, we ſhall here content ourſelves with taking notice only of what is moſt material.

In the preface to that treaty they declare, That, finding the preſent poſture of affairs to be ſuch as might give them juſt grounds to provide for the ſecurity of their proper rights and privileges, both in ſpiritual and in temporal matters, the moſt effectual means, for preſerving them from being liable to foreign violence and oppreſſion, would be to renew the ancient amity and good intelligence with the reſt of the Hanſe-Towns; in order to which, and for the intereſt and advantage of his imperial majeſty, and of the holy empire, they agree upon the following articles:

I. That they ſhall forthwith put themſelves in a good poſture of defence, by fortifying all their towns, and raiſing in proportion to their ſtrength, a competent number of regular troops, and putting their own citizens and ſervants in condition to protect them againſt all ſudden inſults and attempts that might be made againſt the Hanſeatic towns, or any of them.

II. That they ſhall upon all occaſions, and eſpecially in the preſent critical conjuncture, live in a perfect repoſe and union with one another, and without giving any ſubject of offence to any other perſon or perſons whatſoever.

III. That, in caſe of any ſudden hoſtility committed againſt any of their members, the injured party ſhall not expect any ſuccour from the others, 'till, by their interpoſition in an amicable manner, the others endeavour to compoſe the differences, and procure them a reaſonable ſatisfaction.

IV. But that, if ſuch friendly methods of proceeding ſhould prove at laſt ineffectual, and the aggreſſor ſhould unreaſonably perſiſt in oppreſſing any of their towns, in their ſpiritual or temporal rights, liberties, privileges, prerogatives, commerce, navigation, perſons, or effects, by ſieges, blockades, building of fortreſſes, hoſtile invaſions, exacting of contributions, arms, ammunitions, proviſions, or other violent and unjuſt oppreſſions, then the party injured ſhall be ſpeedily and effectually aſſiſted, according to the neceſſity and circumſtances of the caſe, with men and money, and every other thing that might be neceſſary for them.

V. That none of the confederates, nor their ſubjects, ſhall give in any manner of ſuccour or neceſſaries to the enemy, openly

openly or ſecretly; and that ſuch as ſhall be convicted of the ſame ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed.
VI. The aforementioned ſuccours and aſſiſtance ſhall be given as is above expreſſed, againſt all and every perſon and perſons that ſhall do any damage to any of the league, by ſea or land, or in the ports and rivers.
VII. If the town inſulted be of opinion that the imminency of the danger cannot admit of a preliminary deliberation, the inhabitants may immediately call the others to their aſſiſtance, and then an aſſembly ſhall be appointed.
VIII. If any town be ſo ſuddenly attacked that the others cannot ſend a timely ſuccour, thoſe that are neareſt ſhall not only ſend thither their ſoldiers, but ſhall likewiſe advance at leaſt one month's pay, and ſhall alſo raiſe immediately other troops; of which charges they ſhall be reimburſed by the other confederate towns, with all convenient ſpeed, &c.
IX. If two or three towns ſhould be attacked at one time, the whole confederate towns ſhall nevertheleſs ſuccour and aſſiſt one another, to the utmoſt of their power.
X. For the more ſpeedy diſpatch of affairs, the oppreſſed town ſhall immediately make known it's condition to it's neareſt neighbours, who ſhall forthwith acquaint the other confederates that they, without any delay, may appoint a diet, and ſend thither their deputies.
XI. And, if the danger be very imminent, the oppreſſed town ſhall have power to appoint a diet, according to the exigency of the caſe.
XII. The direction of any defenſive war ſhall reſide in thoſe to whom the ſuccour is ſent; but, if they require it at their hands, the other confederates ſhall ſend deputies to aſſiſt at the deliberations.
XIII. If any town is ſo ſuddenly attacked or blocked up, as that the others cannot ſend in any perſons to them, they ſhall endeavour to find means to ſend out one or more perſons, to let their confederates know their circumſtances.
XIV. However, ſuch as have been, or ſtill are oppreſſed, being ſuccoured by the confederates, ſhall not conclude any treaty without their privacy and conſent.
XV. And, if things can be brought to any reaſonable accommodation, all poſſible endeavours ſhall be uſed to obtain ſatisfaction to the injured party, and to bring the treaty to ſuch a concluſion that the parties may have no occaſion left for future quarrels.
XVI. This league, which is in confirmation of the eighth article of the former, ſhall ſubſiſt during ten years, and may then be renewed and prolonged; and, in caſe of a war, reaſonable ſatisfaction ſhall be made to ſuch as have been at the charge thereof.
XVII. If, after the expiration of this league, any of the members thereof ſhould come to be attacked by reaſon of it, they ſhall, notwithſtanding that the league be expired, mutually aſſiſt each other.
XVIII. Laſtly, all the Hanſeatic towns that will enter into this league upon the aforementioned conditions, ſhall be received by the common conſent.
All which articles ſhall be faithfully and ſincerely obſerved. Signed and ſealed, &c.

Remarks.

This treaty being ſo concluded, the ſtates of Holland found it their intereſt to enter into another, with the towns of Bremen and Hamburgh, on the 4th day of Auguſt, in the year 1645; of which you may take the following ſhort account, which I have carefully extracted out of the Latin original.
The preface to the treaty inſinuates, That there having been of ancient time a firm and ſincere friendſhip between their high mightineſſes the States-General and the honourable cities of Bremen and Hamburgh, and the other Hanſeatic towns, and it being neceſſary, for their common intereſt and ſecurity, to cultivate and augment that good intelligence, by renewing their former engagements, they oblige themſelves to obſerve the following articles:
I. The league ſhall not be offenſive to any, but ſhall only tend to the ſecurity and freedom of commerce and navigation, according to the laws of nations, and the rights and privileges formerly granted them by ſeveral treaties and contracts.
II. The ſaid league ſhall not be prejudicial to the friendſhips of the ſtates and their confederates with his imperial majeſty and the holy empire, nor to the obedience that ſome of the ſaid confederates owe to his ſaid majeſty; and that the other confederates ſhall not, by virtue of this league, be under any obligation to concern themſelves in the preſent war between the king of Spain and them.
III. That if any of the confedeaates ſhould be oppreſſed in their trade, or otherwiſe, the other ſhall endeavour to compoſe all matters amicably; and, that means failing, all the members ſhould contribute toward the charges of a defenſive war.
IV. That the ſtates ſhall manage the affairs of the confederates, to the common advantage, with the advice of the other members; and deputies ſhall be appointed to reſide for that purpoſe, at convenient places.
V. That the ſhips of all the confederated towns, &c. ſhall freely enjoy each other's ports and harbours, &c. paying for what proviſions they ſhall have occaſion.
VI. That if any diſſenſion ſhould happen among the confederates themſelves, they ſhall be amicably compoſed.
VII. That none of the parties ſhall act any thing to the prejudice of the other members, or any of them, but ſhall, as much as in them lies, contribute to the intereſt, honour, and advantage of each other.
VIII. That the league ſhall ſubſiſt fifteen years.
IX. That the other Hanſeatic towns ſhall be received with the common conſent.
X. And, laſtly, That the ratifications ſhall be exchanged within two months.
Signed and ſealed the 4th of Auguſt, 1645.

Remarks.

This treaty being ſo concluded, nine days afterwards another was brought to a period at Chriſtianople, between the ambaſſador of the king of Denmark and thoſe of the States-General; by which it is agreed:
I. That there ſhall be a firm and ſincere friendſhip between the ſubjects of both parties, who ſhall mutually perform all good offices to one another, in ſo far as the treaties of either party with other princes and eſtates could allow it.
II. That, for the forty years next enſuing, the tolls ſhall be paid in the Baltic Sea according to a regulation ſigned and confirmed between them; and that, during that time, they ſhould not be augmented; but that, after the expiration thereof, things ſhould be regulated according to the treaty concluded in the year 1544, except another treaty ſhould intervene within the aforeſaid time.
III. The ſearching of the ſhips and goods belonging to the inhabitants of the United Provinces, and paſſing through the Baltic Sea, ſhall ceaſe, and intire credit ſhall be given to the mariners that produce their cockets*, who, thereupon paying the toll, ſhall be diſmiſſed without any trouble or moleſtation, and ſhall not be detained in the cuſtomary place (called Den Drooghen) near Copenhagen. But if, in time to come, it ſhould appear that his Daniſh majeſty is defrauded in the toll, their high mightineſſes, being acquainted therewith, ſhall think upon convenient methods for remedying the ſame, and ſhall take care that no injuſtice of any nature be done to his majeſty.

* Cocket ſignifies a certificate and clearance, ordinarily given by the officers of any cuſtom-houſe to ſhips going to ſea.

IV. The tranſportation of no goods (what name ſoever they bear) ſhall be forbid through the Baltic Sea.
V. All goods that ſhall be proved really to belong to the ſubjects of the United Provinces, whether exported or imported, ſhall not pay any greater duties in the kingdom of Denmark and Norway, than are paid by the ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid kingdoms themſelves: nor ſhall his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects pay any greater duties in the ſaid provinces than the inhabitants.
VI. Ships fully laden in any port of the kingdom of Norway, being once ſearched there, and having paid their tolls, ſhall not be ſearched again in the ſame, nor in any other port at which they may touch, but, upon producing the receipt thereof, ſhall be freely diſmiſſed; but, if they lade in ſeveral ports, they ſhall be ſearched there, and not elſewhere: and, as the exportation of oak is prohibited and forbidden, if any perſon is convicted of exporting any of the ſaid wood, he ſhall be fined in double the price of the oak.
VII. The toll ſhall be paid in Norway, in the ſame quantity and manner that was uſual in the year 1628, nor ſhall any greater be exacted 'till his Daniſh majeſty and their high mightineſſes agree about the method of exacting the duties for all ſorts of wood; concerning which affair his majeſty and their high mightineſſes ſhall enter into a treaty, as ſoon as that can be conveniently done, that ſomething more certain may be determined about it.
VIII. The merchants and mariners of the United Provinces, ſhall by no means be obliged to purchaſe their planks of ſome certain perſons in Norway, but ſhall buy the ſame at ſuch places, and of ſuch perſons as they pleaſe.
IX. The ſhips of the ſubjects of the United Provinces trading to Norway, ſhall be meaſured by two Norwegian and as many Dutch mariners, to whom that ſervice ſhall be intruſted; and, being ſigned by them, ſhall be confirmed by the magiſtrates of the place, and recorded in the books of his judicature, that the mariners, in caſe of neceſſity, may have recourſe to the ſame; and afterwards the meaſure ſhall be marked upon the maſt and beak-head of the ſhip, that the toll may be the more conveniently determined, 'till it be otherwiſe agreed, as is already ſaid.
X. Full and ample reſtitution ſhall be made for all the extortions that the ſubjects of the United Provinces can prove to have been made, againſt his Daniſh majeſty's command, after the year 1641 (4 per cent. of the price or quantity of the wood being deducted) as of every thing that has been exacted contrary to the treaty then entered into.
XI. The preſent treaty concluded between his Daniſh majeſty and their high mightineſſes ſhall be ſigned and ſealed by his majeſty and the moſt ſerene prince of Denmark, and all and every one of the counſellors of the kingdom.

XII. The rights and privileges granted to the towns of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries by the treaty of Spires, and publiſhed and confirmed by the authority of the ancient kings of Denmark, ſhall not be in any manner diminiſhed by the preſent treaty, but ſhall remain as formerly, in their full and entire force, &c.

XIII. His Daniſh majeſty obliges himſelf that he ſhall not, upon any account, detain any of the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the United Provinces, nor take any goods or merchandizes out of them, nor force any of them into his ſervice, without firſt agreeing with the maſters and proprietors thereof, and paying them the full price of the ſame; nor ſhall he, without the conſent of the poſſeſſors, take out of the ſaid ſhip any men or warlike neceſſaries, or other things, under any pretence whatſoever; and it ſhall be free for them to ſail through the mouth of the Baltic, and to trade through all his majeſty's dominions.

XIV. Goods exported out of the United Provinces, in foreign ſhips, ſhall be ſuffered freely to paſs through the mouth of the Baltic Sea, paying the ſame toll that is uſually paid for goods exported out of the United Provinces: but, upon this condition, that it ſhall be made appear, by ſufficient teſtimonies either from the cities of the ſaid United Provinces, or others ſituate upon the ocean, that the ſaid goods belong to no other but the ſubjects and inhabitants thereof.

XV. All the ſubjects of the ſaid provinces that reſide in the eaſtern cities, carrying either their own goods, or thoſe of the other ſubjects or inhabitants of the ſaid provinces through the Baltic, ſhall be treated in the ſame manner as the other inhabitants thereof.

XVI. The ſhips of the United Provinces having paid the toll, and being ſearched in any port of Denmark, ſhall not again be ſearched in any other port of Denmark and Norway, except they take aboard goods there; but, on the contrary, they ſhall be freely diſmiſſed.

XVII. The receivers, and other officers of the tolls in Norway, ſhall not exact of the mariners any more than what is due, nor take any more for their diſcharge, than the king's order bears; and his majeſty ſhall cauſe ſuch as do otherwiſe to be ſeverely puniſhed.

XVIII. As to what concerns the toll at Gluckſtadt, if that affair cannot be accommodated by the treaty now commenced for that effect with the city of Hamburgh, the ſubjects of the United Provinces, producing their ordinary certificate, ſhall be free from the effect thereof.

XIX. And as, by virtue of the preſent articles, all differences between his Daniſh majeſty, and their high mightineſſes the States-General of the United Provinces, are compoſed and entirely removed, it is mutually agreed and promiſed, by the ambaſſadors and commiſſaries of either part, that the ratifications ſhall be delivered on both ſides within three months.

Signed and ſealed, &c. at Chriſtianople, the 13th day of Auguſt, 1645.

Remarks.

To this treaty (of which we have left out ſome tedious formalities, not material to our point) there is annexed a promiſe of the Daniſh ambaſſadors, by which they oblige themſelves, in the king's name, to cauſe the * tariff, according to which the tolls were paid by the Hollanders in the year 1628, to be renewed and publiſhed with all convenient ſpeed, and that nothing ſhould be exacted of the ſubjects of the United Provinces, contrary to the contents of the ſaid tariff.

* Tariff is a term properly expreſſing what we call the book of rates in England, being a book in which are written down the duties and cuſtoms to be paid on all ſorts of goods.

Thus much being ſaid of the circumſtances and affairs of the Hollanders, and of the Hanſe-Towns with the Danes, we thought it neceſſary to interrupt, for ſome time, the relation given of their marine intrigues and negociations; to oblige the public with a treaty concluded on the very ſame day, viz. the 13th of Auguſt 1645, between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, which being a curious and uſeful piece, and pertinent to our preſent ſubject, we ſhall here give a tranſlation of as much as concerns navigation and marine affairs.

In the preamble of this treaty, the ambaſſadors, &c. of all parties ſet forth, That ſeveral miſunderſtandings and differences having of late aroſe between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, and that eſpecially concerning the immunity of commerce and navigation, and of the duties, &c. exacted in the narrow paſſage of the Sound; which differences having at laſt broke out into a war, to the great loſs and diſadvantage of both kingdoms, in the name of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Lewis XIV. the moſt Chriſtian king of France and of Navarre, his mother, the queen-regent, out of her ſincere compaſſion towards thoſe kingdoms, and her care for the welfare of all Chriſtendom, and deſire to prevent the further miſeries and calamities of war, and to give repoſe and peace to Chriſtendom, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty aforeſaid, having, for that effect, ſent the year before his ambaſſador extraordinary in the North, to the courts of Sweden and Denmark, with orders to exhort both to a reconciliation, by repreſenting to them the miſerable condition of the Chriſtian world, and by offering to interpoſe the mediation of France, for the compoſition of their differences. For thoſe cauſes her Swediſh majeſty, out of reſpect to his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, as well as out of the earneſt deſire ſhe has to put an end to the war, and to enjoy and preſerve peace within the limits of her kingdom, and to maintain a ſincere friendſhip, and good correſpondence with all her neighbours, and eſpecially with Denmark and Norway, who, becauſe of the vicinity of their ſituation, and for ſeveral other reaſons, have many things in common with the kingdom of Sweden, has received the friendly counſel of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, and accepts and acquieſces in the offers made of the interpoſition of the mediation of France, and his Daniſh majeſty having likewiſe declared, that he accepts of the ſame mediation, a meeting being appointed at Bromſbroo upon the frontiers, on the 3d of February, between the commiſſaries and plenipotentiaries of both kingdoms, being four on each ſide, and of equal quality, where the ſaid ambaſſadors being aſſembled, with the help and aſſiſtance of the ambaſſador of France as mediator, they concluded a firm and ſolid peace, and agreed to the following articles:

I. As to the paſſage and navigation through the ſtraight of the Sound and Belt, and from the Baltic ſea into the ocean, and likewiſe from the ocean into the Baltic ſea, and the immunity from paying all tolls and taxes, becauſe of the ſaid paſſage and navigation, the certificates for goods, and the ſearching, viſiting, ſtopping, and juſticiary arreſts and proceedings, eſtabliſhed for ſhips and goods to prevent fraud, and preſerve the ſhips and goods from all danger, and likewiſe for preſerving the liberty of commerce, the interruption of which has given occaſion to the preſent war and commotions, after many conferences, in which all means of reconciliation have been propoſed and examined, it is agreed as under, viz.

I. It is promiſed in the name and on the behalf of his Daniſh majeſty and his ſucceſſors, and of the kingdom of Denmark, that, in time to come, her Swediſh majeſty, and her ſucceſſors, kings and queens of Sweden, and their ſubjects and inhabitants in the kingdom of Sweden, great dutchy of Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, ſhall have right, liberty, and power to navigate, whether in their own, or in hired ſhips, with all ſorts of veſſels great or ſmall, armed or unarmed, men of war or merchantmen, and to tranſport their goods and effects of any kind or ſort whatſoever, through the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, according to the opportunity and pleaſure of every man; nor ſhall that privilege be forbid them, nor they any ways troubled and moleſted in the enjoyment of the premiſes.

II. And this ſhall be ſo underſtood, that it ſhall be free for her Swediſh majeſty and her ſucceſſors, and her and their ſaid ſubjects, inhabiting in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, to tranſport, according to their power and pleaſure, through the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, all ſorts of merchandize and effects, without diſtinction, exemption, or limitation, whether it be goods bought or purchaſed in other towns or kingdoms, or whether it be the product of the earth or manufactures; more eſpecially all ſorts of munitions of war, and every thing that may be uſeful therein, and particularly braſs or iron guns, great or ſmall fuſils, muſquets and arms, ſwords, ball, gunpowder, ſalt-petre, and every other thing belonging to war or arms, by what name ſoever it may be called, without any impediment, detention, inhibition, charge, or tax; whether ſuch things be tranſported from Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, Livonia, Pomerania, Mecklenburgh, Lubeck, or from the towns of Pruſſia and Courland, into the lands along the ocean; or whether they be tranſported from the aforeſaid places thro' the Baltic ſea into Sweden, and the aforeſaid provinces, or directly into Pomerania, Mecklenburgh, Lubeck, the towns of Pruſſia and Courland, or others.

III. All ſhips and goods of what kind ſoever, belonging to her Swediſh majeſty, and her ſubjects and inhabitants in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, their mariners, merchants, and other paſſengers, whether the ſhips belong entirely to them, or whether they have only a ſhare in the ſame, ſhall be free from all tolls and taxes in the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, that now are in practice, or that the mind of men can in time to come invent, under any pretence whatſoever, not only during their abode in the ſaid ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, but likewiſe during the whole courſe of the voyage, whether in going or coming; but, if the veſſels do wholly belong to ſtrangers, or if they have any ſhare therein, and the ſame may be only failed by her Swediſh majeſty's ſubjects, they ſhall pay to the king of Denmark, for their paſſage through the Sound and the Belt, what ought to be paid according to treaties and cuſtoms, whether for the whole ſhip, if it entirely belongs to ſtrangers, or for any part thereof proportionably; preſerving, however, in every thing, the liberties and immunities of the Swediſh ſhips, effects, and perſons.

IV. It is agreed, as to the liberty of navigation of the Swedes and their exemption from tolls, and his Daniſh majeſty promiſes

miſes and determines them in this manner, in his own name, and in that of his ſucceſſors, kings of Denmark, and of that kingdom, that her Swediſh majeſty, and her ſubjects in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, ſhall, without diſtinction, enjoy theſe rights and liberties, in their perſons, ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, whether of the product of the earth, or manufactures; and, in time to come, all the aforeſaid ſhips of Sweden, and all others carrying Swediſh goods and effects, writings and perſons, ſhall be free from all ſearching, viſiting, meaſuring, and other vexations in the paſſage of the Sound and the Belt, and that no right of ſuperiority or juriſdiction ſhall be exerciſed over them in any thing concerning their paſſage, traffic, and navigation; and much leſs ſhall any ſhips be ſeized, or any effects taken out of the ſhips, or any ſhips forced into the Daniſh ſervice, without the conſent of the owners.

V. And becauſe the certificates, and the different expoſitions and explications of them, have very much contributed to the eſtabliſhing of the cuſtom of ſearching of ſhips in the paſſage of the Sound, and given occaſion to the differences that have happened, and to the preſent war between theſe kingdoms: for theſe cauſes, and for preventing ſuch miſunderſtandings in time to come, and for the more eaſy diſtinguiſhing between the free ſhips and goods of Sweden, and thoſe that are ſubject to the taxes, it is finally concluded and agreed by theſe preſents, that all Swediſh ſhips of war, great or ſmall, laded or unladed, whether there be one alone, or ſeveral together, paſſing through the ſtraights of the Sound, and ſailing to Cronenborg (which ſhall not be practiſed in any other place of the paſſage of the Sound) ſhall ſtrike the main ſail in paſſing by the citadel of Cronenborg, and ſalute the ſame with the ordnance, which ſalutation ſhall likewiſe be returned by the citadel; and, if the ſhips of war continue their voyage, without coming to an anchor, it ſhall be free for them to ſail on without any further ceremony; but, if it happens that any Swediſh man of war come to an anchor in the ſtraight of the Sound, and the governor of Cronenborg ſend to the captain to enquire of him, in a friendly manner, whence he comes, and deſire him to ſhew his certificate, without picking otherwiſe any quarrel with him; the captain ſhall not decline ſhewing his paſſport to the perſon ſent by the governor, but they ſhall receive and entertain one another with all imaginable reſpect and civility, and the captain ſhall not be troubled in any other manner whatſoever. And, as for the narrow paſſage of the Belt, the Swediſh ſhips of war may freely paſs by Nyburgh, according as the wind and their conveniency will allow tham; but, if they come to an anchor, before, or near the citadel, the ſame thing ſhall be obſerved, that has been already expreſſed concerning the citadel of Cronenborg in the ſtraight of the Sound.

VI. And beſides, that all Swediſh ſhips or veſſels belonging to her Swediſh majeſty's ſubjects, and to the inhabitants of her majeſty's dominions in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, wholly laden with the goods and effects of the merchants and inhabitants, ſhall be according to theſe articles and conventions free from all charge and vexation, provided they have general certificates for their free paſſage from her majeſty and her officers in ſpecial matters, and in other caſes from the conſuls and ſenators of the towns, to have a juriſdiction over the ſhips and goods belonging to the citizens and inhabitants of the kingdom, by which it ſhall be certified in general terms, that the ſhips and goods do really belong to the ſubjects and inhabitants of Sweden, which certificate ſhall be conceived according to the following manner:

A form of the general maritime paſſport for a Swediſh ſhip, entirely laded with Swediſh goods; which (changing what is to be changed) may likewiſe ſerve for foreign ſhips, entirely laded with Swediſh goods.

We conſuls and ſenators of the town of certify, that the ſhip commanded by belongs to our town of (or ſome other town) in Sweden, and is only laded with goods belonging to Swedes, and is bound for the ocean, as the maſter and the owners thereof (if they be more than one) have declared before us in our court, deſiring this certificate as a proof thereof: the ſhip and goods being thereby to be exempted from all taxes and vexations in the paſſage of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms. In teſtimony whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of the town to be put to theſe preſents, which we have likewiſe cauſed to be ſigned by the clerk. Given, &c.

Which certificate ſhall be ſhewn and conſigned in the hands of the officers of his Daniſh majeſty's cuſtom-houſes at Elſineur and Nyburgh, in the paſſages of the Sound and the Belt, who thereupon ſhall be obliged forthwith to diſcharge the ſhips, with a teſtimony that they have paſſed with their lading; which teſtimony ſhall be conceived according to the following model:

A model of the teſtimony to be given by the officers of the cuſtom-houſes of Elſineur and Nyburgh, to ſuch as ſhew their certificates.

In the year one thouſand N. N. maſter of the ſhip the belonging to the town of B. has delivered his certificate for ſhips and goods, dated at B. the day of in the year In witneſs whereof we have given him this teſtimony, &c.

Which being done, ſuch maſters may freely depart with their goods and men, without any hinderance, prejudice, charge, or vexation.

VII. Ships hired by merchants and inhabitants in Sweden, and only laded with Swediſh goods, ſhall be treated in the ſame manner; and after ſhewing their certificates conceived in general terms, and leaving the ſame at Elſineur or at Nyburgh, and receiving a teſtimony thereof (which is to be done without delay) paying what is due for ſhips that are wholly, or partly foreign, without prejudice to the rights of Swediſh perſons and goods, according to their proportions, it ſhall likewiſe be free for them to continue their voyage, without any further trouble or moleſtation.

VIII. And ſo if any Swediſh merchant-ſhip, not laded, paſs through the ſtraights of the Sound and Belt, the maſter ſhall make it appear (as is already ſaid) at Elſineur and Nyburgh, by a general certificate, that he belongs to Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, or Livonia, after which he ſhall pay what is due, and depart at his own conveniency, without any other tax, vexation, hinderance, or detention.

IX. If any veſſel, great or ſmall, paſs through the ſtraights of the Sound or the Belt, laden partly with Swediſh, and partly with foreign goods (which latter are liable to pay all the duties levied at that place) the maſter muſt have certificates of all the goods and effects he has aboard, belonging to the merchants of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, in which ſhall be particularly expreſſed the weight of the goods in ſuch manner as one may diſtinctly ſee all the heavy goods that are uncovered, and are not bound or packed up, with their weight, number, and meaſure, according to the cuſtom of the ſea; ſuch as copper, braſs, iron, pitch, of all ſorts, corn, ſalt, ſalt-fiſh, butter, tallow, hemp, flax, and ſuch other goods; and, as for ſmall goods that can be put up in caſks and barrels, they ſhall not be ſpecified, but they ſhall be marked with a Swediſh mark upon the caſks and barrels, and it ſhall be expreſſed in the certificate, that the ſaid caſks and barrels, and the goods they contain, and which are not ſpecified, belong to merchants and inhabitants of Sweden. And for the greater clearneſs of the thing, and avoiding all occaſions of difference, there is here under added a model of the ſaid certificates.

A form of the certificates to be given to the Swediſh ſhips, laden partly with Swediſh, and partly with foreign goods, which are ſubject to pay the taxes; which, making ſome alterations, may likewiſe ſerve for foreign ſhips hired by Swedes.

We conſuls and ſenators of the town of N. certify, that, upon the day under-mentioned, P. P. citizen (or inhabitant) of our town of N. (or ſome other town) in Sweden, appearing before us at our court, declared, that he had ſhipped on board of the ſhip R. of which his owner S. S. and maſter T. T. the number of pounds of copper, iron, or flax, or tons of wheat, rye, or barley; or the number of beams, planks, or maſts, or of tons of wine, or the number of caſks or barrels of goods and merchandizes, marked L. L. belonging to Q. Q. citizen (or inhabitant) of the town of C. in Sweden; and the ſaid P. P. requiring this certificate to indemnify the ſhip and goods from all taxes and vexations in the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms; we have granted him the ſame, after having cauſed it to be ſealed with the ſeal of the town, and ſigned by the clerk. Given, &c.

Which certificate agreeing with the quantity of goods, and being ſhewn to the officers of the Daniſh cuſtom-houſes at Elſineur and Nyburgh, the ſaid Swediſh goods, expreſſed in the certificate, ſhall be free and exempt from all other ſearching, viſiting, detention, juſticiary proceeding, or confiſcation. But, if it happens that there be reaſon to ſearch the ſhip for other prohibited goods, or others that are ſubject to the taxes; in that caſe, ſuch goods as ſhall be called in queſtion, ſhall be taken out of the ſhip and depoſited, and examined at Elſineur or Nyburgh, which ſhall be performed within the ſpace of eight days at moſt, ſo that, within the ſaid time at furtheſt, any Swediſh or other ſhip, freighted by Swedes, may be free to depart with all the Swediſh goods, without any further retardment; and that the ſhips and veſſels, merchandizes and effects, belonging to the ſubjects and inhabitants of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, be not in

in the leaſt tormented with unneceſſary ſearchings and vexations, by reaſon of the ſaid miſtakes and errors.

X. If any ſhip of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, or Livonia, be freighted by ſtrangers, and laden with foreign goods that are ſubject to pay the taxes, the ſhip and perſons ſhall nevertheleſs enjoy the liberties, privileges, and immunities, which are rightly due; as by theſe preſent articles are granted to the Swedes, and the foreign merchant ſhall give an account of his goods, without any violation of the immunities of the Swedes in the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt.

XI. And, that no retardment or damage may be cauſed to the Swediſh ſhips and goods in their voyages, contrary to the intent of theſe preſents, it has been promiſed in the name of his Daniſh majeſty, that things ſhall be diſpoſed at Elſineur and Nyburgh; that the maſter of the cuſtom-houſe, or ſome other officer in his place, ſhall attend at certain hours, before and after noon, every day at the ſaid cuſtom-houſe, there to receive the certificates; and, immediately upon the receipt thereof, to give others to the maſters in the form above preſcribed, in ſuch manner that the Swediſh ſhips and goods may continue their voyages, and freely paſs, without any hinderance or moleſtation.

XII. And, if it afterwards ſhould happen, that her Swediſh majeſty's ſhips, or thoſe of her ſubjects, whether they be their own or hired ſhips, being forced by tempeſt, or otherwiſe, ſhould deſire a ſafe port in Norway, or any other place of the king of Denmark's dominions, it ſhall be freely granted them, and they ſhall not be moleſted in any manner, neither for taxes, ſearches, nor any other thing, but ſhall only pay the duties that other friends and ſtrangers pay for anchorage, and ſuch other conveniencies, in places where ſuch things are uſually levied. But, as to their goods and merchandizes, they ſhall have the liberty to purchaſe neceſ ſaries for their money; and the Daniſh ſhips of war, and others, ſhall have the ſame privilege in the like caſe in the ports in Sweden.

XIII. If it happens, that either her preſent Swediſh majeſty, or her ſucceſſors, kings of Sweden, ſhould levy ſoldiers, either horſe or foot, in the kingdoms or dominions of their friends along the ocean, or ſend any to the provinces in their neighbourhood of the Baltic ſea, or into Oſtrogoth, and they paſs on one ſide or other through the Baltic ſea, it is agreed, that her majeſty and her ſucceſſors ſhall have entire liberty to do it without any oppoſition; provided, however, that there ſhall not paſs together above 1200 men, and that notice be given to his Daniſh majeſty three weeks before, that thereby all ſuſpicions may be removed, and the paſſage may be free. But, if any Swediſh officers, or others, would paſs through the Baltic ſea, with their own horſes and equipages, they may freely do it in one, or ſeveral ſhips, without giving any notice.

XIV. And, to prevent differences between the two kingdoms in time to come, or if the fleets of the two kingdoms meet, or one ſhip of war meets another; or if by accident the Swediſh fleet enters into any of the ſtraights of the Baltic ſea or the Belt, and there meets that of Denmark; or if the ſhips or fleet of the latter enters into any place or port where the Swedes are before them; it is agreed in the following manner, that if the fleet of either of the kingdoms meet the other in the Baltic ſea, or in the ocean, they ſhall mutually receive one another with marks of friendſhip, and ſhall ſalute and honour one another in the ſame manner, firing guns according to the cuſtom; and neither the one nor the other ſhall attempt any thing further, nor endeavour to exerciſe any act of ſuperiority, whatever pretenſion they may believe they have; the ſame ſhall be obſerved when one or two ſhips meet; but, if one or two ſhips of either of the kingdoms meet the fleet of the other, they ſhall ſalute it by firing of guns, and ſtriking their main topſail, 'till the fleet be paſt, or 'till it come to an anchor in ſome port, but they ſhall not be obliged to ſtrike their flags: and, if there be more than two ſhips of either ſide together, and they form a fleet, they ſhall content themſelves to fire guns on both ſides without ſtriking their ſails, and the one ſhall not oblige the other to do it.

XV. It ſhall be free for one, two, three, four, or at moſt five, Swediſh men of war, to paſs through the ſtraights of the Sound or the Belt, without giving previous notice to his Daniſh majeſty or his ſucceſſors; and when they are arrived at the ſtraight of the Sound, and have ſaluted after the Swediſh manner, with two guns (as has been already ſaid) they ſhall lower their main topſails before the caſtle of Cronenborg 'till they be paſt it; and, if it happens that his Daniſh majeſty's ſhips or fleet be there before them, they ſhall be ſatisfied with the two guns aforeſaid, without being obliged to any thing further, and much leſs ſhall any other marks of honour or deference be required of them. But if her Swediſh majeſty or her ſucceſſors be obliged to paſs the ſtraight of the Sound or the Belt, with a fleet of ſhips of war, it is agreed that his Daniſh majeſty ſhall have notice of it three weeks beforehand, that the arrival of ſuch a fleet may give no ground of ſuſpicion or miſtruſt; and, ſuch notice being given, the Swedes ſhall have free liberty to paſs without any oppoſition or damage to the Danes.

XVI. And as to what concerns the iſland of Burgen, where his Daniſh majeſty has kept for ſome time a gallery, and levied cuſtom; his ſaid majeſty by theſe preſents yields, and entirely renounces that practice, and promiſes to make uſe of the ſame no more, and that henceforth he will not pretend to exact any toll there.

XVII. With reſpect to the duty which his Daniſh majeſty has levied of late years at Gluckſtadt, upon ſhips and goods going from one place or another to Hamburgh, it is likewiſe agreed in the following manner, that, as his Daniſh majeſty is now in a negociation with the Hamburghers, concerning the differences between them, and for abrogating of that cuſtom, if they agree between themſelves, and the aforeſaid duty be abrogated, the ſubjects of his Swediſh majeſty who trade that way, ſhall alſo enjoy the ſame privileges; and though, againſt all appearance, the difference with the Hamburghers about that duty continue, or though they ſhould conſent to pay it, in that caſe the Daniſh commiſſioners have promiſed in his Daniſh majeſty's name, and in that of the duke of Holſtein, and have obliged themſelves, that all her Swediſh majeſty's ſubjects and inhabitants in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, that trade upon the Elbe, ſhall be freed therefrom; and that they ſhall not be moleſted nor detained, by reaſon thereof, by any of his Daniſh majeſty's, nor the duke of Holſtein's miniſters, whether they reſide in forts or ſhips; and that they ſhall be free from all taxes and uneaſy ſearchings, and further that they ſhall not ſo much as be obliged to ſhew any teſtimonies in writing, and much leſs to produce certificates, or give any other account of that nature.

XVIII. And, as the experience of by-paſt times has demonſtrated, that the privileges and liberties granted to the Swedes in Denmark and Norway, and to the Danes and Norwegians in Sweden, to trade together, and be exempted from all duties introduced partly by ancient cuſtom, and partly by the tranſactions and treaties concluded between the two kingdoms, has given birth to ſeveral differences, and has even occaſioned a hatred and animoſity between the kingdoms, and as often ſet the king and ſubjects of the kingdoms at variance with thoſe of the other, inſomuch that that has been the principal cauſe of breaking the ancient friendſhip which ſubſiſted between the two kingdoms, and there has ſcarce been any conference between the commiſſioners of both parties where that grievance has not been repreſented; beſides that, at this time, that liberty cannot be ſo conveniently continued as it formerly was. For theſe cauſes, it is agreed on both ſides, that all immunities of duties and taxes ceaſe and be removed, for the Danes and Norwegians in Sweden, and for the Swedes in Denmark and Norway, without prejudice of the exemption of duties, and of the free paſſage of the Swedes in the ſtraights of the Sound and the Belt, and likewiſe paſſage ſhall be forbidden to the Swediſh merchants with their merchandizes, to go into Denmark and Norway beyond their limits; and the ſame thing ſhall be forbidden to the Danes and Norwegians to go into Sweden, as well into the country as into the maritime towns and provinces. However, any Swediſh merchant trading, for the time to come, into Denmark and Norway, ſhall have the privilege of trafficking in the maritime ſtaple towns appointed for it, whither it is lawful for merchants to go; and he ſhall there enjoy the ſame liberties and privileges granted to other friends and foreigners, according to the laws and ſtatutes of Denmark, preſerving always the privileges of the towns; and, on the other hand, a Daniſh or Norwegian merchant, trading in Sweden or any of the provinces depending upon it, ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges and liberties of trading in ſtaple ports appointed for that purpoſe, and in which other foreigners and friends are allowed to come, according to the ſtatutes and laws of Sweden, preſerving always the privileges of the town. And, to the end that their Swediſh and Daniſh majeſties may not be troubled and moleſted in their kingdoms, they ſhall diſpoſe of their ſubjects, according as every one's occaſion and condition requires.

XIX. The trade and navigation upon the river of Trotheat between Weſtgoth and the territory of Bahus, ſhall remain under the ſame condition, liberty, and privilege, that it anciently was, and ſhall not be hindered nor interrupted at either of the entries towards Gothburg and Kongel, and all buildings that have been erected, or other things that have been ſunk in it's channel, that may be any ways prejudicial to the one or the other, ſhall be removed, and the channel ſhall be cleanſed without any oppoſition, and eſpecially what was thrown into it, to ſtop it's entry towards Bahus, ſhall be taken away, and, after an exact ſearch, it's ancient current ſhall be reſtored to it, and what damage is done ſhall be repaired. The Swedes ſhall not be in any manner diſturbed by the Danes and Norwegians, nor ſhall the latter by them; but, on the contrary, navigation and commerce ſhall be carried on with equity, and ſhips ſhall go up and come down the ſame river on the ſide of Gothburg, without any hinderance, charge, or grievance, as it has been formerly practiſed.

XX. And further it is agreed, that her Swediſh majeſty ſhall have in time to come, as ſhe has had hitherto, a poſt-maſter

at

at Elſineur, and a poſt between Sweden and Hamburgh, who ſhall paſs on all ſides without hinderance or moleſtation; and ſhe ſhall likewiſe have perſons to carry her majeſty's letters, and thoſe of her ſubjects, and others that are ſent out of the kingdom, or into it, and that without any obſtacle, retardment, or ſearching; and his Daniſh majeſty ſhall have the like power, that is to ſay, to keep an agent at Stockholm, for his own and his ſubjects buſineſs.

XXI. The eſtates enjoyed by the Swediſh gentry in Denmark and Norway, and thoſe enjoyed by the Daniſh and Norwegian gentry in Sweden before this war, ſhall be reſtored to the right owners, who ſhall poſſeſs the ſame according to the ancient treaties, and according to the laws and ſtatutes of each kingdom, without any moleſtation or hinderance whatſoever.

XXII. And, becauſe the war has occaſioned ſome confiſcations on both ſides, and ſome loſſes to the ſubjects whilſt it laſted, all things ſhall be forgot on either ſide, upon conſideration of this peace, and all that has been adjudged, and actually confiſcated, and all private loſers ſhall remain in the condition they now are, and nothing ſhall be paid on either ſide by the ſubjects; nor ſhall any moleſtation be given, nor any action intended againſt ſuch as by reaſon thereof have contracted debts, and have not lawfully paid the ſame as well within as without the kingdom.

XXIII. But, if any thing be found (whether it be adjudged or not) that is not actually confiſcated, and all debts that the ſubjects and inhabitants of Sweden had right to demand before this war of his Daniſh majeſty, or the Danes and Norwegians of her Swediſh majeſty, upon due proof, ſhall be forthwith paid on both ſides.

XXIV. And if, during the courſe of this war, any ſentence has been given either in Sweden or Denmark, to the prejudice of any Swede in Denmark, or to the prejudice of any Dane or Norwegian in Sweden, it ſhall be of no effect; and it ſhall now be free for every man to purſue and prove his right.

XXV. As her majeſty the queen Chriſtiana of Sweden has, during this war, reduced to her obedience ſeveral of his Daniſh majeſty's forts, provinces, territorities, and towns in Jutland, Scania, Halland, Belking, Bornholm, and Holſtein; and likewiſe in Stormaren and Ditmarſen, and namely Chriſtianople, Pinnenberg, Helſingburgh, Lanſcroon, Laholm, Engelholm, Saltzburgh, Hammerſuſen, or by what other names ſoever they are or may be called, now poſſeſſed by right of war; for that, and ſeveral other conſiderations, and by the mediation and diligence, and the continual exhortation and perſuaſions of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty's ambaſſador; her majeſty, the queen of Sweden, makes over, and conſents to give, to his Daniſh majeſty and his ſucceſſors, all the title ſhe may have acquired, by the right of war, to the ſaid provinces, lands, forts, houſes, fields, towns and territories; all which things ſhall depend on him and his ſucceſſors, according to the tenor of this peace; and that, becauſe of the deſire ſhe has to prevent the extraordinary miſeries with which the continuation of the war would be attended; well conſidering how neceſſary a reconciliation between the northern kingdoms is, for breaking a way for the peace and repoſe of Chriſtendom, ſo long wiſhed for: and, that the care and deſire of their majeſties, the moſt Chriſtian king, and the queen regent his mother, to end the differences and wars between theſe kingdoms, may not be without effect, his Daniſh majeſty eſpecially, being perſuaded by his moſt Chriſtian majeſty's ambaſſadors, having promiſed in his own name, and for his ſucceſſor, and the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, as effectually by theſe preſents, he conſents and promiſes to her Swediſh majeſty and her ſucceſſors, kings of Sweden, and to the ſaid kingdom, that, in compenſation for the provinces, fortreſſes, towns, and territories, which are to be reſtored, he makes over all Jemptland, including Heredalia, &c. as likewiſe Gothland, and the town and citadel of Wiſby, and the iſlands and arms of the ſea depending on the ſame, as likewiſe Oeſel and Arnſburgh, with all the iſlands and appurtenances, and every thing depending thereon, with the ſuperiority, royal privileges, and eccleſiaſtical and political juriſdiction, tributes, revenues, and dues, by ſea and land, in the ſame manner as the kings of Denmark, and particularly Chriſtian IV. now reigning, has enjoyed the ſame; which ſhall belong, and appertain in time to come, to her Swediſh majeſty, and her ſucceſſors to the kingdom of Sweden, to be by them poſſeſſed by a perpetual right, as the ſpecial inſtrument of ceſſion drawn up for that, and ſigned and ſealed by his majeſty, and by the counſellors of Denmark, do more fully teſtify.

And, beſides, his Daniſh majeſty conſents and promiſes in his name, and for his ſucceſſors, and for the kingdom of Denmark, to the end that her Swediſh majeſty, and her ſucceſſors, and ſubjects in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Eſthonia, and Livonia, may have ſecurity for enjoying, without moleſtation, the freedom of commerce and navigation in the ſtraights of the Sound and the Baltic ſea, according to theſe preſent articles, to give to the ſaid queen, her ſucceſſors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, as a pledge and ſecurity for the obſervation of the ſaid articles and conventions for the thirty years next enſuing, all Halland with it's forts, Holm, Helmſtadt, and Warburg, together with all the towns and villages ſituated within that territory, as well the aforeſaid Holm, Helmſtadt, and Warburg, as Falkenburg and Kaningſlachen, and all the lands and fiefs there contained, according to the ancient bounds, limits, and borders of the aforeſaid countries; upon condition that her majeſty and her ſucceſſors, and the kingdom of Sweden, ſhall enjoy and poſſeſs the ſaid province of Halland, with all it's forts, towns, magiſtracies and rights, revenues, ordinary and extraordinary ſuperiorities, royal rights and juriſdictions, eccleſiaſtical and civil, and all other emoluments ariſing from the lands, waters, rivers, ſeas, iſles, ports and fields, without excepting any thing whatſoever, by whatſoever name it may be called, in the manner that the kings of Denmark have poſſeſſed the ſame, and eſpecially in the manner that the preſent king Chriſtian IV. poſſeſſes and enjoys them, and all the inhabitants of that province, as well in the country as in the towns, eccleſiaſtical or ſecular, gentry and commonalty, inhabiting and dwelling therein, ſhall not be obliged, during the aforeſaid term of thirty years, to take any oath of allegiance, fidelity, or obedience, but to her Swediſh majeſty and her ſucceſſors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, until the ſaid term of thirty years, without any interruption, be expired, according to the tenor of the preſent convention, as in the particular inſtrument for the pledge and ſecurity given by his Daniſh majeſty, and ſigned and ſealed by all the counſellors of his kingdom, it is more fully expreſſed. And it is further agreed, concerning this pledge and ſecurity, That, the aforeſaid term of thirty years being expired, his Daniſh majeſty and the kingdom of Denmark ſhall be obliged, before the reſtitution of the ſaid province, either to let it ſtill remain for ſecurity to her Swediſh majeſty, and to the kings her ſucceſſors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, or to give in lieu thereof as good a pledge, with which her ſaid majeſty, and the kings her ſucceſſors, and the kingdom of Sweden may be ſatisfied, that they may have ſecurity for the obſervation of the preſent articles.

Remarks.

As this long article does not particularly concern the marine affairs, I ſhould not have troubled the reader with it, if I had not obſerved a very remarkable paſſage, from which a weighty inference may be reaſonably drawn, in favour of what we have ſaid under the article Sea, viz. that the ſea is capable of, and ſubject to, dominion; which, we think, does very plainly appear to have been the ſentiment of the princes concerned, and of the plenipotentiaries and other politicians employed in the management of this treaty, ſince in the perpetual and temporary ceſſion that the king of Denmark makes, in favour of the crown and kingdom of Sweden, of ſeveral lands and territories, moſt expreſs mention is made of the arms of the ſea, ſeas, waters, &c. depending on the ſame, &c.

As the fifteen following articles have but little relation to maritime affairs, we ſhall leave them out, in order to have the more room for what is moſt eſſential to my preſent purpoſe.

XLI. It is alſo agreed by theſe articles, that all the towns, comprehended in the Hanſeatic league, ſhall have a ſhare therein, and ſhall enjoy the freedom of commerce by land and ſea in both kingdoms, reſerving the obſervation of the ancient treaties between theſe kingdoms and the Hanſeatic Towns for a better time; and no injury ſhall be done to any town, citizen, or ſubject, for any action perpetrated during the war.

XLII. Particularly the town of Dantzick is comprehended in this peace, and ſhall enjoy, in the ſame manner it has hitherto done, the liberty of commerce by ſea and land, in both the kingdoms; and all offences, happened during this war, ſhall be buried in perpetual oblivion.

XLIII. This treaty, for the greater ſecurity, ſhall be ratified, and ſigned and ſealed with the privy-ſeal of Sweden and Denmark, and likewiſe ſhall be ſigned and ſealed by the counſellors of both kingdoms.

XLIV. Each kingdom ſhall ſend a ſplendid ambaſſy, into France, to return thanks for their mediation, and invite that kingdom to take care of the obſervation of the treaty concluded the 13th of Auguſt 1645, &c.

Remarks.

This treaty being ſo brought to a concluſion on the 13th of Auguſt, two days afterwards another treaty of guarantee was concluded at Suder-Okra, between the miniſters of the queen of Sweden and the States-General, by which thoſe two powers agreed, That, in caſe the king of Denmark ſhould in any manner infringe his treaties with either party, they ſhould mutually aſſiſt each other, and ſtrenuouſly vindicate and maintain the freedom and immunity of commerce and navigation, according to the laws of nations to ancient cuſtom, and to the particular conventions and treaties between them.

The 25th of November following, was brought to a concluſion, at Copenhagen, a treaty between Lewis XIV. and his

his mother the queen regent of France on one part, and the king and kingdom of Denmark on the other, by which they agree:

I. That there ſhall be in time to come, between the two kingdoms, a perfect and inviolable friendſhip, &c.

II. The ſubjects of either prince ſhall freely trade between the two kingdoms, according to the reſpective laws eſtabliſhed in the ſame.

III. His moſt Chriſtian majeſty's ſubjects going into Denmark or Norway, about their own or their maſter's affairs, whether concerning commerce or any other thing, ſhall have liberty of conſcience; and the king's miniſters, reſiding there, ſhall be allowed the exerciſe of the Roman Catholic religion in their own houſes.

IV. The ſhips of either kingdom, entering into the ports of the other, ſhall be favourably received and kindly treated, &c.

V. The ſubjects of either crown trafficking by ſea, and paſſing by the coaſts of the other kingdom, ſhall not be forced to enter into any port whatſoever, except they be bound thither; and, if they come to an anchor, they ſhall not be obliged to unlade their goods, nor to exchange or ſell them, but ſhall have free liberty to do what they think moſt convenient and advantageous for their affairs.

VI. When French ſhips, or ſhips hired or laded by Frenchmen, paſs through the ſtraights of the Sound, whitherſoever they are bound, or from whatſoever place they come, or what goods ſoever they may have aboard, they ſhall not be obliged to pay any other toll than that which the king of Denmark has ordered in a ſpecial treaty upon this ſubject, concluded the 27th of September of this preſent year, under the counter-ſeal, of which there is a table of the tax or toll. And if, in time to come, the Dutch pay any thing for ſea-marks and fires, the French ſhall do the ſame.

VII. The ſubjects of the king of France that ſhall carry into Norway the product of their country, or ſhall go thither in ballaſt to purchaſe the commodities they have uſe for, ſhall pay no more for the entry of the goods they carry thither, nor for the cuſtom of thoſe they purchaſe there, than what is now, or ſhall be in time to come, impoſed upon the king of Denmark's own ſubjects.

VIII. And likewiſe the ſubjects of the king of Denmark, trading into France, ſhall not pay any other, nor greater duties than the French themſelves, or their other friends or confederates; and they ſhall be allowed to ſell and diſpoſe of their goods to whom they pleaſe, and at the price they think fit.

IX. Ships of war and others, going into the ports of either kingdom, ſhall be kindly received, paying for the neceſſaries they want.

X. No ſhips of war or others, belonging to either of the kingdoms, ſhall be forced into the ſervice of the other, without the conſent of the prince, the ſhips of war belonging to or of the owners of the others; and that, though the captain of the veſſel ſhould conſent.

XI. The two kingdoms ſhall uſe their utmoſt endeavours for the advancement of commerce and navigation, and ſhall ſuppreſs pirates, &c.

XII. And, as the liberty of commerce does principally conſiſt in maintaining the ſtate of things in the weſtern, northern, and Baltic ſea, in the ſame condition that they have been hitherto, both kings ſhall uſe their endeavours to preſerve entire, and without any alteration, the ancient balance and equilibrium that has been hitherto found to be the ſureſt foundation for the public peace and tranquillity.

Note, The other five articles of this treaty are not very material to our point.

Signed and ſealed at Copenhagen, Nov. 15, 1645, &c.

REMARKS.

The next treaty of this nature that occurs, is that by which the town of Lubeck renewed their old league with the States-General, who notwithſtanding their late accommodation with Denmark, the better to bring that court to a compliance with their deſires, gladly entered into a freſh alliance with the ſaid towns, in which they more plainly diſcovered their diſcontents with the Daniſh impoſts upon their ſhips than in any precedent treaty; for there they plainly declare their reſolution of maintaining the freedom of their navigation in the Baltic; which reſolution of theirs, and the meaſures they had fallen upon to make it effectual, did probably incline the court of Denmark to come to an agreement with them, by a treaty concluded by his ambaſſador at the Hague, the 12th of February, 1647; which treaty, though it be very long, as it contains a great many things that are not unworthy the peruſal of the curious and attentive reader, we have thought fit to give the world a full and exact tranſlation thereof in the following terms: to which I was ſo much the more inclined, that it may ſerve to give the world ſome diſtinct notions of the great trade that the Hollanders have drove in the Northern Seas.

ARTICLE III.

A treaty of commerce concluded between Chriſtian IV, king of Denmark, and the United Provinces of the Low Countries, concluded at the Hague the 12th of February, in the year 1647.

I Corfits Uleſeldt, counſellor of ſtate, firſt maſter of the houſhold, and governor of the iſle of Moon, &c. ambaſſador extraordinary from his majeſty the king of Denmark, Norway, &c. my moſt gracious king and lord, to the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces; on one part: and we John lord of Ghent, and one of the nobles of Guelderland; Gerard Scaep, ancient burghermaſter and counſellor of the univerſity of Leyden; Nanning Keyſer, counſellor and penſioner of the town of Horn in Weſt-Friezland; Jacob Veth, counſellor and penſionary of the town of Middleburgh in Zealand; Gilbert Vander Hoolick, ancient burghermaſter of the town of Utrecht; Charles Van Roorda, grietman of Idaderabel; John Vander Beeck of Doornick and Crytenberg, burghermaſter of the town of Daventer; Hieronymus Eyben, hoovelingh of Niehoue, burghermaſter of the town of Groningen, commiſſaries deputies, and provided with full powers from the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces, on the other part: be it known by theſe preſents, that, on the 13th day of the month of Auguſt, in the year laſt paſt, 1645, there was a treaty agreed to, and concluded at Chriſtianople, between his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway, and the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces, containing, amongſt other things, that, in time to come, there ſhould not be levied any greater duties, or toll, in Norway, nor in any other manner, or upon any other account, than was practiſed in the year 1628, 'till his majeſty and their high mightineſſes ſhould agree upon a ſure and certain method, according to which the tolls and taxes upon wood ſhould be paid at ſo much per laſt: and, his majeſty having offered to treat with their high mightineſſes concerning that affair, with all convenient ſpeed, we the abovementioned lords commiſſioners, being for that effect aſſembled, have, after a diligent negociation, agreed and concluded what is under:

I. In the firſt place, all the ſubjects of the United Provinces of the Low Countries, from the day of the date of this treaty 'till the 23d of Auguſt, N. S. in the year 1685, ſhall pay the tax or toll in Norway as follows:

II. All ſhips, ſailing from the ſaid United Provinces of the Low Countries to Norway, ſhall repair to five or ſix commodious havens of the ſaid provinces, to be there meaſured and marked by ſuch as ſhall be appointed for that ſervice on both ſides; for which there ſhall be three perſons named by the king of Denmark, beſides another perſon who ſhall have an inſpection over them; and their high mightineſſes, if they pleaſe, may alſo appoint the like number of perſons, with one inſpector, alſo on their ſide.

III. The ſhips ſhall be exactly and faithfully meaſured, according to their depth, length, and breadth.

IV. And, that no miſunderſtanding may ariſe between the Daniſh and Dutch meaſurers and inſpectors, we have thought it convenient to propoſe a model, according to which thoſe calculations and meaſures ſhall be made, copies of which model, or table, as it is here incorporated in this treaty, ſhall be delivered into the hands of the meaſurers and inſpectors, who ſhall be regulated thereby.

A table, or model, for meaſuring the ſhips, according to the meaſure of Amſterdam.

The length ſhall be taken from the exterior part above the beak or beak-head of the ſhips in one end, to the ſame part of the beak in the other end.

The breadth ſhall be taken from the oppoſite inner planks of both ſides of the ſhip, before the main-maſt.

The depth, or capacity of ſhips, ſhall be meaſured between the main-maſt and the mizen-maſt, where it is moſt ſhallow; and wideſt near the pump, from one ſide to the other, and afterwards they ſhall meaſure from the middle of the meaſuring line, through the wood, to the bottom of the hold; after which they ſhall proceed in the following manner:

A ſhip 125 feet in length, 25 feet in breadth, and 14 feet in depth, with a half-deck the length of the hatches, ſhall be adjudged to contain 155 laſts.

A ſhip 123 feet in length, 24 ½ in breadth, and 14 in depth, with a half-deck, 146 laſts.

A ſhip 122 feet in length, 24 ½ in breadth, and 13 ½ in depth, with a half-deck, 138 laſts.

A ſhip 120 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and 13 ½ in depth, having a half-deck, 130 laſts.

A ſhip 118 feet in length, and 13 in breadth, with a half-deck, 123 laſts.

A ſhip 116 feet in length, and 13 in breadth, with a half-deck, 118 laſts.

A ſhip 114 feet in length, 23 ½ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a half-deck, 112 laſts.

A ſhip 112 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a half-deck, 107 laſts.

A ſhip 110 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 12 ½ in depth, with a half-deck, 101 laſts.

A ſhip 108 feet in length, 22 ½ in breadth, and 12 ½ in depth, with a half-deck, 96 laſts.

A ſhip 106 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and 12 ½ in depth, with a half deck, 91 laſts.
A ſhip 103 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and 12 ½ in depth, with a half-deck, 86 laſts.
A ſhip 95 feet in length, 21 ½ in breadth, and 12 in depth, 73 laſts.
A ſhip 90 feet in length, 21 ½ in breadth, and 12 in depth, 66 laſts.
A ſhip 85 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and 11 ½ in depth, 60 laſts.
A ſhip 80 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and 11 in depth, 50 laſts.
A ſhip 126 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a complete upper-deck, having four feet in height between decks, ſhall be judged to contain about 172 laſts.
A ſhip 124 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a full deck, 3 ½ feet high, 162 laſts.
A ſhip 122 feet in length, 24 ½ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a deck of 3 ½ feet high, 153 laſts.
A ſhip 120 feet in length, 24 ½ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a deck 3 ½ feet high, 145 laſts.
A ſhip 118 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and 12 ½ in depth, with a deck of 3 ½ feet, 134 laſts.
A ſhip 130 feet in length, 28 in breadth, and 12 in depth, with an upper deck 6 feet high, ſhall be judged capable of carrying about 195 laſts.
A ſhip 126 feet in length, 26 in breadth, 12 in depth, and having a deck as above, 170 laſts.
A ſhip 124 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 11 ½ in depth, having a deck 5 ½ feet high, 166 laſts.
A ſhip 122 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 11 in depth, with a deck 5 feet high, 156 laſts.
A ſhip 120 feet in length, 24 ½ in breadth, and 11 in depth, with a deck 4 ½ feet high, 146 laſts.
A ſhip 118 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and 10 ½ in depth, with a deck of 4 ½ feet high, 135 laſts.
A ſhip 116 feet in length, 23 ½ in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of 4 ½ feet high, 120 laſts.
A ſhip 112 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of 4 ½ feet high, 113 laſts.
A ſhip 110 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of 4 ½ feet high, 110 laſts.
Such veſſels as ſhall not be found to be preciſely of the ſame form or burthen abovementioned, ſhall be taxed by the meaſurers and inſpectors, conformably to the aforeſaid regulation, and in proportion to their burthen.
And the aforeſaid calculation being made by the laſt of St. Ubes, of corn or ſalt, as the veſſels cannot be ſo deeply laded with wood, becauſe of it's lightneſs and ſtiffneſs, one fifth part of the calculation of every veſſel ſhall be abated.
V. The ſhips, being meaſured in the aforeſaid manner, ſhall be marked upon the ſail-yards and upon the beak-heads, fore and aft, with a hot iron; and two acts, or certificates, ſhall be drawn up for the ſhip, which ſhall be ſigned by the meaſurers and inſpectors of both ſides, one of which ſhall be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip, and another depoſited in the hands of the magiſtrates of the place where the ſhip is meaſured.
VI. There ſhall likewiſe be kept two records, or comptrolls, of ſhips ſo meaſured, which ſhall likewiſe be ſigned by all the perſons that meaſure the ſame, one of which ſhall be ſent into Denmark, to be communicated to the commanders of the caſtles, and other officers, that recourſe may be had to the ſame, in caſe of need, and the other ſhall remain at the diſpoſal of their high mightineſſes.
VII. Such veſſels ſhall be meaſured before the end of the month of April at lateſt, and ſooner, if it be poſſible, in order to which, both parties ſhall uſe the utmoſt diligence.
VIII. All veſſels ſailing from the United Provinces to Norway, and having aboard a certificate of their meaſure in due form, ſhall pay, at their going out of the kingdom, according to their burthen, as under: that is to ſay, any ſhips carrying, according to the certificate of the meaſures, 125 laſts, ſhall pay the tax but for 100; and ſo all ſhips carrying wood out of Norway ſhall pay but for four-fifths of their burthen, the other fifth being abated, in conſideration that they have been well and faithfully meaſured; concerning which, his majeſty ſhall give the neceſſary orders to all his cuſtom-houſes of Norway.
IX. Veſſels ſailing from the United Provinces of the Low-Countries to Norway, and carrying merchandizes thither, ſhall only pay for ſuch merchandizes the duties his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects are obliged to pay; ſo that the inhabitants of the ſaid Low Countries ſhall not be at any greater charge than thoſe of Denmark and Norway.
X. All the ſhips ſailing from the United Provinces of the Low-Countries to Norway, and having aboard a faithful certificate of their meaſure, as is above expreſſed, ſhall give a rixdollar per laſt, deducting, as is aboveſaid, one fifth of the number of laſts.
XI. The ſaid veſſels, lading wood, may likewiſe, in the ſame harbours, lade pitch, tar, ſkins, iſinglaſs, or any other commodity that may be tranſported, paying the aforeſaid duty of one rixdollar per laſt, and no more.
XII. This ſhall only be underſtood of veſſels tranſporting wood from Norway, and in the harbours where wood is ſold, but not from other places, and eſpecially from Bergen, where that trade is not driven; in which harbours the ſubjects of the United Provinces ſhall pay the ſame duties for other goods that his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects pay; and this ſhall only be underſtood of veſſels laden with wood from Norway, and from the harbours where that trade is driven, and no where elſe.
XIII. All the other duties and by-tolls, of what name ſoever, that have been hitherto impoſed upon that trade, ſhall be, and are aboliſhed, by theſe preſents, and none other ſhall be impoſed in time to come but that already mentioned, called the toll of the laſt of the wood, of whatſoever name or nature it may be.
XIV. Any of the ſaid veſſels laded with wood, having paid the toll according to the certificate of it's meaſure, the ſaid fifth part being deducted, ſhall be no further troubled or moleſted with ſearching or unlading, under any pretence whatſoever, but ſhall be in full liberty to depart, upon the payment of the ſaid duty or toll.
XV. There ſhall be no diſtinction made of the quality of the wood that is laded, whether it be of the beſt, or of the middle, or coarſeſt ſort; and much leſs ſhall ſuch veſſels be ſearched, unladed, or detained; ſo that, if the ſaid veſſels of the United Provinces of the Low Countries ſhould load any oak, or other prohibited wood, no ſearch ſhall be ordained, but the prohibited wood ſhall be detained, only when it is found out of the veſſels: in which caſe the ſubjects of the ſaid United Provinces ſhall not ſuffer in any manner, neither in their perſons or effects, nor ſhall be incommoded or moleſted, under any pretence whatſoever.
XVI. The expences laid out in the harbours of Norway, for the preſervation of foreign ſhips, ſuch as iron rings, and other conveniencies, ſhall not be required of the ſhips that have been taxed and meaſured, as is above expreſſed; but, on the contrary, all neceſſary conveniencies and aſſiſtance ſhall be given them, without any further charge.
XVII. During the term expreſſed in this treaty, no alteration nor innovation ſhall be made, directly nor indirectly, by heightening the tolls of taxes upon the laſt of wood, or in any other manner, or under any pretence whatſoever; but all things ſhall remain in the ſame ſtate as is herein expreſſed, viz. one rixdollar per laſt for every ſhip lading wood, and carrying it out of the kingdom.
XVIII. If any new ſhip, or others not meaſured, ſail to Norway to lade wood, they ſhall be meaſured and taxed in Norway, by three or more Danes or Norwegians, and as many Dutch boat-men, according to the model already inſerted; and the exact capacity, or burthen of the ſhips, ſhall be marked and ſigned by thoſe that meaſure them, and the duties paid accordingly, deducting one fifth as above.
XIX. And it ſhall be henceforth allowable for the ſubjects of the United Provinces of the Low Countries to tranſport from Norway linden trees, aſh-trees, elm-trees, wood for ſail-yards, and maſts, from 16 to 20 palms, and no diſtinction ſhall be made with regard to the toll between the different ſorts of wood that are exported, but all ſhall pay by the laſt, as is above expreſſed.
XX. When his Daniſh majeſty, for the exigencies of his own dominions, ſhall have need of linden, aſh, and elm-trees, and of ſail-yards and maſts of 16 palms, the merchants ſhall not, in that caſe, export ſuch timber without his majeſty's expreſs permiſſion, provided, however, that, in that caſe, what is ſaid and ſtipulated in the 15th article concerning oak be duly conſidered.
XXI. If, in any time to come, it ſhould happen that the tolls and duties ſhould be diminiſhed in Norway, in favour of his majeſty's ſubjects, or thoſe of other nations that tranſport wood out of Norway, and not into the proper dominions of his majeſty, but into foreign countries, in that caſe the ſubjects of their high mightineſſes ſhall pay no more than they, but be taxed conformably to them.
XXII. The whole without prejudice to the precedent treaty of the 13th of Auguſt, N. S. in the year 1645, concluded at Chriſtianople, between his ſaid majeſty and their high mightineſſes, which, in all it's parts, ſhall remain in full force and power, in as far as it is not altered by this.
XXIII. And as, by the precedent articles agreed to by us the reſpective ambaſſadors and commiſſaries, ſuch things as could not be brought to a concluſion concerning the 7th and 9th articles of the aforeſaid treaty, in the year 1645, between his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway, and the high and mighty lords the States-General, are now entirely determined: we have reciprocally conſented and promiſed to each other, that each party ſhall cauſe to be delivered to the other, in the name of their reſpective maſters, within three months after the delivery of this treaty, a ratification thereof in good and due form: and their high mightineſſes may make uſe of their reſident in the Sound, or any other that they think convenient for the delivery of theirs, which, as ſoon as his majeſty has received, he ſhall ſign the other, and cauſe it to be ſigned by the prince of Denmark and the lords of the council, in order to the delivery thereof.
XXIV. All which points and articles have been agreed to and concluded by us, the reſpective plenipotentiaries and com-

commiſſaries mentioned at the beginning of this treaty: in witneſs whereof we have ſigned theſe preſents with our hands, and confirmed the ſame with our ſeals; of which two inſtruments have been drawn up of the ſame tenor, of which each party has taken one. Done at the Hague the 12th of February, 1647.

The moſt illuſtrious and moſt mighty prince and lord, Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals, &c. having been pleaſed to ſend, to their high mightineſſes the States-General of the United Provinces, the Heer Corfits Ulefeldt, Knt. and governor of the iſle of Moon, &c. firſt ſteward of the houſhold, and counſellor of ſtate to his Daniſh majeſty, and his ambaſſador extraordinary, to negociate with the ſaid lords the States-General concerning ſeveral matters of importance, and, among other things, to agree upon a duty, or toll, at ſo much per laſt, on all the wood tranſported out of Norway: and, at the ſame time, his excellency having been acquainted, by an order of their high mightineſſes, with the great inconveniencies occaſioned to the veſſels of the United Provinces navigating through the Sound towards the eaſt, by reaſon of paſſes from the cuſtom-houſe, and the counting of 12 barrels of round ſeed for a laſt, inſtead of 24 barrels; the ſaid lord ambaſſador has promiſed and obliged himſelf to uſe his endeavours with his ſaid majeſty for obtaining orders for cauſing the ſaid complaints to ceaſe, and that the veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of their high mightineſſes may be and remain free from all extortion of money, and from the inconveniencies of ſearching, and other retardments. And further, that 24 barrels of lint-ſeed, and other round ſeeds, be allowed to the laſt, according to the cuſtom of merchants, and in conſequence of the 3d article of the laſt treaty, concluded between his Daniſh majeſty and their high mightineſſes, in the year 1645.

And the ſaid lord ambaſſador has further promiſed, in the name of his ſaid majeſty, that, in time to come, for preventing all misfortunes, there ſhould be buoys, and other ſea-marks put up, for the utility and conveniency of commerce and navigation, provided that each ſhip in her lading ſhould pay to his majeſty, or his officers, four rixdollars, and each ſhip in ballaſt two. In witneſs whereof, we his majeſty's ſaid ambaſſadors, and we the commiſſaries and deputies of the ſaid lords the States General, have ſigned theſe preſents with our hands, and put our reſpective ſeals thereto, by virtue of our reciprocal full powers and procurations; and two inſtruments of the ſame tenor have been drawn up, one for each party. Delivered at the Hague, the 12th of February, in the year 1647.

And as, during the years 1645 and 1646, ſeveral laded veſſels belonging to the United Provinces have paſſed the Sound towards the eaſt, and likewiſe veſſels in the ballaſt, without having paid in paſſing or repaſſing, any toll or impoſt, or without having been any-where recorded, ſo that on this occaſion it might be difficult to ſtate a clear account: for theſe cauſes, I Crofits Ulefeldt, ambaſſador, &c. aforeſaid, as one part, and we the commiſſaries and deputies of the States-General, likewiſe aforeſaid, on the other part, have conſented and agreed that the ſtates ſhall pay for the ſaid failures, in paying of tolls upon the ſum of 120,000 rixdollars, which ſhall be paid in this country, upon the production of his majeſty's diſcharge, by ſuch as his ſaid majeſty ſhall authorize for that effect, at the delivery of the ratifications of this preſent treaty, which are to be interchanged on both ſides, within three months after the date of theſe preſents. In witneſs whereof, we the ambaſſadors of the ſaid king, and we the commiſſaries and deputies of the States-General, have ſigned theſe preſents with our hands, and confirmed them with our reſpective ſeals, by virtue of our full powers. And two inſtruments of the ſame tenor have been drawn up, and one delivered to each party at the Hague, the 12th of February, 1647.

Remarks.

After this account of the ſituation of the marine affairs in the northern countries, and the treaties between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, the United Provinces and the Hanſe-Towns, we ſhall now return to Britain, where civil diſſenſions were at the greateſt height.

The firſt of theſe acts that comes in order to be mentioned, is a manifeſto publiſhed by the parliament of England againſt the States-General of the United Provinces, the 31ſt of July, 1652, in which they ſet forth, That it is an almoſt incredible ingratitude in the Dutch, ſo baſely to requite the generous efforts by which the people of this nation had reſcued them from the tyrannical oppreſſion of the Spaniard, at a great expence of Engliſh blood and treaſure; in return of which, they repreſent, That the Dutch, after having ſeverely fomented the diviſions during the civil wars of England, did afterwards, both openly and ſecretly, obſtruct the peace of the kingdom; and, in the year 1648, made conſiderable preparations to carry on a war againſt it.

They likewiſe call to mind the cruelty and treachery with which they aſſaulted and maſſacred the Engliſh in Amboyna, and tranſiently accuſe them of many other ſiniſter attempts of the like nature.

In the next place, they accuſe them of having neglected the friendly meaſures propoſed by the parliament of England for accommodating of all differences, and confirming their mutual liberty and freedom, &c. adding, That, after they had ſent an envoy to the Hague, and the States had refuſed him audience, the parliament having ſent thither a ſecond, he was there moſt barbarouſly and villainouſly murdered; and the States had not taken any care to puniſh the perpetrators of that horrid crime.

They further repreſent, That, while the Dutch ambaſſadors were in England, to amuſe the government with diſingenuous promiſes and proteſtations, they ſecretly and clandeſtinely aſſiſted the enemies thereof, and only ſpun out the time with ſham pretences, without any likeneſs of reality or ſincerity. To which they add, That the commonwealth of England having, after the pacification of their own inteſtine diviſions, ſent over a ſplendid embaſſy to Holland, with ſufficient inſtructions for ending all former controverſies; and to give all poſſible marks of their ſincerity and good-will towards thoſe of the United Provinces; their ambaſſadors were contumelioufly uſed and reviled, and all ſorts of indignities offered to them, without any regard to their character, or reſpect to the nation they repreſented: they themſelves having been inſulted and affronted, and their ſervants and attendants abuſed to a high degree, and no notice taken, nor ſatisfaction given to the States, for ſuch an unaccountable practice.

But that, notwithſtanding the ſincere inclinations of the commonwealth of England, to cultivate a good friendſhip and correſpondence with the United Provinces, they always delayed and protracted the negociations concerning the ſame; 'till, ſeeing the ſucceſs the Engliſh had every where obtained, they at laſt ſent over their ambaſſadors to England, where, when they were arrived, they ſtill delayed, under various pretences, the negociations that were ſet a-foot, alledging that they were not ſufficiently impowered, and pretending to write over about thoſe matters to their principals, ſo that nothing could be determined 'till the States-General ſhould be conveniently aſſembled; by all which it plainly enough appeared, that the friendſhip they affected was no ways real or ſincere.

After which their ambaſſadors having, during the conferences, acquainted the parliament that the States had reſolved to arm 150 ſhips, beſides the fleet they already had at ſea, which they only did with a deſign to protect their trade, and encourage navigation, without any inſidious intention againſt England; though the States themſelves are not ignorant of the deſign they had in ſetting out ſo great a fleet, and though there was no appearance of any thing like an enemy in theſe ſeas.

To all this, however, the parliament (which they thought to have lulled aſleep by theſe pretences) did not give any anſwer, but ſedulouſly applied themſelves to provide for their own defence; and, in the mean time, omitted nothing that was in their power to bring the negociations that were depending with the Dutch to a happy concluſion.

Notwithſtanding which, the Dutch immediately got together their whole fleet in one place, under admiral Trump, whoſe deſign will ſufficiently appear to any perſon that conſiders his behaviour, joined to ſome other paſſages precedent to that equipment, and particularly that of a certain Dutch ſhip, who, meeting an Engliſh man of war, commanded by Capt. Young, and being friendly required by him to pay the honour that is uſually paid to the ſhips of war of this nation, as another ſhip in company with the ſame had done, and that not only as a cuſtomary piece of civility, but as a teſtimony of the undoubted right the Engliſh have to the dominion of the adjacent ſea, which is acknowledged by all the neighbouring princes and republics, and which, particularly, the States themſelves, and their predeceſſors, have acknowledged; the maſter of the ſaid ſhip did nevertheleſs refuſe to comply with that deſire, affirming that it would be deemed a capital crime in him to do it.

This paſſage was followed by that hoſtile and heinous inſult of admiral Trump, perpetrated againſt friends and neighbours that had given many remarkable teſtimonies of their ſincere deſire to continue and confirm the ſame; and with ſo much arrogance and injuſtice was that action performed, even during the conferences that were holding in order to enter into a ſtricter league, that Trump himſelf pretended to uſurp what he refuſed to pay to us (though our own undoubted right) and carried the affront to ſuch a height, that, purſuing the ſhips of this republic, he attacked them in an hoſtile manner, upon their own coaſts, and in their own friths and roads, with a deſign to begin an unexpected war, in hopes to ruin entirely the trade and navigation of the commonwealth of England.

The reſt of this manifeſto does only contain ſome further remonſtrances, by which the then government of England endeavoured to vindicate their proceedings againſt the States of Holland, with whom they declare that they are forced, againſt their inclination, to go to war; who anſwered the Engliſh manifeſto with a declaration given at the Hague, the 2d of Auguſt following; in which they, on the other hand, pretend to lay all the blame of thoſe confuſions upon the Engliſh; whoſe manifeſto, as well as that of the Dutch, is, in

effect,

effect, nothing elſe but a declaration of war, as may be obſerved by the foregoing compendium of the firſt, and the following abridgment of the latter.

ARTICLE IV.

An abridgment of the manifeſto of the States-General againſt the nation and government, &c. of England. Given at the Hague the 2d of Auguſt, 1652.

The States General, &c. being ſenſible that all lawful powers being ordained of God, for the good of their ſubjects, are not only obliged to govern them with moderation and order, but likewiſe to endeavour to prevent, and prudently to avert whatever may threaten them from abroad; and being alſo ſenſible of the neceſſity of living well with, and procuring, by all ſorts of good offices, the amity and friendſhip of other States, and eſpecially of their neighbours, knowing that, in caſe of any accidental, or other miſunderſtandings, they ought to exert themſelves to the utmoſt of their power, by endeavouring to remove the ſame in a peaceable and friendly manner; they are not, however, ignorant, that, when all other methods prove ineffectual, it is reaſonable and neceſſary to make uſe of the power that God has put in their hands, and to repulſe vigorouſly and courageouſly, by force of arms, the violence and injuries exerciſed upon their ſubjects and people, in order to procure ſatisfaction and reparation for the damages ſuffered, and reſtitution for what has been unjuſtly taken away.

And accordingly, having hitherto endeavoured to maintain our ancient amity and friendſhip with the Engliſh nation, and having of late ſeen that nation divided in itſelf, and torn to pieces by inteſtine commotions, our hearts were filled with grief and heavineſs, and we took as much care as in us lay, that nothing ſhould be tranſported from our country and ports that might foment their diviſions, and, by the continuation of the war, might render their cure more difficult, and leſs poſſible; but, on the contrary, underſtanding that their diviſions had produced very great deſolations and miſeries, and that the famine raged in ſeveral of their provinces, being thereto required by both houſes of the then parliament, we and our good ſubjects were ſo ſenſibly touched at the recital of ſo many complicated miſeries and miſchiefs, that, by virtue of our permiſſion, granted at the earneſt deſire of the parliament aforeſaid, a conſiderable ſum of money, amounting to ſeveral tons of gold, was raiſed by the liberality of theſe provinces, and ſent over to relieve the neceſſities of ſuch as were in miſery; for which we received letters of thanks from the ſaid parliament, confirmed verbally by their reſident with us. But, for a further proof of the ſincerity of our affection, of which we had given them ſuch evident marks, in order to compoſe the differences and miſunderſtandings between them, we ſent over, for the advancement of ſo great a work, an embaſſy to the king and parliament; but the Almighty, whoſe judgments are incomprehenſible, not having ſuffered their diviſions to be terminated by ſuch a friendly agreement, that nation having now received a form of government quite different from that it then had, the aforeſaid government having, under ſpecious pretences, afterwards offered to enter into a treaty of a fair alliance and friendſhip with us, believing that they were ingenuous and ſincere, and looking upon that project as very convenient and neceſſary for the tranquillity and ſecurity of commerce and navigation, as well for ourſelves as for all our neighbours and other kingdoms and ſtates that ſupport themſelves by trade. And, for avoiding all the riſing difficulties and differences occaſioned by the concurrence of the ſame intereſt between the aforeſaid government and ours, we gave them to underſtand, that the offer they made us was very acceptable; and they having ſent over their ambaſſadors extraordinary, the Sieurs Oliver, John, and Walter Strickland, we endeavoured by all poſſible methods, as much as the conſtitution of our government could allow, to find out means to bring that treaty to a concluſion; ſo that the ſaid ambaſſadors entering into a conference with our deputies, and the former having delivered general projects, though they were earneſtly required by our deputies to explain their general propoſitions, and deſcend to particularities, a counter-project being propoſed to them, when they had but lightly touched the matter, ſoon after the firſt audience, they pretended to be going; but having, after many perſuaſions, conſented to ſtay a little longer, and having preſented a more ſpecial project, we ſo induſtriouſly handled the matter on our part, that they eaſily ſaw there was but little difference between us; and finding us come home to the purpoſe, deſiring of them a more expreſs and poſitive declaration, they declined that, under pretence of their ſudden departure: notwithſtanding which, conſidering that a ſhort delay could not operate any conſiderable alteration in the thing, we preferring the excellence and benefit of ſo good a work to the outward ceremonies and formalities, upon the proteſtation the ſaid ambaſſador made us, at their departure, of the ſincerity of the intentions of that government towards us, we reſolved to ſend a conſiderable ambaſſy into England, which we accordingly did, in the month of December laſt; though that government, ſince the departure of their ambaſſadors had publiſhed a certain decree that neither favoured of the good neighbour nor the good friend, ſince thereby the accuſtomed liberty of commerce, and the correſpondence between the two nations, was very much diminiſhed. Nevertheleſs, in hopes that all diſſenſions ſhould have been ſuddenly ended by the treaty, we did our utmoſt endeavours to bring it to a happy concluſion; but, on the contrary, the ſaid government, far from having any regard to the requeſts we made them, that the execution of that decree ſhould be ſuſpended 'till the concluſion of the treaty, and the ſhips and goods of our good ſubjects, that had been ſeized and taken by them, reſtored to the proprietors, they did under ſeveral pretences, attack on every ſide our veſſels; and pirates, under their cloak, did the ſame every where, and no reparation could be obtained by our ambaſſadors in any manner.

And, though ſuch a multitude of reaſons gave us juſt cauſe to right ourſelves and ſubjects, by way of reprizals, we abſolutely refuſed to do it, and would not ſuffer any injury to be done them, in hopes that all things ſhould have been compoſed according to equity and juſtice. And having endeavoured, on one ſide, by our ambaſſadors, and, on the other ſide, having equipped a conſiderable fleet, to put a ſtop to the inſolence of the pirates, we at the ſame time declared, That it was not with any intention to incommode any of our friends, or allies, and particularly them with whom we deſigned to entertain a good friendſhip and correſpondence.

And though this declaration ought to have been taken as a mark of our ſincerity and candour, the aforeſaid government only endeavour, under various pretences, to weaken our ſtates, by ruining of our commerce, as does plainly appear by that inſtance of their admiral, who meeting with vice-admiral Trump, whom we had made commander of our fleet, the ſaid Trump, not having ſoon enough (according to his fancy) lowered his flag, though it be evident, by the teſtimony of ſeveral indifferent perſons, that he was actually a ſtriking his ſails, and occupied in hoiſting his boat to ſend and compliment the ſaid admiral; he nevertheleſs gave him a full broadſide, and forced him and the ſhips that were with him to defend themſelves; who, notwithſtanding, were ſo moderate, although they were ſuperior in number, and could have deſtroyed the aggreſſors, if they had pleaſed, they only kept upon the defenſive: to which diſcretion their adverſaries had ſo little regard, that, another of their ſquadrons coming up, they fell upon the hindermoſt veſſels of our fleet, deſtroying one, and taking another with them. Which action, that the regency may cover with ſome ſpecious pretences, they have cauſed a report to be ſpread abroad, as if we had been the firſt aggreſſors at that rencountre, and accordingly put themſelves in a poſture to demand reparation of the injury they pretend to have received from us.

But, on the contrary, that accident no ſooner came to our knowledge, but we proteſted ſolemnly, by our ambaſſador, that it had not been committed by our order, and that we were entirely ignorant of what had paſſed, as more fully appeared by a letter from our admiral, in which he recited, word for word, the commiſſion and inſtructions we had given him.

And, for a further proof of the ſincerity of our intentions to live well with that ſtate, we earneſtly prayed that an exact enquiry might be made into the matter, and that the treaty, which we thought to be in a very great forwardneſs, might not be retarded by reaſon of that unlucky rencountre, by which we had been mightily ſurprized.

But the aforeſaid government, having no regard to ſuch a reaſonable deſire, did forthwith give order to ſeize both men of war and merchant ſhips, as many as they poſſibly could find belonging to us and our ſubjects; which accordingly has been done, and all ſorts of injuries and violences whatſoever committed againſt us; by which a great deal of innocent blood has been ſhed, and many of our good citizens ruined.

Notwithſtanding all this ill uſage, we have ſent a ſecond ambaſſy extraordinary, to endeavour to bring all matters, and eſpecially that difference concerning the rencountre of the two fleets, to a friendly accommodation; they injuriouſly alledged, for covering their own pernicious and odious deſigns, that we had equipped that fleet on purpoſe to attack them as enemies, though the Heer Hadrian Pauw, our ambaſſador, whoſe employment of penſionary of Holland giving him a right to be preſent at all the aſſemblies and deliberations of the States, did moſt ſolemnly proteſt, that never any ſuch thing had been projected here, and that, far from any commiſſion to do the Engliſh, or any other body any injury, the admiral had orders to give that government all poſſible marks of our peaceable and friendly diſpoſitions.

And, becauſe the aforeſaid regency pretended to make quite another thing of that action than it really was, and demanded reparation for what was paſſed, and aſſurance that no ſuch thing ſhould happen in time to come, our ambaſſador aforeſaid told them openly, That, in order to remove that ſtumbling-block, or principal difficulty occaſioned by the accidental combat between the two fleets, and the eaſier to bring the treaty (which was then ſo far advanced) to a happy concluſion, a convenient regulation ſhould be eſtabliſhed, and punctually obſerved in time to come, by the veſſels of both nations, proteſting

teſting that this ſtate had never any thought of diſputing with the Engliſh nation the honour and dignity we had hitherto yielded them, requiring afterwards, that, during the negociations, all hoſtile attempts and actions ſhould ceaſe; and farther deſiring, that a due enquiry might be made into the whole matter, with promiſe that, if our admiral ſhould be found to be the aggreſſor, the States ſhould not only diſown the act, but puniſh the actor according to the importance of the thing; upon condition that the Engliſh ſhould treat their admiral in the ſame manner, in caſe he ſhould be found to be in the wrong.

But they ſtill rejecting all means of reconciliation, and refuſing themſelves to propoſe any project, by which things might be brought to an accommodation, did continue to ſeize and plunder our ſhips, and, at laſt, were not aſhamed to demand of us an immenſe ſum of money for the loſs and damage they ſaid they had ſuſtained, and the charges they had been put to, upon account of the fleet we put to ſea; after payment of which ſum, or ſecurity given for the ſame, all acts of hoſtility ſhould ceaſe: ſo that they, having heaped up injuries upon injuries, and committed all ſorts of violences againſt us and our good ſubjects, with a deſign, by all theſe inſupportable proceedings, by ruining our trade, to weaken our ſtrength at ſea, and ſo take poſſeſſion of the imaginary empire to which that government pretends over the ocean, and, beginning with us, to extend it over all other nations, and render them tributary, if they could. For theſe cauſes, being reſolved to make uſe of the power that God has put into our hands for our own defence, and that of our good ſubjects, &c.

Remarks.

The following lines of this manifeſto contain, in ſum, a declaration of war; which being made public at the Hague, the 2d of Auguſt, 1652, the 5th of December following there was an ordinance publiſhed by the States-General, forbidding their ſubjects all commerce with England, and withall exhorting other nations to abſtain from ſuccouring the Engliſh with ſuch things as might be neceſſary in the war, and ſo might fall under the notion of what is taken to be in that caſe contraband goods, according to the cuſtom of nations; threatening, otherwiſe, to ſeize and confiſcate the ſame, as in the aforeſaid ordinance is more largely expreſſed; with which we ſhall not trouble the reader, ſince it is not material to our preſent purpoſe.

The Dutch, being thus entered into a war with England, in the end of the year 1652, were glad to take advantage of the miſunderſtandings which then aroſe between this country and Denmark, and ſo concluded a treaty of alliance with Frederic III. then reigning in that kingdom, containing in ſubſtance.—'That the Engliſh having not only paſſed the Sound with armed merchant ſhips, but likewiſe with a fleet of eighteen men of war, without giving any previous advertiſement; and having likewiſe ſeized and taken ſeveral of his Daniſh majeſty's ſhips at ſea, and detained others in England, and in divers ways interrupted the free courſe of trade; an edict ſhould be publiſhed forthwith after the ſigning of the treaty, whereby all Engliſh ſhips, whether men of war or others, ſhould be forbid, under pain of confiſcation of ſhips and goods, to paſs and repaſs the Sound or the Baltic ſea, during the continuation of the war with Holland

That the king of Denmark, for the ſecurity of commerce, ſhould keep, in and about the Sound, the number of twenty ſhips of war well equipped, according to a liſt already given, from the firſt of April 'till the firſt of November yearly; and, if any of them be loſt, he ſhall ſupply their place with others of the like burthen.

That the States ſhall pay the king 192,000 rixdollars yearly, for his charges during the war, &c.

That they ſhould mutually aid and aſſiſt one another againſt all enemies whatſoever, by ſea and land.

That the ſaid twenty Daniſh men of war ſhould, at the requeſt of the miniſters of the States, ſail to attack the Engliſh in Cartegat and Schagrack, but no farther into the northern ſea, except in ſome extraordinary caſes.

That the Daniſh and Dutch ſhips meeting in the north, or elſewhere, ſhould jointly attack the Engliſh, and do them what harm they could.

That they ſhould mutually protect one another's ſubjects, ſhips and effects, in both countries.

That, in caſe of a conjunction of both fleets, the Daniſh admiral ſhould have the firſt voice, and then the Dutch admiral, and ſo a Daniſh and Dutch officer of equal poſt, alternatively ſhould give their voices, the Dane always firſt.

That, if their united fleets ſhould take any prizes, the ſame ſhould be diſpoſed of in the country, which had moſt ſhips at the taking of the prize; but that not without the privity of the reſident of the other country, and to his ſatisfaction.

That the ſhips of war of either ſide ſhould aſſiſt the other with ſuch neceſſaries as they might have occaſion for, at a reaſonable rate; and that they might refit and provide themſelves in each others ports and harbours, with the permiſſion of the governors or magiſtrates thereof; and that privateers, &c. might carry their prizes into one another's ports, and ſhould there receive protection.

That ſuch other princes, ſtates, and potentates, as thought fit, might enter into the league.

That all former treaties ſhould ſubſiſt.

That this treaty ſhould ſubſiſt 'till the liberty of commerce and navigation was reſtored, and the diſturbers thereof brought to reaſonable terms.

That neither of the allies ſhould make peace nor truce without the other.

That, if the twenty Daniſh men of war were not all in good order and condition, a proportionable deduction ſhould be made out of the ſubſidy promiſed, &c.

Remarks.

The effect of this good underſtanding between the Danes and the Dutch appeared by another treaty concluded between thoſe two powers at Copenhagen, the 26th of September of the following year, 1653; by which that of 1644, touching the impoſts in the Sound, is annulled, all former treaties in favour of the United Provinces renewed, and their men of war allowed to lie in the roads of Lubec, and before Elſineur; and are likewiſe (obtaining his majeſty's permiſſion) allowed to be cleaned and refitted, even at Copenhagen, with ſeveral other benefits and privileges of that nature.

But, notwithſtanding this ſtrict union with the crown of Denmark, the Dutch, beginning very ſoon to be weary of the war with this country, were glad to relinquiſh all other advantages to conclude a treaty of peace, of which here follows an abſtract.

An abſtract of a treaty of peace and union between Oliver Cromwell, as protector of England, and the United Provinces of the Low-Countries.

I. In the firſt place, it is agreed, that, from this day forth, there ſhall be a firm and inviolable peace, and ſincere friendſhip, &c. between the republic of England, and the States-General of the United Provinces of the Low Countries, and the lands, regions, and cities, ſituate under their juriſdiction without diſtinction, and between their people and inhabitants of any degree whatſoever.

II. That henceforth all enmity and hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe.

III. That all offences, injuries, damages, and charges, ſuffered after the 18th of May, O. S. 1652, ſhall be entirely buried in oblivion; and no ſuits ſhall be moved, nor actions be intended for the ſame, excepting ſuch depredations as ſhall henceforth be committed in the Britiſh ſeas, after the ſpace of twelve days, and between the Britiſh ſeas and Cape St. Vincent ſix weeks; and thence in the Mediterranean ſea, and to the equator, after the ſpace of ten weeks, and beyond the equator after eight months from the publication of this treaty, or immediately after due notice of the peace; and reſtitution ſhall be made of all things taken, and injuries done, after that time.

IV. That all priſoners of war, of whatſoever degree or condition, and in whatſoever place they be, ſhall be ſet at liberty without ranſom.

V. That ſuch as attempt to diſturb the peace of either ſtate, ſhall be reputed enemies.

Note, The ſix next articles are not much to our purpoſe.

XII. It is agreed, that the ſubjects of either ſtate ſhall freely travel through and trade to all the dominions of the other in Europe, without prejudice of the laws and cuſtoms of particular places, &c.

XIII. It is likewiſe agreed, that as well the ſhips of war, as the other ſhips of the United Provinces, meeting with the ſhips of war of this ſtate in the Britiſh ſeas, ſhall ſtrike their flag, and lower their topſail, in the ſame manner as has been done in any former time, under any government whatſoever.

XIV. That, for the greater ſecurity and encouragement of trade, all pirates be duly puniſhed in the dominions of either ſtate, and the effects, ſeized in their cuſtody, reſtored to the right owners, if any can be found.

Note, The four next articles are foreign to our preſent purpoſe.

XIX. That the merchants, mariners, ſailors, and pilots, &c. of each ſtate, nor their ſhips, goods, nor effects, ſhall either be detained or arreſted, nor forced into the ſervice of the other, without an abſolute neceſſity; in which caſe too, ſatisfaction ſhall be given for the ſame.

XX. That the ſhips of war of either ſtate ſhall take into their protection, and under their convoy, all ſhips belonging to the other ſtate, as long as they ſteer the ſame courſe with them.

XXI. That if the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the ſtates be taken in the ports of the other, by thoſe of a third nation, the ſtate under whoſe juriſdiction ſuch ſhips are taken, ſhall do their endeavours to recover the ſame.

XXII. That if any injury ſhall be done on either ſide, no letters of reprizal ſhall be granted 'till three months after juſtice has been demanded in a friendly manner, and refuſed.

XXIII. That ſuch as obtain letters of reprizal of either ſtate, ſhall give in ſecurity before the judge, which delivers them the ſame, for their behaviour.

XXIV. It is further agreed, that the veſſels of both nations, whether ſhips of war or others, ſhall be free to enter into each other's ports, and there buy proviſions and other neceſſaries, or refit, if need be; provided always, that not above eight ſhips of war enter into any port of either ally, except they be forced in by tempeſt or enemies; in which caſe they ſhall forthwith acquaint the governor, or chief magiſtrate of the place, and ſhall not remain any longer there than neceſſity requires.

XXV. It is likewiſe agreed, that the Dutch ſhall do juſtice upon all thoſe concerned in the ſlaughter of the Engliſh at Amboyna, if there be any of them remaining.

The following articles of this treaty only contain ſome ſtipulations for receiving the king of Denmark into it, and for procuring the reſtitution of ſome Engliſh effects ſeized in that country, and reparation of damage, &c. together with ſome other things no ways material to our purpoſe, and therefore I ſhall paſs by them.

Remarks.

The next important marine treaty that occurs, is one between his majeſty king Charles II. after his reſtoration to his dominions, and the States-General of Holland; in which they compoſe all ancient differences, and amongſt other things expreſsly confirm that former article, concerning the homage to be paid by all Dutch ſhips to Engliſh men of war, which article only we ſhall here inſert.

Art. X. It is likewiſe agreed, that the ſhips and veſſels of the ſaid United Provinces, as well men of war as others, meeting any of the ſhips of war of Great-Britain, within the extent of the Britiſh ſeas, ſhall ſtrike their flag, and lower their main topſail, in the ſame manner that it has been obſerved in any former time whatſoever.

The next treaty that followed after the war between Great-Britain and Holland, was a treaty of peace and alliance concluded between king Charles II. and the States-General. the 21ſt of July, O. S. 1667.

And, as the firſt eighteen articles of that treaty do not particularly relate to marine affairs, the nineteenth being preciſely the ſame with the tenth article of the precedent treaty, but juſt now inſerted, we ſhall begin at the twentieth article, and inſert the reſt of the treaty in the ſame order we find it.

XX. And, for the greater freedom of commerce and navigation, it is agreed and concluded, that the ſaid king of Great Britain, and the ſaid States-General, ſhall not receive into their havens, cities, and towns, nor ſuffer that any of the ſubjects of either party do receive pirates or ſea-rovers, or afford them any entertainment, aſſiſtance, or proviſion, but ſhall endeavour that the ſaid pirates and ſea-rovers, or their ſharers and abettors, be found out, apprehended, and ſuffer condign puniſhment, for the terror of others: and all the ſhips, goods, and commodities, piratically taken by them, and brought into the ports of either party, which can be found: nay, although they be ſold; ſhall be reſtored to the right owners, or ſatisfaction ſhall be given, either to their owners, or to thoſe who by letters of attorney ſhall challenge the ſame; provided the right of their property be made to appear in the court of admiralty, by due proofs according to law.

XXI. It ſhall not be permitted to the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great-Britain, and the inhabitants of the kingdoms and countries under his obedience, or to the inhabitants and ſubjects of the ſaid United Provinces, to do or offer any hoſtility or violence to each other, either by land or by ſea, upon any pretence or colour whatſoever: and, conſequently, it ſhall not be lawful for the ſaid ſubjects or inhabitants to get commiſſions or letters of reprizal from any prince or ſtate, with whom either of the confederates is at difference, or in open war: and much leſs, by virtue of thoſe letters, to moleſt or damniſy the ſubjects of either party. Neither ſhall it be lawful for any foreign private men of war, who are not ſubjects to one or the other party, having commiſſions from any other prince or ſtate, to equip their ſhips in the harbours of either of the aforeſaid parties, or to fell or ranſom their prizes, or any other way to truck, as well the ſhips and goods, as any other lading whatſoever. And it ſhall not be lawful for them to purchaſe any proviſions, but what ſhall be neceſſary to bring them to the next port of that prince, from whom they obtained their ſaid commiſſions. And, if, perchance, any of the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or of the ſaid States-General, ſhall buy or get to themſelves by truck, or any other way, ſuch ſhip or goods which have been taken by the ſubjects of the one or the other party; in ſuch caſe the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be bound to reſtore the ſaid ſhip or goods to the proprietors without any delay, and without any compenſation or reimburſement of money paid or promiſed for the ſame; provided that they make it appear before the council of the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or before the States-General, that they are the right owners or proprietors of them.

XXII. That in caſe the king of Great-Britain, or the ſaid States-General, do make any treaty of amity or alliance with any other kings, republics, princes or ſtates, they ſhall therein comprehend each other and their dominions, if they deſire to be therein comprehended, and ſhall give to the other notice of all ſuch treaties of friendſhip or alliance.

XXIII. That in caſe it happens, during this friendſhip, confederacy, and alliance, that any thing ſhall be done or attempted by any of the ſubjects or inhabitants of either party againſt this treaty, or any part thereof, by land, ſea, or freſh waters, nevertheleſs this amity and alliance between the ſaid nations ſhall not thereby be broken or interrupted, but ſhall remain and continue in it's full force; and that only thoſe particular perſons ſhall be puniſhed, who have committed any thing againſt this treaty, and none elſe; and that juſtice ſhall be rendered, and ſatisfaction given to all perſons concerned, by all ſuch who have committed any thing contrary to this treaty, by land or ſea, or other waters, in any part of Europe, or any places within the Straights, or in America, or in any lands, iſlands, ſeas, creeks, bays, rivers, or in any places on this ſide the Cape of Good Hope, within twelve months ſpace after juſtice ſhall be demanded; and in all places whatſoever on the other ſide of the Cape (as hath been aboveſaid) within eighteen months next enſuing, after demand of juſtice ſhall be made in manner aforeſaid. But in caſe the offenders againſt this treaty do not appear, and ſubmit themſelves to judgment, and give ſatisfaction within the reſpective times above expreſſed, proportionably to the diſtance of the places, they ſhall be declared enemies of both parties, and their eſtates, goods, and revenues whatſoever, ſhall be confiſcated for the due and full ſatisfaction of the injuries and wrongs by them offered; and their perſons alſo, when they come within the dominion of either party, ſhall be liable unto ſuch puniſhments as every one ſhall deſerve for his reſpective offences.

XXIV. That the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great-Britain, and thoſe which trade under his juriſdiction, may freely and ſecurely travel in all the provinces of the Low-Countries, and all their dominions in Europe, and through them by ſea or land paſs to other places there or beyond them, and through all quarters of the United Provinces, cities, forts, or garriſons whatſoever, which are in any parts of the United Provinces, or elſewhere in their dominions in Europe, as well they themſelves exerciſing trade in all thoſe places, as their agents, factors, and ſervants, may go armed or unarmed (but, if armed, not above forty in company), as well without their goods and merchandizes as with them, whereſoever they pleaſe. The people alſo and inhabitants of the United Provinces ſhall enjoy the ſame liberty and freedom in all the dominions of the ſaid king in Europe, provided that they, and every of them, do, in their trade and merchandizing, yield obedience to the laws and ſtates of either nation reſpectively.

XXV. That, in caſe the merchant-ſhips of the ſubjects of either nation ſhall by ſtorm, pirates, or any other neceſſity whatſoever, be driven into any haven of either dominion, they may depart ſecurely at their pleaſure, with their ſhips and goods, without paying any cuſtoms or other duties, provided they break no bulk, nor fell any thing; nor ſhall they be ſubject to any moleſtation or ſearch, provided they do not receive on board any perſons or goods, nor do any thing elſe contrary to the laws, ordinances, or cuſtoms of the places, where they (as aforeſaid) ſhall happen to arrive.

XXVI. That the merchants, maſters, and ſeamen of either party, their ſhips, goods, wares, or merchandizes, ſhall not be arreſted or ſeized in the lands, havens, roads, or rivers of the other, to ſerve at war, or any other uſe, by virtue of any general or ſpecial command, unleſs upon an extraordinary neceſſity, and that juſt ſatisfaction be given for the ſame; but ſo as the ſame ſhall not derogate from the ſeizures and arreſts duly made in the ordinary courts of juſtice of either nation.

XXVII. That the merchants on both ſides, their factors and ſervants, and alſo the maſters and other ſeamen, as well going as returning by ſea and other waters, as alſo in the haven of either party, or going on ſhore, may carry and uſe, for the defence of themſelves and merchandizes, all ſorts of weapons, as well offenſive as defenſive; but, being come into their lodgings or inns, they ſhall there lay by and leave their arms, until they be going on board again.

XXVIII. That the men of war, or convoys of either nation, meeting at ſea any merchant-ſhip or ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the other, holding the ſame courſe, or going the ſame way, ſhall be bound, as long as they keep one courſe together, to protect and defend them againſt all and every one who would ſet upon them.

XXIX. That if any ſhip or ſhips of the ſubjects of either nation, or of a neuter, be taken by a third party in the harbours of either, not being of the ſubjects or inhabitants of either nation, they, in or out of whoſe haven or juriſdiction the ſaid ſhips ſhall be taken, ſhall be bound to endeavour, with the other party, that the ſaid ſhip or ſhips be purſued, brought back, and reſtored to the owners; but all this ſhall be done at the charge of the owners, or whom it concerns.

XXX. That ſearchers, and other like officers on both ſides, ſhall regulate themſelves according to the laws of either nation,

tion, and ſhall not impoſe or demand more than they are allowed by their commiſſions or inſtructions.

XXXI. That if any injury be done or practiſed by either nation, or the ſubjects of the ſame, againſt the ſubjects of the other, or againſt any of the articles of this preſent treaty, or againſt common right; yet nevertheleſs no letters of reprizal, marque, or counter-marque, ſhall be granted by either ſide, 'till juſtice hath been firſt demanded according to the ordinary courſe of law; but, in caſe juſtice be there denied or delayed, then that the ſaid king of Great-Britain and the ſaid States-General, or commiſſioners of that nation, whoſe ſubjects or inhabitants have ſuffered the wrong, ſhall publickly require juſtice from that other party, where (as aboveſaid) it was denied or delayed, or from that power appointed to hear and decide ſuch difference, that there may be a friendly compoſure, or due proceſs of law. But if ſtill there happen more delays, and neither juſtice be adminiſtered, nor ſatisfaction given within three months after ſuch demand, that then letters of reprizal, marque, or counter-marque, may be granted.

XXXII. It is alſo agreed, if at any time it happen (which God of his mercy forbid) that the differences, now compoſed between his ſaid majeſty and the ſaid States-General, ſhould feſter and break out again into open war, that then thoſe ſhips, merchandizes, or any kind of moveables of either party, which ſhall be found to be and remain in the ports, and under the command of the adverſe party on either ſide, ſhall not, for all that, be confiſcated, or made obnoxious to any inconvenience; but the ſpace of ſix months ſhall entirely be allowed to the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, that they have leiſure to tranſport from thence the forementioned things, and any thing elſe that is theirs, whither they ſhall think fit, without any kind of moleſtation.

XXXIII. That they who have obtained private commiſſions from either party, before they receive ſuch commiſſions, ſhall give good and ſufficient ſecurity before the judge of the court where they receive ſuch commiſſions by reſponſible men, who have no part or ſhare in ſuch ſhips, that they ſhall do no damage or injury to the ſubjects or inhabitants of either ſide.

XXXIV. It is alſo agreed and concluded, that the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party ſhall always have free acceſs to each other's ſea-ports, there to remain, and from thence to depart with the ſame freedom; and not only with their merchant-ſhips and lading, but alſo with their men of war, whether they belong to the ſaid king or States-General, or unto ſuch as have obtained private commiſſions, whether they arrive through violence or tempeſt, or other caſualty of the ſeas, or to repair their ſhips, or to purchaſe proviſions, ſo they exceed not the number of eight men of war, when they come there voluntarily; nor ſhall remain longer in the havens or places adjacent, than they ſhall have a juſt cauſe to repair their ſaid ſhips, or to purchaſe proviſions, or other neceſſaries: and, if a greater number of men of war ſhould upon occaſion deſire to come into ſuch ports, they ſhall in no caſe enter thereinto, until they have firſt obtained leave from thoſe to whom the ſaid havens do appertain, unleſs they be compelled ſo to do by ſtorm, or ſome force or neceſſity, whereby they may avoid the danger of the ſea: in which caſe alſo they ſhall preſently make known the cauſe of their coming, unto the governor or chief magiſtrate of the place, and ſhall ſtay no longer than the governor or chief magiſtrate ſhall permit them, and ſhall not commit any acts of hoſtility or other prejudice in the aforeſaid havens, during their abode there.

XXXV. Furthermore, it is agreed and concluded, that both parties ſhall truly and firmly obſerve and executa this preſent treaty, and all and every the matters contained therein, and effectually cauſe the ſame to be obſerved and performed by the ſubjects of either nation.

XXXVI. Alſo, for further caution and aſſurance, that this treaty and confederacy ſhall be duly and bonâ fide obſerved on the part of the ſaid States-General of the United Provinces and their people, it is concluded and agreed, and the ſaid States-General by theſe preſents do agree, and firmly bind themſelves, that all, and every one of whom they, or the ſtates of the provinces, ſhall at any time chuſe, appoint, or make captain general, governor, or chief preſident, or ſtadtholder, general of armies or military forces by land, or admiral or general of the fleets, ſhips, or forces at ſea, ſhall be bound and obliged by oath to confirm this treaty, and all the articles thereof, and promiſe ſacredly upon affidavit, that they ſhall as far as it is poſſible, religiouſly obſerve and execute the ſame, and, as much as concerns them, cauſe the ſame to be obſerved and executed by others.

XXXVII. Under this preſent treaty of peace, thoſe ſhall be comprehended, who may be named by either party with common conſent before the exchange of ratifications, or within ſix months after. But, in the mean time, as the covenanting parties do thankfully acknowledge the friendly offices, and unwearied endeavours, whereby the moſt ſerene king of Sweden, interpoſing his mediation, hath, through the aſſiſtance of God, promoted and carried on this beneficial work of pacification, unto the deſired concluſion; ſo, to teſtify their like affection, it is decreed and covenanted by the common conſent of all the parties, that his above-mentioned majeſty of Sweden, with all his kingdoms, dominions, provinces, &c. be comprehended in the preſent pacification, in the moſt effectual manner that may be.

XXXVIII. It is alſo covenanted, concluded, and agreed, that the preſent treaty, and every thing therein contained, ſhall be confirmed and ratified by the ſaid king of Great-Britain, and the ſaid States-General of the United Provinces, by letters patents on both ſides, ſealed with the great ſeal in due and authentic form, within four weeks next enſuing, or ſooner, if it can be done; and that, within the ſaid time, the ratifications on both ſides ſhall be exchanged at Breda; and that, preſently after the delivery and exchange of the ſame, this treaty and alliance ſhall be publiſhed in ſuch form and place as is uſual.

Done at Breda the $\frac{21}{31}$ day of July, 1667.

The ſame day was likewiſe concluded another treaty concerning marine affairs; but, as that was only the forerunner of another of the $\frac{7}{17}$ of February, 1667-8, we ſhall only inſert the latter, which is more methodical and poſitive, and conſequently fitter for our purpoſe.

ARTICLE VI.

Articles touching navigation and commerce, between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince, Charles II. by the grace of God, king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, &c. and the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, concluded at the Hague the $\frac{7}{17}$ of February, 1667-8.

Whereas by the bleſſing of almighty God, for the mutual ſafety of the two parties, as well as the common good of Chriſtendom, a perpetual defenſive treaty was concluded, and ſigned on the 23d day of January laſt paſt, between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince Charles II. and the high and mighty lords the States General of the United Netherlands, with ſtipulation of conſiderable ſuccours, to be mutually given by the parties, as well by ſea as land: and whereas the ſaid king and ſtates did on the ſame day, and by another inſtrument, readily enter into a ſolemn treaty and agreement for compoſing the affairs of their neighhours, and reſtoring peace to Chriſtendom, ſo as nothing ſeems now remaining that can at any time hereafter interrupt a friendſhip and alliance renewed with ſo equal deſires, unleſs ſuch controverſies as may otherwiſe hereafter happen to ariſe about determining the different ſorts and natures of merchandize; which, being left dubious and uncertain, would give occaſion to the further growth to ſuch differences: and therefore, that it may appear with what ſincerity and good faith, the ſaid king, and the ſaid ſtates, deſire to preſerve and entertain, not only for the preſent, but to all poſterity, the amity they lately contracted between them, they have at laſt, for the taking away all ground, not only of differences and miſunderſtandings, but even of queſtions or diſputes, and ſo utterly to cut off the hope and expectation of thoſe, whoever they are, that may think it their intereſt, by new controverſies, to endeavour the diſturbance or interruption of the ſaid peace, mutually agreed on theſe following articles, which are to be on both ſides, and for ever obſerved as the meaſure and rule of ſuch maritime affairs, and mutual ſettlement of trade, or at leaſt ſo long, 'till by the joint conſent of both parties, commiſſioners be appointed, and do meet in order to the framing a more ample treaty concerning this matter, and the laws and rules of commerce and navigation, as by farther experience ſhall be found moſt advantageous to the common good of both parties.

I. All the ſubjects and inhabitants of Great Britain may, with all ſafety and freedom, ſail and traffic in all the kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity or neutrality with Great Britain, without being troubled or diſquieted in that liberty by the ſhips of war, gallics, frigates, barks, or other veſſels belonging to the States-General, or any of their ſubjects, upon occaſion of the hoſtilities which may hereafter happen between the ſaid States-General and the aboveſaid kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, or any of them, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with Great-Britain.

II. This freedom of navigation and traffic ſhall extend to all ſorts of merchandize, except thoſe of contraband.

III. This term of contraband goods is underſtood to comprehend only all ſorts of fire-arms and their appurtenances; as cannon, muſquets, mortar-pieces, petards, bombs, granadoes, fire crancels, pitched-hoops, carriages, reſts, bandeliers, powder, match, ſaltpetre, bullets, pikes, ſwords, morions, head-pieces, coats of mail, halberts, javelins, horſes, great ſaddles, holſters, belts, and other utenſils of war, called, in French, Affortiſſements ſervant a l'uſage de la guerre.

IV. In this quality of contraband goods, theſe following ſhall not be comprehended; corn, wheat, or other grain, and pulſe; oils, wines, ſalt, or generally any thing that belongs to the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; but ſhall remain free as other merchandize and commodities not comprehended in the precedent article; and the tranſportation of them ſhall be permitted, even unto places in enmity with

the ſaid States-General, except ſuch cities and places as are beſieged, blocked up, or inveſted.

V. It hath been agreed, for the due execution of what is aboveſaid, that the ſhips and barks of the Engliſh, laden with merchandize, being entered into any port of the ſaid States-General, and purpoſing to paſs from thence unto the ports of their enemies ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers of the port of the ſaid States, out of which they would go, their paſſports; containing the ſpecification of the lading of their ſhips atteſted and marked with the ordinary ſeal of the officers of the admiralty of thoſe places from whence they firſt came, with the place whither they are bound, all in a uſual and accuſtomed form: after which, ſhewing of their paſſports in the form aforeſaid, they may not be diſquieted nor ſearched, detained nor retarded in their voyages, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. The ſame courſe ſhall be uſed in regard of the Engliſh ſhips and veſſels which ſhall come into any roads of the countries under the obedience of the ſaid States, not intending to enter into the ports, or being entered thereinto, not to unlade and break bulk; which ſhips may not be obliged to give account of their lading, but in caſe of ſuſpicion that they carry unto the enemies of the ſaid States any contraband goods, as was aboveſaid.

VII. And, in caſe of ſuch apparent ſuſpicion, the ſaid ſubjects of his majeſty ſhall be obliged to ſhew in the ports their paſſports, in the form ſpecified.

VIII. But, if they were come within the roads, or were met in the open ſea by any of the ſaid States ſhips or private men of war their ſubjects, for avoiding of all diſorder, the ſaid ſhips of the United Provinces or of their ſubjects, ſhall not come near within cannon-ſhot of the Engliſh, but ſhall ſend out their long-boat, and cauſe only two or three men to go on board the Engliſh ſhips or veſſels, unto whom the paſſport and certificates of the propriety of the ſhips be ſhewn by the maſter or captain of the Engliſh ſhips, in the manner above ſpecified, according to the form of the ſaid certificates, which ſhall be inſerted at the end of this treaty; by which paſſport and certificate, proof may be made, not only of the lading, but alſo of the place of the abode and reſidence of the maſter or captain, and name of the ſhip itſelf, to the end that by theſe two ways it may be known, whether they carry contraband goods; and that the quality as well of the ſaid ſhip, as of it's maſter or captain, may ſufficiently appear. Unto which paſſports and certificates entire faith and credit ſhall be given. And, to the end that their validity may be the better known, and that they may not be in any wiſe falſified and counterfeited, certain marks and counter-ſigns of his majeſty and the ſaid States-General ſhall be given unto them.

IX. And, in caſe any merchandize and commodities of thoſe kinds which are before declared to be contraband and forbidden, ſhall, by the means aforeſaid, be found in the Engliſh ſhips and veſſels, bound for the ports of the ſaid State's enemies, they ſhall be unladen, judicially proceeded againſt, and declared confiſcate before the judges of the admiralty of the United Provinces, or other competent officers: but ſo that the ſhip and veſſel, or other free and allowed goods, merchandize, and commodities, found in the ſame ſhip, may not, for that cauſe, be in any manner ſeized or confiſcated.

X. It is furthermore agreed and covenanted, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by his majeſty's ſubjects upon any ſhip of the enemies of the ſaid States, although the ſame were not contraband goods, ſhall yet be confiſcated with all that ſhall be found in the ſaid ſhip, without exception or reſervation: but, on the other ſide alſo, all that ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the king of Great-Britain's ſubjects, ſhall be free and diſcharged, although the lading or part thereof belong to the ſaid State's enemies, except contraband goods, in regard whereof ſuch rule ſhall be obſerved, as hath been ordered in the precedent articles.

XI. All the ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid United Provinces ſhall reciprocally enjoy the ſame rights, liberties, and exemptions in their trade and commerce upon the coaſts, and in the ports, roads, ſeas, and eſtates of his ſaid majeſty (as was now ſaid) which his ſaid majeſty's ſubjects ſhall enjoy in thoſe of the ſaid States, and in open ſea; it being to be underſtood that the equality ſhall be mutual every way on both ſides, even in caſe the ſaid States ſhould hereafter be in peace, amity, and neutrality, with any kings, princes, and ſtates, who ſhould become enemies to his ſaid majeſty; ſo that either of the parties are mutually to uſe the ſame conditions and reſtrictions expreſſed in the articles of this preſent treaty, with regard to trade and commerce.

XII. And the more to aſſure the ſubjects of the ſaid States, that no violence ſhall be offered them by the ſhips of war belonging to his majeſty of Great-Britain or his ſubjects, all the captains of the king's ſhips, and all his majeſty's ſubjects, that ſend out private men of war, ſhall be charged and enjoined not to moleſt or endamage them in any thing whatſoever, upon pain of being puniſhed and made anſwerable in their perſons and goods for all coſt and damages, until due reſtitution and reparation be made.

XIII. And, for this cauſe, the captains and capers ſhall from henceforth every one of them be obliged, before they go out, to give good and ſufficient ſecurity before competent judges, in the ſum of 1500 l. ſterling, or 15,000 livres Tournois, that they will give full ſatisfaction for any injuries or wrongs they may commit in their courſes at ſea, and for their captains and officers that ſhall violate this preſent treaty, and the orders and proclamations of his majeſty, which ſhall be publiſhed by virtue and in conformity to, the regulation therein made, upon pain of forfeiting their ſaid commiſſions and licences; which ſhall in like manner be practiſed by the ſubjects of the ſaid States General.

XIV. If it ſhould happen that any of the ſaid Dutch captains ſhould make prize of a veſſel laden with contraband goods, as hath been ſaid, the ſaid captains may not open nor break up the cheſts, nails, packs, bags, caſks, or ſell or exchange, or otherwiſe alienate them, until they have landed them in the preſence of the judges or officers of the admiralty, and after an inventory by them made of the ſaid goods found in the ſaid veſſels, unleſs, the contraband goods making but a part of the lading, the maſter of the ſhip ſhould be content to deliver the ſaid contrahand goods unto the ſaid captain, and to purſue his voyage: in which caſe the ſaid maſter ſhall by no means be hindered from continuing his courſe, and the deſign of his voyage.

XV. His majeſty, being deſirous that the ſubjects of the ſaid States may be uſed in all countries under his obedience as favourably as his own ſubjects, will give all neceſſary orders, that judgments and decrees upon prizes which ſhall happen to be taken at ſea, may be given with all juſtice and equity, by judges not ſuſpected nor concerned in the matter under debate; and his majeſty will give preciſe and effectual orders, that all decrees, judgments, and orders of juſtice, already given and to be given, may be readily and duly executed according to the tenor of them.

XVI. And, when the ambaſſadors of the ſaid States-General, or any other of their public miniſters reſiding in his majeſty's court, ſhall make complaint of the judgments, which ſhall be given, his majeſty will cauſe a review to be made of the ſaid judgments in his council, to examine whether the orders and precautions contained in the preſent treaty have been followed and obſerved, and to provide for the ſame according to right and equity; which ſhall be done, within the ſpace of three months at the fartheſt: nevertheleſs, neither before the firſt judgment nor after it, during the time of the review, the goods and effects which are reclaimed, may be ſold or unladen, unleſs it be with the conſent of the parties intereſted, to avoid the ſpoiling of the ſaid commodities, if they be periſhable.

XVII. When proceſs ſhall be moved in the firſt or ſecond inſtance, between thoſe that have taken the prizes at ſea, and the perſons intereſted therein, and thoſe perſons ſhall come to obtain a favourable decree, the ſaid decree ſhall have it's execution, upon ſecurity given, notwithſtanding the appeal of him that took the prize: but the ſame ſhall not hold on the contrary, where the ſentence goes againſt the claimers. And that which is ſaid in this preſent, and in the precedent articles, for the cauſing of good and ſpeedy juſtice to be done unto the ſubjects of the United Provinces in the matter of prizes, ſhall be underſtood and practiſed by the States-General, in regard of prizes taken by their ſubjects from thoſe of his majeſty.

XVIII. But, ſince the conveniencies and inconveniencies of things and agreements cannot be diſcovered but in procedure of time, and by obſervations drawn from mutual experience, it is therefore agreed between the king of Great-Britain, and the lords the States of the United Netherlands, that at any time hereafter, when both parties ſhall ſo think fitting, certain commiſſioners, by each party reſpectively choſen, ſhall meet by the common conſent of both, who ſhall make it their care and buſineſs to ſupply whatever ſhall be found wanting in the aforementioned articles, to change or limit whatever ſhall not be convenient and commodious for both, and fully compleat a further treaty, both concerning theſe things, and all others relating to the laws of navigation.

XIX. All theſe agreements, &c. ſhall be confirmed and ratified by the ſaid king of Great Britain and the States-General of the United Provinces, by letters patents of both parties, ſealed with their great ſeal in due and authentic form, within four weeks next enſuing, or ſooner, if it may be; and mutual inſtruments ſhall be exchanged by each party, within the time aforeſaid.

REMARKS.

Here follow certain forms, whereof mention is made in the eighth article.

A form of the certificate that ought to be given by thoſe that have the ordinary power of the admiralty of England, to the ſhips and veſſels that go out thence, according to the eighth article of the preſent treaty.

high admiral of England,

To all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting,

Theſe are to certify, That we have granted leave and permiſſion to maſter and captain of the

the ſhip called of the city of of the burden of tons, or thereabouts, being at preſent in the port and haven of to go to laden with after ſearch ſhall have been made of the ſhip, and he before his departure ſhall have made oath before the officers that exerciſe the juriſdiction of maritime cauſes, that the ſaid veſſel doth belong to one or more of his majeſty's ſubjects, an act whereof ſhall be put at the bottom of theſe preſents, as alſo to keep and cauſe to be kept, by thoſe aboard him, the orders and rules of the marine, and ſhall put into the regiſtery a liſt ſigned and certified, containing the names and ſurnames, the nativity and habitation of the men that are aboard him, and of all that ſhall embark themſelves, whom he may not take on board without the knowledge and permiſſion of the marine officers; and, in every port or haven where he ſhall enter with his ſhip, ſhall ſhew the officers and marine judges this his preſent licence; and, having finiſhed his voyage, ſhall make faithful relation of what hath been done, and hath paſſed during all the time of his ſaid voyage, and ſhall carry the flags, arms, and colours of his majeſty throughout his whole voyage. In witneſs whereof, we have ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed the ſeal of our arms to be put thereunto, and the ſame to be counter-ſigned by our ſecretary of marine, the day of one thouſand ſix hundred

Signed

And underneath by

And ſealed with the ſeal of the arms of the ſaid high admiral.

A form of the act containing the oath to be taken by the maſter or captain of the ſhip.

We of the admiralty of do certify, That maſter of the ſhip named in the paſſport above, hath taken the oath therein mentioned. Given at the day of one thouſand ſix hundred, &c.

In teſtimony whereof we have hereunto ſet our hands.

The form of the certificates that ought to be given by the burghermaſters of the cities and ſea-ports of the United Provinces, to the ſhips and veſſels that go from thence, according to the eighth article aboveſaid.

To the moſt ſerene, moſt illuſtrious, moſt mighty, moſt noble, honourable, and prudent lords, emperors, kings, common wealths, princes, dukes, comtes, barons, lords, burghermaſters, ſheriffs, counſellors, judges, officers, juſtices and regents of all cities and places, as well eccleſiaſtical as ſecular, who ſhall ſee or read theſe preſents. We burghermaſters and governors of the city of do certify, That ſhip-maſter, appearing before us, hath declared by ſolemn oath, That the ſhip called containing about laſts, of which he is at preſent the maſter, belongeth to inhabitants of the United Provinces. So help him God. And, as we would willingly ſee the ſaid ſhip-maſter aſſiſted in his juſt affairs, we do requeſt you and every of you, where the aboveſaid maſter ſhall arrive with his ſhip and goods, that you will pleaſe to receive him courteouſly and uſe him kindly, admitting him, upon paying the uſual dues, tolls, and other cuſtoms, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and territories, and there to trade, deal, and negociate, in any part or place, in ſuch ſort and manner as he ſhall deſire. Which we ſhall moſt readily acknowledge on the like occaſion.

In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of our city to be thereunto put.

In witneſs and confirmation of all and every part whereof, we the commiſſioners of his ſaid majeſty the king of Great-Britain, and of the ſaid lords the States-General, having ſufficient power given us thereunto, have ſigned theſe tables, and ſealed them with our ſeals. At the Hague in Holland, the 17th of February, in the year 1668.

De Gellicum,	G. Hoolck,
B. D'Aſperon,	V. Unckell,
John de Witt,	Jan Van Iſſelmuden,
Van Crommon,	L. T. Van Sturkenborck.

This marine treaty being ſo concluded between his majeſty and the States, for their dominions in Europe, another was ſome time after ſet a foot, and agreed to, for regulating their naval affairs all over the world, which very well deſerves a place in this collection, and which the reader may take in the following terms.

Article VII.

A treaty marine between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Charles II. by the grace of God, king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, to be obſerved throughout all and every the countries and parts of the world, by ſea and land, concluded at London the 1ſt day of December, 1674, S. V.

I. That it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince, the king of Great-Britain aforeſaid, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his ſaid majeſty; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the high and mighty States-General of the United Netherlands, or to their ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility, or difference which now is, or ſhall hereafter happen between the ſaid lords the States-General, and any other princes or people whatſoever in peace, amity, or neutrality with his ſaid majeſty: and likewiſe, that it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the ſaid high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with the aforeſaid lords the States; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, or by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the moſt ſerene and mighty king abovementioned, or to his ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference which now is, or ſhall hereafter happen between his ſaid majeſty and any princes or people whatſoever in peace, amity, or neutrality with the ſaid lords the States.

II. Nor ſhall this freedom of navigation and commerce be infringed by occaſion or cauſe of any war, in any kind of merchandizes, but ſhall extend to all commodities which ſhall be carried in time of peace, thoſe only excepted which follow in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of contraband.

III. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited merchandizes, ſhall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them, fire-balls, powder, match, bullets, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberts, guns, mortar-pieces, petards, granadoes, muſquet-reſts, bandeliers, ſalt-petre, muſquets, muſquet-ſhot, helmets, corſlets, breaſt-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature; ſoldiers, horſes, and all things neceſſary for the furniture of horſes; holſters, belts, and all other warlike inſtruments whatſoever.

IV. Theſe merchandizes following ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited goods, viz. all kind of cloth, and all other manufactures woven of any kind of wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or ony other materials; all ſorts of cloathing and veſtments, together with materials whereof they uſe to be made; gold and ſilver, as well coined as not coined; tin, iron, lead, copper, and coals; as alſo wheat, barley, and all other kind of corn or pulſe; tobacco, and all kind of ſpices; ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh; ſalted and dried fiſh, butter and cheeſe, beer, oils, wines, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalt; and, in general, all proviſion which ſerves for the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; likewiſe all kind of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch, and ropes, ſails, and anchors; alſo maſts and planks, boards and beams, of what ſort of wood ſoever, and all other materials requiſite for the building or repairing ſhips; but they ſhall be wholly reputed amongſt free goods, even as all other wares and commodities which are not comprehended in the next precedent article, ſo that the ſame may be freely tranſported and carried by the ſubjects of his ſaid majeſty, even unto places in enmity with the ſaid States; as alſo, on the other ſide, by the ſubjects of the ſaid States, to places under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid majeſty; except only towns or places be ſeized, invironed, or inveſted; in French, blocquées ou inveſtiés.

V. And, that all manner of differences and contentions on both ſides, by ſea and land, may from henceforth ceaſe and be utterly extinguiſhed, it is agreed, that all kinds of ſhips and veſſels whatſoever, belonging to the ſubjects of his ſaid majeſty, entering or being entered into any road or port under the obedience of the lords the States, and purpoſing to paſs from thence, ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers acting in the ports of the ſaid States, or to the captains of the States ſhips, or of private men of war (if any happen there to be) their paſſport, commonly called a ſea-brief (the form whereof is added at the end of theſe articles) nor ſhall any money, or any thing elſe, be exacted from them under that pretence: but, if any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in the open ſea, or elſewhere out of the dominions of the ſaid States, meet the ſhips of war of the ſaid lords the States, or private men of war of their ſubjects, the ſaid ſhips of the lords the States, or of their ſubjects, ſhall keep at a convenient diſtance, and only ſend out their boat; and it ſhall be lawful for them, only with two or three men, to go on board the ſhips and veſſels of the ſubjects of his majeſty, that the paſſport (or ſea-brief) and the propriety thereof, according to the form hereafter ſpecified, may be

ſhewn to them by the captain or maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty; and the ſhip which ſhall ſhew the ſame ſhall freely paſs; and it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt, ſearch, detain, or divert the ſame from her intended voyage: and all the ſubjects of the lords the States ſhall enjoy, in all things, the ſame liberty and immunity, they, in like manner, ſhewing their paſſports (or ſea-briefs) made according to the form preſcribed at the latter end of this treaty.

VI. But if any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the Engliſh, or other ſubjects of his majeſty, ſhall be met making into any port in enmity with the lords the States; or, on the other ſide, if any ſhip belonging to the United Provinces of the Netherlands, or other ſubjects of the lords the States, ſhall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid majeſty; ſuch ſhips ſhall ſhew not only a paſſport (or ſea-brief) according to the form here under preſcribed, wherewith ſhe is to be furniſhed, but alſo her cockets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form, by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came; whereby it may be known whether ſhe is laden with any merchandize prohibited by the third article of this treaty.

VII. But if, by the ſhewing the aboveſaid cockets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came (concerning the ſhewing whereof it is above agreed) either party ſhall diſcover any kind of merchandizes which, in the third article of this treaty, are declared to be contraband or prohibited goods, conſigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it ſhall not be lawful to open the hatches of ſuch ſhip in which the ſame ſhall happen to be found, whether ſhe belongs to the ſubjects of his majeſty, or of the lords the States: nor to unlock, or break open cheſts, mails, packs, or caſks in the ſame, nor to convey away any the leaſt part of the merchandizes, before the whole be firſt landed in the preſence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried; neither ſhall it be any ways lawful to ſell, exchange, or otherwiſe to alienate the ſame, until ſuch prohibited goods are rightly and lawfully proceeded againſt, and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their reſpective ſentences, confiſcated the ſame: provided always, that, as well the ſhip itſelf, as the reſt of the commodities found in the ſame, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, ſhall not, upon pretence of their being infected by ſuch prohibited goods, be detained, much leſs confiſcated for lawful prize: but if not the whole, but a part only of the lading conſiſts of contraband or prohibited commodities, and that the maſter of the ſhip ſhall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captain who ſeized the ſame, in that caſe the captor ſhall not compel the ſhip to go out of her courſe to any port he thinks fit, but ſhall forthwith diſmiſs her, and upon no account hinder her from freely proſecuting her deſigned voyage.

VIII. It is further agreed, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by his majeſty's ſubjects, upon any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of the lords the States, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated: but, on the contrary, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title or propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of the lords the States; except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent articles: and, for the ſame reaſon, whatſoever ſhall be laden by the ſubjects of the lords the States, in any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of his majeſty, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated; but, on the other ſide, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the lords the States ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of his majeſty; except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and directions of the precedent articles. And, leſt any damage ſhould by ſurprize be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party ſhall happen to be engaged in war, it is provided, that a ſhip belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with goods of the ſubjects of the other, ſhall not render the ſaid goods liable to confiſcation, in caſe they were laden before the expiration of the times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration or publication of any ſuch war, viz. if the goods were laden in any port or place between the limits called the Soundings, and the Naz in Norway, within the ſpace of ſix weeks after ſuch declaration; of two months, between the ſaid place the Soundings and the city of Tangier; and of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; or within the ſpace of eight months in any other country or place of the world: ſo that it ſhall not be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of his majeſty taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of any enemy of the lords the States, upon that pretence, but the ſame ſhall be without delay reſtored to the proprietors, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to the enemy's ports the ſaid merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reaſon aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation: neither, on the other ſide, ſhall it be lawful to confiſcate goods of the ſubjects of the lords the States, taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of an enemy of his majeſty, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be forthwith reſtored to the proprietors thereof, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively: but ſo that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemy's ports the ſaid merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reaſon aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation.

IX. And, the more to aſſure the ſubjects of his majeſty and of the ſaid States, that no injury ſhall be offered to them by the ſhips of war, or private men of war of either ſide, all the captains of the ſhips, as well of his majeſty as of the ſaid States, and all their ſubjects who ſhall fit out private men of war, and likewiſe their privileged companies, ſhall be injoined not to do any injury or damage whatſoever to the other; which if they do, they ſhall be puniſhed, and moreover be liable to ſatisfy all coſts and damages, by reſtitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of perſon and goods.

X. For this cauſe all the commanders of private men of war ſhall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commiſſions, to enter, before a competent judge, good and ſufficient ſecurity, who have no part or intereſt in ſuch ſhip, in the ſum of 1500 l. ſterling, or 16,500 guilders; and, when they have above 150 men, then in the ſum of 3000 l. ſterling, or 33,000 guilders, that they will give full ſatisfaction for any damages or injuries whatſoever, which they or their officers, &c. ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to this preſent treaty, or any other whatſoever, between his majeſty and the ſaid States, upon pain of revocation of their ſaid commiſſions; in which it ſhall be always inſerted, that they have given ſuch ſecurity as aboveſaid: and likewiſe it is agreed, that the ſhip itſelf ſhall be alſo liable to make ſatisfaction for injuries and damages done by her.

XI. His majeſty and the ſaid States, being deſirous that the ſubjects of each other may be mutually treated, in all countries under their obedience reſpectively, with the like kindneſs as their own ſubjects, will give all neceſſary and effectual orders that the judgment upon prizes taken be given according to the rules of juſtice and equity, by judges beyond all ſuſpicion, and not any way concerned in the cauſe under debate; and his majeſty and the ſaid States will likewiſe give ſtrict orders that all ſentences already given, and which ſhall be hereafter given, be (according to the tenor thereof) duly put in execution, &c.

XII. And whenſoever the ambaſſadors of the ſaid lords the States, or any other their public miniſters, reſident at the court of his moſt ſerene majeſty of Great-Britain, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences which have been given, his majeſty will cauſe the ſame to be reviewed and examined in his council, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions preſcribed in this treaty have been obſerved, and have had their due effect, and will alſo take care that the ſame be fully provided for, and that right be done to the party complaining, within the ſpace of three months: and likewiſe when the ambaſſadors, or other public miniſters of his majeſty, reſident with the States-General, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences, the ſaid States will cauſe a review and examination thereof to be made in the aſſembly of the States-General, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions preſcribed in this treaty have been obſerved, and had their due effect; and they will likewiſe take care that the ſame be fully provided for, and that juſtice be done to the party complaining within the ſpace of three months: nevertheleſs it ſhall not be lawful to ſell or unlade the goods in controverſy, either before the ſentence given, or after it, during the review thereof on either ſide, unleſs it be with the conſent of the parties intereſted.

XIII. A ſuit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one part, and the claimers on the other, and decree being given for the party reclaiming, the ſaid decree (upon ſecurity given) ſhall be put in execution, notwithſtanding the appeal made by him that took the prize, which ſhall not be obſerved, in caſe the ſentence ſhall be given againſt the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the maſters of merchant-ſhips, and likewiſe the mariners and paſſengers, do ſometimes ſuffer many cruelties and barbarous uſages, when they are brought under the power of ſhips which take prizes in time of war, thereby to extort from them ſuch confeſſions as they would have to be made: it is agreed that both his majeſty and the lords the States-General ſhall, by the ſevereſt proclamations or placarts, forbid all ſuch heinous and inhuman offences; and as many as they ſhall, by lawful proofs, find guilty of ſuch acts, they ſhall take care that they be puniſhed with due and juſt puniſhments, which may be a terror to others; and ſhall command that all the captains and officers of ſhips, who ſhall be proved to have committed ſuch heinous practices, either themſelves, or by inſtigating others to act the ſame, or by conniving while they were done, ſhall (beſides other puniſhments, to be inflicted proportionably to their offences) be forthwith

forthwith deprived of their offices reſpectively; and every ſhip brought up as prize, whoſe mariners or paſſengers ſhall have ſuffered any torture, ſhall forthwith be diſmiſſed and freed, with all her lading, from all further examination and proceeding againſt her, as well judicial as otherwiſe.

XV. It is alſo agreed, that the like ſeverity of puniſhments ſhall be inflicted upon thoſe who, contrary to the meaning of the 21ſt aritcle of the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, ſhall take commiſſions from enemies to ſeize the ſhips of either ally, contrary to what is provided in the ſaid article.

XVI. Laſtly, It is agreed and concluded, that this preſent treaty, &c. ſhall be, with all convenient ſpeed, on both ſides ratified and confirmed; and that the ratifications thereof ſhall be, within two months from the date thereof, reciprocally exchanged between both parties: and alſo, that the ſaid treaty ſhall, within one month after ſuch exchanging of the ratifications, be delivered, in due and authentic form, to the governors of the Engliſh Eaſt-India and African companies, and to the directors of the Dutch Eaſt and Weſt-India companies; and ſhall, with the firſt conveniency, be alſo ſent by his ſaid majeſty, and by the ſaid lords the States, to their reſpective governors and commanders in chief of their colonies and plantations in every part of the world out of Europe, to the end that it may be by them, and all others within their dominions and under their power, punctually obſerved and fulfilled.

The form of the paſſport (or ſea-brief) to be required and given by the lord high admiral, or by thoſe to whom the exerciſe of admiralty-juriſdiction is ordinarily committed, or by the mayor, or other chief magiſtrate, or by the commiſſioners, or other principal officers of the cuſtoms in their reſpective ports and places within his majeſty's dominions, to the ſhips and veſſels ſailing out thence, according to the purport of the 5th article.

To all unto whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. We lord high admiral of we lords commiſſioners executing the office of the lord high admiral of or we judges of the high court of the admiralty of or we the mayor, or other magiſtrate of or we commiſſioners, or principal officers of the cuſtoms in the city or port of do teſtify and make known, That maſter or commander of the ſhip called the hath appeared before us, and hath declared, by ſolemn oath, That the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, containing about tons, of which he is at preſent maſter or commander, doth belong to the inhabitants of within the dominions of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince, the king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, &c. So help him God. And in regard it would be moſt acceptable to us, that the ſaid maſter or commander be aſſiſted in his juſt and lawful affairs, we do requeſt you, and every of you, whereſoever the ſaid maſter or commander ſhall arrive with his ſhip, and the goods laden on board, and carried in her, that you would pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and uſual cuſtoms and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think fit; which we ſhall moſt willingly and readily acknowledge upon all occaſions. In teſtimony and confirmation whereof, we have with our hand ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed them to be ſealed with our ſeal. Dated at in the day of in the year of our Lord

The form of the paſſport (or ſea-brief) to be required of, and given by, the burghermaſter of the cities and ports of the United Netherlands, to the ſhips or veſſels ſailing from thence, according to the purport of the 5th article.

To the moſt ſerene, moſt illuſtrious, moſt mighty, moſt noble, moſt honourable, and moſt prudent emperors, kings, governors of commonwealths, princes, dukes, earls, barons, lords, burghermaſters, ſchepens, counſellors, judges, officers, juſtices, and rulers of all cities and places, as well eccleſiaſtical as ſecular, to whom theſe preſents ſhall be known: We the burghermaſter and rulers of the city of do certify, that maſter or ſkipper of the ſhip appeared before us, and declared by ſolemn oath, That the ſaid ſhip, called the containing about laſts, of which he is at preſent maſter or ſkipper, belongeth to the inhabitants of the United Netherlands. So help him God. And, in regard it would be moſt acceptable to us that the ſaid maſter or ſkipper be aſſiſted in his juſt and lawful affairs, we do requeſt you and every of you, whereſoever the ſaid maſter or ſkipper ſhall arrive with his ſhip, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you would pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and uſual cuſtoms and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think fit; which we ſhall moſt willingly and readily acknowledge upon all occaſions. In teſtimony and confirmation whereof we have cauſed the ſeal of our city to be hereunto put. Dated at in the day of in the year of our Lord

In teſtimony and confirmation of all and ſingular the premiſes, we the commiſſioners of his majeſty and the lords the States-General aforeſaid, being ſufficiently impowered thereunto, have to theſe preſents ſubſcribed our names, and ſealed them with our ſeals, at London, the 1ſt day of December, 1674.

Tho. Culpepper,	J. Corver,
G. Downing,	G. Santyn,
Richard Ford,	Samuel Beyer,
Will. Thomſon,	And. Van Vaſſen,
John Joliffe,	P. Duvelaer,
John Buckworth,	M. Michielzen.

An explanatory declaration upon certain articles of the marine treaties concluded between his majeſty and the States-General of the United Provinces, February 17, 166$\frac{7}{8}$, and December 1, 1764.

Whereas ſome difficulty hath ariſen concerning the interpretation of certain articles, as well in the treaty marine which was concluded the 1ſt day of December, 1674, as in that which was concluded the 17th of February, 166$\frac{7}{8}$, between his majeſty of Great-Britain on the one part, and the States-General of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries on the other, relating to the liberty of their reſpective ſubjects to trade unto the ports of each other enemies: We Sir William Temple, Bart. ambaſſador extraordinary from his ſaid majeſty of Great-Britain, in the name, and on the part of his ſaid majeſty; and We William Van Heuckelom, Daniel Van Wyngaerden, lord of Werckenham, Gaſpar Fagel, counſellor and penſioner of Holland and Weſt-Friezland, John de Mauregnault, John baron of Rude and Renſwoude, William de Haren, retman of the Bilt, Henry Terborgh, and Luke Alting, deputies in the aſſembly of the ſaid States-General for the States of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friezland, Overyſſel, Groningen, and the Ommelands, in the name, and on the part of the ſaid States-General, have declared, as we do by theſe preſents declare, That the true meaning and intention of the ſaid articles is and ought to be, that ſhips and veſſels, belonging to the ſubjects of either of the parties, can and might, from the time that the ſaid articles were concluded, not only paſs, traffic, and trade from a neutral port or place to a place in enmity with the other party, or from a place in enmity to a neutral place: but alſo from a port or place in enmity to a port or place in enmity with the other party, whether the ſaid places belong to one and the ſame prince or ſtate, or to ſeveral princes and ſtates, with whom the other party is in war. And we declare that this is the true and genuine ſenſe and meaning of the ſaid articles: purſuant whereunto we underſtood that the ſaid articles are to be obſerved and executed on all occaſions, on the part of his ſaid majeſty and the ſaid States-General, and their reſpective ſubjects; yet ſo, that this declaration ſhall not be alledged by either party for matters which happened before the concluſion of the late peace in the month of February, 167$\frac{3}{4}$; and we do promiſe, that the ſaid declaration ſhall be ratified by his ſaid majeſty, and by the ſaid States-General, and that within two months, or ſooner if poſſible, reckoning from the day of the date of this declaration, the ratifications of the ſame ſhall be brought hither to the Hague, to be here exchanged. In witneſs whereof we have ſigned theſe preſents at the Hague, the 30th day of December, 1675.

(L. S.) W. Temple,	(L. S.) W. Van Heuckelom,
	(L. S.) D. Van Wyngaerden,
	(L. S.) Gaſp. Fagel,
	(L. S.) Jo. Mauregnault,
	(L. S.) John baron Van Reede Van Heer Van Renſwoude,
	(L. S.) W. Haren,
	(L. S.) H. Terborgh,
	(L. S.) L. Alting.

After the concluſion of this marine treaty with Holland, the next material one that occurs is another of the ſame nature with France, which may deſerve a place here, amongſt the reſt.

ARTICLE VIII.

A treaty marine between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Charles II, by the grace of God, king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Lewis XIV. the moſt Chriſtian king, concluded at St. Germains en Laye, the 24th day of February, 167$\frac{6}{7}$.

I. That it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince the king of Great-Britain

Britain aforeſaid, with all freedom and ſafety, to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his ſaid majeſty: ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the moſt Chriſtian king, or to his ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference, which now is, or hereafter ſhall happen between the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, and any princes or people whatſoever in peace, amity, or neutrality with the ſaid king of Great-Britain. And likewiſe, that it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, with all freedom and ſafety, to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with the aforeſaid moſt Chriſtian king: ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever belonging either to the king of Great-Britain above-mentioned, or to his ſubjects, upon occaſion, or pretence of any hoſtility or difference which now is, or ſhall hereafter happen between his majeſty and any princes or people whatſoever, in peace, amity, or neutrality with the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king.

II. Nor ſhall this freedom of navigation and commerce be infringed by occaſion of any war, in any kind of merchandizes, but ſhall extend to all commodities which ſhall be carried in time of peace, thoſe only excepted which follow in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of contraband.

III. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited merchandizes, ſhall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them; fire-balls, powder, match, bullets, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberts, guns, mortar-pieces, petards, granadoes, muſquet-reſts, bandeliers, ſalt-petre, muſquets, muſquet-ſhot, helmets, corſlets, breaſt-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature; ſoldiers, horſes, and all things neceſſary for the furniture of horſes; holſters, belts, and all other warlike inſtruments whatſoever.

IV. Theſe merchandizes following ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited goods, viz. all kind of cloth, and all other manufactures woven of any kind of wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or any other materials; all ſorts of cloathing and veſtments, together with the materials whereof they uſe to be made; gold and ſilver, as well coined as not coined; tin, iron, lead, copper, and coals; as alſo wheat and barley, and all other kind of corn or pulſe; tobacco, and all kinds of ſpices; ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh; ſalted and dried fiſh, cheeſe, butter, beer, oils, wines, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalt; and, in general, all proviſion which ſerves for the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; likewiſe all kind of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch, ropes, ſails, and anchors; alſo maſts and planks, boards and beams, of what ſort of wood ſoever, and all other materials requiſite for the building or repairing ſhips; but they ſhall be wholly reputed amongſt free goods, even as well as all other wares and commodities which are not comprehended in the next precedent article; ſo that the ſame may be freely tranſported and carried by the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene king of Great-Britain, not only from one neutral place to another neutral place, or from a neutral port or place to a place in hoſtility with the moſt Chriſtian king, or from a place in hoſtility with him to a neutral place, but alſo from one place in enmity with the moſt Chriſtian king to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that ſuch ports or places do belong to the ſame prince or ſtate, or to ſeveral princes or ſtates, with whom the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall happen to be in war; and in like manner that the ſame may be freely tranſported by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, not only from one neutral place to another neutral place, or from a neutral port or place to a place in hoſtility with the king of Great-Britain, or from a place in hoſtility with him to a neutral place; but alſo from one place in enmity with the king of Great-Britain to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that ſuch ports or places do belong to the ſame prince or ſtate, or to ſeveral princes or ſtates with whom the king of Great-Britain ſhall happen to be in war, except only towns or places beſieged, invironed, or inveſted; in French, blocquées ou inveſtiés.

V. And, that all manner of differences and contentions on both ſides, by ſea and land, may from henceforth ceaſe and be utterly extinguiſhed, it is agreed that all kind of ſhips and veſſels whatſoever, belonging to the ſubjects of his ſaid majeſty of Great-Britain, entering or being entered into any road or port under the obedience of the moſt Chriſtian king, and purpoſing to paſs from thence, ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers acting in the ports of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, or to the captains of the moſt Chriſtian king's ſhips, or private men of war (if any happen there to be) their paſſports, commonly called a ſea brief (the form whereof is added to the end of theſe articles) nor ſhall any money, or any thing elſe, be exacted from them under that pretence: but, if any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in the open ſea or elſewhere, out of the dominions of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, meet his ſhips of war, or privateers of his ſubjects, the ſaid ſhips of the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall keep at a convenient diſtance, and only ſend out their boat, and it ſhall be lawful for them, only with two or three men, to go on board the ſhips and veſſels of the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain, that the paſſport (or ſea brief) and the propriety thereof, may be ſhewn to them by the captain or maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſel belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain: and the ſhip which ſhall ſhew the ſame ſhall freely paſs; and it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt, ſearch, detain, or divert the ſame from her intended voyage: and all the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall enjoy in all things the ſame liberty and immunity, they in like manner ſhewing their paſſport, made according to the form preſcribed at the latter end of this treaty.

VI. But if any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the Engliſh, or other ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain, ſhall be met by any man of war making into any port in enmity with the moſt Chriſtian king; or, on the other ſide, if any ſhip belonging to the moſt Chriſtian king, or others ſubjects of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, ſhall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid majeſty of Great-Britain; ſuch ſhip ſhall ſhew not only a paſſport, wherewith ſhe is to be furniſhed, but alſo her cockets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form, by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came; whereby it may be known whether ſhe is laden with any merchandizes prohibited by the 3d article of this treaty.

VII. But if, by the ſhewing the aboveſaid cockets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form, by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came, either party ſhall diſcover any kind of merchandizes which in the 3d article of this treaty are declared to be contraband or prohibited, conſigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it ſhall not be lawful to open the hatches of ſuch ſhip in which the ſame ſhall happen to be found, whether ſhe belongs to the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain, or of the moſt Chriſtian king; nor to unlock or break open the cheſts, mails, packs, or caſks in the ſame, nor to convey away any the leaſt part of the merchandizes, before the whole be firſt landed in the preſence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried: neither ſhall it be any ways lawful to ſell, exchange, or otherwiſe to alienate the ſame, until ſuch prohibited goods are rightly and lawfully proceeded againſt, and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their reſpective ſentences, confiſcated the ſame: provided always, that, as well the ſhip itſelf, as the reſt of the commodities found in the ſame, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, ſhall not, upon pretence of their being infected by ſuch prohibited goods, be detained, much leſs confiſcated, for lawful prize; but if not the whole, but a part only of the lading conſiſts of contraband commodities, and that the maſter of the ſhip ſhall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captor who ſeized the ſame, in that caſe the captor ſhall not compel the ſhip to go out of her courſe to any port he thinks fit, but ſhall forthwith diſmiſs her, and upon no account hinder her from freely proſecuting her deſigned voyage.

VIII. It is further agreed, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain, upon any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of the moſt Chriſtian king, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated: but, on the contrary, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of the moſt Chriſtian king: except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent article: and, by the ſame reaſon, whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, in any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of his majeſty of Great-Britain, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated; but, on the other ſide, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of his majeſty of Great-Britain, except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent article; and, leſt any damage ſhould by ſurprize be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party ſhall happen to be engaged in war, it is agreed that a ſhip belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with goods of the ſubjects of the other, ſhall not render the ſaid goods liable to confiſcation, in caſe they were laden before the expiration of the times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration of any ſuch war, viz. if the goods were laden in any port or place between the limits called the Soundings and the Naz in Norway, within the ſpace of ſix weeks after ſuch declaration; of two months between the ſaid place,

the

the Soundings, and the city of Tangier; and of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; or within the ſpace of eight months in any other country or place of the world; ſo that it ſhall not be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great Britain, taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of any enemy of the moſt Chriſtian king, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be without delay reſtored to the proprietors, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports the ſaid merchandizes which are called contraband; and, for the reaſon aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation: neither, on the other ſide, ſhall it be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of any enemy of his majeſty of Great-Britain, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be forthwith reſtored to the proprietors thereof, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports the ſaid merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reaſons aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation.

IX. And, the more to aſſure the ſubjects of his majeſty of Great-Britain, and of the moſt Chriſtian king, that no injury ſhall be offered to them by the ſhips of war, or privateers of either ſide, all the captains of the ſhips, as well of his majeſty of Great-Britain as of the moſt Chriſtian king, and all their ſubjects who ſhall fit out privateers, and likewiſe their privileged companies, ſhall be injoined not to do any injury whatſoever to the other; which if they do, they ſhall be puniſhed, and moreover be liable to ſatisfy all coſts and damages, by reſtitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of perſon and goods.

X. For this cauſe, all the commanders of privateers ſhall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commiſſions, to enter, before a competent judge, good and ſufficient ſecurity, by able and reſponſible men, who have no part or intereſt in ſuch ſhip, in the ſum of 1500 l. ſterling, or 16,500 livres; and, when they have above 150 men, then in the ſum of 3000 l. ſterling, or 33,000 livres, that they will give full ſatisfaction for any damages or injuries whatſoever, which they or their officers, or others in their ſervices, ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to this preſent treaty, or any other whatſoever, between his majeſty of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king, upon the pain of revocation and annulling their ſaid commiſſions; in which it ſhall be always inſerted, That they have given ſuch ſecurity as aboveſaid; and likewiſe it is agreed, that the ſhip itſelf ſhall be alſo liable to make ſatisfaction for injuries done by her.

XI. His majeſty of Great-Britain and the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, being deſirous that the ſubjects of each may be mutually treated, in all countries under their obedience reſpectively, with the like kindneſs as their own ſubjects, will give all neceſſary and effectual orders that judgments upon ſhips and merchandizes taken at ſea be given according to the rule of juſtice and equity, by judges beyond all ſuſpicion, and not any ways concerned in the cauſe under debate. And his majeſty of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king will likewiſe give ſtrict orders that all ſentences already given, and which ſhall be hereafter given, be according to the tenor thereof duly put in execution, and obtain their effect.

XII. And whenſoever the ambaſſadors, or other public miniſters of the king of Great-Britain, reſiding at the court of the moſt Chriſtian king, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences which have been given concerning ſhips or merchandizes taken at ſea, and belonging to the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, then the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, on demand of the ſaid ambaſſadors or miniſters of the king of Great-Britain, ſhall cauſe the ſaid ſentences to be reviewed and examined in his privy-council, and ſhall confirm or revoke the ſentences whereſoever given; and likewiſe the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king ſhall take care, that right be done to the party complaining within the ſpace of four months, to be accounted from the day of making ſuch demand.

In like manner, if the ambaſſadors, or other public miniſters of the moſt Chriſtian king reſiding at the court of the king of Great-Britain, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences, which have been given concerning ſhips or merchandizes taken at ſea, belonging to ſubjects of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, the ſaid king of Great-Britain ſhall forthwith commiſſion, under his great ſeal, nine of his privy council to adjudge ſuch matters, or to confirm or revoke the ſentences whereſoever given; and the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall meet within the ſpace of one month from the day of delivering the complaint: and likewiſe the king of Great-Britain ſhall take care that right be done the party complaining within the ſpace of three months, to be computed from the firſt day of the meeting of the ſaid commiſſioners.

XIII. A ſuit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one party, and the claimers thereof on the other, and a ſentence being given for the party reclaiming, the ſaid ſentence, upon ſecurity given, ſhall be put in execution, notwithſtanding the appeal made by him that took the prize; which ſhall not be obſerved, in caſe the ſentence ſhall be given againſt the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the maſters of merchants ſhips, and likewiſe the mariners and paſſengers do ſometimes ſuffer many cruelties and barbarous uſages, when they are brought under the power of ſhips which take prizes in time of war, the takers in an inhuman manner tormenting them, thereby to extort from them ſuch confeſſions as they would have to be made; it is agreed, that both his majeſty of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall, by the ſevereſt proclamations or edicts, forbid all ſuch heinous offences, and as many as they ſhall by lawful proofs find guilty of ſuch acts, they ſhall take care that they be ſo puniſhed, as may be a terror to others; and ſhall command that all the captains and officers of ſhips, who ſhall be proved to have committed ſuch heinous practices, either themſelves, or by inſtigating others to do the ſame, or by conniving while they were done, ſhall, beſides other puniſhments to be inflicted proportionably to their offences, be forthwith deprived of their offices reſpectively; and every ſhip brought up as prize, whoſe mariners or paſſengers ſhall have ſuffered any torture, ſhall forthwith be diſmiſſed and freed, with all her lading, from all further examination and proceeding againſt her, as well judicial as otherwiſe.

XV. It is alſo agreed, that the like ſeverity of puniſhments ſhall be inflicted upon thoſe, who ſhall take commiſſion from enemies to ſeize the ſhips of either ally or party.

XVI. Laſtly, it is agreed and concluded, that this preſent treaty, and all and ſingular the things therein contained, ſhall be, with all convenient ſpeed, on both ſides, ratified and confirmed, and that the ratifications thereof ſhall be within two months from the date hereof reciprocally exchanged.

Dated at St. Germains en Laye, the 24th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1677.

The form of the paſſport, or ſea-brief, to be required, and given by the lord high admiral, or by thoſe to whom the exerciſe of admiralty juriſdiction is ordinarily committed: or by the mayor or other chief magiſtrate, or by the commiſſioners, or other principal officers of the cuſtoms, in their reſpective ports and places within the dominions of the king of Great Britain, to ſhips and veſſels, according to the purport of the fifth article.

To all unto whom theſe preſents ſhall come greeting. We lord high admiral of We lords commiſſioners executing the office of the lord high admiral of or we the mayor, or other magiſtrate of or we commiſſioners, or principal officers of the cuſtoms in the city or port of do teſtify and make known, that maſter or commander of the ſhip called the hath appeared before us, and hath declared by ſolemn oath, that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel containing about tons, of which he is at preſent maſter or commander, doth belong to the inhabitants of within the dominions of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince, the king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. So help him God. And, in regard it would be moſt acceptable to us, that the ſaid maſter or commander be aſſiſted in his lawful affairs, we do requeſt you and every of you, whereſoever the ſaid maſter or commander ſhall arrive with his ſhip, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you would pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and uſual cuſtoms and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from, your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think fit; which we ſhall moſt willingly and readily acknowledge upon all occaſions: in teſtimony and confirmation whereof, we have with our hands ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed them to be ſealed with our ſeal. Dated the day of in the year of our Lord

And the like form of paſſport, mutatis mutandis, ſhall be uſed by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king.

REMARKS.

After the concluſion of this marine treaty between Great-Britain and France, we do not find any other of the ſame nature in which this crown is much concerned, 'till the time of king James II. who, in the month of Auguſt, 1685, renewed all former alliance with the Dutch, and particularly the ſix following treaties, viz.

I. A treaty of peace and alliance, concluded the $\frac{21}{31}$ of July, in the year 1667.

II. A treaty of commerce and navigation of the ſame date.

III. A treaty of peace and friendſhip, concluded at Weſtminſter the $\frac{4}{14}$ of February 1673-4.

IV. A marine treaty, concluded at London the 1ſt of December 1674, together with a declaration by which ſome articles of the aforeſaid treaty, as well as of another marine

treaty of the [illegible] of February 1667-8, are more fully explained and expounded.

V. Articles concluded at London, the $\frac{3}{13}$ of March 1674-5, for terminating all differences between the Engliſh and Dutch Eaſt-India companies.

VI. A league defenſive, concluded at London the 3d of March 1678.

The next remarkable marine treaty that occurs is that between their late majeſties king William and queen Mary, and the States-General, concluded at Whitehall, the 29th of April 1689, in purſuance of the treaty concluded between king Charles II. and the States, of the 3d of March 1678, which is confirmed by this with ſome additions. The articles are to this effect:

I. That their majeſties ſhall put to ſea 50 large men of war, viz. 1 of the 2d, 17 of the 3d, and 32 of the 4th rate, with 15 frigates, and 8 fire-ſhips, having on board in all 17,155 effective men.

II. That the States ſhould put to ſea 30 large ſhips, viz. 8 from 70 to 80, 7 from 60 to 70, and 15 from 50 to 60 guns, with 9 frigates and 4 fire-ſhips, which ſhall have on board 10,572 effective men.

III. That the fleets ſhall join, where the king of Great-Britain ſhall think fit.

IV. That the fleets of the two nations ſhall be divided into three ſquadrons; the firſt to be of 50 large ſhips, ſix frigates, and eight fire-ſhips, to ſerve in the Mediterranean; the ſecond of 30 large ſhips, 8 frigates, and 4 fire-ſhips, to ſerve in the Iriſh ſea and in the channel, except it be otherwiſe ſtipulated, by conſent; and the third of ten frigates, to ſerve between the mouth of the channel and Yarmouth, on the coaſt of England and the aforeſaid place, and the iſle of Waſchere on the coaſt of Zeland: the two laſt ſquadrons to aſſiſt occaſionally each other.

V. Each of the ſquadrons ſhall be compoſed of the ſhips of both nations proportionably.

VI. All the ſhips of both ſquadrons ſhall be provided for one year. What cannot be conveniently kept aboard the ſhips of the Mediterranean ſquadron, the king of Spain, the duke of Tuſcany, and the republic of Genoa, ſhall be deſired to give them a favourable reception.

VII. Each ſquadron ſhall be commanded by the Engliſh admiral or commander in chief.

VIII. The councils of war ſhall be compoſed of all the flag officers of both nations in equal number; when the votes are ſplit, the captains ſhall be called; the Engliſh admiral ſhall be preſident, and the Engliſh officers of equal rank ſhall have the precedency of the Dutch.

IX. All cauſes relating only to the officers, ſeamen or affairs, of either of the nations, ſhall be tried by a council of war of that nation; but, if both nations are concerned, the officers of both ſhall be preſent at the trial.

XI. All prizes ſhall be divided between their majeſties and the States in proportion to the ſhare they bear in the charge of the fleet. That is to ſay, their majeſties ſhall have $\frac{5}{8}$, and the States $\frac{3}{8}$.

XII. Prizes ſhall be adjudged by the admiralty of the nation by whoſe ſhips they were taken, and none but neceſſary charge ſhall be allowed, without any fees for officers.

XIII. And, if the prizes are taken by ſhips of both nations, they ſhall be adjudged by the admiralty of the nation, to whom the ſtrongeſt ſhips preſent at the caption do belong.

XIV. The ſhips of either nation ſhall have ſpecial orders to protect each other's merchant-men and plantations in the Weſt-Indies.

XV. This treaty to be ratified by both parties.

Remarks.

This treaty which I have here abridged, contains ſuch remarkable ſtipulations and regulations for marine affairs, that I thought it very well deſerved to be inſerted. And that, and all precedent treaties between theſe kingdoms and that ſtate, were renewed and confirmed with additions, by a treaty of friendſhip and alliance, concluded at London in the month of Auguſt following. And after that, in the month of October 1692, a treaty was concluded by the king of Great-Britain and the States of Holland with the king of Spain, by which that prince obliged himſelf to put to ſea at leaſt 16 men of war of 60 guns each (which perhaps, was more than he could) with 4 fire-ſhips, and 25 gallies, and proviſions for ten months; to be joined by 16 other Engliſh and Dutch men of war of the ſame force, and 4 fire-ſhips; upon condition, that all friendly offices ſhould be done them by the Spaniard.

It is obſervable, that as to the ceremonial of the ſalutation, and other ſuch punctilio's, which neither of the kings thought fit to yield to the other in the Mediterranean, (but which the king of Spain muſt have yielded to his Britiſh majeſty in the Britiſh ſeas) for avoiding all differences on that account, it is agreed, That there ſhall be no ſuch thing at all; as may be obſerved by the 10th article, which follows:

X. The men of war, gallies, and fire-ſhips, ſhall meet at the rendezvous which ſhall be aſſigned them, without any ceremony, ſalutation, or counter-ſalutation; which ſhall be obſerved, all the time they act together, as well by the whole fleet as by detachments.

And ſo nice have princes, and eſpecially the kings of England, always been upon this tender point of the marine, that for fear any ſmall condeſcenſion of any of their commanding officers ſhould afterwards militate againſt them, and be looked upon as a deference paid to the Spaniard, it is agreed by the eleventh article, That they ſhould meet the firſt time on board the Dutch admiral, or other commanding ſhips of that nation, aſunder.

XI. And, for the firſt time, the commanding officers ſhall meet in the ſhip of the firſt Dutch officer, there to regulate matters, according to the tenor of the ſeparate articles, which ſhall be agreed on for the purpoſe.

Which ſeparate articles here follow.

The commanding officers ſhall meet without any ceremony of rank at the firſt joining of the fleet, in the ſhip of the firſt Dutch officer, and ſhall concert amongſt themſelves, according to their orders, the neceſſary meaſures for acting againſt the enemy with the greateſt appearance of ſucceſs.

After this we do not meet with any other marine treaty very remarkable, 'till that concluded at the general peace of Ryſwick, between France and Holland; in which, beſides ſeveral other matters relating to commerce, it is agreed, That the French and Dutch may freely frequent, with their ſhips and merchandizes, the countries, lands, towns, ports, and places of each other, with equal and reciprocal privileges, and without paying any other or greater duties in each other's countries, than the natural ſubjects of the country.

That the ſhips of war of either nation ſhall always be free to come in, lie at anchor, and go out of roads, rivers, ports, and harbours of each other, without being ſubject to any ſearch, provided they give not any reaſonable cauſe of jealouſy.

That the ſhips of war of either nation, whether belonging to the ſovereign or the ſubjects, ſhall have liberty to conduct, whether they pleaſe, the prizes they take from their enemies, without paying any duties or fees; and, on the contrary, no retreat ſhall be allowed to ſuch as have made prize of any of the ſhips of his majeſty, or the States-General, or their ſubjects: but, if they be forced in by tempeſt or otherwiſe, they ſhall be obliged to depart as ſoon as poſſible.

That the ſhips of either nation, coming to an anchor at any port in their paſſage upon a longer voyage, ſhall not be obliged to ſell any part of their goods: and that the ſhips, nor goods, nor mariners, or other ſubjects of either nation, ſhall be arreſted or detained by the other, under any pretence whatſoever, except it be for a juſt cauſe, and according to the due forms of law.

That it ſhall be lawful for the ſubjects of either nation to trade with the enemies of the other, and to carry thither all ſorts of goods that are not contraband; under which term are only comprehended arms and ammunition, and warlike accoutrements of all ſorts for men and horſe. And the ſhips of both nations, whether at ſea or any port or road, ſhall ſhew their paſſports and other ſea-papers in due form, to which entire credit ſhall be given.

That all goods belonging to the ſubjects of either party, being ſeized on board an enemy's ſhip, ſhall be confiſcated, except ſuch as have been laded; if between the mouth of the channel and Norway, more than four weeks after the declaration of the war; if between the mouth of the channel and cape St. Vincent, more than ſix weeks; if further in the Mediterranean or elſewhere on this ſide of the Line, more than ten weeks; and if beyond the Line, all the world over, more than eight months after the declaration of war: and it is agreed, That neither the goods nor perſons of enemies ſhall be ſeized by either nation in the ſhips of the other, except the perſons be in the immediate ſervice of the other.

That any captain of either nation, making prize any ſhips laden with contraband goods, ſhall not break open coffers, cheſts, bails, or any other thing 'till the ſame be done, in due form, by the officers of the admiralty; except the captain of any ſhip, having only a part of his lading contraband goods, conſent to deliver the ſame up, and purſue his voyage with the reſt.

That judgment ſhall be given with all juſtice and expedition, concerning all ſhips take at ſea; and, upon the complaint of the miniſter or envoy of either party, the cauſe ſhall be heard over again in council; and, notwithſtanding the appeal of the captor, ſentences, pronounced in favour of the owners of ſhips taken, ſhall be put in execution, upon their giving ſecurity to be forth-coming.

That the ſubjects of either nation may freely freight, or cauſe to be built in the dominions of the other, all manner of ſhips, whether for war or commerce, and that the enemies of either ſhall not enjoy that privilege.

That in caſe of ſhipwreck upon the coaſt of either nation, the effects that can be ſaved ſhall be reſtored, if reclaimed within the year and day, without any form of proceſs.

That neither party ſhall ſuffer the ſhips of the other to be made prize in their ports or harbours.

That this treaty ſhall ſubſiſt 25 years.

By a ſeparate article of the ſame date, the duty of 50 ſols a ton impoſed upon all foreign ſhips in France was taken off the Dutch, except only, when the latter ſhould lade in one port in France, to unlade at another in the ſaid kingdom. But the breaking out of the enſuing war put a ſtop to the execution of this treaty.

REMARKS.

We have dwelt the longer upon the point of maritime affairs and treaties, in diſcharge of our promiſe made to the public; and, in the ſubſequent parts of this work, we ſhall give the ſubſtance of other the moſt material treaties of this kind, which have ſubſiſted between the chief potentates of Europe. The uſe hereof is not only to convey ſome knowledge of the hiſtory of Chriſtendom, in relation to the ſtate of commerce, but to give readers, who may not have been converſant with affairs of this nature, ſuch an idea thereof from what is paſt, as may enable them the better to judge of the rectitude of what has been tranſacted of the like kind ſince. And,

From due attention to what ſhall be laid before the public on this head in the courſe of our undertaking, it will appear, that thoſe who take upon them to make treaties of commercial or maritime concerns, cannot be too well acquainted with the ſubject of trade and navigation; they cannot have too minute and familiar a knowledge of practical trade, who would judge of it to good purpoſe in any reſpect: a general notion, which only ſkims over the ſurface of commerce, can only afford an imaginary, not ſuch a real and ſubſtantial knowledge, as will enable a man to promote the public intereſt himſelf, or capacitate him to judge of the meaſures of others. For confirmation of the truth hereof, this work affords no little variety of inſtances. See in particular the articles COLONIES, CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE, BRITISH AMERICA, CONSULS, FRANCE, GRATIAS, LEVANT TRADE, NAVAL AFFAIRS, TRADE, TREATIES of COMMERCE, CUSTOM-HOUSE BUSINESS, DUTIES, &c. See alſo ſeveral of the other articles referred to at the beginning of this article, which have affinity with this ſubject.

MARLE, for the manuring and cultivation of land, is of various kinds and different colours. The earth generally known by the name of marle, is a light friable ſubſtance, of a middle nature between clay and chalk, but neither ſo fat as clay, nor ſo denſe as chalk, and ſticks to the tongue.

REMARKS.

Under the articles EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MANURE, we have ſhewed the neceſſity of advancing the arts of agriculture, and have opened a ſcene to the improvement thereof in general. Likewiſe under ſuch other heads as we refer to from them, the ſame ſubject is purſued with all brevity and perſpicuity with relation to its fundamental particulars that concern trade, which is as much as the reader will expect in a work of this nature.

The moſt ordinary help for fertilization of land, is ſtercoration. Sheep's dung is one of the beſt, the next is the dung of kine, and, thirdly, that of horſes, which is held ſomewhat too hot unleſs it be mixed. That of pigeons for a garden, or a ſmall piece of ground, is excellent.

The method of applying the dung to arable land, is to ſpread it immediately before ploughing, ſo as to plough it in; for, if it ſpread long before, the ſun will exhale much of it's fatneſs. For grazing ground, the way is to ſpread it ſomewhat late, towards winter, that the ſun may have leſs power to dry it up.

The ſecond kind of compoſt is, divers kinds of earth; as marle, ſea-ſand, chalk, earth upon earth, pond earth, and mixtures of them. Marle is thought the beſt, as having moſt fatneſs, and not heating the ground too much *. The next is ſea-ſand, which obtains a particular virtue from the ſalt, for ſalt is the firſt rudiment of life. See the article SALT. Chalk overheats the ground a little, and therefore does beſt upon cold clay, or moiſt ground.

* See Sir Hugh Plat's Jewel-Houſe of Art and Nature, page 114, &c.

It is a common error to think chalk is ſo great a help to arable, but not to grazing ground. The error proceeds hence, that, after chalking of the ground, they wear it out by many crops without reſt, and then, indeed, it will bear little graſs. It was a good experiment to lay chalk upon arable ground a little before ploughing, and plough it in as they do dung; but then it muſt firſt be made friable by rain or lying. Earth is a compoſt to earth. A garden, that had a field, as it were, poured upon it, bore fruit excellently the firſt year, for the ſurface of the earth is always the moſt fruitful. And earth ſo prepared has a double ſurface. But ſuch earth as affords ſaltpetre, if procurable without too much charge, is beſt. The way to haſten the growth of ſaltpetre, is to exclude the ſun; and, therefore, to make a large thatched hovel over ſome quantity of ground, or even to plank the ground over, will produce ſaltpetre. Pond-earth, or river-earth, is a very good compoſt for manure; eſpecially if the pond has been long uncleaned, and ſo the water be not too hungry; and we judge it would be yet better, if mixed with chalk.

Another help for ground is procured by means of ſome other ſubſtances, though not merely earthy, having a virtue to fertilize: wherein aſhes excel, inſomuch that the countries about Ætna and Veſuvius have a kind of amends made them in the exceeding fertility of the ſoil, for the miſchief done them by the eruptions; which fertility is cauſed by the aſhes ſcattered over the ground.

Soot alſo, though thin ſpread in a field or garden, is found a very good compoſt. Salt is generally too coſtly: it has been tried, that mixed with ſeed-corn, and ſown together, it proves ſerviceable; and we are of opinion, that powdered chalk, mixed with ſeed-corn, would do good, perhaps as much as chalking the ground all over.

The ſuffering vegetables to die into, and ſo fatten the ground is another help; as the ſtubble of corn, eſpecially of peaſe. Brakes caſt upon the ground, in the beginning of winter, will make it very fruitful. It were proper alſo to try, whether leaves ſwept together, and mixed with ſome chalk and dung, to give them more heat, would not make a good compoſt, for there is nothing waſted ſo much as the leaves of trees: and, as they lie ſcattered and without mixture, they rather make the ground four than otherwiſe.

Heat and warmth is likewiſe a good help to ground. It has been anciently practiſed to burn heath, ling, and ſedge, with the advantage of the wind, upon the ground. We find that the warmth of walls and incloſures is an amendment; ſo is lying open to the ſouth, and the folding of ſheep, as well by their warmth as their compoſt: and, perhaps, the covering of ground with brakes in the beginning of the winter, may help by means of the warmth. The uſual way of gathering flints in flinty ground, and laying them in heaps, is no good huſbandry; becauſe they are magnets to heat, and would keep the ground warm.

Another help to fertility is watering, which may be done two ways; the one by letting in and ſhutting out the water at ſeaſonable times: for water let in at ſome times, if it ſtay not too long, does good; but at others, if it ſtay too long, hurt. And this only ſerves for meadows, adjacent to a river. The other way is, to bring water from ſome high grounds, where there are ſprings into the lower, carrying it in long furrows; and from theſe furrows drawing it tranſverſe, to ſpread the water, which makes an excellent improvement both for corn and graſs: though the expedient proves the richer, if theſe hanging grounds be fruitful, becauſe the water thus waſhes down ſome of the fatneſs of the earth. Generally where there are great overflows in ſens, or the like, the drowning them in water makes the following ſummer more fruitful, as keeping the ground warm and nouriſhing it. But the fenmen hold it, that the ſewers may be kept ſo as to continue the water too long in the ſpring, 'till the weeds and ſedge be grown up; becauſe then the ground, like a wood, will keep out the ſun, and ſo continue the wet, and never graze well that year. For more matter correſponding hereunto, ſee the articles EARTH, FARMING, FLAX, HUSBANDRY, MANURE.

Marles, beſides their application with other proper compoſts for vegetation, they afford a fit matter for the making of veſſels; ſuch as crucibles, retorts, bodies, &c. in chemiſtry. They likewiſe ſerve to procure the diſcontinuation and diviſion of certain ſalts and other materials, that would otherwiſe riſe and boil over in the operation. Theſe are, therefore, employed in the diſtillation of nitre, turpentine, wax, &c. They alſo contribute more materially, more intimately, and more eſſentially, as to quantity, in the fixation of certain bodies; as of oils, for example, of common ſulphur, and even of mercury. For which ſee Becher's firſt ſupplement to his Phyſica Subterranea.

MARQUE.

Of letters of marque and reprizal, granted on depredations committed on trade and navigation, and of reſtitution, &c.

Letters of marque are extraordinary commiſſions granted by authority for reparation to merchants, taken and deſpoiled by ſtrangers at ſea: and repriſals is the retaking, or taking again of one thing for another.

The goods of others may be taken upon the ſea, by letters of marque and jus repriſaliarum; but the ſame cannot be done by any private authority, only by the power of that prince or ſtate, whoſe ſubject the injured perſon is; nor is it grantable by authority, but where the party damaged has juſtice denied him, or the ſame is delayed contrary to the laws of nations: this law or cuſtom of reprizals was eſtabliſhed by the conſent of nations, and, without it, licence would be tolerated for the committing of depredations; but princes, by the laws of nations, are anſwerable for public injuries, and ſhould by prudent meaſures, prevent thoſe that are private, not ſuffering foreigners to receive wrongs in their countries: nor ſhould the prince of the perſon injured value his misfortune at ſo low a rate, as to deny him letters of requeſt for ſatisfaction; and, if juſtice be denied after ſuch requeſt, it is reaſonable to arm him with power, to take ſatisfaction by reprize and military force.

And

And there are uſually ſent two or three letters of requeſt, according to the ſatisfaction returned in anſwer, before the reprizal is awarded; and ſuch letters generally aſſign a time certain for damages to be repaired; if not, reprizals to iſſue forth.

King Charles I. after the maſſacre of the Dutch at Amboyna, granted letters of requeſt to the States of Holland for ſatisfaction within eight months, otherwiſe letters of reprizal were to follow. King Charles II. on the petition of Meſſ. Gouler and Canham, granted one Lee letters of requeſt to the great duke of Tuſcany, for redreſs againſt the government of Leghorn.

In the year 1674, the ſame prince iſſued out the like authority to the king of Spain, requiring ſatisfaction for the depredations committed on the ſhip and goods of Mr. Stampe at the Havanna. He alſo publiſhed the year following a proclamation, promiſing a reward for apprehending the offenders dead or alive.

In the proſecution of theſe letters there muſt be, 1. The oath of the party injured, or other ſufficient proof, touching the injury thereby ſuſtained. 2. A proof of due proſecution for obtaining ſatisfaction in a legal way. 3. The deferring or denial of juſtice. 4. A complaint to his own prince or ſtate. 5. Requiſition of juſtice made to the ſupreme head or ſtate, in the ordinary courſe it was denied. 6. Perſiſting ſtill in the denial of juſtice. After all which, letters of reprizal under ſuch reſtrictions and limitations as are conſonant to law, and as the caſe requires, may iſſue not only by the civil, but by the municipal laws of this kingdom: and then the prince of that country, againſt whom the ſame are awarded, muſt repair the damage out of his or their effects, who committed the injuries, or, if that proves deficient, it ought to fall as a common debt on his country.

Such authorities grantable by the laws of England are twofold, ordinary and extraordinary: the ordinary are either within the realm, or without the ſame; the firſt are grantable where Britiſh merchants have ſuffered in their perſons, and their merchandize are ſpoiled or ſeized beyond the ſeas, by merchant ſtrangers, and the Britiſh merchants upon ſuit, or the king's demanding of juſtice by his ambaſſadors, &c. cannot obtain ſatisfaction to the perſon injured; then the parties proving they have proſecuted the offenders in a due courſe of juſtice, and have been denied or delayed illegally to have right done them, ſhall, in ſuch caſe, have a writ out of Chancery to arreſt the merchant ſtrangers of that nation, or their goods in theſe kingdoms. And the lord chancellor, in this caſe, has always the approbation of the king and council for ſo doing.

The other reprizals without the realm, are by patent under the great ſeal, and cannot be ordinarily revoked; becauſe, after the perſon injured has petitioned, and according to law proved his loſs, obtained letters of requeſt, and no reparation has been made: as ſoon as the letters patents are ſealed, the ſame does immediately create and veſt a national debt in the grantee, to be ſatisfied in ſuch manner, and by ſuch means, as the ſaid letters patents direct, out of the goods and eſtates of that prince's ſubjects, who refuſed, or illegally delayed juſtice.

But, if the ſupreme power thinks the execution of theſe letters of reprizal cannot well be effected without endangering the peace of both ſtates, it may be reſpited till a more convenient time; and princes are careful, in granting ſuch letters patents, to have them made ſo as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace; but the granting of them for particular ſatisfaction does not, in the ordinary way, amount to a breach.

As to the extraordinary reprizals, they are by letters of marque, for reparation at ſea, or any place out of the kingdom, granted by the ſecretaries of ſtate, with the approbation of the king and council; but they are only during the king's pleaſure, and generally in time of war, ſo that they may at any time be revoked.

In king Henry the IVth's reign, on the complaint of the commons of England, who had ſuffered many wrongs and injuries in the loſs of their ſhips and goods upon the main ſea, contrary to leagues, &c. which were violated by the ſubjects of other nations; and reciting the willingneſs of the parliament to provide remedy and relief for the grieved; a law was made, by which it is enacted, that, upon application to the keeper of the privy-ſeal, he ſhall ſign letters of requeſt to demand reparation; which, if not made in convenient time, then the lord chancellor of England ſhall grant letters of reprizal in due form of law, to obtain the ſame by force, and for the indemnity of the perſons injured: this is confirmed by ſtat. 4 Hen. V. cap. 7. and other ſtatutes.

But letters of reprizal were granted long before theſe ſtatutes, by the kings of England, by virtue of their prerogatives; nor was the king's prerogative in the leaſt diminiſhed by them, but remained at the common law, to judge when it was expedient to grant them; and the before-mentioned act of king Henry IV. notwithſtanding it ordains letters of requeſt and of reprizal, doth not reſtrain the king's prerogative therein.

The caſes where reprizals will or will not lie, are thus ſtated: on wrong judgment given in a proſecution abroad, in matters not doubtful which might have been redreſſed, and the which was apparently perverted or denied, reprizal may be granted: though, if the matter be doubtful, it is otherwiſe; for in cauſes dubious, there is preſumption that juſtice was truly adminiſtered. If an Engliſhman proſecutes a perſon in any legal court beyond the ſeas, whereupon the military governor oppoſes the ſuit, and by his means the debtor and his goods are conveyed away, but a ſentence or judgment is obtained: by this the execution is fruſtrated, and letters of reprizal ſhall be had.

Yet, if a merchant of England ſhall commence a ſuit in the courts of law, beyond the ſeas, and judgment paſſes againſt him, from which he appeals to the ſupreme court, and there the firſt judgment is confirmed and allowed; though the complainant hath received a judgment contrary to the right of the cauſe, here he ſhall not have letters of reprizal; but it may, in an extraordinary caſe, occaſion ſuch letters to have a rehearing.

If any perſon ſhall be killed, wounded, or any way damaged in an hoſtile manner, in the territories or places of any king or potentate, to whom letters of requeſt are tranſmitted, and no ſatisfaction ſhall be made to the perſon injured, there is no compulſion to reſort to the ordinary proſecution, but letters of reprizal ſhall be iſſued: but, where misfortunes happen to perſons, or their goods, reſiding in a foreign country in time of war, reprizals are not to be granted; in this caſe, they muſt be contented with the loſs, for they are at their liberty to relinquiſh the place on the approach of the enemy, when they foreſee the country is ſubject to devaſtation; and, if they continue, they muſt partake of the common calamity. It is not the place of any man's nativity, but of his habitation, that ſubjects him to reprize; for the law doth not conſider ſo much where he was born, as where he lives: therefore, if letters of reprizal ſhould be awarded againſt the ſubjects of the duke of Tuſcany, and a native of Florence, but denizened or living in England, ſhould have a ſhip on a voyage for Leghorn, if in ſuch caſe a capture be made of this ſhip, it is not lawful, nor can the ſame be made prize.

There are certain perſons, as well as ſhips and goods, that are exempted or privileged from reprizals; ſuch as ambaſſadors and their retinue; travellers through a country, ſtaying but a little while there; eccleſiaſtical perſons, &c. And a merchant of another place than againſt which reprizals are granted, although the factor of his goods were of that place, is not ſubject to reprizals. Molloy Jur. Marit. 21.

Where ſhips are driven into port by ſtreſs of weather, they have an exemption from the law of reprizals, according to common right; but by the laws of England it is ſaid to be otherwiſe, unleſs expreſsly provided for in the writ or commiſſion: and, if ſuch ſhip flies from his own country to avoid confiſcation, or for ſome other fault, and is driven to by ſtreſs of weather, ſhe may then become ſubject to be prize. But it is unlawful to make ſeizure of ſhip for reprizal in any ports, but in that prince's who awarded the reprizals, or his againſt whom the ſame are iſſued; the ports of other princes or ſtates are not to be diſturbed, but be peaceably maintained.

If a ſhip, having letters of marque or reprizal, ſhall take the ſhips and goods of that nation againſt whom they are awarded, and bring the ſame into a neuter port, the owners may there claim and ſeize her; or the admiral may make reſtitution, according to law, of the ſhip's goods to the owners, and the captives to their liberty; for that the ſame ought firſt to have been brought infra præſidia of that prince or ſtate, by whoſe ſubjects they were taken: and, if it be not ſo done, it has been reſolved, that ſuch ſhips cannot become lawful prize, nor are the owners of ſuch a caption diveſted of their property. Trin. 17 Car. I. in B. R. Marſh's Rep.

When any ſhip that hath letters of reprize attacks a veſſel, and ſhe refuſes to yield, ſhe may be aſſaulted and entered; and if it falls out, that by accident ſome of thoſe which make reſiſtance are ſlain, the fault will be at their own doors, for hindering the execution of what is legal and granted by authority. But in caſe a letter of marque ſhall knowingly take a ſhip and goods belonging to another nation, againſt whom the commiſſion is not awarded, but of ſome other ſtate in amity, this amounts to piracy; whereupon the offenders will incur a forfeiture of their veſſel, &c. Roll. Abr. 530. Though if ſuch letters of marque be aſſigned over to another perſon, who takes any ſuch ſhip or goods of another nation, on a preſumption that it belonged to the right of him, againſt whom reprizals are granted: here, if the ſufferers recover their goods and ſhip, yet the captors are not to be puniſhed criminally, nor the grantees of the letters patents civilly. The captors nevertheleſs may not be excuſed from anſwering the damages, but the grantees are excuſable both as to that and puniſhment, unleſs they are privy to the caption: it is like unto the caſe of an officer arreſting a wrong perſon, he is liable to anſwer the damage to the party arreſted, but not the perſon that employed him. Stat. 4 Hen. V. cap. 14. Sea Laws 470.

A perſon

A perſon who had letters of marque in the Dutch war, took an Oſtender inſtead of a Dutch ſhip, and brought her into harbour, and was proſecuted for damage, &c. And one Broom, by letters of marque, &c. under others, having taken a French ſhip at ſea, he carried the ſame into Africa, and the admiralty there condemned her as prize; afterwards he ſold her, and applied the money to his own uſe, and then, coming into England, he was ſued in the admiralty to give an account, and ſentence was given againſt him; though he appealed for a prohibition, but it was denied. 1 Lev. 248. 1 Salk. 32.

A ſhip being lawfully taken and brought into port, the captor muſt exhibit all his ſhip-papers and captive mariners to be examined, in order to adjudication; 'till when, and the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken; nor may the captain permit any embezzlement of the lading, or ſell, barter, or diſpoſe of any part, without commiſſion, for the king hath a proportion in all prizes [ſee PRIZES]: and the common profits of prizes are to be equally divided among all the ſhips preſent, and not be ſolely to the captor; ſo that if letters of reprizal are granted to two ſhips, and they happen both of them at ſea to meet a prize, and the one attacks and enters her, by means whereof ſhe becomes conqueror, although the other did nothing in the engagement, he hath a right to an equal diſtribution with the captor, becauſe the preſence of the other veſſel, armed and prepared for battle, becomes a terror, and will occaſion a ſhip the ſooner to yield. 3 Eliz. cap. 5. 2 Leon. Rep. 182.

If the caption of any ſhip or goods be by men of war, the property will immediately be in the captors; except it be loſt again, and the ſhip or goods are recovered by the perſons from whom they were taken, or be in battle regained. And, by the law of nations, the dominion of the things taken by thoſe to whom letters of marque are granted, become the captors, 'till the debt and coſts, that is, the original damage and ſubſequent charges are ſatisfied; which being done, the reſidue ought to be reſtored: ſo the Venetians uſed their equity, having taken the ſhips of Genoa; they did not ſpoil any of the lading, but preſerved the ſame very carefully, until the debt was paid; and then they made reſtitution of the things entirely, without diminution. Molloy, 23.

In caſe the king of England ſhould be in enmity with the States of Holland, and one of their ſhips of war takes an Engliſh merchant-man, and afterwards another ſhip of war of England meets the Dutch ſhip and his prize, and regains the ſame, there reſtitution is commonly made, the owners paying the ſalvage: ſo where the prize is recovered by a friend in amity, or comes into his ports, reſtitution is to be made. And the taking of ſhips and goods by force and arms is ſo odious, that if, by any poſſibility, the right owners may have reſtitution, the ſame hath been granted. Ibid. 6, 7.

Where, for the fault, perhaps, of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltleſs become liable (if taken) for ſatisfaction; but ſuch party ought to have contribution by the law of England, as when one is put to the whole burden, and more are bound to do one thing. Though when depredations have happened here to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, our kings have often iſſued commiſſions to enquire of the ſame, and awarded ſatisfaction: and, upon the petition of ſome merchants of Genoa, who complained againſt the inhabitants of the iſle of Guernſey for a depredation, in taking away and detaining their merchandize and goods to a conſiderable value, out of a ſhip wrecked by tempeſt near the ſaid iſle; on this a commiſſion was granted, by which the commiſſioners were impowered to puniſh the offenders, and make reſtitution and ſatisfaction for the damages ſuſtained. For as the Engliſh ſubjects may have their goods by way of reprize, for the ſatisfaction of a debt from foreigners, ſo they may have the benefit of theſe commiſſions, to make themſelves whole out of the eſtates of the offenders. Pat. 26 Edw. III. See ſtat. 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4.

But he that will ſue to have reſtitution in England for goods taken at ſea, muſt prove that the ſovereign of the party was in amity with the king of England, &c. and letters of reprizal make no war, or enmity between nations. 22 Edw. III.

MASTERS of SHIPS. See our article COMMANDERS of SHIPS, containing ſomething curious relating to the diſcovery of the LONGITUDE at ſea. See alſo LONGITUDE.

Mercatorial laws and uſages relating thereto.

The maſter of a ſhip or veſſel, is to be choſen by the part owners in proportion to their concerns, not by the majority; and that man which is moſt able, is to be preferred. As the whole charge of the veſſel and lading are committed to the maſter, the owners ſhould be very careful who they admit to be commander of their ſhip; and he ought to be a perſon of honeſty, as well as ability and experience.

The law looks upon a maſter as an officer, who muſt give an account for whatever he has under his care, and on failure to render ſatisfaction; therefore, if any misfortune happens by the negligence, wilfulneſs, or ignorance of himſelf or his mariners, he muſt be anſwerable for it. As ſoon as goods and merchandize are laden aboard the ſhip, whether ſhe be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the ſeas, he that is maſter is chargeable therewith; and, if the ſame be there loſt or purloined, or ſuſtain any damage, either in the haven or port before, or upon the ſeas after ſhe is in her voyage, he muſt anſwer the damage; for the very lading of the goods on board the ſhip doth ſubject the maſter to anſwer the ſame. Hob. Rep. 11. Molloy Jur. Marit. 197.

A merchant ſends goods aboard a ſhip, and the maſter having ſigned his bills of lading for the ſame, the goods were ſtowed; but in the night divers perſons, under pretence that they were preſs-maſters, entered the ſhip and robbed her of thoſe goods and merchandize; and, in an action brought by the merchant againſt the maſter of the ſhip, it was made a queſtion, whether he ſhould anſwer for it? And it was alledged on his part, that there was no default or negligence in him; for he had a ſufficient guard, the goods were all locked up under hatches, and that the thieves came on the pretence aforeſaid and robbed the ſhip, and he could not have prevented the ſame: but it was notwithſtanding adjudged, that, as maſter, he muſt at his peril ſee that all things are forth-coming that were delivered to him, let what accident will happen (the act of God or an enemy only excepted) and from fire, thieves, and the like, he is obliged to anſwer, and is in the nature of a common carrier; though it is at the merchant's election to charge either the maſter or the owners, or both, at his pleaſure, but he can have but one ſatisfaction, Hil. 23 Car. II. B. R. 2 Lev. 69. See alſo 1 Mod. 85.

Where the maſter is ſubject to anſwer damage, is generally to be underſtood in ſuch caſes, where the lading was brought abroad either by his conſent or his deputed ſervant's; for any other, or ſuch goods, as ſhall be ſecretly brought in not being entered in his deputed ſervant's book, or in the bills of lading, the maſter ſhall not be compelled to ſee forth-coming; unleſs it be ſuch things as the parties bring into the ſhip about them, as cloaths, money, or the like, which being ſeldom entered, yet commonly are viſible, and the maſter by law is reſponſible for them. So likewiſe if a maſter forewarn a paſſenger to keep his goods, and that he will no way take care of them, and, if they be loſt, or purloined by the ſhip's crew, he will not be obliged to ſee them forth-coming; here the maſter is not held anſwerable in caſe of a loſs, eſpecially if there be any thing of an agreement concerning it. Molloy, 215, 216.

But, if goods ſhall be ſent aboard a ſhip, and the maſter ſhall appoint a cabbin for the ſame, and deliver the key thereof to the lader, and tell him he will not be anſwerable if a loſs happens, yet, if the goods are ſtole, he muſt make ſatisfaction. And if a maſter ſhall receive goods at any kay, or ſend his boat for them, and they happen to be loſt, he ſhall likewiſe anſwer both by the maritime and common law. Moor's Rep. Trin. 25 Eliz. Moll, 216, 198.

If a maſter commits any offence wilfully, or through negligence, he ſhall be anſwerable to his owners, who may compel him to make ſatisfaction for the damages, and, in ſuch caſe, they may ſue ſeparately: ſo, alſo, if the ſhip hath earned freights, and ſome of the owners have received their parts, and the reſt have not, they may bring an action for their ſhare, without joining with the others. Hil. 26 and 27 Car. II. And, when goods are tranſported for hire, and no contract is made with the proprietors of the ſhip, there the maſter is chargeable for the goods in reſpect of his wages; and the owners are ſo in reſpect of their freight, that they receive for the carriage thereof. Per Holt chief juſtice.

It is ſaid, That, where goods are once delivered to a maſter, the cargo is not ſubject to be attached in his hands; for they are in law, as it were, bailed to the ſhip, until the freight and all other charges are paid. And it has been held, That, as the maſter or owners of a ſhip may have an action for the freight, either the one or the other are anſwerable, where goods are damaged in a ſhip; but, in caſe there are ſeveral owners, and one diſſents from the voyage, he ſhall not be liable to any action afterwards for a miſcarriage, &c. Comberb. Rep. 116.

If goods are ſo embezzled or damnified, that the ſeamen or mariners muſt anſwer, here the owners and maſters are to deduct the amount of the damage out of their freight to the merchants, and the maſter ſhall deduct it out of the wages of the mariners: for, though freight is the mother of wages, it is alſo the very father of damage; and, before a mariner can claim his wages out of what the ſhip hath earned, the ſhip muſt be acquitted from the damage that the merchant hath ſuſtained by the negligence or fault of the mariners: and the reaſon is, for that, the goods being obliged to anſwer the freight, ſo the freight and ſhip are tacitly engaged to clear the damage; and, when that is done, the mariners ſhall then be let into their wages. Molloy, 212.

The law doth impute the offences committed by mariners, or if done by paſſengers aboard the ſhip, or others, to be the negligence of the maſter, to make him liable; and, were it otherwiſe, the merchant would be in a very dangerous condition: and further reaſons why he ought to be anſwerable for his men are, becauſe the mariners are of his own chuſing, and under

owners. Redemption is a redemption by the maſter, and gives ſecurity for the payment of the money agreed, by ſubjecting his perſon as a pawn or pledge; ſo that he has, as it were, paid for the goods. This power of redemption is not founded on the Rhodian laws, or the laws of Oleron, but ariſes from the cuſtom and law of nations, and the ſame cuſtom or law, gives the maſter, in this caſe, an intereſt in the ſhip and goods. See OLERON LAWS and RHODIAN LAWS. Here Holt chief juſtice interrupted him, and ſaid, We are not now upon the merits of the cauſe, for that is not before us upon this motion.

It was agreed by the whole court, that no prohibition ſhould be granted in this caſe.

Holt chief juſtice ſaid, You come too ſoon for a prohibition, before appearance, and a libel filed, for you are not yet in court. If this proceſs be an illegal proceſs, and not juſtifiable by the rules of their law, you may take your remedy by an action of treſpaſs or replevin. The caſe of Sands and Sir Joſiah Child was on an action upon the ſtatute of Rich. II. and not on a prohibition, as was ſuggeſted.

We cannot try the legality of the proceſs upon a motion. If it come before us on an action of treſpaſs, we ſhall then judge both of the legality of the proceſs and the power of the maſter. If a replevin or an action of treſpaſs be brought, and there be a juriſdiction, we muſt determine whether what was done was legally done or no, upon whatſoever law it is grounded, whether eccleſiaſtical, maritime, the law of nations, or whether [H. J.] It ſeems very juſt and reaſonable in this caſe, that the owners of the goods ought to pay the redemption. If a pirate ſhould take the ſhip and goods, and the maſter redeem them, the owners ſhall make him ſatisfaction; and then much more in this caſe when taken by an enemy.

When the maſter makes a compoſition for the benefit of the owners, it is highly reaſonable that he ſhould be indemnified. The whole ſhip and goods would have been prize, if he had not made this compoſition; therefore, where there is an inſtant danger of loſing ſhip and goods (as in this caſe, when they were under the capture and power of the enemy) and no hopes of ſaving them then appears (though afterwards it may happen that the ſhip may be reſcued on freſh purſuit) cannot the maſter make ſuch an agreement as this, as well as he may throw part of the goods overboard, in caſe of a tempeſt, to ſave the reſt? The maſter has the cuſtody and care of the ſhip and goods: ſuppoſing then that the maſter has ſuch a power of compounding, the goods then remain to him as a ſecurity to him, and he may detain them 'till payment, as he may for freight. But then it is to be conſidered, whether when he has once delivered them to the owner, or to his uſe, he has not parted with his ſecurity, and has no way to come at them again, as it is in caſe of freight? Theſe things are conſiderable, if we go into the merits of the cauſe; but, that not being before us, I give no opinion therein.

Powell juſtice. This proceſs being only to compel the parties to appear, you come too ſoon for a prohibition before libel. We cannot determine the legality of the proceſs in this manner: if that court has a power in any caſe to proceed againſt the goods, and to ſeize them on proceſs, we ought not to grant a prohibition; for how does it appear to us, but that this proceſs is awarded in ſuch a caſe, wherein it lawfully may? As to the merits, it ſeems very reaſonable, that the maſter ſhould have power to make ſuch a redemption, as he may throw part overboard in a tempeſt, to ſave the reſt. And here the goods ſeem to remain in the nature of a pawn to the maſter, to ſecure the payment; and if the maſter, by delivering out of the goods, has loſt his intereſt therein, and ſo the ſeizure illegal, yet we cannot determine that on the return of the proceſs before libel: you may plead that matter there, but we cannot take notice that the proceſs is illegal; if it be, you have your remedy.

Gould agreed; Powis abſent. Lord Raymond, vol. ii. p. 931 to 934.

Clay verſus Snelgrave.

The defendant, as executrix to the maſter of a ſhip, libelled in the admiralty court for the wages owing to the teſtator by the owner. Upon which the plaintiff, to have a prohibition, ſuggeſted the ſtatute of 15 Rich. II. cap. 3. that the admiral court ſhall not have cognizance of contracts made upon the land, and ſhews this contract to have been made upon the land, &c. And this caſe was ſeveral times moved by Sir Bartholomew Shower and Mr. Acherley, for his prohibition, as well in Michaelmas, Hilary, and Eaſter terms laſt paſt, as in this preſent term: and it was oppoſed by Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall: and the counſel for the prohibition argued, That prohibitions are grantable de jure, and are not diſcretionary in the court. Raym. 3, 4. That the caſe, in Winch. Rep. 8. was the firſt caſe where a prohibition was denied in caſe of a ſuit by mariners for their wages in the admiralty court; and the denial was grounded upon compaſſionate reaſons, becauſe they were poor men, and becauſe there they might join in action, but here they muſt ſever; but the ſaid caſe is contrary to the reaſon and grounds of the law; for where the contract is made upon the land, though the ſervice was done upon the ſea, it is out of the juriſdiction of the admiralty; and ſo vice verſa, if the ſervice was done upon the land, and the contract upon the ſea. 12 Co. 79, 80. Stanf. 51. b. Hob. 212. A conſultation is always denied in caſe of a ſuit by mariners, if there is a charter-party: and the ſealing of a writing cannot make any difference in reaſon. Raym. 3. A prohibition granted where the maſter libelled alone. Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall è contra for the defendant ſaid, That the caſe of mariners was now ſettled, and ought not to be ſtirred; but that the great reaſon why they are permitted to ſue there is, the ſhip is the debtor, and, by the law of the admiralty, they may attach her, which they cannot do by the common law; and in the admiralty court they may all join in ſuit, whereas, by the common law, they muſt bring ſeveral actions. That the caſe of the maſter is not different, for the ſhip is ſecurity to him, and he is but a mariner, and his wages are wages at ſea. But, however, where the maſter dies in the voyage, as he did in this caſe, there can be no reaſon to exclude his executors from ſuing in the admiralty, becauſe he had no opportunity of bringing his wages to account with the owners.

And in 2 Ventr. 181. Alliſon verſ. Marſh, the purſer, though an officer of the ſhip, was allowed to ſue for his wages in the admiralty. And in 2 Keb. 779. Pl. 6. Rex verſus Pike, a prohibition was denied, where the maſter and mariners joined in a ſuit in the admiralty for their wages. [But Holt ſaid, That a prohibition ought to have been granted quoad in the ſaid caſe.] And he cited a caſe, Hil. 27 and 28 Car. II. C. B. between Cooker and Older, where Atkins and Ellis juſtices were of opinion, That a prohibition ought to be granted, to the ſuit in the admiralty court by a maſter of a ſhip for his wages; but North chief juſtice ſaid, and Wyndham juſtice held the contrary opinion. But Holt chief juſtice ſaid, That it is an indulgence that the courts at Weſtminſter permit mariners to ſue for their wages in the admiralty court, becauſe they may all join in ſuit; and it is grounded upon the principle, Quod communis error faciat jus; but they will not extend it to the maſter of the ſhip, eſpecially if he was maſter at the beginning of the voyage here in England, and the contract was made with him here. Poſſibly, if the maſter of a ſhip died in the voyage, and another man took upon him the charge of the ſhip upon the ſea, ſuch caſe might be different, as in the caſe of Groſſwick verſus Louthiſly, where it was held in this court lately, That, if a ſhip was hypothecated, and money borrowed upon her at Amſterdam, upon the voyage, he who lent the money may ſue in the admiralty for it; and this court granted a conſideration in the ſaid caſe. But in another caſe, where the money was borrowed upon the ſhip before the voyage, the King's Bench granted a prohibition, and the parties acquieſced under it. There are many precedents, in the court of admiralty, of ſuits by the mariners for their wages, but none for the maſter of the ſhip. And the caſes differ; for the mariners contract upon the credit of the ſhip, and the maſter upon the credit of the owners of the ſhip, of whom generally he is one.

The opinion of lord Hobart, That, where there is matter of property to be tried, a prohibition ſhould be granted, is a little too hard. Gould juſtice agreed with Holt, and ſaid, He was of opinion that prohibitions were grantable of right, though it had been controverted in his time. To which Holt chief juſtice ſaid, that Hale chief juſtice, and Wyndham juſtice, held prohibitions to be diſcretionary in all caſes; but Kelynge chief juſtice was of the contrary opinion: and he ſaid, He did not eſteem them to be matter of right. Then Mr. Northey moved, That the court would compel the plaintiff to put in bail to the action to be brought for the wages at common law, or otherwiſe deny the prohibition; which, he ſaid, had been done often. Holt chief juſtice confeſſed, That the court had ſometimes interpoſed, and procured bail to be given; but it was by conſent, and in caſe of the proprietor himſelf: but, in regard that in this caſe the plaintiff was a purchaſer without notice, there was no reaſon: and a prohibition was granted. Lord Raymond, page 576.

MATHEMATICS. We ſhall not enter into the origin of this ſcience of ſciences, nor attempt, under this ſingle head, to convey a competent knowledge of any of the ſeveral branches whereof it conſiſts; becauſe that would be only to amuſe and deceive our readers, and make them believe they receive great benefit, when they obtain only a very ſuperficial and confuſed notion of they know not what. Wherefore we ſhall, at preſent, content ourſelves with giving the man of buſineſs ſuch an idea of theſe ſtudies, that he may be able to judge what parts may be neceſſary for him to purſue, and what to let alone; which is the view in touching on this article at all.

In all ages and countries, where learning hath prevailed, thoſe ſciences have been eſteemed as the moſt conſiderable branch of it. Amongſt the ſciences that are reckoned to be the ſeven liberal arts, four are mathematical, to wit, arithmetic, muſic, geometry, and aſtronomy.

It is ſtrange, that, notwithſtanding their uſefulneſs and excellency, a general ſupineneſs and indifferency to theſe ſtudies ſhould of a ſudden ſpread itſelf among us; when, within theſe 30 years, nothing has been more faſhionable; which

muſt be owing to an averſion in the greateſt part of mankind to ſerious attention and cloſe reaſoning, or to their not comprehending ſufficiently the neceſſity and great utility of theſe in the other parts of uſeful learning: or, perhaps, from an opinion that this knowledge requires a peculiar genius and turn of head, which few are ſo happy as to be born with. For theſe, and probably ſome other reaſons, this ſtudy begins to be as generally neglected as it was warmly cultivated, and is now regarded only by ſome few, whoſe genius and curioſity have prompted them to it, or who have been forced upon it by it's immediate ſubſerviency to ſome particular art or employment.

We think, therefore, it may be of ſome public ſervice to ſhew, that, of all parts of human knowledge, the mathematics, for the improvement of the mind, for their aſſiſtance and ſubſerviency to other arts, and their uſefulneſs to the commonwealth, and it's trade, commerce, and navigation, deſerve ſtill to be highly encouraged, and univerſally ſtudied.

The advantages which accrue to the mind from this kind of knowledge, conſiſt chiefly in theſe things: (1.) In accuſtoming it to attention. (2.) In giving it a habit of cloſe and demonſtrative reaſoning. (3.) In freeing it from prejudice, credulity, and ſuperſtition.

1. Theſe ſtudies make the mind attentive to the objects which it conſiders. This they do by entertaining it with a great variety of truths, which are delightful and evident, but not obvious. Truth is the ſame thing to the underſtanding as muſic to the ear, and beauty to the eye. The moſt part of other ſciences conſiſting only of probable reaſonings, the mind has not where to fix; and, wanting ſufficient principles to purſue it's ſearches upon, gives them over as impoſſible. And youth is generally ſo much more delighted with mathematical knowledge than with the unpleaſant taſks that are ſometimes impoſed upon them, that many have been reclaimed from idleneſs and neglect of learning, and have acquired a habit of thinking, aſſiduity, and attention; qualities which we ought early to beget in their deſultory and roving minds.

The ſecond advantage which the mind reaps from this knowledge, is a habit of clear, demonſtrative, and methodical reaſoning. We are formed by nature to learn more by imitation than by precept: and we believe, in that reſpect, reaſoning is much like other arts (as dancing, ſinging, &c.) acquired by practice. By habituating ourſelves to reaſon cloſely about quantity, we acquire a habit of doing ſo in other things *. It is ſurprizing to reflect, what ſuperficial, inconſequential reaſonings, ſatisfy the moſt part of mankind. A witticiſm, a jeſt, a ſimilè, or a quotation of an author, paſſes for a mighty argument with too many: with ſuch things as theſe, are the moſt part of authors ſtuffed; and, from thoſe weighty premiſes, they infer their concluſions.

* 'He that has to do, ſays Mr. Locke, with young ſcholars, 'eſpecially in mathematics, may perceive how their minds 'open by degrees, and how it is EXERCISE alone that opens 'them. Sometimes they will ſtick a long time at a part 'of a demonſtration, not for want of will and application, 'but really for want of perceiving the connexion of two 'ideas; that, to one whoſe underſtanding is more exer-'ciſed, is as viſible as any thing can be. The ſame would 'be with a grown man beginning to ſtudy mathematics: 'the underſtanding, for want of uſe, often ſticks in a very 'plain way; and he himſelf that is ſo puzzled, when he 'comes to ſee the connexion, wonders what it was he 'ſtuck at, in a caſe ſo plain.

'I have mentioned mathematics, as a way to ſettle in the 'mind an habit of reaſoning cloſely and in train; not that 'I think it neceſſary, that all men ſhould be deep mathe-'maticians, but that, having got the way of reaſoning, 'which that ſtudy neceſſarily brings the mind to, they 'might be able to transfer it to other parts of know-'ledge, as they ſhall have occaſion. For, in all ſorts of 'reaſoning, every ſingle argument ſhould be managed as 'a mathematical demonſtration; the connexion and depen-'dance of ideas ſhould be followed, 'till the mind is brought 'to the ſource, on which it bottoms, and obſerves the co-'herence all along, though, in proofs of probability, one 'ſuch train is not enough to ſettle the judgment, as in de-'monſtrative knowledge.

'Where a truth is made out by one demonſtration, there 'needs no farther enquiry: but in probabilities, where 'there wants demonſtration to eſtabliſh the truth beyond 'doubt, there it is not enough to trace one argument to 'it's ſource, and obſerve it's ſtrength and weakneſs, but all 'the arguments, after having been ſo examined on both 'ſides, muſt be laid in balance, one againſt another, and, 'upon the whole, the underſtanding determine it's aſſent.

'This is a way of reaſoning the underſtanding ſhould be 'accuſtomed to, which is ſo different from what the illi-'terate are uſed to, that even learned men oftentimes ſeem 'to have very little, or no notion of it. Nor is it to be 'wondered, ſince the way of diſputing in the ſchools leads 'them quite away from it, by inſiſting on one topical argu-'ment, by the ſucceſs of which the truth or falſhood of 'the queſtion is to be determined, and victory adjudged to 'the opponent or defendant; which is all one, as if one 'ſhould balance an account by one ſum, charged and diſ-'charged, when there are an hundred others to be taken 'into conſideration.

'This, therefore, it would be well, if men's minds were 'accuſtomed to, and that early; that they might not erect 'their opinions upon one SINGLE VIEW, when ſo many 'others are requiſite to make up the account, and muſt 'come into the reckoning, before a man can form a right 'judgment. This would enlarge their minds, and give a 'due freedom to their underſtandings, that they might not 'be led into error, by preſumption, lazineſs, or precipi-'tancy; for I think no body can approve ſuch a conduct 'of the underſtanding, as ſhould miſlead it from truth, 'though it be ever ſo much in faſhion to make uſe of it.

'To this, perhaps, it will be objected, that to manage the 'underſtanding, as I propoſe, would require every man to 'be a ſcholar, and to be furniſhed with all the materials of 'knowledge, and exerciſed in all the ways of reaſoning. 'To which I anſwer, that it is a ſhame for thoſe that have 'time, and the means to attain knowledge, to want any 'helps or aſſiſtance for the improvement of their under-'ſtandings, that are to be got, and to ſuch I would be 'thought here chiefly to ſpeak. Thoſe, methinks, who, 'by the induſtry and parts of their anceſtors, have been 'ſet free from a conſtant drudgery to their backs and their 'bellies, ſhould beſtow ſome of their ſpare time on their 'heads, and open their minds, by ſome trials and eſſays, 'in all the ſorts and matters of reaſoning.

'I have before mentioned mathematics, wherein algebra 'gives new helps and views to the underſtanding. If I 'propoſe theſe, it is not, as I ſaid, to make every man a 'thorough mathematician, or a deep algebraiſt, but yet I 'think the ſtudy of them is of infinite uſe, even to grown 'men; firſt, by experimentally convincing them, that, to 'make any one REASON WELL, it is not enough to have 'parts wherewith he is ſatisfied, and that ſerve him well 'enough in his ordinary courſe. A man in thoſe ſtudies 'will ſee, that, however good he may think his under-'ſtanding, yet in many things, and thoſe very viſible, it 'may fail him. This would take off that preſumption 'which moſt men have of themſelves in this part, and 'they would not be ſo apt to think their minds wanted no 'helps to enlarge them, that there could be nothing added 'to the acuteneſs and penetration of their underſtandings.

'The ſtudy of mathematics would ſhew them the neceſſity 'there is, in reaſoning, to ſeparate all the diſtinct ideas and 'ſee the habitudes that all thoſe, concerned in the preſent 'enquiry, have to one another, and to lay by thoſe, 'which relate not to the propoſition in hand, and wholly to 'leave them out of the reckoning. This is that, which, 'in other ſubjects, beſides quantity, is what is abſolutely 'requiſite to juſt reaſoning, though in themſelves it is not 'ſo eaſily obſerved, nor ſo carefully practiſed. In thoſe 'parts of knowledge, where it is thought demonſtration 'has nothing to do, men reaſon as it were in the lump; 'and if, upon a ſummary view, or upon a partial con-'ſideration, they can raiſe the appearance of a probability, 'they uſually reſt content; eſpecially if it be in a diſpute, 'where every little ſtraw is laid hold on, and every thing 'that can but be drawn in any way, to give colour to the 'argument, is advanced with oſtentation. But that mind 'is not in a poſture to find the truth, that does not diſtinctly 'take all the parts aſunder, and, omitting what is not at 'all to the point, draw a concluſion from the reſult of all 'the particulars, which any way influence it. There is 'another no leſs uſeful habit to be got, by an application 'to mathematical demonſtrations, and that is, of uſing the 'mind to a long train of conſequences.' Thus Mr. Locke.

This effeminacy of mankind, in being perſuaded where they are delighted, have made them the ſport of orators, poets, and men of wit. Thoſe lumina orationis are indeed good diverſion for the fancy, but not the proper buſineſs of the underſtanding. Even formal logical precepts are more uſeful. But, in the ſearch of truth, an imitation of the method of the geometers will carry a man further than all the dialectical rules. Their analyſis is the proper model we ought to form ourſelves upon, and imitate in the diſpoſition and gradual progreſs of our enquiries; and even he who is ignorant of the nature of mathematical analyſis, uſes a method ſomething analogous to it. The method of the geometers in demonſtrating truths already diſcovered, viz. by definitions of words agreed upon, by axioms, and propoſitions that have been already demonſtrated, is practicable in other ſubjects, though not to the ſame perfection, the natural want of evidence in the things themſelves not admitting it, but it is imitable in a very great degree. One who has been trained up in the ſeveral branches of thoſe ſciences, which they have cultivated, will hardly bear with the confuſion of other ſciences, but endeavour to reform them.

Thirdly, Mathematical knowledge adds a manly vigour to the mind, frees it from prejudice, credulity, and ſuperſtition. It does this two ways, 1ſt, By accuſtoming us to examine, and not to take things upon truſt. 2dly, By giving us a clear and extenſive knowledge of the ſyſtem of the world; which, as it creates in us a profound reverence for it's great author, ſo it frees us from the mean and narrow thoughts, which ignorance and ſuperſtition are apt to beget. How great an enemy mathematics are to ſuperſtition, appears from this, that, in thoſe countries where Romiſh prieſts exerciſe their barbarous tyranny over the minds of men, aſtronomers, who are fully perſuaded of the motion of the earth, dare not ſpeak out: but, though the inquiſition may extort

a recantation, the Pope and a general council will not find themſelves able to perſuade to the contrary opinion. Perhaps this may have given occaſion to a calumnious ſuggeſtion, as if mathematics were an enemy to religion, which is a ſcandal thrown both on the one and the other; for truth can never be an enemy to true religion, which appears always to the beſt advantage, when it is moſt examined. On the contrary, theſe ſtudies are friends to religion; inaſmuch as they charm the rational paſſion, reſtrain the impetuoſity of imagination, and purge the mind from error and prejudice. Vice is error, confuſion and falſe reaſoning, and all truth is more or leſs oppoſite to it.

What we have ſaid, may ſerve to recommend mathematics for acquiring a vigorous conſtitution of mind; for which purpoſe they have been experienced as uſeful, as exerciſe is towards the health and ſtrength of the body.

We ſhall now touch upon their extent and uſefulneſs in other parts of knowledge. And here it might ſuffice to obſerve, that mathematics is the ſcience of quantity, or the art of reaſoning about things that are capable of more or leſs, and that the moſt part of the objects of our knowledge is ſuch; as matter, ſpace, number, time, motion, gravity, &c.—We have but imperfect ideas of things without quantity, and as imperfect a one of quantity itſelf without the help of mathematics. All the viſible works of nature are made in number, weight, and meaſure; therefore, to conſider them, we ought to underſtand arithmetic, geometry, and ſtatics: and, the greater advances we make in theſe arts, the more capable we are of conſidering, for all the uſeful purpoſes of life, ſuch things as are the ordinary objects of our conception. This will further appear from particulars.

1. If we conſider, to what perfection we know the courſes, periods, order, diſtances, and proportions of the ſeveral great bodies of the univerſe, that fall within our view, we ſhall have cauſe to admire the ſagacity and induſtry of the mathematicians, and the power of numbers and geometry well applied.

Let us conſider aſtronomy in it's infancy, or rather let us ſuppoſe it ſtill to begin; for inſtance, a colony of rude country people, tranſplanted into an iſland remote from the commerce of all mankind, without ſo much as the knowledge of the calendar, and the periods of the ſeaſons, without inſtruments to make obſervations, or any the leaſt notion of obſervations or inſtruments. When is it we could expect any of their poſterity ſhould arrive at the art of predicting an eclipſe? Not only ſo, but the art of calculating all eclipſes that are paſt or to come, for any number of years, which has proved of unſpeakable uſe and conſolation to mankind. When is it, we could ſuppoſe, that one of thoſe iſlanders, tranſported to any other place of the earth, ſhould be able, by the inſpection of the heavens, to find how much he were ſouth or north, eaſt or weſt of his own iſland? Though we know this may be, and is daily done, by what is known in aſtronomy, yet when we conſider the vaſt induſtry, ſagacity, multitude of obſervations, and other extrinſic things neceſſary for ſuch a ſublime piece of knowledge, one would be apt to pronounce it impoſſible, and never to be hoped for.

Now we are let ſo much into the knowledge of the machine of the univerſe, and motion of it's parts by the rules of this ſcience, perhaps the invention may ſeem eaſy. But when we reflect, what penetration and contrivance were neceſſary to lay the foundations of ſo great and extenſive an art, we cannot but admire it's inventors: as Thales Mileſius, who, as Diogenes Laërtius and Pliny ſay, firſt predicted eclipſes; and his ſcholar Anaximander Mileſius, who found out the globous figure of the earth, the equinoctial points, the obliquity of the ecliptic, the principles of gnomonics, and made the firſt ſphere or image of the heavens; and Pythagoras, to whom we owe the diſcovery of the true ſyſtem of the world, and order of the planets. Though it may be, they were aſſiſted by the Egyptians and Chaldeans. But, whoever they were that firſt made theſe bold ſteps in this noble art, they deſerve the praiſe and admiration of all future ages.

Though the induſtry of former ages had diſcovered the periods of the great bodies of the univerſe, and their true ſyſtem and order, and their orbits pretty near, yet was there one thing reſerved for the glory of this age, and the honour of the Engliſh nation, the grand ſecret of the whole machine; which, now it is diſcovered, proves to be (like the other contrivances of infinite wiſdom) ſimple and natural, depending upon the moſt known, and moſt common property of matter, viz. gravity. From this the incomparable Sir Iſaac Newton has demonſtrated the theories of all the bodies of the ſolar ſyſtem, of all the primary planets and their ſecondaries, and among others the moon, which ſeemed moſt averſe to numbers: and not only of the planets, the ſloweſt of which compleats it's period in leſs than half the age of man, but likewiſe of the comets, ſome of which it is probable ſpend more than 2000 years in one revolution about the ſun; for whoſe theory he laid ſuch a foundation, that after-ages, aſſiſted with more obſervation, are able to calculate their return. In a word, the preceſſion of the equinoctial points, the tides, the unequal vibration of pendulous bodies in different latitudes, &c. are no more a queſtion to thoſe, that have geometry enough to underſtand what he has delivered on theſe ſubjects: a perfection in philoſophy, that the boldeſt thinker durſt hardly have hoped; and, unleſs mankind turn barbarous, will continue the reputation of this nation, as long as the fabric of nature ſhall endure. After this, what is it we may not expect from geometry, joined to obſervation and experiments?

The next conſiderable object of nature we take to be LIGHT. How unſucceſsful enquiries are about this glorious body without the help of geometry, may appear from the empty and frivolous diſcoveries of a ſort of men, whom nothing will ſerve, forſooth, but the knowledge of the very eſſence and intimate cauſes of every thing: while, on the other hand, the geometers, not troubling themſelves with thoſe fruitleſs reſearches about the nature of light, have diſcovered two remarkable properties of it, in the reflection and refraction of it's beams: and from theſe, and their ſtraitneſs in other caſes, have invented the noble arts of OPTICS, CATOPTRICS, and DIOPTRICS; teaching us to manage this ſubtile body for the improvement of our knowledge, and uſeful purpoſes of life. They have likewiſe demonſtrated the cauſes of ſeveral celeſtial appearances, that ariſe from the inflection of it's beams, both in the heavenly bodies themſelves and other phænomena, as parhelia, the iris, &c. and by other experiments they have diſcovered the celerity of it's motions. And we know yet more ſurprizing properties of light, from the works of that ſuperlative philoſopher Sir Iſaac Newton.

The fluids which involve our earth, viz. air and water, are the next great and conſpicuous bodies, that nature preſents to our view: and it may be we know little of either, but what is owing to mechanics and geometry.

The two chief properties of air, it's gravity and elaſtic force, have been diſcovered by mechanical experiments. From thence the decreaſe of the air's denſity, according to the increaſe of the diſtance of the earth, has been demonſtrated by geometers, and confirmed by experiments of the ſubſidence of the mercury in the Torricellian experiment*. From this alſo, by aſſiſtance of geometry, they have determined the height of the atmoſphere, as far as it has any ſenſible denſity, which agrees exactly with another obſervation of the duration of the twilight. Air and water make up the object of the hydroſtatics, though denominated only from the latter, of which the principles were long ſince ſettled and demonſtrated by Archimedes, who has demonſtrated the cauſes of ſeveral ſurprizing phænomena of nature, depending only on the æquilibrium of fluids, and of ſolids ſwimming or ſinking therein. Here alſo the mathematicians conſider the different preſſures, reſiſtances, and celerities, of ſolids moved in fluids: whence they explain a great many appearances of nature, unintelligible to thoſe who are ignorant of geometry.

* A term frequently uſed among phyſical writers, in the phraſes, Torricellian tube, and Torricellian experiments, on account of the inventor Torricelli, a diſciple of the great Galileo.—The Torricellian tube is a glaſs tube about 3 feet long, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch diameter, whoſe upper orifice is hermetically ſealed. The Torricellian experiment is performed by filling the tube with mercury, then ſtopping the orifice with a finger, inverting the tube, and plunging that orifice in a veſſel of mercury.—This done, the finger is removed, and the tube ſuſtained perpendicularly to the ſurface of the mercury in the veſſel.—The conſequence is, that part of the mercury falls out of the tube into the veſſel, and there only remains enough in the tube to fill from 28 to 31 inches of it's capacity, above the ſurface of the ſtagnant mercury in the veſſel.—Thoſe 28, &c. inches of mercury are ſuſtained in the tube by the preſſure of the atmoſphere on the ſurface of the ſtagnant mercury; and according as that atmoſphere is more or leſs heavy, or as the winds, blowing upwards or downwards, heave up or depreſs the air, and ſo increaſe or diminiſh it's weight and ſpring, more or leſs mercury is ſuſtained from 28 inches to 31.—The Torricellian experiment makes what we now call the barometer.

If we deſcend to the animal kingdom, there we may diſcern the brighteſt ſtrokes of divine mechanics. Whether we conſider the animal œconomy in general, either in the internal motion and circulation of the juices forced through the ſeveral canals by the motion of the heart, or their external motions, and the inſtruments wherewith theſe are performed, we muſt reduce them to mechanical rules, and confeſs the neceſſity of the knowledge of mechanics, to underſtand them, or explain them to others. Borelli, in his excellent treatiſe De Motu Animalium; Steno, in his Myologiæ Specimen, and other mathematical men on the one hand, and the nonſenſical, unintelligible traſh, that the common writers on theſe ſubjects have filled their books with on the other, are ſufficient inſtances to ſhew, how neceſſary geometry is in ſuch ſpeculations.

The only organ of an animal body, whoſe ſtructure and manner of operations are fully underſtood, has been the only one, which the geometers have taken to their ſhare to conſider. It is incredible, how fillily the greateſt and ableſt phyſicians talked of the parts of the eye and their uſe, and of the modus viſionis, before Kepler, by his geometry, found it out,

out, and put it paſt diſpute, though they applied themſelves particularly to this, and valued themſelves on it: and Galen pretended an extraordinary divine commiſſion to treat of it. Notwithſtanding the full diſcovery hereof, ſome go on in copying their predeceſſors, and talk as ungeometrically as ever. It is true, we cannot reaſon ſo clearly of the internal motions of an animal body, as of the external, wanting ſufficient data and deciſive experiments: but what relates to the latter (as articulation, ſtructure, inſertion, and vires of the muſcles) is as ſubject to ſtrict mathematical diſquiſition, as any thing whatſoever; and, even in the theory of diſeaſes and their cures, thoſe who talk mechanically, talk moſt intelligibly. Which may be the reaſon for the opinion of the ancient phyſicians, that mathematics are neceſſary for the ſtudy of medicine itſelf, for which we might bring long quotations out of their works.

If one of the reaſons of the ancients for this was heretofore unfaſhionable, to wit, becauſe they thought a phyſician ſhould be able to know the ſituation and aſpects of the ſtars, which they believed had influence upon men and their diſeaſes (and poſitively to deny it, and ſay, that they have none at all, is the effect of want of obſervation *) we have a much better and undoubted one in it's room, viz. That mathematics are found to be the beſt inſtrument of promoting natural knowledge.

* See Dr. Mead on the Sun and Moon.

If alſo we conſider, not only the animal œconomy in general, but likewiſe the wonderful ſtructure of the different ſorts of animals, according to the different purpoſes for which they were deſigned; the various elements they inhabit, the ſeveral ways of procuring their nouriſhment, and propagating their kind; the different enemies they have, and accidents to which they are ſubject; here is ſtill a greater need of geometry. It is rare, that the qualities of an expert anatomiſt and ſkilful geometer meet in the ſame perſon. Such, however, have diſcovered a whole terra incognita of delightful knowledge, to employ their time and reward their induſtry.

As for the other two kingdoms, Borelli, and others mathematically turned, ſeem to reaſon very clearly of vegetation *: and Steno, another mathematician, has applied this part of learning very handſomely to foſſils, and ſome other parts of natural hiſtory. We ſhall add only one thing more, That if we conſider motion itſelf, the great inſtrument of the actions of bodies upon one another, the theory of it is entirely owing to the geometers; who have demonſtrated it's laws, both in hard and elaſtic bodies; ſhewed how to meaſure it's quantity, how to compound and reſolve the ſeveral forces by which bodies are agitated, and to determine the lines which thoſe compound forces make them deſcribe: of ſuch forces gravity, being the moſt conſtant and unerring, affords a great variety of uſeful knowledge †, in conſidering ſeveral motions that happen upon the earth, viz. as to the free deſcent of heavy bodies, the curve of projectiles, the deſcent and weight of heavy bodies when they lie on inclined planes, the theory of the motion of pendulous bodies, &c.

* See Dr Stephen Hales's Vegetable Statics.

† See Sir Iſaac Newton's works, and thoſe of his illuſtrators.

From what has been ſaid, we ſhall draw but one corollary, That a natural philoſopher, without mathematics, is a very odd ſort of a perſon that reaſons about things that have bulk, figure, motion, number, weight, &c. without arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, ſtatics, &c.*

* So wild and extravagant have been the notions of a great part of philoſophers, both ancient and modern, that it is hard to determine, whether they have been more diſtant in their ſentiments from truth, or from one another; or have not exceeded the fancies of the moſt fabulous writers, even poets and mythologiſts. This was owing to a precipitate proceeding in their enquiries, and a neglect of geometry and experiment; without the aſſiſtance of which, it is impoſſible the powers of natural agents ſhould be diſcovered.

The manner of philoſophizing, among the ancients, was to aſcribe to bodies certain arbitrary properties, ſuch as beſt ſerved their purpoſe in accounting for the phænomena of nature; from whence proceeded ſo many various ſects of philoſophers, every one aſſigning a different cauſe to the ſame appearance, as his particular genius and imagination led him.

The chief agreement, obſervable among moſt of them, conſiſts in this, viz. that they conceived all bodies, as compoſitions of air, earth, fire, and water, or ſome one or more of them, from whence theſe acquired the name of principles or elements, which they ſtill retain.

Epicurus advanced a little farther, and aſſerted, that tho', bodies conſiſted of ſome one or more of theſe, yet that they were not ſtrictly elements, but that theſe themſelves conſiſted of atoms; by an accidental concourſe of which (as they were moving through infinite ſpace in lines nearly parallel) all things received their form and manner of exiſtence (a).

(a) For the opinions of the ancient philoſophers, conſult Diogenes Laërtius, and Stanley's Lives.

Des Cartes has contrived an hypotheſis very different from the reſt: he ſets out with a ſuppoſition, that the univerſe at firſt was entirely full of matter; that from this matter, when firſt put in motion, there would neceſſarily be rubbed off (by the grinding of the ſeveral parts one againſt another) ſome particles ſufficiently fine to paſs through the hardeſt and moſt ſolid bodies, without meeting with any reſiſtance: of theſe conſiſts his materia ſubtilis, or materia primi elementi. Thoſe which did not ſo far loſe their firſt figure, as to come under the denomination of materia primi, or ſecundi elementi, he called materia tertii elementi; and maintained, that all the variety which appears in natural bodies, was owing to different combinations of thoſe elements.

He likewiſe ſuppoſes, that God created a certain quantity of motion, and aſſigned it to this maſs of matter; and that that motion (being once created) could no more be annihilated, without an omnipotent hand, than body itſelf: in conſequence of which he was obliged to teach, that the quantity of motion is always the ſame: ſo that, if all the men and animals in the world were moving, yet ſtill there would be no more motion than when they were at reſt, the motion which they had not, when at reſt, being transferred to the æther. So unaccountable are the notions of this great philoſopher, that it is ſurprizing his doctrine ſhould have met with ſuch univerſal reception, and have got ſo ſtrong a party of philoſophers on his ſide.

Des Cartes has been ſaid, by a late writer (a) to have joined, to his great genius an exquiſite ſkill in mathematics, and, be mixing geometry and phyſic together, to have given the world hopes of great improvements in the latter. But this writer ought to have conſidered, that what he looked upon in Des Cartes's book of Principles, as demonſtrations, are only illuſtrations, there not being a demonſtration from geometry in all his philoſophical works (b).

(a) Mr. Wotten, in his Reflections on Ancient and Modern Learning.

(b) See this ſubject diſcuſſed in Keil's Introduction to his Examination of Dr. Burnet's Theory.

The preſent method of philoſophizing, eſtabliſhed by Sir Iſaac Newton, is to find out the laws of nature by experiments and obſervations. To this, with a proper application of geometry, is owing the great advantage the preſent ſyſtem of philoſophy has over all the preceding ones, and the vaſt improvements it has received within the laſt age. It is, indeed, in vain to imagine, that a ſyſtem of natural philoſophy can be framed by any other method; for, without obſervations, it is impoſſible we ſhould diſcover the phænomena of nature; without experiments, we muſt be ignorant of the mutual actions of bodies; and, without geometry, we can never be certain whether the cauſes we aſſign be proportionate to the operations we would account for, as the various ſyſtems of philoſophy built on other foundations evidently ſhew.

This way of ſearching into nature was firſt propoſed by my lord Bacon, [ſee the article PHILOSOPHY,] proſecuted by the Royal Society, the Royal Academy at Paris, the Hon. Mr. Boyle, Sir Iſaac Newton, &c.

What wonderful advancement in the knowledge of nature may be made by this method of enquiry, when conducted by a genius equal to the work, will be beſt underſtood by conſidering the diſcoveries of that excellent philoſopher laſt mentioned.

To him it is principally owing, that we have now a rational ſyſtem of natural philoſophy; it is he, who, by purſuing the ſure and unerring method of reaſoning from experiment and obſervation, joined with the moſt profound ſkill in geometry, has carried his enquiries to the moſt minute and inviſible parts of matter, as well as to the largeſt and moſt remote bodies in the univerſe, and has eſtabliſhed a ſyſtem not ſubject to the uncertainty of a mere hypotheſis, but which ſtands upon the ſecure baſis of geometry itſelf.

Every body knows, that chronology and geography are indiſpenſible preparations for hiſtory: a relation of matter of fact being a very lifeleſs thing, without the circumſtances of time and place. Nor is it ſufficient for one, that would underſtand things thoroughly, that he knows the topography, that is, the name of the country, where ſuch a place lies, with thoſe of the near adjacent places, and how theſe lie in reſpect of one another; but it will become him likewiſe to underſtand the ſcientifical principles of the art: that is, to have a true idea of a place, we ought to know the relation it has to any other place, as to the diſtance and bearing, it's climate, heat, cold, length of days, &c. which things much enliven the reader's notion of the very action itſelf. Juſt ſo, it is neceſſary to know the doctrinal part of chronology, if a man would be thoroughly ſkilled in hiſtory, it being impoſſible without it to unravel the confuſion of hiſtorians. Dr. Halley, I think, has determined the day and hour of Julius Cæſar's landing in Britain, from the circumſtances of his relation. And it is well enough known, how great uſe our incomparable hiſtorian, Mr. Dodwell, has made of the calculated time of eclipſes, for ſettling the times of great events, which before were, as to this eſſential, circumſtances almoſt fabulous.

Both chronology and geography, and alſo the ſun and moon's motions, ſo far as they relate, not only to the conſtitution

of the calendar and year, are neceſſary to a divine, but in order to the right underſtanding of the ſcriptures: we have a remarkable inſtance of this within the preſent year, by the Rev. and learned Mr. John Kennedy, author of the New Scripture Chronology*.

* See the reverend author's New Scripture Chronology—And the Doctrine of Commenſurability, between the diurnal and annual motions, illuſtrated and confirmed by above a hundred calculations, which are all adjuſted to the meridian of Greenwich, and publiſhed to aſcertain the aſtronomical principles of the Pentateuch of Moſes.—The moſt accurate obſervations which can be made for the current year, & ſeq. are appealed to as the only proper teſt of their truth.
If this reverend and learned author's diſcovery ſhould prove true, it will be of unſpeakable ſervice to the cauſe of religion, and have a happy tendency to convince learned men of the divine authority of the ſcripture.—But this is beſide my province.

No body, we ſuppoſe, will queſtion the intereſt that mathematics have in painting, muſic, and architecture, which are all founded on numbers. Perſpective and the rules of light and ſhadows are owing to geometry and optics: and we think theſe two comprehend pretty near the whole art of painting, except decorum and ornaments; which are only a due obſervance of the hiſtory and circumſtances of the ſubject repreſented.
If mathematics had not reduced muſic to a regular ſyſtem, by contriving it's ſcales, it had been no art, but enthuſiaſtic rapture, left to the roving fancy of every practitioner. This appears by the extraordinary pains which the ancients have taken to fit numbers to three ſorts of muſic, the diatonic, chromatic, and inharmonic: which, if we conſider, with their nicety in diſtinguiſhing their ſeveral modes, we ſhall be apt to judge they had ſomething very fine in their muſic, at leaſt for moving the paſſions with ſingle inſtruments and voices.
But muſic had been imperfect ſtill, had not arithmetic ſtepped in once more, and Guido Aretinus, by inventing the temperament, and making the fifth falſe by a certain determined quantity, taught us to tune our organs, and intermix all the three kinds of the ancients, to which we owe all the regular and noble harmony of our modern muſic.
As for civil architecture (of military we ſhall ſpeak afterwards) there is hardly any part of mathematics, but is ſomeway ſubſervient to it. Geometry and arithmetic for the due meaſure of the ſeveral parts of a building, the plans, models, computation of materials, time and charges: for ordering right it's arches and vaults, that they may be both firm and beautiful: mechanics for it's ſtrength and firmneſs, tranſporting and raiſing materials: and optics for the ſymmetry and beauty. And no one ſhould aſſume the character of an architect, without a competent ſkill in all theſe. Vitruvius requires theſe and many more, for making a complete architect.
It muſt be acknowledged, that ſhould any one ſet up to practiſe in any of the aforementioned arts, furniſhed only with his mathematical rules, he would produce but very clumſy pieces. He that ſhould pretend to draw by the geometrical rules of perſpective, and compoſe muſic merely by his ſkill in harmonical numbers, would ſhew but aukward performances. In thoſe compoſed ſubjects, beſides the ſtiff rules, there muſt be fancy, genius, and habit. Nevertheleſs, theſe arts owe their being to mathematics, as laying the baſis of their theory, and affording them precepts, which, being once invented, are ſecurely relied upon by practitioners. Thus many deſign, that know not a tittle of the rules they practiſe by; and many, no more qualified in their way, compoſe muſic better, perhaps, than he could have done that invented the ſcale, and the numbers upon which their harmony is founded.
As mathematics laid the foundation of theſe arts, ſo they muſt improve them; and he that would invent, muſt be ſkilled in numbers. Beſides, it is fit a man ſhould know the true grounds and reaſons of what he ſtudies: and he that does ſo, will certainly practiſe in his art with greater judgment and variety, where the ordinary rules fail him.
We ſhall now proceed to ſhew the more immediate uſefulneſs of mathematics in civil affairs. To begin with arithmetic; it were an endleſs taſk to relate it's ſeveral uſes in public and private buſineſs. The regulation and quick diſpatch of both ſeem entirely owing to it. The nations that want it are altogether barbarous, as ſome Americans, who can hardly reckon above 20. And I believe it would go near to ruin the trade of the nation, were the eaſy practice of arithmetic aboliſhed: for example, were the merchants and tradeſmen obliged to make uſe of no other than the Roman way of notation by letters, inſtead of our preſent. And, if we ſhould feel the want of our arithmetic in the eaſieſt calculations, how much more in thoſe, that are ſomething harder; as intereſt, ſimple and compound, annuities, logarithmetical tables, &c. in which it is incredible, how much the ordinary rules and tables influence the diſpatch of buſineſs.

Arithmetic is not only the great inſtrument of private commerce, but thereby, in conjunction with the incomparable art of debtor and creditor properly applied, are, or ought to be, kept the public accounts of the nation: we mean not only the accounts of the public revenue in all it's branches, but thoſe likewiſe that regard the whole ſtate of a commonwealth, as to the number, fructification of it's people, increaſe of flock, improvement of lands and manufactures, balance of trade, coinage, military power by ſea and land, &c.—Thoſe that would judge or reaſon truly about the ſtate of any nation, muſt go that way to work, ſubjecting all the forementioned particulars to calculation. This is the true political knowledge. In this reſpect the affairs of a commonwealth differ from thoſe of a private family, only in the greatneſs and multitude of particulars, that make up the accounts. Machiavel goes this way to work, in his account of different eſtates. What Sir William Petty and ſeveral others have wrote in political arithmetic, does abundantly ſhew the uſefulneſs of ſuch ſpeculations. It is true, for want of good information, their calculations ſometimes proceed from erroneous ſuppoſitions, but that is not the fault of the art. But what is it the government could not perform this way, with regard to our own dominions in particular, who have the command of all public records?
Laſtly, numbers are applicable even to ſuch things, as ſeem to be governed by no rule, ſuch we mean as depend on chance: the quantity of probability, and proportion of it to any two propoſed caſes, being ſubject to calculation as much as any thing elſe. See the articles ANNUITIES, LEASES, LIVES [ANNUITIES on LIVES], LOTTERIES, MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY.]
Upon this depend the principles of game. We find ſharpers know enough of this, to cheat ſome men that would take it very ill to be thought bubbles: and one gameſter exceeds another, as he has a greater ſagacity and readineſs in calculating his probability to win or loſe in any propoſed caſe. To underſtand the theory of chance, thoroughly, requires no little knowledge of numbers, and a pretty competent one of algebra.
The ſeveral uſes of geometry are not fewer than thoſe of arithmetic. It is neceſſary for aſcertaining of the property both in planes and ſolids, or in ſurveying and gauging. By it land is ſold by the meaſure, as well as cloth: workmen are paid the due price of their labour, according to the ſuperficial or ſolid meaſure of their work: and the quantity of liquors determined for a new regulation of their price and duty. All which do wonderfully conduce to the eaſy diſpatch of buſineſs, and the preventing of frauds and controverſies. We need not mention the meaſuring diſtances, laying down of plans and maps of countries, in which we have daily experience of it's uſefulneſs. Theſe are ſome familiar inſtances of things, to which geometry is ordinarily applied: of it's uſe in civil, military, and naval architecture, we ſhall ſpeak afterwards.
From aſtronomy we have the regular diſpoſition of our time in a due ſucceſſion of years, which are kept within their limits as to the return of the ſeaſons, and the motion of the ſun. This is of no ſmall advantage for the due repetition of the ſame work, labour, and actions. For many of our public, private, military, and country affairs, appointments, &c. depending on the products of the ground, and they on the ſeaſons; it is neceſſary, that the returns of them be adjuſted pretty near to the motion of the ſun, and we ſhould quickly find the inconveniency of a vague undetermined year.
Beſide, the adjuſting of the moon's motion to the ſun's is required for the decent obſervation and celebration of the feaſts and faſts of the eſtabliſhed church, according to the antient cuſtom and primitive inſtitution; and likewiſe for the knowing of the ebbing and flowing of the tides, the ſpring and neap-tides, currents, &c. So that, whatever ſome people may think of an almanack where all theſe are repreſented, it is ſometimes the moſt uſeful paper that is publiſhed the ſame year with it: nay, the nation could, perhaps, better ſpare all the voluminous authors in the term catalogue, than that ſingle ſheet.
The mechanics have produced ſo many uſeful engines ſubſervient to conveniency, that it would be a taſk too great to relate only the ſeveral ſorts of them: ſome of them keep life itſelf from being a burthen. If we conſider ſuch as are invented for raiſing weights, and are employed in building and other great works, in which no impediment is too great for them; or hydraulic engines for raiſing of water, ſerving for great uſe and comfort to mankind, where they have no other way to be ſupplied readily with that neceſſary element; or ſuch as, by making wind and water work for us, ſave animal force and great charges, and perform thoſe actions, which require a great multitude of hands, and without which every man's time would be too little to prepare his own aliment and other neceſſaries; or thoſe machines that have been invented by mankind for delight and curioſity, imitating the motions of animals, or other works of nature; we ſhall have reaſon enough to admire and extol ſo excellent an art. What ſhall we ſay of the ſeveral inſtruments, which are contrived to meaſure time? We ſhould quickly find the value of them,

if

if we were reduced to the condition of thoſe barbarous nations that want them. The pendulum-clock, invented and compleated by that famous mathematician Monſ. Huygens, is an uſeful invention. Is there any thing more wonderful than ſeveral planetary machines, which have been invented to ſhew the motions of the heavenly bodies, and their places at any time?

Here we ſhould not forget to mention the ſciatherical inſtruments, for want of which there was a time, when the Grecians themſelves were obliged to meaſure the ſhadow, in order to know the hour; and, as Pliny (cap. ult. lib vii.) tells us, the Romans made uſe of an erroneous ſun-dial for 99 years, 'till Q. Marcius Philippus their cenſor ſet up a better; which at that time, doubtleſs, was thought a jewel. And, at laſt, that famous pyramid was ſet up in the Campus Martius, to ſerve for a gnomon to a dial marked on the ſtreet. To this ſort of engines ought to be referred ſpheres, globes, aſtrolabes, projections of the ſphere, &c. theſe are ſuch uſeful and neceſſary things, that alone may recommend the art by which they are made. For by theſe we are able in our cloſet to judge of the celeſtial motions, and to viſit the moſt diſtant places of the earth, without the fatigue and danger of voyages; to determine concerning their diſtance, ſituation, climate, nature of the ſeaſons, length of their days, and their relation to the celeſtial bodies, as much as if we were their inhabitants. To all theſe might be added thoſe inſtruments, which the mathematicians have invented to execute their own precepts, for making obſervations either at ſea or land, and for ſurveying, gauging, &c.

The catoptrics and dioptrics furniſh us with variety of uſeful inventions, both for the promoting of knowledge, and the conveniencies of life; whereby ſight, the great inſtrument of our preception is ſo much improved, that neither the diſtance, nor the minuteneſs of the object, are any more impediments to it. The teleſcope is of ſo vaſt uſe, that beſides the delightful and beneficial purpoſes it is applied to here below, as the deſcrying ſhips and men, and armies at a diſtance, we have by it's means diſcovered new parts of the creation, freſh inſtances of the ſurprizing wiſdom of the ſupreme and almighty cauſe. We have thereby diſcovered the ſatellites of Jupiter, the ſatellites and ring of Saturn, the rotation of the planets about their own axes, beſides other appearances, whereby the ſyſtem of the world is made plain to ſenſe, as it was before to reaſon.

The teleſcope has alſo improved the manner of aſtronomical obſervations, and made them much more accurate, than it was poſſible for them to be before. And theſe improvements in aſtronomy have brought along with them correſpondent improvements in geography. From the obſervation of Jupiter's ſatellites, we have a ready way to determine the longitude of places on the earth. On the other hand, the microſcope has not been leſs uſeful in helping us to the ſight of ſuch objects, as by their minuteneſs eſcape our naked eye. By means hereof men have purſued nature into her moſt retired receſſes, ſo that ſhe can hardly any more hide her greateſt myſteries from us. How much have we learned, by the help of the microſcope, of the contrivance and ſtructure of animal and vegetable bodies, and of the compoſition of fluids and ſolids?

But if theſe ſciences had never gone further than, by their ſingle ſpecula and center, to give thoſe ſurprizing appearances of objects and their images, and to produce heat unimitable by our hotteſt furnaces, and to furniſh infallible, eaſy, cheap, and ſafe remedies for the decay of our ſight, ariſing commonly from old age and from purblindneſs; they had merited the greateſt eſteem, and invited to the cloſeſt ſtudy: eſpecially if we conſider, that ſuch as naturally are almoſt blind, and either know not their nearcſt acquaintance at the diſtance of a room's breadth, or cannot read, in order to paſs their time pleaſantly, are, by glaſſes adapted to the defect of their eyes, ſet on a level again with thoſe that enjoy their eye ſight beſt, and that without danger, pain, or charge.

Mathematics are likewiſe highly ſerviceable to a nation in military affairs. I believe this will be readily acknowledged by every body. The affairs of war take in number, ſpace, force, diſtance, time, &c. (things of mathematical conſideration) in all it's parts, in tactics, caſtramentation, fortifying, attacking, and defending. The ancients had more occaſion for mechanics in the art of war than we have: gun-powder readily producing a force far exceeding all the engines they had contrived for battery: and this we reckon has loſt us a good occaſion of improving our mechanics; the cunning of mankind never exerting itſelf ſo much as in their arts of deſtroying one another. But, as gun-powder has made mechanics leſs ſerviceable to war, it has made geometry more neceſſary: there being a force or reſiſtance in the due meaſures and proportions of the lines and angles of a fortification, which contribute much towards it's ſtrength.

This art of fortification has been leſs ſtudied of late years in this kingdom than in ſome neighbouring ones, which was too apparent in the late war: nor dare we affirm that it has attained it's utmoſt perfection in any: and though, where the ground is irregular, it admits but of ſmall variety, the meaſures being pretty well determined by geometry and experience, yet, where the ground is made up of natural ſtrength and weakneſſes, it affords ſome ſcope for thinking and contrivance.

But there is another much harder piece of geometry, which gun-powder has given us occaſion to improve, and that is the doctrine of projectiles, whereon the art of gunnery is founded. Here the geometers have invented a beautiful theory, and rules and inſtruments, which have reduced the caſting of bombs to great exactneſs. As for tactics and caſtramentation, mathematics retain the ſame place in them as ever; and ſome tolerable ſkill in theſe is neceſſary for officers, as well as for engineers.

An officer that underſtands fortification will, cæteris paribus, much better defend his poſt, as knowing wherein it's ſtrength conſiſts, or make uſe of his advantage to his enemy's ruin, than he that does not. He knows, when he leads ever ſo ſmall a party, what his advantages and diſadvantages in defending and attacking are, how to make the beſt of his ground, &c. and hereby can do truly more ſervice than another of equal courage, who, for want of ſuch knowledge, it may be, throws away himſelf and a number of brave fellows under his command: and it is well, if the miſchief reaches no further. As for a competent ſkill in numbers, it is ſo neceſſary to officers, that no man can be ſafely truſted with a company that has it not. All the buſineſs is not to fire muſquets; the managing of affairs, the dealing with agents, &c. happen more frequently: and, the higher the command is, the more ſkill in all the aforeſaid things is required. And I dare appeal to all the nations in Europe, whether, cæteris paribus, officers are not advanced in proportion to their ſkill in mathematical learning, except that ſometimes great names and quality carry it; but ſtill ſo, as that the prince depends upon a man of mathematical learning, that is put as director to the quality, when that learning is wanting in them.

Laſtly, Navigation, which is made of aſtronomy and geometry, is ſo noble an art, and to which mankind owes ſo many advantages, that, upon this ſingle account, thoſe excellent ſciences deſerve moſt of all to be ſtudied, and merit the greateſt encouragement from a nation that owes to it both it's riches and ſecurity. And not only does the common art of navigation depend on mathematics, but whatever improvements ſhall be made in the architectura navalis, or building of ſhips, or ſhips of war, whether ſwift-running, or bearing a great ſail, or lying near the wind, be deſired; theſe muſt all be the improvements of geometry.

Ship-carpenters, indeed, are very induſtrious; but, in theſe things, they acknowledge their inability, confeſs that their beſt productions are the effects of chance, and implore the geometers help. Nor will common geometry do the buſineſs; it requires knowledge of the moſt abſtruſe geometry to determine the different ſections of a ſhip, according as it is deſigned for any of the aforeſaid ends.

The great objection that is made by ſome againſt the neceſſity of mathematics, in the forementioned great concerns of navigation, the art military, &c. is, that we ſee thoſe affairs are carried on and managed by ſuch as are not great mathematicians, as ſeamen, engineers, ſurveyors, gaugers, clock-makers, glaſs-grinders, &c. and that the mathematicians are commonly ſpeculative, retired, ſtudious men, that are not for an active life and buſineſs, but content themſelves to ſit in their ſtudies, and pore over a ſcheme or a calculation.

To which there is this plain and eaſy anſwer: the mathematicians have not only invented and ordered all the arts abovementioned, by which thoſe grand affairs are executed, but have laid down precepts, contrived inſtruments and abridgments ſo plainly, that common artificers are capable of practiſing by them, though they underſtand not a title of the grounds on which the precepts are built: and in this they have conſulted the good and neceſſities of mankind.

Thoſe affairs require ſo great a number of people to manage them, that it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good, or even tolerable mathematicians. The only thing then to be done was to make their precepts ſo plain and familiar, that they might be underſtood and practiſed by a multitude of men. This will beſt appear by examples.

Nothing is more ordinary than diſpatch of buſineſs by common arithmetic, by the tables of ſimple and compound intereſt, annuities, &c. extraction of the ſquare and cube roots, logarithms, &c. yet how few men of buſineſs underſtand the reaſons of common arithmetic, or the contrivance of thoſe tables, and rationale of thoſe rules, now they are made, but ſecurely rely on them that are made? They were the able mathematicians that made thoſe precepts ſo plain, and inveſtigated thoſe rules, and calculated thoſe tables, that facilitate the practice ſo much. Nothing is more univerſally neceſſary than the meaſuring of plains and ſolids: and it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good mathematicians as that there may be many that underſtand all the geometry requiſite for ſurveying, and meaſuring of priſms and pyramids, and their parts, and meaſuring fruſtums of conoids and ſpheroids, in every market-town where ſuch work is neceſſary.

The mathematicians have therefore inſcribed ſuch lines on their common rules, and ſliding rules, and adapted ſo plain

precepts to them, that every country carpenter and gauger can do the buſineſs accurately enough, though he knows no more of the rational foundation of thoſe inſtruments, tables, and precepts he makes uſe of, than a hobby-horſe.

So, in navigation, it is impoſſible to breed ſo many good mathematicians as would be neceſſary to ſail the hundreth part of the ſhips of the nation. But the mathematicians have laid down ſo plain and diſtinct precepts, calculated neceſſary tables, and contrived convenient inſtruments, ſo that a ſeaman that knows not the truths on which his precepts and tables depend, may practiſe ſafely by them. They reſolve triangles every day that know not the reaſon of any one of their operations. Seamen, in their calculations, make uſe of artificial numbers, or logarithms, they know nothing of their contrivance: and, indeed, all thoſe great inventions of the moſt famous mathematicians had been almoſt uſeleſs for thoſe common and great affairs, had not the practice of them been made practically intelligible to thoſe who cannot underſtand them. Whence it is plain, that it is to thoſe ſpeculative retired men we owe the rules, the inſtruments, the precepts for uſing them, and the tables which facilitate the diſpatch of ſo many great affairs, and ſupply mankind with ſo many conveniencies of life. They were the men that taught the world to apply arithmetic, aſtronomy, and geometry to ſailing, without which the needle would be ſtill uſeleſs. Juſt the ſame way, in the other parts of mathematics, the precepts that are practiſed by multitudes, without being underſtood, were contrived by ſome few great mathematicians.

Since then it has been ſhewn how much mathematics improve the mind, how ſubſervient they are to other arts, and how immediately uſeful to the commonwealth, and it's commercial emolument, there need no other motives to governments to encourage them. This is the natural concluſion from theſe premiſes. Plato, in his Republic, lib. 7, takes care, That whoever is to be educated for magiſtracy, or any conſiderable poſt in the commonwealth, may be inſtructed firſt in arithmetic, then in geometry, and thirdly in aſtronomy. And, however neceſſary thoſe arts were in Plato's time, they are much more ſo now: the arts of war and traffic requiring much more the aſſiſtance of thoſe ſciences now, than they did then, as being brought to a greater height and perfection. And accordingly we ſee theſe ſciences are the particular care of princes that deſign to raiſe the force and power of their countries. It is well known that this is none of the leaſt arts whereby the French king has brought his ſubjects to make that figure at ſea which they at this time do; I mean the care he takes for educating thoſe appointed for ſea-ſervice in mathematical learning: for in the ordinance marine, title 8, he orders that there be profeſſors to teach navigation publicly in all the ſea-port towns, who muſt be well ſkilled in deſigning, and teach it to their ſcholars, in order to lay down the appearances of coaſts, &c. They are to keep their ſchools open, and read four times a week to the ſeamen, where they muſt have charts, globes, ſpheres, compaſſes, quadrants, aſtrolabes, and all books and inſtruments neceſſary to teach their art.

The directors of hoſpitals, alſo, are obliged to ſend thither yearly two or three of their boys to be taught, and to furniſh them with books and inſtruments. Thoſe profeſſors are obliged to examine the journals depoſited in the office of admiralty, in the place of their eſtabliſhment, to correct the errors in preſence of the ſeamen, and to reſtore them within a month, &c.

King Charles II. who well underſtood the importance of eſtabliſhments of this nature, founded one ſuch ſchool in Chriſt's Hoſpital, London. And his majeſty king William III. during the time of the war, eſtabliſhed a mathematical lecture to breed up engineers and officers, as knowing very well the importance thereof. And this continued ſome time after the peace. And it is worthy the conſideration of the wiſdom of the nation, whether the reſtoring and continuing this, even in peace, be not expedient for the breeding of engineers, who are ſo uſeful and valuable, and ſo difficult to be had in time of war, and ſo little dangerous in times of peace.

Beſides the croud of merchants, ſeamen, ſurveyors, engineers, ſhip-carpenters, artizans, &c. that are to be inſtructed in the practice of ſuch parts of mathematics as are neceſſary to their own buſineſs reſpectively, a competent number of able mathematicians ought to be entertained, in order to apply themſelves to the practice; not only to inſtruct the former ſort, but likewiſe to remove thoſe obſtacles, which ſuch as do not think beyond their common rules cannot overcome. And doubtleſs it is no ſmall impediment to the advancement of arts, that ſpeculative men and good mathematicians are unacquainted with the particular defects of thoſe people, and the ſeveral circumſtances in them, that render things practicable or impracticable.

But, if there were effectual public encouragement, we ſhould have ſkilful mathematicians employed in thoſe arts, who would certainly find out and remedy the imperfection of them. The lords commiſſioners of the admiralty knowing that there are ſtill two great deſiderata in navigation, viz. the theory of the variation of the magnetic needle, and a method of finding out the longitude of any place that may be practicable at ſea [ſee the article LONGITUDE] and being ſenſible of what importance it would be to find out either of them, formerly employed a very capable perſon, the learned and ingenious Dr. Halley, who had joined an entire acquaintance in the practice to a full and thorough knowledge of the more abſtruſe parts of mathematics. And, although that great man was not able to make thoſe diſcoveries, yet he has been of important ſervice to navigation, by correcting the ſituation of the coaſts where he touched, and, by them, others.

The next thing that is neceſſary for the improvement of mathematical learning is, that mathematics continue to be more generally and conſtantly ſtudied at our univerſities * than they at preſent are. From thoſe ſeminaries the ſtate juſtly expects and requires thoſe who are acquainted both with the ſpeculation and practice. In thoſe are all the encouragements to them imaginable, leiſure and aſſiſtance: there are at hand all requiſite books and inſtruments, as alſo other ſcholars that have made equal progreſs, and may be aſſociates in ſtudy, and the direction of the profeſſors. There are alſo in perfection all the incitements to this ſtudy, and eſpecially an acquaintance with the works of the ancients, where this learning is ſo much recommended. Here other faculties are ſtudied, to which thoſe ſtudies are ſubſervient. There alſo are the nobility and gentry bred, who, in due time, muſt be called to their ſhare in the government of the fleets, army, treaſury, and other public employments, where mathematical learning is abſolutely neceſſary, and without which they, though of never ſo great natural abilities, muſt be at the mercy and diſcretion of their ſervants and deputies, who will firſt trick them, and then laugh at them for ſuffering it. And not only public employments, but their private concerns, require mathematical knowledge. If their fortunes lie in woods, coal, ſalt, manufactures, &c. the neceſſity of this knowledge is open and known: and, even in land eſtates, no undertaking for improvement can be ſecurely relied upon without it. It not only makes a man of quality and eſtate his whole life more illuſtrious, and more uſeful for all affairs, but, in particular, it is the beſt companion for a country life. Were this ever to continue a faſhionable ſtudy (and the mode exerciſes it's empire over learning, as well as other things) it is hard to tell how far it might influence the morals of our nobility and gentry, in rendering them ſerious, diligent, curious, taking them off from the more fruitleſs and airy exerciſes of the fancy, which they are apt to run into.

* Does it not well deſerve a public enquiry, how and from what cauſes it proceeds, that ſo many of the Britiſh nobility and gentry are ſent in their youth to foreign univerſities, for their education? It cannot be pretended that travelling is the motive, while they are confined in a college?

The only objection I can think of that is brought againſt theſe ſtudies is, that mathematics require a particular turn of head, and a happy genius that few people are maſters of, without which, all the pains beſtowed upon the ſtudy of them are in vain: they imagine that a man muſt be born a mathematician. To which it may be anſwered, that this exception is common to mathematics with other arts. That there are perſons who have a peculiar capacity and fitneſs to one more than another, will hardly be denied: and from experience, we preſume, it is not in any higher degree true concerning mathematics than the others: a man of good ſenſe and application is the perſon that is by nature fitted for them, eſpecially if he begins betimes: and, if his circumſtances have been ſuch that this did not happen, by prudent direction the defect may be ſupplied, as much as in any art whatſoever. The only advantage, I am afraid, this objection has is, that it lies on the ſide of ſoftneſs and indolence, thoſe powerful allies.

In order to obtain a fundamental knowledge of theſe ſciences, we would lay it down as a principle, that no gentleman ſhould be taught the practice of any rule without the true and ſolid reaſon and demonſtration of the ſame. Rules without demonſtration muſt and ought to be taught to ſeamen, artizans, &c. as has been already obſerved; and ſchools for ſuch people are fit in ſea-ports and trading towns; but it is far below the dignity of the noblemen or gentlemen, or any who are deſigned for ſolid and true learning, to do this. It is by ſuch meaſures that all muſt be raiſed, who are able to remedy the defects of the practical and commercial arts: and, therefore, nothing on them muſt be taken by truſt. Seamen and ſurveyors, gaugers and accountants, &c. remember their rules, becauſe they are perpetually practiſing them: but ſcholars, who are not thus employed, if they know not the demonſtration of them, preſently forget them.

Secondly, It has been thought a great miſtake by our ableſt mathematicians, that any part of their ſciences ſhould be taught by compendiums: this follows from the former. Compendiums are fit to give a general and ſuperficial knowledge, not a thorough one. It's time, and not the bulk of books, we ought to be ſparing of: and we may appeal to any perſon of experience, whether ſolid knowledge is not acquired in ſhorter time by books treating fully of their ſubjects, than by compendiums and abridgments.

From

From hence it follows, that the elements of arithmetic and geometry are to be taught. Euclid, in his thirteen books of Elements, gives us both: but our preſent way of notation ſuperſedes ſome of thoſe of arithmetic, as demonſtrating the rules from the operations themſelves. There remain then the firſt ſix books for the geometry of plains, and the laſt three for ſtereometry. The reſt ought to be read in their own place, for the perfection of arithmetic. In teaching theſe care ought to be taken to make uſe of ſuch examples as ſuit with the condition of the learner: for inſtance, merchants accounts and affairs for examples of the operations of arithmetic, to one that is afterwards to have a concern that way; whereas, to a man of the firſt quality, examples ſhould be drawn from keeping an accurate account of his eſtate, either in land or money, &c. from the increaſe and decreaſe of the people, the ſtate of the public revenue, and from land or ſea-force, and other principles of political arithmetic. For it is certain nothing makes one tired ſooner than the frivilous and trifling examples that are commonly brought for the exerciſe of the rules of arithmetic, debtor and creditor, and geometry, &c. tho' this is common to them with the other arts, as grammar, logic, &c.

The manner of writing of the mathematicians of this and the former age makes trigonometry, with the manner of conſtructing it's tables, almoſt elementary; and the practical geometry, commonly ſo called, is very fit to come next, as an elegant application of the elements of geometry to buſineſs, as ſurveying, gauging, &c.

After the elements of ſpherics, a full inſight into the principles of aſtronomy will be neceſſary.

Mechanics follow after to be read, which are the ground of a great part of natural learning; and afterwards opties, catoptrics, and dioptrics.

But none of theſe, except the elements, can be fully underſtood until one is pretty well ſkilled in conic ſections; and all theſe are made more eaſy by ſome tolerable ſkill in algebra, and it's application to geometry.

Theſe foundations being laid, any one may, with great eaſe, purſue the ſtudy of the mathematics, as his occaſions require, either in it's abſtract parts, and the more recondite geometry, and it's application to natural knowledge; or in mechanics, by proſecuting the ſtaties, hydroſtatics, &c. or in aſtronomy, by it's application to geography, navigation, gnomonics, aſtrolabes, &c. But, in moſt of theſe, a particular order is not neceſſary: any one may take that firſt which he is moſt inclined to, after he has laid the requiſite foundation in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry.

Remarks on the article Mathematics.

Our intention, by this ſummary of the univerſal utility of mathematical learning, is with a view to give the commercial claſs of people, as well as others of quality and diſtinction, ſuch an idea of thoſe ſtudies, that they may apply themſelves only or chiefly to ſuch parts as may be ſuitable to their condition and plan of life. And, from what has been ſaid, it is manifeſt beyond contradiction, that this kind of literature, taken in it's comprehenſive latitude, has been, and is ever like to be, while duly cultivated, the grand parent of numberleſs beneficial arts and trades; and, therefore, cannot be too much encouraged in commercial ſtates: yet we are ſorry to obſerve, that theſe ſtudies rather decline than advance among us, for want of their profeſſors being ſuitably cheriſhed and diſtinguiſhed.

The victories which take up the greateſt part of hiſtory, and attract admiration the moſt, have generally no other effects but the deſolation of countries, the deſtruction of cities, and the ſlaughter of men. Thoſe ſo-much boaſted heroes of antiquity, have they made a ſingle man the better? Have they made many men happy? And if, by the founding of ſtates and empires, they have procured poſterity ſome advantage, how dearly have they made their contemporaries pay for it, by the rivers of blood they have ſhed? Thoſe very advantages are confined to certain places, and have a certain duration.

Of what utility to us, at this day, are either Nimrod, Cyrus, or Alexander? All thoſe great names, all thoſe victories which have aſtoniſhed mankind from time to time, thoſe princes and conquerors, with all their magnificence and vaſt deſigns, are returned into nothing with regard to us; they are diſperſed like vapours, and are vaniſhed like phantoms.

But the inventors of all arts aiding to the commercial induſtry and proſperity of mankind have laboured for all ages of the world. We ſtill enjoy the fruits of their application and induſtry. They have provided, at a great diſtance, for all our occaſions: they have procured for us every convenience of life: they have converted all nature to our uſes: they have reduced the moſt indocile matter to our ſervice: they have taught us to extract from the bowels of the earth, and even from the deeps of the ſea, the moſt precious riches; and, what is infinitely more eſtimable, they have opened to us the treaſures of other ſciences, and have guided us to knowledge the moſt ſublime, the moſt uſeful, and the moſt worthy of our nature. They have put into our hands, and placed before our eyes, whatever is moſt proper to adorn the mind, to direct our manners, and to form good citizens, good magiſtrates, and good princes. Theſe are part of the benefits we have received from thoſe who have invented, and brought arts and ſciences to perfection.

The better to know their value, let us tranſport ourſelves in imagination back to our infancy of the world, and thoſe groſs ages when man, condemned to eat his bread by the ſweat of his brow, was without aids and inſtruments, and obliged, however, to cultivate the earth, that he might extract nouriſhment from it; to erect himſelf huts and roofs for his ſecurity; to provide cloathing for his defence againſt the froſts and rains; and, in a word, to find out the means to ſatisfy all the neceſſities of life. What labours, what difficulties, what diſquiets! All which are ſpared us.

We do not ſufficiently conſider the obligations we are under to thoſe equally induſtrious and laborious men, who made the firſt eſſays in arts, and applied themſelves in thoſe uſeful but elaborate reſearches. That we are commodiouſly houſed, that we are cloathed, that we have cities, walls, habitations, temples, ſhipping, navigation, and commerce; to their induſtry and labour we are indebted for them all. It is by their aid our hands cultivate the fields, build houſes, make ſtuffs and habits, work in braſs and iron; and, to make a tranſition from the uſeful to the agreeable, that we uſe the pencil, handle the chiſſel and graver, and touch inſtruments of muſic. Theſe are ſolid temporal felicities and emoluments, which have always been increaſing from their origin, which extend to all ages and nations, and to all mankind in particular; which will perpetuate themſelves throughout all times, and continue to the end of the world. Have all the conquerors together done any thing that can be imagined parallel with ſuch ſervices? All our admiration, however, turns generally on the ſide of theſe heroes in blood, whilſt we ſcarce take notice of what we owe to the inventors of the mathematic and philoſophic arts, which are the grand ſources of all the ſecurity, joy, and ſplendor of life. The progreſs of thoſe arts and ſciences whereon the mutual intercourſe of commerce between nations depends, and the hiſtory of thoſe perſons who have moſt eminently diſtinguiſhed themſelves therein, is the hiſtory of the human wiſdom, which does not give place to that of princes and heroes, whom common opinion places in the higheſt degree of glory.

The principal law and juſteſt title to deſerving ſolid praiſes in this uſeful empire of literature is, that every member of it be contented with his own place; that he be void of all envy for the glory of others; that he looks upon them as his collegues; deſtined, as well as himſelf, by providence, to inrich ſociety, and become it's benefactors; and that he remembers with gratitude from whom he holds his talents, and for what ends they have been given him. Can they believe they may uſe them at their own pleaſure, and ſeek, in the application they make of them, only their own reputation and glory? As providence places kings upon their thrones ſolely for the good of their people, it diſtributes alſo the different talents of the mind ſolely for the benefit of the public.

But, in the ſame manner as we ſometimes ſee in ſtates uſurpers and tyrants, who, to exalt themſelves alone, oppreſs all others; there may alſo ariſe amongſt the learned a kind of tyranny of the mind, which conſiſts in regarding the ſucceſſes of others with an evil eye; in being offended at their reputation; in leſſening their merit; in eſteeming only one's ſelf, and in affecting to reign alone: a hateful defect, and very diſhonourable to learning. The ſolid glory of the empire of learning is not to labour for one's ſelf, but for mankind; and this is what places it exceedingly above all the other empires of the world.

Uſeful Remarks, tending to the further advancement of the Mathematical Sciences, in order to the further promotion of Commerce, by the learned Dr. John Pell; which as well deſerve attention at this time, when theſe ſtudies ſeem to be upon the decline, as they did heretofore.

'I. As to what I formerly conſidered, ſays that learned gentleman, about the improvement of the mathematical ſciences; the reſult was chiefly this: while men are deſtitute of inclination, genius, aſſiſtances, and leiſure neceſſary for theſe ſtudies, no wonder if they make no greater progreſs in them: therefore it ſeems probable to me, that, by the help of the following means, a tolerable good remedy may be found for this evil. That is, if,

1. A mathematical monitor (as we may call it) be compoſed, which may give proper anſwer to theſe three queſtions, 1. What advantages, and of what kind, may be expected from the ſtudy of mathematics? 2. What helps are now in being for attaining ſo advantageous a knowledge? 3. What order is to be obſerved in making uſe of thoſe aſſiſtances? Therefore this monitor ſhould contain,

1. An eaſy and perſpicuous diſcourſe upon the limits or extent of the mathematical arts, and of the conſiderable advantages that will accrue not only to the perſons themſelves that ſtudy them, but likewiſe to a nation that abounds in ſkilful mathematicians.

2. A catalogue of mathematicians, and of works publiſhed by them; which is to exhibit, 1. A ſynopſis of all kinds of mathematical books, whether ſuch as are already publiſhed,

or ſuch as are yet unpubliſhed, and, being in manuſcript, lie concealed in public libraries; proper numbers, or references, being affixed to every kind. 2. A chronological catalogue of all the celebrated mathematicians, diſpoſed according to the ages in which they flouriſhed; always ſubjoining the year of our Lord in which their works were firſt printed.

3. A catalogue of the ſame works, according to the ſeries of years in which they were printed in any language. In digeſting of which, I would proceed in ſuch manner, that, marking the year of our Lord, I would add (as in common catalogues) the names of all the mathematical books that were publiſhed that year, in any country or any language: 1. Shewing in each how much the volume contained, by marking not only whether it was in folio, quarto, &c. but the whole number of pages, ſo that the bulk of the work might eaſily be known. 2. Before the title mentioning the year, to which any one might turn back who ſhould deſire to know when the book was wrote, and when it was laſt publiſhed in any language. 3. Marking in the margin after the title, 1. The year in which any work was laſt printed. 2. The number referring the reader to the ſynopſis, which was given in the firſt page of the catalogue. Now, by the help of theſe numbers, any one might eaſily and readily run through all the mathematical books belonging to one ſubject.

3. An admonition to the ſtudious, which are the beſt books in every kind, in what order and method they are to be read, what is to be choſen and what omitted in reading ſome of the minor mathematicians; how we are to proceed ſo as to retain every thing in memory.

4. An exhortation and encouragement to all thoſe who are ſufficiently provided with wealth, opportunity, and ingenuity for the purſuit of theſe ſtudies; that, 1. Having regard to the great advantages that redound from hence, not only to themſelves but to all mankind in general. 2. As likewiſe to that pure and ſincere pleaſure which ariſes from the ſearch of hidden truths, and from ſtriving with difficult problems, and the conqueſt of them; that they may ſeriouſly apply themſelves to the advancement of ſcience, and ſo much the rather, as, 3. More expeditious methods are now found out than were known to our anceſtors, which ſave us much labour, time, and expence.

Then an exhortation to all ſuch as are eminent for ſetting a right value on theſe ſtudies, and are likewiſe diſtinguiſhed for power and wealth (which ſurely may be made inſtrumental to perpetual fame, if prudently diſpenſed) that they may become patrons to ingenious men of this kind, by propoſing handſome rewards to the moſt deſerving of them, to encourage them to complete ſuch diſcoveries as their own genius's may prompt them to. Laſtly, to all princes and commonwealths who cannot eaſily procure a greater ornament to their dominions, than by making it their endeavour, 1. That they may abound with perſons ſkilled in theſe arts. 2. That the way leading to them may be made as little laborious and expenſive as poſſible. 3. That mathematical genius's may be more publicly known, and meet with ſuch encouragement as they ſhall deſerve.

For this end it will be very neceſſary that,

II. A public library may be founded, which may be furniſhed with all the books abovementioned, and with one inſtrument of every ſort that has been yet invented; and beſides may have an endowment ſufficient, 1. To purchaſe copies of all the mathematical books that ſhall be yearly publiſhed anywhere abroad. 2. To maintain a library-keeper, whoſe buſineſs it ſhould be,

1. To read over all the books of this kind which are publiſhed in his own country; 1. Suppreſſing thoſe which are not wrote according to the rules of art, that their miſtakes may not lead their readers into error. 2. To admoniſh authors, leſt they ſhould only republiſh things already known, and treated of by others.

2. On peril of their reputation that they ſhould approve of notable inventions, and heartily recommend the inventors to proper patrons.

3. To receive, to enter into their catalogue, and diſpoſe in their proper repoſitories, one copy of the books ſo read over, when preſented to the library well bound up, at the charge of the author or bookſeller.

4. To give a civil and ready anſwer to any ſtudious perſon who ſhall conſult him about any problem, whether it is already ſolved or no; leſt he ſhould attempt any thing that is well done already, or, on the contrary, ſuppreſs his diſcoveries, out of fear they may be already known, and perhaps diſcuſſed in ſome of the books of the library.

5. To receive, &c. all manuſcripts that may be preſented to the library, or bequeathed to it by legacy.

6. To keep a conſtant library correſpondence with all perſons of this kind that reſide in foreign countries, leſt he ſhould be ignorant of what books are publiſhed there.

7. To take notice among his countrymen who are fitteſt and moſt expert in inſtructing others in theſe arts.

8. To have an acquaintance with all kinds of artificers who excel in the conſtructing of mathematical inſtruments and contrivances, whether they work in wood, loadſtones, metal, glaſs, &c.

9. After a fair trial, to give their teſtimony, both of ſpeculative knowledge and practical dexterity, to practical men of all kinds, whether maſters of ſhips, ſurveyors, accomptants, &c. that ſuch as have occaſion for this kind of men may not be impoſed on by ignorant pretenders, to their great loſs.

The catalogue will eaſily inform which, in ſuch a multitude of books that almoſt overwhelm the world, belong only to this kind of ſtudy. The library will exhibit a copy of every ſuch book, and inform where more copies may be bought. It will alſo be a kind of ſtorehouſe both to natives and foreigners, whence they may eaſily learn what aſſiſtances that country can ſupply to theſe ſtudies.

And this, in my opinion, is the readieſt way of making uſe of the helps we are already in poſſeſſion of. If more are wanting, it will be neceſſary that, by the aſſiſtance of ſkilful artiſts.

III. The three following new treatiſes may be compoſed and publiſhed:

1. Mathematical pandects, containing, as perſpicuouſly, methodically, compendiouſly, and ingeniouſly as can be done, whatever may be collected or deduced, by way of corollary, from the mathematical books or diſcoveries made before our time; quoting the moſt eminent authors in which they are found, at the end of every period or propoſition; and ſo marking in all the following authors, where they have been caught in a theft, or where they have borrowed without making any acknowledgement, or (what is worſt of all) have boldly claimed to themſelves the inventions of others. By this means that large library would be contracted into a much narrower compaſs, to a great ſaving of labour, time, and expence, for thoſe that come after; and this much more than any would imagine at preſent. But now, ſince this work would hardly make a portable volume, there ſhould be prepared alſo,

2. A mathematical companion, containing in a manual (and therefore as conciſely as may be) all the moſt uſeful tables, with precepts to ſhew their application to ſolving of problems, whether of pure mathematics, or applied to other ſubjects.

Finally, that we may not always be confined to books in this kind of learning, there ſhould be contrived,

3. The ſelf-ſufficient mathematician, or an inſtruction to ſhew how any mathematician, who is no enemy to labour, may acquire ſo much ſkill that, without the aſſiſtance of books or inſtruments, he may attain the ſolution of any mathematical problem, and that as eaſily as another would ſolve it by turning over books.

And this is that idea of mathematics which, in my manner, I have long ago figured to myſelf; being always firmly perſuaded, that then only we can hope for aſſiſtance in great undertakings, when we have conceived an exact idea of them in our minds, and of the moſt appoſite means of putting them in execution. And, if we cannot expreſs this idea in fact, yet it is ſomething to come as near it as may be.

I imagine this is ſo far from being above human power, that I think the induſtry of one man alone to be equal to it, who is not hindered by his own domeſtic affairs, or immerſed in a multitude of buſy cares: for it is evident that the library and catalogue may eaſily be provided, if money is not wanting; and as to the pandects above deſcribed, if the taſk of compoſing them were committed to me, I ſhould impoſe upon myſelf much ſeverer conditions than I have mentioned there. For firſt I would delineate the infallible proceſs of human reaſon, in the inveſtigation of whatever it propoſes to itſelf, by ſhewing how it proceeds from the firſt principles or rudiments, by an uninterrupted chain, to the moſt ſublime as well as the loweſt application of them. Which art, perhaps, men would not be long without, if hereafter they ſhould carefully examine, by what means ſuch thoughts have aroſe in the minds of certain men whom they admire, how ſuch apt means have been found out to obtain ſuch an end. How theſe pandects may be abridged into a manual, ſuch as may be fit for common uſe, may not be difficult to underſtand.

But ſo to fix them in their minds that they ſhall have no farther need of books (which is what is aimed at by our ſelf-ſufficient mathematician) will be thought, by moſt, to exceed the power of the human mind: ſince no one that I know of has yet ventured to conceive ſuch a thing in his mind. Yet I believe that men will diſmiſs ſomething of their incredulity, when they conſider ſeriouſly with themſelves what arts have been found out for ſtrengthening the imagination, for aſſiſting the memory, and for directing the reaſoning faculty, and what wonderful effects may be produced by their conjunction and conſtant exercise.'

To this the learned Merſennus made ſome objections, concerning the collection of the various writings of the mathematicians; but, upon receiving Dr. Pell's anſwer, Merſennus replied,—'I had no ſooner read your letter, learned Sir, but I became wholly yours, and was ready to ſubſcribe to your opinion, which I intirely approve: an unuſual ardor of mind hurried me on: ſo that I would recommend this undertaking of yours, great as it is, to the great ones of the world, if I could have free acceſs to them. But where is the king that will make a beginning? for I cannot but call it a truly royal deſign.'—This likewiſe was approved by the great Des Cartes, See the article MUSÆUM of Sir Hans Sloane.

MEASURES and WEIGHTS of England.

The following being the moſt accurate and ſatisfactory account that I have met with, in regard to the ſtandard weights and meaſures of England, I ſhould be wanting to my readers if I did not give it them as it is, without any alteration whatſoever: and, although the weights are incorporated with the meaſures, I do not judge that reaſon ſufficient to make any variation, having the leſs to ſay hereafter under the article WEIGHTS.

A ſtate of the Engliſh WEIGHTS and MEASURES of capacity, as they appear from the laws, as well ancient as modern; with ſome conſiderations thereupon: being an attempt to prove that the preſent avoirdupois weight is the legal and ancient ſtandard for the weights and meaſures of this kingdom. By the learned Sam. Reynardſon, Eſq; F. R. S.

It is declared by * Magna Charta, that there ſhould be, throughout the realm, one meaſure of wine †, one of ale, and one of corn, viz. the quarter ‡ of London; and that it ſhould be of weights as of meaſures.

* 1 C. 25.

† Biſhop Fleetwood ſays, it was a good law of king Edgar, that there ſhould be the ſame weights and the ſame meaſures throughout the realm, but it was never well obſerved. Chron. Pretioſum, p. 34.—And, 2 Inſt. p. 41. ſays, this law was grounded upon the law of God, Deut. xxv. ver. 13, 14.—And that there were good laws for weights and meaſures made before the conqueſt by Canute. See Cuſtom. de Norm. c. 16.

‡ See hereafter the contents of a quarter.

This declaration has been repeated in many ſubſequent laws *; and, by ſeveral of them, the treaſurer is directed to provide ſtandards of buſhels, gallons, and weights of braſs, and to ſend them into every country; and all meaſures are to be made according to the king's ſtandard, the aſſize whereof is eſtabliſhed by ſeveral laws †, as follows: the Engliſh penny, called a ſterling round, without clipping, to weigh 32 grains of wheat dry, and taken from the midſt of the ear: 20 pence make an ounce; 12 ounces a pound; 8 pounds make a gallon of wine ‡; 8 gallons of wine make a London buſhel ‖, which is the eighth part of a quarter. And by other laws § it is declared, that the ton of wine, oil, and honey, ſhould contain of the Engliſh meaſure, according to the ancient aſſize, 252 gallons; the pipe, or butt, 126; the tertian 84; the hogſhead 63; and every barrel 31 ½, according to the old aſſize, and to be gauged by the king's gauger.

* 51 Hen. III. ſtat. 6. 14, 25, and 27 Edw. III. 13, 15, and 16 Rich. II. 9 Hen. VI. 2 Hen. VII. cap. 4. 16 Car. I. and 22 Car. II. cap. 8.

† 51 Hen. III. ſtat. 1. cap. 3. 31 Edw. I. 12 Hen. VII. cap. 5.

‡ The 12th Hen. VII. cap. 5. ſays wheat.

‖ 9 Hen. VI. c. 8. ſays,—Buyers of corn in London, bought by a veſſel called a fat, containing 9 buſhels of corn; which is forbid by the act.

§ 2 and 18 Hen. VI. 1 Ric. III. cap. 13. 5 Ann cap. 27. ſect. 19. 23 Hen. VIII. cap. 7. 2 Hen. VI. cap. 11.

In the reign of Edward III. * an act paſſed to take away the weight called ancell †, whereby, and by ſubſequent ſtatutes, it is directed that every ſale and buying ſhould be by the even balance.

* 25 Ed. III. ſtat. 5. cap. 9. 34 Ed. III. cap. 5. 8 Hen. VI. cap. 5. 9 Hen. VI. cap. 8.

† King Stephen, ſays Knighton, ſettled meaſures of length and of land, and made appointments de anſulis, bilancibus &c. Decem Scriptores, p. 2391.

In the 11th year of Hen. VII. complaint being made to the parliament that the ancient ſtatutes and ordinances of the realm relating to weights and meaſures had not been obſerved and kept, it was therefore enacted, That there ſhould be delivered, to the knights and citizens of every ſhire and city, one of every weight and meaſure, which the king had cauſed to be made of braſs, according to his ſtandard in the Exchequer, to be delivered to the reſpective places mentioned in the act; and that the inhabitants of all cities, boroughs, and market-towns, ſhould make and uſe weights and meaſures made according to the weights and meaſures ſo delivered as aforeſaid. In the next year, another act paſſed, reciting, That the king had made ſuch weights and meaſures of braſs, according to the old ſtandard thereof remaining within his Treaſury; which weights and meaſures, upon more diligent examination, had been proved defective, and not made according to the ſtatutes and old laws, and were therefore recalled, and ordered to be broken, and other new buſhels and gallons were directed to be made and ſized, according to a new buſhel and gallon to be made according to the aſſize, to remain in the king's Exchequer: where we now find a buſhel, in the cuſtody of the chamberlain, called the Wincheſter buſhel *, and a gallon agreeing thereto. Upon the buſhel there is the following inſcription: Henericus Septimus, Dei gratia, rex Angliæ et Franciæ.

* The firſt time I find it called ſo by any law, is in an act 22 Car. II. cap. 8. And afterwards it is called by this name in ſeveral acts of parliament; but, in the act juſt now mentioned, it is ſaid to be commonly called the Wincheſter meaſure: perhaps it firſt took that name from the ſtatute made at Wincheſter, 16 Rich. II. which directs the clerk of the market to have all his weights and meaſures ready, and marked and ſigned according to the ſtandard of the Exchequer.

In the laſt mentioned act, the aſſize for weights and meaſures is in ſubſtance the ſame as in the old ſtatutes, only the pound is ſaid to be the pound Troy of 12 ounces. But ſince, by this and the former aſſize laws, the pound is directed to be raiſed from 240 ſterling pennies, it follows, that the gravity of the aſſize pound was always the ſame; but the dimenſions of meaſures of capacity reſpectively, raiſed from a pound of wine and a pound of wheat, will be in proportion to each other as the ſpecific gravity of wheat is to that of wine or water.

Thus continued the laws relating to the Engliſh ſtandard of weights and meaſures, 'till after the reſtoration, when, a duty of exciſe * being laid upon beer, ale, and other liquors, 36 gallons taken by the gauge, according to the ſtandard of the ale quart (4 whereof made the gallon remaining in the Exchequer) were to be reckoned as a barrel of beer, and 32 ſuch gallons a barrel of ale; and, afterwards, † 34 ſuch gallons of vinegar (and of beer or ale, ſtronger or ſmaller) without the bills of mortality, were declared to be a barrel; and all other liquors liable to the exciſe-duty were to pay according to the wine gallon.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 24. §. 20.

† 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 24. §. 5. 10 Will. III. cap. 21. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 15.

We now find the officers of the revenue determining the contents of our meaſures of capacity with great exactneſs: for, on the 25th of May, 1688, two general officers of exciſe, in the preſence of the lord mayor, the commiſſioners of exciſe, Mr. Flamſtead, and others, upon an exact trial found, that the old ſtandard wine gallon, kept in Guildhall, did contain but 224 cubic inches; nevertheleſs, at that time, it was thought convenient to continue the former ſuppoſed content, being 231 cubic inches, as the ſtandard wine gallon, and which has ſince been eſtabliſhed by law *.

* 5 Ann. cap. 27. §. 17.—This act ſays, Any cylinder 7 inches diameter, and 6 inches deep, or any veſſel containing 231 cubical inches, and no more, ſhall be a lawful wine gallon.

In the year 1696, an experiment was made, in order to fix the true and exact contents of the braſs ſtandard buſhel of Henry VII. which being filled with common ſpring water, and the water meaſured out with great nicety and exactneſs, the buſhel * was found to contain 2145,6 ſolid or cubic inches; and the water being weighed by the ſtandard weights in the Exchequer (and by a beam, which would turn with ſix grains put into either ſcale, with 30 pounds in each ſcale) was found equal to 1131 ounces 14 pennyweights Troy; and at the ſame time and place the ſtandard Troy weights were compared with the ſtandard avoirdupois, and 15 pounds of the latter were found equal to 18 pounds 2 ounces 15 pennyweights Troy, which fixes the pound avoirdupois at 7000 grains.

* Everard's Stereometry, p. 193.

* Such grains as the Troy pound weighs 5760; and upon three ſeveral trials, made by the gentlemen of the council of the Royal Society, at the Exchequer, upon a medium, the avoirdupois pound was found equal to 7000,25 Troy grains.

* Ward, in his Young Mathematician's Guide, ſays, 6999 ½ grains. Phil. Tranſ. No 465. p. 181. and No 470.—Biſhop Hooper 10. Pharmacopœia Londin. ſays—The avoirdupois pound is ſaid to be about 7000 grains.

By the firſt * malt act, which paſſed ſoon after the making the experiment upon the Wincheſter buſhel, it is declared, that every buſhel 18 inches and half wide, and 8 inches deep, ſhould be eſteemed a legal Wincheſter buſhel: and the coal buſhel is directed † to be made 19 inches and a half diameter, and to contain the laſt buſhel and one quart of water. The firſt contains 2150,42 cubic inches, the laſt 2217,47. We now ſee different meaſures eſtabliſhed by law §, and, under the exciſe laws, two different gauges or meaſures, uſed for taking the dimenſions of wine and ale veſſels. The wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and the ale gallon 282; but upon what foundation this laſt meaſure was eſtabliſhed, is difficult to determine.

* 13 Will. III. c. 5. §. 28. and 1 Ann. ſtat. 2. c. 3. §. 10.

† 12 Ann. ſtat. 2. c. 17. §. 11.

§ Though contrary to magna charta, and ſeveral other laws not repealed.

Troy weights had for ſome time been eſtabliſhed and uſed for the money affairs in the mint, and for weighing gold,

M E A

ſilver, and ſome few commodities; and the avoirdupois were in general uſe for weighing all heavy and groſs commodities. Wine meaſure was generally looked upon as equal to Troy weight: from hence the managers of the exciſe duty were, perhaps, led to fix the ſtandard of the ale gallon, bearing the ſame proportion to the wine gallon, as the avoirdupois pound did to the Troy; and, according to this conjecture, the two gallons anſwer pretty exactly *, the ale gallon exceeding the proportion by ſomewhat more than one cubic inch and one quarter; but it exceeds the Wincheſter gallon, or 268,2 cubic inches, by very near 14 cubic inches: and not one of theſe meaſures is agreeable to the words of the aſſize, which directs †, 'That the buſhel ſhall contain 8 gallons of wheat, the gallon 8 pounds of wheat of Troy weight, the pound 12 ounces of Troy weight, &c. according to the old laws of this land.' It is very plain the law-makers, in Henry the VIIth's time, took the Troy weight for the ſtandard; and moſt authors who have wrote upon this ſubject, have followed their example.

* For, as 144 : 175 :: 231 : 280,729—And as 144 : 175 :: 224 : 272,222. This laſt comes very near the vulgar dry gallon.

† 12 Hen. VII. c. 5.

The great difficulty we are under in fixing upon a ſtandard pound, agreeable to the aſſize, ariſes from the uncertainty of the rule laid down in our laws of aſſize for raiſing the pound from 7680 grains of wheat; as theſe grains differ in weight in different countries, and in different years, I might have ſaid in the ſame field and in the ſame year.

The uncertainty of a pound ſo raiſed might, with great probability, occaſion the variety in our weights and meaſures, ſo often complained of in our ancient laws, and for the prevention whereof Edward III. in his 14th year, ordered 'Standard weights and meaſures to be made of braſs, and 'ſent into every city and town in the kingdom.'

The laws of aſſize never received any alteration, except by the 12th of Hen. VII. when the pound is declared to contain 12 ounces of * Troy weight, and the gallon 8 pounds of wheat of Troy weight; and, ſince the laws have received no change, we have great reaſon to conclude, that the ſtandard weights themſelves never ſuffered any addition or diminution; but, however this be, we † now find, in the cuſtody of the proper officer of the Exchequer, two ſetts of weights, kept there as ſtandards; one called Troy, the other avoirdupois weight.

* This is the firſt time the ſtandard weights are called Troy weights. But, in an act 2 Hen. V. ſtat. 2. c. 4. and 2 Hen. VI. c. 13. relating to goldſmiths, there is mention made of the pound of Troy.

† Phil. Tranſ. No 470.—The avoirdupois weight of 14 pounds is marked with a crowned E, and inſcribed,

XIIII Povnde Averdepoiz.
Elizabeth. Regina.
1582.

The Troy weights, marked with a crowned E, are ounces, from 256 down to the 16th part of an ounce: and there are no whole pounds Troy, pennyweights, or grain weights, at the Exchequer. There not being pounds, or greater weights, ſeems to be a proof, that theſe weights were never deſigned or uſed for determining the weight of large bodies or heavy goods.

As there is no account handed down to us by our anceſtors, ſhewing at what time, and upon what occaſion, theſe weights, differing conſiderably in gravity from each other, were there firſt depoſited, we are at a loſs to determine which is the ancient ſtandard weight deſcribed by the laws of aſſize. The act in the 12th of Hen. VII. has called the ſtandard weight by the name of Troy weight; this is the firſt time the weights are ſo called in any of our aſſize laws; and, notwithſtanding this authority, it will be found very difficult, if not impoſſible, to reconcile the Troy weight and meaſure raiſed therefrom with the words of the aſſize, and any meaſure now in being; for the natural and moſt ready way to determine this queſtion, is to compare both the Troy and avoirdupois weight with meaſures raiſed from each, according to the rule laid down in the aſſize, and with ſuch meaſures as are or have been uſed by authority.

'The moſt exact * geometrical way of expreſſing the capa-
'city of any veſſel or meaſure, is by expreſſing in known
'terms the ſolidity of a body, which will preciſely fill it:
'the fitteſt will be water. The ſolidity of all bodies is beſt
'expreſſed by the help of a cube, whoſe equal ſides we know
'by a ſtandard meaſure of length; and it appears, that this
'way of determining meaſures of capacity is not only the
'moſt geometrical, but alſo exceeding ancient †.'

* Biſhop Cumberland's Eſſay, p. 60.—who alſo ſays, The Egyptians made their ardob the cube of their known ſtandard the cubit.—And that the Romans made their quadrantal the cube of their ſtandard the foot.

† Meaſures of bodies are either determined by their ſolid contents, or weight. Meaſures of contents are formed from cubes of aſſigned lengths. Biſhop Hooper, p. 2.

By this rule ſome gentlemen at Oxford, in the year 1685, determined the weight of a cubic * foot of ſpring-water, or 1728 ſolid inches, to be 1000 ounces avoirdupois, and by the ſame rule the capacity and contents of the ſtandard buſhel in the Exchequer, were determined in the year 1696, with great care and exactneſs: by the ſame rule, the contents of other veſſels of capacity have been ſettled; and in the following table, I have inſerted the names of ſuch meaſures as are of any authority, whoſe contents are known; by which the proportion they bear to each other, and to meaſures raiſed according to the aſſize, as well from the pound Troy as the pound avoirdupois, will be readily obſerved.

* Phil. Tranſ. No 169.

In the next place, let us compare the experiment made upon the cubic foot of ſpring-water with that upon the Wincheſter buſhel, and we ſhall find an uniform and perfect agreement between them; and that, upon each trial, a cubic veſſel, the ſides whereof were equal to an Engliſh foot, did contain * 1000 ounces avoirdupois of ſpring-water. From hence we are led to the diſcovery of a natural and univerſal ſtandard for the Engliſh weights and meaſures; and ſuch an one as is, in every reſpect, agreeable to the words of the aſſize recorded in our moſt ancient laws.

oz.	pw.	cu. in.	oz.	cu. in.
1131	: 14 Troy :	2145,6	: : 1000 avoir.	: : 1,728,041.

* Some writers upon this ſubject ſay, that a cubic foot of ſpring-water is equal to 76 pounds Troy, which is 10 pennyweights 20 grains more than the 1000 avoirdupois. See Arbuthnot's Tables explained, p. 80, 283. Biſhop Hooper's State, &c. p. 11.—But the explainer of Arbuthnot's Tables ſeems to have been quite ignorant of any experiment ſince Sir Jonas Moore's time; and to have diſregarded the due proportion between the avoirdupois and Troy pound; and, for 175 to 144, his tables, he ſays, are calculated at 17 to 14.

Magna charta points out the quarter of London, as the only ſtandard for meaſures and weights of that time, but we are left to gueſs of what meaſure or weight it was the quarter part. If we ſuppoſe it the quarter of a ton, or 2000 pounds weight, then the quarter was 500 pounds, and the eighth part of that, or a buſhel, was equal to a cubic foot, or 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, from whence leſs meaſures and weights were eaſily deduced. Subſequent aſſize laws direct the greater meaſures to be raiſed from the leſs; that 8 pounds ſhould make a gallon, 8 gallons a buſhel, which was to be the eighth part of a quarter; and by this rule the quarter is raiſed to 512 pounds, and the ton to 2048 pounds. Theſe meaſures and weights are raiſed with eaſe from known parts of the foot. For a cubic veſſel, whoſe ſides are equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ of a foot, will contain a cube of ſpring-water equal to an ounce avoirdupois; and from hence, by a regular geometrical progreſſion, we ſhall obtain cubes equal to * 8—64—512 ounces, or to 4—32—256—2048 pounds avoirdupois: and, from a cubic veſſel containing one ſuch pound, we ſhall have other cubic veſſels, equal in weight 8—64—512 pounds; and in meaſure to the gallon, buſhel, and quarter, according to the aſſize.

* Eight ounces are equal to a mark, whereof two, or twice the contents of that cube, make a pound avoirdupois.

The * gallon, buſhel, and quarter, are called dry meaſures, and are uſed for aſcertaining the quantity of corn, and other dry goods; the gallon † is alſo a liquid meaſure raiſed from a pound, in liquids now called a pint §, from whence all the other liquid meaſures are raiſed; but with this difference in the proportion, that the liquid buſhel is not 64, but 63 pounds or pints, eight whereof make the hogſhead equal to 63 gallons; from whence the contents, as well of the larger as ſmaller veſſels or meaſures of capacity, are ſettled.

* The half buſhel, peck, gallon, pottle, and quart, are directed by 25 Edw. III. ſtat. 5. c. 10. to be made according to the king's ſtandard.

† See biſhop Hooper, p. 6.

§ See note hereafter.—The pint is not mentioned in the aſſize laws; but biſhop Hooper has given a long and learned diſſertation upon that meaſure, and calls it the pint of old, p. 458.

The meaſures of capacity, thus raiſed, are ſufficiently convenient for common uſe, and are generally retained at this time; but, for weights, there has been ſome variety from time to time, in the compoſition of the larger ſort, uſed for determining the weight of merchandize and heavy goods, as will appear from the following extract from ſeveral old acts of parliament.—The ſtone for weighing lead was ſettled at 12 pounds *; for wax, ſugar, ſpices, and allum, at eight pounds; of which laſt, 13 $\frac{1}{2}$, or 108 pounds, made the hundred weight: the ſack of wool † was to weigh but 26 ſtone, 14 pounds to each ſtone: a weye of § cheeſe 32 cloves,

* Cay's Abridgment, title Weights, §. 9.

† 25 Edw. III. ſtat. 5. c. 9. 13 Rich. II. c. 9.

§ 9 Hen. VI. c. 8. The weye equalled 224 pounds.

each

each clove 7 pounds. And, for many years paſt, the hundred weight has been fixed * at 112 pounds avoirdupois, and that by a general conſent, and without any particular law to eſtabliſh it.

* That is, 14 ſtone at 8 pounds, or 8 ſtone at 14 pounds each, according to the old laws, and preſent uſage of the ſtone weight. The 112 pounds is a very convenient weight for a ſtandard, becauſe it is diviſible into more even parts than any leſs number.—And it is compounded from the aſſize buſhel, it's half and quarter; that is to ſay, 64, 32, and 16 pounds.

Theſe weights have been univerſally and immemorially * uſed in England, with an exception to the weighing of gold, ſilver, and ſome very few commodities, for which the Troy weight has been uſed for a great many years. When it was firſt introduced into this kingdom, does no where appear; but Mr. Folkes, in his Tables of the Engliſh Silver Coins †, tells us, it was not eſtabliſhed or uſed at the mint before the 18th of Hen. VIII.

* The apothecaries (who, next to the goldſmiths, are ſuppoſed to make the moſt uſe of Troy weights) ſeldom keep weights adjuſted to the Troy pound heavier than two drachms; but, for all above, buy and ſell by avoirdupois: and with them, by the term libra in meaſure, is meant the wine pint; though this meaſure is not, ſay they, ſo denominated, from it's containing an exact pound weight of any liquor, and the term uncia in meaſure does not denote a twelfth part of the pint, but the ſixteenth: though in weight, agreeable to it's ſignification, it is uſed to expreſs one twelfth part of a pound; ſo that an ounce in meaſure is ſcarce more than three quarters of an ounce in weight. See Pemberton's Diſpenſatory, p. 44.

† Page 4. Mr. Folkes ſays, The pound uſed at the mint before that time, called the tower or the moneyers pound, was equal to 5400 Troy grains: and, p. 13, 14, that the weight of the groat, from 13 Hen IV. to 4 Edw. IV. was equal to 60 ſuch grains. Which is agreeable to what is ſaid in an act of parliament of 2 Hen. VI. that the pound Troy of coined money was worth 32 ſhillings; for 32 ſhillings, or 96 groats, 60 grains each, weigh 5760 grains, or a pound Troy. Though by the ſame act, by reaſon of the ſcarcity of ſilver money, and in order to bring bullion into the mint, it was enacted, That ſilver uncoined, of the ſame goodneſs as the money, ſhould be ſold only for 30 ſhillings the pound Troy.

By reducing the liquid buſhel, or one eighth of the hogſhead, from 64 to 63 pints, it ſeems plain, that our anceſtors took the cubic foot for their model; the contents of ſuch a veſſel being 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ pints or pounds: and from hence, and from what has been ſhewn before, it is not very unnatural to conclude, that at firſt our anceſtors fixed and eſtabliſhed, as well their weights as meaſures, from known parts of this model; taking always a whole number for each primary weight or veſſel, and from thence proceeding, by a regular geometrical proportion, to raiſe the greater weights or meaſures: ſo that the Engliſh foot (the undoubted and univerſal ſtandard of all meaſures of length within this realm) is alſo the ſtandard for the avoirdupois * weights, and all meaſures of capacity.

* The very name avoirdupois, by which our common weights are known, has by ſome been looked upon as a proof that they were of foreign extraction. The firſt time I find the word uſed in our laws, is in an act of Edw. III. ſtat. 1. where it is applied to wines as well as corn; as it is afterwards in 25 Edw. III. ſtat. 3. c. 2. and 16 Rich. II. c. 1. And in an act 27 Edw. III. ſtat. 2. c. 19. there is the following clauſe:—'Becauſe we have perceived ſome merchants buy avoirdupois merchandizes by one weight and ſell by another, we will and eſtabliſh, that one weight, one meaſure, and one yard, be through all the land; and that wools, and all manner of avoirdupois, be weighed by even balance. This king, in his 14th year, had directed ſtandard weights to be made of braſs, and ſent into every city and town; and I conjecture, that thoſe ſtandards, from the words of the foregoing clauſe, took the name of avoirdupois, and were the weights by which the merchant uſed to buy. What were the lighter weights by which they ſold, does not appear, perhaps the pound Troy. That the former were the lawful weights, appears by an act 24 Hen. VIII. c. 3. where they are ſo called; and butchers, who before that time ſold their meat by hand, were thereby obliged to provide themſelves with beams, ſcales, and weights ſealed, called haberdepois (for avoirdupois); and, in the next reign, the avoirdupois weights, now remaining as ſtandards in the Exchequer, were depoſited there, as appears from the name and inſcription thereon.

Upon the whole, therefore, I think it is ſufficiently proved, that a cubic veſſel, whoſe ſides are equal to an Engliſh foot, will contain 1000 ounces avoirdupois, or very near the weight of ſpring water: that weights and meaſures, deduced by a regular geometrical progreſſion from ſuch a veſſel, or from cubic veſſels, whoſe ſides are equal to known parts of an Engliſh foot, bear an exact analogy to each other, and to weights and meaſures raiſed from a pound, according to the words of our moſt ancient aſſize laws. This being conſidered, and that the avoirdupois weight is now in common uſe for determining the gravity of all heavy bodies; that this weight now is, and immemorially has been uſed, for ſettling the ancient duty of tonnage and poundage, upon all goods and merchandize taken by weight (except ſome few drugs, which are charged in the book of rates by the ounce Troy); and that there is not the leaſt proof, either in our ancient or modern laws, to induce a belief that this duty was ever generally taken by the Troy weight, or that Troy weights were ever in general and common uſe in this kingdom; it muſt ſurely be allowed, that the weight mentioned in our old laws, or acts of parliament, was the avoirdupois weight.

Postscript.

The learned biſhop Cumberland, in his * treatiſe, ſays, 'That our Engliſh avoirdupois ounce is the ſame as the Roman ounce; and was probably introduced into this kingdom by the Romans, when they gave laws and planted colonies here, and hath thence continued unchanged to this day; which is not commonly obſerved, becauſe we uſe the avoirdupois weights only about heavier commodities; not in weighing ſilver and gold, which are weighed by the Troy ounce; which I ſuppoſe was introduced by the Normans, becauſe it takes it's name † from a French town, Troyes, in Champagne.' Moſt authors ‡ have been of this opinion. This leads me compare our Engliſh foot with the Roman foot, which Mr. Greaves takes as equal to 967 ſuch parts, as ours is 1000. The Roman amphora, or quadrantal, is generally allowed § to be equal to a cubic Roman foot; and to contain 80 pounds, or 960 ounces. Then the ſide of the amphora is equal to ‖ 986 parts of the Engliſh foot, agreeing exactly with the foot deduced by Villalpandus from the congius of Veſpaſian; and a cubic veſſel, whoſe ſides are equal to 967 parts of the Engliſh foot, will not contain † quite 904 $\frac{1}{4}$ ounces; which, if true, reduces the Roman ounce to 412 $\frac{1}{12}$ grains Troy.

* See p. 11, 103, 107.

† Biſhop Hooper, p. 432. is of another opinion as to the derivation of the name.

‡ See Hooper's Enquiry, p. 10, 14, 92. and Arbuthnot's Tables explained, p. 16, 283.

§ See biſhop Hooper, p. 152, 175. Greaves's Miſc. Works, p. 198, 199, 297, 303.

‖ For the cube root of 960 is 986,1.

† The cube of 967 is but 904 oz. 231063 parts. And Mr. Greaves himſelf ſays, an amphora made by the pes Colotianus held only 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ congii, equal to 900 Roman ounces; which comes as near the cube of 967, as can be expected from the uncertain method we took to determine the contents of that amphora, which was by filling it with 7 congii, and as he gueſſed, about an half of milium. See his Miſcellaneous Works, (1737) p. 225.

The Table of	Buſhels in Cub. inch.	Gallons in Cub. inch.	Pints in Cub. inch.	Wht. of the gall. in avoir. pounds.
By the coal act - -	2217,47	277,183	34,648	10,025
By the malt act - -	2150,42	268,8	33,6	9,722
Wincheſter buſhel -	2145,6	268,2	33,525	9,6
From the wine gallon	1848	231	28,875	8,354
The Guildhall gallon	1792	224	28	8,101
16 oz. avoirdupois	1769,472	221,184	27,648	8
12 oz. Troy - -	1456,0224	182,0028	22,75035	6,5826
The following are not ſupported by any law or authority.				
* The vulg. dry meaſ.	2178 ‖	272,25	34,0625	9,8468
† The ale meaſure -	2256	282	35,25	10,1995

* Dr. Arbuthnot gives a table of the vulgar dry meaſure, as the contents of the Wincheſter meaſure. And he had ſo little regard to the avoirdupois weight, that he does not give any table thereof.

† The ale meaſure even exceeds the coal meaſure.—And the exceſs of the ale meaſure above the Wincheſter is more than one in twenty of the laſt meaſure.

‖ See what is ſaid before.—So far Mr. Reynardſon.

All meaſures whatſoever are either receptive or applicative.

The meaſures of capacity, or receptive meaſures, are again comprehended under the denomination of liquid and dry meaſures.

The liquid, for wine, brandy, vinegar, cyder, beer, ale, and ſuch other goods.

The dry, for grains, ſalt, coals, and ſuch like.

Applicative meaſures are either,

The yard, ell, cane, aune, and other ſuch meaſures, for linen and woollen cloth, ſilks, laces, ribbons, and other ſuch goods. Or,

The inch, foot, &c. for wood, or other longer meaſures of that nature, for land, &c.

Not to ſpeak of the fractions of an Engliſh pint, which are not worth the mentioning in a book of trade, the reader may obſerve, that two pints make a quart, two quarts a pottle, and two pottles a gallon; which meaſure contains 282 ſolid inches, and holds of rain-water ten pounds three ounces, or a little more, avoirdupois weight; eight gallons make a firkin of ale, two firkins make a kilderkin, two kilderkins a barrel, and twelve barrels a laſt.

It is otherwiſe in meaſuring of beer; for, though the ſmall meaſures for ale and for beer be the ſame, yet they reckon but eight gallons of ale, and count nine of beer to the firkin; two ſuch firkins to the kilderkin, and two kilderkins to the barrel. One barrel and a half, or three kilderkins, or ſix firkins, or 54 gallons of beer, make a hogſhead of beer; two hogſheads make a pipe or butt, and two pipes a ton, conſiſting of 1728 pints, weighing ſo many pounds.

The wine meaſures are ſmaller than thoſe for ale and beer, to which they bear the ſame proportion as four to five; ſo that four gallons of ale and beer are very near five gallons of wine. And each gallon of wine is 231 cubical inches, and holds eight pounds, one ounce, and four drachms, avoirdupois weight, of rain-water; eighteen of theſe gallons make a rundlet, 42 a tierce, 63 a hogſhead, 84 a puncheon, 126 a pipe or butt, and 252 a ton.

One pint of wine weighs one pound $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce Troy, and a ton 1700 pounds avoirdupois.

Note, What we generally call a tierce, in ſpeaking of wine meaſure, is one third part of a puncheon, and one ſixth of a ton.

Formerly they made uſe of the wine meaſure for beer, ale, cyder, &c. But now that is forbid under ſevere penalties, and none but the Wincheſter meaſure is uſed. And as for veſſels, in which beer, ale, &c. are contained, there is a ſtatute, 23 Hen. VIII. giving power, to the wardens of the myſtery of coopers within the city of London, to ſearch and gauge all veſſels made for ale, beer, &c. (and alſo for ſoap) to be ſold within the city, ſuburbs, or two miles thereof; and examining their contents and weight, and finding them right, to mark them with St. Andrew's croſs.

And, by ſtat. 31 Eliz. all brewers are forbid to ſell, or put to ſale in London, the ſuburbs, or within two miles compaſs of the ſuburbs, any beer or ale in butts, pipes, puncheons, hogſheads, tierces, or ſuch other foreign veſſels, 'till they be gauged by the maſter and wardens of the coopers of the city of London.

By ſtatute 16 and 17 Car. II. It is ordained that all ſea-coals brought into the river of Thames ſhall be ſold by the chaldron, to contain 36 buſhels heaped, according to the buſhel ſealed for that purpoſe at Guildhall, London. And coals, ſold by weight, are to be ſold after the rate of 112 pounds to the hundred, under the penalty of the forfeiture of all the coals, and double the value thereof, to be recovered in any court of record, or upon complaint to the lord-mayor and juſtices; one half to the perſon complaining, and the other to the poor, or repairing of the highways within the pariſh, &c. And, by the ſame ſtatute, the lord-mayor and court of aldermen of London are impowered to ſet rates and prices upon coals to be ſold by retail, allowing a competent clear profit to the retailer. This ſtatute by 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 36. is made perpetual.

The received proportion in the weights of liquids is thus: The amphora of the Romans held, of rain-water or wine, 50 pounds of Antwerp weight; 107 $\frac{5}{52}$ of which make 112 pounds of London; ſo that it is a little more than 5 per cent. larger than ours.

And a meaſure, containing of wine or rain-water 50 pounds

Contains of river-water - - -	53
Of butter or oil - - - - -	45
Of linſeed oil - - - - -	39
Of honey - - - - - -	35
Of quick ſilver - - - - -	850

Of receptive meaſures for dry goods, ſuch as corn, and all ſorts of grains, &c. there is

Firſt, the gallon, which is larger than the wine gallon, and ſmaller than the ale gallon, contains 272 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches cubical, and holds the weight of 9 pounds, 13 ounces, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ drachms, avoirdupois weight; 2 gallons make a peck, 4 pecks a buſhel, 4 buſhels a coomb, or cumock, 2 cumocks a quarter, ſeam or raff; and 10 quarters a laſt, which contains 5120 pints, and the ſame number of pounds Troy weight.

This is called Wincheſter meaſure, and by it, ſalt, lime, and coals are meaſured: but, in meaſuring the two latter of theſe commodities, the meaſures are heaped, or elſe 5 ſtricked pecks are allowed to the buſhel. 36 Buſhels make a chaldron of coals, and, on ſhipboard, 21 chaldrons are allowed to the ſcore.

A TABLE of DRY RECEPTIVE MEASURES.

							Qrts.	Pints
						Pott.	2	2
					Gal.	2	4	4
				Peck	2	4	8	8
			Buſh	4	8	16	32	16
		Qrtr	8	32	64	128	256	64
	Wey	5	40	160	320	640	1280	512
Laſt	2	10	80	320	640	1280	2560	2560
								5120

A buſhel, water meaſure, contains five pecks. Some make ſix quarters of meal a weye, and one weye three quarters a laſt.

The ſmalleſt applicative meaſure is a barley corn, of which,
Three make one finger's breadth or inch.
Four inches one hand, or hand's breadth.
Three hands one foot.
One foot and a half, or four hands and a half, one cubit.
Two cubits one yard, of ſixteen nails.
One yard and a quarter one ell.
And again,
Five feet make one geometrical pace.
Six feet one fathom; and
Sixteen feet and a half one perch, pole, or rod.
Forty perches one furlong; and
Eight furlongs one Engliſh mile, according to the ſtatute 11. Hen. VII.
Sixty Engliſh miles and a half, make a degree (though a degree be generally computed only ſixty miles.)

A TABLE of LONG MEASURES.

63360	21160	7040	5280	3520	1760	1408	1056	880	320	8	1 Mile
7920	2640	280	660	440	220	176	132	110	40	1	Furl.
198	66	82	16	11	5	4	3	2	1	Pole	
72	24	8	6	4	2	1	1	1	Fath		
60	20	6	5	3	1	1	1	Pace			
45	15	5	3	2	1	1	Ell				
36	12	4	3	2	1	Yard					
18	6	2	1	1	Cub.						
12	4	1	1	Feet							
9	3	1	Span								
3	1	Palm									
Inches											

MEA

Another TABLE of LONG MEASURE.

					Inches
				Feet	12
			Yard	3	36
		Pole	5½	16½	198
	Furl.	40	220	660	7920
Mile	8	320	1760	280	63360

In this table, the pole or perch is computed to be ſixteen feet and a half, which is the ſtatute meaſure; but there are ſome cuſtomary meaſures which are more, as for fens and woodlands they reckon eighteen feet to the pole, and for foreſts twenty-one.

A TABLE of SUPERFICIAL MEASURES.

					Feet
				Yard	9
			Pole	30¼	272¼
		Rood	40	1210	10890
	Acre	4	160	4810	43560
Mile	640	2560	10240c	30976	27878400

In this table, you have in a ſquare mile 640 ſquare acres, 2560 ſquare roods, &c. in a ſquare acre 4 ſquare roods, 160 ſquare poles, &c. in a ſquare pole 30 ¼ ſquare yards, and 272 ¼ ſquare feet, and in a ſquare yard 9 feet ſquare. Which being rightly underſtood, all the tables of reduction are ſufficiently explained.

The Engliſh mile, by ſtatute law, conſiſts of 5280 London feet, or 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs; of theſe miles, the experiments of Mr. Norwood and Mr. Picart, demonſtrate 69 and ſomewhat more, to be a degree of the earth's ſurface, though a degree has generally been reckoned but 60 miles.

A marine league is the 20th part of a degree, and moſt nations agree to reckon ſo for diſtances at ſea.

A French league is the 25th part of a degree, being near two Engliſh miles and three quarters.

A German mile is reckoned to be the fifteenth part of a degree, or better than four Engliſh miles.

A Dutch mile, or ſuch as are uſed in Holland, is near the nineteenth part of a degree, being about three Engliſh miles and an half.

An Italian mile is 1000 paces of five Roman feet each, and the Roman foot being ⅔ of an inch leſs than the London foot, or as 29 is to 30, it follows, that 76 Italian miles are neareſt to a degree, and the Turkiſh miles are reputed equal to the Italian.

The Danes, Swedes, and Hungarians, make long miles, about a German mile and a half, or at leaſt five or ſix Engliſh miles; the Poliſh miles are near equal to the Dutch miles, and reckoned about 20 to a degree.

The Scotch and Iriſh miles are longer than the Engliſh by about half.

The Spaniſh league is eſtimated at four Italian miles, and are reckoned 17 ½ to a degree.

The Ruſſians uſe a ſhort meaſure they call vorſt, which is a little more than three quarters of an Engliſh mile.

The Arabian mile, both ancient and modern, is about an Engliſh mile and a quarter.

Things that are not ſold by weight and meaſure, are ſold by tale.

In the primitive ages of the world, when mankind was but little acquainted with numbers, they counted by their fingers, as many Indian nations do at this time: and thence, probably it is, that the numerical letters, cyphers, and words are at moſt but ten, and in ſome places only five.

Several ſorts of goods are counted after that manner, ſuch as fiſh, hides, paper, parchment, ſables, and other things.

Cod and ling, and ſuch fiſh, have 134 to the 100.

Eels 25 to the ſtrike, and 10 ſtrike to the bind.

Herrings 120 to the 100, and 1200 to the 1000, which make a barrel, and twelve barrels make a laſt.

Of furrs, filches, grays, jennets, martins, mincks, and ſables, forty ſkins make a timber; and other ſkins have five ſcore to the hundred.

Of paper, twenty-four ſheets to the quire, twenty quires to the ream, and ten reams to a bale.

Of parchment, twelve ſkins make a dozen, and five dozen a roll.

Of hides, ten go to a dicker, and twenty to a laſt.

Hay is ſold by the truſs, containing fifty-ſix pounds, or the load of thirty-ſix truſſes *.

* Stat. 2 Will. and Mar. cap. 8. §. 16. every truſs of old hay offered to be ſold in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and within the bills of mortality, between the laſt of Auguſt and the firſt of June, ſhall contain 56 lb. and every truſs offered to be ſold between the firſt of June and the laſt of Auguſt, being new hay of the ſummer growth, ſhall contain 60 lb. being old hay, 56 lb; and the perſon bringin the ſame ſhall forfeit for every truſs of leſs weight, 1 s. 6d.

Glaſs by the ſeam of twenty-four ſtone, and the ſtone of five pounds.

A laſt of gunpowder contains twenty-four barrels, and the barrel a hundred pounds.

By avoirdupois weight is weighed all things that have waſte, as all grocery wares, roſin, wax, pitch, tar, tallow, ſoap, hemp, flax, wool, &c. all baſe metals and minerals, as iron, ſteel, lead, copper, allum, copperas, &c.

The ton avoir dupois is 20 hundred of all things, except lead, which has but 19 hundred and a half to the ton, or fodder.

The hundred weight avoirdupois contains 112 pounds, the ſtone, or half-quarter of the hundred, is 14 pounds.

But allum, cinnamon, nutmegs, pepper, and ſugar, have but 13 pounds and an half to the ſtone, or half-quarter of the hundred; 27 lb. to the quarter, 54 lb. to the half, and 108 lb. to the whole hundred.

Eſſex cheeſe and butter are weighed by the clove, or half-ſtone, allowing 8 lb. to each clove, and 32 cloves, or 156 lb. to the weye; and in Suffolk they allow 42 cloves, or 336 lb. to the weye.

Wool is ſold by the clove, allowing but 7 lb. to the clove, 14 lb. to the ſtone, 28 lb. to the tod, 182 lb. to the weye, 364 lb. to the ſack, and 4368 lb. to the laſt.

A faggot of ſteel is 120 lb. a burthen of gad ſteel is 9 ſcore, or 180 lb. 56 lb of butter, or 60 lb. of ſoap, make a firkin, and 2 firkins of either make a barrel.

Butchers allow but 8 lb. to the ſtone.

Of MEASURES for EXTENDED BODIES.

In England they make uſe of the aune or ell, for linen only; the yard, or verge, being the ordinary meaſure for cloth, ſilks, and all other ſuch goods.

As for timber, and other ſuch goods which have likewiſe length and breadth, as well as ſtuffs, they are meaſured by the foot, which is compoſed of inches, and the inches of lines; thoſe meaſures being likewiſe longer and ſhorter, according to the uſage of each country.

The veſſels in which liquid goods, ſuch as wine, brandy, vinegar, beer, oil, honey, &c. are kept, as every other thing, have alſo different names in ſeveral countries, ſuch as barrel, pipe, hogſhead, butt, tierce, muid, futaille, &c. of which more in the ſequel.

The meaſures for grain, ſalt, and other ſuch goods, are alſo different from one another, and have their different names, as we ſhall ſee in it's place.

All ſorts of metals, ſuch as gold, ſilver, braſs, tin, lead, &c. as well as many ſorts of ſilks, wool, thread, and ſeveral other ſorts of goods, as ſpiceries, ſoap, tallow, cheeſe, butter, &c. are ſold by certain quantities called weights, which likewiſe are different from one another in their names and ſorts.

Of the diviſion of MEASURES for extended bodies, their differences, and the addition of fractions by the aliquot parts, &c.

Of FOREIGN MEASURES.

The meaſures for extended bodies, as aunes or ells, canes, verges, or yards, &c. for meaſuring of cloth, of gold and ſilver, ſilk-ſtuff, linnen and woollen cloth, &c. are commonly divided by merchants into the following parts:

½, ¼, ⅛, and 1/16, or ⅓, 1/6, 1/12, and 1/24.

REMARKS.

As for the aunes, and other meaſures in foreign places, whither merchants may go to buy goods, it is very eaſy to meaſure them, either with a compaſs or a geometrical foot of England, Holland, or any other country; for knowing how many feet, inches, and lines, there is in the aune of Paris, or any other city, it is eaſy to reduce it into our yard of London, and to diſcover the difference that is between them.

For the compariſon of the Engliſh ell with that of the principal trading countries of Europe, ſee the article ENGLAND, where you will find them repreſented by tabular inſpection, with regard to thoſe ſeveral places.

MEASURES for LIQUID GOODS.

Having given a ſuccinct account of the meaſures made uſe of for extended goods, and of their difference and conformity with one another, the next thing that falls under conſideration, is the different ſorts of veſſels uſed for containing of liquids; ſuch as wine, vinegar, brandy, cyder, beer, oil, &c. of which I ſhall treat with as much order and brevity as poſſible.

Of MEASURES for WINE and VINEGAR.

The veſſels for containing wine and brandy have different names, according to the quantities they contain, and the countries where they are made uſe of.

The veſſel called in Germany woeder, made uſe of for keeping the wines that grow upon the Rhine and the Moſelle, do ordinarily contain 14 aams of Amſterdam, but ſometimes they contain more and ſometimes leſs.

The aam of Amſterdam is a meaſure of 4 anckers, reckoning the ancker of 2 ſteckans. See the article AAM.

The ſteckan contains 16 mingles, each of which makes two pints.

The verge, or verteel, of the wines upon the Rhine and the Moſelle, &c. is reckoned but 6 mingles, that of brandy is counted $6\frac{1}{6}$ mingles, as we ſhall ſee hereafter.

The hogſhead of Bourdeaux, according to the juſt meaſure, ſhould contain $12\frac{1}{2}$ ſteckans, or 200 mingles of wine and lee; and 12 ſteckans, or 192 mingles clear wine; ſo that the tun of Bourdeaux, conſiſting of 4 hogſheads, contains 50 ſteckans, or 800 mingles, wine and lee, and 48 ſteckans, or 768 mingles clear wine.

The tun of Bayonne, and other places thereabout, is reckoned 240 ſteckans, meaſure of Amſterdam, there being likewiſe 4 hogſheads to a tun.

In England, and eſpecially at London, they reckon the hogſhead 63, and the tun 252 gallons. The ſaid gallon weighs $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds weight of London; ſo that the 63 gallons, or the hogſhead, ſhould weigh $472\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, and the tun 1890 pounds weight of London. The ſaid gallon is ſaid to contain 4 Paris pints.

The hogſhead of Bourdeaux ſhould contain 110 pots with the lee, and 100 pots clear wine, meaſure of the ſaid place; ſo that the ſaid pot of Bourdeaux contains about 2 mingles of Amſterdam.

The Bourdeaux tun of wine ſhould weigh with the hogſhead, 2000 pounds weight; and, in marine terms in freighting of ſhips, by a ton, is meant 2000 pounds weight; ſo that, when it is ſaid any ſhip is of ſo many tons, it is to be underſtood that the ſhip can carry ſo many times 2000 pounds weight; though in Holland, Flanders, and other northern countries, they only talk of laſts, containing 2 tons each, or 4000 pounds weight.

The Rheniſh and Moſelle wines are ordinarily ſold at Amſterdam, the former at ſo many florins of about 20 each, current money, and the latter ſo many rixdollars, of 50 ſtivers each, current money, for the aam of 20 verges, or verteels, the verge being, at that rate, 6 mingles, as already ſaid.

French, Spaniſh, and Portugal wines are ſold at ſo many pound groſs the tun of 4 hogſheads, and there is ordinarily 1 per cent. rebate for payment in ready money, both buyer and ſeller paying brokerage, each 6 ſtivers per tun.

The muid of Paris contains 150 quarts, or 300 pints with the lee, and 280 pints clear wine, meaſure of Paris.

There are all over France a great many veſſels for keeping of wine, different from one another, according to the cuſtom of the ſeveral provinces where they are made uſe of; of which, though there be ſcarce any poſſibility to give an exact account, we ſhall here ſet down the regular fractions of the muid of Paris, 3 of which make the tun of France; and, as we have occaſion to ſpeak of the meaſures of the other provinces of France, we ſhall give as diſtinct an account as we can of their contents.

The pint of Paris is a meaſure pretty well known all over the world; 2 of thoſe pints make 1 quart, 4 quarts 1 ſextier, and 36 ſextiers 1 muid of Paris; 3 of which (as is already ſaid) make 1 tun of France.

The meaſure they make uſe of in Provence is called a millerole; that of Thouloufe ſhould weigh 130 pounds, and ought to contain 66 Paris pints, which is about 100 pints of Amſterdam.

At Montpelier, and ſeveral other places of Languedoc, their muid contains 18 ſextiers, and the ſextier 32 pots; ſo that the muid, which makes but 35 ſteckans, or 560 mingles of Amſterdam, makes 756 pots of Montpelier; by which it appears that the pot of Montpelier is $\frac{1}{38}$ leſs than the mingle of Amſterdam. However, you muſt here take notice that the caſks of Montpelier are not all of an equal meaſure, ſome being bigger than others; and, in ſeveral places of Provence, as well as High and Low Languedoc, they frequently tranſport wines, oils, and other ſuch goods, in veſſels made of goat-ſkins.

The butts and pipes of Seville, Malaga, Alicant, Liſbon, Port a Port, Canaries, and Iſles of Fagel, &c. are likewiſe of different ſizes; for the tun of Malaga, conſiſting of 2 butts or pipes (which they call Perſemyn at Amſterdam) is reckoned only 36 or 37 ſteckans; and thoſe of other places are reckoned at 25 or 26 ſteckans the butt or pipe.

As for the wine at Hamburgh and Lubeck, it is ſold at ſo many rixdollars of 48 ſtivers, or 3 marks lubs per tun.

Of BRANDY.

French Spaniſh, and Portugueze brandy, is ordinarily put into big caſks, which ſome call pipes, others butts, others pieces, viz. according to the cuſtom of the places, there being no poſitive meaſure regulated for that liquor.

In France it is ordinarily put into great caſks, which they call at Bourdeaux pieces, at Rochelle, Nantes, Cognac, Montguion, the Iſle of Rhé, &c. pipes, which (as we have already ſaid) contain ſome more than others, there being ſome which hold at Amſterdam from 60 to 90 verges, or verteels; and they reduce thoſe meaſures into hogſheads, by reckoning as under, for

1 Hogſhead makes
- 27 Verges of Cognac, Montguion, Rochelle, and the Iſle of Rhé.
- 29 Of Nantes, and other places in Britany and Anjou.
- 32 Of Bourdeaux, and other places in Guienne.
- 32 Of Bayonne, and places thereabouts.
- 30 Of Amſterdam, and other places of Holland.
- 30 Of Hamburgh and Lubeck.
- 27 Of Embden.

In Provence and Languedoc they ſell it at ſo much the quintal, or 100 weight with the caſk.

At Bruges they call the verges ſeſters, of 16 ſtoups to a ſeſter, which they ſell at ſo much a ſtoup.

At London, and generally through all England, they count only by gallons, as we have ſaid already.

The mingle of brandy weighs, at Amſterdam, 2 pounds 4 ounces; and the verge, or verteel, about 14 pounds; at which rate the 30 verges muſt weigh about 320 pounds.

At Bourdeaux, though pieces of brandy contain from 50 to 90 verges, they reckon but 32 to the hogſhead; the verge is ſomething leſs than $3\frac{1}{2}$ pots.

You muſt know that whatever there is at Bourdeaux in a piece of brandy more than 50 verges, is called by the farmers of the king's duty exces, or an exceſs, and pays ſo much per verge beſides the duties of ſortie, or exportation (as they call it) for the 50 verges.

Thoſe that make brandy ſeldom or never put it in ſmall barrels, or tierces, except it be deſigned for ſome particular places in America, or elſewhere, where thoſe ſmall meaſures are advantageouſly ſold to people, who, perhaps, would not be able to buy a pipe at a time; for a piece of brandy that contains perhaps $1\frac{1}{2}$ of an ordinary piece, coſts but very little more of freight and carriage than one that contains $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ leſs.

At Hamburgh it is likewiſe ſold at ſo many pounds groſs, of $7\frac{1}{2}$ marks lubs per pound groſs, or at ſo many rixdollars in banco; but at Lubeck it is paid in current money, there being no bank.

At Bremen, Copenhagen, and Embden, it is alſo ſold at ſo many rixdollars; and in this laſt place the hogſhead is counted but 27 verges.

At London it is ſold by the ton of 252 gallons; and, in ſhort, in every country according to the cuſtom of the country, which muſt always be ſtrictly enquired into by the dealers for their government.

Of MEASURES for OIL of OLIVES.

The oil of olives is ordinarily kept in butts or pipes, containing from 20 to 25 ſteckans, at 16 mingles a ſteckan; and there go 717 mingles, or 1434 pints of Amſterdam, to the tun of oil. They reckon at Genoa that the barrel of oil of olives weighs $187\frac{1}{2}$ pounds nett, of their weights, which make 125 pounds of Amſterdam; and 14 barrels make 717 mingles of the ſaid place, or thereabout.

At Leghorn, the barrel of oil of olives weighs 85 pounds of their weight, which is a little more than 59 pounds of Amſterdam.

In Provence they ſell it by the meaſure of that country, called millerolle, containing 66 Paris pints, which make about 100 pints of Amſterdam: and, in ſome places of that country and of Lower Languedoc, they put it in certain veſſels made of goat-ſkins, as they do the wine.

In Spain and Portugal it is put in butts and pipes, to be carried over ſeas, and ſometimes in great earthen veſſels called jars.

Of MEASURES for FISH-OIL.

Coarſe fiſh-oil is ordinarily kept in barrels, containing from 15 to 20 ſteckans each.

Of MEASURES for HONEY.

Honey is kept in many different ſorts of veſſels of wood and earth, and ſold in ſome places by meaſure, and in other places by weight.

At Amſterdam they ſell it at ſo many pounds groſs per ton, conſiſting of 6 tierces or aams, or by ſo many florins the barrel, or the 100 weight. The Bourdeaux and Bayonne honey is ſold at Amſterdam from 30l. to 40l. groſs the tun.

Of ROUND MEASURES for GRAIN, &c.

As the great diverſity of meaſures of capacity renders it very troubleſome for merchants to calculate the quantities thereof, it will be very neceſſary to give an account of thoſe that are uſed in the principal places of Europe for trade.

The laſt is of ſeveral ſorts, but all comprehended in theſe two, viz. the ſea-laſt and that uſed by land.

A laſt is reckoned at ſea both with regard to meaſure and weight according to the nature of the goods.

In

In meaſure, there are allowed to a laſt of goods 2 tuns, or 8 hogſheads of wine, 5 pieces of brandy or prunes, 12 barrels of herrings or peaſe, 13 barrels of pitch, 4 pipes or butts of oil of olives, and 7 quarters or barrels of fiſh-oil.
By weight, there is generally allowed to the laſt 4000 lb. but, as wool is bulky, they reckon only 2000 lb. to the laſt thereof, and 3000 lb. of almonds; and ſo likewiſe they make ſome abatements of ſeveral other ſorts of goods, in proportion to their bulk.
The land laſt is not the ſame in all places, there being ſome difference introduced by cuſtom in the ſeveral countries of Europe.

Of the Measures of Capacity of Amsterdam and Holland, &c.

The laſt of Amſterdam contains 27 muds, and each mud 4 ſcheppels.
Or, otherwiſe, the laſt of Amſterdam contains 36 ſacks, and the ſack 3 ſcheppels.
So that the mud is $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ſcheppel, and the cheppel is only $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mud.
A laſt of wheat commonly weighs between 4200 and 4800 lb. Rye between 4000 and 4200 lb. and barley between 3200 and 3400 lb.
But thoſe commodities are ſo much ſubject to alteration by their humidity, &c. that there is but little certainty in their weight.
The laſt of Amſterdam makes 19 ſextiers of Paris, or 38 buſhels of Bourdeaux; and three laſts make 4 muds of Rouen.
The laſt of Munickendam, Edam, Purmeran, and ſeveral other places of North Holland, is reckoned equal to that of Amſterdam.
But that of Hoorn and Enchuyſen, being likewiſe towns in North Holland, is of 22 muds, or 44 ſacks, of 2 ſcheppels each; and ſo is that of Muyden, Naerden, and Weeſoop, ſmall towns in the neighbourhood of Amſterdam.
At Haerlem they reckon 38 ſacks to the laſt, their ſacks conſiſting of 3 ſcheppels, 4 of which make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam, and 14 of thoſe ſacks make 1 hoedt of Delft.
The laſt of Alckmaer, in North Holland, contains 26 ſacks.
They reckon 44 ſacks to the laſt of Leyden, and 8 ſcheppels to the ſack.
The laſt of Rotterdam, Delft, and Schiedam, is compoſed of 29 ſacks, and the ſack of 3 ſcheppels, of which 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ make 1 hoedt; where, it is to be obſerved, that the laſt of thoſe places is 2 per cent. more than that of Amſterdam.
At Tergow they reckon 28 ſacks to the laſt, 3 ſcheppels to the ſack, and 32 ſcheppels to the hoedt.

Of the Last of Utrecht.

At Utrecht they reckon 25 muds, or ſacks, to the laſt, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ of which ſacks make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
The laſt of Amesfort is compoſed of 64 ſcheppels.
That of Montfoort, Yſſelſtein, Vianen, &c. is greater than that of Rotterdam; it is compoſed of 18 muds, and the mud of 2 ſacks.

Of the Last of Friesland.

The laſt of Leeuwarden, Haerlingen, and other towns of Weſt Frieſland, is compoſed of 33 muds.
And that of Groningen in Eaſt Frieſland is of the ſame meaſure.

Of the Last of Guelderland, and the country of Cleves.

The laſt of Nimeguen, Arnhem, and Dreſburgh, is compoſed of 22 mouvers, and the mouver of 4 ſcheppels, 8 of which mouvers make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
At Thiel they reckon 33 ſcheppels to the laſt.
At Burenande 68 ſcheppels.
At Haerderwick they reckon 11 muds to 10 of Amſterdam.

Of the Last of Over-Yssel.

The laſt of Campen is of 25 muds for corn, 9 of which make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
And 9 muids of Zwoll make likewiſe 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
The laſt of Deventer contains 36 muids of 4 ſcheppels each.

Of the Last of Zealand.

The laſt of Middleburgh is compoſed of 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſacks of 2 ſcheppels each, or a little more; and that of Fleſſing, Zirickzee, the Brill, and ſome other places, is ſomewhat different from it, the ſack being there reckoned 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſcheppels.

Of the Last of Brabant.

The laſt of Antwerp is compoſed of 38 verteels, of which 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ make 1 laſt of Amſterdam.
Their verteel is compoſed of 4 mukens, and 32 verteels make the ſack for oats.
At Bruſſels they reckon 25 ſacks equal to the laſt of Amſterdam.
At Malines they reckon 28 verteels equal to the laſt of Amſterdam.
The laſt of Louvain is compoſed of 37 muds, and each mud of 8 halſters.
At Breda and Steenbergue they reckon 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ verteels to the corn-laſt, and 29 for oats; and 13 verteels make 8 ſacks, or 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
At Bergen-op-Zoom, they allow 34 verteels to the laſt of corn, and 28 $\frac{1}{4}$ for oats.
That of Bois-le-Duc is compoſed of 20 $\frac{1}{2}$ mouvers, 8 of which make 1 hoedt of Amſterdam.

Of the Last of several towns in Flanders.

The laſt of Ghent is compoſed of 56 halſters for corn, and of 38 for oats: their mud is compoſed of 6 ſacks, each ſack of 2 halſters.
At Bruges the laſt is compoſed of 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ hoedts for corn, and 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ for oats, equal to the laſt of Amſterdam.
At St. Omers, the laſt is reckoned 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziers, the razier conſiſting of 2 ſcheppels.
At Dixmude, they reckon 30 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziers to the laſt of wheat, and 24 for oats.
At L'Iſle, they reckon 41 raziers to the laſt of wheat, and 30 for oats.
At Gravelin, they reckon 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziers to the laſt of corn, and 18 $\frac{3}{4}$ for oats.
Eighteen raziers of Dunkirk are equal to one hoedt of Rotterdam.

Of the Last of Liege.

The laſt of Liege is compoſed of 96 ſextiers, of 8 muds each: they reckon the corn-laſt of Tongres 15 muds, and that for oats but 14.

Of the Last of Great-Britain and Ireland.

The laſt of London conſiſts of 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarters, or barrels, compoſed of 8 buſhels each, and the buſhel of 4 gallons.
The buſhel weighs between 56 and 60 lb. and 10 buſhels of England make about 1 laſt of Amſterdam.
In Scotland, they reckon 38 buſhels to the laſt, and 18 gallons to the buſhel; and in Ireland the ſame thing.

Of the Last of Dantzick.

At Dantzick they reckon 36 ſcheppels to the laſt, which is equal to 58 ſcheppels of Amſterdam.
They likewiſe reckon 16 ſchippondts to the laſt, and 340 lb. to the ſchippondt, which makes 5440 lb. to the laſt; but they give only 15 ſchippondts or 5100 lb. weight the laſt of oats.
They likewiſe divide their laſt at Dantzick into 16 ſextiers, meaſure of Paris, or 20 buſhels of Bourdeaux.
They buy and ſell their corn at Dantzick, as every other thing, by Poliſh florins and groſs.

Of the Last of Riga.

At Riga they reckon 46 looper to be equal to the laſt of Amſterdam; and they buy and ſell it by rixdollars of 3 florins, or 90 Poliſh groſs.

Of the Last of Koningsberg.

Six laſt of that place are equal to 7 of Amſterdam.

Of the Last of Copenhagen.

They have there ſeveral laſts, which differ from one another conſiderably, according to the different ſorts of grain, or other commodities that are meaſured by them. Ricard makes mention of three ſeveral ſorts of laſts uſual in Copenhagen, viz. of 42 barrels, of 80 ſcheppels, and of 96 ſcheppels.

Of the Last of Stockholm.

At Stockholm they reckon 23 barrels to the laſt.

Of the Last of Hamburgh, Bremen, and Embden.

The laſt of Hamburgh conſiſts of 90 ſcheppels.
At Bremen they reckon 40 ſcheppels to the laſt; and 8 laſts of Bremen have held out to 7 laſts, 18 muds, and 1 ſcheppel, at Amſterdam.
At Embden they reckon 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ barrels to the laſt.

Of the Muid, &c. of France.

The principal meaſure made uſe of for grain, &c. at Paris, and moſt other places of the kingdom is called muid.
The muid contains 12 ſextiers, and the ſextier 12 buſhels.
The ſextier of good wheat weighs between 244 and 248 lb. marc weight.
They divide the ſextier of oats into 24 buſhels, which again are ſubdivided into ſeveral ſmaller meaſures.
Nineteen ſextiers of Paris are reckoned equal to 1 laſt of Amſterdam.
The muid of Roüen contains 12 ſextiers, which are equal to 14 of Paris: it ought to weigh about 3360 lb. marc weight, and makes 28 buſhels of Bourdeaux.
Four muids of Roüen are reckoned equal to 3 laſts of Amſterdam.
The ſextier of corn weighs 210 lb. weight of Roüen, and is divided into 2 mines, and the mine into 4 buſhels.
The muid of Orleans ought to weigh 600 lb. and is compoſed of 12 mincs, equal to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſextiers of Paris, or 5 buſhels of Bourdeaux.

The meaſure made uſe of at Lyons, called aſnée, is divided into 6 buſhels, equal to 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſextier, meaſure of Paris, or 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ buſhels of Bourdeaux.
Eight buſhels of Roüen make 1 ſextier of Paris, and 2 buſhels of Bourdeaux.
The aſnée of Macon makes 1 $\frac{2}{3}$ ſextiers of Paris, or 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ buſhels of Bourdeaux.
The 5 buſhels of Avignon make 3 ſextiers of Paris, and 6 buſhels of Bourdeaux.
The ſextier of Montpelier is compoſed of 2 emines, and the emine of 2 quarters. The ſextier, weighing between 90 and 95 lb. weight of that town, being between 75 and 80 lb. marc weight: ſo that 100 ſextiers make 1 laſt 22 muds of Amſterdam.
The ſextier of Caſtres is compoſed of 2 emines, and the emine of 16 buſhels. The ſextier weighs about 200 lb. weight of that place, which is about 170 lb. marc weight; ſo that it may be reckoned that 1001 ſextiers of Caſtres make 4 laſts of Amſterdam.
The ſextier of Abbeville is compoſed of 16 buſhels, and is equal to that of Paris.
The ſextier of Amiens weighs from 50 to 52 lb. and 5 ſextiers.
The ſextier of Bologne weighs 270 lb. ſmall weight; and 8 ſextiers of that place render 5 of Paris.
The ſextier of Calais weighs 260 lb. and 12 of them render 13 of Paris.
Which ſextier of Paris renders,

At
- St. Valery - - - 1 Sextier,
- Dieppe - - - - 18 Mines,
- Havre de Grace - - 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ Buſhels,
- Amboiſe - - - 14 Buſhels,
- Saumur - - - 1 Buſhel,
- Tours - - - - 14 Buſhels,
- Blois - - 20 Buſhels,
- Aubeterre - - 5 Buſhels,
- Barbeſieux - - 5 Buſhels,
- Perigueux - - 5 Buſhels.

The ſextier of Arles weighs only 93 lb. marc weight, and the load is 360 lb. weight of that country.
The load of Beaucaire is 2 per cent. greater that that of Arles.
The load of Marſeilles is compoſed of 4 emines, and weighs 300 lb. weight of Marſeilles, or thereabout, which make 343 lb. marc weight; 100 lb. of which make 123 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. weight of Marſeilles; ſo that the emine weighs 75 lb. weight of Marſeilles.
The load of St. Giles's is 18 or 20 per cent. greater than that of Arles.
The load of Tarſeon is 2 per cent. leſs than that of Arles.
The load of Toulon is compoſed of 3 ſextiers of that place, and the ſextier contains 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ emines, 3 of which make 2 ſextiers of Paris; or otherwiſe, they reckon that the buſhel weighs 31 lb. and that 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ buſhels make 1 ſextier of Paris.
The ton of Auray in Britany is reckoned 2200. lb.
That of Audierne 2300 lb.
That of Breſt is 2240 lb.
That of Hennebon 2950 lb.
Port Lewis the ſame.
Quinpercorentin the ſame.
The ton of Nantes is compoſed of 10 ſextiers, and the ſextier of 16 buſhels: it weighs between 2200 and 2250 lb. the meaſure being heaped, and 18 or 20 per cent. leſs, if otherwiſe.
The ton of Rennes weighs 2400 lb.
That of St. Malo the ſame.
The ton of Brieux 2600 lb.
That of Rochelle and Maran 42 buſhels.

Of Spain.

At Seville they reckon 4 cahy's to a laſt, each cahy conſiſting of 12 anegra's.
The fanegue of Cadiz weighs 93 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. weight of Marſeilles, 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ lb. of which make the load of 300 lb. weight of Marſeilles aforeſaid, or 243 lb. marc weight.

Of Portugal.

At Liſbon they reckon 4 alguiers to the fanegue, 15 fanegues to the muid, and 4 muids to the laſt of Amſterdam.

Of Italy.

Grain is ſold at Genoa by the mine.
Two ſacks of wheat at Leghorn make 288 lb. weight of Marſeilles.
Corn is ſold at Venice by the ſextier or ſtaro, which is the ordinary meaſure, two of which make a load of Marſeilles.

Of the chief Measures of Constantinople, and of the East-Indies in general.

There being but about 3 per cent. difference betwixt the aunes of Amſterdam and pico's of Conſtantinople, 100 aunes of Amſterdam make 103 pico's of Conſtantinople; 100 pico's of Conſtantinople make 97 aunes of Amſterdam.

Measures of Fort St. George, or Madras.

Gainr Measures.

1 Meaſure weighs about - -	2 lb.	10 oz. avoir.
8 Ditto is 1 mercal - -	21	—
3200 Ditto is 400 ditto, or 1 garſe	8400	—

1 Madras rupee weighs 7 dwts. 11 gr. Troy, and is better than Engliſh ſtandard 14 dwts. 10 gr. in 1 lb: it is country-touch 9 $\frac{7}{8}$, China-touch 98 $\frac{3}{4}$. See East-India Company.

Liquid and Dry Measures.

1 Meaſure is equal to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pint Engliſh of 423 cubic inches.
8 Ditto are equal to 1 mercal of 3384 cubic inches.
400 Mercals are equal to 1 garſe of 1,353,600 cubic inches.
1 Covid is equal to 18 $\frac{6}{10}$ inches.
N. B. One meaſure weighs about 2 lb. 8 oz. avoirdupois.
Eight ditto weigh about 21 lb. or 22 lb.
3200 Ditto is 400 mercals, or 1 garſe, which weighs 8400 lb. which is 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons, or 100 Bengal baazar maunds of 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr. each.

Bengal Measures.

One meaſure is five ſeer.
Eight ditto are forty ſeer.
The covid (in cloth-meaſure) is nine inches.

Of Malacca Measures.

A Malacca quoing is 3200 chupas, or 800 cantins, equal to 5000 Dutch pounds, or 5475 lb. Engliſh, or Canton peculs (according to the Dutch calculation of 125 lb. to a pecul) 40 peculs.
A laſt is 2000 chupas, 500 cantins, 3000 Dutch pounds, 24 peculs, 3285 lb. Engliſh.

Anjengo Measure.

One Anjengo covid is eighteen inches Engliſh.

Callicut and Tellicherry Measure.

One covid is eighteen inches Engliſh; and the Callicutt guz, made uſe of in meaſuring timber, is equal to 28 $\frac{2}{10}$ inches Engliſh.
They likewiſe, ſometimes at Callicut, meaſure their timber by the covid and borrebl; twelve borrebls is one covid when the timber is ſawed, and twenty-four borrebls is one covid when unſawed: the price generally is one Callicut fanam per ſolid covid.

Carwar Measure.

One covid is eighteen inches Engliſh.

Surat Measures,

Are the larger and leſſer covid, viz.
One covid of 36 inches, and one covid 27 inches.
By the latter all things are ſold except broad cloath, velvet, and ſattin, which are ſold by the large covid, or Engliſh yard.

Gombroon Long Measure.

93 Guz are equal to 100 yards Engliſh.

Mocha Measures.

Rice, and other grain, are ſold by the kalla and tomand; forty kallas is one tomand, and weighs about 165 lb. but the governor's cuſtom (of half a kalla per tomand upon all grain ſold) being deducted, and the intolerable cheat in the meaſuring, together with the pilferage from the water-ſide home, being allowed for, the Bengal maund will not come out above nineteen kallas; whereas one bag, or Bengal maund, ought to hold out more than a tomand; but, for the foregoing reaſon, two Bengal maunds ſeldom come out above thirty-eight kallas, and rarely that. See East-India-Company and East-India Trade.
Oil is ſold by the cudda, noosfia, and vakia.
Sixteen vakias is one noosfia.
Four noosfias, or meaſures, one cuddy poiſe, about 18 lb.
Of late years the price has been from three to five noosfias per Mocha dollar; and, computing the dupper of two Bengal factory maunds to hold out about 67 or 68 meaſures each, at which rate the noosfia, or meaſure, weighs about 2 $\frac{1}{4}$.
Cotton is ſold by the hearf, and nine hearfs is 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mocha dollars: it generally ſells from 30 to 40 hearfs per bahar.

Long Measure.

The guz is twenty-five inches Engliſh.
The covid is nineteen inches Engliſh.

China.

Canton Measure.

Ten punt is one covid in piece goods, equal to 14 $\frac{5}{8}$ inches.

Remarks.

The following conformity of meaſures in regard to grain being of uſe, we ſhall give the reader the ſame from La Bibliotheque des Jeunes Negocians, by the Sieur Larue, merchant at Lyons, dedicated to the count de Maurepas, and publiſhed in the year 1747; which is eſteemed the moſt modern and authentic account that is publiſhed in Europe.

Of

Of the CONFORMITY of the MEASURES of AMSTERDAM, PARIS, and BOURDEAUX, with regard to GRAIN.

Names of places.	Different measures.	Measure of Amsterdam.	Measure of Paris.	Measure of Bourdeaux.
A.				
Abbeville	6 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Agen	100 Sacks	3 Lasts	56 ½ Sextiers	113 Bushels
Alby	100 Sextiers	4 Lasts	75 Sextiers	150 Bushels
Alcmaer	26 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Amboise	14 Bushels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Amersfort	64 Scheppels	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Amiens	4 Sextiers	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Amsterdam	1 Last	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Antwerp	32 ½ Verteels	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Aubeterre	5 Bushels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Audienne	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Auray	100 Bushels	35 Muds	25 Sextiers	50 Bushels
Avignon	5 Bushels	4 ½ Muds	3 Sextiers	6 Bushels
B.				
Barbesieuz	5 Bushels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Bayonne	3 ½ Conques	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Beucaire	18 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Beaumont	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 17 Muds	50 Sextiers	100 Bushels
Beauvais	1 Ton	18 Muds	12 ½ Sextiers	25 Bushels
Bergerac	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 ½ Sextiers	7 Bushels
Bergen-op-Zoom	34 Verteels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bois-le-Duc	20 ½ Mouv.	1 Last 5 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Blois	20 Bushels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Bologne	8 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Bommel	28 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bourdeaux	38 Bushels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bouret	100 Sacks	3 ¼ Lasts	66 ½ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Bréau	100 Cartieres	3 ½ Lasts	66 ½ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Breda	32 ½ Verteels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bremen	40 Scheppels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Brest	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Bruges	17 ½ Hoedts	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Brussels	25 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
C.				
Cadillac	100 Sacks	3 Lasts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
Cadiz	46 Fanegas	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Cahors	100 Cartes	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Calais	12 Sextiers	18 Muds	13 Sextiers	26 Bushels
Campen	25 Muds	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Canville	100 Sacks	3 Lasts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
Castel-jaloux	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 23 Muds	54 Sextiers	108 Bushels
Castel-mauron	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 ½ Sextiers	7 Bushels
Castenau Medoc	100 Quartiers	3 Lasts 10 Muds	64 Sextiers	128 Bushels
Castel-Sararin	100 Sacks	3 ½ Lasts	67 Sextiers	134 Bushels
Castres Languedoc	100 Sextiers	4 Lasts	75 Sextiers	150 Bushels
Caude-Coste	100 Sacks	3 Lasts	58 ½ Sextiers	117 Bushels
Clairac	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Bushels
Concarneau	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Bushels
Condom	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 12 Muds	48 Sextiers	96 Bushels
Coningsberg	6 Lasts	7 Lasts	133 Sextiers	266 Bushels
Copenhagen	42 Tons	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Creon	100 Sacks	3 ½ Lasts	62 ½ Sextiers	125 Bushels
D.				
Dantzick	1 Last	14 ½ Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Delft	29 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Deventer	36 Muds	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dieppe	18 Mines	1 Mud	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dixmude	30 ½ Raziers	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Doesbourgh	22 Mouvers	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dort, or Dordrecht	24 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dunkirk	100 Raziers	8 Lasts 11 Muds	102 Sextiers	204 Bushels
Dunds	100 Sacks	3 Lasts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
E.				
Edam	27 Muds	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Eguillon	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 12 Muds	48 Sextiers	96 Bushels
Embden	15 ¼ Ton	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Enchuysen	44 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
England	240 Quarters	25 Lasts	475 Sextiers	950 Bushels
Espersack	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 17 Muds	50 Sextiers	100 Bushels
Estaffort	100 Bushels	2 Lasts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Bushels
F.				
Flessing	40 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Fronsac	100 Sacks	3 ½ Lasts	66 ½ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Fronton	100 Sacks	3 Lasts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Bushels
G.				
Gaillac	100 Sextiers	4 Lasts 15 Muds	86 ½ Sextiers	173 Bushels
Ghent	56 Halsters	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Gensac	100 Sacks	2 Lasts 14 Muds	68 ½ Sextiers	137 Bushels
Gimond	100 Sacks	5 Lasts 6 Muds	99 Sextiers	198 Bushels
Goes	40 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Goudies	28 Sacks	1 Last	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels

Names of places.	Different meaſures.	Meaſure of Amſterdam.	Meaſure of Paris.	Meaſure of Bourdeaux.
Gravelines	22 ½ Raziers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Grenada	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 10 Muds	64 Sextiers	128 Buſhels
Griſoles	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 10 Muds	64 Sextiers	128 Buſhels
Groeninguen	33 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
H.				
Haerlem	38 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Hamburgh	90 Scheppels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Harderwyck	11 Muds	10 Muds	7 Sextiers	14 Buſhels
Harlingen	33 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Havre de Grace	5 ¼ Buſhels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
Hennebon	1 Ton	18 Muds	12 ½ Sextiers	25 ⅓ Buſhels
Hoorn	44 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
I.				
Ireland	38 Buſhels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
L.				
La Brille	40 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
La Guerre	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 23 Muds	54 Sextiers	108 Buſhels
La Magiſtere	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Buſhels
Lanion	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Buſhels
La Reolle	100 Sacks	3 ¼ Laſts	62 ½ Sextiers	125 Buſhels
La Roche de Rion	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
La Rochel	42 Buſhels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Lavaur	100 Sacks	4 Laſts	76 Sextiers	152 Buſhels
Layrac	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 4 Muds	60 Sextiers	120 Buſhels
Le Mas d'Agenois	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 20 Muds	52 ½ Sextiers	105 Buſhels
Le Mas de Verdun	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Buſhels
Les Adricus	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
Les Pare	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Buſhels
Leeuwarden	33 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Leyden	44 Sacks	36 Sacks	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Leytour	100 Sacks	3 Laſts	57 Sextiers	114 Buſhels
Libourne	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Buſhels
Liege	96 Sextiers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Liſle in Flanders	41 Raziers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Limuel	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 ¾ Sextiers	7 ½ Buſhels
Lion	3 Aſnées	5 Muds	3 ¾ Sextiers	7 ½ Buſhels
Liſbon	240 Alquieres	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Liſle d'Albegeois	100 Sextiers	7 Laſts 5 Muds	130 Sextiers	260 Buſhels
Liſle Dieu	1 Ton	14 ¼ Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Buſhels
Livourne, or Leghorn	2 Sacks	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
London	10 ⅖ Quartiers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Louvain	27 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Scxtiers	38 Buſhels
Lubeck	95 Scheppels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
M.				
Macon	3 Aſnées	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Buſhels
Malines	28 Verteels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Maran	24 Buſhels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Marſeilles	1 Load	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
Mas d'Agenois	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 20 Muds	52 ½ Sextiers	105 Buſhels
Mas de Verdun	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Buſhels
Middleburgh	42 ½ Sacks	36 Sacks	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Miramban	100 Buſhels	3 Laſts	57 Sextiers	114 Buſhels
Mirandous	100 Buſhels	3 Laſts	57 Sextiers	114 Buſhels
Moiſſac	100 Sacks	3 ½ Laſts	62 ½ Sextiers	125 Buſhels
Moncaſſin	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 13 Muds	54 Sextiers	108 Buſhels
Montauban	100 Sextiers	7 Laſts 10 Muds	140 Sextiers	280 Buſhels
	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 18 ½ Muds	70 Sextiers	140 Buſhels
Montandre	100 Buſhels	3 Laſts 5 Muds	62 Sextiers	124 Buſhels
Montfort	18 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Montpellier	100 Sextiers	1 Laſt 22 Muds	35 Sextiers	70 Buſhels
Morlaix	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
Munickendam	27 Muds	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Muyden	44 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
N.				
Narden	44 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Nantes	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
Narbonne	100 Sacks	5 Laſts	95 Sextiers	190 Buſhels
Narmoutier	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Negrepeliſſe	100 Sextiers	8 ⅓ Laſts	158 Sextiers	316 Buſhels
	100 Sacks	4 ¼ Laſts	79 Sextiers	158 Buſhels
Nerac	100 Sacks	3 Laſts	57 Sextiers	114 Buſhels
Nimeguen	22 Mouvers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
O.				
Orleans	1 Muid	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
P.				
Pain d'Avaine	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
Paris	1 Muid	17 Muds	12 Sextiers	24 Buſhels
	100 Sextiers	5 ½ Laſts	100 Sextiers	200 Buſhels
Perigueux	5 Buſhels	2 ½ Muds	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
Pont l'Able	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Port Louis	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Purmerent	27 Muds	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Puymirol	100 Sacks	3 Laſts	57 Sextiers	114 Buſhels

Names of places.	Different meaſures.	Meaſure of Amſterdam.	Meaſure of Paris.	Meaſure of Bourdeaux.
Q.				
Quiberon	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Quinpercorantin	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Quimperlay	1 Ton	18 Muds	12 ½ Sextiers	25 Buſhels
R.				
Rabaſtens	100 Sextiers	5 Laſts 2 Muds	96 ½ Sextiers	193 Buſhels
Realmont	100 Sextiers	4 Laſts 10 Muds	83 Sextiers	166 Buſhels
Realville	100 Sextiers	8 Laſts 10 Muds	158 Sextiers	316 Buſhels
	100 Sacks	4 Laſts	76 Sextiers	152 Buſhels
Redon	1 Ton	14 ½ Muds	10 ½ Sextiers	21 Buſhels
Rennes	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Ribeyrac	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 ½ Sextiers	7 Buſhels
Riga	46 Loopen	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Roan	8 Buſhels	1 ⅕ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
Rotterdam	29 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Rouen	12 Sextiers	20 Muds	14 Sextiers	28 Buſhels
Royan	100 Quartiers	3 Laſts 12 Muds	67 ½ Sextiers	137 Buſhels
Ruremond	68 Scheppels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
S.				
Saint Brieu	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Buſhels
Saint Cadou	1 Ton	13 ½ Muds	9 ½ Sextiers	19 Buſhels
Saint Gilles	40 Loads	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Saint Malo	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Buſhels
Saint Omer	22 ½ Raziers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Saint Valery	19 Sextiers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Saint Lieurade	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 18 Muds	53 Sextiers	106 Buſhels
Saumur	19 Sextiers	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Schiedem	29 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Seville	46 Fanegras	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Stockholm	23 Tons	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
T.				
Talemont	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 4 Muds	60 Sextiers	120 Buſhels
Taraſcon	3 Emines	3 Muds	2 Sextiers	4 Buſhels
Teertoleu	93 Scheppels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Tervere	28 Scheppels	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Thiel	28 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Toulouſe	100 Sextiers	3 Laſts 3 Muds	59 Sextiers	118 Buſhels
Tongres	15 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Tonneins	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 19 Muds	49 Sextiers	98 Buſhels
Toulon	3 Emines	3 Muds	2 Sextiers	4 Buſhels
Tournon	100 Sacks	2 Laſts 15 Muds	48 Sextiers	96 Buſhels
Tours	14 Buſhels	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
V.				
Valence in Agen.	100 Sacks	3 ¼ Laſts	62 ½ Sextiers	125 Buſhels
Vannes in Bret.	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Buſhels
Venice	2 Staros	1 ½ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Buſhels
Verdun	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Buſhels
Villemur	100 Sacks	3 Laſts 9 Muds	64 Sextiers	128 Buſhels
Villen d'Agen.	100 Buſhels	2 Laſts 21 Muds	53 Sextiers	106 Buſhels
Utrecht	25 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
W.				
Weeſop	44 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Y:				
Yſſelſtein	18 Muds	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Z.				
Zirick-Zee	40 Sacks	1 Laſt	19 Sextiers	38 Buſhels
Zwol	9 ½ Muds	9 ¾ Muds	7 ½ Sextiers	15 Buſhels

Of Round Measures for Salt.

Salt is ſold by different meaſures in the ſeveral places where that commodity is made, and whither it is tranſported and expoſed to ſale.

The moſt conſiderable places where it is made, are Marenne, Brouage, Tremblade, Rochelle, Maran, Nantes, and other places in the provinces of Britany, Sainteonge, and the country of Aunix in France; and the iſlands of Rhé, Oleron, and others, upon the coaſt of that kingdom; and Cadiz and St. Ubes, and other places in Spain and Portugal.

And from thence it is tranſported in vaſt quantities to ſeveral parts of Europe.

In France it is ſold by the muid, which is greater or leſs, according to the cuſtom of the ſeveral provinces where it is made, and where it is ſold.

At Paris, they divide the muid into twelve ſextiers, and the ſextier into four minots.

At Marenne, the Iſle of Rhé, and other places in France, where ſalt is made, they ſell it by the hundred, which they divide into 28 muids, and the muid into 24 buſhels.

The hundred renders commonly at Amſterdam 11 ½ laſts, or 23 tons.

At Bourdeaux, that muid renders 42 pipes, or 252 ſacks or minots.

The minot commonly weighs about 240 pounds, marc weight.

But the ſalt that is made at Brouage and in the Iſle of Rhé, is heavier than that of Marenne, Tremblade, and Oleron.

The hundred of Brouage, the Iſle of Rhé, &c. renders 11 ¼ or 11 ½ laſts, which weigh about 45 or 46,000 weight.

At Copenhagen it renders 9 ½ laſts, or 18 tons.

At Konigſberg it renders about ten laſts, or 40,000 pounds weight. And it is to be obſerved, that ſtrangers are not allowed there to keep ſalt in ſtorehouſes to ſell.

At Riga it likewiſe renders about 10 laſts, nor are ſtrangers allowed any greater privilege about it than at Koningſberg.

At Dantzick it renders 11 ½, and ſometimes 12 laſts: 7 ¼, or 7 ½ of which, make the great hundred of Amſterdam.

Strangers may ſell ſalt at Dantzick to the inhabitants, but not tranſport it by the canals, nor ſell it to other ſtrangers.

At Stetin in Pomerania, it renders 10 laſts, or 40,000 pounds weight.

In Portugal ſalt is ſold by the muid, four of which make one laſt, and ſeven the hundred, of 404 ſcheppels, meaſure of Amſterdam.

The muid of France renders about 7 ½ laſts, meaſure of London.

It is ſold at Amſterdam by the hundred of 404 ſcheppels, which is reckoned 7 laſts, or 14 tons, or 28,000 pounds weight, which is alſo counted 208 ſacks.

Some EXAMPLES, to illuſtrate the converſion of the MEASURES of one country into thoſe of others.

Suppoſe that you would know how many aunes of Troyes in Champagne 100 aunes of Paris will make, and that to diſcover the ſame you have no other knowledge than what follows; which we ſhall exhibit and operate according to the rule of conjunction, that we have exemplified in variety of caſes throughout this work. See the articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, HAMBURGH, HOLLAND, EXCHANGE.

	Antecedents.		Conſequents.
If	7 Aunes of Paris	make	9 Yards of London,
And	36 Yards of London	——	49 Aunes of Holland,
	7 Aunes of Holland	——	9 Braces of Milan,
	3 Braces of Milan	——	2 Vares of Arragon,
	5 Vares of Arragon	——	2 Canes of Montpelier,
	9 Canes of Montp.	——	10 Canes of Toulouſe,
	4 Canes of Toul.	——	9 Aunes of Troyes—

How many of Troyes will 100 aunes of Paris make?

Rule—Multiply the antecedents together for a diviſor, and the conſequents for a dividend, and you will find the quotient to be 150 ells of Troyes to be equal to 100 ells of Paris.—Or abbreviated according to what is taught under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, &c. will ſtand thus, which is performed in a minute's times, without thoſe tedious multiplications, and will ſtand thus by way of equation.

7 = 9
36 = 49 7
7 = 9
3 = 7
5 = 7
7 9 = 7 7
2 4 = 9 3
100

So that the product of all the antecedents, abridged, is reduced to 2 for a diviſor, and the product of the conſequents to $3 \times 100 = 300$, and divided by $2 = 150$ the anſwer.

EXAMPLE II.

Suppoſe that you owe 100 ânées of wheat at Lyons, and that you would know what quantity you muſt purchaſe at Mâcon to replace them, and that you have no other knowledge to come at the ſame than by ſaying, viz.

If	3 ânées of Lyons	make	4 Sextiers of Paris,
And	1 Sextier of Paris	——	2 Buſhels of Bourdeaux,
	38 Buſhels of Bourd.	——	27 Muds of Amſterdam,
	27 Muds of Amſter.	——	46 Fanégas of Cadiz,
	230 Fanégas of Cadiz	——	57 ânées of Mâcon:

How much does 100 of Lyons make?

The whole abridged will ſtand thus:

3 = 4 2
1 = 7
7 38 = 7 7
7 7 = 46
7 30 = 57 19
115 100

Ergo $\frac{46 \times 2 \times 100}{115}$ Anſw. = 80 ânées ſhould be bought at Mâcon to replace 100 at Lyons.

REMARKS.

If the rules that we have laid down, and the reaſons thereof which we have demonſtrated, in the ſeveral parts of this work to which we have referred, be duly attended to, theſe operations can require no farther elucidation. The ſame method of calculation is applicable to weights as well as meaſures. See WEIGHTS.

MECHANICAL ARTS. Throughout the courſe of this work, we have endeavoured to ſhew, that artificers, mechanics, and manufacturers, are the grand baſis of all our preſent commerce; and that our ſtudents and experimentaliſts in arts and philoſophy, in conjunction with theſe practical artizans, and the ſagacity and induſtry of our merchants, are the very life and ſoul of all our trafficable advancements and ſplendor. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MATHEMATICS, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, MUSÆUM, ROYAL SOCIETY.

What has been amply urged under the two former of theſe heads, will, in a great meaſure, hold good under this article of MECHANICS and MECHANICAL ARTS; and, therefore, we ſhall have the leſs to ſay upon the preſent occaſion.

As nothing more evidently ſhews the high value and importance of this claſs of people to commercial ſtates, than the daily artifices of our rival nations in trade, to decoy the moſt ingenious of our mechanics and manufacturers out of the kingdom; ſo nothing would ſhew the wiſdom of the nation more, than to make it for the intereſt of ſuch to remain among us, and to increaſe the number, as being the chief inſtruments to preſerve and advance the trade of the nation. To which end, nothing can ſo much contribute as the advancement of our old and eſtabliſhed branches of foreign trade, and the promotion of new: and theſe depend on the wiſdom of parliament, and that of the royal councils.

One general ſtrain that runs through this work, the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, is, to ſhew, how great a variety of trades depends upon ſound philoſophy: that is, philoſophy founded on repeated and unerring experiments, and appoſitely applied, in conjunction with the mathematical arts to practical trades. See the above articles. And, if this be the caſe, it follows, that, in order to improve the old mechanic arts, and to diſcover new, ſuch philoſophy and mathematics muſt be encouraged, or our practical artizans will be deprived of ſome of their beſt coadjutors; for it would be no difficulty to ſhew, that moſt trades and arts have been derived from this claſs of men; who, although they paſs ſilently through life in their ſerene and contemplative way, yet their memories deſerve to be eternally revered.

How that philoſophy may be effectually promoted, which has been the parent of all trades, and will ever continue to advance them, will not be judged incompatible with a work of this nature. It is therefore we have interlarded ſo much philoſophy, as is requiſite to ſhew how far particular trades depend thereupon; and we have alſo under the heads referred to endeavoured to ſhew, in what manner philoſophy ought to be encouraged by trade, ſince trade is ſo highly indebted to philoſophy.

At preſent, I ſhall only add, to what has been obſerved upon ſimilar occaſions, a recommendation to our Britiſh artiſts to endeavour to imitate all thoſe curious arts, which are practiſed to any ſuperior degree of perfection in all other nations whatſoever; for this will prove one great means to advance the intereſt of particular trades. That I may not be miſunderſtood, it may be proper to intimate a few inſtances.

REMARKS on MECHANICAL ARTS.

The country of Bengal furniſhes materials or mechanic arts and ſciences equal to moſt countries. The artizans here have wonderful ſkill and dexterity: they excel partieularly in making linen cloth, which is of ſuch fineneſs, that very long and broad pieces of it may eaſily be drawn through a ſmall ring. If you tear a piece of muſlin into two pieces, and give it to one of their fine-drawers to ſet it together again, it will be impoſſible for you to diſcover where it is joined, though you mark it on purpoſe to know it. They will place together ſo artifically the pieces of glaſs or China ware, that one cannot perceive it was ever broken.

Their embroiderers work in filigreen very curiouſly: they imitate exactly any work made in Europe, though the engine they make uſe of, and all their other utenſils, do not coſt them above the value of a crown.

The looms that their weavers uſe, do not coſt them more: with theſe they ſit in in their courts and yards, or on the ſide of the highway, and work thoſe fine ſtuffs that are ſo highly eſteemed over all the world.

They have here no need of wine to make aqua vitæ, but make it of a ſyrup, ſugar, ſome certain ſorts of barks, and raiſins; it burns better, and is ſtronger than that made in Europe.

They paint flowers, and gild very finely upon glaſs. I was ſurprized, ſays our author, to ſee their veſſels which they uſe to cool water in, and are not thicker than two leaves of paper paſted together.

Their watermen row after a different manner from ours; they move the oar with their feet, and their hands ſerve inſtead of the hypomochlion, or roller on which it turns.

The liquor which their painters uſe, does not any way loſe it's colour, nor is it tarniſhed by lye.

They make uſe of a kind of hand-mill to break their ſugar-canes, which does not coſt them above the value of ten pence.

The perſon that grinds, works and faſhions the ſtone himſelf with lac and emery.

Their maſons will pave the largeſt room with a ſort of cement made of brick duſt and lime, ſo that it ſhall ſeem to be but one ſtone, and is much harder than gravel. I ſaw them make a ſort of pent-houſe, ſays our author again, that was 40 feet long, 8 feet broad, and 5 or 6 inches thick; which they raiſed up in my preſence, and fixed it to the wall on one ſide only, without putting any prop under it to ſupport it.

Their pilots take the altitude (or latitude of places) with a cord that has ſeveral knots in it. They put one end of the cord between their teeth, and by means of a piece of wood fixed to it, that has a hole through it, they eaſily obſerve the tail of Urſa minor, which is commoly called the polar ſtar, or north pole.

Their lime is uſually made of ſea ſhells: that which is made of ſnail-ſhells, ſerves to whiten their houſes; and that which is made of ſtones they chew with the leaves of betel. I have ſeen ſome of them that would take as much of it in a day, as the quantity of an egg.

They make their butter in the firſt pot that comes to hand; they cleave a ſtick into four quarters at one end, and, ſtretching them out aſunder in proportion to the ſize of the pot that contains the milk, they turn the ſtick round different ways (backwards and forwards) by means of a cord twiſted about it, and by this means in a ſhort time make the butter.

Thoſe that ſell butter have the art of making it paſs for freſh, when it is old and rank. To do this they melt it, and pour upon it ſour curdly milk; and in eight hours after they take it out in lumps, and ſtrain it through a cloth for ſale.

Their chemiſts make uſe of the firſt pot they meet with to revive cinnabar, and other preparations of mercury, which they do after a very ſimple manner. They eaſily reduce all metals into a powder, as I myſelf can witneſs. They ſet a great value upon talc and braſs, which conſume, as they ſay, all viſcous humours, and remove the moſt ſtubborn obſtructions.

The Chineſe gild paper with leaf-gold and ſilver, laid on with a very good ſort of varniſh they have, which is the ſame wherewith they varniſh their lacquered wares; all which, after it is thoroughly dry, they put in a ſcrew-preſs, and, with an inſtrument like our plane, ſhave it as fine as they pleaſe. They alſo gild paper on one ſide with leaf-gold, then cut it in long pieces, and weave it into their ſilks, which makes them, with little or no coſt, look very rich and fine. The ſame long pieces are twiſted about ſilk thread by them ſo artificially, as to look finer than gold-thread, though it be of no great value.

Among the Japoneſe, they have the art of making lacca in a manner ſuperior to the Europeans: there is ſome ſo fine and curious, that whereas, in this country, one may buy an ordinary ſmall box for three or four crowns; one of the ſame ſize, when made in Japan of exquiſite lacca, will ſell for more than eighty crowns. The author of this account hath four cabinets of his workmanſhip, which he affirms to have coſt him about 40,000 crowns, which he will not ſell under 80,000 crowns. Philoſ. Tranſ. n. 49.

The colours wherewith they dye their ſtuffs never fade: I have ſeen one of them, which our vermilion and couleur de feu, as the French call it, come not near to. It is extracted out of a flower like to ſaffron, and one pound of it coſts an incredible price. To try whether the colour will not change by lixivium or lye, they apply an hot iron to it; and, if there it holds, they aſſure themſelves of the durableneſs of the colour.

The method of making ſalt, at Chuſan and China, may deſerve regard: it is this: all the ſhores here being mud, inſtead of ſand, in the ſummer-ſeaſon they pare off the ſuperficial earth which has been overflown with the ſalt-water, and lay it up in heaps for uſe: when they are to uſe it, they dry it in the ſun, rubbing it ſmall; then, digging a pit, they cover the bottom thereof with ſtraw, at which, through the ſide of the pit, they paſs a hollow cane that leads into a jar, which ſtands below the level of the pit's bottom; they fill the pit almoſt full with the aforeſaid earth, and pour ſalt water thereon 'till it be covered two or three inches with water, which drains through into the aforeſaid jar, and is afterwards boiled into ſalt.

Upon the whole, in whatever mechanical or manufactural arts other nations may excel Great-Britain, our artiſts ſhould be upon the watch, not only to imitate, but ſurpaſs, if poſſible. Throughout this work, thoſe particulars appear wherein other nations do excel us, under the ſeveral countries of the world, whoſe natural hiſtory and traffic we have deſcribed, and may well deſerve the attention of our artiſts. But thoſe which are imported, and which they can ſee, handle, and minutely examine, they are the moſt likely to imitate or excel.

As we have arrived at a great perfection in the China ware, why may we not in divers other eaſtern arts and manufactures?

Remarks in another light, conſiſtent with this work.

It is a maxim generally received, that one of the moſt effectual means to ſettle and improve commerce, or any other political intereſt, is the patronage of princes, diſpenſing rewards, and exciting emulation by inveſting with honours, and other marks of diſtinction, thoſe perſons, who, by the force of genius or application, have made new diſcoveries, or improved upon any thing laudable, and conducive to the intereſt of the public; more eſpecially ſuch, as upon the ſtrength of their own genius, and at their ſole charge, have ſet up and maintained manufactories, and other works of the mechanic arts beneficial to the community, and when the introduction of them has been entirely owing to their induſtry and public ſpirit. This point I ſhall only treat in a general way, as it is not poſſible to preſcribe rules for the conduct of it on particular occaſions, ſince the honours, as well as rewards and encouragements, are always to be proportioned and diſpenſed according to the ſtation and other circumſtances of the claimants, and with an eye to the charge they ſhall have been at, and the benefits that ſhall reſult to the public from them; things of ſuch a nature, that it is abſolutely neceſſary to rely upon the judgment and prudence of the miniſters, whom his majeſty ſhall intruſt with the conduct of ſuch intereſting affairs.

It is cuſtomary, and a piece of good policy, to give yearly penſions and rewards, in order not only to cheriſh among ourſelves, but to draw over and engage to ſtay in any country, able maſters in manufactures and the mechanic arts, either to introduce new ſorts of buſineſſes, or to improve ſuch as have been already eſtabliſhed, by advancing them to a degree of perfection and goodneſs, that is certain to make them eſteemed, and procure them a market every-where. To artificers or workmen ſetting up new and profitable commercial arts, it is uſual in France and Spain to allow, for a certain term, an immunity from all troubleſome offices, houſes to live in, workſhops, and a diſpenſation from ſome duties; and at the ſame time, for a farther encouragement, ſums of money have been granted to enable them to bear the firſt expence, which uſually runs high. But in reſpect to this advance of money, or the other encouragements, we are as little able to preſcribe ſtated rules, as there muſt neceſſarily be a variety of caſes, according to the ſituation of the projectors, and the benefits that will ariſe from the undertaking. It is uſual alſo to grant an excluſive privilege of this kind, that, for a certain number of years, no other perſon manufacture the commodities, they are under an obligation to introduce and eſtabliſh. But, before we ever diſpenſe indulgences of this nature, we ought to conſider the affair thoroughly; and when for ſpecial reaſons it is found abſolutely neceſſary, in order to obtain our end, they are even then to be limited and guarded with the utmoſt care, leſt they be converted into monopolies, that are of great profit to the proprietor, but of the utmoſt prejudice to the public; moreover, in diſpenſing them, though it be with all poſſible precaution, it ought at leaſt to be attended with the following circumſtances, of it's being a new undertaking, and very difficult to be ſet on foot; that there will enſue an improvement to commerce, and a conſiderable advantage to the public. See the articles Monopolies and Patents.

Lewis XIV. king of France, in the year 1665, during the miniſtry of John Baptiſt Colbert, granted an excluſive privilege and other advantages, in order to ſettle a tin manufacture in ſeveral parts of that kingdom, as it is a very uſeful commodity, and of great conſumption every-where; and, at the expiration of the term covenanted, the patent was renewed in the year 1695, in favour of Iſaac Robelin, engineer-director of the fortifications of Burgundy, and company, to which partnerſhip it was renewed for another term in the year 1700, as appears from the patent granted them. In like manner the woollen and other capital manufactories and mechanical arts have been introduced and eſtabliſhed in this and other trading kingdoms. See the articles Artificers, France.

But we are always to be very careful, that the term of the privilege (if it be excluſive) be granted for as ſhort a time as poſſible, and under due limitations, in order that the manufacture and traffic carried on, both at home and abroad, may be freely and quickly extended.

When trafficable commodities of any kind are undertaken to be eſtabliſhed in a nation by private hands, and are nearly of the ſame ſort as ſome already eſtabliſhed in the country, and though they may be of ſuperior quality, as it is from this very ſuperiority, that with a little diligence they may be imitated, there will be no reaſon to grant privileges, indulgences, and other diſtinguiſhing encouragements which ſome have moved for, as in ſuch caſes they ought to be common and general; for any thing ſingular, or excluſive, is a great prejudice to other manufactures of the kingdom, which being of equal moment, or little inferior, may, with equal propriety, claim and enjoy the ſame advantage; and, if they ſhould not obtain it, the conſequence will certainly be, that, favouring a branch, we ſhall deſtroy the root.

It would be impolitic and unjuſt to indulge a few artizans, upon no reaſonable plea, with immunities and other indulgences, that are denied to thoſe of the reſt of the kingdom. For this reaſon, all encouragements which we have recommended in favour of commerce and manufactural and mechanical arts, tend to put all, as near as poſſible, upon an equal footing under the ſame circumſtances, unleſs very particular caſes require an exemption, as ſometimes it does find a place in general proviſions, and upon the very principle of an equal diſtribution of juſtice; in order, that, at the time of carrying thoſe indulgences into execution, an equality may be better preſerved in diſtributing relief; juſt as ſtronger and more coſtly medicines are adminiſtered for a cure under dangerous diſeaſes, while, in maladies of an inferior kind, health is recoverable by gentle phyſic.

MECKLENBURG, called alſo MECKELBOURG, a duchy in Germany, has Pomerania on the eaſt; part of the marquiſate of Brandenburg, and the duchy of Lunenburg, on the ſouth; the Baltic on the north; and Holſtein and Saxe-Lawenburg on the weſt; being about 100 miles long, and 60 broad. It abounds with corn, fruit, fiſh, and fowl; it is well watered with lakes and rivers, and extremely well ſituated on the Baltic for a foreign trade, ſome of the principal Hanſe-Towns lying in this duchy, viz. Roſtock, Wiſmar, Swerin, &c.

&c. [ſee HANSE-TOWNS] which are it's principal places of trade.

At ROSTOCK, their chief commodity is beer, that which was formerly called Lubec beer, which they export in large quantities: ſome years ſince they had no leſs than 250 privileged brewers, who, it is ſaid, brewed as many thouſand tons, a year, beſides what particular perſons brew for their own uſe: ſo that the duke's revenue, ariſing from the exciſe on beer, is greater than that from all the other articles together. It's river is navigable to the very walls, but large ſhips come no farther than Wamemunde, a little town ſeven miles lower, where the Swedes built a fort formerly.

MEDAL, a piece of metal, in the form of a coin, with ſome peculiar ſtamp thereon, deſtined to preſerve to poſterity the portrait of ſome diſtinguiſhed perſonage, or the memory of ſome illuſtrious action.

REMARKS.

It not being conſiſtent with the tenor of our work to conſider this article in the mere light of an antiquarian, we ſhall take notice of it only as an object of traffic among the learned and curious, where intereſt frequently is no way concerned, the emulation among ſuch being to inrich their cabinets, and to complete their collections of thoſe eſtimable monuments of antiquity.

There are, however, as Mr. Patin remarks, in many of the principal cities of Germany, many dealers who may properly enough be called antiquarian merchants, ſince they collect medals only with a view to ſell them again for gain; a traffic, ſays the beforementioned learned author, that has it's frauds as well as moſt others, and wherein the purchaſer ſhould well examine the merchandize, if he would not receive thoſe for rare and valuable which are of a counterfeit ſtamp, for ſuch medals that are really antique and curious.

Meſſieurs Tournefort, Cornelius le Bruyn, and Paul Lucas, the latter in his accounts of Egypt, and the two others in their voyages to the Levant, ſpeak of the like commerce carried on in the iſlands of the Archipelago, and in almoſt all the ſcales of the Levant, where the inhabitants of the country, well informed of the taſte that ſtrangers have for curioſities of this nature, take pains to collect them together, and diſpoſe of them at a dear rate, and often with leſs fidelity than the German antiquarians.

Beſides this commerce in medals in Germany and the Levant, which relates only to antiquity, there is a traffic carried on in France for thoſe of a modern kind, which is more to be depended on.

This trade conſiſts chiefly in that numerous and rich ſeries of medals which were ſtruck in order to perpetuate to poſterity the moſt celebrated events in the reign of Lewis the Grand, and thoſe that are yet ſtruck every day, ſays our author, in regard to the reign of Lewis XV.

The director-general of the coinage of theſe medals, who diſpoſes of them, furniſhes thoſe only of gold, ſilver, or bronze.

The elegance and beauty of theſe medals, and the ſkill of Monſ. Launay, who has the direction thereof (1723) gives ſo great a value to them, that it is ſcarce to be doubted but they will one day be in as high eſteem as the moſt beautiful of thoſe of antiquity.

The Sieur Launay has alſo cauſed medals to be ſtruck of all the kings of France, from the commencement of the monarchy to the preſent time, which contain on one ſide the effigy of the prince, on the other a ſhort, but exact abridgment of the moſt remarkable events of every reign. Theſe alſo have entered into the commerce of the modern medals at Paris, and are not of the leaſt important ſort.

We ſhall conclude this article with a ſhort account of thoſe medals in France which concern the trade and navigation of that kingdom, and which were ſtruck in the reign of Lewis the XIVth; being perſuaded, ſays Monſ. Savary, in his French Dictionary of Commerce, in favour of that nation, that his work would want that perfection expected, if the reader did not find thoſe remaining monuments that France has ſtruck of her commerce, and of the protection that ſo great a king has given to it.

MEDALS ſtruck in France during the reign of Lewis the XIVth, upon various extraordinary eſtabliſhments made in that kingdom for the benefit of their trade and navigation.

The eſtabliſhment of a number of new manufactories in France, and the old ones being brought to their perfection, make the ſubject of the firſt medal. This was ſtruck in 1664, a year remarkable for the great number of commercial enterprizes, which commenced from that æra: and which were continued during the adminiſtration of Monſieur Colbert, whoſe memory will ever be revered and adored in that kingdom.

Upon this medal there is a Minerva, who has by her a ſpindle, a ſhuttle, bottoms of wool, and a piece of tapeſtry: the legend, MINERVA LOCUPLETRATRIX, ſignifies the kingdom inriched by arts, of which Minerva is the ſymbol; the exergum, ARTES INSTAURATÆ, which ſignifies the Arts reeſtabliſhed, M.DC.LXIV.

The ſubject of the ſecond medal is the re-eſtabliſhment of navigation, which had been a long while neglected in France: but the grand monarch, applying to their re-animation, rendered his kingdom as powerful by ſea as land, and as flouriſhing by it's commerce as by it's arms.

This medal is of the year 1665. It repreſents a ſhip in full ſail: the words of the legend are, NAVIGATIO INSTAURATA, which ſignifies NAVIGATION RE-ESTABLISHED: the exergum ſhews the date.

The French Eaſt-India company, eſtabliſhed in the year 1664, and which took poſſeſſion of the iſland of Madagaſcar in 1665, gave occaſion to the third medal.

This colony, in manner of the ancient medals, is deſigned by one of thoſe bunch-backed oxen which are in great plenty in the iſland: it ſtands nigh to an ebony-tree, which is very common in that country. The words of the legend are, COLONIA MADIGASCARICA, which ſignifies the colony of Madagaſcar: the exergum denotes the date, M.DC.LXV.

The union of the two ſeas, ſo commodious and beneficial to the domeſtic and foreign commerce of France, is repreſented in the fourth medal, ſtruck in the year 1667.

Neptune armed with his trident, with which he ſtrikes the earth, ſeems to complete this important enterprize: the guſhing out of the water, which pours forth by the ſtrength of the blow which he has given, and which ſpreads itſelf to the right and left, indicates the ocean and Mediterranean, that the canal unites. It has, for legend, JUNCTA MARIA, which ſignifies the joining of the ſeas: the exergum has FOSSA A GARUMNA AD PORTUM SETIUM; A CANAL EXTENDING FROM THE GARONNE TO THE PORT OF SETE. M.DC.LXVII.

The fifth medal was ſtruck in the year 1680, in order to preſerve the remembrance of the eſtabliſhment of the ſeveral claſſes of the marine. See the article NAVAL AFFAIRS of FRANCE.

The claſſes were three at the firſt eſtabliſhment, each conſiſting of 20,000 ſailors, one of which was to ſerve on board their men of war, the other on board their merchant-men, and the other to reſt one year in three.—Theſe claſſes have ſince been augmented to five, but they make only 60,000 ſeamen.

This medal repreſents a ſailor by the ſea-ſide, leaning upon a broken pillar; he holds in his hand a rudder, covered with a flower-de-luce: the legend has theſe words, BELLO ET COMMERCIO, ſignifying, FOR WAR AND FOR COMMERCE; the exergum has SEXAGINTA MILLIA NAUTARUM CONSCRIPTA. M.DC.LXXX. SIXTY THOUSAND SAILORS INROLLED.

The ſixth and laſt medal is on occaſion of the eſtabliſhment of the CHAMBER or COUNCIL of COMMERCE. As we have deſcribed this eſtabliſhment at large under the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, we ſhall here only give the type, and the legend of the medal, which was ſtruck upon this account in the year 1700.

It repreſents Juſtice, and near her ſtands Mercury, the god of commerce, who, with one hand, holds his caduce, or ſnaky ſtaff, and with the other a purſe. The words are, SEX VIRI COMMERCIIS REGUNDIS; which ſignifies, SIX COMMISSIONERS PROPOSED FOR THE REGULATION OF COMMERCE.

REMARKS on the article MEDAL, ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

We have not learned that the FRENCH have ſtruck MEDALS to commemorate their extraordinary ſucceſſes and glorious victories, which they obtained during the laſt war; nor to celebrate the memorable advantages they gained by the laſt peace, concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February, 1763, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of friendſhip and peace between his Britannic Majeſty, the moſt Chriſtian King, and the king of Spain; to which the king of Portugal acceded on the ſame day. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, and others referred to from them.

From the time of ſtriking theſe medals, to what degree the French have raiſed and extended their trade and navigation, ſee the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, LEVANT TRADE.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, extends from the ſtraights of Gibraltar to the coaſt of Syria and Paleſtine, being above 2000 miles in length, but of very unequal breadth; the weſt part of it ſeparating Europe from Africa, and the Levant, or eaſt part of it, dividing Aſia from Africa, Spain, France, Italy, Turkey in Europe, and Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, bounding it on the north; and the empire of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Barca, and Egypt, bounding it on the ſouth. The ſtraight of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, being about 16 miles over, a ſtrong current ſets through it, out of the Atlantic Ocean, into the Mediterranean conſtantly, which requires a good gale of wind to ſtem it.

REMARKS

REMARKS, ſhewing the important utility of GIBRALTAR to the BRITISH EMPIRE.

The whole Britiſh trade carried on by means of the Mediterranean Sea being of the laſt conſequence to Great-Britain, and the permanent preſervation thereof depending upon the town and fortifications of Gibraltar; it is neceſſary to take ſome notice thereof.

Gibraltar lies in weſt longitude 6, latitude 36, and is a port-town ſituate, when it belonged to Spain, in the principality of Andaluſia, and on the ſtraight between the ocean and the Mediterranean. It ſtands at the foot of Mount Calpe, one of Hercules's pillars, about 16 miles north of Ceuta in Africa, 40 ſouth-weſt of Cadiz, and 80 ſouth of Seville. It is built on a rock, in a peninſula, and can only be approached on the land ſide by a very narrow paſſage, between the mountain and the ſea, croſs which the Spaniards have drawn a line, and fortified it, to prevent the garriſon having any communication with the country. It was taken from the Spaniards in the year 1704. Several attempts have been made to retake it, but have proved fruitleſs.

Gibraltar is but a ſmall, though ancient town. Since the Engliſh have been maſters of this town, it is become a place of conſiderable trade, which it was not before, eſpecially between the coaſt of Barbary and this place; the Engliſh merchants at Gibraltar having great warehouſes of all kinds of goods of the growth of Barbary, ſo that they furniſh the merchants in London on as good terms as they uſually had them in Barbary; and, by the convenience of ſhipping, can ſend them to England in ſmaller quantities than by loading veſſels wholly, as they were obliged to do before.

They likewiſe have a great trade here, by barco longo's, with the empire of Morocco; ſo that the trade is ſeldom ſhut up; and Gibraltar is now the market for the wax, copper, almonds, drugs, and other products of Barbary.

That a juſt and adequate idea may be formed of the real importance of this place to theſe kingdoms, we ſhall ſketch the heads of thoſe reaſons that have been occaſionally urged, both in parliament and without-doors; which, as they have been too much mixed with the temporary acrimony of party, may not, perhaps, have had ſuch weight with many as if they were ſtripped of that perſonal ſpleen and ſatire, which generally attend our political altercations. The reaſons are ſimply as follow, viz.

(1.) Becauſe Gibraltar preſerves to us the conveniency, protection, and ſecurity of our commerce to the Straights, above that of all other nations, more eſpecially in regard to the Algerines and Salleemen, who are influenced by it to keep their treaties made with us; which they never do longer with any other nation than 'till they find it their intereſt to break them.

(2.) Becauſe in reſpect to the great advantage which the poſſeſſion of that place hath already given us, when in war with France and Spain; and, conſequently, will always give us again upon the like occaſion, whilſt we continue to keep it.

(3.) With regard to our trade in general up the Mediterranean; for, as it commands the paſſage or entrance of all our navigation into that ſea, both in time of peace and war; ſo it is equally neceſſary, and as much our intereſt, to keep it ourſelves, as for any gentleman to keep poſſeſſion of the gate which leads to his own houſe; it being in the power of thoſe who poſſeſs this port, at all times, to interrupt, annoy, or hinder whom they ſhall think fit in their trade, by keeping two or three ſhips of war conſtantly on that ſtation; in the ſame manner almoſt as the Danes, by the poſſeſſion of Elſineur command the paſſage into and out of the Baltic: ſo that, if this port and fortification were in the hands of any other nation, it would be in their power likewiſe either to permit us to navigate our trade within thoſe ſtraights, or not, as they ſhould think fit, unleſs a very ſtrong ſquadron was conſtantly kept at the entrance of the ſtraight's mouth, to ſecure the paſſage, and to be relieved, from time to time, by freſh ſhips, which would put us to a much greater expence than we are now at in keeping this place.

(4.) Becauſe, before England was in poſſeſſion of Tangier, on the oppoſite ſide of the ſtraight, we were never able to deal with the Algerines, and other Turkiſh rovers; who, for near a century, had carried on a ſucceſsful piratic war againſt the commerce of this nation, and never could be reduced 'till, by the ſituation and our poſſeſſion of the abovementioned place, we diſtreſſed them ſo much, not only by taking their ſhips going in and coming out of the Straights, but alſo by retaking ſuch of their prizes as they had taken in the ocean, that at laſt they were forced to be content with ſuch a peace as we would give them; the continuance of which is owing to nothing ſo much as to our having been, for many years paſſed, and at preſent, in the ſame condition to chaſtize thoſe rovers, by the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar, as we were before by the poſſeſſion of Tangier.

(5.) Becauſe the ſecurity of our Italian, Turkey, and fiſh-trades intirely depends on our poſſeſſion of this place; and, ſhould we ever loſe it, or part with it, it is very reaſonable to believe, that both the Algerines and Salleemen would ſoon break with us again; ſo that, in ſuch a caſe, the aboveſaid branches of trade would almoſt wholly fall into the hands of our rivals, the French from Marſeilles, who, by their ſituation, are always ready at hand to furniſh thoſe markets, as ſoon as they are in want, while we, on our part, ſhall be obliged to carry on that trade by the tedious method of fleets and convoys, and at laſt, perhaps, come long after the market is ſupplied by our rivals. Beſides all this, the article of inſurance, which would certainly run much higher than uſual under theſe circumſtances, would prove a heavy charge on our goods, more than thoſe of other traders, which would thereby very much affect thoſe branches of our trade and navigation.

(6.) Becauſe the miſchief would not ſtop here: for as the Algerines, of late years, often cruize at the mouth of our channel, and as ſome of them have alſo heretofore come into our very ports two or three years ſucceſſively; ſo it is poſſible that, if we ſhould loſe Gibraltar, they may become, being ſo well acquainted with our channel, a much more dangerous enemy to us than ever they were formerly, and may attack all our trade in general, as the St. Malo privateers did in the wars of queen Anne, whenever they ſhall find that they can carry home their prizes without any interruption; which is not to be done, unleſs we ſhould be diſpoſſeſſed of Gibraltar, and thereby take the bridle, which has hitherto reſtrained them out of their mouths.

(7.) Becauſe, in reſpect to our neighbours, Gibraltar is ſituated in ſuch a manner, that it is in the power of the preſent poſſeſſors to cut off any naval communication between one port and another, of each of thoſe very powerful kingdoms; with which we have had ſuch frequent occaſions to be at war for almoſt theſe fifty years paſt, who would ſoon turn the tables upon us, if they ſhould recover this place out of our hands, eſpecially in time of any rupture between us; nothing being more ſelf-evident than that it gives, to thoſe who are maſters of it, the ſovereignty and command of the commerce and navigation of the Mediterranean Sea, and makes it impracticable for any other nation to trade there without their leave. And farther, by our poſſeſſion of this place, all nations within the Mediterranean will be obliged to court our friendſhip, or fear our power, particularly the piratical ſtates, who, beholding vengeance ſo near at hand, will be thereby deterred from attempting to interrupt our trade, while they are deſtroying that of all others.

(8.) Becauſe this advantage is not all that we reap from the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar; for it hath put into our hands occaſionally a great proportion of freight-trade into the Mediterranean, eſpecially that of the Hamburghers and Hollanders, who have made uſe of Britiſh bottoms to carry on their commerce in thoſe ſeas, 'till the Dutch obtained a peace with the Algerines, whereby we loſt one great advantage that belonged to the navigation of Great-Britain, which we before enjoyed, whilſt thoſe merchants made uſe of Engliſh ſhips, finding it dangerous to venture their eſtates in any other.

(9.) Becauſe, laying aſide all other conſiderations, there cannot be a ſtronger proof of the importance which the poſſeſſion of this place hath proved to us, than that it hath been a formidable check to the naval power of France, from the hour of our taking it, to the concluſion of the laſt French war: nor, indeed, could they ever ſend any naval ſtores round about into thoſe ſeas, without an apparent danger of their falling into our hands in going through the Straights; ſo that the greateſt part of their fleet hath thereby, as it were, become uſeleſs ever ſince. And, had not ſuch unhappy miſunderſtandings fell out as did between two admirals in the late war, we ſhould have more feelingly experienced the invaluable benefit of this poſſeſſion.

(10.) Becauſe it's proximity to Cadiz, the great mart and center of almoſt all the riches of Spaniſh America, gives us the greateſt opportunity of commanding that port, and the trade frequenting it from the Weſt-Indies; which, in time of war with Spain, may be reckoned of no ſmall conſideration or importance.

(11.) Becauſe, as the advantages of Gibraltar which reſult to this kingdom from the foregoing particulars, are fully confirmed and demonſtrated by the experience of many years paſt, ſo the preſervation of it, at all times, is of much greater concernment than it ever was before, as will appear by conſidering the preſent ſtate of public affairs: that many capital manufactures are ſpringing up in moſt parts of Europe, and particularly in France and Spain, and that ſeveral other powerful ſtates are endeavouring to vie with us in commerce and a maritime force; which ought to put us on the ſtricteſt guard, and determine us not to part with a place which is manifeſtly of ſo much advantage, by ſecuring and improving our own trade and navigation, as well as by defeating the attempts of our enemies and rivals therein.

(12.) Becauſe the Spaniards continue their unjuſtifiable captures and depredations on our logwood-trade in America, which they have more or leſs done for theſe thirty years paſt; and that, if we part with Gibraltar, we have reaſon to believe that the ſame fate may attend our whole Mediterranean trade, to it's abſolute ruin and deſtruction. See the articles LOGWOOD and SPANISH AMERICA.

(13.) Becauſe Spain and France in conjunction, if not others, will ever have their eye upon this poſſeſſion, in order to wreſt the ſame out of her hands, to ruin the whole maritime power of Great-Britain.

(14.) Be-

(14.) Becauſe Gibraltar lies at hand to intercept their Eaſt and Weſt-India fleets, with the ſpoil and riches of both worlds: it ſeparates and divides Spain from itſelf, and hinders all communication by ſea from the different parts of their dominions, and, conſequently, muſt keep them in a perpetual dependance, and put them under a neceſſity to court our friendſhip, as well as fear our enmity: it gives us an opportunity to pry into all their meaſures, obſerve all their motions, and, without the moſt ſtupid remiſſneſs on our part, renders it impracticable to them to form any projects, or carry on any expeditions againſt us or our allies, without our having due notice.

(15.) Becauſe it will ever check the riſe of the naval power of France, which can never be above our match at ſea, whilſt Gibraltar remains in our hands. It hinders the communication between their ports and ſquadrons in the ocean and the Mediterranean: it makes it impoſſible for them to ſupply their ſouthern harbours with naval ſtores either for building or repairing of fleets; of which they were ſo ſenſible in queen Anne's war, that, as ſoon as Sir George Rook had poſſeſſed himſelf of it, they ſaw themſelves under a neceſſity to lay aſide their uſual caution, and dare him in open battle; and, not meeting the ſucceſs they hoped for, the very ſame year, to the unſpeakable prejudice of their other affairs, beſieged it in form, and loſt a French and Spaniſh army before it, and never afterwards appeared with a fleet upon the ſeas again during the whole war, but ſuffered their great ſhips to moulder and rot in their harbours, for want of the means to fit them out again.

(16.) Becauſe long experience has evinced, that we can never, with ſecurity, depend on the faith of France; and, therefore, if Britons are determined never to become vaſſals to the dominion of that crown, they can never part with any thing that is ſo ſubſtantial a preſervation of their maritime power, and conſequently of their liberties and properties, as that ineſtimable fortreſs of Gibraltar.

(17.) Becauſe it appears throughout this work, from a ſeries of facts inconteſtible, that the commerce and navigation of France have been increaſing ever ſince the time of that great and able French miniſter Monſ. Colbert; and that they are now ſettled upon ſo broad a bottom, and with ſuch peculiar and extraordinary advantage for their daily riſe and encouragement, that, if Great-Britain gives up Gibraltar, ſhe may be ſo eternally imbroiled in wars with that nation, as to increaſe her national debts and incumbrances to a degree ſo enormous, that her whole trade muſt inevitably ſink under them.

(18.) Becauſe the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar will always give us reputation and figure in thoſe ſeas, which are always rewarded with power and riches. It will oblige all nations who trade in the Mediterranean, or have empire there, to court our friendſhip, and keep meaſures with us. It will awe even the courts of Rome and Conſtantinople, and make them afraid to diſturb or provoke us.

(19.) Becauſe the charge and expence of keeping Gibraltar bears no proportion to the advantages we reap by it, and the detriment and injury our trade and navigation muſt ſuſtain, if ever we part with it.

(20.) Becauſe PORT-MAHON, cannot poſſibly anſwer all the purpoſes of Gibraltar: which muſt be evident to any one, who but looks into the map; for the iſland of Minorca lies many hundred miles further up towards the gulph of Lyons, and, in truth, out of the road of all ſhips trading to Sicily, the Adriatic, the Levant, or Africa. It is ſituated at ſuch a diſtance from France and Spain, that the greateſt fleets can eſcape unobſerved, unleſs we keep perpetually before their ports to watch and purſue them; which is exceeding dangerous, if not impracticable in thoſe ſeas. We ſhall be out of the way of all intelligence. And, if we ſhould by chance have it, in all likelihood, ſhall be too late to take advantage of it; beſides, I am told, there are but few winds with which ſhips can get in or out of Port-Mahon; and, when they are once there, the paſſage is ſo narrow, that a very ſmall ſquadron can keep the greateſt from ſailing out.

(21.) Becauſe nothing is plainer, than that it will be exceeding difficult, if not impoſſible, to keep the iſland of Minorca without the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar; at leaſt it will be more expenſive to us than both are now, eſpecially if France and Spain ſhould join again; which event, I think, we ought to keep always in view, for then Gibraltar will be the only reſource we have to carry on any trade in the Mediterranean, and to prevent the union of the French and Spaniſh fleets with themſelves or each other.

(22.) Becauſe all the objections, made againſt the facility of a communication of the different ports of France and Spain with one another, will be ſtronger againſt us; for they have others near to Gibraltar, where fleets may lie ſafe, and have a chance to eſcape us, by catching at favourable opportunities, and the advantage of winds; whereas we muſt run all hazards, and truſt to our ſtrength alone, without any harbour to retreat to, in caſe of ſtorms or other accidents.

(23.) Becauſe we have no means of ſending naval ſtores and recruits to our garriſons, and often proviſions for them, without a port to protect us during a thouſand leagues ſailing. Portugal will not be ſuffered to receive or relieve us, and then we muſt run the gauntlet by ſingle ſhips, with ſcarce a chance to eſcape, or ſend convoys upon the ſmalleſt occaſions, capable of fighting the united French and Spaniſh power.

(24.) Becauſe we ought not to be ſurprized, if the nations of Europe and Africa ſhould wiſh it in hands leſs potent at ſea, and who would conſequently enjoy it more harmleſsly to it's neighbours: it muſt be undoubtedly terrible to any people who would be our rivals in trade or naval power, or indeed to any ſtate that aſpires to empire, which can never be accompliſhed without fleets as well as armies.

(25.) Becauſe we are not fallen into ſuch contempt with our enemies, our neighbours, or our allies, nor can they have ſo mean an opinion of our ſenſe and diſcernment, and the integrity of our ſtateſmen, as even to hint ſuch a thing to them.

(26.) Becauſe, if we part with Gibraltar, to what purpoſe have we made war? To what purpoſe beſtowed great ſums, and gained great victories? Did we beat the enemy, and force them to beg peace, and yet muſt bribe them to accept of it? Have we conquered, and ſhall they give terms, and get towns by loſing battles? Or, if we do not part with Gibraltar for the ſake of peace, pray what conſideration are we to receive for the ſake of Gibraltar? What can be given as an equivalent?

(27.) Becauſe there can be no ſubſtantial reaſons to take ſuch a thorn out of the foot of Spain and France, and to remove ſuch an obſtacle to their greatneſs: the enterprizing genius of the latter is as well known, as it is formidable to all it's neighbours, but in particular to us. And Spain, it is alſo well known, are taking large ſtrides to raiſe manufactures and maritime power. I would aſk, in caſe of a new rupture, what reſource have we but in our fleets, and by the help of Gibraltar, to make it impracticable for their ſquadrons in the ocean and Mediterranean to join? We know, by woeful experience, what help we are to expect from our allies, when we have no more millions to give. We are not able to keep great ſtanding armies at home, nor is it conſiſtent with our liberty to do ſo; and therefore we ought to take every meaſure to increaſe our naval ſtrength, and to put new bridles upon thoſe who are, or may ſoon be, our rivals therein.

(28.) Becauſe the nation in the world whoſe power we have moſt reaſon to guard againſt, is that of France; and yet I don't know by what fatality it has often ſo happened, that we have been the unhappy inſtruments of promoting it. Oliver Cromwell gave the firſt riſe to it's greatneſs at land, and king Charles II. at ſea: the late queen, by an ignominious peace, reſtored it, when it was reduced to the loweſt extremity, and muſt have ſubmitted to any conditions ſhe had thought fit to impoſe. But ſure it will never be ſaid that any Britiſh miniſtry, who profeſs to be the patrons of liberty, the conſtant and declared enemies of thoſe proceedings, ſhould act ſo far in defiance of all their known principles, as, voluntarily and unconſtrainedly, to throw away any part of that national ſecurity, which former betrayers purchaſed at the expence of their country's honour; and which are the only rewards and recompence of a tedious, ſucceſsful, and glorious war, carried on at an immenſe expence of blood and treaſure, of which we and our poſterity ſhall long feel the ſevere effects.

(29.) Becauſe there ſeems to be more reaſon for our being tenacious in preſerving this poſſeſſion, at this time, than there ever was ſince we had it; for it is to be feared, that we are the only maritime power that muſt alone ſtand againſt thoſe of France and Spain, and ſuch allies as they ſhall be able to influence; ſince our old and natural allies, the States-General of the United Provinces, do not appear either to be able, or ſo ſanguinely inclined as heretofore, to unite with Great-Britain, and act with vigour, when occaſion may require.

(30.) Becauſe it ſhould ſeem that another naval power is about to ariſe, by their eſtabliſhment of a great Eaſt-India company *, the weight of whoſe power both by land and ſea, is more likely to be thrown into the ſcale of France and her allies, than into that of Great-Britain and her's.

* When the Oſtend Eaſt-India company was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed, the Dutch acted vigorouſly in concert with Great-Britain to effectuate it's abolition, and did ſo. How it comes to paſs, that times ſhould be ſo changed within theſe few years, as to ſuffer another company of the like kind to be eſtabliſhed, without any attempt to it's annihilation, we leave thoſe to ruminate on, whom it may one day nearly concern to think of. See the article OSTEND COMPANY.

(31.) Becauſe the Spaniards (if I am rightly informed) give more encouragement, by certain artifices, to the French in their trade, by the way of Old Spain to New Spain, than they do to the Engliſh; and that, in conſequence thereof, our commerce in that channel declines, while that of France increaſes: and alſo that the Spaniards ſeem to favour the French more in the S——h W—t-I—a trade, which they carry on from their colonies, than they do either the Engliſh or the Dutch in theirs.

(32.) Becauſe the treatment of the Engliſh in particular, by the Spaniards at preſent in America, is ſaid by ſome to be with a view to compel us, at length, to give up Gibraltar; which,

which, for that very reaſon, we ought to be the more ſanguine to preſerve.

(33.) Becauſe Great-Britain has already done enough in favour of the court of Spain without ſacrificing Gibraltar, to induce them to deſiſt from their obſtruction to our trade and navigation to and from our own colonies, even if they were really as unjuſtifiable as the Spaniards themſelves have miſtakenly repreſented them. [See the articles LOGWOOD, and SPAIN.]

The conduct of Great-Britain towards Spain, in order to influence them to preſerve that good underſtanding, which is ſo apparently requiſite for the reciprocal benefit of both nations, is notorious to the whole world, and may be chiefly comprehended under two articles. (1.) Our making two ſovereigns in Italy to oblige the court of Spain; and (2.) Our giving up the aſſiento contract, and liquidating the affairs of the South Sea company, upon terms ſo advantageous to Spain, and ſo detrimental to Great-Britain in general, and the South Sea company in particular. See the articles ASSIENTO, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY. And, if Great-Britain ſhould even acquieſce to the creating of a third ſovereign to gratify the inſatiable ambition of a certain p——s at l——ſo, and to give up Gibraltar alſo, what ſecurity ſhould this nation have, that her logwood trade, and other navigation in America, ſhould remain uninterrupted? Does not the ſyſtem of that court for above theſe 30 years ſhew, that we are never to expect any ſuch ſecurity, 'till we have a Gibraltar for that purpoſe in America? See the article WEST-INDIES, where we ſhall endeavour to ſhew how eaſily that might have been accompliſhed, and ſtill may.

(34.) Becauſe men in power will always know, that a fortreſs conquered by the fleets and armies, by the blood and treaſure of England, and ſolemnly yielded up by treaty made with England, becomes part of the Engliſh dominions, and ſubject to the legiſlative power of England, and could not be diſannexed but by act of parliament; and, conſequently, any agreement to deliver up ſuch a fortreſs to an enemy, is high treaſon within the ſtatute of the 25th of Edward III; and to give it to any one elſe is one of thoſe high treaſons reſerved by that act for the judgment of parliament.

For more reaſons, if more ſhould be required, to induce us never to give up GIBRALTAR, ſee the articles FRANCE and SPAIN, and all other articles, which tend to ſhew the nature and extent of their power and commerce.—For the particular ſtate of the trade carried on through the Mediterranean Sea, ſee the articles ARCHIPELAGO, GENOA, LEVANT TRADE, NAPLES, ORIENTAL TRADE, TURKEY TRADE, TUSCANY, VENICE.

Note, The diſcerning reader will eaſily believe, from the preceding ſummary heads of argument, that we could have wire-drawed them to a great length, if we were not rather ſtudious of communicating as much matter as we can in the feweſt words, than to act the contrary part.

REMARKS on our article MEDITERRANEAN SEA, before the laſt war.

One part of the grand ſyſtem of the court of Spain, in the time of Alberoni, was to preſerve the rights of Spain and of the houſe of Parma to Spaniſh princes; and to make a ſettlement for Don Carlos and Don Philip worthy of their birth, out of the ſtates which the emperor poſſeſſed in Italy: and has not this part of the ſyſtem been ſteadily and ſucceſsfully purſued? But how could theſe ſovereignties be effectually ſecured, ſays a certain princeſs, without the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar? This, therefore, was a point to be gained, in order the better to ſecure the other. The ſyſtem, at preſent in Spain, is bottomed on the ſame principles; it is not only to provide for a third prince in Italy, or elſewhere, but to fall upon the eſtabliſhment of manufactories, with a view to ſupply their extended American colonies themſelves, inſtead of taking them from the other nations of Europe. Will not this affect Great-Britain, in proportion to what ſhe now ſupplies Spain with? Some late accounts from Spain tell us, that it appears, by an authentic liſt of the ſhips which entered the Spaniſh ports laſt year, their number amounted to 1142: of which 643 were Engliſh, 277 French, 148 Dutch, and 74 of different nations.

Suppoſing this to be true, ſome people may infer from hence, perhaps, that the trade of England muſt be far ſuperior to any of the reſt: ſo it is, indeed! But what ſort of trade are we carrying on with that nation? We are ſending 6 or 700 ſhips or more, I am certain, annually to purchaſe their wines and their fruits, while France ſends between 2 or 300 to carry their own manufactures. If this be the caſe, does not France, therefore, gain far more by their ſmaller quantity of ſhipping, than we do by double the number? The fact is, that we decline in our exports to Spain, and increaſe in our imports; while France increaſes in their exports to Spain, and decreaſe in their imports from thence. Is this then a nation from whom we are ſtill to bear inſults and depredations? Have they not allured away our manufacturers and ſhipwrights out of the kingdom, with a view to turn the hands of our own artiſts againſt us?

That our readers may have a juſt idea of the meaſures which Spain are really purſuing at this time, which muſt inevitably tend to the detriment of the Britiſh commerce, as they ſhall advance that of the Spaniards; we refer them to the articles BISCAY in Old Spain, CATALONIA, DUTCH AMERICA, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, LOGWOOD TRADE, SPAIN, WEST-INDIES. What is urged under theſe heads, and in divers other parts of this work, will enable us to judge, whether it can ever be adviſeable to acquieſce in the giving up Gibraltar; and eſpecially ſo, if we add to theſe conſiderations what we have ſaid alſo under the articles BRITISH AMERICA and FRANCE; becauſe we ſhall there ſee, that SPAIN is now following the example of France, in order to ruin the commerce and navigation of theſe kingdoms: for the ſyſtem of the two courts ſeems really to be what is ſaid in a tract lately printed, called the Political Teſtament of cardinal Alberoni. 'While 'the navy of the two crowns [meaning thoſe of France and 'Spain] ſays the writer, is not ſuperior to that of the Engliſh 'and Dutch together; while MINORCA and GIBRALTAR 'are not in poſſeſſion of the proper maſters; while DUNKIRK 'is not raiſed from the ſtate to which it was reduced by the 'treaty of Utrecht, a deſcent on the coaſt of ENGLAND and 'IRELAND, will be always ineffectual, &c.'

Of the CUSTOM-HOUSE affairs in relation to the Mediterranean trade.

I. If a ſhip be bound to any port in Portugal or Spain, or to any port on the Chriſtian ſhore in the Mediterranean Sea, a bill of health muſt be granted at the loading port, or elſe the perſons on board will not be permitted to come on ſhore in any of the ſaid ports, 'till they have performed quarantine: the form of which bills of health muſt be as follows;

Portus Southamptoniæ,

Omnibus Chriſti fidelibus, ad quos præſentes literæ pervenerint. Nos miniſtri ſereniſſimi principis domini noſtri Georgii ſecundi regis, in portu Southamptoniæ, in regno Magnæ Britanniæ, ſalutem. Cum pium ſit & honeſtum veritati teſtimonium perhibere, ne error aut deceptio præjudicii ipſam opprimat: cumque navis nuncupata Diligentia, de Briſtolia, cujus nauclerus (ſub Deo) eſt Henricus Hopkins, quæ jam parata eſt e dicto portu diſcedere, & abhinc (Deo volente) ad Italiam, & alia loca tranſmarina, cum viginti hominibus in eadem nave appellare. Hinc eſt, quod univerſitati veſtræ tenore præſentium innoteſcimus, fidemque indubitatam facimus, quod (Deo optimo maximo ſumma laus attribuatur) in hoc dicto portu, nulla peſtis, plaga nec morbus aliquis periculoſus, aut contagioſus, ad præſens exiſtit.

In cujus rei teſtimonium, ſigilla officii noſtra apponi fecimus, Datum hoc in regio telonio prædicti portus Southamptoniæ, decimo die Februarii, anno ſalutis Chriſtianæ, ſecundum computationem eccleſiæ Anglicanæ, milleſimo ſeptingenſimo triceſimo primo, annoque regni dicti ſereneſſimi domini noſtri Georgii ſecundi, Dei gratia, Magnæ Britanniæ, &c. regis, fidei defenſoris, &c. quarto.

A. B. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

* If the ſhip be Britiſh, and comes from any part of the Mediterranean Seas, beyond the port of Malaga, and hath two decks, and both carry ſixteen guns mounted, with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable (which is called an act or qualified ſhip) or if one moiety of her full lading outwards, the laſt voyage, was fiſh, laden in any of his majeſty's dominions; the goods imported in ſuch ſhips are not liable to the duty of one per cent. which is payable when ſhips are not ſo qualified, or laden with fiſh: therefore in theſe caſes, after the places names, there muſt be added as follows, viz.

* 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 35, 36.

If the ſhip be qualified.—Which ſaid ſhip has double decks from ſtem to ſtern, with ſixteen [or more, as is the caſe] guns mounted, and other ammunition proportionable.

If the ſhip went out with fiſh.—Which ſaid ſhip went out from Yarmouth to Leghorn this laſt voyage thither, full laden [or at leaſt one moiety of her full lading] with fiſh of Britiſh taking and curing, and delivered the ſame at the ſaid port of Leghorn.

But, if a ſhip that is not qualified, or was not laden outwards with fiſh, has taken in ſome part of her lading beyond the port of Malaga, and ſome on this ſide; the different places where the goods were taken in muſt be particularly diſtinguiſhed in the report, as indeed in ſtrictneſs ſhould be practiſed in all caſes where a ſhip loads at ſeveral ports: which diſtinctions may be made as follows:

Taken in at Leghorn,
A. B.——1 a 5——5 Caſes——Silk——Andrew Bird.

Taken in at Cadiz,
B. C.——8, 9——2 Bales——Kid ſkins——Benj. Croſs.

And, if the goods are ſuch, that they are liable to forfeiture, or ſubject to a different duty, upon account of the

place at which they were taken in; the truth of their being taken in, at the particular place alledged by the maſter, muſt be confirmed, by making the following addition to the oath of his report, viz.

And that the goods above-mentioned to be taken in at—— were really there laden on board, and were not landed at ——, nor any other place whatſoever, but have been kept on board the above ſhip, ever ſince the firſt ſhipping thereof at——.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES.—Counterfeiting, altering, or eraſing them, or knowingly uttering or publiſhing ſuch counterfeited, altered, or eraſed paſſes, is felony without benefit of clergy. 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

MELLI, with the country of the MUNDINGOES, in Africa. The country formerly called Melli, now chiefly inhabited by the Mundingoes, who ſtill retain pretty much of the character aſcribed to the people of Melli, lies to the ſouth of the river Gambia; on the weſt it borders on the kingdom of Kabo, on the ſouth it has Melli properly ſo called, and the mountains that part it from Guinea, and on the eaſt it extends to the kingdom of Gago.

A great part of this country we are little acquainted with, as is the caſe with regard to moſt of the inland territories of Africa, but towards the ſea-coaſt this country is a little better known.

The firſt place of note we weet with is, KACHAO, a Portugueze colony, ſituated on the river of St. Domingo, which falls into the ſea about 26 leagues below this town.

About 26 leagues above Kachao, on the ſame ſide of the river, is another trading town called FARINI, where, in the months of October and November, one may trade for about half the quantity of wax and ivory, which is traded for at Kachao. Here are alſo ſome ſlaves to be bought.

BOT is a village near the mouth of the river Geſves, where moſt of the traders buy rice, which is in great plenty there, and very good.

GESVES is a village on a river of the ſame name, on which the Portugueze have a factory. At Geſves one may trade yearly for 250 ſlaves, 80 or 100 quintals of wax, and as many of ivory.

Near the mouth of the river of Geſves, is a village called KURBALI, where there is a conſiderable trade for ſalt: here are alſo ſold ſome ſlaves and ivory.

RIO GRANDE, or the GREAT RIVER, runs about 10 or 12 leagues to the ſouth of the river of Geſves. About 80 leagues from the mouth of it is a nation of negroes, who are good traders in ivory, rice, millet, and ſome ſlaves. They are called Analons.

Over-againſt the mouth of Rio Grande, is a cluſter of iſlands called Biſſago Iſles, the moſt conſiderable of which is CASAGUT, being about ſix leagues long and two broad: it's ſoil is very good, and produces millet, rice, and all kinds of pulſe, beſides orange and palm-trees, and many others. This iſland, with theſe of CARACHE, CANABAC, and LA GALLINA, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with ſome ſecurity. They trade, however, ſometimes at the other iſlands, but they muſt be extremely cautious; and yet, after all their precautions, they will be robbed and murdered, if they venture to go aſhore.

The river NUNHO, runs 16 leagues to the ſouth of Rio Grande; it is very conſiderable, and comes from a vaſt diſtance in land. One may buy here 300 quintals of ivory, and 100 ſlaves a year. Rice grows here admirably well, and is very cheap. There are every-where ſugar-canes, which grow naturally, and plants of indigo, which might turn to good account. The trade is carried on here from March 'till Auguſt.

In the river of Sierra Leone, the late Royal African company of England had, in the year 1728, two iſlands; the one, called TASSO, a large flat iſland, near three league in circumference, in which the company's ſlaves had a good plantation: the reſt of the iſland is covered with wood, among which are ſilk cotton-trees of an unaccountable ſize.

The other iſland is BENSE, whereon ſtood a regular fort. It was formerly the reſidence of one of the Engliſh chiefs. For more matter relating to the African trade, ſee the articles AFRICA, AFRICAN ISLANDS, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE. See alſo BRITISH and FRENCH AMERICA.

MENSURATION.

Under the article ARITHMETIC, we have given the whole art, both in rationale and practice, within the compaſs of a few pages; which, if well underſtood, what we have to add, can be no difficulty.

Of the cuſtomary way of taking dimenſions, and meaſuring the ſeveral artificers works concerned in building.

As there are ſeveral ſorts of work in building, which require the dimenſions to be taken in feet and inches, for finding the ſuperficial, or ſolid content thereof, before we proceed to treat of the meaſuring the ſeveral artificers works, it will be neceſſary, firſt, to ſhew how to multiply feet and inches by feet and inches duodecimally, vulgarly called croſs multiplication. For the better underſtanding of which, obſerve the following rules:

That, if feet are multiplied by feet, the product is feet.

If inches are multiplied into feet, every 12 of the product is one foot, and any number leſs than 12 are inches.

If inches are multiplied into inches, every 12 of the product is one inch, and any number leſs than 12 are parts of an inch.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by feet, every 12 of the product is one inch, and any number leſs than 12 are parts of an inch.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by inches, every 12 of the product is one part, and any number leſs than 12 are ſeconds.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by parts, every 12 of the product is one ſecond, and any number leſs than 12 are thirds.

CASE I.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by parts.

Rule. Firſt, Place a cypher under the laſt place of the multiplicand, inſtead of an integer, and alſo another cypher in the place of inches, and then the parts next following to the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the parts of the multiplier in the multiplicand, carrying 1 for every 12.

EXAMPLE I.

Multiply 7 feet 6 inches and a half, by a half inch, or 6 parts.

Note, That for a quarter of an inch you muſt ſet down 3, for half 6, and for three quarters 9; thoſe numbers being the quarter, half, and three quarters of 12.

OPERATION.

6 Times 6 is 36, the twelves in 36 is 3 times, and nothing remains, therefore ſet down 0 and carry 3; and 6 times 6 is 36, and 3 I carry is 39, ſet down 3 and carry 3; then 6 times 7 is 42, and 3 I carry is 45, the twelves in 45 is 3 times, and 9 remains.

F.	I.	P.
7	6	6
	0	0 6
	3	9 3 0

Now, as the whole multiplication is ended, ſet down the 9 that remains under the parts, and 3 under inches, the number of twelves is 45, and the whole product is 3 inches, 9 parts, and 3 thirds.

CASE II.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by inches and parts.

Rule. Firſt, Place a cypher under the laſt place of the multiplicand, inſtead of an integer, and the inches and parts in their places towards the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the parts into the parts, inches, and feet, and carry one for every 12.

Thirdly, Multiply the inches into the parts, inches, and feet, in the ſame manner; and, in adding the products, carry 1 for every 12, from one denomination to the other, and the ſum will be the product required.

EXAMPLE II.

Multiply 15 feet, 7 inches, and 3 parts, by 9 inches 4 parts.

OPERATION.

Firſt 4 times 3 is 12, that is 0 and carry 1; 4 times 7 is 28, and 1 I carry is 29, ſet down 5 and carry 2; 4 times 15 is 60, and 2 I carry is 62, ſet down 2 and carry 5, which ſet under the next denomination.

Secondly, 9 times 3 is 27, that is 3 and carry 2; 9 times 7 is 63, and 2 I carry is 65, ſet down 5 and carry 5; 9 times 15 is 135, and 5 I carry is 140, the twelves in 140 is 11, and there remains 8; ſet down the 8 under the inches, and 11 under the feet, and then add the two products together, and the ſum will be 12 feet, 1 inch, 7 parts, and 8 thirds, the product required.

F.	I.	P.	
15	7	3	
		0	9 4
	5	2	5 0
11	8	5	3
12	1	7	8 0

CASE III.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by feet, inches, and parts, when the feet of the multiplicand and multiplier do not exceed 20.

Rule. Firſt, Place the feet of the multiplier under the feet of the multiplicand, and the inches and parts in their places to the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the feet, inches, and parts of the multiplier, each ſeparately into the parts, inches, and feet of the multiplicand, as before in the preceding rules; and their ſeveral products, being added, will be the true product required.

EXAMPLE III.

Multiply 12 feet, 9 inches, and 5 parts, by 9 feet, 20 inches, and 2 parts.

OPE-

OPERATION.

	F.	I.	P.		
First, 2 times 5 is 10, set down 10 and carry 0; 2 times 9 is 18, set down 6 and carry 1; 2 times 12 is 24, and 1 carried is 25, set down 1 and carry 2, which set down.	12	9	5		
			9	10	2
		2	1	6	10
Secondly, 10 times 5 is 50, that is 2 and carry 4; 10 times 9 is 90, and 4 carried is 94, set down 10 and carry 7; 10 times 12 is 120, and 7 carried is 127, the twelves in 127 is 10, and 7 remains, which set down.	10	7	10	2	
	115	0	9		
	125	10	8	8	10

Thirdly, 9 times 5 is 45, that is 9 and carry 3; 9 times 9 is 81, and 3 is 84, which contains 12 7 times, and 0 remains, set down 0 and carry 7; 9 times 12 is 108, and 7 carried is 115, which being the last figure to multiply, set down the whole product; and, lastly, add the three products together, and their sum will be 125 feet, 10 inches, 8 seconds, 8 thirds, and 10 fourths.

Having by this time, I hope, sufficiently instructed the reader in the multiplication of feet and inches, by feet and inches, I shall in the next place proceed, as I proposed, to the measuring the several artificers works concerned in building. And,

I. Of CARPENTERS WORK, &c. to measure.

The works done by carpenters, are chiefly framing of houses, barns, stables, floors, partitions, roofs, &c. making of doors, windows, stair-cases, cornishes, frontispieces, modillion-cornices, cove-eaves, and boarded floors of all sorts, weather-boarding, and boarded and cleft pale fencing.

1. To measure the body of a timber building, viz. of a house, barn, or stable, &c.

This sort of work is done by the square, containing 100 superficial feet. In measuring the outside carcase of a house, &c. take the length of one side and one end, and add them together, and their sum, multiplied into the height taken from the under-side of the sill, to the upper side of the raising, gives the content of one side and one end; which, being doubled, is the content of the whole body, or outside carcase of the building, in feet.

To bring the content found into squares, divide the product by 100, or cut off from the product two figures to the right-hand, and the remaining figures are so many squares, and the figures cut off are feet.

EXAMPLE IV.

Suppose a house, &c. 40 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 20 feet high, how many square of framing is contained in the body or outside carcase of the said house, &c.

OPERATION.

Add 20 feet the breadth to 40 feet the length, and the sum is 60, which multiply by 20 feet, the height, the product is 1200, the content of one side and one end; which being doubled, or multiplied by 2, gives 2400 feet for the content of the whole body or outside carcase, in feet: from which, if you cut off 2 figures to the right-hand, there remains 24, the number of squares required.	40 Length. 20 Breadth. 60 the sum. 20 Height. 1200 2 Multiply 24,00 Cont. in feet.

Note, That in framing there are no deductions to be made for doors, windows, &c. in the measuring.

2. Of roofs. This sort of work is also done by the square of 10 feet squared, or 100 superficial feet, the particular to be observed in measuring of which is, that let the roof be true pitch or not, and the ends thereof gable or slipped, they may be either of them measured by this general rule, viz. Multiply the length of the building by the length of the rafter, and twice that product is the content in feet.

EXAMPLE V.

In the aforesaid building of 40 feet long by 20 feet wide, admit the roof to be true pitch, viz. the length of the rafter, equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the breadth of the building, or 15 feet.

OPERATION.

Multiply 40 feet, the length of the building, by 15 feet, the length of the rafter, and the product is 600 feet, the content of one side; which doubled, or multipled by 2, the product is 1200 feet, or 12 square, the content of the whole roof.	Feet. 40 leng. of build. 15 raft. length 200 40
3. To measure the gable end of a house, &c. observe this rule, multiply the perpendicular by half the base or breadth of the building, or the whole base by half the perpendicular, and the product is the content.	600 con. of 1 side 2 1200 content of the [whole.

In the gable end of the above-mentioned roof, the perpendicular is 11 feet 2 inches near, and the base 20 feet, what is the content?

OPERATION.

Multiply 20 feet, the whole base, by 5 feet 7 inches, half the perpendicular, and the product is 111 feet, 8 inches, which is 1 square, 11 feet, 8 inches, the content required.	Feet. 20 0 Base. 5 7 Half perp. 11 8 0
4. Note, That the same rule will hold good for measuring the hip end of a roof, by observing that the length of the rafter in this case is the perpendicular.	100 0 111 8 8 Cont.

N. B. The rafters, feet, and eaves-board, are measured at per foot, running.

5. Of floors. In naked flooring allow 9 or 10 inches for the length of the joist laid into the wall, or measure to the extremity of the joist, and from thence compute the squares contained therein.

6. In boarded flooring you must take your dimensions to the very extreme parts, and from thence compute the squares, out of which you must make deductions for stair-cases, chimnies, &c.

7. Weather-boarding is done by the yard square, and sometimes by the square, containing 100 superficial feet.

8. Framed partitions. The particular to be observed therein, is only that they are measured by the square.

9. Boarded partitions are also measured by the square, out of which, you must deduct the doors and windows contained therein, except they are agreed to be included.

10. Of windows. Windows are generally made and valued by the foot, superficial measure, and sometimes by the window. When they are measured, the dimensions must be taken in feet and inches, from the under side of the sill, to the upper side of the cap-piece, for the height; and for the breadth from outside to outside of the jaumbs; and the product of the multiplication is the superficial content.

11. Stair-cases are measured by the foot superficial, and the dimensions are taken with a string, girt over the raiser and tread, and, that length or girt, multiplied by the length of the step, the product is the superficial content.

12. Door-cases are measured by the foot superficial, and the dimensions must be taken with a string, girt round the architrave and inside of the jaumbs, for the breadth; and, for the length, add the length of the two jaumbs, to the length of the cap-piece, taking the breadth of the opening for the length thereof, and the product of their multiplication is the superficial content.

13. Frame-doors are measured by the yard square, containing nine square feet, and, if of whole deal, they are allowed work and half work, or double work, if of two inch stuff, in consideration of their being wrought on both sides.

14. Note, The same is to be said in regard to the measuring and valuing of window-shutters, as of doors.

15. Modillion cornices, coves, &c. are generally measured and valued by the foot superficial. Their dimensions, in respect to the breadth or height, are taken with a string, girt into the mouldings, and those dimensions, multiplied by the length, is the superficial content.

16. Fencing of all sorts is done by the rod, lineal measure, containing 16 feet and a half.

17. Wainscoting or joiner's work. Wainscoting is a work generally done by joiners, and is measured by the yard, square, and their dimensions are taken in feet and inches. Thus, they girt down every moulding with a string, contained between the floor and cieling, for the height, and the circumference of the room for the length, deducting the doors, windows, and chimney. The seats of windows, cheeks, sophetas, linings, &c. are all to be taken by themselves, and doors and window-shutters are to be measured and valued as at number 13 and 14 hereof.

18. Frontispieces are measured and valued by the foot superficial, and every part thereof measured separately, viz. the architrave, frieze, and cornice, each of them by themselves, also the pilasters or columns by themselves, and, lastly, add all the several measurements together, and the product is the content of the whole.

Note, That, in taking the dimensions, you must girt the moulding with a string.

II. Of BRICKLAYERS WORK to measure.

The principal work in a building done by bricklayers, is walling, tileing, rough-casting, &c.

1. Of brick walls. What is to be observed therein is, that the measure by which brick-work is measured is a square rod, or 16 feet and a half squared, whose product is equal to 272 feet and a quarter, the content of one rod of brick-work at the statute thickness of one brick and a half: and, if the wall is more or less than that thickness, it must be reduced thereto by this rule: multiply the number of feet contained in the superficial content of the wall, by the number of half bricks

that

that the wall is in thickneſs, and divide the product by 3, and the quotient is the true content required.
Note, That, although there be 272 feet and a quarter in a rod of brick-work at the ſtandard thickneſs, yet workmen meaſuring brick-work always reject the quarter, and divide by 272 only.

Example I.

How many rods of brick-work are contained in a wall 40 feet long, 8 feet high, and 2 bricks thick?

Feet.
Length 40
Height 8

320 feet in the ſuperficial content of the wall
Half bricks 4

3)1280(426 feet $\frac{2}{3}$, the ſuperficial content reduced,
8 which to bring into rods, divide the 426
6 feet by 272, and the quotient will be rods;
20 and, if the remainder be divided by 68,
2 the feet contained in a quarter of a rod,
the quotient will be quarters, and the laſt
remainder feet.
Note, That the $\frac{2}{3}$ remaining in the firſt work is equal to 8 inches.

272)426(1 rod.
272
68)154(2 quart.
136
18 feet.

The whole reduced content of a piece of brick-work 40 feet long, 8 feet high, and 2 bricks thick, is 1 rod, 2 quarters, 18 feet, 8 inches, as required.

When you meaſure brick-work, obſerve to meaſure every thickneſs by itſelf, and that you make every deduction out of it's proper thickneſs; alſo, that, when you meaſure two walls that conſtitute an angle, the length of one muſt be taken to the outſide, and the other to the inſide.
2. Chimnies muſt be meaſured and valued as a ſolid wall, out of which deduct the vacancy between the jaumbs and the mantle; the funnels are allowed ſolid, in regard to the trouble of them, and the pargetting the inſide. This of ſquare chimnies.
3. Angle chimnies, ſuch as ſtand in a ſquare corner, and are equal each way from the corner, obſerve this rule: multiply half the breadth of the breaſt, or front, by the height of the ſtory, and that product by the number of half bricks contained in the inches of the half breadth of the breaſt, or front, and divide this laſt product by 3, and the quotient will be the true reduced content in feet, out of which muſt be deducted the vacancy as in ſquare chimnies.
4. If the chimney do not ſtand equal from the corner of the room on both ſides, or the corner be not ſquare, it is uſual to lay out the angle parallel to the walls, and take one ſide of the angle, and multiply by the height of the ſtory, and half the other ſide of the angle for the thickneſs; then proceed in every reſpect as before directed, and it will give the true reduced content required.
Remember to meaſure the trimmers that ſupport the hearths, taking the length by the girt of the arching of them, accounting them half a brick thick; ſo that if they are 6 feet long, and 1 foot 6 inches girt, there is 3 feet of reduced brick-work therein.

Example II.

Suppoſe a chimney that ſtands in the corner, or angle of a ſquare room, be 7 feet in front, and the height of the ſtory 9 feet 6 inches, and the opening 3 feet ſquare, and 18 inches deep, how many feet of reduced brick-work is contained therein?

feet. inches.
9 6 height of the ſtory
3 6 half the front

4 9 0
28 6

33 3 0
9 half bricks in 3 feet 6 inches, or half the length of the front

3)299 3 0(99 1 quotient
27

29
27

2 equal to 8 inches.

feet.
3 } the opening
3 }

9
4 half-bricks deep

3)36(12, reduced feet in the opening to be deducted
6

0
99 9, the reduced content of the chimney
12 0, opening to deduct

87 9 remains, the content required.

By the above operation, it appears there are 99 feet 9 inches of reduced brick-work in the chimney; for, there being 99 feet 1 inch in the quotient, the 2 that remains is equal to 8 inches, being two-thirds of the diviſior, which, added to the 99 feet 1 inch, makes it 99 feet 9 inches in the whole; from which if you ſubtract 12 feet, the content of the opening, there remains 87 feet 9 inches nett brick-work, for the content required.
5. Beſides this rough brick-work, there is other kind of walling performed by foot-meaſure, and ſuch are facio's, arches over doors, windows, &c. architraves, friezes, cornices, ruſtics, returns, &c. piers, columns, pilaſters, &c.
6. Tileing is meaſured by the ſquare of 10 feet, as carpenters meaſure their roofs. You muſt obſerve, in taking dimenſions of tileing, that you meaſure the whole length, that is, as far as the tiles are laid, for your length, and take from the ridge to the eaves for your breadth, and thereby you will have the true content required. When many hips and vallies happen in a roof, every foot remaining muſt be added to the meaſure as ſquare feet.
Note, Obſerve to deduct the chimnies out of the tileing.
7. Thatching is a work performed by the ſquare, and is meaſured the ſame as tileing.
8. Beſides all the above work, there comes to the bricklayer's hands the paving of kitchens, cellars, &c. with brick, or pamments, which work is meaſured by the yard ſquare, containing 9 ſquare feet.

III. Of Plaisterers Work to meaſure.

Rough-caſting, plaiſtering, cielings, &c. are done by the yard ſquare, and the dimenſions taken in feet and inches.
The principal things to be obſerved in meaſuring of which are as follow:
1. To make deductions for chimnies, windows, and doors.
2. To make no deductions for rendering upon brick-work, for doors and windows, by reaſon the jaumbs and heads generally exceed the vacancies.
3. If the workmen find materials for rendering between quarters, you muſt deduct one fifth for quarters, baſes, &c. but, if workmanſhip only is found, you muſt meaſure the whole as whole work, for the workman could have performed the whole much ſooner, if there had been no quarters.
4. That ſuch ſummers and girders as lie below a cieling be deducted, if the workman finds materials, otherwiſe not.
5. In meaſuring of whiting and colouring between quartering, there muſt be a fourth part allowed extraordinary, for the returns of the quarters, or take the length with a ſtring, and ſo girt the quarters, which is the trueſt way.

IV. Of Masons Work to meaſure.

1. Maſons work, which is meaſured by foot meaſure, either lineal, ſquare, or cubical. The principal thing to be obſerved herein is, that they girt all their mouldings as joiners do, and take their dimenſions in feet, inches, and parts.
The ſolids are blocks of ſtone, marble, or any kind of ſtone, columns, cornices, &c. the ſuperficies are pavements, ſlabs, chimney-pieces, and the like. It is to be obſerved, that maſons firſt meaſure the cube of the ſtone, and their ſuperficial plain work, alſo ſuperficial moulded work (if any) as follows:
Firſt, They account all ſuch ſtones as are above two inches thick at ſo much per foot, ſolid meaſure, and, for the workmanſhip, they meaſure the ſuperficies of the ſtone, but then they meaſure no more of the ſtone than what appears without the wall.
But, as their method of meaſuring is not ſo well underſtood by many as ſome others, it may be proper to give an example how to meaſure a chimney piece, as a guide to all others.
Firſt, then, take the length of the mantle, or head-ſtone, and the ſlab (whoſe extent is generally the ſame) for one ſum of the dimenſions, and the breadth of both add together, with an inch or more for the under edge of the mantle, and half an inch (or whatever it is) for the upper edge, which, being all added, is the other ſum of the dimenſion.
Secondly, Take the length of the jaumbs, or ſides, allowing an inch longer than is ſeen (they going in below the ſlab) for one

one ſum, and the breadth of one girting, all that is ſeen, and double it for the ſecond ſum of the dimenſion.
Thirdly, If there be ſlips and noiſings to the chimney-piece, meaſure the length by all the girt that is ſeen in breadth, or make the dimenſion twice.
Fourthly, Fire-ſtone hearths, and coving-ſtones, muſt be caſt up by themſelves, and all that appears in ſight meaſured.

V. Of Glaziers Work to meaſure.

Glaziers work is meaſured by the ſuperficial foot, and the dimenſions are taken in feet, inches, and parts, or by feet, and the hundred parts of a foot, as their rules are generally divided: therefore the meaſurer of glaziers work ſhould underſtand decimals; allowing the feet as integers, and the parts as decimals; ſo that three quarters, or 9 inches, is 75; half a foot, or 6 inches, is 50; and a quarter, or 3 inches, 25 of theſe parts.
1. Therefore, admit a pane, or light of glaſs, that is leaded, be 2 feet 6 inches long, and 1 foot 6 inches wide, they ſet it down as on their rules, 250 by 150.
To ſhew the agreement between the decimal and duodecimal way of working, I will give the above example wrought both ways as follow:

By decimals.	By duodecimals. Feet.	Inches.
2,50	2	6
1,50		1 6
1,2500	1	3 0
2,50	1	6
3,7500	3	9 0

By the above operation it appears, that the aforeſaid pane of glaſs, by the decimal way of working, is 3 feet 75 parts, equal to 3 feet and three quarters: and, by the duodecimals, 3 feet 9 inches, equally the ſame: for, as 75 is three quarters of 100, ſo is 9 three quarters of 12. Should there be ſeveral lights, or panes, of the ſame bigneſs, you need meaſure but one, for multiplying that product by the number of lights, gives the contents of the whole. As for

Example.

Suppoſe a ſaſh-window contains 12 ſquares, and each ſquare of glaſs 125, or 1 foot 3 inches long, and ,75, or 9 inches broad, and the content required.

By decimals.	By duodecimals. Feet.	Inches.
1,25	1	3
,75		0 9
625	11	3
875	Number of ſquares	12
9375	11	3 0
No. of ſquares 12		
18750		
9375		
11,2500		

The content of the whole by both ways is 11 feet and $\frac{1}{4}$.

To meaſure circular, or oval windows, take the ſame length and breadth as their diameters, as if they had been ſquare windows, becauſe in cutting out the quarries of glaſs there is a great waſte, and more time expended therein, than if they had been ſquare windows.

VI. Of Painters Work to meaſure.

Painters work is meaſured the ſame as joiners work, by the yard ſquare, only with this difference, that, inſtead of accounting the doors and window-ſhutters work and half, they have double work, as being painted on both ſides; and they alſo meaſure all edges, &c. where the bruſh goes.
1. Saſh-frames, faſh-lights, window-lights, and caſements, are done at per piece.
2. Modillion, and other outſide cornices, at per foot running.

Of ſuch meaſures as are uſed in lands and buildings.

1. A ſquare foot is 144 ſquare inches.
2. A cubical foot is 1728 cubical inches.
3. A ſquare yard is 9 ſquare feet.
4. A cubical yard is 27 cubical feet.
5. A ſquare is 100 ſquare feet.
6. A load of rough timber is 40 feet.
7. A load of ſquared timber is 50 feet.
8. A load of 1 inch plank is 600 ſquare feet.
9. A load of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 400 ſquare feet.
10. A load of 2 inch plank is 300 ſquare feet.
11. A load of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 240 ſquare feet.
12. A load of 3 inch plank is 200 ſquare feet.
13. A load of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 170 ſquare feet.
14. A load of 4 inch plank is 150 ſquare feet.
15. A load of ſtatute bricks is 500.
16. A load of plain tiles is 1000.
17. A load of lime is 32 buſhels.
18. A load of ſand is 36 buſhels.
19. A hundred of lime is 35 buſhels.
20. A hundred of deals is 120.
21. A hundred of nails is 120.
22. A thouſand of nails is 1200.
23. A ton of iron is 2240 lb. weight.
24. A fodder of lead is 19 hundred and a half, or 2184 lb.
25. A hundred of lead is 112 lb. weight.
26. A table of glaſs is 5 feet, and 45 tables is a caſe, but Newcaſtle, Normandy glaſs, 25 tables is a caſe.
27. A geometrical pace is 5 feet in length.
28. A geometrical perch is 10 feet in length.
29. A ſtatute pole or perch is 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length.
30. A ſquare ſtatute pole or perch is 272 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſquare feet.
31. A woodland pole or perch is 18 feet in length.
32. A ſquare woodland pole is 234 ſquare feet.
33. A foreſt pole or perch is 21 feet in length.
34. Four ſtatute perches is one chain's length.
35. Ten chains length is a furlong, or acre's length.
36. Four chains length is an acre's length.
37. Forty ſquare perches is a rood, or a quarter of an acre.
38. Four roods, or 160 perches is one acre.
39. A hide of land is 100 acres.

Remarks.

Since the ſliding rule hath come into general practice among men of buſineſs, theſe operations have been greatly facilitated; and, as theſe are ſo eaſily and mechanically learned, few tradeſmen concern themſelves to enter deeper into the principles of geometry, whereon the whole art of menſuration is bottomed.

Of Solid and Cubical Measure, and the Use of the Carpenter's Rule therein.

This meaſure reſpects length, breadth, and thickneſs or depth, being applicable to timber, ſtone, &c. the dimenſions whereof, ſuppoſe, are taken in feet and inches.
1. When the breadth and thickneſs are the ſame from one end to the other.

The General Rule.

Multiply the length by the breadth, and that product by the thickneſs, and the laſt product will be the content; or, if the breadth and thickneſs be multiplied together, and their product by the length, it will give the content.

Example.

Suppoſe a parallelopipedon to be a piece of timber, ſtone, &c. whoſe length is 18 feet, it's breadth 3, and thickneſs 2 feet, $18 \times 3 \times 2 = 108$ feet, the content.—Or $3 \times 2 \times 18 = 108$.

By the Sliding Rule.

The breadth and thickneſs being ſo reduced to the mean ſide of a ſquare, ſet 1 upon D, to the length upon C, and oppoſite to the mean ſide, upon D, will be found the content upon C.

Example.

The mean ſide, found as hereafter taught	2,45	} Feet.
The length - - - -	18	
The content - - - -	108	}

By the Carpenter's Rule.

Set the length in feet on the ſliding-piece to 1, on the ſquare or girt-line; and, oppoſite to the mean ſide, in inches on the ſquare or girt-line, will be found the content in feet, on the ſliding piece.
In the foregoing example, the dimenſions were given only in feet, therefore the product was feet. But,
2. When the length is given in feet, and the breadth and thickneſs in inches, the laſt produce muſt be divided by 144 (the ſquare inches in a foot) and the remainder (if any) by 12, and the quotient will be the content in ſolid feet and inches.

Example.

Suppoſe a piece of timber, &c. to be 15 feet long, 13 feet broad, and 8 inches thick,

$\frac{15 \times 13 \times 8}{144} = 10$ Feet. Inches. 10 the content.

By the Sliding Rule.

The breadth and thickneſs being reduced to the mean ſide of a ſquare, ſet 12 upon D, to the length upon C, and, oppoſite to the mean ſide upon D, will be found the content upon C.

EXAMPLE.

The mean ſide, found as hereafter taught - 10,2 Feet.
The length - - - - - - 15 Feet.
The content - - - - - - 10,8 Feet.

By the CARPENTER'S RULE.

Set the length in feet on the ſliding-piece, to 12 on the ſquare or girt-line, and, oppoſite to the mean ſide in inches on the ſquare or girt-line, will be found the content in feet on the ſliding-piece. Or,

3. If all the dimenſions are given in feet and inches, they muſt be firſt reduced into inches, and the laſt product of the multiplication of the dimenſions by each other, muſt be divided by 1728 (cubical inches in a foot) and the remainder, if any, by 144, and the quotient will be the content in ſolid feet and inches.

EXAMPLE.

Suppoſe a piece of timber, &c. to be 22 feet 3 inches long, 1 foot 5 inches broad, and 1 foot 2 inches thick,

$\therefore 22{,}3 \times 1{,}5 \times 1{,}2 = 36{,}9\frac{3}{12}$—The content.

Note, When the contents are required in loads, the contents in feet muſt be divided by 50 (the ſolid feet in a load) and the quotient will be the anſwer. And,

If the contents of any ſolid be required in cubical yards, divide the contents in ſolid feet (found as before taught) by 27 (the cubical feet in a yard) and the quotient will be the contents in cubical yards.—Or the dimenſions might have been reduced into yards, and the operation performed as for feet.

If any ſolid be exactly ſquare (which in timber ſcarce ever happens) multiply the ſide into itſelf, and that product by the length, and the laſt product will be the content.

And, if the ſides are not exactly equal, they may be reduced to a ſquare by the following methods:

To reduce the breadth and thickneſs of a ſolid to the mean ſide of a ſquare: the true way.

Multiply the breadth and thickneſs together, and the ſquare root of the product will be the mean ſide of a ſquare.

EXAMPLE.

Suppoſe a board, whoſe breadth is 13 inches, it's thickneſs 8 inches, and it's length 15 feet 6 inches,

13×8, and extract the root of the product, the anſwer is 10,198—Mean ſide of the ſquare.

By the SLIDING RULE.

Set the breadth on C to the breadth on D, and, oppoſite to the thickneſs on C, will be found the mean ſide of a ſquare on D.

By the CARPENTER'S RULE.

Set the breadth on the ſliding-piece to the breadth on the ſquare line, and, oppoſite to the thickneſs on the ſliding-piece, will be found the mean ſide of a ſquare, on the ſquare-line.

But the way commonly practiſed for unequal-ſided timber is, to add the breadth and thickneſs (taken about the middle of the piece) together, and then take half that ſum (or $\frac{1}{4}$ of the 4 ſides) for the mean ſide of the ſquare of the piece.

This method, indeed, produces a content more than the truth, by a piece equal to the whole length, and whoſe ſquare is equal to half the difference of the breadth and thickneſs; but, if the breadth and thickneſs are pretty near equal, the difference will be near enough for ordinary practice.

The breadth and thickneſs, or ſide of the ſquare, being given in inches, to find how many inches in length will make a ſolid foot.

RULE.

Divide 1728 (the cubical inches in a ſolid foot) by the product of the breadth and thickneſs, and the quotient will be the length of the cubical foot.

By the SLIDING RULE.

The breadth and thickneſs being reduced to a mean ſide of a ſquare, ſet the mean ſide on D, to 1 upon C, and oppoſite to 41,5 upon D, will be found the anſwer upon C.

MENSURATION OF PLANKS.

Though the menſuration of planks is properly by ſolid meaſure, yet the ſolid contents may be found by the directions given for ſuperficial, if the reſpective thickneſſes are afterwards accounted for.

RULE.

Multiply the length in feet and decimal parts, and the breadth in inches and decimal parts, together, and divide their product by 12; or find their ſquare by the ſliding or carpenter's rule, and the quotient, or ſquare, being divided by the following reſpective diviſors, will exhibit the ſolid contents in loads of 50 feet each.

The ſquare of the length and breadth of planks of

Inches thick	Being divided by	The quotient will be loads,	And the remainder (if any) being divided by	The quotient will be the odd feet.
4	150		3	
3	200		4	
$2\frac{1}{2}$	240		4,8	
2	300		6	
$1\frac{1}{2}$	400		8	
1	600		12	
$\frac{3}{4}$	800		16	

When the breadth and thickneſs are not the ſame throughout, but the ſolid is broader and thicker at one end than the other,

The rule for the true method.

Multiply the breadth and thickneſs at the greater end together, and alſo at the leſſer, and the two areas by each other, and to the ſquare root of that product add the two areas, the total whereof multiply by half of the length, will produce the content.

But the uſual way is to take the breadth and thickneſs in the middle of the piece, or, rather, half the ſums of the breadth and thickneſs (or find a mean ſide of a ſquare equal thereto) and then work as before taught, which will produce a content leſs than the truth: but, if the ends are pretty near equal, the difference will be but very ſmall.

MENSURATION of ROUND TIMBER.

1. When the circumference is the ſame from one end to the other,

The rule for the true method, according to the utmoſt cylindric circumference.

Firſt find the diameter of the circumference, from which the proportion is, as 22 is to 7, ſo is the girt or circumference to the diameter. Or,

By the SLIDING RULE.

Set the point *c* 3,141 on B, to 1 upon A, and, oppoſite to the circumference on B, will be found the diameter upon A. Or,

By the CARPENTER'S RULE.

Set 3,141 on the ſliding-piece, to 1 upon the upper line, and, oppoſite to the circumference on the ſliding-piece, will be found the diameter on the upper line.

The diameter being found, multiply it by $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girt, and that product by the length, which will produce the ſolid content.—Or, multiply the circumference into itſelf, and that product by ,07958 (the area of a circle whoſe circumference is unity) and the laſt product by the length, which will produce the content.—Or multiply the number 2821 (being the ſide of a ſquare equal to a circle whoſe circumference is 90) by the girt in inches, and the product will be the ſide of a ſquare equal to the girt or circumference; which multiply into itſelf, and that product by the length in feet; then divide the laſt product by 144, and the quotient will be the content in feet and decimal parts.

By the SLIDING RULE.

Set { 42,53 when the circumference is inches / 3,545 when the circumference is feet } upon D, to the length in feet C, and, oppoſite to the circumference on D, will be found the content in feet upon C.

The number 42,53 is the circumference of a circle, whoſe area is 12; and 3,545 the circumference when the area is unity.

But the cuſtomary way is, to girt the piece in the middle with a ſtring, and take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girt for the ſide of a ſquare; which ſide multiply into itſelf, and that product by the length, and the laſt product will be the content.

If the circumference, or girt, be given in inches (having worked as before) divide the laſt product by 144, and the remainder (if any) by 12, and the quotient will be the content in ſolid feet and inches.

If the circumference and length are given in feet and inches, having reduced them into inches, and worked as before, divide the laſt product by 1728, and the remainder, if any, by 144, and the quotient will be the content in ſolid feet and inches. Or, (having taken $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girt for the ſide of a ſquare) the operation may be performed

By { Taking the aliquot parts of a foot for the odd inches, / Croſs multiplication, / Reducing the dimenſions into decimals, / Sliding rule, / Carpenter's rule, } As before taught for ſquares.

This cuſtomary way produces a content leſs than the truth by above $\frac{1}{5}$ part; for as

The area of that circle whoſe circumference is unity, is ,07958
And the ſquare of the $\frac{1}{4}$ of the unity is but - ,0625

Therefore the true content is to the cuſtomary content as ,07958 is to ,0625, or as 14 to 11; ſo that, if the cuſtomary content be obtained, the true content may be found by proportion.

Yet

Yet this method is generally practiſed, as being a medium between the content of the utmoſt cylindric circumference, and the following method of taking the ſquare within the circle, which is only mentioned for demonſtration ſake.

A third way to meaſure round timber is, by rejecting ſo much of the cylindric circumference as will reduce it to a parallelopipedon; that is, by taking the ſquare within the circular end or baſe, being ſuch a ſquare whoſe four angles will be contained within the circumference.

If the circumference of a circle be unity, the ſide of the ſquare inſcribed will be ,2251; therefore, multiply the circumference by the ſaid ,2251, and the product will be the ſide inſcribed, which ſquared, and that ſquare multiplied by the length, will produce the content.

Otherwiſe note, If the diameter of a circle be unity, the ſide of the ſquare inſcribed will be ,7071: therefore multiply the diameter by the ſaid ,7071, and the product will be the ſide inſcribed, which ſquared, and that ſquare multiplied by the length, will produce the content.

The circumference of a round piece of timber being given in inches, to find how much in length will make a ſolid foot.

The Rule.

Multiply the number 2821 by the circumference, which will produce the ſide of a ſquare equal; then multiply that ſide into itſelf for a diviſor, and let 1728 be the dividend, and the quotient will be the length of a foot.

By the Sliding Rule.

Set the circumference upon D, to 12 upon C; and, oppoſite to 42,53 upon D, will be found the length of a foot upon C.

2. When the circumference is not the ſame from one end to the other, that is, when the timber is tapering, as are maſts, &c.

The rule for the true method, according to the utmoſt conical circumference.

Having found the diameters of the circumference at each end (as before taught) multiply them together, and to the product add $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ſquare of their difference; the total whereof multiplied by ,7854 (the area of a circle whoſe diameter is unity) will produce a mean area; which, multiplied by the length, will give the content.

But the uſual way is, to take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girt in the middle (or rather $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girts at each end, and add them together, and take $\frac{1}{2}$ of their ſum) for the ſide of a mean ſquare throughout, which multiplied into itſelf, and that product by the length, will give the content.—Many of the cuſtomary methods of meaſuring timber, &c. deviate from the true; but it is our buſineſs to give an account of practice. Thoſe who would enter into the rationale of theſe things muſt be pretty well read in geometry. See the article Mathematics.

MENTZ, an archbiſhopric and electorate in Germany. It lies on the banks of the river Mayne, between the electorate of Triers on the weſt, the Palatinate on the ſouth, Franconia on the eaſt, and the Wetteraw on the north. It is about 60 miles in length, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about 50 in breadth.

A conſiderable part of the elector's revenue ariſes from the toll on the Rhine and the Mayne, and from the tax on the excellent wines produced in his country.

The chief towns of any trade are, 1. Mentz, on the Rhine, near it's confluence with the Mayne. This city claims a right to the invention of the art of printing, which certainly was firſt brought to great perfection here by Fauſt, or Guttenburg, about the year 1450.

Here is a very beautiful kay along the river, defended by ſeveral works, well fortified with cannon. That part of the city which extends towards the river is moſt populous. The beſt vineyards for Rheniſh wines being in this neighbourhood, Mentz has a flouriſhing trade in that commodity more particularly; and it's commerce is the briſker, by reaſon that all the merchandize which paſſes up and down the Rhine ſtops in it's harbour, to change bottoms. In this neighbourhood is Hockhem, ſo celebrated for good wines, that the beſt Rheniſh is from thence called Old Hock.

2. Bingen is a pleaſant ſmall town, which ſtands in the diſtrict called Rhingaw, which is ſo populous, that it looks like one intire town, intermixed with gardens and vineyards. The riſing grounds about it produce wines that are eſteemed preferable to thoſe of Baccharac, ſo much in vogue heretofore.

3. Elfeld, five miles weſt from Mentz, is a ſtrong fortified town, on the north ſide of the Rhine, and the chief of the Rhingaw.—Here is Roderheim, a place noted for the growth of the beſt wines in theſe parts.

4. Weisbaden lies between ſix and ſeven leagues from Frankfort, and about five or ſix miles north of Mentz: it is the metropolis of a country belonging to the branch of Naſſau-Saarbrack, and is famous for it's mineral waters.

MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP, or what is uſually called MERCHANTS ACCOUNTS, according to the method of double entry, as practiſed by the moſt eminent merchants throughout the world.

Before the reader enters upon what follows, he is deſired to conſult the following articles, viz. Accountantship, Accounting-House, Anonymous, Banking, Book-Keeping, Debtor and Creditor, and Ledger, Mercantile Accountantship; all which, conſidered together, in the various lights there repreſented, will render what we have further to ſay very eaſy and intelligible, and make him a complete accountant in any kind of buſineſs whatſoever.

Introduction.

In keeping of mercantile accounts there are three principal books, the waſte-book, the journal, and the ledger.

I. In the waſte-book are entered, in the plaineſt manner, as bought, ſold, received, paid, &c. all tranſactions of commerce, with their dates, ſums, conditions, and every particular circumſtance relating thereto.

II. The journal is, for ſubſtance, the ſame as the waſte-book; but, as this muſt be more fairly written, ſo it muſt be expreſſed in a very different manner, more merchant-like, as it is a preparatory for the ledger. In this book the debit and credit are rationally fixed and ſettled, according to the principles of accountantſhip; and, therefore, this requires the book-keeper's hand: and, becauſe in journalizing the waſte-book lies all the difficulty of account-keeping, we have exhibited the nature and reaſon thereof upon a ſingle ſheet, for the uſe of immediate inſpection. Suppoſe, for example, that you have entered, in your waſte-book, Received of A. B. in full 50 l. To poſt this into your journal, look for the article money received for a bond, or, otherwiſe, caſh is made debtor to the perſon that owed it you: therefore in the journal, after the date, ſay, Caſh debtor to A. B. received in full 50 l.

III. The ledger is the grand and principal book of accounts, which, when duly poſted, regulates and adjuſts all your concerns with reſpect to men, money, and merchandizes, and brings all things under their proper heads, and to their reſpective accounts. And, as this book gives you a comprehenſive view of all your negociations, ſo it does a complete balance of the whole year's traffic.

As the waſte-book is poſted into the journal, ſo the journal is into the ledger; and, if the waſte-book be judiciouſly poſted into the journal, with reſpect to it's debtors and creditors in the proper journal phraſe, as follows, under the letter (J) it will be very eaſy to poſt the journal into the ledger, if you remember the following

Directions to poſt journal entries into the ledger.

1. In every account there is a debit and a credit part; and, though the journal doth not expreſs the credit part, yet it is underſtood, for the perſon or thing that follows the word (To) is the creditor, or, inſtead of the word (To) read creditor. Take the inſtance above; caſh debtor to A. B. received in full 50 l.—Or thus, debtor caſh 50 l. creditor A. B. 50 l. Turn, therefore, to ledger to caſh account, as ſuppoſe folio (1) and, in debtor ſide, write, Date Jan. (1) To A. B. received in full (fol. 9.) 50 l. then turn to A. B's account (fol. 9.) and in credit thereof write, Jan. (1) By caſh received of him in full (fol. 1.) 50 l. From hence obſerve, beſides the date in ledger-margin, that, after the word (To) in debit, follows immediately A. B. viz. he that muſt be made creditor; and after the date and word (By) in the credit-entry, follows caſh, the name of the account that is made debtor; and that debtor and creditor counter-parts refer to each other, and ſtand in journal as before margin thus:

(1) Debtor.
(9) Creditor.

2. Obſerve, once for all, whatſoever you debit in one place in your ledger, muſt have an equivalent credit in another. And notwithſtanding in ſundry accounts there is one article debtor, and ſeveral creditors, as in letter (V) or ſeveral debtors and one creditor, as in letter (L) be that as it happens; yet debit and credit are always equal, or as much value as you debit you muſt credit, before your journal-entry is duly poſted in the ledger.

3. Beſides a reference column, another inſide column muſt be kept for the quantity of goods, as hogſheads, pipes, bales, &c. On the debtor ſide muſt contain the quantity bought in, and on the credit the quantity ſold out, by which you know at any time how much of each you have unſold, &c.

Note, Although we have deſcribed the nature and uſe of theſe three eſſential books, wherein a merchant's dealings might be all kept, yet, by many claſſes of traders, the waſte-book may be omitted, and the journal and ledger be ſufficient; for the book-keeper might journalize at once every occurrence, without entering them at all in a waſte-book. But, he not being always in the way, nay ſometimes obliged to make entries in a hurry, it is proper, in general, to keep a waſte-book, from which he may at more leiſure correctly and fairly form his journal.

But to prevent thoſe books filling up, merchants, by experience, find it neceſſary to keep other books ſubſervient to them, as a caſh-book, book of charges of merchandize, book of houſhold expences, factory or invoice-book, the ſale's-book; the nature and uſe of which are as follow:

IV. The

IV. The caſh-book. This book is folioed, as the ledger, and kept to eaſe the account of caſh there, and prevent receipts and payments being entered at all in the journal. On the left-hand ſide you make caſh debtor to all you receive, and on the right-hand ſide caſh creditor by all you pay.—And, at the end of the month, you may poſt it directly to the ledger, or, as uſual, make two journal entrances, viz. caſh debtor to ſundries for all the receipts, and ſundries debtor to caſh for all the payments of the month: ſo, by the help of this book, you will have but 12 lines in the caſh-account in the ledger on the debit, and 12 on the credit, for the 12 months. But ſome chuſe to poſt their caſh weekly, that they may more eaſily recollect any omiſſion or miſtake. Note, A book is ſaid to be folioed, when, on opening, the right-hand ſide and left (though two pages) are but one folio.

V. The book of charges of merchandize is only paged, in which are entered down promiſcuouſly the charges attending each ſort of goods or voyage daily as they occur, whether belonging to yourſelf or others, or for company account. And the reſpective goods or voyages are made debtors for their proper ſhare of charges to account of charges of merchandize. And, at the end of each month, your caſh muſt have credit for the whole charges of the month.

VI. The book of houſhold expences falls under the care of the houſekeeper, who might put down the diſburſements for family proviſions, &c. houſe-rent, ſervants wages, ſchooling, &c. periſhing goods, as earthern-ware (but durable goods, as beds, cheſts of draws, &c. do more properly belong to account of houſhold furniture) this may be caſt up once a month, or otherwiſe; and, having paid your houſekeeper the month's diſburſements, credit your caſh as before; then add up your month's payments in the caſh-book, which journalized, ſundries (and among the reſt theſe accounts, charges of merchandize, and houſe expences) will be debtors to caſh their reſpective ſums.

VII. The factory or invoice-book, is paged and uſed to copy out verbatim the invoice of goods you ſent abroad, whether for your own or others, or company account.

VIII. The book of ſales is folioed as the ledger, into which is copied an exact account of ſales which you ſend your employer; the credit ſide whereof contains the ſales when, to whom, what quantity and price, whether for caſh, barter, or to M. and S. on time. On the debit the particular charges, abatements, commiſſions, and nett proceeds.

But we are far from thinking it neceſſary that a learner ſhould have copies of theſe five laſt ſubſervient books: ſuch a multiplicity of books would ſerve to amuſe, rather than to inſtruct; when a ſpecimen of all theſe might be given him in one ſingle ſheet of paper. To theſe books might be added, the book for copying letters, the book for copying bills, a remembrancer or pocket-book, and the receipt-book; but, as theſe are generally known, ſo their names carry in them a ſufficient deſcription.

Note, To ſave the labour of opening an account in the ledger for every perſon, the merchant erects a general account, the debit whereof takes in thoſe ſeveral ſmall dealers that owe, their reſpective names, to what account, and ſum. And, as they pay, he diſchargeth each, mentioning his name on the credit ſide alſo; where the merchant likewiſe (in poſting his journal) carries thoſe little debts he owes, and, as he pays, debits the perſons.

In like manner, the merchant opens an account of merchandize general, into the debit whereof he poſts all thoſe little parcels and ſorts of goods he buys in, and not like to deal much in, and for which already he has no particular account opened in the ledger; and, as they are ſold, he gives the ſaid account credit, expreſſing the name of goods and quantity, in every entry, whether in debit or credit: by which, with a little trouble, he knows how much of any ſort of theſe petty wares are left, as effectually, as though he had kept a particular account for each.

If at any time you make a wrong entry in the ledger, in debit or credit ſide, make a croſs in the margin thus X, and write in the oppoſite ſide, To or By an error committed in credit or debit of this account, wrote off the ſum, &c.

PART I.

A general Rule to be remembered. The RECEIVER is DEBTOR: The DELIVERER is CREDITOR. Alſo whatſoever Merchandizes or Money come into your Hands, are DEBTORS; what go from you, are CREDITORS.

I. To poſt your Waſte-Book into your Journal; for a Foundation, at your Commencement in Trade, you muſt begin with the INVENTORY.

Inventory of all the
- A { Ready money, merchandize by you, and debts and voyages belonging to you; make thoſe ſeveral parcels or perſons, D^r. to your ſtock, or general capital.
- B { Debts owing to you, make ſtock, or general capital D^r. to thoſe ſundry perſons *.

* The title ſtock, or general capital, is uſed inſtead of your own name.

Money received.
- C { For a bond, or book-debt, D^r. caſh to the perſon that owed the ſame, for the ſum received *.
- D { For a legacy, a wager won, or gains by lotteries, or the exchange of money: D^r. caſh to account of profit and loſs.
- E { For wares ſold: D^r. caſh to thoſe reſpective wares (if more than one ſort) each it's value.
- F { Taken up at intereſt on bond. } D^r. ſundry accounts, viz. { D^r. caſh the ſum took up / D^r. intereſt, or profit and loſs for the intereſt } to the lender, for both principal and intereſt.
- G { For intereſt of money formerly lent, and principal continued: D^r. caſh to account of intereſt, or profit and loſs, (which you pleaſe).
- H { For freight of a ſhip, rent of a houſe, or eſtate: caſh D^r. to ſuch a ſhip, houſe, or eſtate.—Except the tenant has an account opened in your books, and he made D^r. already to houſe or eſtate.—Then caſh D^r. to the ſaid tenant's accompt to diſcharge him.
- I { As an aſſurer, or inſurer, for inſuring another's ſhip, or goods at ſea, &c. D^r. caſh to account of aſſurance or inſurance, or profit and loſs.

* Mention whether in full or in part; alſo in exchanges. Obſerve to keep an inſide column for the foreign ſpecie, and, after having found it's value (by the rule of exchange) in the coin of that country you are in, carry it in the outward column, as in thoſe inſtances given before under the article LEDGER.

K Which was due from you, whether on bond, debt, or goods, formerly bought, &c. D[r]. the perſon to whom due, to caſh the ſum, &c.

L For goods juſt bought, and paid for at delivery: D[r]. the wares come in, to the money gone out.

M For houſe expences, or with a ſon to apprentice, * houſe expences, or profit and loſs D[r]. to caſh.

N Lent at intereſt on bond: D[r]. the borrower to ſundries. { to caſh the ſum lent. / to profit and loſs for the intereſt.

Money paid.

O For intereſt only, the principal continued: D[r]. profit and loſs, or account of intereſt, to caſh.

P For inſurance of goods you ſent to ſea: D[r]. voyage, &c. to caſh.

Q As by an inſurer for a loſs, &c. D[r]. inſurance account to caſh.—But if the loſs is not paid preſently—D[r]. inſurance to the perſon inſured. And, then when you pay it, D[r]. inſured perſon to caſh.

R For another, as in behalf of your landlord, for reparation or taxes of the houſe you dwell in: make your landlord D[r]. to caſh.

* Theſe accounts, viz. houſe expences, intereſt, inſurance, bottomry, profit and loſs, though often kept diſtinct, are all of the ſame nature with the account of ſtock; for, whatever you loſe by either of theſe, the reſpective account is made D[r]. and C[r]. when you gain. For, if you receive money for a legacy or portion, either make Caſh D[r]. to profit and loſs, or rather to ſtock; becauſe, on cloſing the books, you'll ſee by what means your ſtock is increaſed.

S For preſent money: D[r]. goods bought, to caſh for their coſt and charges, if any, for carriage, freight, &c.

T For time: D[r]. goods received to the ſeller, (to pay at ſuch a time, if a certain time was agreed on.)

V For part money, part time: D[r]. wares come in, to ſundry accounts, C. { to caſh, paid in part, / to ſeller, reſt unpaid.

To a ſhip, houſe, or eſtate bought, ſuch a ſhip, houſe, or eſtate (with name or place for deſcription) D[r]. to caſh or ſeller, &c.

Merchandizes, &c. bought and received.

U For part money, part another's note, and part time: D[r]. wares received, to ſundry accounts. { to caſh the ſum paid. / to the man you received the note of. / to ſelling-man the reſt due.

W By my factor A. at one place, per my orders, and ſhipped off to my factor B. at another place, voyage to, &c. conſigned to B. D[r]. to factor A. my account for coſt and charges, &c.

X Received from your factor, for your own account: write D[r]. goods received, to factor [my account] current for coſt and charges he paid thereon.

Y Wares for wares, when of equal value: D[r]. wares received to wares delivered.

Z Bought for part money, part wares, of divers ſorts: D[r]. wares received to ſundries. { to the reſpective wares delivered, their value. / to caſh, to make up the reſt.

Merchandizes in barter.

A Bought for part money, part wares, part time: D[r]. wares bought to ſundries —— { to caſh, the ſum paid. / to wares you delivered, their value. / to your dealer, the reſt owing him.

B But, when ſeveral wares are bartered for ſeveral, then D[r]. your dealer to ſundries, viz. to each ſort you deliver out, for it's value. And make ſundry accounts, viz. each ſort you receive, D[r]. to your dealer for it's reſpective value.

C Suppoſe you ſend goods to M. and left to his choice, whether to keep or return them: make account of ſuſpence D[r]. to goods ſent M.—If he returns them again, reverſe it. But if he keeps the ſaid goods, make M. D[r]. to account of ſuſpence, for ſuch goods ſent him.

Account of ſuſpence, or bargains undetermined.

D —So when you have an overplus in caſh, as of 10 l. make caſh D[r]. to account of ſuſpence 10 l.—When you recollect the perſon or account, that ſhould have had credit. —Make account of ſuſpence D[r]. to ſaid perſon on account, for ſaid omiſſion.

E Voyage to, &c. conſigned to—&c D[r]. to ſundries. { to the reſpective wares for their value *. / to caſh, on charges of merchandize for cuſtoms, inſurance, &c.

F When you buy a cargo, for ready money, then D[r]. voyage, &c. to caſh at once, (theſe never having been entered in your books.)

Goods ſent to ſea.

G When you buy goods for ſea, to pay ſome time hence: then voyage,—&c. D[r]. to perſon or perſons you bought them of.

H When for uſe, and † account of your friend, (in either of the laſt caſes) then your friend [his] account current is D[r]. &c.

* This cargo being taken out of your own wares, which have been entered in your books.

† It is [my account] when goods, &c. belong to me. And [his account] when they belong to my correſpondent.

I For ready money, D[r]. caſh received to goods delivered out.

K For time, D[r]. the buyer to the ſeveral wares, for their values reſpectively.

L For part money, part time: D[r]. ſundries, viz. { D[r]. caſh, received in part. / D[r]. the buyer for the reſt owing. } to goods ſold.

M For part money, part wares, part by another's bill, part time: D[r]. ſundries, viz. { D[r]. caſh you received. / D[r]. wares you received, their value. / D[r]. the perſon who is to pay the bill. / D[r]. your dealer, due on time the reſt. } to goods ſold, for their values.

Goods ſold.

N By advice from my factor: D[r]. the factor [my] account current to voyage, for goods ſold. (See the note above †.)

Charges.

- O — On goods bought, ſee (S) or ſent to ſea, ſee (E) or to book a month's charges, ſee deſcription of charge-book—or on intereſt, ſee (O) or on inſurance, ſee (P).
- As repairs or taxes on your own houſe, eſtate, or ſhips outſet: ſuch houſe, eſtate, or ſhip, D^r. to caſh. But, if paid by you for your landlord, ſee (R).
- P — Diſcounted by a tenant
  - out of rent due to you, D^r. houſe or eſtate to tenant.—But, if for an eſtate to which you are executor in truſt, D^r. eſtate of A. B. deceaſed, to tenant.
  - out of rent due to A. B. for whom you are ſteward: eſtate of A. B. D^r. to tenant.

Abatements.

- Q — Upon wares
  - Bought: D^r. the perſon that ſold them to the ſaid wares you bought, the ſum abated.
  - Sold: D^r. the wares you ſold to your chapman that bought them, (ſo reverſing the ſales).
- R — Upon debts
  - Due to you: D^r. account of profit and loſs to the perſon you abate, the ſum, &c.
  - Owing to you: D^r. the perſon that abates to profit and loſs account *.

* Abatements, by your factor made for defect of goods, bad debts, or for any farther charges (after you had received your account of ſale from him) make voyage D^r. to factor [my] account current. Abatements, by you as a factor, having before ſent your employer his account of ſales, make your employer his account current, D^r. to the man you abate, as alſo to charges on remitting money, poſtage, &c.

Aſſignments.

- S
  - Of money received by aſſignation: D^r. caſh to the perſon that aſſigned it (not to him that paid it).
  - Of R's bill or bond, who owes you 100 l. to M. whom you owe 200 l. make M. D^r. to R. paid the ſaid M. in part 100 l. by aſſignation.

Conſignments.

- T
  - Of goods to you as a factor: D^r. goods conſigned for account of A. B. that ſent them, to caſh or charges of merchandize for any cuſtom, or charges at landing, &c.
  - You ſend to a factor (ſee goods ſent to ſea) but he adviſing you he has ſold them (vide goods ſold).

Selling or buying goods, paying or receiving money for your employer, is booked as your own proper. The buyer D^r. to goods for account of A. B. &c. [always mentioning whoſe].

Goods in return, you ſhip off with charges: D^r. A. B. your friend his account current, to the ſeveral goods, charges, &c. you ſend, or to the perſon or perſons you bought them of.

Bills of Exchange.

- V — Remitted to you,
  - And paid at ſight: D^r. caſh to the remitter, viz. He that ſent it, mentioning whether for his or my account current.
  - To be paid you at 1 or 2 uſance (or months hence) D^r. account of bills receivable, to the remitter, and when you receive the money for it: D^r. caſh to account of bill receivable. [Mind to keep an inſide column for the foreign ſpecie.] See the article LEDGER.
- W — Drawn on you,
  - And paid at ſight: D^r. the drawer to caſh, or had you laid out for a bill to ſend D^r. the ſame.
  - Payable at time: D^r. the drawer to account of bills payable, and when you have paid the ſaid bill, then D^r. account of bills payable to caſh *.
- X — Drawn for my account, between my factors: D^r. drawing factor [my] account current, to paying factor [my] account current.

* By theſe accounts you will ſee what bills you have to receive or pay.

Goods in company (as oil, or any thing.)

- Bought Y
  - And paid for myſelf, I make oil in company between partner and me, naming our ſhares (as he $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myſelf) D^r. to caſh; and immediately I make partner his account current D^r. to his account in company, his $\frac{2}{5}$ ſhare of the coſt *.
  - On time, the ſame as above: If I ſay oil in company between P. $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myſelf: D^r. to the ſeller, &c.
- Sold Z
  - I bring wares of my own into company.
    - oil in company between P. $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myſelf: D^r. to oil of my own proper; and P's account current, D^r. to his account in company; for his ſhare of the value.
  - For ready money, or to N. M. on truſt: caſh, or N. M. D^r. to oil in company; and P's account in company, D^r. to his account current, for his ſhare of the value †.

* By which obſerve my partner muſt have two accounts, including his account in company, and his account current; the like for each, had I more partners.

† [Suppoſing myſelf to keep the accounts between partner and me] when I received money from him for his ſhare, I laid out for him (as vide Y.) D^r. caſh to partner's account current.

Goods

Goods in company sent to sea. { Voyage in company between, &c. Dr. to sundries—— { to seller for wares in company between P. 2/5 and 1/5 myself, &c. / to cash, for charges, for shipping, insurance, &c. } { then partner's account current Dr. to his account in company, his 2/5 share. }

Note, Advice of sale is entered as in private and factory accounts.—As also returns from factor (with this difference) regarding, as before, partner's account in company; and his account current *.

* Observe, the end of my partner's having two accounts in my ledger, viz. His account in company shews his particular share of all the goods bought, on creditor side; or sold, on debtor side. And partner's account current shews what he owes me, or I him.
In regard to posting into the ledger, we refer to the heads mentioned at the beginning of this article.

II. How to Close or Balance all Accounts in the LEDGER, and to carry the Foot of each to one General Account of Balance, and so to conclude your Old Books.

To balance an account in the ledger.

- Of money——Remaining, Dr. account of general balance to cash.
- Of goods or voyages.
  - When not all sold (as you may see by comparing the debtor and creditor-side of the ledger) Dr. balance to the said goods or voyage, for the quantity unsold, which * value at the prime cost or market-price; and credit the said goods or voyage by balance. So for stocks, annuities, &c.
  - If loss thereon: Dr. profit and loss to the goods or voyage. / If gain: Dr. goods or voyage to profit and loss. } minding always the credit part, or counter entry, which follows the word (to.)
- Of interest, insurance, commissions, charges of merchandize, house expences, &c. are balanced by profit and loss.
- Of men, or personal accounts.
  - Owing to you: Dr. balance to the account of person owing.
  - Owed by you: Dr. person's account you owe, to the account of general balance.
- In company.
  - Make wares in company between, &c. Dr. to sundry accounts, the whole advantage of closing this account, { to profit and loss, my commissions, at so much per cent. And partner's account current, to his account comp. his part. / to profit and loss, for my share of the common gain. / to my partner (or partner's each) his account in comp. as for his share of gain.
  - If partners agree to divide the remaining goods, make each partner's account in company, Dr. to wares in company for his part, and wares [my own proper or] balance, make Dr. to wares in company for my share.
- Of factorage. Make goods of A. B. your employer, Dr. to sundries. { to cash or charge of merchandize for warehouse-room, cellarage, brokerage, abatements, &c. / to profit and loss, your commission for sale, &c. at so much per cent. / to employer's account current, for the nett produce.
- Of profit and loss.
  - If lost on the whole trade: stock Dr. to profit and loss †.
  - If gained on the whole trade: Dr. profit and loss to stock.
- Of stocks. Dr. stock to balance, which being credited by stock, according to the 2d head, add up debtor-side and creditor-side of balance, and both will be exactly equal, and a proof that every article hath had it's double entry throughout your books; which will yield an agreeable satisfaction, as well as shew you, that this, of all methods, is the most excellent.

But, if they do not exactly agree, it usefully informs you, that you have committed an error: then you, and another, must prick over your reference ('till you find out the omission or mistake) which then will stand thus, : 1/9.

* Debtor-side in ledger shews what goods cost, and quantity bought in. The credit side, what sold for, and the quantity sold out. All accounts are closed either by the account of profit or loss, or balance, or both.

† Profit and loss in the debit-side, are your losses; and credit-side, your gains. Observe that this account is balanced last, save stock account, and the account of general balance.

III. And lastly, How to begin a new Sett of Books, from the General Account of Balance of the Old Books. You must draw an Inventory, as at first, and in your new Journal make all the Money, Persons, and Merchandize, in Debtor-Side of Balance, Debtors to Stock. Also make Stock Debtor to all you owe; and this is contained in the Creditor-side of Balance, not reckoning the last line, which only shews your Nett Stock at the Entrance on your New Sett of Accounts; which, for Distinction Sake, you may mark B. on the Cover of each. The next Sett C. &c.

Of ACCOUNTS in COMPANY.

Introduction.

There are three ſorts of accounts opened in my ledger, when I keep the accounts of company, and have the diſpoſal of the goods, viz. An account of goods in company—a particular account current—and an account in company for each partner.

I. Of a general account of goods in company, as, ſuppoſe wine, &c. I make wine in company, between ſuch partners and myſelf (our parts) debtor for all that comes in, and creditor for all that goes out, as if it were for my own proper account.

II. Partner's account current (by ſome called his account proper, for this as any other man's proper account) ſhews what is due from him, or due to him.

III. Partner's account in company is only for order and regularity, and contrary to others; for the credit-ſide contains his ſhare of ſtock or goods (brought into company) and his part of the nett gain, or loſs at the cloſe: but the debit accounts, for what (goes out) or balance of what I have remaining in my hand, and his part of the loſs (if any) in the cloſe of the company trade.

Note, Though, for brevity ſake, I have only mentioned one partner's account current, debtor to, &c. in moſt places, it muſt be underſtood the ſame for every partner, except myſelf.—And in keeping company accounts, promiſcuouſly with our own, we do not open a particular account in company, and an account current for ourſelves, as well as for each partner, becauſe our own proper accounts keep my part in regulation; for obſerve, when I receive money for goods, ſuppoſe 100l. I debit my account caſh for the whole 100l. and, when I pay partner's half, I make his account current debtor for his 50l. and credit caſh 50l. paid out: whence it is plain, that my caſh remains debtor for my part 50l. I have ſtill in hand. In like manner, when I carry partner's ſhare of the gain, ariſing from goods or voyage in company, to his particular account in company, I carry my part to my own account of profit and loſs, (R, S.) &c.

But, in keeping company accounts in books by themſelves I open an account in company, and an account current, for myſelf, as well as for each partner: and then an account of ſtock in company, caſh in company, profit and loſs company, and balance in company, &c. As to the method of keeping theſe, it is the ſame, only obſerving, that I muſt do for myſelf, as for any other partner; ſo my part of the gains I carry to my account in company, as my partner's to his, or theirs.

The accounts being duly balanced, according to the plain ſubſequent directions, given for that purpoſe, every partner's account in company will of courſe, if accurately ſtated and poſted, balance itſelf; the debit and credit will be equal to a farthing, which will be an agreeable ſurprize to the young accountant, as well as prove the truth of the whole company tranſactions, without the trouble of balancing the whole books; and thereby make him amends for his trouble of keeping an account in company for each partner, which ſome chuſe to omit, and my ſeveral partners accounts current will exactly ſhew what I owe them, or they me.

For the third and laſt part, we have treated of two other methods, whereby company accounts may be kept by double entry, without a particular account of company for each partner: theſe are ſo plain to any one that has but a ſmall notion of debtor and creditor, by double entry, that they need very little explication, being much the ſame with private and factorage accounts.

As to the firſt of them, when I procure the goods, I make partner, as any other buyer, debtor for his part of the goods bought in, or ſent to ſea; and ſuch goods, or voyage, debtor for my part, giving the ſeller credit by both.

And in the ſecond, which I take to be plaineſt, I make goods, bought for company or voyage, debtor to the ſeller, for their whole coſt, as in private accounts.—Then I make partner debtor to ſaid goods or voyage, for his part, which, in effect, he buys of me.

And in both theſe ways, when the goods are diſpoſed of, I give ſaid account of goods or voyage credit for my part, and partner's account credit for his part, which is illuſtrated by example, in the latter part of this ſheet.

Theſe methods are uſed in ſhip accounts, and in many other tranſactions; as in glaſs-houſes, pot-works, and the like, where there are many articles to books, or many partners concerned: but the firſt method is the way more generally uſed, by ſkilful and eminent merchants. And the knowledge of this method will qualify a perſon for any counting-houſe whatſoever; whereas, if he only underſtood the latter method, and he ſhould fall into a counting-houſe, where the accounts were kept by the former, he would find himſelf greatly at a loſs. It is uſeful, however, for an accountant to know all methods of ſtating accounts, that he may not be perplexed upon the ſight of methods different to what he may have ſeen.

PART II.

A SCHEME of Company Accounts according to the Italian Method of Double Entry.

It is ſuppoſed that I myſelf keep the accounts, and have the diſpoſal of the company goods, &c.

Goods bought for company account
- A If of myſelf,
- B If of partner,
- C If paid for me,
- D If on truſt,

Dr. goods in company
- to goods for my own proper account,
- to partner's account (proper or) current,
- to caſh,
- to ſeller,

then Dr. each partner (his proper account, viz.) his account current to his account in company, for his part in the ſaid purchaſe.

Note, E When partner brings into company juſt his own part of goods, then if I only Dr. goods in company, to his account in company; this is two lines ſhorter than to account it bought of him, as above (B); but, when partner finds over or under his exact part, or his own part and mine, enter the tranſactions as above (B); and, had the other been booked ſo too, it would have been right, though not ſo conciſe.

F So, likewiſe, when I procure juſt my part of goods for company, I only Dr. goods in company, to goods for my own proper account; this is juſt the reverſe of withdrawing my ſhare (ſee L below): but, when I and partner bring in unequal parts, account is brought of ſelf and him (vide A and B).

Sales of goods for company
- G If to myſelf,
- H If to partner,
- I If for ready money,
- K If on truſt,

- Dr. ſame goods for my proper account,
- Dr. partner's account current,
- Dr. caſh,
- Dr. the buyer,

to goods in company, then, in either caſe, Dr. partner's account in company to his account current, for his part of the ſale.

*** Note well, when the buyer pays me, for company goods ſold formerly,—only Dr. caſh to buyer—for partner's account current had credit, for his part, at the ſale (vide K.)

L When partner and I agree to part remaining company goods between us, when they are diviſible into equal parts—Dr. ſundries to goods in company, viz. Dr. goods, for my own proper account, for my part. Dr. partner's account, in company, his part. This is the reverſe of (F, E); but if partner took to all the goods, at a certain price, or under, or above his juſt part, and myſelf the reſt, count it as goods ſold (G, H.) which is generally plaineſt.

Charges, as carriage, intereſt of money, &c.
- M Paid by partner, as (B).
- N Paid by myſelf, as (C).

As charges do augment the coſt, ſo it muſt be booked as the coſt.

It is supposed that I myself keep the accounts, and have the disposal of the company goods, &c.

Abatements.

- O — To us, for goods in comp. — This is the reverse of purchasing, selling. — Dr. seller, to goods in comp. — Dr. partner's account in comp. to his account current, his share of abatement.
- P — By us, for goods in comp. — This is the reverse of purchasing, selling. — Dr. goods in comp. to buyer. — Dr. partner's account current, to his account in comp. his part of the same.
- Q — By advice from our factor, just the reverse of his adv. of sales (as G), only voyage to—between, &c.—Dr. to factor, our account current (no double journal entrance).

Note, R So, in compounding for a debt, do as in (P), for the money we abate.—And, when dealer pays me his composition money, only Dr. cash to dealer (see *** above).

Money.

- S — Received at sale of goods (see I), or for goods formerly sold, (vide ***) above.
- T — Received of partner, — Dr. cash to partner's account current.
- U — Paid to partner, — Dr. partner's account current to cash *.

* Note, when partner gives me a sum to lay out, with just as much of mine own, it is somewhat shorter to Dr. cash received, to partner's account in company—but carefully observe, when goods are bought, only make goods in company Dr. to cash; so then the account will stand as in (E).

Bills.

- W — If I draw on partner a bill, Dr. cash; or Z. the man I deliver it to, to partner's account current.
- X — If partner draws on me, Dr. partner's account current to cash (if paid on sight). To account, of bills payable (if on time) *.

* (See returns per our factor.)

Barter.

- Y — Company goods delivered for others, which I take to myself, Dr. goods received for proper account, to goods in company, and Dr. partner's account in company, to his account current, for his part of sale.
- Z — Sold my own goods for others, I bring into company, Dr. goods in company received, to goods for my own account delivered, and Dr. partner's account current, to his account in company, his part of purchase.

To admit a new partner into company.

Suppose A. and myself are already in company, each $\frac{1}{3}$, for 600l. and B. would be interested $\frac{1}{3}$ of our stock, so we agree to have each $\frac{1}{3}$. B. purchases of me 100l. and of A. 100l. in the said stock, to make up his 200l. or $\frac{1}{3}$. How must this be settled? First, let goods in company account stand as it is, 'till sold (inserting B. in thirds) except you will open an account of goods in company, between A. B. and myself $\frac{1}{3}$ Dr. to goods in company between A. and me $\frac{1}{2}$ —However, A's same account current and account in company will do (whether B. pays ready money or not) Dr. partner (A's) account in company, to his account current 100l. his half of the sale to B. If B. pays me my 100l. Dr. cash to B's account in company.—If B. pays A. his 100l. Dr. A's account current, to B's account in company.—If B. pays not ready money, Dr. B's account current, to his account in company 200l.—If B. paid all to A. Dr. (A's) account current, to B's account in company, 200l.—But, if B paid all to me—cash Dr. to C B's) account in comp. 200l.

Goods in company sent to sea.

- A — If out of company goods, already booked, only Dr. voyage to —, &c. in comp. between —, &c. *
- B — If bought on credit, — Dr. voyage in comp. between, &c. — to seller. — then Dr. each partner's account current to his account in company in each of these cases.
- C — If bought of a partner, — Dr. voyage in comp. between, &c. — to partner's account current.
- D — If bought of myself, — Dr. voyage in comp. between, &c. — to goods for my proper account.
- E — If my factor (per order) send to our factor for comp. account, — Dr. voyage in comp. between, &c. — to my factor my account current.

Note, F For customs, freight, insurance, &c. if I paid as (D), (if instead of crediting goods my own proper account,) I say, to cash or charges of merchandize.—If partner pays charges, exactly as (C).

* Partner's account current, to his account in company, was debited when these were bought in (therefore not now.)

Advice of sales of ditto.

- G — Dr. Ro. D. (our factor) at—for company account, between —, &c. to voyage between, &c. our account current. — No double journal entrance here, nothing being gone out, or come in, but only a change; factor charged, and voyage discharged.

Non-disposal.

- H — If we order our factor at Barbadoes, to send our goods he cannot sell, to our factor at Virginia, — Dr. voyage to Virginia, to sundry accounts. — to voyage to Barbadoes, it's value (so make one voyage discharge the other). — to factor at Barbadoes, for any new charges, shipping, &c. — Dr. partner's account current to his account in comp. his share only of new charges.

Returns by our factors.

- In bills.
  - I — If sent to partner, — Dr. partner's account current — to factor — at for comp. between, &c. our account current. — Then Dr. each partner's account in comp. to his account current, for his part of the same.
  - K — If sent to me, and paid at sight. — Dr. cash
  - L — If sent me at usance, — Dr. bills receivable
- In goods.
  - M — Goods for company between——Dr. to factor at——our account current; so let them rest till I dispose of them. (For charges I pay on them, see above.)
  - N — If partner takes to them, — Dr. partner's account current, — to said goods in comp. or (if not entered to factor. — Then Dr. partner's account in comp. to his account current for his part of sale.
  - O — If I take to them, — Dr. goods for my proper account.
  - P — If a buyer takes to them, — Dr. cash, or the buyer.

☞ Before I close the account in company, kept by myself, I make a double journal entrance for any charges not yet booked, and my commissions.

My commissions.

- Q — Goods (or voyage) in company, Dr. to sundries, — to cash, or charges of merchandize, for cellar-room, &c. or other charges. — to profit and loss, my commissions, &c. (if not charged before.) — Then Dr. partner's account current, to his account in company, his part of both.

It is ſuppoſed that I myſelf keep the accounts, and have the diſpoſal of the company goods, &c.

To balance company accounts in my ledger.

Of goods,

R If we have gained Dr. goods in company to fundries, { to partner's account in company, his part of nett gains. / to profit and loſs, for my part of ditto.

S If we have loſt, on the whole, or in part, (as ſtaved, ſtolen, &c.) Dr. fundries, { Dr. partner's account in comp. his part, / Dr. profit and loſs, my part of loſs, } to goods in comp. &c.

Of voyages.

T If we have gained, Dr. voyage to fundries, { to partner's account in company, his part of nett gains. / to profit and loſs, my part of ditto.

V If we have loſt, Dr. fundries, { Dr. partner's account in comp. for his part of the loſs / Dr. profit and loſs, my part thereof, } to voyage to—, conſigned to—, between—, &c.

U If no returns yet made, Dr. fundries, { Dr. partner's account in comp. for his part remaining, / Dr. balance, for my part out-ſtanding, } to voyage, &c. between, &c.

Of our factor.

W If he hath under ſhipped our nett proceeds, Dr. fundries, { Dr. partner's account in comp. his part, / Dr. balance, my part in factor's hands, } to factor, at—, for comp. account, between, &c.

X If he hath overſhipped our proceeds, Dr. our factor at—, for comp. to fundries, { to partner's account in comp. his part due to factor. / to balance, for my part of the overplus due to ditto.

Suppoſe partner keeps the account, and has the diſpoſal of company goods, &c.

Note, ☞ When my partner has the diſpoſal of company goods, I only keep an account of my own ſhare in my books, (viz. goods in hand of partner, Dr. &c.) and when he has ſold them, and given me an account of the ſales, I make him debtor for my part of the nett proceeds, (as I would a factor) to account of goods in his hands, whereby theſe two accounts are balanced, as my proper accounts; for the profits ariſing from my account of goods, in partner's hands, is carried to profit and loſs. And if partner owes me, I, at the clo e of books, make balance Dr. to, or Cr. by partner's account, as I would any other man's.

Y If partner finds my part as well as his own,

Z If I buy my part,

A If I find out of my own goods my part,

} I may expreſs, or open this account in my books, either { Dr. goods, in hands of partner A. B. or, / Dr. partner, my account in comp. or, / Dr. voyage, if ſent to ſea, } { to partner, for my ½, or ⅓, &c. / to cath, or ſeller. / to goods, for my proper account.

B If I procure partner's ſhare, and my own Dr. fundries, { Dr. goods in comp. in hands of partner. for my part, / Dr. partner (as one that bought goods of me) for his part, } { to goods proper, if out of my own ſtock. / to the man I bought them of, if had them on truſt. / to cath, if I purchaſed with ready money.

See Part III. partners keeping accounts.

PART III.

COMPANY ACCOUNTS without a particular Account in Company for each Partner.

I keeping the account, &c.

Goods bought for company. { Dr. fundries. viz. { Dr. A. B. my partner, for his half, { to ſeller, if bought on truſt. / to cath, if I paid for them. / Dr. goods in comp. with A. B. for my half, { to partner, if he paid for them. / to cath, and to partner, if we paid between us.

☞ Note, In this method, I only make each partner Dr. for his part of goods bought in, to the feller. And goods in comp. to feller, for my part; and, as I ſell, give theſe accounts credit; ſo they will ſtand in my ledger as common or private accounts, and balance as ſuch.

II. Method, I might have made goods in comp. Dr. for the whole, and then made partner Dr. to goods in comp. for his part, and it would have come to the ſame.

Goods ſold in company. { Dr. buyer, or cath, to fundries, { to partner A. B. for his half of ſale. / to goods in company, for my half of ditto.

Goods in comp. ſent to ſea. My friend W. W. of London and I, are agreed to enter into copartnerſhip, in a voyage to Jamaica: and therefore writes to me, to procure 100 duroys for ſaid voyage.—Having 70 pieces of my own, which I charge at 26s.—and bought of R. S. 30 pieces more, at 26s.—and I have paid charges in packing, preſſing, porterage, &c. 'till on board, 35s.

To journalize this account, you may ſay,———

Sundries, Dr. to fundries, 135l. 00s. 10d. for 100 pieces of duroys, ſhipped on board the Sea-Horſe, W. G. maſter, for Jamaica, for account of W. W. and ſelf, each one half, conſigned to R. D. viz.

		£.	S.	D.	£.	S.	D.
II. Method, If I had made voyage, Dr. to fundries for the whole coſt and charges,-	.W. W. for his half — — — —		67	10	05		
	.Voyage to Jamaica, for my half — — —		67	10	05		
						135	00 : 10
Then made partner W. W. Dr. to voyage, for one half thereof, this would have come to the ſame,	.To duroys, for my proper account, 70 pieces, at 26s. —		91	00	00		
	.To R. S. bought of him 30 pieces, at 26s. — —		39	00	00		
	.To charges of merchandize, — — — —		1	15	30		
	.To profit and loſs, or account of commiſſion for my proviſion, at 2 and half per cent. — — — —		3	05	10		
			135	00	10		

Advice of ſales of ditto goods. Our factor, R. D. ſends an account of ſales of the above adventure; the nett proceeds amounting to 202l. 10s. exchange at 135 per cent. make——ſterling 150l.——To book this——R. D. at Jamaica, Dr. to fundries, 150l. for 202l. 10s. being the nett proceeds of goods between W. W. and ſelf, each half, viz.

	£.	S.	D.	£.	S.	D.
To W. W. his half — — — —		75	00	00		
To voyage to Jamaica, for my half — — —		75	00	00		
				150	00	00

Partner keeping the account.

When partner keeps the account, keep only an account of your own ſhare, as taught in Part II. to which we refer you. I ſhall give the following example.

Goods ſent to ſea. My partner, W. W. of London, adviſes by my order, he has ſhipped on board the Frederic, Matth. Van Holten, maſter, for Amſterdam, 100 pieces Norwich ſtuffs, conſigned to Adam Van Sculten, for account of W. W. and ſelf, each one half; which, with all charges, as per invoice, amounts to 103l. 6s. 8d. my half whereof, is 51l. 13s. 4d.—which I book thus:

÷ Voyage to Amſterdam, Dr. to W. W. 51l. 13s. 4d. for my half in 100 Norwich ſtuffs, ſhipped by him, and conſigned to—&c. — — — — — 51 : 13 : 04

Advice of ſales. Partner W. W. of London, has ſent me account of ſales, which he received from Adam Van Sculten, of Amſterdam, of the Norwich ſtuffs he ſent on our account, the proceeds whereof being 1624 guilders, 18 ſtivers, my half is 812 guilders, 9 ſtivers, exchange at 36s. 6d. make ſterling 74l. 3s. 11d.

÷ Partner W. W. Dr. to voyage to Amſterdam, 74l. 3s. 11d for 812 guilders, 9 ſtivers, my half of the nett proceeds of Norwich ſtuffs, as per account from Adam Van Sculten — 74 : 03 : 11

See Part II. partner keeping accounts.

The

The BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE, humbly ſubmitted to public conſideration.

Novimus novitios quoſdam, qui cum ſe mercaturæ vix dederunt, in magnis mercimoniis ſe implicantes, rem ſuam male geſſiſſe. Et profecto imperitos mercatores multis captionibus ſuppoſitos, multorumque inſidiis expoſitos experientia videmus. Mercatores actus ſui rationem conficiant, & calamo non parcant.

Stracch. de mercatura, par. 2. p. 357.

L'ignorance des negocians vient, de ce que dans leur commencement ils manquent d'inſtruction, n'ayans pas fait leur apprentiſſage chez d'habiles marchands, qui ayent toutes les qualitez requiſes pour bien montrer le commerce. Il eſt impoſſible qu'un negociant réüſiſſe dans ſes entreprifes, s'il ne ſçait parfaitement ſa profeſſion.

Parfait Negociant de Savary.

Of the neceſſity of the eſtabliſhment of a MERCANTILE COLLEGE in Great-Britain, for the education of BRITISH MERCHANTS, with greater advantages than they uſually have.

In order to animate the French nation in general to the vigorous purſuit and cultivation of it's trading intereſt, that celebrated ſtateſman Monſ. Colbert, prevailed on the late biſhop of Avranches, a gentleman well read in antiquity, to write the hiſtory of the commerce and navigation of the ancients *; which had ſuch happy effect in the kingdom, when communicated to the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſons in it, that, from being lukewarm in regard to the national intereſts of trade, they became it's ſtrenuous advocates and zealous promoters.

* Hiſtoire du commerce, & de la Navigation des Anciens. Par M. Huet, ancien evêque d'Avranches.

And, indeed, it appears from the writings of that learned and judicious prelate, that commerce when wiſely cheriſhed and encouraged, was the firmeſt ſupport of the power of moſt of the illuſtrious ſtates and empires in ancient ſtory.

The Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, the Athenians, and Rhodians, acquired immenſe treaſure and power by the induſtry and ingenuity of their merchants, in extending their traffic. Nor did the Romans, though chiefly addicted to arms, neglect to carry on an extenſive trade to Sicily, Spain, Egypt, Barbary, and the Euxine Sea; but their perpetual victories, and the rapidity of their conqueſts, made them loſe ſight of their commercial intereſts; which, if properly cultivated, might have maintained their power, even to the end of time.

Where the people of any ſtate or empire depend altogether upon agriculture, and there are few or no traders in a nation, unleſs of the retailing and mechanic ſort; and where the farmer and the planter are the moſt uſeful members of the community; the higheſt regard will always be paid to theſe orders of men. Accordingly we find, that in the inland provinces of Aſia, they were formerly held in the moſt honourable eſtimation; and the nobles of theſe countries treated all traders with contempt; whilſt in ancient Egypt, a country naturally formed for commerce and navigation, the ſhepherd and the farmer were looked on as a deſpicable rank of men, and traders maintained the principal dignity and ſuperiority in the ſtate. Among the Tyrians, they had ſo great a ſhare of honour and power, that an inſpired writer has told us, THEIR MERCHANTS WERE PRINCES.

In free ſtates, ſuch are the natural and happy effects of commerce, that it contributes at the ſame time to aggrandize the prince, and to preſerve and extend the liberty of the ſubject: and arbitrary governments are ſo ſenſible of the benefits of traffic, that we ſee them earneſtly bent on it's advancement, whenever their wiſeſt and beſt miniſters have had the management of their affairs. Inſomuch that I believe I may venture to ſay, that it is by a rivalſhip in trade, that our neareſt and moſt potent enemy carries on a kind of warfare againſt us, more certainly deſtructive than their arms *.

* This is demonſtrated in various parts of our Dictionary of Commerce.

The peculiar importance of a well regulated and extenſive commerce to the proſperity, or rather to the very being of theſe kingdoms, is ſo well underſtood, that it is now needleſs to carry theſe reflections home to ourſelves. Trade, it is to be hoped, will ever be the chief object of our public care. But the wiſeſt laws, and the beſt concerted encouragements, are not alone ſufficient to carry our commerce to it's utmoſt extent, or to ſupport it in a ſtate of health and vigour: ſomething will ſtill be wanting, which lies beyond the reach of laws, and which private perſons muſt acquire to themſelves; I mean a proper mercantile education: for, unleſs merchants are ſkilful and judicious in improving and cultivating the practical arts of trade, the beſt laws will prove little better than a dead letter; it is the intelligent trader who muſt give them ſpirit, and render them operative and beneficial.

For erudition, in almoſt every other branch of ſcience, it muſt be acknowledged, we abound with the beſt regulated inſtitutions. I wiſh we could ſay the like in relation to the mercantile profeſſion. But, what well eſtabliſhed ſeminaries have we for the accompliſhment of that moſt conſiderable part of the Britiſh community? Certain I am that we have none, which are properly adapted to the peculiar nature of their province, and it's ſupreme utility to the ſtate in general. The cauſe to which they may be chiefly attributed, is not difficult to be diſcovered. Too many, who ſet out in the capacity of merchants, are apt to flatter themſelves that they ſtand in need of little other qualification, than a round capital, and an adventurous diſpoſition. Buying and ſelling, paying and receiving, exporting and importing, as they think, comprehend the whole circle and myſtery of mercantile tranſactions.

When a low idea is thus entertained of the accompliſhments neceſſary for this employment, it is no wonder that ſo little regard, in general, is had to the education of thoſe who are intended for it. The conſequences hereof are fatal to numbers who ruſh headlong into commerce, deſtitute almoſt of every one of thoſe accompliſhments indiſpenſibly neceſſary, and become a ſacrifice to their folly and temerity *.

* I knew a conſiderable trader in the city of London, who could neither write nor read; he made ſhift, however, to keep his head above water, for many years, though he ſwam with bladders, prepared by thoſe who intended his drowning at laſt; and it is not to be admired that bankruptcy was his fate. And numbers of bankrupts, I have known, are ſhamefully deficient in the ordinary accompliſhments requiſite for the merchant; but, if every one who preſumes to take upon him this reſpectable character, was obliged to paſs an examination by a board of ſkilful merchants, before he was admitted to practice; I am perſuaded, it would have as good an effect in regard to the intereſt of trade and traders in general, as the ſuffering no one to adminiſter medicine in any ſhape whatever would have upon the lives of his majeſty's ſubjects, 'till they had paſſed a due examination by the Royal College of phyſicians.

We daily ſee many, by their ſuperior qualifications, from very ſlender beginnings, accumulate great riches by merchandizing; while others, from commencing with plentiful fortunes, have, in the ſame courſe, been reduced to the loweſt penury. This ſeems ſtrange to the undiſcerning, but is eaſily accounted for; ſince they muſt have very little knowledge of the trading world, and leſs acquaintance with the practical arts of commerce, who can form a contemptible opinion of the qualifications neceſſary to the foreign trader.

Without acquaintance in the produce and manufactures of the commercial world, and in the laws of our own and foreign countries relative to general trade; without abilities to obtain the beſt intelligence, in order to ſtrike the critical time when and where, exportation or importation from nation to nation, drawing, remitting, and negociating foreign bills, invite to the beſt advantage: without knowledge of the duties, impoſts, ſubſidies, drawbacks, bounties, and all other charges and allowances at home and abroad, to which trade is ſubject, it is impoſſible that any previous calculation can be made, whether an adventure will turn to account or not. If the merchant be not thoroughly ſkilled in foreign monies and exchanges, as alſo in foreign weights and meaſures, and the methods of reducing thoſe of one nation reciprocally into thoſe of others, how ſhall he be able to judge of foreign INVOICES and ACCOUNTS of SALES *? And, if he be not perfectly acquainted with the arts of arbitrating the foreign exchanges with accuracy, he cannot embrace thoſe daily benefits by the negociation of them, which their perpetual fluctuation affords. Nor is a knowledge of the intrinſic value of foreign ſpecie leſs neceſſary than of the extrinſic par of exchange, in order to deal occaſionally between country and country, in the export or import of foreign coins, and bullion gold and ſilver to the beſt advantage: in fine, the merchant deſtitute of this ſeries of information, and talents to apply it to the moſt beneficial purpoſes in every ſhape, can never hope to reap any conſiderable profit from his profeſſion, or ſuſtain the character he bears with any ſort of dignity. He muſt owe his ſucceſs, if he has any, to fortunate hits, and unexpected advantages; things which no prudent man will chuſe to depend upon, for the whole proſperity of his life.

* See the articles INVOICE, and ACCOUNT of SALES.

To the ignorant in theſe matters, commerce is but a game of chance, where the odds are againſt the player. But to the accompliſhed merchant it is a ſcience, where ſkill can ſcarce fail of it's reward: and, while the one is wandering about on a pathleſs ocean without a compaſs, and depends on the winds and tides to carry him into his port, the other goes ſteadily forward, in a beaten track, which leads him directly, if no extraordinary accident intervenes, to wealth and honour.

Whoever turns his thoughts on the ſtupendious circulation of paper-property throughout the world, by inland and foreign bills; on the various cuſtoms and uſages eſtabliſhed among traders

traders in their money-negociations, for the ſupport of univerſal credit; on the numberleſs different tranſactions, which diverſify the buſineſs of the merchant; as buying and ſelling, exporting and importing, for proper, company, or commiſſion account; drawing on, remitting to, and freighting or hiring out ſhips for various parts of the world at the ſame time: whoever duly conſiders the ſkill in figures and accountantſhips*, requiſite to adjuſt and methodize this great variety of tranſactions, whereby ſuch trader may always have the true repreſentation of his affairs before him; together with the judgment to conduct ſuch a complication of occurrences, and addreſs to maintain a general correſpondence in our own, or the more univerſal languages, cannot but ſee the extent of a courſe of education proper to form ſo diſtinguiſhed a character.

* See the following PLAN of mercantile erudition.

Notwithſtanding this, nothing is more certain, than that no gentlemen in the general labour under greater diſadvantages in point of erudition —To trace this matter more minutely.
Few, very few, have more than a ſmattering of Latin and Greek, and a very ſuperficial knowledge of figures and accounts. With this very ſmall ſtock of uſeful literature, our tyro is turned into the practical counting-houſe; and, when he is there, the eager purſuits of intereſt in the maſter, who has not leiſure to attend to his inſtruction, will not admit of his making a greater proficiency in mercantile knowledge, than what ſelf-application ſhall lead him to. Here the flower of youth, we find, is oftener ripe for pleaſurable impreſſions; and the generality of young people of plentiful fortunes are ſo far from ſpontaneouſly applying to the ſeverity of buſineſs, that they rather look upon it in the light of hackney-drudgery *.

* This has been, and I am afraid daily is, the cauſe of the ruin of many gentlemens ſons of fortune.

Such indeed is the ſtrength of natural diſcernment in ſome, and ſuch ſometimes the uncommon attention to buſineſs in others, that they make little difficulty in breaking through every obſtacle to knowledge, if they obtain but a glimmering light: the caſe of the generality is far different.
But ſhould a merchant, or his principal clerks on whom he depends, have both leiſure and inclination to inſtruct a young gentleman, they may neither of them always have ability ſuitable. It is one thing to be capable of carrying on a proportion of buſineſs in a narrow branch, a very different, to qualify others for any, much leſs the moſt extenſive.
Beſides, it is not every one who is acquainted with mercantile, or any other branch of knowledge, is capable of training up others therein, and giving proper inſtructions.
It is not the practice of trade that will enable a merchant to teach his apprentice his art, though it furniſhes materials for that purpoſe. It is a good general education, a courſe of regular ſtudy, and a genius for familiar explication, that fit men for the office of inſtructors. And to theſe qualifications muſt be added ſkill other arts. During the fire and ſprightlineſs of youth, there is no fixing the attention, but by wiſely amuſing it. This age is always upon it's guard againſt bondage in every ſhape; and therefore, to give a true reliſh for knowledge, the arts of communicating it ſhould be diſguiſed under the form of pleaſure.
Should it ſo fall out, as none will think impoſſible, that our young trader is bred under thoſe, who themſelves are unſkilful; whoſe books are never duly ſtated, poſted up, or fit for a balance: ſhould it be the fortune of a young gentleman to be thus ſituated, and to receive the firſt impreſſions from ſo goodly an example, is he not likely rather to take an eternal diſreliſh to the profeſſion, than ſucceſsfully to purſue what has been rendered ſo odious and diſagreeable? Or, if he happens to be of an adventurous and ſelf-ſufficient turn, he may be raſh enough to hazard his diſgrace and ruin, by engaging in an employment he is no way qualified for.
Nor is want of leiſure and ability the only cauſe of a youth being bred to merchandizing under every diſadvantage. Intereſt may frequently prove the greateſt motive to his obſtruction. For, if a young gentleman of conſiderable fortune is let into the whole myſtery of the buſineſs of the counting-houſe wherein he may happen to be bred, it is ſometimes, I am afraid, ſurmiſed, that ſuch a one might hereafter prove highly detrimental thereto? And, where there is any intereſting inducement to keep him in ignorance, nothing is eaſier than to ſpread the veil of concealment. It is only chaining our novice to ſome appendage to the principal books, ſome labouring oar; or artfully ſhifting him from one auxiliary book to another, the more effectually to bewilder; and giving him an unwarrantable looſe to his pleaſures; and our young merchant ſhall turn out as completely qualified to be at the head of a counting houſe, as a hackney-writer at the head of the law.
The more extenſive and univerſal the buſineſs may be, with leſs difficulty is every thing, to a ſtripling, rendered dark, myſterious, and unintelligible. Provided a youth, ſo circumſtanced, proves one of ſtrong parts and an inquiſitive turn, he will probably, upon the general balance of the books, be attentive to the general profits, from a principle of curioſity only: yet he may only view them in the groſs: how, and in what manner thoſe profits aroſe, or whether they are true or falſe, is eaſily obſcured under ſome intermediate account to that of profit and loſs; a matter eaſily practiſed, to blind the eyes of one unacquainted with the niceties of accountantſhip en parties doubles *.

* Many have formed fictitious SETTS of ACCOUNTS, in order to deceive the public, and thoſe who have been taken into partnerſhip by ſuch villains; of which I have been informed we have a late inſtance in a certain BANKRUPT of the city of London: others keep DOUBLE SETTS of BOOKS, to anſwer double purpoſes.

Let the tranſactions of a counting-houſe, therefore, be as important in particular, as infinite in diverſity; let thoſe tranſactions be judiciouſly conducted, and methodically adjuſted, according to the niceſt arts of mercantile ſkill; yet, if a youth is not furniſhed with pre-requiſite knowledge to enable him to make the beſt advantage of what he ſees tranſacted, he cannot be much the wiſer for being placed in a counting-houſe of univerſal buſineſs. All that is tranſacted may be no more to him than a regular confuſion, who is diſqualified to view the connection of the whole, with an eye of underſtanding. Without being thoroughly knowing and expert in mercantile calculations and accountantſhip, and duly initiated into the arcana mercatorum *****, what advantage can a young gentleman receive?
Every common ſailor who takes a ſhare in the toil, will hardly be preſumed fit for command. Being placed in the center of practical buſineſs, and taking ſome inferior part in it's tranſactions, is far from being ſufficient to qualify a young gentleman to hold the rudder of large concerns hereafter. The mechanic artizan and manufacturer, it is true, may be inſenſibly diſciplined to perform works of the hands with wonderful dexterity: even children, we know, may be trained to do extraordinary things that way, by reiteration of one and the ſame work. In like manner may the mechanical merchant be bred; but where ſo general a knowledge, ſuch variety of accompliſhments, ſo clear a head, and ſo much real judgment and addreſs are abſolutely neceſſary, no man, acquainted with the world, can imagine, that being bred in a parrot-like manner ſhould, at this time of day, enable the young merchant to excel in the arts of commerce.
We are not inſenſible there have been ſome gentlemen, who, deſtitute of all previous requiſite mercantile inſtruction, have, from very trifling beginnings, ſtruck into foreign commerce; and, by the uncommon ſtrength of their natural abilities, prompted by great induſtry, and favoured by a ſeries of fortunate events, have acquired great eſtates. Such as theſe we have known; and we have known likewiſe, that where this hath been done, without clandeſtine and diſhonourable meaſures, thoſe gentlemen have been of capacity and application as ſingular as their good fortune: they have indeed been perſons rather to be admired than imitated. But traders, who, without their ſuperlative talents, have been daring enough to follow ſuch examples, if for a time they have happened to ſhine in the commercial world, it has been like thoſe meteors in the natural; which, after furniſhing matter of aſtoniſhment for a while, have ſoon deſtroyed themſelves, and involved in their ruin all who have been unhappy enough to be within the ſphere of their influence.
Though we have thus taken the freedom to ſignify our diſapprobation of the uſual methods of bringing up our young Britiſh merchants in general, yet we are ſenſible, very ſenſible, that too many youth, as well among merchants as other ranks of men of buſineſs, reap little advantage by the happy opportunities they ſometimes enjoy, of excelling in their peculiar province. The beſt examples and inſtruction, the moſt intereſting incitements to attention and aſſiduity, make little impreſſion on the deſultory and inconſiderate. The diſtinguiſhed figure in trade ſome young gentlemen make, in compariſon to others, ſufficiently diſcriminates the ſuperior benefits they have received from thoſe counting-houſes, wherein they have been happily bred.
But what advantage can ſuch expect to receive, that are unhappy enough to fall into the hands of thoſe who are capable, yet not inclined; or of thoſe who are incapable, though well inclined, to do them juſtice? Inſtead of a conſtant ſucceſſion of merchants, eminent for their ſkill and ingenuity, may we not rather expect to ſee a daily declenſion? And may not the kingdom be thus left deſtitute of a competent number to proſecute it's foreign traffic, either with that emolument to themſelves, or that benefit to the ſtate it will admit of? Under ſuch melancholy circumſtances, it will be matter of no great admiration to hear woeful complaints and lamentations on the decay and badneſs of trade, when the defect and imperfection may manifeſtly lie in traders themſelves.
Without expatiating on a matter ſo apparent to every one, who will give himſelf the liberty candidly and impartially to weigh and conſider it, we ſhall only obſerve, That nothing ſeems more wanted than a proper place, or well regulated inſtitution for mercantile education; where the theory and practice

practice of trade might be taught, as near as could be at the ſame time; and a general knowledge of commerce, and it's practical arts communicated, as the firſt ſtep towards engaging in any branch of it.

And, as the reduction of the intereſt of money will have a tendency to induce many perſons of mature years to ſtrike into trade, as well as a greater number of young people to be trained up for it, in order to ſettle either at home or abroad: as the lowneſs of intereſt will certainly increaſe the number of Britiſh traders in Europe, and, it is to be hoped, the trade of the nation proportionably: and, as all other countries are increaſing their trade and traders likewiſe, it follows, that the ſkill, adddreſs, and ingenuity of our Britiſh merchants, cannot, at preſent, be too great. Whereas, when the trade of our own nation, as well as that of others, was in a very few hands in compariſon to what it is now, and the intereſt of money double and treble what it is at preſent: when theſe were the circumſtances of public affairs, and the benefits of trading between the Exchange and the Exchequer were extraordinary, as well as the profits on trade in general, numbers acquired very great eſtates, without any great accompliſhments. This great change in the ſtate of our affairs, pointing out the reaſonableneſs and neceſſity of the propoſed inſtitution, it is humbly preſumed, that it will prove as acceptable to all wiſe and good men, as the ſame is zealouſly intended for the public benefit and utility.

The General PLAN Delineated.

Of the ſeveral particulars to be taught in the propoſed COLLEGE.

It is propoſed to take no young gentleman into this mercantile ſeminary, under fifteen years of age; nor any but ſuch who are qualified in ſchool-arithmetic, and maſters of a tolerable current hand-writing *.

* It is my intention, ſome time or other to draw up a plan for the education of the Britiſh merchant from his infancy, as preparatory to his admiſſion into a college of this kind.

A thorough knowledge and expertneſs in mercantile computations being previouſly neceſſary to all other accompliſhments, it is propoſed to go through every diſtinct courſe relative thereunto; and that in ſo intelligible and ſcientific a manner, as the rationale of every thing may very clearly appear *. For as, from the whole of this deſign, we have in view the gradual exerciſe and improvement of the underſtanding, and inſenſibly ſtrengthening the judgment, ſo nothing, it is conceived, will be more naturally conducive thereunto, than demonſtrating the reaſon and foundation of all rules given in the courſes of our mercantile calculations; ſkill in figures being founded in reaſon †, facility of operation in reiterated practice: which the profeſſors ſhould not be wanting duly to promote.

* See our article MATHEMATICS.

† See our article ARITHMETIC.

Knowledge in the foreign exchanges being very eſſential to the qualification of the merchant, this ſubject ſhould be treated in all it's various lights.

That a clear idea may be formed of our intention with regard to this particular, it may be neceſſary to obſerve:

1. That the moſt conciſe and practical methods of converting the ſterling money of England into the monies of exchange and of account of all places throughout Europe be demonſtrated, according to the direct courſes of exchange eſtabliſhed for thoſe purpoſes, and vice versâ.

2. The methods of converting ſterling money into thoſe of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange, but is under the neceſſity of making uſe of the intermediate exchange of other places: together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of turning their bank monies into current, and the reverſe.

3. The manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into thoſe of every other diſtinct country, either by direct or intermediate exchange; which makes a much greater variety of caſes than thoſe, who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extenſive ſubject, can imagine.

4. The art of arbitrating * the prices of exchange throughout all Europe †.

* Les arbitrages, en matiére de change, ne ſont autre choſe qu'un préſentiment d'un avantage conſidérable qu'un commettant doit reçevoir d'une remiſe ou d'une traite faite pour un lieu préférablement à une autre.

Le pair, ou l'égalité des monnoies courantes, ou le pair des places, qui eſt le point le plus délicat, le plus eſſenciel, & le plus innocu du commerce de change, & de banque, ſe prend en deux maniéres.

La premiére eſt au pair, qui ſuppoſe un juſte rapport & une valeur exacte de la monnoie d'un païs avec celle d'un autre, comme quand 1 rixdale de 50 ſols, monnoie courante de Hollande, ou d'Amſterdam, eſt comptée en égale valeur de 1 ∇ (a) de 60 ſols Tournois de France, ou de 54 deniers, ou pens, ou 4 ½ chelings d'Angleterre, & ainſi des autres places. Sans cette connoiſance, on ne peut pas ſavoir le profit ou la perte qu'on fait aux changes, ou ſur les merchandiſes étrangéres; car comme il y a un pair & egalité des meſures & des poids du monde, il eſt auſſi néceſſaire qu'il y ait un pair & egalité des monnoies; autrement un négociant ne ſauroit ce qu'il feroit, ni ſi le prix qu'on lui demanderoit d'une choſe, fût ce en change, ou en marchandiſe, ſeroit haut ou bas.

La ſeconde eſpéce d'égalité entre les places, eſt tirée des prix courans des changes, par laquelle on entend ſeulement cette proportion requiſe d'une place avec une autre place, par la connoiſance d'une ou de pluſieurs comparées entr'elles. Quelques-uns pourront dire que la connoiſſance du profit & de la perte qu'on fait, ſur des lettres de change, dépend du retour des ſommes à leur principe, & que le pair eſt une ſpéculation inutile. On peut répondre à cela que, ſi la connoiſſance du profit; & de la perte qu'on fait ſur les lettres de change, dépend du retour des ſommes à leur principe, & du lieu d'où elles ſont ſorties, on ne peut pas dire la même choſe de celles, qui ne retournent point, ſoit qu'elles ſoient emploiées, & conſumées dans le païs même, ſoit pour achat de marchandiſes, ſoit pour penſion, ou pour des affaires particuliéres.

D'ailleurs, s'il étoit néceſſare d'attendre ce retour, pour ſavoir le profit qui ſe fait ſur une lettre de change, & que cette connoiſſance dépendit de l'avenir, il faudroit conclure que dans le tems que l'on donne ou que l'on prend de l'argent à change, on ne le ſauroit pas, & s'il on ne le ſavoit pas, ce ſeroit négocier ſans connoiſſance de cauſe & au hazard, puis qu'on ignoreroit le profit ou la perte qu'on y feroit. Idem.

(a) Le lecteur eſt averti que cet ouvrage aiant été fait lorſque l'écu de France ne valoit que 60 ſols Tournoi, cet ecu étoit au pair avec la rixdale de Hollande de 50 ſols. Mais les monnoyes de France ont changé ſouvent depuis, & ſont ſujettes à des variations continuelles; ainſi au lieu de marquer la valeur d'écu de France dans la preſente anné 1731, on le ſuppoſe toujours de l'ancienne valeur de 60 ſols Tournois; à quoi on ſera attention. Traité General du Commerce, par Samuel Ricard d'Amſterdam.

† See our articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, EXCHANGES, ENGLAND, HOLLAND, HAMBURGH, and ſuch other heads to which from theſe we refer.

This is a ſubject of great delicacy, not only in point of computation, but in point of application to the purpoſes of drawing and remitting money, and negociating bills of exchange throughout Europe, to the beſt advantage at all times. And what that advantage is, can never be known to any, except thoſe who are ſkilled in this important and myſterious branch. Thoſe merchants or negociators of foreign monies by exchange, who may be only acquainted with a few places, whoſe exchanges they are capable of arbitrating, cannot be judges of the profits to be made by other places: and therefore, for want of an univerſal knowledge herein, we will preſume to ſay, that daily opportunities, of no inconſiderable benefit, eſcape notice.

Although the inſtability of the exchange is juſtly enough compared to the wind, yet that inſtability is the very cauſe of the profit to be made thereby: and for this plain reaſon, becauſe it is ſcarce ever poſſible, that the courſes of exchange between ſeveral nations ſhould ebb and flow in an equality of proportion.

And whoever trades as a merchant, that is to ſay, as an exporter and importer in Europe, muſt of neceſſity have to do with bills of exchange, and with drawing or remitting: and, if ſo, he ſhould by no means be unacquainted with thoſe arts of making the beſt advantages by ſo doing; but this is not poſſible to be done, without being thoroughly ſkilled in their arbitration, to a demonſtrative exactitude.

The more general the trade of a merchant is, the more univerſal ſhould his knowledge in this particular be. And thoſe who may have views in dealing largely by exchange, will certainly find their account beyond expectation, in being fundamentally grounded in this ſubject; for a trader of a good general foreign correſpondence may, by this means, gain more by dint of credit and ſkill, than others, unacquainted herewith, can do, by dint of hard money *.

* See our articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGE, HOLLAND, HAMBURGH.

A knowledge alſo of the intrinſic value of foreign coins, or ſpecie *, ſhould go hand in hand with the knowledge of exchange †; the profit ariſing upon the exportation or importation thereof, from one foreign country to another, being grounded on the due conſideration of both. To which ſhould be added, the nature of dealing in bullion gold and ſilver to the beſt advantage; the various calculations neceſſary to that end, and the methods pointed out that are proper to be taken, in order to prevent impoſition in regard thereunto ‡.

* That a more lively idea may be obtained of dealing in foreign ſpecie to the beſt advantage, we would recommend the collection of the ſeveral coins current throughout Europe, with the ſeveral ſtandards affixed thereunto, for the uſe of the college.

† See the article COINS.

‡ See the articles ASSAY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, BULLION GOLD and SILVER, FLUX, MERCURY, METALLURGY, MINEROLOGY, ORES, QUARTATION, REFINING, SILVER, TESTING.

That the young merchant may not be deficient in whatever has affinity with exchanges, there ſhould be compiled a ſuccinct collection of the eſſential cuſtoms and uſages of Britiſh and foreign merchants relating to bills of exchange, together with the principal law-caſes that have been determined in the courts of judicature in England and Scotland, and foreign countries *; which, with other occaſional admonitions, may not a little contribute to prevent his being unwarily drawn into litigious broils; than which, nothing is leſs compatible with a life of traffic.

* See the article BILLS of EXCHANGE.

From the knowledge of theſe particulars, the collegian ſhould be led to the compariſon of foreign weights and meaſures, and the methods of converting thoſe of one country into thoſe of any other *.

* See ENGLAND, HAMBURGH, HOLLAND, MEASURES, WEIGHTS.

It is unneceſſary to obſerve further upon this head, than that there is no poſſibility of underſtanding foreign invoices *, and accounts of ſales, without being capable to reduce the ſtandard weights and meaſures, as well as the monies of foreign countries, the one into the other. Nor without it can any previous computation be made, whether exportation or importation of merchandize, between nation and nation, will or will not turn to advantage.

* See INVOICE, and ACCOUNT of SALES.

Exportation and importation of domeſtic and foreign commodities leading to the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe, the calculation of the duties, ſubſidies, drawbacks, and bounties, becomes a qualification not the leaſt neceſſary in an undertaking of this nature; as it is below the dignity of the merchant to ſee wholly with the eyes of others, in what ſo nearly concerns his own intereſt *.

* See the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, at the end of each letter.

In regard to points of this nature, all due attention ſhould be given to the tariffs, duties, impoſts, and other charges, which are laid upon the Britiſh produce and manufacture in foreign countries; and to inculcate, at the ſame time, the prudential neceſſity of obtaining ſuch ſatisfactory knowledge, by pro forma accounts of ſales from foreign parts, before engagements are precipitately entered into *.

* See ACCOUNT of SALES, TARIFFS, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

To thoſe who have not been early exerciſed in numbers, and are not become expert in their operation, this variety of calculations may appear ſomething laborious. So it would be, if the method of inſtruction is not ſo peculiarly contrived as to render the whole rather an entertainment, than any thing like a diſagreeable drudgery.

The minds of young perſons are not to be touched by abſtracted ideas; they have need of agreeable and familiar images; they cannot reaſon, or be brought to delight in buſineſs, without being pleaſurably trained to them; and what is of the greateſt moment muſt be rendered lovely, and repreſented under ſenſible and beautiful forms.

Yet what depends upon practice and exerciſe, can only be obtained by practice and exerciſe, though the rules and principles of that practice ſhould be ever ſo well comprehended.

'I wiſh, ſays a wiſe man *, that Paluel or Pompey, the two 'famous dancing-maſters of his time, could have taught us 'to dance and cut capers by only ſeeing them do it, without 'ſtirring from our places, as ſome pedants pretend to inform 'the underſtanding, without ever ſetting it to work; or that 'we could learn to ride, handle a pike, touch a lute, or ſing, 'without the trouble of practice; or as theſe attempt to make 'us judge and ſpeak well, without exerciſing us in judging 'and ſpeaking †.'

* Montaigne.

† The great Mr. Locke ſpeaks to the ſame purpoſe. We are born with faculties and powers, ſays he, capable of almoſt any thing; ſuch, at leaſt, as would carry us farther than can eaſily be imagined: but it is only the exerciſe of theſe powers which gives us ability and ſkill in any thing, and leads us towards perfection.—A middle-aged ploughman will ſcarce ever be brought to the carriage and language of a gentleman, though his body be as well proportioned, and his joints as ſupple, and his natural parts not any way inferior. The legs of a dancing-maſter, and the fingers of a muſician, fall as it were naturally, without thought or pains, into admirable and regular motions. Bid them change their parts, and they will in vain endeavour to produce like motions in the members not uſed to them; and it will require length of time, and long practice, to attain but ſome degree of a like ability. What incredible and aſtoniſhing actions do we find rope dancers and tumblers bring their bodies to! Not but that ſundry, in almoſt all manual arts, are as wonderful; but I name thoſe which the world takes notice of for ſuch, becauſe, on that very account, they give money to ſee them. All theſe admired motions, beyond the reach, and almoſt the conception of unpractiſed ſpectators, are noting but the mere effects of uſe and induſtry in men, whoſe bodies have nothing peculiar in them, from thoſe of the amazed lookers on.——As it is in the body, ſo it is in the mind; practice makes it what it is, &c. Locke's Conduct of the Underſtanding, folio, page 375.

That the juvenile mind may not be diſagreeably wearied with too continued an attachment to the ſame thing, the conſtitution of the college ſhould be ſo modelled as to have interludes, by tranſition to matters of a lighter kind, which do not require that ſeverity of attention, yet to ſuch chiefly as have a cloſe connection with practical buſineſs in a real life of trade.

Amongſt theſe we look upon a facility in writing a plain, ſtrong, ſenſible letter of buſineſs upon all occaſions. As trade can only be carried on by an epiſtolary correſpondence, a good mercantile ſtyle may, perhaps, be as neceſſary a part in the education of the merchant as any thing elſe. Thouſands, in foreign trade, correſpond for many years without ever ſeeing one another; but they can ſee the intelligent man of buſineſs as thoroughly by his letters as by his converſation; and ſometimes better indeed; for many may get the light knack of prating, who are not able to write a correct and pertinent letter of buſineſs.

Letters of trade, wrote with judgment, and language ſuitable to the ſubject, beget reſpect and confidence. We have heard a worthy and ingenious merchant declare, That his being capable of correſponding in a manner ſomething ſuperior to the generality, was the means of getting him a very good eſtate, from a very ſmall beginning; this talent having brought him very large commiſſion buſineſs, a branch always deſired, not only as it brings a ſecure profit, but as it proves the means of gaining the young merchant, eſpecially, experience at the riſque of others.

They muſt have little knowledge of language who can imagine, that the mere tranſcription of other perſons letters, with precipitation, for the ſake of copies only, will ever qualify a young gentleman, with a ſmall ſhare of literature, to carry on a judicious correſpondence himſelf *. Nothing can effectually do this, but being properly put on the exerciſe of his own genius, and, from time to time, having his ſtyle corrected, with ſuitable admonition.

* Yet this is the only method taken to inſtruct them herein; which muſt be the reaſon why ſo few write grammatically or intelligibly; which I could ſhew by ſome thouſands of merchants letters in my poſſeſſion.

Though it is not neceſſary that the merchant ſhould be a perſon of great learning, yet it is abſolutely neceſſary he ſhould be capable of writing grammatically, otherwiſe his ſentiments are liable to be miſtaken, which will be attended with conſequences either injurious to himſelf or his correſpondents. And young gentlemen of this claſs muſt certainly ſtand in need of ſome aſſiſtance in this reſpect, unleſs they can be ſuppoſed to have a miraculous advantage over other perſons, and to obtain a facility to indite with brevity, fulneſs, and perſpicuity, by inſtinct or inſpiration.

Having arrived at a tolerable maſtery in ſtyle, as well as computation, the ſcene ſhould be diſcretionally diverſified; variety in applications of the mind being as occaſionally requiſite as variety in diet to the body. To this end, the young merchant ſhould be gradually initiated into a knowledge of the grand books.

That this part of his erudition may be rendered rather familiar and pleaſurable than otherwiſe, we judge it neceſſary to commence with communicating a knowledge of every diſtinct auxiliary to the principal books, and of the form of every kind of voucher, and of every ſort of inſtrument practiſed among merchants for their mutual ſecurity: ſuch as BILLS of LADING, CHARTER-PARTIES, POLICIES of INSURANCE, and the like *.

* See theſe ſeveral articles.

We would not be underſtood to mean the giving only a ſuperficial view of thoſe kind of writings and inſtruments, but to inculcate the nature, legality, and utility of them; and, at the ſame time, to enforce the neceſſity of ſuch writings and inſtruments being ſtrongly and intelligibly drawn to prevent ſtrife and litigations: as alſo ſhewing that, without ſuch legal vouchers, the grand books are of no authority, either in caſes of arbitration, or in the face of courts of judicature; theſe being no more than an artificial index to the original vouchers and teſtimonials.

From theſe inſtructions, ſo given as to make a proper impreſſion, the next ſtep ſhould be to proceed, in a natural progreſſion, to explain ſyſtematically the axioms and rational maxims and principles whereupon the whole art of accountantſhip, as practiſed by the moſt ſkilful merchants, according to the method of double-entry, is grounded. At the ſame time, the ſuperlative excellency of this art, in compariſon to all others that have been adopted to anſwer the like purpoſes, ſhould be amply illuſtrated, by appoſite examples; as it always exhibits the true repreſentation of a merchant's affairs:

and,

and, provided the books are duly poſted up, this excellent method is preventive of all deſtructive conſequences, which attend irregularity and confuſion in a trader's accounts *.

* This method of inſtruction is widely different from the ordinary one that is practiſed.

It is not neceſſary, indeed, that a merchant engaged in large concerns ſhould keep his own books, as he may probably employ his time to far greater advantage; but it is indiſpenſably neceſſary that he ſhould be capable of doing ſo: how is it poſſible, otherwiſe, that he ſhould be able to judge when they are kept as they ought to be? Nor can he be capable of ſo inſpecting them as to be duly acquainted with the ſtate of his own affairs *.

* There are many who have book-keepers, that are not judges whether their accounts are kept as they ought to be or not, according to the nature of their tranſactions. Is it at all extraordinary that ſuch ſhould be unſucceſsful?

It is unbecoming meanneſs, not to ſay a conſummate folly, in any man, whoſe fortune is daily at ſtake, to depend upon others to give him what they pleaſe for the ſtate of his affairs. It is juſtly proverbial among the Dutch, That the man who fails, did not underſtand to keep his accounts: and it may be truly ſaid, a merchant without that ſkill, is in as bad a ſituation as the mariner on the wide ocean, without chart or compaſs whereby to direct his courſe.

This inimitable method of accounts, being founded on the principles of reaſon, will prove a kind of practical logic to young people, when it is rationally and methodically communicated, not mechanically, and by rules depending on the memory only; which latter does not merit the name of inſtruction at all. And even rules, and the principles of reaſon whereon they are grounded, being ever ſo well underſtood, yet without the due application and exerciſe of thoſe rules and principles to uſeful purpoſes, they are little better than a dead weight to the memory, and a clog to the underſtanding: whereas, when theſe rules and principles are duly applied, and made habitual, by being reduced to practice in matters of uſe, they are a whet to the genius, and ſtrengthen the intellectual faculties *.

* The common way of inſtruction of this claſs of people is by mere rules, without any reaſon or demonſtration given of thoſe rules; which is a mere mechanical and parrot-like way of teaching; whereas, were young people habituated to know the reaſon of every rule they go by, in the courſe of their education, it would inſenſibly lead them to pry into the reaſon of every thing elſe, which would prove of no little aid to their underſtandings in general.

In order to apply theſe rules and principles of reaſoning to accounts, a conciſe introductory ſyſtem ſhould be formed, and that exemplified by tranſactions foreign and domeſtic, drawn from real buſineſs. And, that the young merchant may be completely grounded herein, he ſhould be afterwards exerciſed in ſtating the real occurrences of ſome of the greateſt and moſt univerſal merchants, from their original books.

Nor will ſuch original books of accounts be of uſe only to ground a young gentleman to the utmoſt perfection in the art of accountantſhip, but will, at the ſame time, familiarize to him ſo great a variety of intereſting tranſactions in foreign trade, conducted with judgment and addreſs, that will qualify him to launch into commerce with great advantage *.

* To this end, I would propoſe that the college ſhould be ſupplied with a great variety of complete ſetts of the real accounts of many diſtinguiſhed and eminent merchants deceaſed; they being of no other uſe to executors after being a few years in their poſſeſſion, there would be no great difficulty to obtain a great variety of theſe. If this ſeminary was furniſhed with the genuine accounts and letters relating thereto of the following merchants (a), who trod the Royal Exchange with ſupreme credit and dignity, the unexperienced might receive great benefit and advantage, by having judicious lectures read upon the ſame. For, by having the tranſactions of perſons of great experience and diſcernment before us, and their motives nakedly laid open, as appears by their genuine mercantile letters, no one will doubt but great knowledge may be thereby obtained for the conduct of young people; to know only the ſeveral ways of trading of the ſkilful and proſperous, is of no little utility; but to be let into the motives of their meaſures, and the addreſs whereby their many hazardous adventures have been conducted, is of no leſs benefit to the young trader than the genuine hiſtory of great ſtateſmen and commanders are to thoſe who ſhall aim at following their examples.

(a) The accounts we mean, are ſuch as thoſe of a Louvreure, St. Tinapey and Seignioret. Daniel Arthur, Braſiey and Smith, Turton and Guiger, William Henry Cornelíſon, Coppins, Sir David Exeter, Sir Peter Meyer, Sir Theodore Janſſen, Sir John Williams, Sir Randolph Knipe, Sir Peter Delmé, Samuel Sheppard, Sir Francis Eyles, James Milner, —— Olmius, Sir Samuel Clarke, Sir Alexander Carnes, Henry Carnes, Deborah Dunt, widow, Longuet and ſons. Sir Henry Furneſe, Sir James Bateman, Sir James Dollyffe, Sir William Chapman, Samuel Holden, and many of the other diſtinguiſhed merchants of the city of London, and other parts of the kingdom, as well as of the Britiſh factories in foreign parts, and numbers of others who are now living in the higheſt credit.

About twenty years ſince, ſome mercantile accounts of no little conſequence fell into my hands to audit and liquidate, between the late Samuel Holden, Eſq; governor of the Bank of England, and ſome conſiderable merchants of Ruſſia. In the examination of thoſe accounts, it was neceſſary for me to conſult the courſe of correſpondence for many years back; and I muſt confeſs it not only gave me great ſatisfaction as well as advantage, from the peruſal of Mr. Holden's letters in particular, for they were penned with great ſagacity: Cicero himſelf, perhaps, had he been bred a merchant, could not have formed a mercantile epiſtle more laconic, elegant, and perſpicuous; whereas thoſe of many of his correſpondents were as mean and unintelligible as their buſineſs was injudiciouſly conducted.

Thus rationally introduced into this method of accounts, in all it's ordinary forms, as practiſed by the moſt ingenious and experienced, our young traders ſhould afterwards be inſtructed ſo to contract their accounts, as to have much leſs writing than is commonly uſed in moſt counting-houſes. The auxiliary books ſhould not only be contrived in a method far more conciſe than uſual, but other parts of their accounts kept in a much ſhorter manner than is generally practiſed, and yet without the leaſt deviation from the ſpirit and eſſence of this incomparable art.

The uſefulneſs of the abridgment propoſed, in this reſpect, will conſiſt in keeping the books always duly poſted up; without which it is impoſſible the merchant ſhould, at all times, be ſo thoroughly acquainted with his affairs as he ought. But thoſe who are not complete maſters of this art, although they may perfectly underſtand the common methods, yet have ſo much writing therein, and thereby find it ſo laborious, that they frequently practiſe leſs accurate methods of accountantſhip, only to ſave ſo much writing; which is too often attended with no little diſorder and confuſion in their affairs.

That every advantage may be reaped which this art of accountantſhip will admit of, the ſtudent ſhould be put alſo into the method of keeping, with very little trouble, an abſtract of the ſtate of his affairs, within the compaſs of a pocket-ledger, as a conſtant check and remembrancer for the due government of his concerns.

That no point of practice in any counting-houſe whatever may be concealed, the uſual methods of making out accounts of ſales, invoices *, &c. ſhould be laid open, together with the nature of all intermediate accounts, which are made uſe of in order to anſwer ſuch purpoſes as may be thought neceſſary by the more ſkilful.

* Though many of thoſe arts are not ſtrictly juſt and honourable, yet the young merchant ſhould not be ignorant of them, leſt he ſhould be liable to daily impoſition by others.

Method and regularity being the life of the trader's affairs in general, the ſame ſhould not be neglected in every circumſtance relating thereunto. Thus the due arrangement and methodizing of the original vouchers of his tranſactions, for immediate reference, ſhould be duly inculcated and exemplified. As the grand books are of no authority without them *, the one ought to be as regularly diſpoſed as the other, in the way they will admit of. Neglects of this kind, either by miſplacing or loſing thoſe teſtimonials, being productive of great perplexity and vexation in public buſineſs, order and regularity in all things cannot too early be made habitual.

* Much deceit and knavery have been practiſed by ſubtle bankrupts and others, by forging formal waſte-books, journals and ledgers, &c. ſeemingly very regularly kept, &c. which have too often paſſed for genuine, becauſe the ſeveral vouchers have not been duly ſcrutinized into from whence thoſe accounts have been formed.—This is what ſhould be ſtrictly examined into by the commiſſioners of bankrupts, and counſel in their pleadings, &c. and by thoſe who enter into partnerſhips, &c.

Moreover, the trader, whoſe whole fortune, or more, is frequently embarked in buſineſs, and whoſe anxiety is often ſufficiently engaged for the event of his enterprizes, ſhould be accuſtomed, from his youth, to treaſure up all knowledge relative to his profeſſion; more eſpecially ſo, ſince it frequently admits of a variety of occurrences, no leſs ſingular than intereſting. It will, therefore, hardly be thought unneceſſary to familiarize him to keep a well-contrived alphabetical regiſter of all ſuch eſſential occurrences, as may be requiſite for him to have recourſe to throughout the whole of his life. For it is little to the reputation of the trader to be obliged to aſk information of others, in important tranſactions which relate to himſelf; and in ſuch too, probably, as either paſſed through the counting-houſe where he was bred, or perhaps, his own; yet, for want of a proper memento, he may ſometimes commit ſuch egregious miſtakes, as may prove an injury to his eſtate, as well as blemiſh to his character.

The next buſineſs ſhould be to furniſh the young merchant with ſome knowledge relating to the funds and ſtocks of this kingdom; negociations of that ſort, on the account of foreigners, and others, having multiplied with the increaſe of the national debt.

We would not be underſtood to mean the knowledge of the ſtock-jobber only, but ſuch a knowledge of the funds, in

their foundation on the public credit, and how they are affected ab extra, as well as ab intra, ſo as to diſtinguiſh the real from the fictitious cauſes of the fluctuation of their prices. However mankind may have been miſled, and infatuated at times, yet doubtleſs there are touch-ſtones, whereby an obſerving perſon may paſs a very good judgment when there is money to be got or loſt, by this our ſtanding lottery *.

* There is ſo great variety of artifices practiſed at certain conjunctures, to raiſe and fall ſtocks for the private intereſt of jobbers, and thoſe who are in the ſecret of public affairs and great companies, that they would take me up a volume to diſplay in their proper colours. See the articles BUBBLES, STOCKS, STOCKJOBBING.

Provided this ſhould be no otherwiſe ſerviceable than to prevent a raſh and indiſcreet dabbling in ſtock-jobbing, it may prove the ſaving, though it ſhould not the improving of a fortune. The young trader may hereby receive information enough upon this head, to enable him to give ſuch ſeaſonable advice to correſpondents, as may be the means of gaining him no inconſiderable commiſſions in that ſhape, though his own fortune ſhould not admit of his occaſionally trading in the ſtocks for himſelf.

In the courſe of this mercantile progreſs, the next ſtep neceſſary ſhould ſeem to be to give the young merchant a general ſurvey of the trade and commerce of the world *.

* See the ſeveral nations of the world throughout this Dictionary, and their principal provinces, countries, duchies, &c. for commerce.

However unneceſſary ſome may imagine this general knowledge of trade, who look not beyond the circle of their particular branch, yet we cannot help thinking ſuch knowledge may prove of no little advantage to the trader of genius: for it is the nature of foreign commerce to be variable and fluctuating; that branch which ſhall afford conſiderable profit at one time, may be ſcarce worth engaging in at another; by reaſon the greater the advantage is, the greater is the confluence of traders into that branch in particular: multitudes thus ſtriking into one and the ſame trade, foreign markets are glutted, and the Britiſh, as well as other produce and manufactures, become a drug.

Other cauſes likewiſe conſpire to this. All nations are now convinced that trade is the beſt ſource of wealth and of power: wherefore ſome are daily attempting either to ſupply themſelves with what they took from others, or other nations are attempting to obtain a ſhare in their ſupply.

But whoever conſiders in what manner the more ſkilful merchant proſecutes his trade, will hardly diſallow the neceſſity of a pretty general knowledge therein. As, 1. Our national produce and manufacture being more than our conſumption, a part is exported; and, in return, foreign goods, or bullion, or both, are brought home. 2. Selling the goods exported at one port, and loading there to ſell at another, whereby a larger profit is made than if the goods exported had been carried directly thither. 3. Bringing away the produce and manufactures of other countries, from whence and when they are cheap, to ſupply countries when and where the ſame ſell dear. 4. Bringing home the produce of other countries, and exporting the ſame in manufactures. 5. Freighting and hiring out ſhipping to various parts of the world.

The merchant, by thus knowing how the ſeveral parts of the world are connected with each other in their mutual intercourſe of commerce, how the redundancies of this country ſupply the deficiencies of that, will be capable of foreſeeing when any ill conſequences threaten either that branch of traffic in which he is particularly concerned, or the trade of his country in general. It will open to his view by what means ſeveral branches have been acquired; how ſome have been ſtagnated and loſt; and what meaſures may be taken by the government, in concert with the practical merchant, to revive them, or ſupply the miſchief, by opening new channels of commerce.

It is too little knowledge of trade, not too much, that will make the merchant raſhly adventurous and projecting, upon weak and groundleſs foundations. A perſon, knowing in more branches than one, will of courſe embrace that which is the more ſuitable to his fortune, and the leaſt hazardous. As many have been undone by raſhly graſping at a greater ſhare of buſineſs than they had either capital or ability to manage; ſo, on the other hand, many have been ruined by an unaccountable attachment to one branch, when common prudence cried aloud for their relinquiſhing a ruinous trade, and ſtriking into the proſperous.

This part of the inſtitution, therefore, it is preſumed, may prove a ſovereign preſervative againſt each extreme of imprudence; our intention hereby being to prevent precipitate engagements, and too projecting a turn on the one hand, as likewiſe too contracted a view, and puſillanimity on the other.

It is not by the merchant as by the particular mechanic or artizan. The potter cannot eaſily ſtrike into the buſineſs of the ſhipwright, any more than the latter can into that of the watchmaker or the weaver, &c. This is not parallel in regard to merchant and merchant: for the exporter of woollen goods can as eaſily export tin or lead, or hard ware, &c. and have his returns by exchange in dollars of Leghorn, or ducats of Venice, as well as in dollars of Spain, or millrees or moidores of Portugal, &c. Or cannot the merchant who ſent woollen goods to Spain or to Italy, ſend another ſpecies of woollen goods to Ruſſia, and have his return in robles, Ruſſia hemp, linen, rhubarb, or pot-aſh, &c. as eaſily as in Spaniſh dollars, wines and raiſins? In fine, the imports and exports to and from his own nation to all others, together with a knowledge of their monies, weights, and meaſures, duties, impoſts, and all cuſtomary charges, ought to be familiar to the accompliſhed merchant; that, upon the declenſion of any particular branch of national trade, he may apply himſelf to the more advantageous for the time being.

Or, even if the national trade in general ſhould undergo a temporary declenſion, yet the trade of the world will afford the true-bred merchant eternal opportunities of advantage: ſuch a one will find no difficulty to trade in various branches, from one foreign nation to another, as it were independent of his own, whilſt all the profits are brought home, and center within himſelf.

We are not unaware it may be objected, that a merchant cannot have that univerſal knowledge in the qualities of commodities, neceſſary for variety of foreign markets, &c. and, therefore, cannot ſo eaſily turn himſelf from one branch of foreign trade to another. To which it may be replied: were merchants obliged to depend wholly upon their own judgment herein, there would be ſome weight in the objection. But this is not the caſe. For the reputation of manufacturers and warehouſemen, and other dealers, in their negociations with merchants, is not only at ſtake in one reſpect, but they can ſafely depend upon well experienced brokers and packers in others, to prevent impoſitions of this nature: ſo that there is not that neceſſity for the merchant to have ſo deep a knowledge in the qualities of goods in general, as if the caſe was otherwiſe. However, this matter ſhould by no means be diſregarded in a collegiate eſtabliſhment; a mercantile muſæum, or repoſitory, being indiſpenſably neceſſary to ſuch a deſign, which ſhould be furniſhed with ſamples * of the unperiſhable ſtaple commodities and produce of the principal trading parts of the world.

* To theſe ſhould be joined labels, deſcribing the diſtinguiſhable characteriſtics of their ſeveral qualities, according to the degrees of compariſon: this will accuſtom a young perſon to form ſome judgment in the qualities of thoſe commodities wherein he may be hereafter induced to trade. If this expedient ſhould have no other effect than to make a proper impreſſion, that the merchant himſelf ſhould not be wholly regardleſs of the qualities of thoſe commodities wherein he may happen to deal, it may anſwer a very good purpoſe, but can prove no way detrimental: he may chuſe whether he will regard any but thoſe he may occaſionally traffic in, and ſuch he cannot be too well acquainted with. See the articles MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS, MUSÆUM.

Very far from raiſing an uncontroulable adventurous ſpirit, in cauſeleſsly rambling from one branch of trade to another, on the contrary, every meaſure ſhould be uſed to check it, by throwing in ſuch a weight of prudential knowledge as will ballaſt the moſt towering and extravagant diſpoſition of that kind.

In view to which, the tutors ſhould not be wanting to inſtil the neceſſity of guarding againſt caſualties and injurious events, in every ſhape, ſo far as the extent of human foreſight may be preſumed to go in the train of buſineſs. Thus with regard to exportation for proper, or company account, the neceſſity of pro forma accounts ſhould be duly inforced, before adventures are undertaken; as alſo the prudence of buying at beſt hand, and judiciouſly dividing the hazard, by not truſting too large a capital upon one bottom, or in one hand; not to trade beyond themſelves, or leave their concerns too much to others; of prudentially inſuring, not only from the danger of the ſeas, but from the danger of bad debts in foreign parts. For young people ſhould be admoniſhed rather to be contented with ſmaller profits, than not to allow the uſual extra commiſſion, for a good correſpondent to remain the middle man upon thoſe occaſions, perſons of experience well knowing the meaſures too often taken by factors, provided they have not this extra-allowance.

Theſe, and all other ſuch-like meaſures, ſhould be duly regarded by the inſtructors; ſince not only the improvement, but the ſecurity of the merchant's fortune, as trading in the capacity of a principal for his own account, ſo greatly depends. And although, by purſuing meaſures ſo circumſpect, our young merchant's profits, at firſt ſetting out for himſelf, may be leſs than thoſe of more bold adventurers, yet he will much ſooner grow rich than thoſe who make too much haſte to become ſo.

Acting likewiſe in the capacity of a factor does not require leſs precaution: for a juſt and honourable regard, had, in the way of trade, to the intereſt of others, ſeldom proves detrimental to our own. Whether this is not one, and even the moſt effectual means to increaſe commiſſion buſineſs, we leave thoſe to judge who act as principals themſelves. As trading in this

ſhape

ſhape is the moſt beneficial and ſecure, ſo it is not the leaſt delicate to conduct to the beſt advantage. In reſpect to a matter of this importance to the young merchant, the beſt advice ſhould be inculcated. To which end, thoſe meaſures ſhould be pointed out that have been ſucceſsfully taken by the more judicious to gain commiſſions.

No employment requiring a more ready uſe of the principal modern languages than the mercatorial, a collegial inſtitution would be judged materially deficient, if deſtitute of profeſſors to train up thoſe ſtudents properly therein: wherefore, for whatever branch of trade the young merchant may be intended, he ſhould, through the courſe of this education, be able to obtain either a knowledge of the French language, or the Italian, the Spaniſh, the Portugueze, or even the Dutch, High or Low; and, indeed, a facility in writing of ſeveral, or all of them, is neceſſary for the general merchant: for, although ſome may think that the French alone, from it's univerſality *, ſufficient, yet many foreigners will rather prefer a Britiſh correſpondent, who writes his native language well, than that of him who only writes the French or the Engliſh.

* It has proved no mean ſtroke of the French policy to make their language ſo univerſal as they have done. Among their ſyſtem of arts for the propagation of their commerce, there is no one, perhaps, that has more tended to render it univerſal than this, however ſome may ſlightly think of it. Where there is one book in the Engliſh language read throughout the world, there are doubtleſs many thouſands of the French; and ſuch is the vanity of that nation (a), that they are ſuperlatively modeſt in decrying moſt others, in order to render their own the more ſuperb in the eyes of ſtrangers. The beſt of every thing is ſcarce any where to be found but in France; and they as arbitrarily govern the faſhions of the world, in what ſhall be eat, drank, and wore, in other nations, as they are governed at home. Are not alſo the furniture, buildings, and even the pleaſures of the reſt of mankind, in a great meaſure, ſettled by this grand regulator of modes and faſhions? How far this, with the univerſality of their language, has contributed to univerſalize their commerce, I am afraid has never been ſufficiently conſidered in this kingdom. This is apparent from many parts of our work.

(a) See Mr. Addiſon's Freeholder, No. 30. and biſhop Spratt's Anſwer to that diſingenuous Frenchman Sorbiere.

What renders this the more neceſſary is, that ſuch who are pretty general traders, and not capable themſelves of writing in the modern languages, as their affairs may require, are under the daily neceſſity of applying to thoſe who make it their buſineſs to tranſlate for them, and write anſwers to their foreign letters. Now, beſides the meanneſs and expence of ſuch a practice, do not ſuch merchants run the hazard of having the arcana of their buſineſs betrayed, and themſelves therein ſupplanted? Nor are hired tranſlators themſelves always able to give the genuine ſenſe of a letter, or to write a pertinent anſwer, with the proper turn of phraſe. How injurious a practice of this kind may frequently prove, we leave thoſe to conſider whom it may concern. Moreover,

When a merchant has eſtabliſhed his credit among the trading world for worth, honour, and punctuality, there is no end of his correſpondence. It is the common practice among merchants of honour, all over the world, to make mutual tenders of their ſervices upon any natural occaſion that offers, which is taken cordial and reſpectful: and, if they meet with a correſpondent who writes their language well, and takes their ſenſe clearly, it is frequently inſtrumental to produce profitable negociations that, perhaps, might never have been the caſe, if the agreeable correſponding language had been wanting.

The moſt capital houſes of mercantile trade throughout Europe being generally compoſed of ſeveral partners, for the greater ſatisfaction of foreign correſpondents, it is cuſtomary for the one or the other of thoſe partners to travel into foreign countries, in order to make the better judgment of the credit and fortune of their correſpondents, cement ties of commercial friendſhip with others, and extend their traffic in general. Where ſuch travelling correſpondents meet with traders who ſpeak their own language with propriety, it ſhould ſeem to have a tendency to promote more harmony than is cultivated with thoſe who do not; in the ſame manner as we obſerve ſtrangers, who think alike, and between whom there is a ſimilitude of manners, ſhall, at firſt ſight, contract permanent and beneficial friendſhips.

As foreign merchants reſort to England with this intent, ſo the Engliſh frequently take the tour into foreign countries. But, to go without language, he may almoſt as well be deaf as dumb: he ſtands but an indifferent chance to cultivate advantageous friendſhips, and promote the honour and intereſt of the houſe wherein he is concerned. Few foreigners ſpeak Engliſh, which makes it the more neceſſary for the Engliſh to ſpeak and write the language of foreigners with whom they do or are likely to correſpond.

That a knowledge of geography is peculiarly neceſſary to the merchant, need not be urged; and that ſome ſkill in navigation is likewiſe requiſite, cannot be leſs obvious, ſeeing they have conſtant concerns with maſters of ſhips and inſurances, &c.

That the merchant ſhould make ſome farther advance than this into the mathematical literature, will hardly be diſputed, when we take a comprehenſive view of the nature of his employment; for, although we ſuppoſe him to be an expert practical arithmetician, yet, methinks, he ſhould not be mechanically ſo only: he ſhould be habituated from his infancy to know the reaſon of all rules by which he works [ſee ARITHMETIC], for then he will apply his ſkill in figures pertinently to whatever occurs, which otherwiſe is ſcarce poſſible; and it is better to ſee with our own eyes than through the medium of others. A man, indeed, may content himſelf with the common theorems for gauging and menſuration, &c. yet to work only by line and by rule, illy becomes ſo high a character. We cannot therefore but think, that ſuch a knowledge in algebra and geometry, as will lead the merchant into the rationale of every calculatory qualification for which he may have occaſion, muſt be of uſe to prevent deception. How far alſo ſome knowledge in this ſcience may be helpful to the improvement of the underſtandings in general of young people of this claſs, may deſerve conſideration. [See our article MATHEMATICS.] Likewiſe how uſefully a knowledge in ſome parts of philoſophy might contribute to his proſperity in many branches of trade wherein he may be engaged, appears from various parts of this work. See the article PHILOSOPHY.

The buſineſs of this claſs of traders being not only under the controul of the peculiar and municipal laws of their country, but to the eſtabliſhed cuſtoms and uſages of the mercatorial, as well as many branches of the civil law, and the laws of nations and commercial treaties; it will hardly be ſaid, that the merchant ſtands in need of no knowledge of this kind. Certain it is, if he is ignorant of the penalties to which he is liable, and the rights and privileges to which his profeſſion entitle him in any reſpect, he not only runs the riſque of daily impoſition, but of abſolute ruin. It is therefore we have, throughout the courſe of this work, pointed out moſt of the laws and uſages of every kind, to which this trader is liable.

As the public funds of this kingdom, and the great monied corporations eſtabliſhed in conſequence thereof, are chiefly under the management and direction of the moſt diſtinguiſhed merchants of the city of London, does it not become neceſſary that they ſhould be thoroughly informed in what relates to the ſupport of the public credit, when the truſt repoſed in them is for no leſs than the property of 170 millions of ſterling money? We do not intend, by what is here ſaid, to ſignify the crafty ſkill of ſtockjobbing, we having before touched that point; we mean, that in this college ſhould be taught, in a proper manner, a perfect knowledge of the public revenue in every branch thereof, all the laws relating thereto, and the ſeveral variations which the funds have undergone: upon the whole, here ſhould be taught, ſcientifically, the real principles to preſerve public faith and credit, the foundation on which the property of the monied intereſt ſtands, at preſent; what meaſures may be reaſonably judged expedient in future, for the due ſecurity of ſo conſiderable a proportion of the wealth of the nation, as well as what are the moſt general eligible ways and means to raiſe the public ſupplies hereafter on all emergencies, the moſt for the general intereſt and honour of the kingdom. See the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], FUNDS, INTERERT of MONEY, and MONEY.

The ſtudy of commerce, as well as that of the public funds and revenue in a national and political view, both in general, and as the ſeveral branches of it come occaſionally under the conſideration of the legiſlature, or the public, by intended regulations, becomes another principal particular to be cultivated in this ſeminary.

This part of knowledge will, we apprehend, be thought of no little importance to the mercantile proſperity, as it has been deemed a great merit in merchants, on public conjunctures, to have afforded ſatisfaction to their fellow-citizens, in their aſſociations in this metropolis upon thoſe intereſting occaſions; and the higheſt honour to have given the legiſlature ſatisfactory accounts in matters of concernment to the traffic of the kingdom.

The memorable defeat of the French bill of commerce, in the reign of the late queen Anne, is ſufficient to confirm the truth of this *.

* When Great-Britain, under the conduct of the late duke of Marlborough, had reduced France to the neceſſity of ſuing for peace, there were two treaties ſet on foot, the one of peace, the other of commerce. But the treaty of commerce could not take effect, unleſs the parliament conſented to reduce the high duties, and take off the prohibitions ſo wiſely laid on French commodities. As this would have deſtroyed all the beſt branches of our trade, and deprived many hundred thouſand of our manufacturers of their ſubſiſtence, it began to give an alarm; which became general amongſt the merchants and traders, who knew the fatal

conſequences of it. Many pamphlets were publiſhed, to convince our legiſlators, that the preſerving our looms, and the rents of Great-Britain, were of greater conſequence to the nation, than gratifying our palates with French wine. This treaty, however, was to be ſupported at any rate; which occaſioned ſeveral ingenious merchants of long experience, and well ſkilled in trade, together with the late earl of Halifax and earl Stanhope, to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to defeat it; which they effectually did, by the ſatisfactory accounts thereof they laid before both houſes of parliament, and from what they publiſhed from time to time, under the title of the Britiſh Merchant, or Commerce preſerved.

Sir Charles Coke, merchant at that time, made ſo clear a defence of our trade at the bar of the houſe of lords and commons, that he was afterwards deſervedly made one of the lords commiſſioners of trade and plantations, and choſe a member of parliament.

Sir Theodore Janſſen, Bart. alſo, furniſhed many uſeful materials, which contributed towards the carrying that national point.

James Milner, Eſq; merchant, and member of parliament, made appear, before the houſe of commons, the great importance of our trade to Portugal, and of the treaty of commerce which ſupports the ſame, in oppoſition to the French bill of commerce.

Mr. Nathaniel Torriano, merchant, ſhewed the conſequence of opening the French trade according to the propoſed treaty, in ſo ſtrong and ſo clear a light, as to convince even them who diſcouraged his ſpeaking before parliament, of the deſtruction that muſt have inevitably fallen upon our country, had that treaty been rendered effectual by parliament.

Mr. Joſhua Gee, Mr. Chriſtopher Haynes, Mr. David Martin, and ſeveral other very able and diſtinguiſhed merchants, well acquainted with the intereſts of the trade of the nation, were extremely helpful likewiſe in defeating that pernicious treaty, and therefore lateſt poſterity will have their names in honourable remembrance.

But we need go no further than our preſent time for inſtances of this kind. We had a conſpicuous example before us, in one of the late repreſentatives of this great city in parliament; who upon all occaſions, manifeſted ſo ſuperlative a knowledge in the general commerce of the nation, as deſervedly to be diſtinguiſhed with the higheſt honour and applauſe: which, one would think, ſhould animate every young merchant to endeavour, next to his province, to excel in this kind of knowledge.

And, although every one cannot expect to be bleſſed with the genius of a Barnard and a Beckford, yet every merchant of diſtinction ſhould be emulous to exert himſelf in the ſervice of his country, in a manner ſo conſiſtent with his profeſſion. Every trader having a private intereſt in the promotion of the general trade, and practical traders having greater opportunities than others of knowing the true intereſt of the nation in that reſpect, it ſeems a duty owing to themſelves, as well as their country, to turn their thoughts ſometimes that way. Beſide, in regard to their own particular intereſt, if they are not thoroughly acquainted with the political nature of that peculiar branch of trade, wherein they are perſonally concerned, how is it poſſible they can duly ſupport and defend it on any great exigencies, in the eye of the legiſlature?

For the proper inſtruction of the ſtudents in each of theſe branches, it is ſuppoſed, that the college is provided with tutors well accompliſhed to act their reſpective parts with all advantage to the collegians, and credit and honour to themſelves.—It is ſuppoſed likewiſe, that the college is provided with a library of the beſt authors in all the modern languages, who have treated upon the ſeveral ſubjects before enumerated, and with a complete mathematical and philoſophical apparatus for every purpoſe intended.

And now, if the reader will take a tranſient retroſpect in his mind of what has been ſaid, he will hardly ſcruple to grant, that merchandizing, and the united qualifications neceſſary to form this ſkilful Britiſh trader, have as good a claim to the appellation of an art or a ſcience, as moſt that are ſo honoured and diſtinguiſhed: ſhould we ſay, that commerce is the grand ſupport of moſt other arts that are ſolidly uſeful to mankind, it is no more than it deſerves; and therefore it will not be thought unreaſonable, that PRACTICAL TRADE, and MERCANTILE NEGOCIATIONS in general, ſhould be reduced to as regular a method of inſtitution, as it's inferior and dependent arts.

Of the PLAN of EXECUTION.

If the judicious reader ſhould be candid enough to admit the preceding plan of particulars to be unexceptionable, and that there is nothing intimated therein, but what appears indiſpenſibly neceſſary to train up the merchant ſuitably to his great employment; yet it may be ſaid, this is no great advance towards the carrying ſuch a deſign to it's deſirable height of perfection, in point of execution: it is far eaſier to ſuggeſt the particulars requiſite, than to obtain fit and capable perſons for the office of inſtructors in an eſtabliſhment of this kind. There is more difficulty attending this, perhaps, than there is in any other literary inſtitution; for, if the diſtinct branches hereof were to be taught in the ordinary ſcholaſtic way, which is practiſed in public ſchools and other collegial ſeminaries, I am afraid it would fruſtrate the end propoſed, and rather mar than forward the ſtudent in his accompliſhments.

The merchant is expected to engage in trade for himſelf, and hazard his fortune therein, by the age of 23 or 24 at fartheſt: many are impatient to ſtay ſo long: whereas the learned profeſſions, as they are diſtinguiſhed, give the ſtudent, upon the general, above ten years more in his application, before he is judged capable to make any tolerable figure in life; and that by ſubſiſting only on the intereſt of his fortune, if he has any, but not hazarding the principal money, as the young merchant is obliged to do, before he can raiſe any ſort of reputation in the commercial world.

This being the caſe, and the ſkilful merchant ſtanding in need of ſo great variety of knowledge, in order to preſerve and improve his fortune, every expedient ſhould be deviſed, every art practiſed, that will conduce to give him the greateſt fund of uſeful knowledge in the leaſt time.

Without entering into a critic upon the uſual methods of education in England, which, indeed, have been ſufficiently expoſed by learned men already; we ſhall only endeavour to ſhew in general, wherein, we apprehend, the method for accompliſhment of the merchant ought to differ from that which is commonly practiſed, in regard to the more learned claſſes of the community.

The life of the merchant being a converſable one, his employment leading him to tranſactions even from the mechanic and manufacturer to the miniſter of ſtate, his method of erudition, methinks, ſhould be as different from that ſcholaſtic way, as his profeſſion is from all others: the man of buſineſs has not 20 years to devote to the mere ſtudy of languages, metaphyſics, and criticiſm, &c. Prudence directs him to apply early to thoſe things indiſpenſibly requiſite to proſperity in his employment; and what may adorn the learned profeſſions, might ſpoil him for his own *.—When the merchants accompliſhments are equal to, or above his employment, and not his employment ſuperior to his accompliſhments, then he may be at liberty to make what advances leiſure and prudence will admit, in the belles lettres and the liberal arts; but to aim at this before, is acting as wiſely as the peaſant, who by turning ſtar-gazer got ſmothered in a ditch.

* Sir William Temple gives it as his opinion, that even the men of learning may be ſo overladen with learning, as to be weaker in point of judgment than if they had leſs.—So the merchant, if overſtocked with that ſort of literature which may be above or beſide his province, he may be the worſe merchant, though the greater ſcholar.—What Sir William ſays may deſerve attention—'Who can tell, ſays he, whether learning may not even weaken invention, in a man that has great advantages from nature and birth; whether the weight and number of ſo many other men's thoughts and notions may not ſuppreſs his own, or hinder the motions and agitations of them, from which all invention ariſes; as heaping on wood, or too many ſticks, or too cloſe together, ſuppreſſes, and ſometimes quite extinguiſhes a little ſpark that would otherwiſe have grown up to a noble flame. The ſtrength of the mind, as well as of body, grows more from the warmth of exerciſe than of clothes; nay, too much of this foreign heat, rather makes men faint, and their conſtitution tender and weaker than they would be without them.'—Temple's Works, vol. i. fol. p. 158. If this obſervation of Sir William's ſhould prove true, the merchant, with a ſhare of learning ſuitable only to his profeſſion, added to his converſable knowledge of the world, and the conſtant exerciſe of his own judgment in active buſineſs, may become a much wiſer man, a more uſeful member to the community, than the profound ſcholar, whoſe underſtanding is drowned in the ocean of knowledge borrowed only from others.

Upon the whole, what we would mean to ſay is, that there ſhould ſeem to be a certain pitch of literature, beyond which it is dangerous for the commercial man to advance; and really the field of knowledge, which the nature of the mercatorial employment requires, is not ſo ſcanty as ſome may be wont to think *: nor ſhould the manner of communication of what is requiſite be in the ordinary ſcholaſtic way, the merchant's time being limited, as before obſerved, to ſo few years, for the courſe of his erudition.

* See our Univerſal Dictionary throughout, in what relates to his accompliſhments.

Nor will a profound knowledge, in every mercantile branch which we have particularized, anſwer the end: there are perhaps, many far more learned divines, lawyers, and phyſicians, who live in obſcurity, than thoſe who gain their thouſands a year, and make a pompous figure in life: ſome ſtudy the externals, the knowledge of the world, and the craft of riſing without merit, while others ſtudy only to deſerve what they never arrive at.—The merchant muſt be the

man of the world, as well as ſkilful in the requiſites of his profeſſion; but his being immured in a college to converſe only with the dead letter, and the jargon of the ſchools, will render him as unfit for his profeſſion, as Sir Iſaac Newton was for a dancing-maſter.

Wherefore the queſtion is, what is the beſt method to train up this man of buſineſs? We ſay he muſt not be deficient in ſome of the principal modern languages, nor ſhould he be incapable of reading a Latin author at leaſt, though it may not be neceſſary for him to be a claſſical critic. If he enters the college with a childiſh ſmattering of this tongue only, he ſhould not leave it, without ſuch a fundamental maſtery, that he can improve himſelf therein at intervals, even in the height of his mercantile concerns.

The buſineſs of languages, eſpecially the learned ones, as they are eminently diſtinguiſhed, is made an Herculean toil, in the packhorſe road of an ordinary Engliſh education; yet no nation has better helps to facilitate their acquiſition.—We abound with Engliſh tranſlations, both literal and free, of the poets as well as proſaic authors, more than ſufficient to enable a perſon to read any of the reſt; ſufficient, however, to capacitate the man of buſineſs to read any he may chuſe; and he has ſcarce ever occaſion to ſpeak or write that dead language; though why the Engliſh, as well as foreigners, ſhould not be accuſtomed to ſpeak the Latin, there can be no ſubſtantial reaſon given, perhaps.—The Engliſh are remarkable for writing Latin inferior to none; and why they ſhould not ſpeak it equally well, if trained to it, is not eaſy to ſay. Becauſe we can never be able, ſay ſome, from the change of cuſtoms, and the extraordinary difference of idiom, &c. to ſpeak that language with a Roman elegancy, are we therefore not to attempt it all? Would not a converſable uſe in this dead language, from our infancy, greatly expedite the acquiſition of the modern, which have a near affinity therewith? This will hardly be gainſaid *.

* 'If a man could be got, ſays our great Mr. Locke, who, himſelf ſpeaking good Latin, would always be about your ſon, talk conſtantly to him, and ſuffer him to ſpeak or read nothing elſe (a), this would be the true genuine way, and that which I would propoſe, not only as the eaſieſt and beſt, wherein a child might, without pains or chiding get a language which others are wont to be whipped for at ſchool, ſix or ſeven years together; but alſo as that wherein at the ſame time he might have his mind and manners formed, and he be inſtructed to boot in ſeveral ſciences; ſuch as are a good part of geography, aſtronomy, chronology, anatomy, beſides ſome parts of hiſtory, and all other parts of knowledge of things, that fall under the ſenſes, and require little more than MEMORY. For theſe, if we would take the true way, our knowledge ſhould begin, and in thoſe things be laid the foundation; and not in the abſtract notions of logics and metaphyſics, which are fitter to amuſe than inform the underſtanding in it's firſt ſetting out towards knowledge.

'When young men have had their heads employed a while in thoſe abſtract ſpeculations, without finding the ſucceſs and improvement, or that uſe of them which they expected, they are apt to have mean thoughts, either of learning or themſelves; they are tempted to quit their ſtudies and throw away their books, as containing nothing but hard words and empty ſounds; or elſe to conclude, that, if there be any real knowledge in them, they themſelves have not underſtanding capable of it. That this is ſo, perhaps, I could aſſure you upon experience. Amongſt other things to be learned by a young gentleman in this method, whilſt others are only taken up with Latin and languages, I may alſo ſet down geometry for one, having known a young gentleman, bred ſomething after this way, able to demonſtrate ſeveral propoſitions in Euclid, before he was thirteen.'

(a) This is the method by which the celebrated Montaigne was taught Latin, and from which very probably Mr. Locke might borrow the thought. What Montaigne ſays of himſelf may deſerve regard:—'No doubt but Greek and Latin are very great ornaments, and of very great uſe, but we buy them too dear: I will here diſcover one way, which alſo has been experimented in my OWN PERSON, by which they are to be had better cheap, and ſuch may make uſe of it that will. My father having made the moſt preciſe enquiry that any man could poſſibly make, amongſt men of the greateſt learning and judgment, of an exact method of education, was by them cautioned of the inconvenience then in uſe, and made to believe that the tedious time we applied to the learning of the languages of thoſe people who had them for nothing, was the ſole cauſe we could not arrive to that grandeur of ſoul and perfection of knowledge with the ancient Greeks and Romans: I do not, however, believe, that to be the only cauſe: but the expedient my father found out for this was, that in my infancy, and before I began to ſpeak, he committed me to the care of a German, who ſince died a famous phyſician in France, totally ignorant of our language, but very fluent, and a great critic in Latin.

'This man, whom he had fetched out of his own country, and whom he entertained with a very great ſalary for this only end, had me continually in his arms: to whom there were alſo joined two others of the ſame nation, but of inferior learning, to attend me, and ſometimes to relieve him, who all of them entertained me with no other language but Latin. As to the reſt of his family, it was an inviolable rule, that neither himſelf, nor my mother, man nor maid, ſhould ſpeak any thing in my company, but ſuch Latin words as every one had learnt only to gabble with me. It is not to be imagined how great an advantage this proved to the whole family; my father and my mother, by this means learning Latin enough to underſtand it perfectly well, and to ſpeak it to ſuch a degree, as was ſufficient for any neceſſary uſe; as alſo thoſe of the ſervants did, who were moſt frequent with me.—To be ſhort, we did Latin it at ſuch a rate, that it overflowed to all the neighbouring villages, where there yet remain, that have eſtabliſhed themſelves by cuſtom, ſeveral Latin appellations of artizans and their tools. As for what concerns myſelf, I was above ſix years of age before I underſtood either French or Perigordin, any more than Arabic; and, without ART, BOOK, GRAMMAR, or PRECEPT, WHIPPING, or the expence of a TEAR, had by that time learned to ſpeak as pure Latin as my maſter himſelf. If, for example, they were to give me a theme after the college faſhion, they gave it others in French, but to me they were of neceſſity to give it in the worſt Latin, to turn it into that which was pure and good; and Nicholas Grouchi, who writ a book de Commitiis Romanorum, William Guirentes, who has writ a comment upon Ariſtotle, George Buchanan, that great Scotch poet, and Marcus Antonius Muretus, (whom both France and Italy have acknowledged for the beſt orator of his time) my domeſtic tutors, have all of them often told me, that I had in my infancy that language ſo very fluent and ready, that they were afraid to enter into diſcourſe with me; and particularly Buchanan, whom I ſince ſaw attending the late mareſchal de Briſac, then told me, that he was about to write a treatiſe of education, the example of which he intended to take from mine, for he was then tutor to that count de Briſac, who afterwards proved ſo valiant and brave a gentleman. As to Greek, of which I have but a ſmattering, my father alſo deſigned to have taught it me by a trick, but a new one, and by way of ſport; toſſing our declenſions to and fro, after the manner of thoſe, who by certain games, and tables and cheſs, learn geometry and arithmetic: for he, amongſt other rules, had been adviſed to make me reliſh ſcience and duty by an unforced will, and of my own voluntary motion, and to educate my ſoul in all liberty and delight, without any ſeverity or reſtraint.'

Beſides the practice of converſation, as recommended by Mr. Locke and Montaigne, and indeed by all the learned men of other nations, the next means is tranſlation; which, according to the learned Mr. Aſcham *, who was preceptor to queen Elizabeth, ought to be double; that is to ſay, not only Latin into Engliſh, but the ſame Engliſh again into the original Latin, whereby learners have the claſſical authors to correct themſelves by: which, being of the pure Roman phraſe, is a far better ſtandard for correction than the judgment of the generality of ſchoolmaſters.

* See the Schoolmaſter: or, A plain and perfect way of teaching children to underſtand, write, and ſpeak the Latin tongue. By Roger Aſcham, Eſq; preceptor to her majeſty queen Elizabeth, corrected and reviſed, with an addition of explanatory notes, by the Rev. Mr. James Upton, A. M. rector of Brimton in Somerſetſhire, and late fellow of King's College in Cambridge. Printed in the year 1711, for Benjamin Tooke, at the Middle Temple Gate in Fleet-Street.—This I think one of the beſt books I ever met with to help youth forward in the Latin tongue, with great eare and pleaſure, and which I myſelf have experienced.

'But, if ſuch a man cannot be got, ſays Mr. Locke, who ſpeaks good Latin, and, being able to inſtruct your ſon in all theſe parts of knowledge, will undertake it by this method, the next beſt is to have him taught as near this way as may be, which is by taking ſome eaſy and pleaſant book, ſuch as Æſop's Fables, and writing the Engliſh tranſlation (made as literal as it can be) in one line, and the Latin words which anſwer each of them, juſt over it in another. Theſe let him read every day over and over again, 'till he perfectly underſtands the Latin; and then go on to another fable, 'till he be alſo perfect in that, not omitting what he is already perfect in, but ſometimes reviewing that, to keep it in his memory. And, when he comes to write, let theſe be ſet him for copies; which, with the exerciſe of his hand, will alſo advance him in Latin. This being a more imperfect way than by talking Latin unto him, the formation of the verbs firſt, and afterwards the declenſion of the nouns and pronouns perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the Latin tongue, which varies the ſignification of verbs and nouns, not as the modern languages do, by particles fixed, but by changing the laſt ſyllables. More than this of grammar * I think he need not have, 'till he can read himſelf Sanctii Minerva, with Scioppius and Perizonius's notes.

* The abſurdity, ſays the late ingenious Mr. Clark of Hull, in his New Latin Grammar, of teaching the Latin tongue by a grammar in Latin, is ſo very groſs, that one would wonder how it ſhould ever enter into the head of any perſon of common ſenſe, much more how it ſhould ever become a national practice. But common cuſtom, in moſt caſes of importance, is ſo far from being the rule of right, that it is the very reverſe of it, and in no caſe more flagrantly than this. The impoſing of public prayers for the uſe of the people in a language they know not, as ſenſeleſs and ridiculous a practice as it is, it is not more ſo than it is to pretend to teach a language by rules writ in the very language to be learnt, and which conſequently the learner cannot underſtand, or make any uſe of, 'till they are rendered into a language he does know; and then it is the tranſlation only, and not the original, that is of uſe to him. In ſhort, the moſt rude and barbarous nations upon earth cannot furniſh us with any inſtance of a cuſtom that carries more of ſtupidity in the front of it. And therefore it is ſomewhat ſtrange, that a practice ſo miſchievous, as well as ridiculous, ſhould not long ſince have had a ſtop put to it by law. Our legiſlators have almoſt all in their turns been conſiderable ſufferers by it; and, unleſs they pleaſe by their authority to prevent it, their poſterity after them are like to ſuffer on in the ſame manner to the end of the world. For public cuſtom is ſeldom to be conquered but by authority, eſpecially where people are got into the wrong way, ſo perverſe or weak are

the generality of mankind. It is, therefore, very much to be wiſhed, the legiſlature would take the matter under conſideration, and, to ſave a deal of pain and plague, as well as a miſerable waſte of time to the youth of the nation, put an effectual ſtop to the ſenſeleſs and barbarous cuſtom of teaching the Latin tongue by a Latin grammar. They have highly merited of the people of Great-Britain, by delivering them from a grievance of a like nature, the uſe of the Latin tongue, or doggerel rather under that denomination, in the practice of the law.

Another act of that nature, in pity to the poor ſuffering youth of the kingdom, would, I dare ſay, be as kindly and thankfully received, by all true lovers of their country and good letters. Whether it may be reaſonable or proper for authority to impoſe the uſe of any one grammar, I ſhall not take upon me to determine here; but this I ſhall be bold to ſay, that it is as reaſonable to forbid by law the pretence of teaching the Latin tongue by a grammar writ in Latin, as it is to forbid the uſe of that language in the public worſhip of God. Both practices are equally ridiculous, though not equally pernicious. For the thing propoſed in both caſes is utterly unattainable. Youth can no more learn by the help of a language they do not underſtand, than the people can pray to God in a language they do not underſtand, which every body ſees to be impoſſible, and nonſenſe to pretend.—So far the ingenious Mr. Clark.

In teaching of children this too, I think, is to be obſerved, that, in moſt caſes where they ſtick, they are not to be farther puzzled, by putting them upon finding it out of themſelves; as by aſking ſuch queſtions as theſe, viz. which is the nominative caſe in the ſentence they are to conſtrue? or demanding what auſero ſignifies, to lead them to the knowledge what abſtulere ſignifies, &c. when they cannot readily tell. This waſtes time only in diſturbing them; for, whilſt they are learning, and apply themſelves with attention, they are to be kept in good humour, and every thing made eaſy to them, and as pleaſant as poſſible *. Therefore, whenever they are at a ſtand, and are willing to go forwards, help them preſently over the difficulty, without any rebuke or chiding; remembering, that, where harſher ways are taken, they are the effect only of pride and peeviſhneſs in the teacher, who expects children ſhould inſtantly be maſters of as much as he knows: whereas he ſhould rather conſider, that his buſineſs is to ſettle in them habits, not angrily to inculcate rules, which ſerve for little in the conduct of our lives; at leaſt are of no uſe to children, who forget them as ſoon as given. In ſciences where their reaſon is to be exerciſed, I will not deny, but this method may ſometimes be varied, and difficulties propoſed on purpoſe to excite induſtry, and accuſtom the mind to employ it's own ſtrength and ſagacity in reaſoning. But yet, I gueſs, this is not to be done to children whilſt very young, nor at their entrance upon any ſort of knowledge: then every thing of itſelf is difficult, and the great uſe and ſkill of a teacher is to make all as eaſy as he can. But particularly, in learning of languages, there is the leaſt occaſion for poſeing of children. For languages, being to be learned by ROTE, CUSTOM, and MEMORY, are then ſpoken in greateſt perfection, when all rules of grammar are utterly forgotten. I grant the grammar of a language is ſometimes very carefully to be ſtudied, but it is only to be ſtudied by a grown man, when he applies himſelf to the underſtanding of any language critically, which is ſeldom the buſineſs of any but profeſſed ſcholars. This, I think, will be agreed to, that if a gentleman be to ſtudy any language, it ought to be that of his own country, that he may underſtand the language which he has conſtant uſe of, with the utmoſt accuracy.' See Locke of Education.

* Theſe ſentiments of Mr. Locke have induced many to oblige the public with literal tranſlations of ſeveral of the introductory claſſical authors, for the uſe of ſchools; and which, I doubt not, have proved extremely helpful; eſpecially when the learners have been exerciſed by Mr. Aſcham's method of double tranſlation, and the grammar rules have been explained at proper times, in plain Engliſh. Many teachers of the dead languages are ridiculous and pedantic enough, to act in defiance of the opinion of Mr. Locke, Montaigne, Aſcham, and other the moſt learned men in Europe, as might be eaſily ſhewn, and will not ſuffer youth to have all thoſe helps for which theſe great men have ſo wiſely contended: yet too many of theſe learned aſſes are obliged to make uſe themſelves of theſe very auxiliaries, which they deny to children; in which a gentleman and myſelf once accidentally detected his ſon's ſchoolmaſter at his own houſe.—Muſt not this be, with deſign to make the children believe, that their maſters are ſo ſuperlatively profound in theſe languages, that they ſtand in need of no expoſitors or annotators, when they really ſtand in need of them as much as the youths themſelves? Or, muſt it not be with intent to lay every obſtacle in the way of their improvement, that they may exert their perceptorial tyranny with leſs reſtraint? There cannot be too many helps for the acquiſition of languages, both ancient and modern; and thoſe, I am afraid, who the moſt ſtrenuouſly oppoſe them, I ſhall always ſuſpect, ſince the above accident, have the greateſt occaſion for them.

Monſieur Rollin, than whom few have better underſtood the method of training up youth in the learned languages, is of the ſame ſentiment: 'La premiere queſtion, dit-il, qui ſe 'préſente, eſt de ſavoir quelle méthode il faut ſuivre pour 'enſeigner la langue Latine. Il me ſemble qu'à préſent l'on 'convient aſſez généralement que les premiers régles que 'l'on donne pour apprendre le Latin, doivent être en Fran-'çois, parcequ'en TOUTE SCIENCE, en toute connoiſſance, 'il eſt naturel de paſſer d'une choſe CONNUE & CLAIRE à une 'choſe qui eſt INCONNUE & OBSCURE. On a ſenti qu'il n'e-'toit pas moins abſurde, & moins contraire au bons ſens, 'de donner en Latin les premiers préceptes de la langue La-'tine, qu'il le ſeroit d'en uſer ainſi pour le GREC, & pour 'toutes les LANGUES E'TRANGERES.'

Thoſe who would require greater ſatisfaction in relation to the method ſuggeſted for the ſpeedy and familiar acquiſition of languages, we refer them to conſult not only thoſe principal authors beforementioned, but ſuch alſo who have followed the principles of thoſe learned men, and wrote, ſince their time, upon the utility of the plaineſt and moſt literal tranſlations (ſomething in the way propoſed by Mr. Locke) in order to facilitate the knowledge of the Latin tongue in particular *.—And, after the ſtudent is a maſter of theſe ſeveral authors; by the conſtant exerciſe of the method of double tranſlation, and having the grammatical rules familiarly explained to him occaſionally in plain Engliſh, he will be able of himſelf to read with pleaſure ſeveral of the other claſſical authors; eſpecially thoſe with free and elegant tranſlations, ſuch as thoſe wrote by Guthrie, Melmoth, Dunſter, Dr. Martyn, and divers others; as alſo thoſe commentators who have wrote in Latin upon the Roman claſſics. Upon the whole, however neceſſary ſome learned men may think it, that the youth of this nation, intended for the learned profeſſions, ſhould plod on in the old way of gaining a knowledge of the dead languages, it is to be hoped that the parents of thoſe who are intended for merchants, will think it the worſt method that can be taken for them: and what is the worſt method for their attainment of a knowledge in the Latin tongue, can never be the beſt to be followed in relation to the modern languages.—They muſt be acquired by conſtant converſation with ſuch who ſpeak with propriety; by double tranſlation, and by having the grammatical part eaſily explained in their native language, from the mouth of the tutor, and not by a multitude of rules got by heart, which only ſerve to burthen the memory, render learning diſagreeable to youth, and retard their proficiency.—If I remember right, biſhop Spratt, in the Life of Cowley, ſays, That he could never be brought to learn the Latin tongue by grammar rules, and yet few of the moderns have wrote that language with greater purity.

* The firſt that I remember to have appeared upon this occaſion, was Mr. Philips, ſub-preceptor to his royal highneſs the Duke. (2.) Mr. Clark, of the public grammar-ſchool of Hull, author of two Eſſays on Education and Study, of A New Grammar of the Latin Tongue, and Literal Tranſlations of ſeveral of the Introductory Latin Claſſics. (3.) Doctor Stirling. (4.) N. Bailey, Mr. Watſon, and others.

Before we diſmiſs this point of language, we will take leave to make one obſervation more; which I have never met with in any of thoſe authors who have wrote upon the beſt methods of obtaining a knowledge of languages. The reader, however, will pleaſe to take notice that what we are about to ſay is only intended as a requiſite addition to what has been already propoſed by Mr. Locke, Mr. Aſcham, and thoſe other authors before quoted, in regard to the uſefulneſs of prepared literal tranſlations, &c.

Another thing we deſire the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, is, that we take it for granted no youth is admitted into the college before the age of 15 at leaſt, and that he has been ſomewhat initiated into Latin and French, and can write his native language tolerably, together with a pretty good current hand.

Now, what we would humbly ſubmit to further conſideration is, in relation to the moſt natural method of making uſe of proper literal tranſlations in the propoſed college, in order to render the ſpeaking and underſtanding of the Latin tongue, or any of the modern languages, very eaſy and familiar to the mercantile ſtudent: and what we have to propoſe is comprehended under the few following words:

The conſtant proper uſe of a LIVING DICTIONARY, and a LIVING GRAMMAR, and proper LITERAL TRANSLATIONS.

That all literal tranſlations may be made a proper uſe of, by the means of a living dictionary, it is propoſed there ſhall be a kind of deſk, elevated to a pitch proper for the purpoſe, wherein there ſhall always be one perſon conſtantly tranſlating, with an audible voice, either Latin into Engliſh, or Engliſh into Latin; or French into Engliſh, or Engliſh into French; and the like of any other modern language to be learned; and thoſe tranſlations to be in as literal a manner as the different idoms of the languages will admit of, ſo as to be perfectly intelligible.—At the ſame time ſhould be explained, viva voce, the peculiar cuſtoms and antiquities of the Romans, when any thing occurs that renders the ſame neceſſary to the better underſtanding the author which is thus publicly tranſlating.

1. Let

1. Let it be ſuppoſed, that, while ſuch a conſtant tranſlator, during the hours of education, is going on, a profound ſilence is preſerved, and due attention is given by the ſtudents to ſuch tranſlation.
2. Let it be ſuppoſed, likewiſe, that one ſingle day only in the ſix is allotted for the explication of the rules of grammar, of any author that has been tranſlated, in the ſame public way, relating to the peculiar language to be acquired.
Theſe ſimple exercciſes being ſuppoſed to be ſteadily purſued, in regard to any language, what may we reaſonably preſume to be the conſequence?
In this exerciſe, the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that the ear and the memory of youth only are conſtantly employed, with reſpect to the point of double tranſlation; and that the underſtanding is familiarly worked upon, in order to imbibe and retain the rules of grammar, without the leaſt diſagreeable application or fatigue.
It is by the conſtant uſe of the tongue, the faculties of hearing and the memory only, whereby mankind obtain the knowledge to ſpeak, write, and underſtand their native languages; and if, in the public way of teaching any other languages, we can fall nearly upon the like meaſures, is it not very reaſonable to hope and expect that any other languages may be thereby acquired as familiarly and inſenſibly as we do our mother tongues? That this muſt be the effect of ſuch exerciſes, we have not only the judgment of ſo great a man as Mr. Locke, but the experience of a Montaigne, our great queen Elizabeth, and Madam Dacier.
By thumbing over the DEAD DICTIONARY and DEAD GRAMMAR, a youth of 15 ſhall, perhaps, make ſhift, with Herculean toil, and the help of his ſchool-fellows, to hammer out, in a very pitiful way, thirty or forty lines of an author in a day, the greateſt part of which he too often as ſoon forgets as learns: whereas, by means of the conſtant exercciſe of the LIVING DICTIONARY, and the LIVING GRAMMAR, and LITERAL TRANSLATIONS, he may, with great eaſe and pleaſure, learn ſome hundreds of lines in a day, and retain the greateſt part of the words and phraſes in his memory.
Whether theſe exerciſes will be attended with advantages ſo ſuperior to what the ordinary ones are, it may be neceſſary to enter into a further eclairciſſement of the plan propoſed.—To which end, the reader is deſired further to obſerve, that
The whole college is ſuppoſed to conſiſt only, or chiefly, of young ſtudents who are deſigned for the mercatorial employment.—That their continuance therein is propoſed to be from the age of 15 to 19, and that the whole number of them ſhall be divided into four or more claſſes; that is, thoſe of the firſt year's ſtanding ſhould be of the firſt claſs, thoſe of the ſecond of the next, &c.
At the firſt commencement of this inſtitution, the freſh men, who enter at 15, muſt be aſſiſted, as much as poſſible, by the means propoſed, for the firſt year, by the tutors; but, upon their entrance into the ſecond year, thoſe of the firſt year may, in a great meaſure, be inſtructed by the meaſures ſuggeſted, by their fellow ſtudents of the ſecond year's ſtanding; and thoſe of the ſecond year's ſtanding be inſtructed by thoſe of the third; and thoſe of the third by thoſe of the fourth year's ſtanding; which will prove of no leſs eaſe to the tutors, than benefit to themſelves.—To explain myſelf.
1. It is preſumed that thoſe ſtudents who enter into the ſecond year have, in the way propoſed, gone through two, three, or more of the introductory Latin claſſical authors, beſides two or three French authors * which are proper for the occaſion. At the ſame time, the reader is deſired to obſerve, that there are ſtated times for their improvement in figures, and their mechanical hand-writing, and ſomething of geography.

* The plaineſt proſe authors we judge beſt to begin with.

2. That three or four, or more, of the moſt expert ſtudents of the ſecond claſs ſhould be conſtant public tranſlators to thoſe of the firſt claſs, the tutor always attending to explain difficulties, as they occurred.—Thoſe of the third claſs to thoſe of the ſecond, and thoſe of the fourth to thoſe of the third claſs, &c.
3. This will refreſh the memories again of the ſtudents with the authors which they had read in their prior claſs, habituate them to a graceful pronunciation and elocution, and prove of great eaſe to the lungs of the tutor, whom we cannot preſume to be capable of continuing a public tranſlation ſeveral hours in the day; but this may be very eaſily done by a requiſite number of the ſtudents of a ſuperior claſs, in the preſence of the tutor appointed for the inſtruction of the claſs.
4. By theſe ſimple exerciſes, ſteadily and judiciouſly purſued, the ſtudents cannot trifle away a moment's time of the hours allotted for their inſtruction, which they do when left intirely to themſelves, with the uſe only of their dead dictionary and grammar, and without any proper tranſlation to aſſiſt them.
5. It is ſuppoſed, as before intimated, that there is a profound ſilence always preſerved in the room of public tranſlation; that is, nothing is to be heard but the continued voice of the public tranſlator for the time being.—If any thing is capable of fixing the attention of youth, this method ſeems to bid very fair for it, becauſe it is not attended with the leaſt degree of toil or perplexity, every obſtacle to their advancement being agreeably removed.
6. In order to judge whether due attention hath been given by every individual to the voice of the public tranſlators, it ſhould be an eſtabliſhed rule for the tutor to cauſe, every day, ſuch as he may ſuſpect of inattention to mount the deſk, and to retranſlate publicly ſuch a part of what has been done, perhaps, ſeveral times over by the appointed tranſlators; and thoſe who prove delinquents, and appear to be remarkably neglectful, will not only be thus ignominiouſly expoſed, but they ſhould be puniſhed, by being that day confined to ſome extraordinary exerciſes, while their fellow ſtudents, who had behaved well, ſhould be indulged in their diverſions, and admitted to a table, for their meals, where there was ſomething more delicate than at the table of ſuch delinquents.—Something of this kind might be attended with very happy conſequences to the youth, and of no little eaſe to the reſpective tutors.
We ſhall ſay no more in relation to languages.—The next points are thoſe of FIGURES and ACCOUNTANTSHIP; and theſe, likewiſe, and ſuch other parts of the mathematics, and, experimental philoſophy, as we have touched upon, we would have taught as much in the ſame way as their peculiar nature will admit of; we mean, with relation to the rationale of the rules given for the practical operations of arithmetic, and the principles whereupon the art of accountantſhip by debtor and creditor, is founded, &c. together with proper lectures upon the mathematical and philoſophic parts.—But, as the utility of the arithmetic and accountantſhip branches, in particular to the merchant, depends upon the ready and expert practice, the greateſt variety of examples ſhould not be wanting to exercciſe the ſeveral rules and principles thereof: yet theſe examples, alſo, we would have all performed in a public way, that the ſtudent ſhould not have it in his power at all to trifle away his time: for that we judge a very eſſential point to be guarded againſt throughout the whole of this inſtitution: but this can never be effectually done, provided a public lecturer, or demonſtrator, is not conſtantly employed in thoſe parts, as well as in the languages, and the ſilence and attention of the ſtudents are, at the ſame time, ſo diligently engaged as thoroughly to comprehend whatever they are thus publicly inſtructed in; and are able, alſo, to exerciſe the ſame in thoſe practical uſes which the nature of their employment may occaſionally require: yet this cannot be effectually done, unleſs they have great variety of practical exerciſe in the ſeveral and reſpective branches *. Wherefore,

* That the fundamental principles of every branch may be duly impreſſed upon the mind, they ſhould, together with proper examples, be fairly written, at the proper times appointed for that purpoſe, into books, by every individual ſtudent; and they ſhould be alſo taught how to keep an alphabetical common-place book, wherein to regiſter whatever they may hereafter have occaſion to refer to.

The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that another material and general principle, whereupon we propoſe the PLAN of EXECUTION to be founded, is, GREAT PRACTICE AND EXERCISE, in every branch of erudition. And, to corroborate our opinion herein, we ſhall again appeal to the authority of Mr. Locke:
'No body is made any thing by hearing of rules, ſays he, or 'laying them up in his memory; practice muſt ſettle the habit of doing, without reflecting on the rule; and you may 'as well hope to make a good painter or muſician extempore, 'by a lecture, and inſtruction in the arts of muſic and painting, as a coherent thinker, or ſtrict reaſoner, by a ſett of 'rules, ſhewing him wherein right reaſoning conſiſts.' Locke's Conduct of the Underſtanding, vol. iii. p. 395.
With reſpect to the knowledge of the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages relative to the employment of a merchant, thoſe likewiſe, we apprehend, ſhould be inculcated not only by PUBLIC LECTURE, but by FAMILIAR CONVERSATIONS upon the ſubjects of averages, baratries, bottomrees, bankruptcies, charter-parties, demurrages, exchanges [bills of exchange] and all other the variety of occurrences that ariſe in the courſe of practical buſineſs, all which will afford a wide field for improvement in matters of real uſe.—In relation to the method of inſtruction by public lecture, that is obvious enough to every one.—But what we mean by familiar converſation, may require ſome explanation. To which we ſhall only obſerve, that one or two evenings in the week, after the college exerciſes, ſhould be ſet apart for thoſe ſtudents, who are competently advanced, to give their opinion in the Engliſh language, or any other of the modern, in the preſence of the proper profeſſor appointed for this branch, upon any of the before-mentioned ſubjects, or any other relating to mercantile affairs; it being ſuppoſed, that the ſubject has been given out ſome days beforehand, in order for them to conſult the proper books in the college, or their own libraries, for that purpoſe.
By this pleaſing converſible exerciſe, the young ſtudents will be early inured to reflection, and retention of what they read, when they are under the neceſſity of communicating publicly

what authors they have conſulted upon the occaſion.—Beſides, many of thoſe points may lead to ſome debate; the profeſſor may ſtart objections, and aſk their free opinions, when the ſubject is properly opened by him: and, by familiar interrogatories made from the chair, this will naturally draw out ſuch anſwers as will ſhew who have, and who have not been aſſiduous in their applications to underſtand the ſubject from the books of authority.

The great Montaigne ſays, 'If I was compelled to chuſe, I 'ſhould ſooner, I think, conſent to loſe my ſight than hear- 'ing and ſpeech. The Athenians and Romans held the ex- 'erciſe of familiar conference and debate in great honour in 'their academies.' Mr. Locke had ſo high an opinion of it's utility, as to recommend it in the following words: 'That 'there ſhould be propoſed to young gentlemen rational and 'uſeful queſtions, ſuited to their age and capacities, and on 'ſubjects not wholly unknown to them, nor out of their way: 'ſuch as theſe, when they are ripe for exerciſes of this nature, 'they ſhould extempore, or after a little meditation upon the 'ſpot, ſpeak to, without penning of any thing: for I aſk, if 'we will examine the effects of this way of learning to ſpeak 'well, who ſpeak beſt in any buſineſs, when occaſion calls 'them to it, upon any debate, either thoſe who have ac- 'cuſtomed themſelves to compoſe and write down before- 'hand what they would ſay; or thoſe, who thinking only 'on the matter, to underſtand that as well as they can, uſe 'themſelves only to ſpeak extempore. And he that ſhall 'judge by this, will be little apt to think that accuſtoming 'him to ſtudied ſpeeches and ſet compoſitions is the way to 'fit a young gentleman for buſineſs *.'

* Cicero, if I may be allowed once to mention ſuch a name in a deſign of this nature, ſomewhere ſpeaks of C. Curio, who had never read any books of eloquence, nor made any hiſtorical collections, nor underſtood any thing of the public or private part of the law; yet was ſo happy in expreſſing himſelf, as to be eſteemed one of the beſt orators of his time. What gained him this applauſe, was a clear ſhining phraſe, and a ſudden quickneſs and fluency of expreſſion, which was acquired purely by the benefits of his private education, being always uſed to a correct way of ſpeaking in the houſe wherein he was brought up.

The ſame exerciſes of conſtant public lectures and public converſations, we alſo judge to be the moſt naturally adapted to the attainment of the other branches enumerated in the general plan, and, therefore, we ſhall only further obſerve,

1. The reader will pleaſe to remark in general, throughout the execution of every part of the propoſed plan, we would recommend a ſimilitude and uniformity of practice, viz. the conſtant exerciſe of the faculties of hearing, ſpeaking, and regiſtering by writing, the fundamental principles of whatever ſhall be taught in the college; and this without any retardment whatever to the progreſs of the ſtudent, every difficulty being agreeably removed as ſoon as it occurs.

2. The variety of capacities among youth, it is to be feared, is commonly too little attended to in their education: methods, ſuitably adapted to one genius, mar, blunt, and confound another. To prevent prejudicial conſequences of this kind, our plan of execution is ſo deviſed as to ſuit any variety of capacities and diſpoſitions. The ſlower genius and milder complexion will here have the faireſt play to exert itſelf, without that awe and perplexity which often nips it in it's tender bud. On the other hand, the ſtrongeſt and moſt nervous capacity, the genius of the greateſt ſprightlineſs and vigour, will have every advantage to fix it's fire, and agreeably mould and faſhion it to application.

Emulation in youth, like ambition in men, exciting to the moſt laudable endeavours, no expedient ſhould be wanting firſt to raiſe, and afterwards to cheriſh and ſupport this noble paſſion.

One motive of this kind will be peculiar to theſe young gentlemen: which is, their being made ſenſible how eaſily they may advance each other's credit and intereſt in the way of trade: but, without ſuitable qualifications to play ſkilfully into each other's hands, they ſhould be convinced that they can never hope to reap ſuch benefit by their mutual intercourſe of friendſhips.

The experienced well know how merchants properly ſituated at home and abroad may promote one another. This is often done by perſons bred in ſeparate practical counting-houſes in the ordinary way: but, where young people are bred up together, in the like maxims and practices, and where perſonal friendſhips are contracted from their youth, they will more naturally fall upon meaſures for their common advantage: eſpecially ſo, when ſuch have been properly pointed out to them in the courſe of their collegial erudition, and deeply impreſſed in their tender years.

In carrying the whole of this deſign into execution, the natural and ordinary practices of men of ſenſe and genius ſhould be made the principal guide. From art ſhould be only borrowed ſuch helps as will aid and aſſiſt, no way cramp and ſuppreſs, the intellectual powers and faculties: and how far thoſe powers and faculties will carry youth, under an inſtitution whoſe ſole foundation is to render every acquiſition as pleaſing and delightful as poſſible, has, perhaps, ſcarce ever been duly experimented *. In the common methods of acquiring knowledge, men ſeem generally too intent upon the dead letter: whereas, if the real converſible practices of mankind, properly regulated and conducted, and improved by natural and engaging arts, were made the principal foundation in every kind of literary inſtitution, we might indeed, have fewer pedants, but more truly uſeful members of the community.

* 'Un maître habile & attentif met tout en uſage pour rendre 'l'étude aux jeunes gens agreable. Il prend leurs teins: 'il étudie leur goût: il conſulte leur humeur: il méle le 'jeu au travail: il paroit leur en laiſſer le choix: il ne fait 'point une régle de l'étude: il en excite quelquefois le deſir 'par la refus même, & par la ceſſation, ou plû-tôt par l'in- 'terruption: en un mot, il ſe tourne en mille formes, & 'invente mille adreſſes pour arriver à ſon but.' Rollin des Belles Lettres. Du Government des Colleges.

'I would not, ſays Montaigne again, have this pupil of our's 'impriſoned and made a ſlave to his learning; nor would I 'have him given up to the moroſity and melancholic humour 'of a ſour, ill-natured pedant. I would not have his ſpirit 'cowed and ſubdued, by applying him to the rack, and tor- 'menting him, as ſome do, fourteen or fifteen hours a day, 'and ſo make a pack-horſe of him. Nor ſhould I think it 'good, when, by reaſon of a ſolitary and melancholic com- 'plexion, he is diſcovered to be much addicted to books, to 'nouriſh that humour in him, for that renders him unfit for 'civil converſation, and diverts him from better employments. '—The place of education, adds he, ſhould be painted with 'the pictures of joy and gladneſs, Flora and the Graces, as 'the philoſopher Speuſippus did his; that, where their profit 'is, they might there have their pleaſure too.'

We would not have it ſignified, that theſe young gentlemen can be expected to arrive at ſo great a maſtery in every thing we have ſuggeſted, as to become perfect proficients therein. The youth of many, and the ſhortneſs of time propoſed for their continuance in the college, cannot well allow of this. But we take upon us to ſay, that all who have tolerable natural abilities can ſcarce avoid contracting ſo good a habitude of attention and application to buſineſs, as will grow up with them throughout the whole of their lives, and, indeed, qualify them ever after to be their own inſtructors. 'It is not, 'as Mr. Locke obſerves, the buſineſs of education, in reſpect 'to knowledge, to perfect a learner in all, or any of the ſci- 'ences, but to give his mind that freedom, that diſpoſition, 'thoſe habits, that may enable him to attain any part of 'knowledge he ſhall apply himſelf to, or ſtand in need of in 'the future courſe of his life.'

It having been a diſpute among the learned world, whether a public or a private education is to be preferred, it may be neceſſary to obſerve, that, according to the propoſed inſtitution, the end of both may be effectually anſwered at the ſame time: and that not only in regard to the point of mercantile accompliſhment, but in regard alſo to the morals of young people; for ſuch ſhould be the diſcipline eſtabliſhed for the conduct of this deſign, that every moment of time might be properly regulated, even that portion allotted for diverſions, in order to render them innocent, at the ſame time that they are manly, pleaſurable, and healthful.

Some of the wiſeſt men in all ages have been of opinion, that there is no one living to whom nature has not given a capacity to underſtand ſome one ſcience, or to be better formed to excel in one employment or profeſſion, rather than in another. Many there are, who, to no purpoſe, applying to one branch of knowledge or buſineſs, have made very great proficiency by being turned to a different.

As many, we preſume, are bred to merchandizing, or, as a learned divine expreſſes himſelf upon a ſimilar occaſion, have run their heads againſt a counting-houſe, who might have done their country notable ſervice at a plough tail, the propoſed inſtitution will ſerve as a proper place of trial, in order early to diſcover whether a youth has, or has not, a ſuitable capacity for the merchant. This will be eaſily diſcernable in two years time, at furtheſt; and if he does not happen to be well turned for that employment, it will not be too late for a parent to think of ſome other, more agreeable to his ſon's natural genius and capacity: for, however common it may be, it is never the leſs ridiculous, inſtead of adapting the ſtudies or profeſſion of a youth to his genius, to act the reverſe, by adapting his genius to his ſtudies or profeſſion. To this it may be imputed, that many formed by nature to ſhine in ſome principal poſt, to be the envy of foreign nations, and admiration of poſterity, and the honour and ornament of the age in which they lived, have been utterly loſt to themſelves and their country.

And ſo eaſy, familiar, and engaging, ought the manner of exerciſing, and reducing to practice every branch of the plan, that it will be ſcarce poſſible for a young perſon to have any latent abilities for a merchant, and thoſe not to appear in the moſt conſpicuous manner. So that our inſtitution, conſidered in this light alſo, cannot but prove of great public utility, it having as happy a tendency to the ſaving eſtates, in private families, by keeping thoſe out of trade who are unfit for it, as

to the raiſing great ones, by throwing others into it with every advantage.

The reaſon for propoſing the regulation as well of the plan of execution as the general one, is, that, in caſe there ſhould be occaſion to call in aſſiſtants under the chief profeſſors, the method of execution may, on no account whatever, be deviated from by ſuch aſſiſtants; for that would be leaving them to a random way of inſtruction, without any check or controul, and ſuffering them to break in upon the ſeveral parts of the inſtitution, as regulated for the acquiſition of each branch: which would prove detrimental to the order and connection of the whole. Beſide, nothing is more common than for inferior aſſiſtants, who are capable only to act ſome underpart, to have different methods of inſtruction, peculiar to themſelves; and as the incapacity, or ill-conduct of thoſe aſſiſtants, may make it frequently neceſſary to change them, was the method of inſtruction to be changed at the ſame time, it would eternally bewilder the young ſtudents and greatly retard their progreſs. But, by adhering inviolably to a well-digeſted plan of execution, as ſtrict an eye will be kept over aſſiſtants, that they ſteadily perform their duty, according to the method preſcribed to them, as is over the young people themſelves; whereby it will not be in the power either of the one or the other to trifle away their time, and neglect the performance of what is daily expected of both *.

* Le principal eſt comme l'ame, qui met tout en mouvement, & qui préſide à tout. C'eſt ſur luy que roule le ſoin d'établir le bon ordre, de maintenir la diſcipline, de veiller en général ſur les études & ſur les mœurs. Rollin des Belles Lettres.

By this ſteady and uniform diſcipline in executing the whole, what may appear very difficult, and even impracticable to ſome, will be found quite otherwiſe to thoſe who have a juſt idea of the happy and extraordinary effects of order and regularity; for thoſe effectually preſerve what the contrary abſolutely deſtroy.

Merchants coming ſo early in life into the buſineſs of the world, have not time for the attainment of what is called a learned education. It is, therefore, our plan is ſo deviſed, as, in a great meaſure, to ſupply that deficiency. And what the intelligent reader will obſerve to be peculiar to it is, without young people who are intended for buſineſs running the hazard of being captivated with ſuch refined and ſcholaſtic ſpeculations as might not only prove detrimental, but abſolutely ruinous to their way of life.

Nor is it leſs obſervable, that the utility of this inſtitution does not altogether conſiſt in the proper choice of matter, but in the manner of communication; the method of conducting the whole being ſuch as will inſenſibly engage young minds in the habit of cloſe thinking, ſteadineſs, and attention, as well as inſpire them with ambition to excel in their peculiar province. Theſe are qualifications that cannot be ſet at too high a rate; for, while young people's minds are thus emuloufly engaged, their morals will be more effectually preſerved, than by all other meaſures, perhaps, that could be taken for that purpoſe.

The time propoſed for the continuance of theſe young gentlemen in the college, is from 15 to 19 years of age: in which they will be qualified to enter into any counting houſe whatſoever, of the moſt extenſive and univerſal trade; and there can be no doubt but their ſuperior qualifications will prove an agreeable recommendation to the more ſkilful and ingenious merchants, though they may be quite otherwiſe to thoſe of the oppoſite turn. Such a fund of pertinent knowledge will our young merchant be furniſhed with, and ſo expert will he be in every part of the buſineſs of the practical counting-houſe, that he cannot fail to form a right judgment of every thing he ſees tranſacted during the time of his clerkſhip: nor will it be in the power of the ignorant or the artful, in any reſpect whatever, to perplex or miſguide him. From having alſo ſuch principles inculcated in his youth as ſerve to raiſe an emulation, excite induſtry, and fix the attention to buſineſs, no advantages will eſcape his notice, through negligence or want of diſcernment. On the contrary, he will be able to break through all obſtacles to his advancement, and not only to make the moſt of every fortunate occurrence that falls in his way, but, if ſuch are wanting, even to frame beneficial occaſions for himſelf.

It may be reaſonably enough preſumed, that many who are already engaged, will regret their not being bred according to the propoſed eſtabliſhment. Such, however, may receive no little advantage, even by the peruſal of theſe papers; at which we ſhall heartily rejoice. And if any of thoſe gentlemen, after the expiration of their ordinary clerkſhips, ſhould be inclined to think they might reap any benefit by this inſtitution, they ſhould be admitted, and treated in the moſt gentleman-like manner.

It is far from being the leaſt diſreputation to any gentleman to be inſtructed in what ſo nearly concerns his intereſt, and whereon the whole happineſs of his life depends; eſpecially ſo, when he has never had proper opportunities of being ſuitably inſtructed before: but it is a very deplorable ſituation, for the young merchant to be liable to be daily over-reached and outwitted, if not abſolutely ruined, by correſpondents more knowing than himſelf in the arts of negociating buſineſs. It is moſt certainly, therefore, far more adviſeable for ſuch, after the completion of their ordinary clerkſhip, to wait a year or two, if needful, for thorough qualification, before they raſhly hazard their fortune. It may poſſibly too be as requiſite for many to unlearn ſome things, as to acquire others before they turn ſelf-adventurers. Young people, eager and ambitious to make a figure in trade for themſelves, may think it loſt time to wait at all for their due accompliſhment. This is a great miſtake. Let them conſider, that, to ſave and improve their fortunes is gaining time, but to loſe them quite otherwiſe.

Advertisement.

If the public ſhould judge it neceſſary to introduce any other kind of accompliſhment into a college of this nature, that may be eaſily done, provided any thing of this kind ſhould take place: I have only intimated thoſe qualifications that are indiſpenſably neceſſary.

That the public may be apprized for whom this inſtitution is deſigned, it is proper to inform them, that it is calculated chiefly for the following claſſes of gentlemen.

1. For the ſons of merchants deſigned for trade, whom their parents would chuſe to have brought up according to the propoſed plan; their own counting-houſes not admitting of their being bred in ſo methodical and ſcientific a manner.
2. For others, intended for any particular branch of merchandizing whatever; as that of a Portugal, Spaniſh, Ruſſia, Hamburgh merchant, &c. &c. who, after having been four years under this inſtitution, will be qualified to enter, either at home or abroad, into any of thoſe reſpective counting-houſes, with all deſirable benefit and advantage.
3. For ſuch gentlemen who, having paſſed the uſual time of their clerkſhip, think they may reap any advantage from this inſtitution.
4. For the ſons of American planters.
5. For the ſons of ſuch wholeſale dealers whoſe engagements in trade, both at home and abroad, are often as extenſive as thoſe of very eminent merchants.
6. For gentlemen of maturity, who are poſſeſſed of handſome fortunes, and would gladly engage in trade as merchants for themſelves, or in conjunction with others, could they be expeditiouſly accompliſhed in a genteel manner.
7. For ſuch gentlemen who may have expectation of conſulſhips, &c. wherein a knowledge in the practical arts, cuſtoms, and uſages of merchants, is abſolutely neceſſary.
8. For thoſe gentlemen who have views of being ſettled in any of the chief branches of the public revenue, or for ſuch who would be accompliſhed to ſuperviſe buſineſs they may think proper to carry on, by the means of clerks or agents, wherein a complete knowledge of figures and accountantſhip is requiſite.
9. For gentlemen who may chuſe to carry on foreign trade, by being their own ſupercargoes, or for ſuch who are intended for ſupercargoſhips belonging to any of the capital trading companies.
10. For ſuch young gentlemen of fortune, who may be expected hereafter to take a ſhare in the government and direction of any of the great trading or monied corporations.
11. For young gentlemen intended to be called to the bar, to whom a knowledge in the practical mercantile arts and accountantſhip may prove beneficial, in order to enable them the better to unravel ſuch complicated caſes in mercantile accounts, as may come before them in their pleadings, relating either to the foreign or domeſtic tranſactions of merchants *. And

* Litigations among traders making ſo large a ſhare in the buſineſs of the bar, a ſtudent of the law cannot have too minute and comprehenſive a knowledge of the practical arts of merchants, as they relate both to their foreign and domeſtic negociations.

To ſet this matter in it's proper light would require a diſtinct tract. As theſe learned gentlemen, however, are ſo thoroughly ſenſible of this, we ſhall only obſerve, what a celebrated lawyer, who had entered deeply into the ſtudy of practical trade, ſays upon the ſubject of the exchanges; which will be found to hold good alſo, in regard to other the principal parts of mercantile tranſactions.

After having recounted the names of many of his profeſſion, eminent for their abilites, who have written on the exchanges; and having ſhewn the great importance of the ſubject: this writer ſpeaks in the following manner:

'This ſubject of the exchanges contains many very knotty 'points, and is held among all the lawyers to be dark, 'difficult and intricate.

'1. Becauſe the method of exchanging, now in uſe, differs 'widely from the ancient practice.

'2. Becauſe controverſies relating to exchanges are not ſo 'common as others, and therefore leſs underſtood.

'3. Becauſe of the conciſe abſtruſe terms, in which ex-'change-contracts are expreſſed, and which lawyers are 'quite ſtrangers to.

'4. Becauſe of the daily new inventions, by which the 'matter has been rendered ſo intricate, that, beſides the 'negociators themſelves, there are very few, even among

'the

'the men of literature, who underſtand it. And merchants 'have ſtruck out ſo many arts in the negociation of ex-'changes, that they exceed the keenneſs of moſt wits, that 'attempt to determine the controverſies relating to them: 'and, indeed, the difficulties attending them are to be re-'ſolved only into the depth of mercantile ſkill and ſubtilty: 'ſo that it is no wonder, that Navar, in his tract of uſury, 'a man of great learning, and eſpecially converſant in ſub-'jects of this kind, confeſſes to have learnt the whole 'praxis of exchanges, of which he there treats, from the 'capital merchants of his city.

'Thoſe who take depoſitions in caſes of this kind, con-'tinues the ſame author, are often perplexed and confound-'ed: wherefore perſons, profoundly ſkilled in the practi-'cal arts of the exchanges, ſhould be appointed to hear 'evidence on theſe occaſions. Lawyers are, for the gene-'ral part, wanting in the firſt rudiments and principles of 'theſe negociations; and are at a loſs to aſcertain facts, 'from whence judgment ſhould proceed. Intent on looſing 'the knot, whoſe texture they are unacquainted with, the 'more they labour, the firmer the tie. Since, therefore, they 'are ſo ignorant of the uſages and cuſtoms which relate to 'merchandizing, wherein merchants themſelves only are 'perfectly ſkilled, it is not to be admired, that traders in 'general, as I have heard many of them declare, had ra-'ther truſt to their own judgment, than reſt on the opinions 'of the ableſt lawyers.' Sigiſmundi Scacciæ Tractatus de Commerciis & Cambiis.

12. Laſtly, For any young gentlemen of honour and fortune, to whom a practical knowledge of figures and mercantile accountantſhip may be of uſe, as well in their private affairs * as thoſe which concern them in a public capacity †: as alſo to give them a true idea of the art of merchandizing, in order the more familiarly to initiate them into the ſtudies of the national commerce in general. Likewiſe to initiate young perſons of quality into a well-grounded knowledge in the PUBLIC REVENUE, the TARIFFS in relation to merchandizes in foreign nations, and TREATIES of COMMERCE, ſubſiſting between the ſeveral ſtates of Europe; for all theſe might be regularly taught in this college.

* 'Merchants accounts, ſays Mr. Locke, though a ſcience 'not likely to help a gentleman to get an eſtate, yet poſſi-'bly there is not any thing of more uſe and efficacy to 'make him preſerve the eſtate he has. It is ſeldom ob-'ſerved, that he who keeps an account of his income and 'expences, and thereby has conſtantly under view the 'courſe of his domeſtic affairs, lets them run to ruin: and 'I doubt not but many a man gets behind-hand before he 'is aware, or runs farther on, when he is once in, for 'want of this care, or the ſkill to do it. I would there-'fore adviſe all gentlemen to learn perfectly merchants ac-'counts, and not to think it a ſkill that belongs not to 'them, becauſe it has received it's name, and has been 'chiefly practiſed by men of traffic.'

† Beſides, ſuch is the excellency of this art, that whoever is fundamentally grounded in it's rationale, will as familiarly apply it to the accounts of the nation, as to his own perſonal affairs. None who are thoroughly acquainted with the extenſive application of this method of account keeping, will think this is ſaying too much of it. See the article NATIONAL ACCOUNTS. Of what benefit this may prove to the nation, and how uſeful and honourable to themſelves in a public capacity, need not be ſaid.

Of the dignity of the MERCHANT, and the conſequences of this inſtitution to the PUBLIC.

The mercantile ſtation, it is certain, affords as large a proſpect for opulent acquiſitions as any other; and eſtates got by trade have, perhaps, been far more numerous, than thoſe by any other way whatſoever. [See the article COMMERCE.] As the relation alſo merchants ſtand in to the community, is not inferior to moſt in point of importance, ſo neither have they been behind-hand with any, in their zealous attachment to the intereſt of thoſe countries and princes, that have duly protected and encouraged them in their commerce. Hiſtory furniſhes remarkable inſtances of this. At preſent we ſhall take notice of a few only, which are ſufficient to endear the character of a merchant to every nation, that depends upon foreign trade for it's ſupport.

Charles the Vth, emperor of Germany, being reduced to great diſtreſs by the unhappy expedition of Tunis, experienced a powerful ſuccour in money from the Fuggers, a ſingle family of merchants only, but at that time the moſt opulent and diſtinguiſhed traders of Auxbourgh. For the ſecurity and repayment of thoſe large ſums, wherewith they had ſupplied the government, his imperial majeſty gave them written obligations, under his royal hand and ſeal.

To give a demonſtration of their zeal to the intereſt of their country, and their inviolable attachment to the perſon of his majeſty, thoſe merchants requeſted the emperor, as he was one day taking an airing by their houſe, to do them the honour to regale himſelf, to which his majeſty readily condeſcended. After the collation was over, thoſe merchants deſired permiſſion of the emperor to burn a faggot of cinnamon in the hall, where the entertainment was made, not only with intent to adminiſter all they could to his majeſty's delight, but to give further proof of their hearty affection to his perſon and government. Which they did, by bundling up thoſe bonds of ſecurity they had taken for their money with the faggot, and ſet fire to them before the emperor's face.

Another inſtance not leſs remarkable, is that of the memorable James Cœur, a merchant of Bourges. This gentleman alone, by the wiſdom of his counſels and the certainty of his caſh, humbled the houſe of Burgundy, ſecured the crown of France to the lawful heir Charles the VIIth, and by him to the branches of Valois and Bourbon, who ſucceeded.

The conduct of the merchants of St. Malo is another example worthy attention. Thoſe gentlemen being highly exaſperated by the demand made at the congreſs of Gertruydenburgh to Lewis XIV. of employing his troops to compel his grandſon Philip V. then king of Spain, to abandon the crown, united all their profits together, which they had made by trade in the Spaniſh colonies in America, and generouſly laid thirty-two millions in gold at the foot of the throne; and that at a time too, when the finances of France were totally exhauſted, by a ſeries of unſucceſsful events: which ſuccour, being timely applied, vigorouſly renewed the war, and anſwered the end of that nation.

Sir Thomas Greſham, our own countrymen, the founder of a college in London, for the promotion of the liberal arts, and of the Royal Exchange for the convenience of the traders of this metropolis, is another inſtance well deſerving our notice, as it manifeſts how far it is in the power of merchants, even of one private merchant, to ſupport governments under the greateſt emergency.

This worthy citizen of London lived in the time of king Edward the VIth, who was conſiderably indebted to the merchants of Antwerp, for money borrowed at intereſt to ſupply the exigencies of the ſtate. Payment of intereſt at that time being a great incumbrance to the nation, various expedients had been conſulted by the king and his council, to diſcharge thoſe debts; which, being due to foreigners, brought great contempt upon the crown, and the public credit of England. The meaſures which had been ſuggeſted for repayment, were, either to tranſport ſo much treaſure out of the realm, or to remit the ſame by way of exchange.

The kingdom being already greatly exhauſted of its gold and ſilver, the former was impracticable, without being ruinous to trade; and, the exchange between England and Antwerp being at no more than ſixteen ſchillings per pound of our currency, negociating the debt by foreign bills would have ſunk the exchange ſtill more to our diſadvantage. By which means the exportation of our gold and ſilver in the way of trade, would have been more and more augmented. Yet for the nation to continue in debt, was ſtill increaſing the evil; more eſpecially ſo, as the creditors were foreigners, and the intereſt ſent out of the kingdom. Beſide, the creditors inſiſted on their money, or a compliance with ſuch uſurious meaſures, for a prolongation of time, as would have brought ſuch high indignity upon the nation, as to have diſabled them from borrowing more money, but upon the moſt ſcandalous terms.

And yet, more money the government wanted, inſtead of being in a capacity to diſcharge the old debts. Under theſe circumſtances the nation was greatly perplexed, and no meaſures could be thought of to extricate the kingdom from theſe embarraſſments, 'till Sir Thomas undertook the affair. By whoſe great knowledge in trade and ſkill in the exchanges, he exonerated the nation from it's weighty incumbrances, without ſending any money out of the kingdom.

And, although the exchange was then at ſixteen ſchillings, he ſo wiſely managed this negociation, that he paid off the king's debts as they fell due, at an exchange of twenty and twenty-two ſhillings per pound. Whereby the king ſaved no leſs than an hundred thouſand marks clear, by this great merchant's knowledge in the exchanges.

By thus raiſing the exchange alſo ſo much in favour of England, at that critical conjuncture, the price of all foreign commodities fell proportionably *. Which ſaved the kingdom in general, and that, in a very little time, no leſs than between three and four hundred thouſand pounds ſterling more: a round ſum even at this time of day, but would now be near four times that ſum, in proportion to the different values of money.

* 'Whoever deſires to know the ſtate of our foreign trade, 'or our ſituation as to tranſactions in money with other 'countries, unleſs where ſubſidies are paid to princes a-'broad, armies or fleets maintained, or the dividends or 'ſtate of our ſtocks belonging to foreigners, may have in-'fluence: unleſs in theſe caſes, the courſe of exchange in-'dicates the ſtate of our commerce, as truly as the pulſe 'does that of the human body.' Sir Iſaac Newton's Tables of the Aſſays of foreign Coins. See the articles COIN, BALANCE of TRADE, EXCHANGE.

When exchange is againſt a nation, the goods exported from that nation are ſold for ſo much leſs, and goods imported from the other ſo much dearer as the exchange is above the par; ſo that the exchange, being once againſt a nation, contributes to keep itſelf ſo. The exchange with Holland being

ing generally againſt England, in time of peace as well as war, affects this kingdom more than, perhaps, has been ſo thoroughly weighed and conſidered, as could be deſired; for as Amſterdam is made the center of commercial correſpondence between the ſeveral parts of Europe, the rate of exchange between us and Holland, muſt proportionably affect that between us and other countries with which we have dealings; more eſpecially with thoſe we negociate bills with always through the medium of Holland. See the article HOLLAND.

Nor did the advantages to the nation from the eminent ſkill of this great Engliſh merchant, terminate here only. For, as, when the exchange was ſo greatly to the diſadvantage of England, gold and ſilver were daily exported out of the kingdom in great plenty; ſo by wiſely raiſing it, in the courſe of his money negociations for the ſervice of the ſtate, he cauſed the ſame to be brought back again, to the general emolument of the whole trading intereſt.

Nor did the wiſdom of Sir Thomas's counſels prove only of the higheſt honour and advantage to king Edward's reign, but to thoſe of his ſucceſſors, queen Mary and queen Elizabeth; both of theſe princeſſes having made choice of him for the management of their money, and their mercantile affairs. With queen Elizabeth he was in ſo high eſteem, that ſhe not only knighted him, a matter of very high dignity in thoſe days, but honoured him in every reſpect; and came in perſon to the Exchange, which he had erected for the convenience of the merchants and honour of the city of London, and cauſed the ſame to be proclaimed by heralds and a trumpet, the ROYAL EXCHANGE: and Sir Thomas was afterwards honoured with the appellation of the ROYAL MERCHANT.

Thomas Sutton, Eſq; another renowned Engliſh merchant, and founder of the Charter-Houſe in London, an act of benevolence worthy of a great prince, a few years after the death of Sir Thomas Greſham, by being the grand inſtrument of getting the Spaniſh bills proteſted at Genoa, in 1587, retarded, for a whole year, the ſailing of the Spaniſh armada, deſigned to enſlave theſe kingdoms, which proved the happy means of defeating the invaſion.

Theſe are ſome of the memorable feats performed by merchants, by private merchants only; and theſe, without particularizing more, are ſufficient to evince the truth of what has been ſuggeſted to their eternal honour. And, although, great ſtateſmen, admirals, and generals, with the aid of the public purſe, and their thouſands and their ten thouſands to co-operate with them, may perform great atchievements; yet we find that one family of merchants has been the ſupport of an emperor in great diſtreſs; that another ſingle merchant alone gave the crown to the houſe of Bourbon; that one was a principal cauſe of defeating the Spaniſh armada, and another the reſtorer of the public credit of England, and the honour of the crown, when in great contempt amongſt all the princes of Europe: and may be truly ſaid, in concert with that able miniſter Walſingham, to have laid the foundation of all the commerce and navigation we enjoy at preſent.

But it is not needful to go far back for inſtances of the eminent ſervices that merchants have manifeſted to the Britiſh empire in particular; it is recent in every one's memory, that, in the late unnatural rebellion, the ſupport of the public credit, and, in conſequence thereof, the ſecurity of the eſtabliſhment of the preſent moſt auguſt, and illuſtrious royal family upon the throne of theſe kingdoms, was owing to that glorious and ever-memorable aſſociation of the merchants and traders of the loyal city of London.

The merit of perſons of diſtinguiſhed character in trade cannot, in the general, be meaſured, but by thoſe who are well acquainted with their trading negociations. As they paſs through life without much eclat, the world is little acquainted with their important ſervices and utility to the ſtate; whilſt the hiſtories of men in great public capacities are tranſmitted to poſterity with all the pomp and magnificence of repreſentation. Yet certainly that is the more profitable admonition, which is drawn from the eminent virtues of men, who move in a ſphere nearer levelled to the common reach, than that which is derived from the ſplendid portrait of the victories and tranſactions of great ſtateſmen and commanders; which ſerve but for the imitation of few, and make rather for the oſtentation, than the true inſtruction of human life. It is from the practice and example of perſons of private condition, that we are more naturally taught to excel in our private capacities: and, had we the genuine hiſtories of many eminent merchants, giving a lively idea of their riſe and progreſs in buſineſs, and of the important ſervice they have been to their reſpective communities, they would naturally incite the trading part of this nation to emulate their accompliſhments: and this would prove a more effectual means to produce a race of ſkilful Britiſh traders, than romantic narratives a race of heroes.

Nor has the ſecurity of ſtates and empires been only owing to the occaſional zealous exertion of the wiſdom and the power of merchants, but they are in a great meaſure the daily and perpetual ſupport of all trading countries. For, as nations are at preſent circumſtanced, thoſe which are ſo ſituate, as to be obliged to ſubſiſt chiefly within themſelves, and without any intercourſe of commerce with others, can never be able to maintain ſo great a ſhare of power, as thoſe which carry on an extended foreign traffic. Domeſtic trade, only ſhifting property from hand to hand, cannot increaſe the riches and power of a nation; whilſt foreign trade, under wiſe laws and regulations, bringing in a conſtant balance of treaſure in favour of a nation, will proportionably augment it's weight of intereſt, and at length give it the balance of power.

Great-Britain being encompaſſed with powerful nations, who are earneſtly bent on cultivating the arts of commerce and navigation, with the utmoſt ſtretch of their addreſs and policy; muſt ſhe not ſoon become a ſacrifice to thoſe neighbouring potentates, if deſtitute of a race of ingenious and well accompliſhed merchants? For, as theſe are the only ſource of our maritime ſtrength, ſhe could not long continue, but by their means, that happy independent empire ſhe is at preſent.

The philoſopher may arrive to a high pitch of improvement in agriculture, arts, and ſciences; the huſbandman, the artizan, and manufacturer, may reduce this ſpeculative knowledge to practical uſes, with the greateſt ſkill and dexterity on their parts; governments may enact the wiſeſt laws, and give all deſirable encouragement for the advancement of commerce, yet what will theſe avail, without the penetration and ſagacity of the merchant, to propagate the produce of our lands, and the labour of our artiſts and manufacturers into foreign countries, with advantage to the ſtate as well as to himſelf?

'It is foreign trade, ſays a great lawyer *, that is the main 'ſheet anchor of us iſlanders; without which the genius of 'all our uſeful ſtudies, and the which renders men famous 'and renowned, would make them uſeleſs and inſignificant 'to the public. When man has fathomed the bottom of all 'knowledge, what is it if not reduced to practice, other 'than empty notion †? If the inhabitants of this iſland were 'learned in all the languages between the riſing and ſetting 'of the ſun, did know and underſtand the ſituation of all 'places, ports, and countries, and the nature of all mer'chandize and commodities, were acquainted with the or'der and motion of all the ſtars, knew how to take the la'titude and longitude, and were perfectly read in the art of 'navigation, to what purpoſe would all be, if there were 'no foreign trade? We ſhould have no ſhips to navigate to 'thoſe countries, nor occaſion to make uſe of thoſe lan'guages, nor to make uſe of thoſe commodities; what 'would this iſland be but a place of confinement to the in'habitants, who, without it, could be but a kind of her'mits, as being ſeparated from the reſt of the world: it is 'foreign trade that renders us rich, honourable, and great; 'that gives us a name and eſteem in the world; that makes 'us maſters of the treaſures of other nations and countries, 'and begets and maintains our ſhips and ſeamen, the walls 'and bulwarks of our country; and, were it not for foreign 'trade, what would become of the revenue for cuſtoms, and 'what would the rents of our lands be? The cuſtoms would 'totally fail, and our gentlemens rents of thouſands per 'annum would dwindle into hundreds.'

* Molloy De Jure Maritimo & Navali.

† Every ſtep that is made in the progreſs of knowledge, whether it proceed from reading, obſervation, or experience, ought to be applied to the affairs and tranſactions of life; for this is, in truth, the only proper uſe of all kinds of ſtudy; which, without it becomes not only an uſeleſs, but a troubleſome ſort of pedantry, more calculated to interrupt and confound, than to ſerve and promote a true genius. Eſſay on the Education of a Nobleman, printed 1736.

Since then it is ſo unexceptionably apparent, that foreign traffic is our grand preſervative both by ſea and land, and ſince, as lord chancellor Bacon juſtly obſerves, MERCHANTS AND TRADERS ARE IN A STATE, WHAT THE BLOOD IS TO THE BODY, the abilities and ingenuity of this part of the community is moſt certainly of the laſt importance to the whole Britiſh empire.

From theſe conſiderations there naturally ariſes the idea of dignity, as inſeparably annexed to the character of the merchant; he being a principal party in the ſecurity and preſervation, as well as in the conſtant ſupport of the kingdom: and from hence we may preſume it is, that family alliances have been ſo frequently contracted between the gentry and the trading part of the nation. [See the article COMMERCE.]

'Nor, ſays the learned biſhop Sprat, ought our gentry to 'be averſe from the promoting of trade, out of any little 'jealouſy, that thereby they ſhall debaſe themſelves, and 'corrupt their blood: for they are to know, that traffic and 'commerce have given mankind a higher degree than any 'title of nobility, even that of civility and humanity itſelf. 'And at this time, eſpecially above all others, they have no 'reaſon to deſpiſe trade as below them, when it has ſo great 'an influence on the very government of the world *.'

* Vide Hiſtory of the Royal Society.

There are but few who are capable of diſtinguiſhing themſelves in any eminent degree, in the grand leading debates of ſenates; much fewer of conducting fleets, armies, or the councils of princes. The talents of a Burleigh or a Colbert are very rare indeed, ſo are thoſe of a Blake or a Marlborough. But every tolerable capacity may make a pretty good figure in trade, by being bred with the advantages of the propoſed inſtitution. And as amongſt theſe there will be, doubtleſs, different degrees of capacities, as well as of aſſiduity and application, the young perſon who ſhall happily have an extraordinary turn for mercantile acquirements, may become a Greſham, a Barnard, a Gore, Vanneck, &c. whilſt the ſame genius in the army, the navy, or any branch of the civil government, might have lived and died, perhaps, in obſcurity.

As in theſe ſeveral capacities there is but one path to greatneſs, and few amongſt a numerous gentry have opportunity or abilities to become eminent therein, many of the younger branches of our beſt families paſs their days in an inglorious eaſe, quite loſt to themſelves, as well as the public: whereas, if they turned their eyes to commerce, it would furniſh them with a thouſand means, whereby they might promote themſelves, and reflect a luſtre on their ancient ſtock.

Merchants, it is true, have no exemption from thoſe caſualties, to which the whole human ſpecies is liable; yet, in the way of trade, theſe are often balanced by proſperous contingencies. When it happens otherwiſe, the really unfortunate ſcarce ever want ſuccour in diſtreſs. Even when misfortunes have proceeded from unhappy miſtakes in point of conduct, yet, where neither integrity and ſkill have been wanting, ſuch rarely fail to riſe again, in ſome reputable channel of buſineſs or other, dependent on merchants; of which there are numberleſs inſtances. For it is no undeſerving encomium on the trading claſs of the community, to ſay of them, that no perſons, under the heavens, ſhew greater humanity and generoſity, towards an unfortunate yet upright fellow-trader: which conſideration is no ſmall inducement for the younger branches of our moſt honourable families to engage in commerce.

Moreover, when it ſo falls out, that any of our noble and honourable families enjoy a numerous progeny, and the patrimonial eſtate is greatly diminiſhed by fortunes to the younger, wherein lies the indignity for the elder to be privately intereſted with a younger brother of abilities bred to merchandizing? Might not ſuch meaſures contribute to free the family inheritance from too weighty incumbrances? If the fortune of the younger does not happen to be competent, wherewith to carry on that compaſs of lucrative commerce that preſents itſelf, an additional capital will enable him to do it: and the elder, having a proportion of the profits for the hazards he runs, will afford him better intereſt for money than he can otherwiſe make at preſent. It is the conſtant practice in Holland and Italy, for thoſe of the higheſt honour to be intereſted in this manner with merchants of eminence; and in France this practice has been thought ſo beneficial to the ſtate, that it has been encouraged and enforced by ſeveral royal edicts *. And, perhaps, this has not been a ſtroke of policy the leaſt refined for the advancement of the trade and navigation of that kingdom; ſuch meaſures frequently ſupplying private traders with as large capitals in trade as they can employ therein, and thoſe upon terms quite eaſy and agreeable. Engagements of this nature are called by the French Societez en commandites †. See the article ANONYMOUS.

* This edict is ſo remarkable as to deſerve notice.

EDIT DU ROY,

Portant que les nobles pourront faire le commerce de mer, ſans deroger à la nobleſſe. Donné à S. Germain en Laye, au mois d'Aouſt 1669.

LOUIS par la grace de Dieu, roy de France & de Navarre: A tous preſens & à venir, ſalut; Comme le commerce & particulierement celui qui ſe fait par mer, eſt la ſource feconde, qui apporte l'abondance dans les etats, & la répand ſur les ſujets à proportion de leur induſtrie, & de leur travail, & qu'il n'y a point de moyen pour acquerir du bien, qui ſoit plus innocent, & plus legitime: auſſi a-t-il toûjours été en grande conſideration parmi les nations les mieux polies, & univerſellement bien reçû, comme des plus honneſtes occupations de la vie civile, &c. &c. A ces cauſes, deſirant ne rien obmettre de ce qui peut d'avantage exciter nos ſujets à s'engager dans le commerce, & le rendre plus floriſſant, & de nôtre grace ſpeciale, pleine puiſſance & autorité royale, nous avons dit, & declaré, & par ces preſentes ſignées de nôtre main, diſons, & declarons, voulons & nous plait, que tous gentils-hommes puiſſant par eux ou par perſonnes interpoſées, entrer en ſocieté, & prendre part dans les vaiſſeaux merchands, denrees & merchandiſes d'iceux ſans que pour raiſon de ce, ils ſoient cenſez & réputez déroger à nobleſſe, pourvû toutefois qu'ils ne vendent point en détail, &c. &c.

Signé LOUIS, & ſur le reply par le roy, COLBERT.

This was ſtrongly enforced again by another edict in December 1701, which is called Edit du roy, qui permet aux nobles, excepté ceux qui ſont revêtus de charges de magiſtrature, de faire commerce en gros, & qui declare quels ſont les merchands & les negocians en gros.

† Celui qui voudra faire ſocieté en commandite, doit jetter les yeux ſur un merchand qui ſoit homme de bien, & capable des manufactures, ou du commerce qu'il veut entreprendre; car ce'ſt ſur ſa fidelité, & ſon induſtric qu'il doit fonder l'eſſperance qu'il a de profiter en lui confiant ſon argent, &c. Parfait Negociant, Savary.

Perſons of low grovelling minds, and little induſtry themſelves, are often ſtrangely chagrined and irritated againſt thoſe who attempt any thing new in the public ſervice, though high commendable in itſelf, and the very attempt highly meritorious. With ſuch ſordid and pitiful ſpirits, the ſhadow of novelty, in any undertaking, is condemnation ſufficient. As ſuch deſerve rather pity or contempt, we ſhall only comfort them with what that wiſe and public-ſpirited prelate, biſhop Sprat *, has again obſerved; who, ſpeaking of the firſt eſtabliſhment of the Royal Society of London, ſays, 'That, if all things which are new be deſtructive, all 'the ſeveral means and degrees by which mankind has riſen 'to the perfection of arts were to be condemned. If ſo, to 'be the author of new things, be a crime, how will the firſt 'civilizers of men and makers of laws, and founders of governments eſcape? Whatever now delights us in the works 'of nature, that excels the rudeneſs of the firſt creation, is 'new. Whatever we ſee in cities or houſes above the firſt 'wildneſs of fields, and meanneſs of cottages, and nakedneſs of men, had it's time, when this imputation of novelty might as well have been laid to its charge. It is not 'therefore an offence to profeſs the introduction of new 'things, unleſs that which is introduced prove pernicious in 'itſelf, or cannot be brought in without the extirpation of 'others which are better.'

* Vide Hiſtory of the Royal Society.

As nothing of this kind can be alledged againſt the preſent inſtitution, it's novelty, with the judicious part of mankind, will render it the more praiſe-worthy; it requiring greater induſtry, and different talents to ſtrike out new paths to knowledge, rather than ſupinely to plod on in the old, when much better can be found.

And, as there appears to be a glorious ſpirit in the legiſlature to promote the trade of the kingdom to the utmoſt; as his majeſty himſelf has, by his royal ſpeech from the throne, expreſſed his earneſt recommendation of, and his hearty concurrence * with, every wiſe meaſure to advance the national commerce; we may reaſonably hope, this our humble attempt will meet with the approbation of all true friends to our trading intereſt.

* 'Let me earneſtly recommend to you the advancement of 'our commerce, and cultivating the arts of peace, in which 'you may depend on my hearty concurrenc and encouragement.' His Majeſty's Speech, Nov. 29, 1748.

It is no great honour to the Britiſh nation, that there ſhould be a neceſſity for the younger ſons of our nobility and gentry to be ſent to Holland and elſewhere out of the kingdom, for mercantile qualifications. But, when we have an inſtitution within ourſelves far ſuperior to any in other countries, it will be as little credit as advantage to Britiſh youth, to go abroad for what they can have much better at home.

And, if a young gentleman is intended to ſettle in a counting-houſe abroad, or to travel before he enters into trade for himſelf, his having ſpent a few years under this inſtitution, will far better capacitate him to reap proper advantage by either, than the crude, immethodical, and narrow way can, in which the generality are bred at preſent.

It is eaſy enough to hit blots, and to point out evils highly detrimental to the community. The many wiſe may diſcern the grievance and lament it, but the remedy generally lies deep, and in the hands of few; and to thoſe few is the world indebted, for the execution of all deſigns of public utility and happineſs. Whether ſuch is not the nature of the preſent, is ſubmitted to thoſe who are judges of it's merit and tendency.

Before I draw to the concluſion, I would deſire the reader will pleaſe to ſuppoſe the following plain caſe, viz. that two young perſons, of equal age and abilities, are placed in the reſpecting counting-houſes of their own fathers, who are merchants inferior to none for eminence, ſkill, and ingenuity in their profeſſion, and both equally ſolicitous that their ſons ſhould become ſo likewiſe: let it be further ſuppoſed, that the one of thoſe young perſons is bred, previouſly to his being taken into buſineſs under his father, a few years under the propoſed inſtitution, at the age propoſed, and the other not, but is turned into his father's counting-houſe as raw and as ignorant as the generality really are; I would appeal to every man of ſenſe and impartiality, who is a judge of the uſefulneſs of our plan, and capable of ſetting a due value upon a proper mencantile qualification, which of thoſe young people is likely to become the beſt accompliſhed merchant, and to be the moſt proſperous in his employment?

Could the experiment be fairly tried, is there not all imaginable reaſon to believe, that the one would be better qualified

for

for buſineſs, by being a ſingle year afterwards only in his father's counting-houſe, than the other would in three, or perhaps in five years? The one would be capable of making a good judgment of all he ſaw tranſacted without any inſtruction, and thereby might naturally delight in buſineſs; while the other, for want of the like foundation, might never underſtand his buſineſs as he ought, and therefore take an invincible diſreliſh to it; whereby, inſtead of becoming the complete merchant deſired, he might, on the contrary, become only an eternal diſquietude to the beſt of parents.

If this is not unlikely to prove the caſe, when a young perſon is bred, even under the eye of an own father, anxious for his ſon's welfare, what may we preſume to be the conſequence, when he has not the like happy opportunity of being trained up under a parent? When this is the caſe, is it not the moſt adviſeable for ſuch a young gentleman to lay the beſt foundation he can, before he enters into any merchant's counting-houſe whatever? For, if he falls into the hands of a man of honour and ſkill, of one who does not intend only to take his money, but do him juſtice, will not a young perſon ſo previouſly accompliſhed, as we propoſe, be infinitely more capable of reaping the benefit of his ſituation, than one deſtitute of thoſe advantages?

But if, on the other hand, a young perſon is not ſo happy as to fall into ſuch a merchant's counting-houſe, is it not highly prudential, that he ſhould be ſecure of a good foundation before-hand, in order to make the beſt advantage under the worſt ſituation?

The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that this inſtitution is intended to train up the young merchant from 15 to 19 years of age, in order the better to prepare him than he is, by being bred in the ordinary way, for admiſſion into any merchant's practical counting-houſe; wherein, if we ſuppoſe him placed for three or four years more, he may be then ſufficiently accompliſhed to hazard his eſtate in trade, and not before. But,

That experienced merchant Sir Francis Brewſter, who lived in the reign of king William the IIId, has propoſed a different way of breeding up young merchants of condition and fortune to practical commerce; which, as it ſeems to coincide in ſome reſpect, with our propoſed inſtitution of a mercantile college, the reader may not be diſpleaſed with that merchant's ſentiments: and, indeed, if our young merchant was firſt regularly trained up in the literary mercantile college we would eſtabliſh, his entrance into Sir Francis's college, if well regulated for the purpoſe, might, perhaps, as well, if not better qualify him for practical trade, than the ordinary way of going apprentice generally does.

'I think it a mortal diſtemper, ſays Sir Francis, in trade (nor to be cured, becauſe in the firſt concoction) that we have ſo few men of univerſity learning converſant in true mercantile employments: if were there as much care to have men of the beſt heads and education in it, as there is in the law, the nation would fetch more from abroad, and ſpend leſs in law-ſuits at home. We have it reckoned up by the infallible author, as the glory of a city, That her merchants were princes and nobles; their buſineſs and tranſactions in the world with ſuch, is more than belongs to any other ſett of men: would it not then be the honour of a nation, as well as profit, to have men of the beſt ſenſe and learning in the foreign negoce of a kingdom? If ſuch had been in the trade of theſe kingdoms, it ſeems reaſonable to believe, we had not loſt the moſt conſiderable navigating trade and employment of our ſeamen.

It would be an aſtoniſhing obſervation to men of any country but our own, to ſee more heads employed in Weſtminſter-Hall to divide the gain of the nation, than there are heads on the Exchange to gather it together. I have ſometimes thought, that, if theſe kingdoms lay not under the confuſion and unintelligibleneſs of underſtanding in trade, as the builders of Babel did in languages, we might, without the ſin of thoſe arrogant architects, erect ſuch towers in trade, as might overtop the univerſe in that myſtery.

We ſee how all arts and ſciences have been improved in this kingdom within the compaſs of one century, but amongſt them all the merchant's part the leaſt: and the reaſon is plain, men of ſmall learning and moderate underſtanding are generally put in it: for, though there are ſome excellent parts and clean heads among them, yet the major part are not ſo poliſhed: I ſpeak not this to abate the reſpect that I ſhall always think is due to the profeſſion, and all men in it, but we know it is the vanity of the nation: ſcarce a tradeſman but if he have a ſon that a country ſchoolmaſter tells him would make a ſcholar, becauſe he learns his grammar well, but immediately paſſes the approbation of his kindred, who judge it pity ſo hopeful a youth ſhould be loſt in trade, the univerſity is the only ſoil fit for him to be planted in.

By ſuch diſpoſition of the youth of our nation, many a good tradeſman is loſt, and poor ſcholars in every reſpect made; and, if this humour prevails in mechanics, and men of ordinary quality, much more, and with better pretenſions, it affects our gentry; to be ſure the eldeſt ſon is above trade, and if the younger be of a quaint and ſtudious temper, they are thought fit for the law, not many for the pulpit, which I confeſs I likewiſe think a miſtake in our gentry: had we more of them in the clergy, we ſhould have fewer to deſpiſe, that might be better builders of houſes than of the church.

But, to return to what I obſerve of the improvement in all the employments in the kingdom, I ſee none that have arrived to that vaſt increaſe as thoſe in the law: this, perhaps, is accounted an evil, but I will not quarrel with that long robe, I hope it will be no offence to wiſh them among us, [the merchants] but not with their bar-gowns; they would, in my opinion, look better in a COUNTING-HOUSE than in the TEMPLE; and, had the humour of our anceſtors run that way as much as it did for the law, there might have been as great an enlargement in maritime traffic and navigation, as there is now of the laws: I preſume none will ſay, that they began with equal numbers; trade had the primogeniture, and ſet forth with the employment of the people, before there could be work for lawyers; and I believe thoſe of beſt value amongſt them do not think their growth and gain contribute to either in the advantage of the nation, though without the profeſſion there can be no ſecuring property; but, perhaps, the numbers make more work than there would be if they were leſs: Hamburgh, though a place of great trade, allows but two: and, though our foreign plantations are filled with men of no better principles than they leave behind them, yet they have few among them who raiſe their fortunes by the law; for which no reaſon can be given, but that there is not a foundation and nurſery for that profeſſion to breed up men of learning and ingenuity in.

I have been the longer on this ſubject, becauſe there ſeems to me an expedient in this matter; and that is, to make ſuch proviſion for noblemens and gentlemens children, as may be equally reputable with the inns of court, for young gentlemen to come to from the uuiverſities, and, with leſs charge than their expence in ſeven years ſtudying the law, become expert in trade.

To be thus managed: in each maritime city and conſiderable port of the kingdom, to have a COLLEGE built, in which there may be ſome perſons of experience in trade, to teach and direct in the myſtery of it, to all parts of the world: and, that they may have the practice, as well as theory, that every perſon entering himſelf into the ſociety may be obliged to bring in a thouſand pounds ſtock, which will make a capital, perhaps, of 20 or 30,000 l. ſterling, to traffic with in 30 cities, &c. in the kingdom: they to be obliged to ſpend five years in this ſociety, and at the end of that term, to receive the principal they brought, allowing the caſualty of profit and loſs, as it happens: going thus out, they will be entered in trade, and probably have a fund to begin with; and, by this means, trade will fall into the hands of gentlemen, perſons of learning and conſideration in the nation, and likewiſe preſerve from misfortunes numbers that now miſcarry in their ſtudies of the law, through ill converſation, and having no employments.

To this project (a word now traduced to contempt, though in itſelf of good ſignification both for peace and war) I foreſee two objections that will be made againſt it, and they are theſe:

Firſt, This will make too many merchants.

Secondly, That this will leave no room for younger brothers, that have nothing to prefer them in the world but a ſmall ſum to put them apprentice to a merchant, by which they often raiſe their fortunes in the world.

To the firſt I anſwer, That the evil of having too many merchants is in the numbers that are bred up from apprentices, many of which, coming into buſineſs without FUNDS, ſtrain their credit, which to keep above water, they are forced to venture at all ways that have but a probability of ſucceſs, to keep themſelves in buſineſs, and then, to comply with their credit, often fall to loſs, which in the end brings them to misfortune, and that begets an opinion that there are too many traders; whereas the true reaſon is the want of STOCK, not NUMBER of merchants.

The ſecond objection, That this will hinder merchants from taking apprentices, is in part anſwered in the firſt, that their number prejudices trade: but there is a farther conſideration in this matter, and that is, two ſorts of youths ſtand candidates for a mercantile education, gentlemen with a capital, others of leſs quality, with none. I think it will admit of no queſtion which ſhall be preferred, and that the other may be more profitably employed for the nation and themſelves, in trades that require more labour and leſs ſtock.

But, after all I have ſaid, my wiſhes are greater than my expectation, to ſee trade thus courted in a kingdom that treats it as ſome do their wives, conſidering them no farther than to the production of a legitimate poſterity, reſerving their careſſes and delights for a miſs: ſo the humour of this age ſeems to incline, whilſt foreign commerce is neglected, and mens thoughts and deſigns run after offices and employments in the ſtate; to pay which, ſpider like, the nation ſpins out her bowels to catch flies; and the ſimile goes farther, ſuch food turns into poiſon, where it feeds men faulty in their morals; and ſuch too often ſupplant better men, or find ways to be preferred before them: to ſay this will be no offence to deſerving men; and, for others, I ſhall only deſire them to ſuſpend their reſentments until the ſecond part comes forth, and

then they will have more reaſon, becauſe it will come in my way to be more particular, when I come to ſpeak of the trade of Ireland; in which there have of late been ſuch notorious demonſtrations how ill men in offices and places of truſt may ruin and deſtroy a kingdom, as admits of no defence. I have for this the authority of both houſes of parliament, in their addreſſes to the king: and the infallible author tells us, That he who ſaith to the wicked, Thou art righteous, the people will curſe, nations ſhall abhor him.' Sir Francis Brewſter's Eſſays on Trade and Navigation, 1695.

And now it may be proper juſt to review what we may reaſonably expect to be the obvious and apparent conſequences of this inſtitution to the public, which will be chiefly comprehended under the following particulars, viz.

I. It will raiſe a noble ſpirit of emulation among our young Britiſh merchants to excel each other in the arts of merchandizing; from whence the nation in general, as well as individuals, may reap unſpeakably more benefit and advantage by trade and navigation.

II. It will enable our young merchants the better to cope with foreigners, in all the methods of negociating mercantile buſineſs of every kind, which may prevent their being made the dupes of ſome of thoſe ſubtle traders who are very artful in drawing young people of good fortunes into ſchemes of trade, which always prove beneficial to the one, but very often greatly injurious to the other.

III. It will qualify ſuch young people who may be placed at ſeveral of the Britiſh factories abroad, to promote each other's intereſt in the way of trade, in a manner not ſo generally known and underſtood, as well as the intereſt of thoſe who ſhall continue at home.

IV. It will capacitate them ſo to correſpond with foreign nations, as to obtain the moſt uſeful kind of intelligence from time to time; whereby they will the better know when and where there is money to be got, by trading between one foreign nation and another, as well as between their own and others.

V. It will qualify them either to be particular or general merchants; or particular ones generally, and general ones occaſionally; wherein conſiſts the judgment, in ſome meaſure, of the moſt ſkilful and vigilant merchant.

VI. It may have a tendency to convince the younger branches of our moſt honourable families, that the art of merchandizing does not require ſuch mean talents as ſome of them have been wont to think; but that, on the contrary, there is ſcope enough to employ the moſt capacious underſtanding, and the fineſt genius: and that foreign trade affords as large a field for profit and honour as any other employment whatever.

VII. It cannot fail to have the happieſt tendency to prevent misfortunes and bankruptcies amongſt thoſe merchants who ſhall be thus regularly bred.

VIII. It may give the young merchant ſo good a knowledge of the fundamental principles and maxims of policy, whereupon the true intereſt of the national commerce is grounded, as to render them the better capable hereafter to diſtinguiſh themſelves in the promotion of the ſame, upon all public occaſions and emergencies.

IX. It may prove of benefit and advantage to the lawyer, the gentleman, and nobleman, in the lights wherein repreſented, to paſs a year or two in this college, even after he has left any other univerſity.

Remarks upon this article of Mercantile College.

1. The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, by the references we have made throughout this article, that our Dictionary of Commerce is eminently calculated for the accompliſhment of the Britiſh merchant in whatever we have pointed out as the moſt eſſentially neceſſary for him to be inſtructed in, and may prove as helpful to the profeſſors in ſuch a college, as to the ſtudents themſelves.

2. That an inſtitution of this kind will raiſe the character of the merchant to ſuch a degree of knowledge in this employment, as will render him capable of embracing or ſtriking out every kind of honourable advantage which the nature of his employment will admit of, and thereby put him above the ſcandalous arts of robbing the public revenue, or breaking to grow rich upon the ruin of his creditors: in brief, a collegial courſe of erudition will excite the younger branches of the beſt families in the kingdom, with fortunes ſuitable, to commence merchants, and, conſequently, will tend abſolutely to exclude from this reſpectable profeſſion all low-bred people, deſtitute of fortune as well as education.

3. That this inſtitution is adapted to form perſons of worth and quality in general, for the accompliſhed men of buſineſs * of any kind, the better to enable them to preſerve and improve their eſtates, be they either in land, or in the public funds.

* The lord Verulam touches upon the Doctrine of Business; which, notwithſtanding he has conſidered it in a light ſomething different to what the judicious reader will obſerve we mean by it, from the drift of our Dictionary; yet, having ſo near an affinity with what we aim at, that great man's ſentiments may well deſerve attention in this reſpect.

'1. We divide the doctrine of buſineſs, ſays lord Bacon, 'into the doctrine of various occaſions, and the doctrine of 'riſing in life. The firſt includes all the poſſible variety of 'affairs, and is as the amanuenſis to common life; but the 'other collects and ſuggeſts ſuch things only as regard the 'improvement of a man's private fortune; and may, therefore, ſerve each perſon as a private regiſter of his affairs. '2. No one hath hitherto treated the doctrine of buſineſs 'ſuitably to it's merit, to the great prejudice of the character both of learning and learned men: for from hence 'proceeds the miſchief which has fixed it as a reproach 'upon men of letters, that learning and civil prudence are 'ſeldom found together. And, if we rightly obſerve thoſe 'three kinds of prudence which we lately ſaid belong to 'civil life, that of converſation is generally deſpiſed by 'men of learning as a ſervile thing, and an enemy to contemplation; and, for the government of ſtates, though 'learned men acquit themſelves well when advanced to the 'helm, yet this promotion happens to few of them: but, 'for the preſent ſubject, the prudence of buſineſs, upon 'which our lives principally turn, there are no books extant about it, except a few civil admonitions, collected into a little volume or two, by no means adequate to the 'copiouſneſs of the ſubject. But, if books were written 'upon this ſubject, as upon others, we doubt not that 'learned men, furniſhed with tolerable experience, would 'far excel the unlearned, furniſhed with much greater experience, and outſhoot them in their own bow (a).'

(a) 'This may be extended to civil knowledge in general, ſo as to 'comprehend not only politics, converſation, and buſineſs, but alſo 'commerce, and the particular arts of agriculture, navigation, architecture, war, trades, &c. for a man of general knowledge, ſuch 'as the author, or Mr. Boyle, for inſtance, muſt needs be more capable of improving any particular arts or ſciences than a perſon 'wholly bred up to and employed about one buſineſs only.' Shaw's note.

4. That, although a method of education, accommodated to the man of buſineſs in a manner ſo ſuperior to what is generally given him, may be attended with a greater expence, yet, it is to be hoped, that will never be an objection againſt it's public eſtabliſhment, it being intended only for ſuch people of condition and fortune who can and will chearfully afford it.

'It is the worſe ſort of huſbandry, ſays the great Mr. Locke, 'for a father not even to ſtrain himſelf a little for a ſon's education, which, let his condition be what it will, is the beſt 'portion he can give him.

'He, as the ſame author continues, that at any rate procures 'his child a good mind, well principled, tempered to virtue 'and uſefulneſs, and adorned with civility and good breeding, makes a better purchaſe for himſelf than if he had laid 'out the money for an addition of acres: ſpare it in toys and 'play-games, in ſilks, ribbons, and laces, and other uſeleſs 'expences, as much as you pleaſe, but be not ſparing in ſo 'neceſſary a part as this. It is not good huſbandry to make 'his fortune rich, and his mind poor; and I have often, with 'great admiration, ſeen people laviſh it profuſely in tricking 'up their children in fine cloaths, lodging and feeding them 'ſumptuouſly, allowing them more than enough of uſeleſs 'ſervants, and yet, at the ſame time, ſtarve their minds, 'and not take ſufficient care to cover that which is the moſt 'ſhameful nakedneſs, viz. their natural wrong inclinations 'and ignorance. This I can look on as no other than a ſacrificing to their own vanity, it ſhewing more their pride 'than true care of the good of their children: whatſoever 'you employ to the advantage of your ſon's mind, will ſhew 'your true kindneſs, though it be to the leſſening of your 'eſtate. A wiſe and good man can hardly want either the 'opinion or reality of being great and happy; but he that is 'fooliſh or vicious can be neither great nor happy, whatſoever 'you leave him. I aſk you, whether there be not ſome men 'in the world whom you had rather have your ſon be, with 'Five Hundred Pounds per annum, than ſome others 'you know with Five Thousand?'

Of the erecting of the propoſed College.

Do not the famous univerſities of this nation demonſtrate, that there is no people in the world more liberal in their donations towards the building of colleges for every literary kind of inſtitution? And ſhall we entertain an opinion that a Mercantile College will not one day obtain an eſtabliſhment in this kingdom, which may enable the nation the better to ſupport all others? Shall we be daily very bountiful in our ſubſcriptions towards the erection and ſupport of infirmaries and hoſpitals, for the maintenance of the poor; and ſhall we not think of the erection of a college, which will impower individuals the more generouſly to contribute to the ſupport of ſuch laudable charities? Is there leſs wiſdom in the eſtabliſhment of a ſeminary to guard merchants againſt misfortunes, than to provide a college for them after their ruin? Shall the nation never have another Gresham nor a Sutton? But, if no individual ſhould ever think of an eſtabliſhment of this kind, what is it that the merchants of this kingdom are not able to do from their own purſes? Or, why may not their application to parliament be attended with the deſirable ſucceſs, if the public ſhould be lukewarm to promote this deſign in another ſhape? Will it be leſs honour to the kingdom to build a college for the education of her merchants, than a repoſitory for the productions of nature and arts? Is it not the induſtry and ingenuity

gennity of the merchant that ſtamp a value upon thoſe productions, and are the great ſupport of all art and ſcience? Is not the merchant daily called upon to take a ſhare in the legiſlative power, and why ſhall not ſuch a reſpectable member of the community be trained up with advantages equal to the other principal claſſes of people in the ſtate?

MERCHANT-COURT, or COURT-MERCHANT, is a kind of judicatory power inveſted in merchants, choſen for that purpoſe in ſeveral parts of Europe, in order to decide and determine, in a ſummary way, all differences and litigations among themſelves and their dependants.

'Courts of merchants ſhould be erected for the ſpeedy deciding all differences relating to ſea affairs, ſays the judicious Mr. Carey, which are better ended by thoſe who underſtand them, than they are in Weſtminſter-Hall, where all things are tried by the nice rules of law; and, therefore, after much attendance and expence, are often referred by the judges to ſuch as are converſant in trade. By this means the merchants would ſoon ſee ſhort ends to their differences; but no general rules can be given for theſe courts, which muſt be ſettled as they ſuit the conveniencies of trading cities.'

'I aſk pardon of the learned gentlemen of the long robe, ſays the remarkable De Foe, if I do them any wrong, having no deſign to affront them, when I ſay, that, in matters of debate among merchants, when they come to be argued by lawyers at the bar, they are ſtrangely handled. I myſelf have heard very famous lawyers make ſorry work of a cauſe between the merchant and his factor; and, when they come to argue about exchanges, diſcounts, proteſts, demurrages, charter-parties, freights, port-charges, aſſurances, barratries, bottomries, accounts current, accounts in commiſſion, and accounts in company, and the like, the ſolicitor has not been able to draw a brief, nor the counſel to underſtand it: never was young parſon more put to it to make out his text, when he's got into the pulpit without his notes, than I have ſeen a counſel at the bar, when he would make out a cauſe between merchants: and I remember a pretty hiſtory of a particular caſe, by way of inſtance, when two merchants contending about a long factorage-account, that had all the niceties of merchandizing in it, and labouring on both ſides to inſtruct their counſel, and to put them in when they were out; at laſt they found them make ſuch ridiculous ſtuff of it, that they both threw up the cauſe, and agreed to a reference; which reference, in one week, without any charge, ended all the diſpute, which they had ſpent a great deal of money in before to no purpoſe.

'Nay, the very judges themſelves (no reflection upon their learning) have been very much at a loſs in giving inſtructions to a jury, and juries much more to underſtand them; for, when all is done, juries, which are not always, nor often, indeed, of the wiſeſt men, are, to be ſure, ill umpires in cauſes ſo nice, that the very lawyer and judge can hardly underſtand them.

'The affairs of merchants are accompanied with ſuch variety of circumſtances, ſuch new and unuſual contingencies, which change and differ in every age, with a multitude of niceties and punctilio's; and thoſe again altering as the cuſtoms and uſages of countries and ſtates do alter, that it has been found impracticable to make any laws that could extend to all caſes: and our law itſelf does tacitly acknowledge it's own imperfection in this caſe, by allowing the cuſtom of merchants to paſs as a kind of law, in caſes of difficulty.

'Wherefore it ſeems to me a moſt natural proceeding, that ſuch affairs ſhould be heard before and judged by ſuch as, by known experience and long practice in the cuſtoms and uſages of foreign negoce, are of courſe the moſt capable to determine the ſame.

'Beſides the reaſonableneſs of the argument, there are ſome caſes in our laws in which it is impoſſible for a plaintiff to make out his caſe, or a defendant his plea; as, in particular, when his proofs are beyond ſeas, for no proteſts, certifications, or procurations, are allowed in our courts as evidences; and the damages are infinite and irretrievable by any of the proceedings of our laws.

'For the anſwering all theſe circumſtances, a court might be erected by authority of parliament, to be compoſed of ſix judges commiſſioners, who ſhould have power to hear and decide as a court of equity, under the title of A Court-Merchant.

'The proceedings of this court ſhould be ſhort, the trials ſpeedy, the fees eaſy, that every man might have immediate remedy where wrong is done: for, in trials at law about merchants affairs, the circumſtances of the caſe are often ſuch, as the long proceedings of courts of equity are more pernicious than in other caſes, becauſe the matters to which they are generally relating, are under greater contingencies than in other caſes, as effects in hands abroad, which want orders, ſhips and ſeamen lying at demurrage, and in pay, and the like.

'Theſe ſix judges ſhould be choſen of the moſt eminent merchants of the kingdom, to reſide in London, and to have power by commiſſion to ſummon a council of merchants who ſhould decide all caſes on the hearing of both parties, with appeal to the ſaid judges.

'Alſo to delegate by commiſſion petty councils of merchants, in the moſt conſiderable ports of the kingdom, for the ſame purpoſe.

'The ſix judges themſelves to be only judges of appeals; all trials to be heard before the council of merchants, by methods and proceedings ſingular and conciſe.

'The council to be ſworn to do juſtice, and to be choſen annually out of the principal merchants of the city.

'The proceecings here ſhould be without delay; the plaintiff to exhibit his grievance by way of brief, and the defendant to give in his anſwer, and a time of hearing to be appointed immediately.

'The defendant, by motion, ſhall have liberty to put off hearing, upon ſhewing good cauſe, not otherwiſe.

'At hearing, every man to argue his own cauſe, if he pleaſes, or introduce any perſon to do it for him.

'Atteſtations and proteſts from foreign parts, regularly procured, and authentickly ſignified in due form, to paſs in evidence; affidavits in due form, likewiſe atteſted and done before proper magiſtrates within the king's dominion, to be allowed as evidence.

'The party grieved may appeal to the ſix judges, before whom they ſhall plead by counſel, and from their judgment to have no appeal.

'By this method, infinite controverſies would be avoided, and diſputes amicably ended, a multitude of preſent inconveniencies prevented, and merchandizing matters would in a merchant like manner be decided, by the known cuſtoms and methods of trade.'—So far De Foe.

'Notwithſtanding there be in the capital of Spain, ſays a judicious Spaniſh author, a board of trade, compoſed of miniſters of great merit, I apprehend it would be good policy to introduce into it a greater number of perſons of underſtanding and ſkill in commerce, either from their own experience in mercantile affairs, or by being long employed in offices that have a connection with trade, or by having made this important intereſt their particular ſtudy. But, to explain theſe and other meaſures tending to make this board more extenſively uſeful, it will be neceſſary to conſider the thing more fully.

'In ſeveral towns of France, and other kingdoms, there are conſulſhips [ſee the article CONSULS] or courts made up of private perſons, of good underſtanding, as well for the better conduct and advancement of commerce, as to decide SPEEDILY, and at SMALL CHARGE, all cauſes and diſputes that may ariſe in buſineſs; a cuſtom which it is our intereſt to imitate in thoſe cities of Spain that have the beſt diſpoſition for trade (as it has been ordered at Burgos, &c.) but it requires one to enter farther into particulars, in order to lay down ſuch a plan as will ſecure to the public all thoſe advantages it may receive from thence; and I ſhall advance no farther at preſent than to obſerve, that theſe courts ſhould have a conſtant correſpondence with the ſuperior board or council of commerce reſiding in the capital, and to which they ought to be ſubordinate.'

The ſubſtance of Sir Joſiah Child's opinion in regard to the eſtabliſhment of a MERCHANT-COURT.

'I have conceived great hopes, ſays he, that this kingdom will at length be bleſſed with a happy method for the ſpeedy, eaſy, and cheap deciding of differences between merchants, maſters of ſhips, and ſeamen, &c. by ſome court or courts of merchants, like thoſe which are eſtabliſhed in moſt of the great cities and towns in France, Holland, and other places; the want of which in England is, and has ever been, a great bar to the progreſs and grandeur of the trade of this kingdom.

For inſtance, if merchants happen to have differences with maſters and owners of ſhips, upon charter-parties, or accounts beyond ſea, &c. the ſuit is commonly firſt commenced in the admiralty-court, where, after tedious attendance and vaſt expences, probably juſt before the cauſe ſhould come to determination, it is either removed into the delegates, where it may hang in ſuſpence 'till the plaintiff and defendant have empty purſes and grey heads; or elſe, becauſe moſt contracts for maritime affairs are made upon the land (and moſt accidents happen in ſome rivers or harbours here, or beyond ſea, and are not in alto mari) the defendant brings his writ of prohibition, and removes the cauſe into his majeſty's court of King's-Bench; where, after great expences of time and money, it is well if we can make our own counſel, being common lawyers, underſtand one half of our CASE, we being amongſt them as in a foreign country, our language ſtrange to them, and theirs as ſtrange to us. After all, no atteſtations of foreign notaries, not even public inſtruments from beyond ſea, being evidences at law, and the accounts depending, conſiſting, perhaps, of an hundred or more ſeveral articles, which are as ſo many iſſues at law, the cauſe muſt come into Chancery, where, after many years tedious travels to Weſtminſter, with black boxes and green bags, when the plaintiff and defendant have tired their bodies, diſtracted their minds, and conſumed their eſtates, the cauſe, if ever it be ended, is commonly,

monly, by order of that court, referred to merchants, ending miſerably, where it might have had at firſt a happy iſſue, if it had begun right.

From whence follow theſe national inconveniencies:

1. It is a vaſt expence to the perſons concerned.

2. It takes off men from following their callings, to the public loſs, as well as the particular damages of the party concerned, that time being loſt to the nation which is ſpent in law-ſuits.

3. It makes men, after they have once attained indifferent eſtates, to leave trading, and, for eaſe, to turn country gentlemen; whereas ſkilful and experienced men are the only perſons that might match other nations in trade.

4. It is, in my opinion, a great cauſe of the prodigality, idleneſs, and injuſtice of many of our maſters of ſhips in England, and, conſequently, a wonderful bar to the growth of our Engliſh navigation; who knowing that their owners cannot legally eject them, eſpecially if the maſter have a part of the ſhip himſelf: but that remedy to the owners will be worſe than the diſeaſe, which occaſions maſters to preſume to do thoſe things, and be guilty of ſuch neglects as naturally they would not, if they ſtood more upon their good behaviour.

I could ſay much more of the damage this nation ſuſtains by the want of a law-merchant; but that is ſo evident to all men's experience, that I ſhall not longer inſiſt upon it, but proceed humbly to propoſe ſome particulars; which, being duly conſidered, may peradventure by wiſer heads be improved towards the cure of this evil, viz.

1. That it be enacted, That there ſhall be erected, within the city of London, a ſtanding court-merchant, to conſiſt of twelve able merchants, ſuch as ſhall be choſen by the liverymen of the ſaid city, in their common hall, at the time, and in the manner herein after limited and appointed.

2. That the ſaid twelve perſons ſo to be elected, or any three or more of them, ſitting at the ſame time and place, and not otherwiſe, ſhall be accounted judiciary merchants, and authorized to hear and determine all differences and demands whatſoever, which have ariſen, and are not otherwiſe determined, or may any ways ariſe between merchants, tradeſmen, artificers, maſters and owners of ſhips, ſeamen, boatmen, and freighters of ſhips, or any other perſons having relation to merchandizing, trade, or ſhipping, for or concerning any accounts of merchants, freights of ſhip or goods, bill or bills of exchange, or bills of bottomry, or for work done upon, or materials delivered to the uſe of any ſhip, or money due for ſale of goods, or any other things relating to trade or ſhipping.

3. That any three or more of them, as the judges did lately at Clifford's-Inn, may proceed ſummarily to the hearing and determining of any ſuch differences, and that their ſentence ſhall be final, from which there ſhall be no appeal or review, otherwiſe than as is herein after-mentioned, nor any writ of error lie for the removal or reverſal of the ſame.

4. That they, or any three of them, may ſo iſſue out ſummonſes for convening all perſons before them, as the judges did, &c.

5. That they be a court of record, as the judges were, &c.

6. That they take nothing for their own pains, directly or indirectly, but ſix-pence each for ſigning every final order in every cauſe whereof the value of money to be paid does not exceed 10l. and twelve-pence for all cauſes not exceeding the value of 100l. and only two ſhillings each for all cauſes exceeding the value of 100l.

The ſaid fees to be due and payable only to ſuch and ſo many of the ſaid judiciary merchants as heard the ſaid cauſes, and ſigned the judgments or final decrees.

7. That, for rewards to officers, the juſticiary merchants do conſtitute a table of reaſonable fees, to be confirmed by the two lord chief juſtices, and lord chief baron of the Exchequer.

8. That, in any caſe determined by a leſs number than ſeven of the ſaid judiciary merchants, there may be an appeal to ſeven or more, as was lately practiſed in the afore-mentioned judicature.

9. That they may have power to levy execution upon eſtates real or perſonal, with ſuch reſtrictions as the parliament ſhall pleaſe to appoint.

10. That the extent of the juriſdiction of the ſaid court ſhall be to all places within 10 miles of London, or only to the late lines of communication, as the parliament ſhall think fit.

11. That the ſaid judiciary merchants and their officers, before they exerciſe their authority, do take ſuch oaths as the parliament ſhall pleaſe to appoint.

12. That, if any of the judiciary merchants be proſecuted for exerciſing any of the powers that ſhall be committed to them, they may plead the general iſſue, and give the act in evidence for their defence.

13. That no writ or writs of ſuperſedeas, certiorari, or injunction, out of any of his majeſty's courts, ſhall ſuperſede or ſtay execution, &c.

14. The act to continue probationarily ſo long as the parliament ſhall think fit.

15. That the twelve judiciary merchants ſhall be choſen yearly, by all the freemen that are liverymen of London, in the Guild-Hall of the ſaid city, or by ſo many of them as ſhall be preſent at ſuch elections, upon every Monday yearly before the feaſt of St. Michael, or as the parliament ſhall appoint, in manner following:

Every liveryman then preſent to deliver unto any two ſuch aldermen and four commoners as the lord mayor and court of aldermen for the time being ſhall appoint, to take the view or ſcrutiny of election, a paper containing the names of ſuch twelve perſons as he thinks beſt to be elected for the purpoſes aforeſaid, ſetting his the ſaid elector's own name on the backſide of the ſaid paper; and the next Monday after, in the ſaid Guild-Hall, the ſaid two aldermen and four commoners, or as many of them as ſhall have taken the ſcrutiny, ſhall publicly declare unto the lord mayor, aldermen, and commoners then preſent, who are the twelve perſons choſen by the majority of votes, and how many votes each of them had.

16. If it happen that any of the judiciary merchants die before the end of the year, or refuſe to undertake the truſt, it be lawful for the liverymen to chuſe another or others, toties quoties, and the lord mayor be enjoined to ſummon halls for that purpoſe.

17. That every year ſix of the old judiciary merchants go off in courſe, and be incapable of being re-elected, and ſix new ones choſen in their ſtead, viz. all the twelve to be rechoſen, but only ſix of the old ones, that had the moſt voices, to hold the next year, although more of them ſhould happen to be elected for the next year.

Objection I. The objections that I can foreſee will be made againſt this conſtitution are, that it thwarts that moſt excellent order of our Engliſh juries.

Anſwer I. I anſwer, That I hope there is no Engliſhman more in love with juries than myſelf; but it is evident that the common way of trials does not well reach the variety and ſtrangeneſs of merchants caſes, eſpecially in relation to foreign affairs.

Anſwer II. What better jury can a merchant hope for, than twelve able and honeſt merchants, choſen by the collective body of the whole city, and ſuch as ſhall all of them ſtand upon their good behaviour, to be turned out with ignominy the next year, if they do not equal right to all men?

Objection II. The admitting of no appeals from a court merchant ſeems too arbitrary.

I anſwer; while we chuſe our judges ourſelves for merchants caſes, and may remove them ourſelves, in my opinion, they can be no more too arbitrary than too much power can be given to referees, when both parties deſire an end of their differences: beſides, if their power be not great, the deſign of cheap, ſpeedy, and ſhort iſſues, will be loſt. But, if it ſhall pleaſe the parliament, there may be in the act an appeal reſerved to the houſe of lords; the money condemned to be paid or depoſited before the appeal be allowed.'

An edict of Henry II. king of France, concerning the MERCHANT-COURT of the city of Rouen.

The preamble only relating to the eſtabliſhment of an exchange for the aſſembling of the merchants, we ſhall paſs that over, and only take notice of what relates to the point under conſideration.

'And, for the greater eaſe and advantage of the merchants of our city of Rouen, and being deſirous to gratify them in every thing, as far as it is poſſible, that they may not be diſtracted, and drawn off from their other buſineſs and affairs, by being obliged to give their attendance at ſundry courts of judicature, by reaſon of ſuits and pleas occaſioned by litigations and differences ariſing among them in their traffic: our will and pleaſure is, that the merchants of our ſaid town of Rouen, as well natives as foreigners, frequenting the ſaid place, ſhall every year cauſe a ſociety of merchants to meet in the lodge of the ſaid bourſe, at what time they think fit; out of which ſociety of merchants they ſhall chuſe three officers, viz. one PRIOR and TWO CONSULS, who ſhall remain in authority one year, at the end of which new ones ſhall again be choſen, by the plurality of voices: which election and nomination being fully ended, the ſaid prior and conſuls ſhall have preſent power in them to take knowledge, and to give judgment between all men, of what eſtate, quality, or condition ſoever they be, of all ſuits, controverſies, and differences touching matters of MERCHANDIZING, or buying and ſelling, in manner as the conſervator of the fair at Lyons, and the prior and conſuls at Thouloufe do, as well for obligations, bills of debt, receipts, blanks, ſigned bills of exchange, ſecurities, aſſociations, and partnerſhips of merchants, either general or particular; alſo of aſſurances, accompts, tranſports and contracts for matters aforeſaid, or any thing belonging thereunto; with all full power, and according to the manner, judgments, and condemnation of the ſaid conſervator of Lyons, and prior and conſuls of Thouloufe; and the judgments and ſentences, decrees and ordinances, commiſſions and commandments of the ſaid prior and conſuls of Rouen, by ſpeeches, proviſions, or ſentences definitive, ſhall remain in as much force and effect for any matter judicially determined, as the cauſes which the conſervator of Lyons, and prior and conſuls of Thouloufe, and divers other of our judges do decide: and the ſame ſhall be executed by our ſerjeants and officers, in ſuch manner and form as they are in their behalf

above-

above-named, either by committing to priſon, or by inflicting other puniſhments, if it be ſo decreed and ordained; and to that end ſhall our meſſengers and officers be bound to perform the executions, and our goalers and keepers of priſons ſhall likewiſe be bound to keep all ſuch priſoners in ſuch manner as if they were committed unto them by our aboveſaid judges, with the like bond and penalty (if any eſcape happen) as they are bound to keep the priſoners to them committed by the authority of the ſaid judges: for ſo we have enjoined, and do enjoin our meſſengers, and other officers, goalers, and keepers of priſons, upon ſuch penalties as the caſe ſhall require, and according as by the ſaid prior and conſuls ſhall be limited and appointed with regard to the demerits of the offenders.

Moreover, we have permitted, and do permit, if need be, that our ſaid prior and conſuls do take unto them twenty of the ſaid merchants, or a greater or a ſmaller number, as they ſhall think convenient, to aſſiſt them in their proceedings and judgments in cauſes of merchandize, bills of exchange, aſſurances and differences as aforeſaid, and to cauſe to be executed their ſentences, judgments, and ordinances of pledges and conſignments, proviſions, ſeizing of goods, and all other condemnations, ſentences, or appointments, to proceed therein by criers and proclamations, giving notice to the parties concerned themſelves, or leaving notice at their houſes by proof, ſales, depoſitings, deliveries, and definitive execution, as the caſe ſhall require.

And we likewiſe give them power to direct the ſame proceſs, and to proceed therein according to the ordinances, as well in matters ſummarily as by proviſion, as acknowledgment of bills, ſubſcriptions, and bills of exchange: and the like in regard to pledges and conſignments, upon one only default, duly proved by ſummoning the perſon at his houſe, or fixing there a copy of the commiſſion, or proceſs, in all places where it is lawfully to be done.

And touching other matters, where two defaults ſhall be made, or perſons twice ſummoned, they ſhall proceed, obſerve, and keep their courſe according to the king's ordinances. And for all matters wherein they ſhall give ſentence of execution to paſs in all places of our court of parliament at Rouen, and in all other places of our kingdom, where need ſhall require, without any diſturbance or moleſtation to be made by any of our judges, juſtices, or officers, either againſt them or their deputies; neither ſhall they let or hinder any ſummons or arreſt, exploit or aſſignment to be done before them: and to give their aſſiſtance in cauſes appertaining to, or touching matters of traffic, and all things thereunto belonging, againſt all merchants trading in our ſaid city of Rouen, and their factors, agents, and dealers, ſent by them into other countries, regions, or provinces, as well within as without our kingdom, countries, and dominions under our obedience for the cauſe of traffic, merchandize, and buſineſs of trade, and all things whatſoever thereunto belonging.

And we will and ordain, that they may bring their cauſes and proof for all matters aforeſaid, before the ſaid prior and conſuls for the time being, whether it be for the rendering of account and ſatisfaction of part or of whole, or condemnation in penalties, or other condemnations for fines or treſpaſſes, and for all other things that ſhall be requiſite, concerning and belonging to trade and merchandize, according as they ſhall deſerve; in which we have authorized them, and do give them power to uſe the ſame forms as the ſaid conſervator at Lyons, prior and conſuls at Thouloufe, and others our judges do: and to cauſe execution to be ſerved on the offenders, either by arreſts, attachments, and ſale of goods, or by impriſonment of the parties condemned, as they ſhall think good: prohibiting all our judges to take cognizance of any matter or plea thereunto belonging; which command ſhall be noticed unto them, and unto all perſons to whom it ſhall appertain, by the firſt of our officers or ſerjeants that ſhall be required ſo to do, whom we enjoin to perform the ſame accordingly, to the intent that the EXTRAVAGANT CHARGE AND EXPENCE that merchants might be otherwiſe put to in proſecuting their factors and ſervants before other judges, may be by that means intirely avoided.

And we have further permitted, and do give authority to the prior and conſuls to apply all ſuch penalties of money as by them ſhall be inflicted upon perſons for contempt, and other offences, the one half to our uſe, and the other half to the uſe of the aforeſaid bourſe at Rouen, allowing them, alſo, abſolute liberty and power to chuſe and conſtitute an advocate and an attorney, who ſhall by all lawful means labour to procure the benefit and advantage thereof, and defend the ſame, and ſhall direct all proceſſes and cauſes as well before the ſaid prior and conſuls, as before all other judges. And to the end that merchants may aſſemble themſelves, as well to conſult of their common affairs as to conſtitute and appoint the ſaid advocate and attorney, without being ſubject to repair to us or our judges for leave, when need ſhall require: WE will and ordain, That all judgments that ſhall paſs before the prior and conſuls, being ſealed with their ſeals, and ſigned by a clerk by them appointed, be it for impriſonment, ſale, diſpoſing of goods, or otherwiſe, ſhall be held for real and lawful, without any conſtraint to have our further commiſſion or liking, according as was permitted by our moſt illuſtrious father the king, unto the merchants of our city of Lyons, by their letters patents, given in the month of February, in the year of our Lord 1535; reſerving unto our court of parliament, at our ſaid city of Rouen, the juriſdiction and cognizance of the ſaid diſcords and differences, by way of appeal, to our parliament in our aforeſaid city of Rouen.

And to the end that all appeals proceeding from the judgments and ſentences that ſhall be given by the ſaid prior and conſuls, may be ſpeedily, and without delay, ended and determined in our ſaid court of parliament: WE have ordained, and do hereby ordain, all our loving and truſty preſidents and counſellors (holding our ſaid court of parliament) to appoint to the ſaid merchants, without delay, one day in every week, ſuch as they ſhall think convenient, to hear, determine, and decide the ſaid appeals, as recorded. And, in regard to the proceſs in writing, there ſhall another record be made, to the end that the ſaid appeals may be ended, in the SAME DAY, to avoid the prolonging of ſuits, to the RUINING and CONSUMING of the MERCHANTS.

And to the intent that the ſaid place for meeting of the merchants twice a day may be intirely quiet, and without any diſturbance, our will and pleaſure is, and we do ſtrictly command, that none of our ſerjeants or officers preſume to enter into the ſaid place, nor to make any arreſt (for any cauſe) of any perſon whatſoever, during the time of thoſe two accuſtomed hours of meeting; and, if ſuch arreſt ſhould be made during the ſaid hours, we have declared heretofore, and do declare by theſe preſents, the ſame to be void and inſufficient, charging all our judges not to have any regard thereunto.

And as we are informed that the buſineſs of aſſurance is of late greatly improved by the merchants of the ſaid city of Rouen, to the manifeſt advancement of the traffic and commerce thereof; to the end that the policies of aſſurance, and all other writings thereunto belonging, may receive full force and vigour, we have permitted, and do by theſe preſents permit, that all merchants frequenting the ſaid place (either now, or in time to come) may aſſemble themſelves as often as it ſhall be needful to nominate and chuſe by the plurality of voices, one truſty and expert merchant amongſt them, ſuch as they ſhall think meet and well underſtanding the buſineſs of aſſurance, who ſhall make and record the ſaid policies; which the inſurers ſhall under-write at all times hereafter, in the ſaid place and liberties of the ſaid city of Rouen; which merchant ſo choſen ſhall likewiſe (being thereto required) draw out accompts of ſuch ſums as ſhall happen to be due, receiving for his pains and time ſpent in performing the functions of his ſaid office, according as ſhall be thought meet by the ſaid merchants; of all which inſurances he ſhall keep a perfect and exact record, to which record and copies thereof, and all other acts and writings by him made and ſigned concerning the matter of inſurances, we will and ordain that all manner of credit ſhall be given before all judges and others, to whom it ſhall appertain: nor ſhall any other perſon or perſons whatſoever have any thing to do or meddle in the ſaid buſineſs of aſſurances, not being before choſen and admitted thereunto by the ſaid prior and conſuls, and by the ſaid merchants as aforeſaid.

And we do hereby command and give in charge to all perſons holding our courts of parliament, great conſtables, admirals, vice-admirals, ſtewards, and their deputies, and to all other judges and officers whom it ſhall concern, that they do cauſe to be read, proclaimed, and regiſtered this our preſent will, declaration, permiſſion, and ordinance, and the ſame to be obſerved and kept by all perſons accordingly, that the merchants may uſe and enjoy the force and benefit thereof, plainly and peaceably, without any contradiction: moreover, WE do charge and command our attorney-general that he do with all diligence cauſe all theſe things to be plainly and truly executed, and that he do certify us of his diligence in ſo doing. For ſuch is our pleaſure; and that notwithſtanding any ordinances, cuſtoms, ſtatutes, privileges, prohibitions, &c. to the contrary; which in this caſe, without doing prejudice to them in others, we have made void, and do make void. And, becauſe ſundry perſons may have occaſion to uſe this our grant in divers places, our pleaſure is, that credit ſhall be given to all ſuch copies thereof as ſhall be made by any of our loving and truſty notaries and ſerjeants, or under-ſecretaries, &c. in as ample manner as to the original: and, to this effect, we do give you full power and authority, and eſpecial charge and commiſſion by theſe preſents, commanding all our juſtices, officers, and ſubjects to obey you in this caſe. And to the end that this may remain eſtabliſhed for ever (our own right in all other cauſes reſerved) we have hereunto cauſed our ſeal to be put.—Given at Paris in the month of March, and in the year of our Lord 1556, and of our reign the tenth.

Signed by the KING, then in council, and ſealed with green wax, &c.

REMARKS.

We have now ſeen the ſubſtance of what has been urged in favour of the eſtabliſhment of a court-merchant in Great-Britain;

Britain; and how long ſince the ſame was firſt introduced into France, may be ſeen under the article CONSUL.

The great objection that hath been made againſt an eſtabliſhment of this nature, is, that merchants are not ſufficiently ſkilled in the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages, which have relation to their own profeſſion; and, therefore, they can never be competent judges in regard to every kind of litigation which may come before them. The experience, however, of other nations has ſhewn, that the mercantile world is contented at preſent, in the general, rather with the determinations of a judicatory of their own fraternity, than thoſe of lawyers. But, although merchants, from their long attention to concerns of this nature, and the regiſtering the reports of their predeceſſors, may, in time, become very knowing and judicious in determining differences between their brethren and their dependants, yet at the firſt commencement, they certainly muſt be very unexperienced.—But, if a mercantile college, as we have propoſed, ſhould ever take place in this nation, this would lay the proper foundation for training up merchants, as well in a knowledge of the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages, relative to their employment, as in their other eſſential qualifications. See MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

MERCURY, is a mineral, or a ponderous metallic water, agreeable to moſt metals, and judged by ſome to be the original matter, whereof all are conſtituted; it more cloſely adheres to gold, than to any other, by it's penetrating and diſſolving quality.

Mercury, or quickſilver, is the moſt heavy of all fluids, totally volatile in the fire, and incongealable by any degree of cold hitherto known. It's gravity, compared with that of ſpirit of wine, the lighteſt of all fluids, is as 14,000 to 866; it comes the neareſt in weight to lead, to which it is as 14,000 to 11,325. By bare agitation alone in a glaſs veſſel, or by being expoſed to a ſmall heat, it yields a ſoft black powder, of a ſharp braſſy taſte: a greater degree of heat changes mercury into a heavy, ſhining, red, friable powder, of a ſharp nauſeous taſte. The black and the red powder, may be revived into fluid mercury, by a more intenſe heat. Quickſilver amalgamates with gold, ſilver, lead, and tin; with copper not ſo eaſily; with zinc and biſmuth imperfectly; but has not been yet found to act on iron or the regulus of antimony. It is ſoluble in mineral acids, but with greater facility in ſome than another: vinegar, and the acids extracted from vegetables, have no effect upon it: neither have alkaline or neutral ſalts: the nitrous acid readily diſſolves it into a pellucid liquor: neither the marine or vitriolic acid acts upon it, unleſs highly concentrated. It readily joins to ſulphur, and ſublimes along with it into a red powder; from this it is eaſily ſeparated by abſorbent earths, fixed alkaline ſalts, regulus of antimony, and all metals, except gold.

It is ſometimes to be found running in the veins of the earth, in the perfect form of quickſilver, but much the greater quantity of it is drawn from a mineral ſtone called natural cinnabar.

Of extracting mercury from the ore or mineral earth.

They firſt grind the mineral earth into powder, which done, they pour a large quantity of water thereon, ſtirring the whole briſkly about, 'till the water becomes very thick and turbid. The water having ſtood 'till it be ſettled, it is poured off, and they throw on freſh, which they agitate as before. This they repeated 'till the water at length comes away perfectly clear: after which, all remaining at the bottom of the veſſel is mercury, and other mineral matter.

To this mercurial matter is added the ſcoria of iron, putting the whole in large iron retorts, and ſo diſtilling it; by which means all the heterogeneous, mineral, and terreſtrial part is ſeparated therefrom, and the mercury left pure.

THE UTILITY OF MERCURY IN WORKING THE GOLD AND SILVER MINES IN SPANISH AMERICA.

Mercury is of great uſe in the Weſt-Indies, becauſe they cannot extract the ſilver from the native mineral without it, and therefore vaſt quantities are ſent over from Old Spain every year. See the article SILVER.

No perſon is allowed to carry over quickſilver to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, but the king; and the attempting the contrary is puniſhed with death and forfeiture of goods, which does not altogether deter men from committing this offence. And, though his majeſty might conſiderably increaſe his revenue, by ſelling it at a high rate, ſince the mines without it would turn to no account, yet it has been always ordered to be ſold at the price it ſtands in, paying all charges. The quickſilver, taken out of the mine at Almaden, not ſufficing formerly to ſupply the mines of New Spain, it was ordered, that certain quantities of this metal ſhould be ſent thither from the mines of Grancavelica in Peru, by the South Sea, and about 15,000 quintals, that is, 75 tons, were ſent yearly, for three or four years. But this being found prejudicial, becauſe under this pretence they carried great quantities of China and Spaniſh commodities from New Spain to Peru, which is very prejudicial to the trade of Spain, and had always been prohibited; therefore no more quickſilver was permitted to be carried from the mines of Grancavelica.

Theſe mines falling in, and therefore yielding no quickſilver for ſome years, all the Weſt-Indies were ſupplied out of Europe, which took up vaſt quantities; for the kingdom of Peru alone requires no leſs than 6000 quintals, that is, 300 tons: abundance was, therefore, brought out of Germany, and all the provinces of the Weſt-Indies well ſtored; and, in the year 1628, there were 12,000 quintals, that is, 600 tons, in the king's warehouſe, which made it doubtful how to ſend over ſo great a quantity. The commanders of the biggeſt ſhips, made a difficulty of carrying above 2000 quintals, that is, 100 tons of quickſilver. Though the expence in New Spain be not every year ſo much, 6000 quintals have been ſent thither in one year. It is ordered, that 200 quintals, that is, ſo many hundred weight, be ſent yearly to the new kingdom of Granada, and 100 to the province of Guatimala. but this is not regularly obſerved. This commodity being ſo abſolutely neceſſary for the plate trade, when the Spaniſh flota has miſſed being ſet out, two galleons have been ſent with the quickſilver. Great intereſt has been made, that quickſilver might be ſent by the way of Buenos Ayres, on pretence that it was very chargeable carrying that which is taken out of Grancavelica to the mines of Potoſi, but it was never granted.

The quickſilver from the mine at Almaden, being brought very ſlowly to Seville, the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe are often forced to ſend officers to haſten the carts and horſes upon the road, and expreſſes to Almaden, to expedite their ſetting out. The putting it up for ſea has been always left to the care of this court, but more particularly to the factor, which has been practiſed ſeveral ways; but, that now in uſe being the beſt, it will not be amiſs to give an account of it in this place.

Every half quintal, or half hundred, is put into a ſheep's ſkin, well bound with hempen cords, and that into a tight caſk, nailed down; and three of theſe caſks, containing a quintal, or an hundred and a half, into a cheſt, which being nailed and bound over with hempen ropes, is wrapped with coarſe mats, and bound over again. Upon every cheſt is faſtened the king's arms, painted on linen cloth, and thoſe cheſts are for New Spain, for thoſe carry but a quintal that are for the firm land. It would be proper they ſhould not put it up before the galleons or flota are ready to ſail, becauſe, if they lie long, the ſkins are in danger of rotting. A commiſſary is appointed to go into the ſhips that carry quickſilver, who gives bond to the factor for the delivery of them to the king's officers at the port they are deſigned for: and, to make good the deficiencies of the regular convoy-duty, the maſters are obliged to pay for ſuch goods as they take aboard. Theſe commiſſaries are appointed by the preſident of the India-Houſe, and, being brought before the chamber of direction, give ſecurity; and, for their trouble and hazard, are allowed 12 ducats for every 18 quintals, accounted a ton, which is paid by the king's officers where they deliver the quickſilver. This commodity pays the duty for convoys, but no other, and is never carried to the cuſtom-houſe, but goes directly to the king's ſtorehouſe. See the articles AZOGA SHIPS of Spain, and DIRECTION CHAMBER of Spain.

Mercury is alſo uſed in the gilding of ſilver, and other metals.

CURIOUS OBSERVATIONS.

That the mercurial principles exiſt in vegetables.

There is a method, ſays a famous Chineſe author, of drawing mercury from wild purſlane. For this purpoſe you nced only take the little leaves of purſlane, bruiſe them in a mortar, with a peſtle of the wood of Egyptian thorn; then expoſe them to the riſing ſun for about three days, and, when they are dry, toaſt them ſo as not to deſtroy their nature and virtues; put this maſs in a well-varniſhed earthen veſſel, which you muſt cloſe well, and bury in the earth 49 days; after which, take out the veſſel, and you find quickſilver in perfection.

Nothing is more certain than this ſecret; and in the ſhops of Pekin they ſell two ſorts of mercury, the one taken from mines, which is called chapchoveir, and the other obtained from plants, which is called tſaſchonien.

Theſe different operations of the Chineſe diſcover to us, that, in the principles of plants, there is iron, which may induce us to think that there may be mercury in certain plants; and, if we reflect on the nature of plants, and ſearch for that which moſt probably contains quickſilver, we have reaſon to believe that purſlane does ſo; for, in ſhort, the Chineſe herbaliſt, who in this agree with the greateſt botaniſt of Europe, gives to purſlane the virtues that are found in mercury. The purſlane, ſays he, is cold in it's nature, kills worms, and all ſorts of vermin, and is uſefully employed againſt noxious humours, which it diſſipates; and becauſe in it's nature it is volatile, it removes obſtructions in the veſſels of the human body.

Be this as it will, it is very probable that quickſilver, drawn from plants by the ſolution and ſeparation of their principles, would be free from ſeveral impurities which naturally attend that obtained from mines; for by being exalted into the minuteſt parts of the plants, it muſt be freed from the ramous and ſulphureous fibres, with which it abounds more or leſs, and from which it is ſeparated by paſſing it thorough a ſheep's ſkin.

Should

Should this receipt by experience be found true, we may reap from it a double advantage; the firſt of which is, that everywhere, and in a ſhort time, we may procure a ſufficient quantity of mercury. The ſecond and moſt conſiderable is, that, by the quickſilver extracted from purſlane, we may judge better of the different uſes of this plant, and may determine more certainly for what time, and with what precautions, it may be uſed, according to the different ſituations of perſons, whether in health or ſickneſs. Beſides, it's juice, prepared in a certain manner, might act upon metals diſpoſed to receive it.

MERIONETHSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the ſouth by Cardiganſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the river Dovy; with Montgomeryſhire and Denbighſhire on the eaſt; Carnarvonſhire and part of Denbighſhire on the north; and the Iriſh Sea on the weſt, for a length of 35 miles. It is about 35 miles in length, from Abdyvy in the ſouth to Llanſanfred in the north-eaſt; and about 25 in breadth, from Harlech in the weſt to the oppoſite part of it on the eaſt.

The air of this country is bleak, and not very healthy, by reaſon of the vapour ariſing from the Iriſh Sea. The ſoil, being rocky, is generally as bad as the worſt in Wales, bearing but thin crops of corn; yet there is pretty good paſture in the vallies for black cattle and ſheep, which are the chief ſupport of the inhabitants; and it is well furniſhed with deer, goats, fowl, and fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are taken on the coaſt in abundance.

HARLECH, or HARLEGH, in the noth-weſt part of the county, has a harbour for ſhips, but no ſhips for the harbour.

DOLGELLY, at the foot of the mountain Idris, is an ordinary country-town, but of good account for the ſale of Welch cottons, and has an indifferent market. Here are pretty commodious inns for travellers.

BALA is the only market-town of the mountains, and is ſituate near Pimble Meer.

METALLURGY, the art of ſmelting, refining, compounding, and working metals from the mineral earth to the utenſil.

Under the articles ALLAY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, ASSAY, CINNABAR, COPPER-MINES, FLUX, GOLD, SILVER, and all the other metals, we have diſtinctly and amply treated of the divers metallurgical operations; to which we refer the reader. For what has further relation to this topic, ſee the articles METALS, MINEROLOGY, MINES, ORES, QUARTATION, SMELTING.

From what is ſaid under the preceding heads, the following particulars are obſervable.

REMARKS ON METALLURGY IN GENERAL.

1. We learn from the foregoing enquiry, that different mineral and metallic matters bear different relations to melted lead in fuſion: whence ſome of them will not mix therewith, but float on it's ſurface: that others evaporate, and others vitrify in it; whilſt ſilver and gold remain unaltered by it, and unimpaired. See the article ASSAY.

2. That the nobler metals have nearly the ſame relation to quickſilver as they have to melted lead; as being readily drank up by them both, ſo as thus to be ſeparated from other heterogeneous matters. See the article ASSAY.

3. That teſting, in the large way, is improveable by finding a properer matter than bone-aſhes, for the making of teſts, by working without bellows; and again by uſing pit-coal, and a well-contrived furnace. See ib.

4. That the art of aſſaying is hitherto imperfect, but capable of receiving conſiderable improvement from chemical and mechanical knowledge. Ib.

5. That the troubleſome and expenſive method of ſeparating gold from ſilver, by quartation, may be advantageouſly ſuperſeded, by means of fuſion, or a dexterous management of the fire. Ib.

6. That gold and ſilver are rarely rendered abſolutely pure, or ſeparated from all other kinds of metallic or mineral matters; and that to purify them in this manner requires the uſe of better methods than thoſe commonly uſed for the purpoſe, though the thing is ſtill performable by art, and a ſuitable proceſs. Ib.

7. That the particular hiſtory of common metallic fuſion is wanting, for the improvement of metallurgy. Ib.

8. That, when the ore of an imperfect metal is in immediate contact with the fire or fuel, eſpecially if charcoal, it yields the more and the better metal than when contained in a crucible, or kept from touching the coals. Ib.

9. That a languid fire leſſens the yield of an ore; but a briſk one, if not too long continued, increaſes it. Ib.

10. That the buſineſs of ſmelting in perfection depends, (1.) Upon uſing a degree of fire ſuitable to the ore. (2.) Procuring a quick and thin fuſion of the ſcoria. And, (3.) A cloſe contact of the metal with the fuel or coals. Ib.

11. That ſulphur has different effects upon the different metals; which effects being well noted, rules of practice might be thence derived, for the farther improvement of metallurgy. Ib.

12. That metalline recrements, or the ſlags of metals once ſmelted, have been wrought over again to profit, on account of the imperfect manner wherein the ores were originally treated for their metals. Ib.

13. That the ignobler metals are ſeparable from each other by the application of proper degrees of heat, ſo as to make the more fuſible melt away from the leſs fuſible, at leaſt with the aſſiſtance of lead. Ib.

14. That all metals are reducible, by burning or calcination, to terreſtrial powders, or calces; which, by being melted with any inflammable matter, aſſume their metalline form again. Ib.

15. That the great enemies to ductility, or the true metallic nature, are ſulphur, cobalt, and things compounded thereof [ſee ORES]; but that all unctuous and inflammable bodies are friendly to metals, and promote or reſtore their ductility, when melted therewith. See ASSAY.

16. That copper may be made to approach the colour of gold, and, at the ſame time, not loſe, but increaſe it's ductility, by being amalgamated with, and diſtilled from quickſilver; and that probably many artificial or compound metals are diſcoverable, by mixing various metalline and mineral bodies together, ſo as greatly to inrich and improve the art of metallurgy. See METAL.

17. That ſteel is made by a proper application of fire to iron, in a cloſe place, ſo as to prevent the open air from communicating freely with the iron.

18. That metals receive particular alterations in their texture, or conſiſtence, according to the nature of the ſolid ſubſtance, or liquor wherein they are quenched or cooled. See ib.

19. That, in general, ores are no more than a natural looſe mixture of metallic matters, along with earthy and ſulphureous ones: whence artificial ores, may be readily made, by calcining a metal with ſulphur, and mixing it with earth; ſo as, with heat, to form ſolid lumps of ore, reſembling thoſe dug out of mines. See ORES.

20. That numerous experiments remain to be made, and facts of nature, or obſervations, to be regiſtered, or the relation of bodies to be found, before this uſeful ſubjects of metallurgy can be brought to it's ultimate perfection. See ASSAY and METALS.

METALS, are a ſpecies of very ſubtile, yet opake earth, diſpoſed to form a tenacious, and, conſequently, a malleable, aggregate, which is fluid in the fire, more or leſs ſonorous in the air, and of a great degree of ponderoſity.

They are commonly divided into perfect and imperfect, and theſe again into complete and incomplete metals.

The perfect metals are ſuppoſed to be two, viz. gold and ſilver; and the imperfect ones four, viz. copper, lead, tin, and iron, which are otherwiſe ſaid to be complete metals.

The incomplete metals are biſmuth, zink, or ſpelter, regulus of antimony, and regulus of arſenic: which have weight, appearance, and fuſibility at the fire, in common with real metals, but are brittle, and all more or leſs volatile.

Yet theſe are not exactly all the ſpecies of incomplete metals; for many other ſubſtances are found thus far metallic, though neglected, either becauſe their manner of preparation and uſe remain unknown, or becauſe they may be indirectly referred to ſome of the above-mentioned claſſes.

It has been a prevailing opinion, that the imperfect metals differ only by accident from the perfect, on account either of digeſtion, or the tenacious adheſion of heterogeneous ſubſtances.

By digeſtion or concoction we here underſtand rather the effect of the operation, than the operation itſelf, viz. a cloſer combination of thoſe very attenuated particles, which in common mercury yet appear, as it were, individually diſtinct; whence, as ſingle corpuſcles, they prove unable to ſuſtain the impulſe of the fire, but are thereby raiſed in the form of a ſubtile fume into the air. Now, theſe very ſubtile and moveable particles may be conceived fixable two ways: firſt, by aggregation, ſo that ſeveral particles ſhall be tenaciouſly aggregated into one molecula. Something of this kind happens in mercury precipitated per ſe [ſee MERCURY]; which, tho' it was before exceeding volatile and fluid, ſo as to evaporate in a fume of exceeding fine parts, it is now made ſomewhat more fixed, and exhibits thoſe very ſubtile atoms joined together into more ſenſible corpuſcles, under the form of a dry powder. We do not, indeed, from hence infer, that mercury of itſelf is an immature metal, which, without the addition or ſeparation of any other thing, may be reduced to a perfect metal: let it ſuffice to have ſhewn by this phænomenon, that a greater degree of fixedneſs may be derived from an aggregative connection of particles.

Nature, according to ſome, produces every metal almoſt inſtantaneouſly. If in the bowels of a mountain, ſay they, or any deep parts of the earth, a vapour ſhould ariſe from a ſubſtance, utterly unknown to us à priori, that lay either there before, or is generated on the ſpot; or, if this ſubſtance itſelf, in the form of ſuch a vapour, ſhould ſucceſſively riſe and creep through the cavernous body of vaſt tracks of rocks, the veins and clefts of flints, or the interſtices of huge beds of leſſer ſtones, and every-where move about 'till it impinges upon a certain ſpecies of a ſubtile vitreſcible earth, which is fitted to receive it, or to become one therewith, here it muſt lodge as in it's matrix, 'till ſome more powerful impulſe diſturbs it.

We may the better conceive how this ſhould happen, from an example of that mud found at the head of ſprings, which, as Becher remarkably obſerves *, receives and concentrates the aqueous vapour, notwithſtanding the diurnal heat of the ſun. And after the ſame manner do alkalies receive and tenaciouſly detain the humid vapours of the air.

* Phyſic. Subterran. §. 11. cap. 3. §. 6.

And as vapours of a different kind, ſuch as the mercurial, arſenical, ſulphureous, &c. come to mix in certain proportions along with that original vapour, and fix therewith in a proper matrix, hence may proceed the various ſorts of perfect and imperfect, complete and incomplete metalline bodies: or from any error in the ingredients, as to proportion, &c. wrong conformations or degenerate metals may ariſe.

That the metallic principles may thus wander through the earth, in the form of vapour, ſeems countenanced by the common obſervation of thoſe mines which take their courſe near the ſurface of the earth. For, if a mineral vein lies ſhallow, it often gives manifeſt ſigns of being ſupplied with ſuch a vapour, not only in ſummer, by changing the colour of the ſtones that lie over it, but alſo in winter, by diſſolving the ſnow that lies along the tracks where it runs.

And this kind of exhalation is by the miners called the ſtorm. The like vapours alſo frequently happen by the burrows and caverns of the mine, whilſt they are digging the vein for the metal already formed therein, and ſometimes make the place very hot, ſometimes occaſion coughs and hoarſeneſs, and ſometimes again when they are large, and mixed with other mineral vapours, they prove ſuffocative. The workmen have commonly notice hereof given them by their lights ſuddenly burning larger and brighter; upon which they immediately quit the place.

At leaſt, therefore, it may more eaſily be conceived that metals ſhould be thus, as it were, inſtantaneouſly generated, than that the imperfect metals ſhould, as ſome ſuppoſe, be converted into the perfect, barely by a long-continued concoction in the earth, or by lying therein for ſome hundreds of years, without the addition of any new matter, or any diminution of the old. This ſeems very hard to conceive; but there is nothing abſurd, in allowing, that, upon a due concurrence of the metalline principles, metals ſhould be immediately produced: and that, if theſe principles meet improperly, either as to number, proportion, or heterogeneity, they ſhould either remain perpetually in that wrong ſtate of mixture they would then have, or at ſome time or other, whether ſooner or later, upon the fortuitous or natural acceſſion of ſome principle that was before deficient, they ſhould be actually perfected or deſtroyed by the admixture of one that is heterogeneous.

Caſes of this latter kind are ſometimes met with in mines; where too large a proportion of mercurial, corroſive, ſaline, arſenical matter or vapour, coming upon and adhering to the truly metallic parts of the ores, eſpecially thoſe of the imperfect metals; the parts of ſuch ores are thereby turned ſometimes into running mercury, ſometimes into cobalt, arſenic, tutty, cadmia, and ſometimes into common ſulphur.

And if, in ſuch a caſe, the mercury thus diſſolving and overflowing the metallic parts of theſe ores, be ſuppoſed to become the true mercuries of bodies, and to contain a quantity of the real metallic earth, ſo as ſometimes to be nothing but gold overpowered and rendered fluid by too great a proportion of mercury, we have little to object to ſuch a ſuppoſition: eſpecially if we conſider that it ſeems countenanced by the increaſed ſpiſſitude and ſluggiſhneſs of theſe mercuries, their greater ſpecific gravity in compariſon of common mercury, and the golden ſpot they leave behind, when evaporated upon a ſilver plate.

The contents of a metallic vein are thus frequently perverted, at the time that a ſubterraneal heat comes upon them; when, if the vein be ſuperficial, the whole maſs of metallic matter is corrupted, and thrown off into the air: whence the remaining veins are afterwards found to be nothing but an imperfect matrix, containing a ruſty red earth, like the lapis hæmatites, that runs therein after the manner of an ore indeed, but yields no metal; whence ſuch matter is by the workmen called dead metal.

This evaporation becomes ſometimes ſenſible, though without flame, or any manifeſt odour; but may be diſtinguiſhed from far, eſpecially in a dewy morning, by the undulation and fluctuation it occaſions in the air, over the whole track from which it riſes. And if, after ſuch a phænomenon, the vein be found empty of metal, the workmen in their language, ſay, the ſtorm has carried it away. But, at other times, ſuch an exhalation is attended with a violent flame, and the ſmell of burning ſulphur reaching to the diſtance of a mile, or more; when all the adjacent graſs, and other vegetables, are burnt up, and the workmen ſometimes ſcorched or ſuffocated in the mines.

But farther, if the rock, ſtones, or other mineral matters dug in the mines, or if the ſtamped ſlag, or powdered ſcoria gained in the melting of the metal, be ſtrewed upon the track of a vein, they have, after many years lying, been found impregnated with a metallic matter; probably becauſe they afforded a commodious matrix for the mineral fumes or exhalations, which every-where breathe out along the track they were laid on.

It muſt be obſerved, that one kind of heterogeneous bodies either hinders the completion of metals more than another, or obſcures them when they are complete. An example to which purpoſe we have in the gold ore that is intermixed with martial flints; where a dry, ſtyptic, powdry earth, preventing the fuſion, detains the fine ſingle particles of the perfect metal and ſeparates and wears them aſunder, when they would aggregate, and ſo prevents the ore from yielding it's true quantity of metal by fuſion, or all that is by aqua fortis found to contain.

Nor does it, perhaps, appear leſs ſtrange that ſome ores which are mixed with ſulphur, arſenic, and the like rapacious bodies, ſhould afford a leſs quantity of pure metal, when theſe volatile ſubſtances are firſt driven from them by calcination with a naked fire in the open air, than when they are either totally, or very conſiderably, detained by corroſive alkalies, quick lime, glaſs, &c. for it is manifeſt, that ſuch ſubſtances are not found to touch the ſubſtance of perfect gold brought into a body, much leſs to raiſe up or carry off any part thereof.

The truth of the caſe appears to be this: that thoſe rapacious minerals do not, in the open calcination, ſo much affect or carry off the whole individuum, or complete atoms of the gold, as ſome one or other conſtituent part of ſuch atoms, whether it be mercurial, that called ſulphureous, or earthy.

Remarks.

With relation to the ſeparation of metals from their various ores, ſee the article Metallurgy.

Of the Artificial or Factitious Metals.

The method of making Prince's Metal.

Take ſix ounces of copper, and melt it in a wind furnace; add to it an ounce of zink; then, ſtirring the whole well together, pour out the metal. The copper and the zink may be put into the crucible together, if firſt covered over with the black flux [ſee Assay and Flux] which prevents the avolation of the zink, or preſerves it's metalline form.

Remarks.

This is an expeditious method of making a fine kind of braſs; whereas the common method, with lapis calaminaris, requires a conſiderable length of time, and a violent fire: for this purpoſe they calcine and powder the calamy, then mix it with a little charcoal-duſt, and to ſeven pounds of this mixture add five of copper-plates, then, giving eleven or twelve hours fire, the copper imbibes about one third of it's weight of the calamy.

It is here remarkable, that the calamy, though no complete metallic body, nor malleable, ſhould yet conerete along with the copper, ſo as not only to increaſe it's weight, but alſo to extend with it under the hammer; which zink, in making the prince's metal, does not do, though it appears in all reſpects of a more metallic nature than calamy.

The agreements and diſagreements of theſe two bodies, zink and lapis calaminaris, may deſerve to be farther enquired into by particular experiments. The inflammability of zink is very remarkable, for it burns durably of a bluiſh-white flame in the fire, and thus reſolves into a white calx.

Many curious phænomena and unexpected reſults, happen upon mixing metallic and mineral bodies in the fire; all which deſerve to be tried, and noted as Facts that might at leaſt direct to the diſcovery of ſeveral new and uſeful mixtures, or compoſitions of metals. We might be encouraged to proſecute this enquiry, from thoſe pretty imitations of gold lately introduced, for the making of watches, buckles, cane-heads, ſnuff-boxes, &c. but, perhaps, a better imitation of gold, for theſe and other purpoſes may be obtained by M. Homberg's method of treating copper with quickſilver: for, if an amalgame be made of one part pure copper, and three parts quickſilver, and the amalgame be boiled in river water for two hours, then have the quickſilver diſtilled off, and cohobated once, the remaining copper, being now fuſed, will be found of a beautiful colour, and more ductile than common copper, ſo as to become well fitted for watch-work, gilding, and the finer machines and utenſils.

For the methods of extracting metals from their ores, ſee Metallurgy.

OLD MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN. This country lies between north latitude 7. 30. and 30. 40. and is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt by the iſthmus of Darien, or Panama; and on the north-weſt by New Mexico. It is divided into three audiences, or ſovereign diſtricts, governed by a viceroy appointed by the king of Spain.

The three diſtricts, or courts of audience, are, 1. Guadalajara; which contains the provinces of Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xaliſco, Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, and New Biſca. 2. Mexico; including the provinces of Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Tlaſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, and Ycatan. 3. Guatimala; containing the pro-

vinces of Chiapa, Sonoeuſca, Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Rica, and Veragua.

Though it lies for the moſt part within the torrid zone, yet the air is very temperate, and generally reckoned extraordinary wholeſome. It produces divers ſorts of grain, fruits, and herbs, rich mines of gold and ſilver, and good paſturage. It's chief grain is wheat, barley, pulſe and maize; the chief fruits pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, cherries, apples, figs, and coeoa-nuts; and it's principal commodities are wool, cotton, ſugar, ſilk, cocheneal, feathers, honey, balm, amber, ſalt, tallow, hides, tobaeco, ginger, and various medicinal drugs.

The Spaniards, who have long been ſole maſters of this country, have taken ſueh care to keep all foreigners out of it, that the lawful commeree between this part and Europe is in their hands, and ſubject to the direction of their crown.—To ſhew in what manner the ſame is carried on, it may be neeeſſary to explain what ſo often occurs in our news-papers, by the appellations of galleons, the flota, the flotilla, regiſter-ſhips, and guarda coſtas.

A galleon may be termed a very large old-faſhioned man of war, of three or four decks [ſee the article GALLEONS] with a vaſt deal of room for merchandizes, which ſhould be loaded only on the king's account, but are generally ſo much crouded with other goods, as to be in no condition to defend themſelves. This fleet conſiſts of eight ſuch men of war, the five largeſt of which have 50 braſs cannon, beſides an advice-frigate of 40. There are from 12 to 16 merehantmen which ſail with this fleet, with cargoes for the account of private perſons, after having purehaſed their licences at a pretty dear rate; and each of them is one half bigger, at leaſt, than is expreſſed in it's ſehedule. The chief intent of the galleons is, to carry warlikes ſtores, and other neceſſaries, for Peru: and this is what ſpecially diſtinguiſhes the galleons from the flota.

The flota, which is intended for Mexico, conſiſts of three men of war, which carry nothing but on the king's account; and the merchantmen that fail with them are uſually about 16, from 400 to 1000 tons burthen. This flota, which ſails about Auguſt, to have the favour of the winds that reign about November, to facilitate its paſſage to La Vera Cruz, commonly calls at Puerto Rico for freſh water and proviſions; and, after paſſing in ſight of Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba, aceording to the ſeaſon of the year, or the nature of the winds, paſſes either by the coaſt of Jucatan, or higher through the gulph of Mexico, to La Vera Cruz, at the bottom of it.—It's paſſage has been computed as follows, viz. from Cadiz to the Canary Iſles 250 leagues, in about 10 days; to the Antilles 800, in 20 days: to the moſt weſtern point of the iſle of Cuba 500 leagues, in 20 days; to La Vera Cruz 260 leagues, in about 12 days: in all 1810 leagues, in about nine weeks.—As the flota is deſigned to furniſh not only Mexico, but the Philippine Iſlands, they are forced to ſtay there a good while, and ſometimes to winter there.

The cargo they carry baek to Europe is not ſo rich as that of the galleons, though it is ſaid to be rieher every year than other, becauſe of the increaſe of the Spaniſh ſettlements in New Mexico.—The flota commonly leaves La Vera Cruz in May, but ſometimes not 'till Auguſt; then it ſails for the Havannah, from whence it generally returns, eſpecially in time of war, with the galleons to Old Spain. See the article FLOTA.

As ſoon as the galleons and flota are arrived at the Havannah, the flotilla, or little fleet, ſo called, becauſe it conſiſts of ſome of the lighteſt and cleaneſt ſhips is detaehed to Europe; which, beſides money and merchandize, carries an exact account thither of the contents both of the galleons and the flota, that the court may the better judge what convoy is neceſſary to be ſent for them, as well as to regulate the indulto [ſee INDULTO] proper to be levied on the merchants, in proportion to their reſpective intereſts in the galleons and flota. The flotilla conſiſts commonly of five ſhips, from 20 to 44 guns, and is employed to guard the coaſt from free-booters, as alſo to convoy the plate to Panama. The great fleet remains ſo long at the Havannah for theſe two reaſons chiefly, viz. waiting for a wind, or for the regiſter-ſhips, which they are to convoy home.

A regiſter-ſhip has it's name from it's being regiſtered, with all the effects embarked in Spain, in books kept for that purpoſe in the chamber of Seville. For, when a company of merehants there think that the European goods are much wanted at ſome partieular ports in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, they preſent a memorial to the council of the Indies, praying permiſſion to ſend a ſhip of 300 tons burthen, or under, to ſuch port; and, having obtained it, they pay a eertain ſum, between 30,000 and 50,000 pieces of eight to the crown, beſides preſents of a conſiderable value to the king's officers. Then, to prevent any ſuſpieion of fraud, they regiſter their ſhip and cargo conſiſtent with their petition and licenee: whereas the ſame ſhip, ſo regiſtered as under 300 tons, generally carries above 600 tons of goods, beſides accommodation for paſſengers.—Copies from the regiſters are tranſmitted to the governor and royal offieers at the port to which the regiſter-ſhip is bound; and ſuch is their diligence and integrity, that when the ſhip is come to an anchor, they certify after a pretended narrow enquiry, that this ſhip of 600 or 700 tons does not carry quite 300 together, and ſend baek ſuch certifieate, properly aſcertained, with the ſhip to Europe, together with a bill of lading, in the ſame ſtrain of computation *.—By theſe regiſter-ſhips 2 or 300 per cent. is ſometimes gained, which enables the owners to pay ſo liberally for cheating the king, after having firſt got the money by robbing the ſubjects.—Theſe regiſter-ſhips go yearly to Buenos Ayres, St. Martha, Porto Cavallo, and other places, to whieh neither the galleons nor flota come; yet they generally return with them, as they ſometimes go out with them, though, when outward bound, they leave them in a certain latitude.

What gave riſe to the Spaniſh guarda coſtas, as they are called, or guard ſhip, was the illicit trade ſaid by the Spaniards to be carried on in thoſe parts, ſome years ſince, by the Dutch and Engliſh, though notoriouſly by the former, partly with the connivanee of the Spaniſh governors, and partly by foree. The guarda coſta, being ſtationed at Carthagena, put an end to this miſchief for a ſhort time, by ſinking one of the interlopers, and taking two; the cargoes of whieh were worth above 100,000 l. and by hanging all at once 16 Spaniſh merchants, that, on a ſignal given, came on board from the ſhore to trade with them †. But the captains of theſe guarda coſtas, inſtead of taking real contraband traders, infeſted the Engliſh commerce ſoon after, and took what they could, without diſtinction, under frivolous pretences at firſt, and at laſt without any at all. The governors reaping vaſt profit from the prizes whieh they brought into their ports, they ſent ſueh fallacious accounts of the captures to the court of Madrid, as produced that obſtinacy of theirs which involved them in the late war with Great-Britain.

* If the officers belonging to the king of Spain will defraud their own crown of it's revenues, in their concerns with Spaniards themſelves, Spain cannot wonder that their officers ſhould countenance and encourage an illicit trade with foreigners in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; and, if the great fault lies at the door of the Spaniſh officers, the labouring oar to prevent ſuch illicit commerce lies chiefly upon the court of Spain itſelf, and not upon thoſe courts whoſe ſubjects are allured by their officers and ſubjects to carry on a contraband trade.

† Were the like meaſures ſteadily purſued, they would not only have put a temporary, but an eternal ſtop, to illicit trade. And does not this prove that the Spaniards have it in their own power to put a ſtop to this trade whenever they pleaſe?

Though the general aecounts of New Spain place mines of gold and ſilver in almoſt all the provinces, yet we are aſſured that both are only found in the Province of Mexico. Of ſilver, it is publiſhed there are no leſs than 1000 mines in the Mexican empire; but gold only is found in Veragua and New Granada. There is an exceeding great quantity of ſugar in this country, chiefly on the ſide of the gulph of Mexieo, Guaxaca, &c. ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any part of Spaniſh America; but it is chiefly conſumed in the city of Mexico, and particularly the monaſteries, in chocolate, ſweet meets, preſerves, and eonfectionary wares; of which, however, there is a vaſt deal ſent from Guaxaca, Guatimala, and other provinces, to Mexico and to Panama, from whence it is carried by ſea to Lima, Guyaquil, and Baldivia. There is a great home trade in the goods manufactured of it's cotton. They have the beſt indico in the world; and the trade in that of cocheneal is managed wholly by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena, who buy to export them to Europe. Cocheneal is found in the governments of Taſbaico and Guaxea; dyers-wood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; and ſome pearl at Vera Cruz, and the Pearl Iſlands, &c. Nicaragua, Campeachy, and Guaxca ſend great numbers of blaek cattle to Mexico. Large quantities of ſnuff are brought from the Havannah to Vera Cruz, and there ſold to the merchants of Mexieo. Cocoa, whieh is a great article in their merchandize, is chiefly produced at Guatimala, Vera Paz, Sozonuſeo, Ciudad Real, and Guaxca (which yield the beſt in America) and ſent to Los Angelos and Mexico, Panama, Lima, Carthagena, Porto Bello, and from thence to Europe. The nuns of Guaxaca have the chief manufacture of chocolate from the nut, of which it is thought more is drank in the city of Mexico than all Old Spain.

It is ſaid the people of Nicaragua and the Honduras employ 30,000 mules and horſes to carry corn, ſugar, cocoa, &c. into the inland provinces, and particularly to the city of Mexico. And, when the galleons come from Old Spain, the numbers of carriages, men and horſes employed to carry their treaſure from Mexico, and the country of Pachuca, to La Vera Cruz, are incredible.

The carriage of the European goods that come by the galleons baek again to other parts, is a very conſiderable article of trade, as is alſo the carriage of tobacco, ſugar, and other produce of Guatimala and Guaxaca, whieh comes from the ſouth coaſt by ſea to La Vera Cruz, all whieh is ſaid to employ 60,000 horſes, mules and aſſes, beſides a proportionable number of men. Cocheneal, in particular, is thus brought over the mountains from the country of Guadalaxara, 320 miles

miles north-weſt from Mexico. So much ſilver it alſo brought from Zacatecas, in the ſame province, that it is ſaid 6000 mules are employed in the carriage.

Of the ſeveral audiences in MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

I. GUATIMALA. Joſeph Acoſta, who was on the ſpot, and gives the beſt account of New Spain, in that work called his Natural and Moral Hiſtory of the Indies, makes this audience about 300 leagues in length, upon the South Sea; but it is indented by ſo many great bays in the North and South Seas, that the breadth is not half ſo much, it being in ſome places not 30 leagues, though in others 150. Acoſta ſays it is in general a fruitful country, eſpecially in Indian corn and cocoa, and abounds in cattle and good paſture.

VERAGUA. This, which is the firſt, though the leaſt province of not only the audience of Guatimala, but of North America, joins on the weſt to Coſta Rica; on the eaſt to the government of Panama; and has the North Sea on the north, and the South Sea on the ſouth.

SANTA FE', or FOY, in the middle of the province, is the place where the king of Spain keeps officers for caſting and refining of the gold. It ſtands at the head of a river that runs into the North Sea.

PUEBLO NUEVO or the NEW TOWN, ſtands in a bay of the South Sea, betwixt Baja Honda and Chiriqui, ſeven leagues from each, and 60 miles ſouth-weſt from Santa Fé, according to Moll, though others make it 75. Here is a large river, that falls into a ſandy bay; and on the eaſt ſide, where the true channel lies, there is a round hill.

Right before the mouth of the river is an iſland of the ſame name, about one league from the main. There is a low point juſt within, called Rhenchiera, where the Spaniards uſually build ſhips.

It is but three leagues up the ſtream, and may be ſeen from the road.

Pueblo has been ſeveral times taken by the buccaneers.

CHIRIQUITA, or CHIRIQUI, on the ſame coaſt, 35 miles weſt of Pueblo Nuevo, ſtands in a plain of ſavannahs, ſurrounded with coppices and farms; and the chief trade of it is in tallow and leather. The harbour lies on a pretty large river, about a league from it's mouth, and three from the town, to which is a pleaſant paſſage; but there is only one way to enter the river, and that dangerous. This river falls into the bay called Galſo-Dolce, which muſt be diſtinguiſhed from that near the bay of Honduras.

VERAGUAS, which ſtands on the river of it's name, is a poor place, and drives no other trade than working the mines, where the ſlaves are compelled to dig and waſh the earth in the neighbonring rivers, wherein bits of gold are often found as big as peas.

ST. JOHN DE CUEBLO, is an iſland upon this coaſt, which the buccaneers place 24 leagues weſt from Panama, and ſix from Pueblo Nuevo, and makes 12 leagues in compaſs. It is deſert and mountainous, but full of wood, eſpecially maſt-timber, and has fine rivers.

COSTA RICA PROVINCE, or the RICH COAST, is ſo called from it's rich mines of gold and ſilver, thoſe of Tinſingola being preferred by the Spaniards to the mines of Potoſi: but otherwiſe it is mountainous and barren. It has Veraguas province on the ſouth-eaſt; and that of Nicaragua on the north-eaſt, reaches from the North to the South Sea, about 90 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and is 50 where broadeſt, from north to ſouth.

CARTAGO, the capital, 10 leagues from the North, and 17 from the South Sea, on each ſide of which it has a port, and is 90 miles eaſt of Nicoya. Mr. Gage ſays, that in his time there were rich merchants here, who traded by land to Panama, and by ſea to Porto Bello, Carthagena, and the Havannah, and from thence to Spain.

NICOYA ſtands 30 miles weſt of the gulph of Salinas, a large bay of the South Sea, on the frontiers of Nicaragua. It is a pretty town, and the head of a Spaniſh diſtrict, near the mines, which was taken and plundered by the buccaneers in 1687. It ſtands on the river Cipanſo, which is navigable to it by large periaguas. The Spaniards trade from hence to Panama in ſalt, honey, maize, wheat, fowls, and a purple juice of a ſhell-fiſh in the neighbouring bay, with which they dye * their threads and wool, to mix with their Segovia cloth. This fiſh, which is, therefore, called the purpura, is not eatable. It lives about ſeven years, but hides itſelf about the riſing of the dog-ſtar. The ſhells, which the Indians are emdloyed by the Spaniards to gather in the ſpring, about Chira, Golfo, Di Salinas, and other parts of this coaſt, being rubbed together, produce a ſlime like ſoft wax, made uſe of by the dyers: but the chief dye is in the mouth of the fiſh, and the fineſt juice in the white vein. The bay receives ſix rivers, has 20 iſlands, good anchorage and warehouſes; and the banks of the rivers are full of villages, farms, and plantations of ſugar canes.

* This is an inſtance that nature affords matters for dyeing that are little ſuſpected; and it is very likely that we could eaſily do without logwood, if we had not an unqueſtionable right to cut it in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras.

The province of NICARAGUA, or the NEW KINGDOM of LEON, has Guatimala Proper, and the South Sea, on the weſt; the North Sea and Honduras on the north and eaſt; and the South Sea, with Coſta Rica, on the ſouth and weſt. The winter here is rainy and tempeſtuous: in ſummer the air is exceſſive hot, but healthy. It is reckoned the moſt woody province in all New Spain. It produces good hemp and flax, and the wood uſed by dyers in Europe, called Nicaragua wood, but little wheat. It abounds with black cattle and hogs, but has few ſheep. It has plenty of balm, cotton, ſugar, axi, which is the American pepper, honey, and wax, liquid amber and turpentine, with which, and ſilver work, the inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade to Panama and Nombre de Dios. Whales and ſea-monſters are frequent on the coaſt, but, as for the country, it is ſo pleaſant as well as fruitful, that it is, as it were, the garden of America, the hills and rivers being full of gold, the trees and woods perfumed; and, when the Spaniards firſt came to it, they called it Mahomet's Paradiſe.

The other town is GRANADA, which ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of the lake 60 miles ſouth-eaſt from Leon, where the Spaniards have mills for making of ſugar, there being abundance of canes in the neighbourhood. It is the moſt frequented of any town in North America, for the merchants of Guatimala diſpatch their goods from hence by the way of Carthagena, as thinking it ſafer than to ſend them by the gulph of Honduras, where they are often intercepted, in time of war, by the Engliſh and Dutch.

NEW SEGOVIA, is a city 30 leagues from both the former, to the north.

JAEN, at the mouth of the lake Nicaragua, 30 leagues from the North Sea. Here goods are uſually lodged that come to or from the North Sea by the river, where they unload at the cataracts, and embark them in other veſſels.

REALEJO, or RIA LEAXA, on a plain a league from the fort called Poſſeſſion, and 15 leagues north-weſt from port St. Juan, ſtands on a river which falls into the South Sea 30 miles north-weſt from Leon, which city it ſerves as a harbour. It is capable of receiving 200 veſſels, and the king of Spain's ſhips for the South Sea were formerly built here. There are intrenchments to defend the harbour, which is 3 leagues below the town, and very fine docks, but it has ſuffered much from the buccaneers. It's chief trade is in pitch, tar, and cordage, for which it is the moſt noted place in all Spaniſh America; they being exported from hence to Carthagena, Porto Bello, La Vera Cruz, and even to the Havannah. A fine river of the ſame name runs into the haven, which is ſafe from all winds, and has five iſlands within it fit for careening ſhips. The adjacent country is pleaſantly watered with rivers, whereof that which runs into the haven has eight branches, whereby goods are carried to and from the villages, farms, and ſugar plantations belonging to the inhabitants of this town and Leon. The port is the moſt in uſe for ſhipping of any in all theſe ſeas, eſpecially between Acapulco and Panama, ſhips coming to it from all parts of the South Seas. It is ſheltered by an iſland at the mouth of it that breaks off the ſea, which would otherwiſe come rolling into the harbour, with waves as high as mountains. The iſland, lying thus in the entrance, forms two channels into it, one to the ſouth-eaſt, the other to the north-weſt, the laſt of which is by much the beſt for navigation; ſo that none but ſmall craft go into the former.

The province of HONDURAS, or CAMAIAGUA, extends eaſt and weſt along the North Sea above 130 leagues, and in ſome places is near 60 leagues over from north to ſouth, but it is narrower at both ends. It has the North Sea on the north and eaſt, Nicaragua on the ſouth, Guatimala Proper on the ſouth-weſt, and Vera Paz on the weſt. The country conſiſts generally of hills and deep dales, and has a good air. It is rendered the more fruitful, by the inundations of it's river about Michaelmas, when the natives carry the water by canals to their fields and gardens. In many parts of the country, the ſoil bears Indian corn thrice a year. It moreover yields European wheat and peaſe, and has excellent paſture, with honey, wax, and abundance of all ſorts of proviſions, beſides mines of gold and ſilver. The country was once exceeding populous, 'till it was thinned by the Spaniards, who are ſaid to have tortured and put many of them to death, to make them diſcover their gold and ſilver; beſides many more whom they killed afterwards, by forcing them to work in the mines, and carry burdens beyond their ſtrength.

The bay of Honduras, which, as was formerly that of Campeachy, is noted for cutting of logwood, and lies betwixt cape Honduras in north latitude 15½, and cape Catoche, the eaſtermoſt point of Yucatan, in latitude 21½. The great lake of Nicaragua runs into it, by a river called Rio d'Anugelos or Angelos, which is only navigable by ſmall craft. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the bay, of which we have no deſcription, particularly the Pearl Iſland, a little to the north; but they do not fiſh up ſo much pearl here as formerly, nor ſo large. Into this bay a ſmall river alſo runs from the province of Veraguas, which the Spaniards call Rio de Sucre, or the Sugar River, becauſe of the ſugar-works here; of which the country is ſo full, that, did not the Spaniards

niards conſume ſuch quantities of it in the ſweet-meats, preſerves, conſerves, &c. which they ſpend here, and in thoſe they ſend home as preſents, beſides what they uſe to ſweeten their chocolate, limonades, and other luſcious liquors, they might be able to ſend many ſhip-loads of ſugar to Europe from theſe two provinces.

REMARKS.

As it may here be expected we ſhould give an account of the cutting of logwood * by the Engliſh, &c. ſo much complained of by the Spaniards, and aſſigned by them as a juſt provocation for their depredations on our ſhips, before the commencement of the laſt war in 1740; we ſhall give it as brief as poſſible from Capt. Uring, who was ſent over deputy-governor of the iſlands of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, by the late duke of Montague the governor, and from Mr. Atkins, in his Voyage to Guinea, Braſil, and the Weſt-Indies.

* Under the article LOGWOOD, we have ſtated the nature of this trade, and the right that Great-Britain has to the cutting the ſame, as well in a certain part in the bay of Honduras, as in that of Campeachy: ſince the writing of which, an eminent merchant has obliged me with a map of the river Belleſe (a,) in the bay of Honduras, which I have particularly mentioned, drawn by Capt. Uring, who was a relation of his, and referred me to the peruſal of the captain's voyages upon the logwood trade. I had, indeed, frequently met with thoſe voyages quoted, and read the whole of his expedition to St. Lucia, but never before met with his map of the river Belleſe, nor with the account he himſelf gives of the logwood trade as carried on there. But what the captain ſays, upon this occaſion, corroborates the information that I have intimated to have received from others: and, therefore, as what I have urged, in relation to the before-mentioned river Belleſe, proves to be matter of FACT; it is to be hoped, that ſome attention may be given to the expedient which I have done myſelf the honour humbly to ſuggeſt, with a view only to reconcile thoſe unhappy miſunderſtandings, which ſtill ſubſiſt between the crown of Great-Britain and that of Spain, in relation to the cutting of logwood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras. The above was obſerved before the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

(a) See Capt. Uring's Voyage from Madeira to Jamaica and the bay of Honduras, p. 354 and 362.

The country where the Engliſh cut their logwood is, ſays the captain, all a flat, and great part of it a moraſs, with ſeveral large lagunes, which are very often overflowed. In the dry ſeaſon, when the logwood-cutters have found a great number of trees, they build a hut near them, where they live during the time of their cutting. When they have cut down the tree, they chip off the bark and lay it in heaps, making paths to each, that, when the rains come in, which overflow the ground, they are ſo many channels, where they go with ſmall currents and land them, bringing them ſometimes 30 miles to the Barcaderas, from whence the buyers come to fetch it at the price of about 5 l. a ton Jamaica money. During the floods, the logwood-cutters dwell at the Barcaderas, which are 42 miles up the river, where they have their huts built upon high banks, to ſecure them in the time of the floods. As ſoon as they have notice of any veſſel's arrival at the mouth of the river, they flock down, in order to purchaſe what things they want, which are chiefly wine, rum, and all ſorts of liquors, proviſions, and ſmall arms, powder and ſhot, cutlaſſes or hangers, and ozenbrigs, which is almoſt all their apparel, except hats and ſhoes; and their pavilions are alſo made of ozenbrigs, becauſe of the multitudes of muſkettoes and other biting and ſtinging flies.

Mr. Atkins obſerves, that the logwood-cutters were originally ſettled in the bay of Campeachy; but, being diſturbed by the Spaniards, removed to the bay of Honduras, where they ſupport themſelves by force of arms, having, according to late accounts, 1500 maſters and ſervants. The river that runs up to the Barcaderas, is not only narrow and full of alligators, but has a ſtrong current from the land freſhes, and the banks are ſo covered with ſhrubs, that it is difficult to row the boats which carry the effects. At the ſeaſon for cutting logwood, which is once a year, they remove their tents ſometimes many miles from their chief reſidence to follow the wood, which runs in a vein or line of ſome miles, perhaps like minerals in the earth, and they run over as many, perhaps, without finding a ſtick of it. They cut it in large pieces, and leave it on the ground 'till the land floods favour their bringing it into the river, from whence the canoes take it and carry it to their grand ſtore at the Barcaderas. As they know what they muſt expect from Spaniſh clemency, they are always provided with good arms to defend themſelves deſperately againſt attacks, which are always by ſea, but ſeldomer here than they uſed to be in the bay of Campeachy. A ſervant, which is the firſt ſtep with ſeamen into the trade, is hired at a ton of logwood per month, and, having one day in ſeven to himſelf, he makes about 10 l. a month; ſo that, if they are ſober fellows, they in time become maſters and join ſtocks, or trade independently.

They have a king choſe from among themſelves, and his conſort has the title of queen, and they are governed by certain rules of their own making. The ſhips that come into the bay are on their guard alſo, and fetch the logwood down in flat-bottomed boats. The crew of each is allowed on the voyage a bottle of rum and ſome ſugar, and they row generally in the night becauſe of the ſtinging flies, and reſt in the day. See the article LOGWOOD.

TRUXILLO, or TRUGILLO, ſtands on an eminence in the north ſide of the province 45 leagues north-eaſt from Valladolid, and one from the North Sea; it is ſituated between two rivers, the mouths of which, and ſome iſlands that lie before, form the harbour, which lies at the bottom of a bay called St. Giles, is above two leagues broad, and is defended by a caſtle; but it has been plundered ſeveral times by the buccaneers. It is ſaid to be the only harbour on this coaſt capable of trade, but has very little: the town lies a league up one of the rivers. The harbour is deep and ſecure, the country exceeding fruitful, and the ſoil moiſt and rich; and, notwithſtanding the hot climate, it is exceeding populous. It produces both corn and grapes twice a year, and the cattle brought from Spain increaſe here prodigiouſly.

GRACIAS A DIOS, ſtands at the mouth of a river, upon a rocky mountain, which has ſome gold mines in it's neighbourhood, and was built the ſame year as Valladolid, from which it lies about 27 leagues to the weſt, to ſecure the miners. Mr. Gage ſays, that the neighbouring valley abounds with wheat, which is tranſported for the moſt part to Guatimala, and breeds very good mules and horſes.

ST PEDRO, which Laët ſays is the reſidence of the farmers of the king of Spain's cuſtoms for this province, is above 30 miles north-eaſt from Gracias a Dios. It lies in a hot unhealthy climate, but had a great trade before the diſcovery of Golfo Dolce, by which commodities are now carried up into the country. In 1666, the town was burnt by the buccaneers.

RUATAN, or RATTAN, is an iſland in the bay of Honduras, which was deſert, and only the reſort of pirates, 'till a few years ago, when the Engliſh began a ſettlement on it. It lies 8 leagues from the Moſquito ſhore, and about 200 leagues weſt by ſouth from Jamaica; it is about 30 miles long and 13 broad, naturally fortified with rocks and ſhoals, excepting the entrance of it, which is ſo narrow, that only a ſingle ſhip can paſs it at a time, which was to be guarded by two forts. The view of this ſettlement was not only to ſecure a great trade in logwood, but to traffic with the Spaniards of Guatimala for cocheneal, indico, &c. For this purpoſe, 300 land forces, commanded by Major Cawfield, ſailed from Jamaica the 13th of Auguſt 1742, under convoy of the Litchfield, and five other men of war, and on the 23d arrived at Port Royal harbour in this iſland, one of the fineſt in the world, where 500 ſail of ſhips may always ride ſafe. This iſland is overgrown with wood, but remarkably healthful, and not near ſo hot as Jamaica, there being ſtrong eaſterly winds here commonly to cool it. It has plenty of excellent water, a great number of wild hogs and deer, ducks, teal, pigeons, and parrots, and the ſea abounds with fiſh of all kinds, particularly crab-fiſh and fine turtle *.

* The poſſeſſion of this iſland would have proved a great ſecurity to our logwood trade in the river Belleſe in the bay of Honduras.

The Moſquito, or Muſquito Indians, are a nation on the continent betwixt Truxillo and Honduras, ſo ſituate between moraſſes or inacceſſible mountains, and a coaſt full of rocks and ſhoals, that no attempts againſt them by the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, could ever ſucceed. Nevertheleſs they are a mild inoffenſive people, of much morality and virtue, and will never truſt a man who had once deceived them. They marry only one wife, and never part with her, unleſs for adultery, which is ſeldom known among them; and ſo great a regard is ſhewn to matrimony, that even an elder brother, unmarried, gives precedence to a younger, if married. They have no kind of vice among them, nor any occaſion for magiſtrates. When the duke of Albermarle was governor of Jamaica, theſe people put themſelves under the protection of the crown of England, and their king received a commiſſion from his grace, under the ſeal of that iſland, ſince which they have not only been ſteady in their alliance with the Engliſh, but warm in their affections, and very uſeful to them on many occaſions. When their king dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, to certify that he is next in blood, and he receives a commiſſion in form to be king of the Moſquito's, 'till which he was not acknowledged as ſuch by his countrymen; though, after all, unleſs he is at war, he has no revenues nor guards, and very few prerogatives, being obliged, in time of peace, to fiſh and fowl for the ſupport of himſelf and his family; yet he has preſents ſometimes from the government of Jamaica and the Engliſh traders, who often touch there. Nay, ſo fond are they of every thing that is Engliſh, that the common people are proud of every chriſtian or ſurname given them by our ſeamen, who honour their general and other grandees with the titles of ſome of our nobility *.

* Theſe people likewiſe may be rendered very ſerviceable to the Engliſh in ſupport of their logwood trade in the bay of Honduras.

The province of GUATIMALA PROPER extends, according to the Sanſons, 150 leagues along the coaſt of the South Sea, and 30 or 40 in breadth; hut Capt. Cook makes the length only 70 leagues. It has the province of Honduras on the north-eaſt, Vera Paz on the north-weſt, Nicaragua on the eaſt, Sononuſco on the weſt, and the ſea on the ſouth.

The ſoil in the vallies is exceeding fruitful in corn, indico, cocheneal, and other rich drugs for dyeing, as well as cacao, and other Indian fruits; produces balms, bezoar, liquid amber, choice gums, ſalt, brimſtone; and has large fine paſtures, ſo covered, ſays Mr. Gage, with cattle, that ſome graziers are ſaid to have herds of 40,000 black cattle, and as many ſheep. The cattle run wild in the mountains, where they are hunted by the blacks, and great numbers are ſent annually to Spain. Here are alſo ſeveral plantations of ſugar, and mines of ſilver. But Cook ſays, their grain does not hold a year.

The rivers of this province abound with all ſorts of good fiſh. Cotton is a ſtaple commodity, as is alſo wax; and their bees make honey as white as the comb itſelf.

ST JAGO DE GUATIMALA, the chief town and the old city, which was one of the fineſt in New Spain, was utterly deſtroyed by a dreadful hurricane and earthquake in 1541, when 120,000 Spaniards loſt their lives. It was built at the bottom of a volcano, with two tops, from one of which fire iſſued, from the other water. The preſent city, which is not only the capital of this province, but alſo of the audience, the reſidence of the preſident, and the royal courts, the ſeat of a rich biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, an univerſity, and the center of commerce in all thoſe parts, ſtands in a fine valley on a river, about three leagues from the volcano, and is reckoned one of the largeſt cities in North-America. It is well built and populous, being thought to contain about 8000 families; and the citizens carry on a great trade, not only through all the provinces of Mexico, but even into Peru, by the ports of La Trinidad and Realejo, the one 25 leagues, the other 46 from it; and it's trade with Spain is from Golfo Dolce, that runs into the North Sea at 60 leagues diſtance.

Many vaſt eſtates are got here by trade, and, when the merchants have left off, they go generally to reſide at Mexico. The chief commodities in which they deal, are hides, indico, annatta, ſilveſter, cocheneal, cacao, &c. and, indeed, no city can lie more commodious for an extenſive trade, and be ſafer at the ſame time from pirates and privateers, for it ſtands 8 leagues (which Moll and Sanſons call 40 miles) from the South Sea, and about 40 leagues from the gulph of Mexico, by which it drives alſo a great trade; but it is ſtill liable to frequent earthquakes as well as to eruptions, from the volcano above-mentioned.

TRINIDAD, or LA SONSANATE, a port town on a bay of the South Sea, 4 leagues from Acaxatla, 65 miles ſouth-eaſt of Petapa, and 162 from Guatimala, conſiſts of four or five hundred Spaniſh families, beſides Mulattoes and Indians, and has five churches and a monaſtery. It is the place to which all goods are tranſported that are brought to Acaxatla from Peru and Mexico. It is 3 leagues from the harbour to the town, which is of great reſort, it being the chief place of trade betwixt New Spain and Peru, and the neareſt landing harbour to Guatimala for ſhips from Panama, Peru, and Mexico, but is a place of no defence. There are three volcanoes in the neighbourhood. The coaſt is low, and has good anchorage.

ST. SALVADOR, or CUZCATTAN. Moll places it at the head of a river, that runs about 47 miles, and falls into the harbour of St. Michael, 150 miles eaſt from Guatimala. In the bottom where the town ſtands, there are manufactories of ſugar and indico, and ſome farms of cattle.

VERA PAZ PROVINCE, has the bay of Honduras and the province of Chiapa on the north, that of Guatimala on the ſouth, Honduras on the eaſt, and Soconuſco, with part of Chiapa, on the weſt.

The chief commodities are drugs, eſpecially medicinal gums, ſarſaparilla, China root, and mechoacan, achiotte, liquid amber which drops from trees, cacao, cotton, wool, honey, maize, wax, and feathers, of which the Indians make curious works.

CHIAPA is an inland province, having Tabaſco on the north, Yucatan on the north-eaſt, Soconuſco on the eaſt and ſouth, Veraz Paz on the eaſt, and Guaxaca on the weſt. Here are great woods of pine, cypreſs, cedar, oak, myrtle, and walnut-trees and wood-vines; trees that drop roſin, aromatic gums, balſam and liquid amber, tacamahaca, copal, and others that yield ſovereign balſam. Here is no want of corn, pears, apples, quinces, cacao, and cotton, and cocheneal grows wild.

The chief of it's rivers is that of Chiapa, which runs from the north croſs that part of this country, which is inhabited by the Quelenes, and falls into the ſea at Tabaſco. It is in ſhort well watered, and drives a pretty briſk trade with the neighbouring provinces, eſpecially in cocheneal and ſilk; wherein the Indians employ their wives, in making handkerchiefs of all colours, which the Spaniards buy and ſend home. Mr. Gage ſays, that, though the Spaniards reckon it one of the pooreſt countries in America, becauſe it has no mines or ſand of gold, nor no harbour on the South Sea, yet it is bigger than moſt provinces, and inferior to none but Guatimala; that it is a place of great importance to the Spaniards, becauſe the ſtrength of all their empire in America depends upon it: and that it ought to be well fortified, becauſe of the caſy entrance into it by the river of Tabaſco Puerto Real, and it's vicinity to Jucatan.

The places of chief note are two towns, both called CHIAPA. The one is inhabited by the Spaniards, the other by the Indians. It's chief trade is in cacao, cotton, wool, ſugar, cocheneal, and ſmall pedlars wares. The friars are the chief merchants of European goods, and the richeſt men both in the city and country.

The audience of MEXICO.

This, which is the nobleſt part of the Spaniſh dominions, is bounded on the north with New Mexico, on the eaſt with the North Sea, or gulph of Mexico, has the South Sea on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and on the ſouth-eaſt ſide it joins the provinces of Chiapa and Soconuſco in the government of Guatimala.

It is divided into ſeven provinces, viz. Jucatan, Tabaſco, Guaxaca, Mexico Proper, Mechoacan, Tlaſcala, and Panuco.

The province of JUCATAN, or YUCATAN, is a peninſula, ſurrounded on the weſt and north by the gulph of Mexico, betwixt the bay of Campeachy on the ſouth-weſt, and that of Honduras on the ſouth-eaſt, and has the little province of Tabaſco on the ſouth-weſt, and that of Vera Paz in the audience of Guatimala on the ſouth. Here it is joined to the continent by an iſthmus not 40 leagues in breadth, and runs out into the ſea 100 leagues. It is in all reſpects a moſt noble country. It extends from north latitude 17 to 21, 30, and weſt longitude 88 to 92. The climate is pretty warm in the ſummer, which begins in April and ends in September. They have ſcarce any rain in the winter ſeaſon, which, however, is indifferently cool, excepting January and February, which are almoſt as hot as in the middle of ſummer; yet in the main it is a very healthy country, eſpecially a mountainous tract, which runs from Salamanca on the weſt, quite acroſs it to the eaſt. The ſoil, when duly cultivated, bears plenty of corn, cotton, and indico, and abounds with all ſorts of cattle, wild beaſts, honey, wax, and fowls, and on the coaſts are taken great pieces of amber: but, as no mines were ever found in it, the Spaniards have not been fond of ſettling here.

MERIDA is it's capital city, the ſeat of a governor, and the ſee of a biſhop near the north ſide of it, betwixt the gulph of Mexico and Honduras, about 12 leagues from each.

CAMPEACHY, or as it is called by the Spaniards ST. FRANCISCO DE COMPEACHE, the ſee of a biſhop, is 120 miles ſouth-weſt of Merida.

It ſtands on the ſhore, in a ſmall bending of the land, near the mouth of a river, which falls into it's bay on the ſouth-weſt angle of this province; and is the only town on all the coaſt to cape Catouche, at the north-eaſt point, that lies open to the ſea. It makes a fine ſhew, the houſes being built all of good ſtone. There is a dock and good fort at one end of the town, with a governor and garriſon, which commands both the town and harbour; nevertheleſs, in 1659, the Engliſh ſtormed it and took it with only ſmall arms, and it was taken again by ſurprize in 1678, by the Engliſh and buccaneers. The port is large but ſhallow. It uſed to be a noted market for logwood, as we obſerved in Honduras. See our article LOGWOOD.

The chief manufacture of the adjacent country, beſides ſalt and logwood, is cotton cloth, which is the cloathing of all the natives, and even of the poorer Indians. Capt. Dampier gives this account of the bay: it runs in deep within land, betwixt cape Condecedo on the eaſt, and St. Martin's cape to the weſt, which is 120 leagues, and has many broad lakes that are navigable. From cape Condecedo it is 15 leagues ſouth to Salinas, where is a ſmall harbour and a large pond near the ſhore, which yields abundance of ſalt that is tranſported to the gulph of Mexico. In May or June when the ſalt kerns, not leſs than 40 or 50 Indian families at a time come and rake it aſhore in heaps: then covering them with dry graſs and reeds, they ſet fire to them, which burns the outſide, giving it a black cruſt, which afterwards defend the ſalt againſt the rains.

TABASCO province is bounded with that of Guaxaca on the weſt, on the eaſt by that of Jucatan, on the ſouth by part of the audience of Guatimala, and on the north by the gulph of Mexico, on which it extends from eaſt to weſt about 40 leagues. It being a narrow ſlip by the ſea-ſhore, the climate is not very healthy, nor the ſoil exceeding fruitful, yet the people have good farms, well ſtocked with cattle, which yields them conſiderable profit; and moreover, they have great plenty of Indian wheat and cacao, which they ſend on the backs of mules to Vera Cruz. Moſt of the country is flat and moiſt, has marſhes and lakes, abounding with fiſh, ſome of them very large, as manatees and tortugas.

GUAXACA province reaches from the bay of Mexico on the north to the South Sea, having the province of Tlaſcala on the north-weſt, and thoſe of Chiapa and Tabaſco on the ſouth-eaſt. It extends near 95 leagues along the South Sea, 50 along the bay of Mexico, and near 120, according to ſome; along the ſide of Tlaſcala, but not above 50 on that of Chiapa. The air is good and the ſoil fruitful, eſpecially in mulberry-trees, ſo that it produces more ſilk than any province in America, except that called the valley of Guaxaca; moſt parts of it are mountainous, yet it abounds with wheat, cattle, ſugar, cotton, honey, cacao, plantanes, and other fruits. It has rich mines of gold, ſilver, and lead, and all their rivers have gold in their ſands; caſſia, cocheneal, cryſtal, and copperas, likewiſe abound here; ſo that were the people induſtrious, they might be the richeſt in the Weſt-Indies. But they are habituated to a ſlothful life by the clergy, who have 120 monaſteries here.

The vanello, a drug ſo valuable for it's perfume, and uſed to give a flavour to chocolate, is the produce of this province. It grows, indeed, in ſundry parts of Mexico, but is no where ſo plentiful as here.

GUAXACA, the capital of this province, is a biſhop's ſee, and the ſeat of a governor; 120 miles weſt of Spirito Santo, 230 miles ſouth of Mexico, in the ſweet valley of Guaxaca, which is 40 miles long, and 20 broad, and in the road which leads through Chiapa to Guatimala. It is a middling city, but has a great trade with both the North and South Seas. The river here is not fortified, ſo that ſmall veſſels might eaſily ſail up, and ſubdue the country. The beſt chocolate in America is made here by the nuns, and exported to Spain. In the neighbouring valley there are many rich towns, cloiſters, and churches, an excellent breed of horſes, and great herds of black cattle and ſheep, which afford wool to the clothiers of Los Angelos, and hides to Spain.

ST. ILDEFONZO DE LAS ZAPATECAS is a town on a hill, 20 leagues from the former. It's territory is rich in gold, cotton, and Indian wheat; and the river Alvarado, or at leaſt a branch of it, is navigable to it by banks.

SPIRITO SANTO ſtands at the foot of mountains, on the north coaſt, towards the frontiers of Tabaſco. The inhabitants trade in cotton, maize, and gold.

TECOANTEPEQUE lie at the bottom of a bay, in the South Sea, above 100 miles eaſt from Guatulco. According to ſome, Mr. Gage ſays, that ſmall veſſels traded on this coaſt in his time, and that it was the chief fiſhing harbour in all this country. It had alſo rich merchants, who dealt not only to Mexico, but to Peru, and the Philippine iſlands, and by land, to Guatimala, to which there was a plain road along the coaſt.

TEPANATEQUE is a town at the foot of the mountains Quelenos, which, according to Gage, is one of the pleaſanteſt in the country, and the beſt furniſhed with fleſh, fowl, and fiſh, it lying near the ſea and a river, and among rich farms, ſtocked with, from one thouſand, to four thouſand head of cattle a-piece.

TLASCALA province, or Los ANGELOS, has alſo the advantage of lying both on the North and South Sea, having that part of the former, which is the gulph of Mexico, on the eaſt; the province of Guaxaca, on the ſouth-eaſt; the Pacific Ocean, on the ſouth; the province of Mexico Proper, on the weſt, and that of Panuco, on the north-weſt. It's climate, ſoil, and product, are much the ſame with thoſe of Mexico Proper.

PUEBLOS DE LOS ANGELOS, the preſent capital of the province, and much the fineſt place in it. It even vies, for magnificence, with the city of Mexico; and the wealth of the place, or rather of the clergy, may be gueſſed at, from the yearly revenue of the cathedral and chapter, which amounts to three hundred thouſand pieces of eight.

The beſt felts in the country are made in this city, and it has a mint, and a glaſs-houſe, the firſt that was known in all New Spain.

LA VERA CRUZ, the grand port of New Spain, on the North Sea. There was an old town of this name, which falling to decay, by reaſon of the badneſs of the port, and other cauſes, this new town was built at about 15 or 16 miles further to the eaſt, there being a port, ſmall, but ſafe, and ſo well ſituate, that it was capable of being effectually protected by a fort on a rock of a neighbouring iſland, which was accordingly built, and called St. John de Ulua.

This new Vera Cruz is not a place of very great extent, being not inhabited by any Spaniards of diſtinction, by reaſon of it's unwholſome ſituation, between vaſt tracts of dry land on one ſide, and rank bogs on the other; yet, as to trade, this is one OF THE MOST CONSIDERABLE PLACES, PERHAPS, IN THE WORLD: it is the natural CENTER OF THE AMERICAN TREASURE, AND THE MAGAZINE OF THE BULK OF THE MERCHANDIZE THAT GOES OUT OF NEW SPAIN, OR IS TRANSPORTED FROM EUROPE. It abounds, in A WORD, WITH THE TREASURES OF BOTH THE INDIES. It receives a vaſt quantity of Eaſt-India commodities, overland, every year, from Acapulco. [See the article ACAPULCO.] At the ſame time, the warehouſes are generally full of European goods; and, in fact, the merchants here carry on as great a trade as it is poſſible for the Spaniards well to carry on throughout America.

This place has not only a very conſiderable commerce from Mexico, but by Mexico from the Eaſt-Indies; likewiſe from Old Spain, from Cuba, St. Domingo, Jucatan, and from Peru, by the way of Porto Bello; from Carthagena, and all the iſlands in the North-Sea; alſo by the river Alvarado, which goes up Zapotecas, St. Ildefonſo, and towards Guaxaca, and by the river Grijalva, running up to Tabaſco, Los Zeques, and Chiapa. The goods are ſent from hence to Mexico, Puebla de los Angelos, Sacatecas, St. Martino, and other inland places, upon horſes and mules, or in waggons drawn by oxen, and carts drawn by mules. The Barlovento fleet, which is a ſmall ſquadron, employed to clear the coaſt from pirates; and interlopers come hither conſtantly in October.

When the flota, which is always obliged to winter here, arrives, and unloads the goods from Old Spain, and takes in thoſe of Mexico, as well as the merchandize that comes from the Philippine iſlands, by the Acapulco ſhips, a fair is opened here, which laſts many weeks; ſometimes 'till the ſhips are ready to depart: then this place may be ſaid to be immenſely rich; but the moſt wealthy merchants not only reſide at the city of Los Angelos, the far greater part of the year, but alſo keep their plate there, till ſuch time as the flota is juſt ready to go off, [ſee the article FLOTA,] which ought regularly to be in May, but is ſometimes detained 'till Auguſt: therefore, the conſtant inhabitants of this place are only Mulattoes and Meſtizoes, with a few Spaniſh factors, who, after a ſhort ſtay, make vaſt fortunes; inſomuch, that he is reckoned an inconſiderable fellow, who is not worth an hundred thouſand pounds. The inhabitants, ſlaves and all, are computed at about three thouſand, and the city is about half a Spaniſh league in compaſs. The ſoil is barren, ſo that their proviſions are far fetched, and dear bought. Vera Cruz having been taken and plundered by the buccaneers, ſeveral times, the Spaniards have built ſeveral forts, and keep centinels all along the coaſt.

The old town ſtands about a mile from the ſhore, and was called Vera Cruz, becauſe Cortez landed here on Good Friday, in 1518.

The new town, which our ſailors commonly call La Vera Cruz, ſtands 12 leagues to the north-weſt of the river Alverado, according to Dampier, and 60 leagues ſouth-eaſt from Mexico, of which it is reckoned the eaſtern port, as Acapulco is the weſtern. The men are haughty, and fond of ſtate and eaſe; for which reaſon they are ſlothful, though they underſtand trade very well.

ALMERIA, called VILLA RICA by the Spaniards, becauſe of the gold they found here on their arrival, lies on the coaſt above 20 leagues north of the former, has an indifferent port, and a better air than Vera Cruz, with a ſmall river, good ſprings of freſh water, and a dry country behind it; all which are wanting in Vera Cruz. It is ſaid that a great clandeſtine trade is drove here, between ſome Spaniſh merchants on ſhore, and the French of St. Domingo and Martinico.

The province of MEXICO Proper has that of Tlaſcala on the eaſt, that of Mechoacan on the weſt, that of Panuco on the north, and the Pacific Ocean on the ſouth. The climate is very variable, yet both pleaſant and temperate. The ſoil is remarkably fruitful, and all the neceſſaries of life extremely cheap. It's commodities are much the ſame with thoſe of Mechoacan, only the mines yield much more ſilver, which ſometimes alſo hold a very conſiderable portion of gold. It is ſaid to excel all the provinces of America, in corn, cattle, and fruits; and it's lakes and rivers abound with variety of good fiſh, ſo that the tribute of the lake of Mexico alone, is above twenty thouſand crowns a year.

The royal city, and archbiſhop's ſee of Mexico, is the capital of this province, of the audience, and of all New Spain, and the ſeat of the viceroy; it ſtands in the lake of it's own name, on the eaſt ſide of a valley, at the foot of a ridge of hills; and, according to the Spaniſh writers, lies in the latitude of 19, 40. That we may paſs a good judgment of the opulence of this city, it may be obſerved, that the tenths, collected from the 11 ſuffragan biſhops, under it's archbiſhop, (viz. Puebla de los Angelos, Mechoacan, Guaxaca, Guadalaxara, Guatimaga, Yucatan, Nicaralua, Chiapa, Honduras, and New Biſcay,) are computed at about half a million of pieces of eight, thoſe prelates receiving, at leaſt, 1,200,000 pounds ſterling a year. Though this may help us to form ſome idea of the wealth of the Mexicans, it may be ſtill farther conjectured, from this obſervation, viz. that there was brought into the king's exchequer here, in 1730, more than a million of marks of ſilver, as the king's duty from the mines, which ought to be one fifth of the metal taken out of them. According to this, the whole produce of the mines muſt amount to five millions of marks; and a mark being equivalent to eight of our ounces, if we compute this ſilver at five ſhillings the ounce, then the inhabitants of Mexico receive TEN MILLIONS OF MONEY PER ANNUM FROM THEIR MINES.

As to the wealth of the merchants in particular, it may be more eaſily imagined than aſcertained, conſidering that they pay five or ſix times more for European goods, than they are to be had for where they are manufactured. Thus, a piece of ſcarlet cloth, worth, in London, TWENTY-FIVE, OR TWENTY-SIX SHILLINGS A YARD, ſhall be ſold here at SIXTY AND SEVENTY PIECES OF EIGHT PER YARD; and it is common for a Spaniard to give frequently A THOUSAND PIECES OF EIGHT FOR A NEW SUIT OF CLOATHS: ſo that when this is conſidered, and that the money they return, is in proportion to ſuch a valuation, what muſt be ſaid of the wealth of this place? In ſhort, the warehouſes of the merchants ſhew it, who, againſt the time they go to Vera Cruz, to meet the flota from Old Spain, hire a prodigious number of horſes, mules, and carriages, to carry the ſilver they have ready to be ſhipped there, and to pay for ſuch goods as they ſhall purchaſe; ſo that it is no wonder the galleons bring off, from ſixteen to twenty millions of pieces of eight ſometimes from St. John de Ulua. See the article GALLEONS.

In the goldſmith or plate-worker's ſtreet here, which is called the PLATERIA, next to the great ſquare or market-place, the ſhops are furniſhed with ſuch a variety of utenſils and ornaments of gold, ſilver, and jewels, as is not to be paralleled in any other city in the world; for the very negroe wenches, that walk by the ladies coaches here, WEAR BRACELETS OF GOLD, AND PEARL NECKLACES, AND JEWELS IN THEIR EARS; and the black foot-boys are dreſſed in rich liveries, DAUBED WITH GOLD AND SILVER LACE. Here they are always making church and family plate, eſpecially when the merchants are beſpeaking goods againſt the arrival of the galleons, at which time the ſhops and warehouſes are filled with cheſts of plate, deſigned for Old Spain, &c. piled up to the very cielings. The glaſſes, or faſhes, like thoſe of our goldſmith's ſhops, are full of gilt plate in ſervices and ſetts; the cabinets filled with vaſt quantities of rubies, emeralds, and pearls, rings, large jewels, and numberleſs toys, but eſpecially gold ſnuff-boxes enamelled and ſet with rubies and emeralds, of which, it is ſaid, that ten thouſand are ſometimes to be ſeen in this ſtreet; and hardly a fleet departs for Old Spain, that does not carry off at leaſt five thouſand of them. The Mexicans have been perfected in the art of working plate by the Chineſe, who come hither every year.

ACAPULCO lies in the ſouth-eaſt corner of this province, on a bay of the South Sea, and about 210 miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico, of which it is the chief port on this ſea, as it is the chief mart on the coaſt. It is allowed to be an excellent harbour, far ſuperior to any on this coaſt for it's being ſpacious, and withal ſo ſafe, that ſeveral hundred ſhips may anchor in it, without the hazard of damaging one another. The mouth of the harbour is croſſed by a low iſland, about a mile and half long, and half a mile broad, which leaves a good wide deep channel at each end, where ſhips may ſafely go in and out with the advantage of the winds. They muſt enter with the ſea wind, and go out with a land wind, which ſeldom or never fail to ſucceed each other, in their proper ſeaſon of the day and night. The weſtermoſt channel is the narroweſt, but ſo deep, that there is no anchoring, and the Manilla ſhips paſs in that way; but thoſe from Lima enter through the ſouth-weſt channel. This harbour runs in north, about three miles; then growing very narrow, it turns ſhort about to the weſt, and runs about a mile farther, where it ends. The town ſtands on the north-weſt ſide, at the mouth of this narrow paſſage, cloſe by the ſea; and, at the end of the town, there is a platform with a great many guns. Oppoſite to the town, on the eaſt ſide, there is a high ſtrong caſtle, ſaid to have forty guns of a very great bore. Ships commonly ride near the bottom of the harbour, under command both of the caſtle and platform.

The commerce of this place, with Peru, is not, as many writers have miſtaken, confined only to the annual ſhip from Lima; for, at all other ſeaſons of the year, except that wherein the Acapulco ſhip arrives, which is about Chriſtmas, the trade is open, and ſhips of Peru come hither frequently, to ſell their own commodities, and carry back thoſe of Mexico: but, becauſe the great importance of this place, is owing to the annual ſhips of Lima and Manilla, therefore ſome writers have been ſo miſtaken, as to think that theſe are all the veſſels which come hither: whereas, the only commerce which the Philippine iſlands have with the reſt of the world, is by this port of Acapulco. Indeed, 'till within theſe thirty years paſt, there never was more than one annual ſhip, which paſſed between Manilla and Acapulco; but now there are two, one a prodigious unweildy galleon, of a thouſand, or twelve hundred tons, and the other a frigate, or convoy, which carries betwixt twenty and thirty guns. This is the effect of that ſtrict regulation, whereby the inhabitants are tied down, to ſend no more than this ſhip every year; which is laden with all the product of the Eaſt, ſuch as ambergris, civet, bezoar, large oriental pearl, vaſt quantities of piece goods, and gold duſt, to the value of one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. This voyage to Acapulco is extremely dangerous, and the longeſt, by far, that can be made from land to land: they touch indeed at Guam, one of the Ladrones iſlands, and, except a day or two's ſtay there, paſs three thouſand leagues, without ſeeing any thing but ſea or ſky; but no wonder ſuch hazards are run, if it be conſidered, that the captain of the galleon makes forty thouſand pieces of eight, the pilot twenty thouſand, each of his two mates nine thouſand, and every common ſeaman, with prudent management, a thouſand.

They ſail generally from Manilla towards the latter end of June, and arrive here always about ten days before, or after Chriſtmas. About the ſame time comes the annual ſhip from Lima, laden with the richeſt commodities of Peru, as quickſilver, cacao, &c. and at leaſt with two millions of pieces of eight, to be laid out in the purchaſe of Indian commodities, at the fair of Acapulco, which laſts ſometimes thirty days; at which, ſuch as come from the Eaſt-Indies, furniſh themſelves with European goods, brought hither over-land from Vera Cruz.

This ſhip from Lima ſtays 'till the Manilla ſhip arrives, and then returns. At this fair, Acapulco, which at other times is but a paultry town, conſiſting of two or three hundred thatched houſes, becomes a populous city, crowded with the richeſt commodities of both the Indies, and with merchants from Mexico, Lima, Cuſco, and all capital places of Peru, and even from Chili; inſomuch that every houſe is then an inn, beſides the huts and tents erected without the town; and people pay a dollar per day for their ordinary.

When the fair is over, the goods belonging to the Mexican merchants are tranſported over-land by mules; thoſe which are ſent to Peru, are laden not only on the annual ſhip, but on many others, and the galleon as ſoon as poſſible, prepares for her return to Manilla. It is to be obſerved, that heretofore the Lima ſhip was only a ſmall twenty-gun ſhip; but ſince the Britiſh privateers have found the way to the South Seas, this veſſel carries not leſs than 40 guns; and is moreover allowed one tender, ſometimes two. The galleon returns from hence to Manilla, in much leſs time than ſhe comes; for in her paſſage from latitude 17 to 19, ſhe runs away before the wind, and performs a voyage of about two thouſand leagues, in ten, twelve, or thirteen weeks at moſt. She commonly carries ten millions of dollars from hence, out of which are paid all the king of Spain's garriſons in the Philippine iſlands, which amounts to no leſs than two thouſand five hundred pieces of eight. Dampier ſays, the two Manilla ſhips make the voyage alternately; that in June, when that which ſets out in April from Acapulco arrives at Manilla, the other ſets out for Acapulco, and ſtretches to north latitude 36, or 40, 'till ſhe meets with a wind that brings her to the American ſhore. She falls in firſt with California, and never fails of a wind to bring her from thence, ſouth along the coaſt, to Acapulco, and ſets her paſſengers for Mexico a ſhore at Salagua.

The ſhips fitted out from Acapulco to Manilla, formerly went one year, and returned the third year; afterwards once in two years; but the trade is ſo much increaſed ſince, and it is managed with ſuch diſpatch at the Philippine iſlands, that there are now two ſhips ſent yearly from hence, which return about the end of the ſame year. Theſe carry out no leſs than ten millions of pieces of eight every year: that is to ſay, in money and goods; of which laſt they carry great cargoes, both of European and American ſorts. The goods they bring to Acapulco, from the Philippine iſlands, are white and painted callicoes and chints, diamonds, and elephents teeth; fine muſlins, plain, ſtriped, and flowered; India romalls, and eſpecially atlaſſes, taffaties, and damaſks; tea, eſpecially bohea; cloves, of which they ſometimes bring from ſixty to a hundred ton at a time; nutmegs and mace, from twenty to thirty ton; cinnamon, of Borneo pepper, a greater quantity than ever; ſaltpetre and ſulphur, quickſilver, ſticklack, and ſeveral drugs; china ware, and laquered japan. Theſe goods are diſperſed from hence to all the coaſts of Peru and Chili, which being ſo long, cannot but employ abundance of men, as well as ſhips, which generally return with gold from Chili, ſilver from Peru, and corn and fruits from both. See ACAPULCO.

PORT MARQUIS is a good harbour, a league to the eaſt of Acapulco, where the ſhips from Peru generally run in contraband goods.

PACHUCA, 60 miles north from Mexico, noted for ſilver mines in it's neighbourhood, of which Gemelly ſays, that in the ſpace of 6 leagues, there are not leſs than a thouſand, one of them called the Trinity, at which one thouſand men were employed every day, and from whence, in ten years time, they dug forty millions of ſilver; but that many of them were worn out, and others dangerous to work. When any perſon diſcovers a mine of gold or ſilver, he has the advantage of it, on paying the fifth of the product to the king; but if he forſakes it three months, without reaſons approved by the court, it falls wholly to the king.

PANUCO province is bounded on the north, by Neuleon and part of the audience of Guadalajara; on the eaſt, by the gulph of Mexico; on the ſouth, by the provinces of Tlaſcala and Mexico Proper; and on the weſt, by that of Mechoacan. It is ſituated under the tropic of Cancer, part in the

the temperate, and part in the torrid zone, about 55 leagues in length, and the ſame in breadth. That part next to Mexico is the beſt and richeſt, abounding with proviſions, and having ſome veins of gold, and mines of ſalt, but turns out very little for want of hands. The part adjacent to Florida is wretchedly poor and barren. This country was one of the firſt diſcoveries of the famous Cortez, who took a great deal of pains to conquer and plant it, though it is a country rather fruitful and pleaſant than rich, many of the inhabitants having choſe to retire to Florida, rather than be ſlaves at home. This province is but indifferently peopled, and little notice taken of it in many authors, though it was a very extended ſea-coaſt along the gulph of Mexico, with ſeveral roads and creeks, but no great ports.

It's capital, which is the ſee of a biſhop, is of the ſame name, and ſo is the river whereon it ſtands. The city lies about 17 leagues from the ſea, and 60 north-weſt from Mexico. It was built in the year 1520, by order of Cortez, and called St. Iſtevan del Puerto. It contains about five hundred families. It is ſaid to have a large harbour, but ſuch a bar, that no great ſhips can enter; yet the river is navigable within land, by veſſels of five hundred ton, which might, it is thought, reach the mines of Zacatecas.

MECHOACAN province is bounded on the north by part of Panuco, and the provinces of Zacatecas and Guadalajara; on the eaſt, by another part of Panuco, and Mexico Proper; on the ſouth, by the latter, and the South Sea, which together with Xaliſco, alſo bounds it on the weſt and north-weſt. It extends 70 leagues along the ſea, and is of a greater length up the land. It lies in an extraordinary good climate, and fertile ſoil, and is withal ſo wholſome a country, that ſick people come hither for health, from other parts of Mexico. It has ſome medicinal waters, which have ſeveral degrees of heat, and abounds with rivers and ſtreams of clear brackiſh waters, which are of admirable uſe; for though the meadows, through which they run, produce a rank kind of graſs; yet, inſtead of prejudicing their cattle, it makes them exceeding fat and fine. Here is a numerous breed of good horſes, both for the ſaddle and harneſs; likewiſe, plenty of honey and wax, and of all ſorts of fiſh. Corn of all kinds grows here in plenty, ſo that it has ſometimes come up to one hundred fold; and no country in the world is better furniſhed with trees, either for fruit or timber. It's commodities are ſarſaparilla, ſulphur, indico, caſſia, ſaſſafras, cacao, ambergris, vanillas, hides, wool, cotton, ſilk, ſugar, &c. But the chief commodity of all, is ſilver, of which here are ſeveral mines (beſides others of gold and copper), and it's roots, called mechoacan, and ſometimes white rhubarb, from it's colour and effects: which was formerly in very high repute, and ſold in Europe at a great rate; but by reaſon of jalap being found to anſwer all intentions better, it is of late much ſunk both in reputation and price.

Here are ſeveral kinds of trees, noted for their odoriferous gums and balſams. Beſides their great and ſmall cattle, here are herds of ſwine, without owners, wild boars, hares and rabbets, and, among others, that ſort of goats in which the bezoar is found. And Francis Ximenes obſerves, there is a ſort of bezoar found in the rivers, which he ſays, is waſhed down from the mountains, where there is a great ſtore of bole-armoniac.

COLIMA is a large rich town, upon the South Sea, and near the borders of Xaliſco, in the moſt pleaſant and fruitful valley in all Mexico, producing much cacao, caſſia, and other things of value, beſides ſome gold. In the neighbourhood grows the famous plant alcacazan, which is reckoned a catholicon for reſtoring ſtrength, and a ſpecific againſt all poiſon. The natives apply the leaves to the part affected, and judge of the ſucceſs of it's operation by their ſticking or falling off.

NATIVIDAD, in this neighbourhood, is ſaid to be a good port, from whence ſhips ſail for the Philippine iſlands; it lies not far from cape Corientes, and ſerves as a harbour to Colima.

GUADALAJARA audience, or the kingdom of NEW GALICIA, lies fartheſt to the north of the three audiences of New Spain, though it is on the coaſt of the South Sea. It extends betwixt north latitude 20 and 25. On the eaſt and ſouth it has Panuco, and ſeveral provinces of the audience of Mexico; on the north the kingdom of New Mexico; and, on the weſt it is waſhed by the South Sea and the gulph of California, on whoſe coaſt it ſtretches above 200 leagues, from ſouth eaſt to north-weſt; but it is very irregular within land, and the north part eſpecially is very narrow, yet in ſome places it is reckoned 500 miles broad.

It's climate differs much, by reaſon of it's ſituation, partly in the temperate, and partly in the torrid zone; yet it is far more temperate than any other part of New Spain, and in the general, reckoned wholeſome; ſo that it is common for people to live here to an hundred years of age.

The land, for the moſt part is ſo mountainous and woody, that the coaſt looks like a deſert. It is ſaid the Spaniards have deſerted the coaſt on purpoſe, that if ſtrangers ſhould land they may not find any temptation to ſtay, becauſe, beſides the ſilver mines already mentioned, there have been ſome of gold lately diſcovered near Compoſtella, of very great value: and they chuſe to tranſport the ore by mules to Mexico, rather than expoſe ſo valuable a product to be intercepted by foreigners, if they ventured to ſend it in ſmall veſſels by ſea. The country upon the whole, is pretty fruitful, and produces European and Indian grain in ſuch plenty, that the former yields an hundred fold, though it is often deſtroyed by locuſts.

Here are moſt ſorts of vegetables, better than ours, plenty of ſugar-canes, cochineal, and bees without ſtings.

The paſtures abound with all ſorts of cattle, and the woods with veniſon, pines, and oaks, but are infeſted by wolves, and ſcorpions. Here are pepper, and medicinal herbs, that cure all ſores, green ſtones, that are a ſpecific againſt the gravel, fragrant flowers, valuable drugs, and rich mines of ſilver, copper, and lead. On the coaſt, alſo, there is a good pearl-fiſhery. The better ſort of Spaniards are maſters of the ſilver mines, and ſubſiſt by trade.

This audience is ſubdivided into ſeven provinces, as follow:

GUADALAJARA Proper, which is the principal province, and gives name to the whole audience, is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by the province of Mechoacan; on the north by that of Xaliſco; and a corner of it is waſhed by the South Sea on the weſt. Notwithſtanding it's ſituation under the torrid zone, it is healthful, temperate, and fruitful, producing not only good timber, but European and Indian wheat in great plenty, and all fruits of both countries, beſides the vaſt treaſures of ſilver commonly taken out of it's mines.

XALISCO province, the moſt ſouthern on the coaſt, is waſhed by the South Sea on the ſouth and weſt; bounded by the provinces of Guadalajara and Mechoacan on the eaſt; and ſeparated from Chiamettan on the north, by a narrow ſlip of land belonging to the province of Guadalajara, and running out to the ſea.

It abounds with Indian wheat and ſilver mines, but has very little cattle of any ſort. According to Herrera, Menardes, and Laet, from this province is brought the oil, as the Spaniards call it, of the infernal fig-tree, which, among other excellent qualities, is good for diſſolving tumours, and expelling wind and all cold humours, by anointing the belly, and taking a few drops of it in a glaſs of wine, as alſo by clyſters. It is likewiſe of excellent uſe for ulcers in the head, and deafneſs.

Though XALISCO, an ancient city, is the capital, yet that which is the moſt conſiderable of the province is COMPOSTELLA, near the South Sea, about 30 miles to the north of it. It is a rich town, and has ſeveral mines of ſilver at St. Pecaque, in it's neighbourhood, where the Spaniards keep many hundred ſlaves to work in them; but the city is a bad ſituation, the ſoil being ſo barren that there is no paſture for cattle.

CHIAMETTAN province lies under the tropic of Cancer, one half in the temperate, and the other in the torrid zone, ſtretched along the South Sea on the weſt; bounded by Zecatecas on the north-eaſt; by Culiacan on the north-weſt; and by Xaliſco and Guadalajara on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt. It is a fruitful ſoil, and yields much wax and honey, beſides mines of ſilver. The river of St. Jago falls into the ſea here. It is one of the chief on the coaſt, and is half a mile broad at the mouth, but much broader within, where three or four rivers meet together. It has 10 feet water on the bar at ebb.

The chief town here is ST. SEBASTIAN, on a river of the ſame name, towards the mines of Zacatecas, a little place, where they purify the ſilver ore.

ZACATECAS province, ſo called from it's ancient inhabitants, is an inland country, well inhabited, and abounding with large boroughs. It has New Biſcay on the north; Panuco on the eaſt; Mechoacan, Guadalajara, and Chiamettan on the ſouth; and part of Chiamettan and Culiacan on the weſt. It is, like the former, part in the temperate and part in the torrid zone, is about 100 leagues in length, and 45 where broadeſt. The weſt part of this province would not be inhabited were it not for it's mines, which are many, and the richeſt in America, for in all other reſpects it is of no value, as having no water, and producing no ſort of proviſion; but the eaſt part abounds with fruit, corn, and has many woods full of deer.

NEW BISCAY province is bounded by New Mexico on the north; by part of Florida, and Panuco on the eaſt; by Zacatecas on the ſouth; and by Culiacan on the weſt. It is about 100 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and 120 from north to ſouth. It's being well watered makes it fruitful; and it's ſituation a little above the tropic of Cancer renders it temperate. Though there is a mountainous barren part, called Topia, yet moſt of the country is pleaſant, abounding with all manner of proviſions; and though it has no communication with the ſea, yet the inhabitants are very rich, not only in corn, cattle, &c. but alſo in ſilver mines and ſugar works.

ST. BARBARA, ST. JOHN'S, and ENDE, are three little towns, built by the Spaniards for defence of the large ſilver mines in the neighbourhood, and are therefore well inhabited, particularly the firſt, which lies 243 miles north of Zacatecas. The ſecond lies about 70 miles north of that, and is equally rich in mines and minerals; and the third, which is alſo rich in mines, lies 70 miles weſt of the ſecond. Theſe are the mines which Hennepin ſays M. De La Salle aimed at, when

he ranged the coaſt of Florida, on pretence of ſeeking the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi.

CULIACAN province has that of Cinaloa on the north; New Biſcay, and the Zacatecas, on the eaſt; Chiamettan on the ſouth; and the gulph of California on the weſt. It abounds with all ſorts of fruits. The great river La Sal, in this country, is well inhabited on each ſide. Dampier ſays, it is a ſalt lake, in which there is good riding, though it has a narrow entrance, and that it runs 12 leagues eaſt, parallel with the ſhore. There are ſeveral Spaniſh farms and ſalt-ponds about it.

CINALOA province, which is the moſt northern of this audience, and ſtretches out farther to the weſt, has the gulph of California on the weſt; the province of Culiacan on the ſouth; and the kingdom of New Mexico on the north and eaſt. The air is ſerene and wholſome, and, beſides paſtures abounding with cattle of all kinds, the ſoil bears all ſorts of fruit and grain, particularly Indian wheat, as alſo cotton, with the manufacture of which the natives cloath themſelves, after the Mexican faſhion.

NEW LEON, a province between New Biſcay and the gulph of Mexico; but all the account we find of it is in Martiniere. He calls it a kingdom, and bounds it on the north and north-eaſt by the Rio Brava, or Del Nort, which falls into the gulph abovementioned; on the ſouth by the province of Panuco, or the county of Guaſteca; and, on the weſt, by New Biſcay; but ſays it has no towns, nor any conſiderable ſettlements; yet has many mountains, in which there are mines, whereof the moſt known are thoſe of Cinalao to the north, and Guanahate to the ſouth.

NEW MEXICO, ſo called becauſe of it's being diſcovered ſince the Old Mexico, or New Spain, which we laſt deſcribed, is ſometimes ſtiled by the Spaniards a kingdom, and ſometimes a province. It is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louiſiana on the eaſt; by ſome of the provinces of New Spain on the ſouth; and, on the weſt, by the gulph of California and the Rio Colorado.

But whether the limits on the north and eaſt ſhould be contracted or extended, is what we ſhall not pretend to determine, for there are no people that we know of to the north of New Mexico, nor is there a twentieth part of the country within the limits ſpecified that is either cultivated or inhabited; nor is it any more certain how we might venture to extend the limits of it on the eaſt ſide towards Florida, no one having attempted to fix the bounds between theſe two countries, except the French, who have introduced LOUISIANA into their maps, in the room of FLORIDA, bounding it with the Britiſh plantations on the eaſt, and New Mexico on the weſt. The extent has not been diſcovered: however, this may be ſaid, that what has been diſcovered extends 300 leagues north from New Biſcay; and there is no leſs from the ſtraights of California on the weſt, towards Florida and New France on the eaſt.

As it lies in the midſt of the temperate zone, it is a very pleaſant climate; the ſummers are very warm, and the winters pretty ſharp; but then the former are neither ſultry nor unwholſome, and the latter are clear, without being intolerable. The weather, upon the whole, is, generally ſpeaking, agreeable to the ſeaſon, and refreſhing to an European conſtitution.

The ſoil is beautifully interſperſed with riſing grounds, and with rivers well ſtored with fiſh; abounds both with fruit and timber-trees: produces turquoiſes, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, and has mines of gold and ſilver, and feeds all ſorts of wild and tame cattle, eſpecially cows. Here are alſo ſeveral ſorts of fowl: and, in fact, it is ſaid to be as pleaſant, plentiful, and rich a country as any in the world. There are few great rivers in it, but ſeveral little ones run into the gulph of Mexico; and there are divers bays and creeks on that coaſt, which might eaſily be converted into ports.

The greateſt part of this vaſt country is ſtill in the hands of the natives.

Of the various nations in this large territory, mentioned by the Spaniards, the principal are the Apaches. Theſe thinking themſelves aggrieved by the Spaniſh government, about the cloſe of the laſt century, made a general inſurrection, and did a vaſt deal of miſchief; but were at laſt ſuppreſſed, and have ſince been curbed by ſtronger garriſons. Mr. Dampier has more than once mentioned the POSSIBILITY OF PENETRATING HERE TO THE GOLD MINES, BY MAKING A DESCENT ON THE SHORE, OPPOSITE TO CALIFORNIA; AND, IT IS CERTAIN, ALSO, ON THE OTHER HAND, THAT THE SPANIARDS HERE WILL RUN NO LITTLE HAZARDS FROM THEIR NEIGHBOURS, THE FRENCH, [now the ENGLISH] if the latter ſhould come to have numerous ſettlements on the RIVER MISSISSIPPI. See CALIFORNIA, MISSISSIPPI.

The particular nations of this kingdom, or province, being not diſtinguiſhed from one another by any certain limits, we cannot give any particular diviſion of it into provinces and towns, as has been our method almoſt every where elſe, with relation to the principal places of trade; we muſt content ourſelves, therefore, with ſhewing the face of the country, from the beſt general account that we can find of it, which is from the Spaniſh travellers.

The following deſcription of this country, is taken from the accounts given by father Alonſo de Benavides, printed an hundred years ago at Madrid, with ſome ſmall additions, from other perſons who travelled here, as well as he, and from later accounts, which may be ſeen in Laet, Herrera, and others ſince them.

The way to it's capital, Santa Fé, (of which we ſhall preſently ſpeak) is through the province of Conchos, which is parted from New Biſcay by the river of the ſame name. Next follow the Toboſos, Tarrahumares, Tepoanes, Tomites, Sumas, Hanos, and other ſavage nations, for 100 leagues north and north-weſt. Next follow the Apaches, a mighty nation; and here again we meet the north river, where New Mexico properly commences, and extends 100 leagues north from St. Anthony of Seneca, the firſt town of the Biroros, to the town of St. Jerome, in the province of the Taoros. New Mexico, properly ſo called, contained ſeveral nations in this order. At the north river begins that of the Piros, a civilized people, who are clad, dwell in houſes, are ſubjects to their chiefs, and have abundance of Indian wheat, other grain, and cotton; the ſoil being fruitful and the air wholſome. The Tebas are next, inhabiting 15 towns; then the Queres, ſeven; and next the Tompires, 15; the chief of whom are the Chilili. Farther to the north are the Tanos, in five towns; and beyond them the Peicis, in one great town. Seven leagues weſt of them is the metropolis Santa Fé, where only 250 Spaniards, not above 50 of them ſoldiers, kept all this vaſt country in awe, only by the terror of their name; but their numbers are ſince mightily increaſed, not only there, but in all the other towns we mentioned. Not far from Santa Fé, towards the north river, live the Teoas, in eight villages, being the firſt who embraced Chriſtianity, and moſt paſſionate lovers of the Spaniards. Weſt of them are the Hemes; and to the north of them the Picaries; and beyond them the Taoſits. Again, weſt of the Queres, is the town of Acoma, above-mentioned; and, 30 leagues farther weſt, the Zanis, in 12 towns; and, at the ſame diſtance, the Moquis: all of theſe are now Chriſtians, whoſe lands are fruitful, and abounding in cattle and wild beaſts, as do their rivers with excellent fiſh.

All this country of New Mexico, properly ſo called, is almoſt encompaſſed by the numerous and warlike nations of the Apaches, above-mentioned, differing from all the other natives in language, being clad in deer-ſkins, and living in tents, which they carry with them wherever they go.

Some geographers divide New Mexico into 15 provinces, many of the Spaniſh writers into 18, of which they give us barely the names; but the lateſt geographers ſeem to divide it only into five. On the other hand, ſome writers have ſubdivided it into 20, nay 25 provinces, and furniſhed us with the names of as many towns; but we find no deſcription of any, but that which is by all agreed on to be the capital city, viz.

SANTA FE'. It ſtands 130 leagues from the ſea, near the ſource of that Rio Del Nort which runs a great way through the country ſouthward, and then bending eaſt, falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is ſaid to be a rich city, regularly built, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as the ſeat of the governor of the country.

California, though reckoned a part of New Mexico, yet we have treated it ſeparately, for the ſake of making ſuch remarks which more particularly concern the intereſt of Great-Britain. See CALIFORNIA.

REMARKS before the laſt war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

From this view of Mexico belonging to the Spaniards, we may paſs a good judgment of the immenſe treaſures of this part of America; and, conſequently, how unſpeakably beneficial theſe extenſive territories muſt prove to the Spaniſh monarchy, when the commercial ſyſtem which that court has adopted ſhall be brought to maturity. See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, FISHERIES, INDIAN-HOUSE of Spain, SPAIN, and SPANISH AMERICA, ACAPULCO, AMERICA.

The Spaniards, though an indolent nation, whoſe colonies were really ſo rich, ſo great, and ſo far extended, as were enough even to glut their utmoſt avarice, yet gave not over, 'till, as it were, they ſat ſtill, becauſe they had no more worlds to ſearch for; or, at leaſt, 'till there were no more gold or ſilver mines to diſcover.

The Portugueze, though an effeminate, haughty, and, as it were, a decayed nation in trade, ye how do they go on daily increaſing their colonies in the Brazils, in Africa, as well on the eaſt ſide as on the weſt? And how do they increaſe their commerce in all thoſe countries, by reducing the numerous nations in Melinda and Zanguebar, in Congo, in Angola, to the direction, œconomy, and to the government of commerce? whereby they ſubdue whole nations of ſavages to a regular life, and, by that means, bring them to be ſubſervient to trade as well as to government.

But how little has Great-Britain done of this kind? How little have we gained upon the natives of America in all our colonies? How few of them are brought to live among us, how few to be ſubject to us? All our colonies ſeem to be carried on upon the mere ſtrength of our own people, nor can we ſay that we have any one conſiderable nation reduced to intire obedience, and brought to live under the regularity and direction of a civil government, in all our plantations; a very few in New England only excepted.

As for new colonies and conqueſts, how do we ſeem intirely to give over even the thoughts of them, though the ſcene is ſo large, the variety ſo great, and the advantages ſo many? On the contrary, we ſeem to forget the glorious improvements of our anceſtors, ſuch as the great Drake, Cavendiſh, Smith, Greenfield, Somers, and, above all, the yet greater Sir Walter Raleigh, upon the foot of whoſe genius almoſt all the Engliſh diſcoveries were made, and all the colonies and plantations, which now form what they call the Engliſh empire in America, were eſtabliſhed.—Theſe we ſeem to ſit down with, as if we had done our utmoſt, were fully ſatisfied with what we have, that the enterprizing genius was buried with the old diſcoverers, and there was neither room in the world, or inclination in the people, to look any farther.

Whereas, on the contrary, the world preſents us with large ſcenes of trade, new platforms for buſineſs, enough to prompt our ambition, and even to glut our avarice; yet we ſeem to have little ſpirit for the adventure: and how ſhould we, 'till our men in power are brought to revive this ſpirit? And the parliament, we are perſuaded, will not want zeal to forward laudable endeavours.

Nor is there any want of people amongſt us; on the contrary, here are thouſands of families who want buſineſs, want employment, want encouragement; and many that want no ſtocks to carry with them, and are ready to go abroad, were the adventuring ſpirit revived, and ſome men fired with warmth for the undertaking, and but vigorous enough to make the beginning.

This is the way to raiſe new worlds of commerce, to enlarge and extend new funds of trade, to open doors for an increaſe of ſhipping and manufacture. The places are ſo many, and the advantages ſo great, for the making ſuch attempts, that nothing is more wonderful of it's kind, than to ſee how backward we are to puſh on our own advantages, and to plant in the moſt agreeable climate in the world, in a manner ſo advantageous as never to be ſupplanted, and ſuch as ſhould make the Engliſh poſſeſſions abroad five times as great, as opulent, and as profitable to Old England, as they have ever been yet.

The deſcription of theſe places, ſo proper for planting, ſo ſuited for commerce, and ſo qualified to enrich and aggrandize the Britiſh nation, is ſhewn throughout the courſe of this work; and, when the trading genius revives, and the adventuring ſpirit is reſtored amongſt us, then it will appear there will neither want encouragement to ſuch undertakings, or adventurers to embrace the encouragements which offer. Nothing is to me more evident, than that the civilizing the nations where we and other Europeans are already ſettled, bringing the naked ſavages to cloath, and inſtructing barbarous nations how to live, has had a viſible effect already in this very article. Thoſe nations call upon us every year for more goods than they did the year before, as well woollen manufactures as others. The Portugueze colonies in the Brazils, and on the eaſt coaſt of Africa, are an unanſwerable proof of this. The European manufactures now ſent to thoſe colonies, are above five times as many as were ſent 30 or 40 years ago; and yet the Europoan inhabitants in thoſe colonies are not increaſed in proportion: we might give inſtances of the like in other places abroad, and that not a few: ſee in particular the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, EAST-INDIA COMPANY of England, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, AFRICAN TRADE, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, BRITISH AMERICA, CALIFORNIA.

New planting colonies, and farther improving thoſe already ſettled, will effectually increaſe this improvement: for like cauſes will have like effects: cloathing new nations cannot fail of increaſing the demand of goods, becauſe it increaſes the conſumption, and that increaſed demand is the proſperity of our trade.

Here then is an undiſcovered ocean of commerce laid open to us; and many ſpecimens are humbly ſuggeſted throughout this work, which, if entered upon with the authority, power, and vigour of the public, would open ſuch new channels of traffic among us, as it would be very hard for our manufacturers to overſtock the markets, and as no petty prohibitions in Europe could ſtop the current of it.—This, we conceive, is one eſſential part of the grand commercial ſyſtem which this nation ought ſteadily and reſolutely to purſue.

It is ſurprizing, that in a nation where ſuch encouragements are given for planting and improving, where colonies have been ſettled, and plantations made with ſuch ſucceſs; where we may truly be ſaid to have filled the world with the wonders of our growing poſſeſſions, and where we have added not provinces only, but kingdoms to the Britiſh dominions, and have launched out to ſo great an extent of commerce, ſince the days of our great Elizabeth: that now we ſhould, as it were, put a full ſtop at once to all our great deſigns, check the humour of increaſing, and, from a kind of myſterious unaccountable ſtupidity, turn indolent in this reſpect, when other nations are purſuing the contrary meaſures; not as if we found no more room to launch out, for the contrary to that is apparent; but as if we had enough, and ſought no more dominions wherein to propagate and extend our maritime commerce.

In all other caſes, and among all other nations, ſucceſs encourages men to go on; increaſing they endeavour to increaſe, Creſcit amor nummi, &c. ſo in trade, the enlarging the bounds of a plantation, the ſwelling and thriving of commerce, and the advantages to the merchant and planter in all thoſe things, certainly increaſes the deſire of planting, enlarges commerce, and fires the merchant with the deſire of extending his adventures, ſearching out new colonies, forming new ſchemes of trade, and puſhing at new diſcoveries, for the increaſe of his trading advantages.

REMARKS on our article MEXICO ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of peace in 1763; occaſioned by the reported infraction on the part of the Spaniards, of the XVIIth article of the ſaid treaty, relative to our logwood cutters ſettled in the bay of Honduras. See our article LOGWOOD.

Let any gentleman peruſe this our article of MEXICO or NEW SPAIN; let him conſider only that part of it, LA VERA CRUZ, and he cannot but entertain a very high and exalted idea of the prodigious treaſures of this part of NEW SPAIN: and muſt it not make the heart of a Briton glad, that he is ſoon likely to have an eſtabliſhed near neighbourhood to a place as actually rich as it is repreſented, without exaggeration? Muſt not every Engliſhman rejoice, that now he is intitled to a ſituation in the BAY OF MEXICO at all; a ſituation, though not at preſent in a very wealthy condition; yet from its proximity to MILLIONS of MEXICAN TREASURES, may prove lucky enough to become inſtrumental in ſome meaſure, to put Britons one day in poſſeſſion of thoſe very treaſures, which have excited Spain to treat this kingdom ſo ill for many years paſt. For if the Spaniſh dons ſhould ſhew their ſupercillious airs againſt Engliſhmen, and ſhall dare to commit depredations upon them as they did in the times of a pacific Britiſh adminiſtration; ſhould our Spaniſh neighbours preſume again to cut off the ears of Britons, as they heretofore have done, in the exerciſe of their rightful navigation to, and from their own colonies, and ſhall offer to ſearch Britiſh ſhips on the high ſeas, and moleſt our logwood cutters in their privileges of carrying on that trade, which they have ſo lately acknowledged our right to do: if the treaſures of Spain make them forget themſelves, we hope they will remember, that that very nation who lately diſpoſſeſſed them of the HAVANNAH is able to do ſo again; nay, we conceive, that we are in a much better capacity to do it now than we were before the laſt war. For can the Spaniards flatter themſelves that, on another rupture with them, we ſhall not make the beſt uſe of our near neighbourhood to that key of the Spaniſh Indies? Can they ſuppoſe that this nation will not render the PORTS OF ST. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA, as well as PENSACOLA and MOBILLE in the GULPH OF MEXICO, and alſo the right of navigation to, and from the MISSISSIPPI, through that gulph, with their poſſeſſion of the FLORIDAS, as beneficial as they will admit of? The Spaniſh miniſtry cannot think or ſuppoſe otherwiſe. And if the court of Spain ſhould again reſolve upon a freſh rupture with Great-Britain, we cannot doubt but the preſent near neighbourhood to the Havannah, will greatly contribute to enable us to retake the ſame, and that both at leſs danger and leſs expence than we were at in the laſt war. We may have a good fleet in the harbour of PENSACOLA, there being water ſufficient for ſixty gun ſhips; and even ſeventy gun ſhips, the largeſt requiſite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed, like the Dutch ſhips, might paſs every where in that harbour. Nor would our ſituation at MOBILLE be uſeleſs on ſuch an occaſion: and as the Floridas are likely to grow populous, and to receive ſtrength from Georgia and South Carolina, &c. we ſhould not be deſtitute of conſiderable aid of men and proviſions to man and victual a good fleet, at far leſs expence than we have been obliged to do. Our fleets in the gulph of Mexico, together with another from Jamaica, would not find any great difficulty, we apprehend, to become once more maſters of the Havannah; and if that ſhould prove the caſe again, we can hardly believe that it would be in the power of Spain, and France acting in concert with them, to diſpoſſeſs us: and if ſo, it is reaſonable to think that the court of England will rather be inclined at any future peace, to keep it as a pledge for the future good behaviour of the Spaniards, than to reſtore it to them again; for Great-Britain, having for near theſe forty years experienced the maltreatment of the Spaniards, who have occaſioned the nation to be burthened with MILLIONS upon MILLIONS of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, cannot, conſiſtent with her own ſafety and preſervation, be ſuppoſed

to

conſide in the Spaniards any more after their flagrant violation ſo ſuddenly of the DEFINITIVE TREATY. Nor would Spain dare to break the treaty, ſo ſoon eſpecially, did they ſuppoſe, that we are not in a capacity to reſent their treatment, and retake and keep the Havannah for ever after, with no leſs care than hitherto we have done our European Gibraltar; and if we determine to take and hold this key of the Spaniſh treaſure, what hinders but we may become abſolute maſters of the whole Mexican gulph, and poſſeſs ourſelves of the immenſe wealth of this part of America. We could then repoſſeſs ourſelves of the bay of Campeachy on the one ſide of the gulph, as we are poſſeſſed of the Floridas on the other; and what hope could Spain have to diſpoſſeſs us? The Mexicans could not reſiſt the maritime force of England, and when we had the Havannah, France could not aſſiſt Spain to wreſt it out of our hands; and therefore it ſeems no way unreaſonable or viſionary to ſuppoſe, that another immediate Spaniſh war, would put Great-Britain in the full poſſeſſion of all the commerce and treaſures of Mexico. Was this the caſe, ſuch new acquiſition of trade and wealth, would put us in a capacity to diſcharge thoſe public debts, and annihilate thoſe burthenſome taxes, which the Spaniards have been inſtrumental to lay upon this kingdom: and without we do reſolve to make ourſelves amends for the prodigious expence this nation has put us to, ſince the peace of Utrecht, what will avail going to war with them more? We may as well ſet down tamely with inſult after inſult, 'till they ſhall repeat their depredations as formerly, ſearch our ſhips on the high ſeas in their rightful navigation to and from our own colonies, and cut off the ears of Britons as they heretofore have done. We muſt expect a repetition of the like ſcene over again; and be contented with additional debts and taxes, 'till we can raiſe no more money to go to war at all, and then farewel the trade and navigation of theſe kingdoms!

After this nation has ſuſtained the expence of 500 millions of money by the four laſt great wars, 'tis full time to think of reaping ſome equivalent compenſation for ſo immenſe a burthen, which we have bore for ſo many years. And who is to intimidate us from poſſeſſing the treaſures of Mexico for our reimburſement?

Our poſſeſſions in the gulphs of FLORIDA and MEXICO, ſeems to have laid a very good foundation for this further new acquiſition; an acquiſition, that would amply repay the expence if taken; and if the Spaniards once more, and ſo ſuddenly, and ſo ungenerouſly provoke us to quarrel with them, we are inclined to believe, it will prove of unſpeakable benefit and advantage to this kingdom, by opening to us ſuch new ſcenes of commerce we ſhould never have thought of obtaining.

While this is writing, a letter from our colony of Georgia in North America concludes thus: 'We are certainly informed, that the French have ceded NEW ORLEANS, and all their territories on the weſt ſide of the MISSISSIPPI river, to the SPANIARDS; which is a very favourable event for theſe ſouthern provinces, as the latter have no influence over the INDIANS, and are by no means that enterprizing people which the French are: and, in ſhort, we are under no kind of apprehenſion of their diſturbing our ſettlements. By this ceſſion the French have now no poſſeſſion of any part of the continent of NORTH-AMERICA.'

We may therefore, be the more likely one day, to get and keep poſſeſſion of the Spaniſh Mexican treaſures, if they provoke the crown of Britain to a freſh rupture with the Spaniards. See our article LOGWOOD.

MIDDLESEX, a county in England, is divided from Surry on the ſouth by the Thames, from Eſſex on the eaſt by the river Lea, and the Meere ditch, from Buckinghamſhire on the weſt by the river Coln and the Shore ditch, and it has Hertfordſhire on the north. It is not above 21 miles in length, ſcarce 15 in breadth, and not above 80 miles in circumference. It comprehending the two great cities of London and Weſtminſter, and thoſe rich villages of Hackney, Highgate, and Hampſtead, on the north-ſide of thoſe cities and their ſuburbs, it is by much the moſt opulent and populous county in England.

It's air in general is ſweet and wholſome; and, as the whole county is made rich by the neighbourhood of thoſe two ſplendid cities, ſo it's ſoil is extremely improved by their compoſt.

LONDON is the metropolis of England, the capital of all the Britiſh dominions, and the moſt renowned city in the whole world, as well for the numbers as for the wealth of it's inhabitants: for it's univerſal commerce, it's admirable polity, it's eſtabliſhments for learning as well as trade. It is ſituate on the north-ſide of the Thames, with a gentle riſe from that noble river, and ſtands on a gravelly loamy ſoil, which greatly conduces to the health of it's inhabitants. It is environed with fine kitchen-gardens, delightful plains, and beautiful elevations, that are adorned with a great number of ſplendid country-ſeats of it's citizens.

The dimenſions of London within the walls, are 3 miles and 165 feet, but, taking in that world of buildings from Blackwall in the eaſt to Tothill-fields in the weſt, and beyond Groſvenor and Hanover-ſquares, they are in length from Knightſbridge beyond Hyde-park corner to Poplar, 7 miles $\frac{1}{2}$, and from Poplar along by the Thames to Peterborough-houſe beyond Weſtminſter horſe-ferry, above 6 miles $\frac{3}{4}$: and it's breadth, from the ſtones-end at Newington-butts in Surry, to Jefferies's alms-houſes in Kingſland-road in Middleſex, 3 miles and 31 poles; though in other places, as from Peterborough-houſe to Montague-houſe, it is but 2 miles; and in ſome places not half a mile; as in Wapping. It's circumference, reckoning from Peterborough-houſe by Tothill-fields and the ſkirts of the town to Limehouſe, is, at leaſt, 18 miles.

Various have been the conjectures as to the number of inhabitants. The moſt accurate accounts we have, reckon them between 7 and 800,000 within the walls, and it's dependencies without at 1,500,000.

Certain it is, that this city may boaſt itſelf to be the largeſt in extent, the moſt populous, and the beſt inhabited, and that by as civil, rich, and ſober a people, their number being conſidered, as any in the world. And, for a general trade throughout the univerſe, all others muſt give her the precedence.

In order to give the reader a more diſtinct idea of the general commerce of this city, we ſhall ſubjoin an account of the ſeveral companies of the city of London, according to their precedence, beginning with the 12 principal ones, of one of which the lord-mayors have generally made themſelves free at their election, if they were not ſo before; for they are not only the moſt ancient, but the richeſt, many of them having had the honour of kings and princes to be their members, the apartments of their halls being fit to entertain a monarch.

Companies.	Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.
1. Mercers - - l. 3000	Excluſive of 20 per cent. paid yearly to the widows of ſubſcribing clergymen during life, purſuant to a propoſal accepted in 1698, when they ſettled a fund of 14,000 l. a year for that purpoſe.
2. Grocers - - 700	
3. Drapers - - 4000	
4. Fiſhmongers - 800	
5. Goldſmiths - 1000	They had a privilege from Ed. IV. to inſpect, try, and regulate all gold and ſilver wares throughout the kingdom, and to puniſh all workers in either that adulterated the ſame.
6. Skinners - - 700	
7. Merchant-taylors 2000	They were once ſtiled Taylors, and Linen-Armourers.
8. Haberdaſhers - 3500	Were anciently ſtiled Milaners, becauſe that they dealt moſt in what came from Milan.
9. Salters - - - 500	
10. Ironmongers - 1800	In 1724, Mr. Betton, a Turkey merchant, left 26,000 l. in truſt; one moiety of the profits of it to be always applied to the ranſom of Britiſh captives from Mooriſh ſlavery; the other for the poor of the company, and to the charity-ſchools in the city and it's liberty.
11. Vintners - - 600	
12. Clothworkers - 1400	
13. Dyers - -	
14. Brewers - -	
15. Leatherſellers -	Hen. VII. made their wardens inſpectors of ſheep, lamb, and calves leather throughout the kingdom.
16. Pewterers - -	By act of parliament 25 Hen. VIII. their wardens had the inſpection of pewter throughout England.
17. Barber ſurgeons -	In the reign of Hen. VIII. the ſurgeons of this company, then but 19, were exempted by parliament from ward and pariſh-offices, and from military ſervice.
18. Cutlers	
19. Bakers	
20. Wax-chandlers	
21. Tallow-chandlers	
22. Armourers -	The Braſiers are united to this company.
23. Girdlers - -	Queen Elizabeth incorporated the Pinners and Wire-drawers with them.

24. But-

Companies.	Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.
24. Butchers	
25. Sadlers - -	This company has been highly honoured by the late prince of Wales, not only in accepting it's freedom, but in condeſcending to be it's perpetual maſter.
26. Carpenters	
27. Cordwainers	
28. Painter-Stainers	
29. Curriers	
30. Maſons	
31. Plumbers	
32. Innholders	
33. Founders -	All braſs weights made in London, or three miles from it, muſt be ſized with the company's ſtandard, and have their mark; the avoirdupois to be ſealed at Guildhall, and the Troy at Goldſmith's hall. And the company are impowered by charter to view and ſearch all braſs-weights, and braſs and copper-ware made within the ſaid diſtrict.
34. Poulterers	
35. Cooks	
36. Coopers	
37. Tylers and Bricklayers	
38. Bowyers	
39. Fletchers -	It is only a company by preſcription.
40. Blackſmiths	
41. Joiners and Cielers	
42. Weavers	
43. Woolmen	
44. Scriveners	
45. Fruiterers	
46. Plaiſterers	
47. Stationers - -	This company, which alſo includes bookſellers, letter-founders, printers, and book-binders, have a ſtock which is employed in printing almanacks, primmers, pſalters, many ſchool-books, &c. of which they have the ſole privilege, by virtue of a grant from the crown. They pay about 300l. a year in penſions and other charities.
48. Embroiderers	
49. Upholders	
50. Muſicians	
51. Turners	
52. Baſket-makers	
53. Glaſiers - - -	The glaſs-painters are incorporated with them.
54. Horners	
55. Farriers	
56. Paviours	
57. Loriners	
58. Apothecaries -	They are exempt from ward and pariſh offices, and have a ſpacious phyſic-garden at Chelſea; which, in 1721, was granted to the company for ever by Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. the lord of the manor, on condition of their paying a quit rent of 5l. and continuing it always as a phyſic-garden, and of preſenting every year to the Royal Society 50 ſamples of different ſorts of plants there grown, 'till they amount to 2000.
59. Shipwrights	
60. Spectacle-makers	
61. Clock-makers	
62. Glovers	
63. Comb-makers	
64. Felt-makers	
65. Framework-knitters	
66. Silk-throwers	
67. Silkmen	
68. Pin-makers	
69. Needle makers	
70. Gardeners	

Companies.	Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.
71. Soap-makers	
72. Tin-plate-workers	
73. Wheelwrights	
74. Diſtillers	
75. Hatband-makers	
76. Patten-makers	
77. Glaſs-ſellers and looking-glaſs-makers	
78. Tobacco-pipe-makers	
79. Coach and harneſs-makers	
80. Gunſmiths	
81. Gold and ſilver wire-drawers	
82. Long bow-ſtring-makers	
83. Card-makers	
84. Fan-makers	
85. Woodmongers	
86. Starch-makers	
87. Fiſhermen	
88. Pariſh-clerks - -	By a decree of the ſtar-chamber-court in 1625, they obtained a privilege to keep a preſs in their hall, for printing the weekly bills of mortality, by a perſon appointed by the archbiſhop of Canterbury. They are, by their charter, to make a report of all the weekly chriſtenings and burials in their ſeveral pariſhes every Tueſday.
89. The carmen are a fellowſhip by act of common-council, with the title of Free carmen of the city of London.	
90. The porters, conſiſting of tackle and ticket porters, are another fellowſhip.	
91. The wherrymen and lightermen of this city and neighbouring places, were, by act of parliament in the latter end of the reign of king William, conſtituted a ſociety, to be under the direction of the court of lord mayor and aldermen.	

Upon the whole, it appears, that the companies are 91, and they have 52 halls, and the number of liverymen, according to the account made out in 1728, is 8217. The ſums of money yearly diſtributed in charity, by 23 of the companies only above-mentioned, amount to 23,655l. And, if but 40l. each be alſo given to charitable uſes yearly by the remaining 68, which ſeems to be no extravagant ſuppoſition, take them one with another, the whole would amount to no leſs than 26,375l. per ann.

Of the incorporated ſocieties of merchants, and of the ſhipping belonging to the port of LONDON.

1. The firſt ſociety we ſhall mention is the RUSSIA COMPANY, firſt incorporated by queen Mary, anno 1555, and not only impowered to carry on an excluſive trade to all parts of the Ruſſian empire, but likewiſe to all ſuch countries as they ſhould diſcover in thoſe northern parts; which they did ſoon after much to their advantage, viz. the Cherry Iſlands, Greenland, Nova Zembla, Davies's Streights, and Newfoundland: and, in conſideration of thoſe valuable diſcoveries, their privileges were confirmed by parliament, and enlarged by king James I. but the company is not, at preſent, ſo conſiderable as it was, private merchants being admitted into the trade on payment of 5l. which has greatly contributed to extend this commerce. The Ruſſia merchants export from England, particularly from the city of London, coarſe cloth, long ells, worſted ſtuffs, tin, lead, tobacco, &c. and England imports from Ruſſia, hemp, flax, linen-cloth, linen-yarn, Ruſſia leather, tallow, furrs, iron, potaſhes, &c. to a very conſiderable value. See the article RUSSIA.

2. The EAST-INDIA COMPANY, firſt incorporated by queen Elizabeth; but, about the beginning of the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, it being imagined that the laying open their trade would be a very great benefit to the nation, it was therefore made general, and ſo continued 'till the year 1657, when the ſeparate trade having proved fatal to the undertakers, they were, for the good of the whole, united to the company by the legiſlature. In 1698, a new Eaſt-India company was eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, whereby the old company was diſſolved, after a term of years; but, for the ſake of their mutual intereſts, the companies were joined in 1702, and ſince ſtiled, The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt-Indies. The commerce of this great company being carried on from the city of London, has no little tendency to enrich that metropolis. For the nature and merits of this company, ſee the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, and EAST-INDIA COMPANY in particular.

3. The LEVANT, or TURKEY COMPANY, was at firſt incorporated by queen Elizabeth, and their privileges confirmed and augmented in the reign of king James I. when they were impowered to trade to the Levant, or eaſtern part of the Mediterranean, particularly to Smyrna, Aleppo, Conſtantinople, Cyprus, Grand Cairo, Alexandria, &c. This trade is now open to every merchant who pays a ſmall conſideration. The whole is carried on from the city of London. The goods exported from hence to Turkey are chiefly broad cloth, long ells, tin, pewter, lead, ſteel, iron, &c. and the Engliſh merchants frequently buy up French and Liſbon ſugars to tranſport thither, as well as bullion from Cadiz. The chief commodities imported hither from Turkey, are raw-ſilk, goat's wool, grogram-yarn, cotton-wool and yarn, dyeing ſtuffs of various kinds, rhubarb, galls, and other drugs, leather, cotton, &c. See LEVANT TRADE.

4. Here alſo the AFRICAN COMPANY is ſettled, which has proved more beneficial to this city and our American plantations, than to itſelf. See the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

5. The HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY, incorporated by king Charles II. They carry on from the city of London chiefly, a profitable trade to all the places with Hudſon's-Bay and Streights, where they have ſundry factories, to which the natives bring their fine beaver, and other rich furrs and commodities of the country, and exchange them for the Engliſh woollen manufactures, haberdaſhery, hard-wares, &c. See the article HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY.

6. The moſt conſiderable by much of all the trading companies in this city, was that of the SOUTH SEA, eſtabliſhed by act of parliament in the 9th year of queen Anne, for paying off a debt of 9,177,967 l. due from the government, and not provided for by parliament, for erecting a corporation to carry on a trade to the South Sea, and for encouragement of the fiſhery, &c.—By another the following year, the company (after the diſcharge of the debt due to them from the government) was made perpetual. In the year 1714, the capital of the company was enlarged by act of parliament to 10 millions, for which they received intereſt at 6 per cent.—In the never-to-be-forgotten year 1720, an act of parliament paſſed, to enable the ſaid company to increaſe their capital, by redeeming ſeveral of the public debts. By the account of ſubſcriptions upon this occaſion, the capital ſtock of the company was increaſed from 10 to 33,543,263 l. 8s. 3d. For the effects hereof, ſee the article SOUTH SEA COMPANY, and BUBBLES.

By the firſt mentioned act, the corporation was veſted in the ſole trade to and from all countries on the eaſt ſide of America, from the river Oroonoko to the ſouthermoſt part of Terra del Fuego; and on the weſt ſide thereof, from the ſouthermoſt part of the ſaid Terra del Fuego, through the South Sea to the moſt northern part of America, not exceeding 300 miles from the continent on the ſaid weſt ſide (excepting Braſil, &c. in poſſeſſion of the king of Portugal, and Surinam in that of the States General) and the company was to be the ſole proprietors of all iſlands, forts, &c. which they ſhould diſcover within thoſe limits, to be held under the annual rent of an ounce of gold.—By letters patent alſo from the crown, one pound in every hundred pounds capital ſtock, was directed to be raiſed by the members, and employed in improving, enlarging, and carrying on the fiſhery of this kingdom for the uſe of the company.—In purſuance of the ſaid firſt act, the proprietors of navy-bills and tickets, and army-debentures, were incorporated by the name of The Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fiſhery.—And, on the peace that followed in 1713, queen Anne transferred to the ſaid company the benefit of the aſſiento contract made with Spain. [See ASSIENTO CONTRACT.]

The company's application to trade with ſo large a capital, the effects of their traffic both to Greenland and the Weſt-Indies, and cauſes thereof, and how much they might have contributed to the paying off, by the reduction of intereſt, the national debt, and eſtabliſhing the ſinking fund, will appear under the article South Sea company; where alſo will appear ſome ſecret hiſtory; which will ſhew how much the proſperity of this company has been regarded, and how greatly the trading intereſt of the city of London, as well as that of the whole kingdom, might have been promoted, in conjunction with that of the company. See SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

We now proceed to, though we mention it the laſt, the oldeſt of all the incorporated ſocieties of merchants, who chiefly carry on their trade from the city of London; that is, the Hamburgh company. They were originally ſtiled, the MERCHANTS OF THE STAPLE, i. e. of the wool-ſtaple, and afterwards merchant adventurers.—They were firſt incorporated by king Edward I. and, by leave of the duke of Brabant, made Antwerp their ſtaple, or mart for the Low-Countries, where the woollen manufactures flouriſhed more, at that time, than in any other country; for the company's buſineſs, at firſt, ſeems to have been chiefly the ſending of our Engliſh wool unwrought.

King Edward III. obſerving the prodigious trade of the Netherlands to proceed from that city's being made the ſtaple for our wool, and what great ſums were paid by England for the cloth that was made there of it's own wool, removed the wool-ſtaple, firſt to Calais, in his French territories, and then to ſeveral great towns in England, with a deſign to have our wool manufactured at home; but, unhappily for Britain, he was ſo deeply engaged in the French wars, that he did not purſue it.

Queen Elizabeth enlarged the trade of this company of adventurers, and impowered them to treat with the princes and ſtates of Germany, for a proper place for the ſtaple or mart of the woollen manufactures they exported, which was at length fixed at Hamburgh; from whence they obtained the name of the Hamburgh company. They had alſo Dort, in Holland, aſſigned them for another mart. This trade, at preſent, lies open for every merchant, on paying a trifling ſum to the company; ſo that this ſociety now have very little advantage from their incorporation. See the article HAMBURGH.

In order to encourage, and render the trade of this great city the more ſecure, both to the ſeparate, as well as the joint adventurers, here is eſtabliſhed, by act of parliament, two public offices, or corporations, for the inſurance of ſhips and merchandizes, from hazards by ſea, viz. The one called the ROYAL EXCHANGE ASSURANCE company, which is kept in a part of that building; and the other called the LONDON ASSURANCE company, kept near the Royal-Exchange.—See the article ASSURANCE.

Beſides theſe aſſurance offices from the hazards at ſea, it may not be amiſs to ſhew the ſplendor of this city, to take notice that there are other public offices eſtabliſhed, for inſuring both houſes, goods and merchandizes, from loſs and damage by fire; which keep a number of firemen in pay, with ſilver badges of their reſpective offices, to aſſiſt in quenching fires: there are others again, of inſurance upon lives, from which the ſubſcribing ſurvivor very often has a conformable dividend, upon the death of the relation or friend named in the policy, for paying a ſmall yearly contribution while the deceaſed lived.

We ſhall now take a view of the ENGLISH SHIPPING, that trade to and from the port of London, from a liſt of all the ſhips that belonged to this city, which was taken in the year 1732. From the general regiſter at the cuſtom-houſe, it appears, that the total number of veſſels is 1417, and of the men that navigate them, 21,797. And the number of ſhips that arrived at foreign parts, as well as from the ſeveral ports of Great-Britain, in one year from Chriſtmas 1727, viz. Britiſh ſhips from ports beyond the ſea, 1839, foreign ſhips, 213*, and coaſters, 6837; in the whole, 8889. It is obſerved, that this number, prodigious as it is, has been conſiderably increaſed in divers years ſince: for in that part of the Thames, which is properly the harbour, and where the ſhips uſually deliver and take in their cargoes, viz. that which is properly called the Pool, from Limehouſe-reach to the cuſtom-houſe quay, &c. there have been ſometimes computed 2000 ſail of all ſorts, that really go to ſea, beſides barges, or lighters and yachts. And in the river, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are three wet-docks for repairing them, and 33 yards for building them; including the building of lighters, hoys, &c. but excluding all boat-building, wherry, and barge-building above-bridge.

* The average of the burthen of FOREIGN SHIPS has been pretty accurately computed at 86,094 tons, annually employed by ENGLAND (excluſive of thoſe carrying proviſions from Ireland). And the tonnage of Britiſh ſhips, belonging to England, in the foreign and coaſting trade, at 320,000 tons; which, if actually employed, does not amount to four times the quantity of foreign tonnage; and hence a calculation may be formed, of the natural growing ſtrength of our neighbouring maritime powers, ſo far as particularly relates to their trade carried on with England. See the article NAVIGATION.

Upon an eſtimate made of the ſhare which London has in foreign trade, with regard to the reſt of the kingdom, it has been judged to have about one fourth of the whole, at leaſt, if a computation may be made by the produce of the cuſtoms, which are about three to twelve.

How conſiderable a figure this city makes in the government of the kingdom, appears by the influence her inclinations and actions have had upon the affairs of the whole nation, in paſt ages, as well as they have in the preſent. It is eaſy to perceive, that this city muſt have gradually ariſen, from it's firſt beginning to it's preſent grandeur, through a long tract of ſucceſſives times and ages, by the benefit of TRAFFIC, with the concurrence of the favour of princes, and likewiſe the convenience and advantage of it's ſituation.

The number of people in London, render this city the center of foreign commerce; here a great quantity of goods, from all foreign countries, are brought in, becauſe here is always a market,

market, and here they can be conſumed; whereas, take all the other ports of England, many of them can ſend ſhips loaden out, but few can bring them loaden home; for example:

The city of Briſtol is the moſt capable of this next to London, and even Briſtol cannot always diſpoſe of the loading of ſhips home; Yarmouth can ſend, pernaps, 8 or 10 large ſhips out to the Streights, viz. to Cadiz, to Malaga, to Leghorn, to Venice every year, laden with red-herrings. But if theſe ſhips load back with currants from Zant, oil from Gallipoli, ſilk and linen, raiſins and oil from Meſſina, ſilk and wines, fine oils, anchovies, capers, &c. from Leghorn; ſilks, and pepper, and ſulphur, and blocks of marble from Genoa, what ſhall they do with thoſe at Yarmouth? They muſt all unlade, and deliver their cargoes at London, and in like manner of the reſt; ſo that the bulk of London makes the trade of England, and thoſe people are greatly miſtaken, who imagine that the growing magnitude and ſplendor of this city, is too much for the whole country; alledging, that the nation is liver-grown, and muſt die of a pleura. The city, ſay they, drawing away the nouriſhment from the country, as a dropſy ſwells the body, but draws the nouriſhment away from the extreme parts.—But this ſhould ſeem to be a miſtake; the ſimile will not hold; for this ſwelling the body of the city, makes it the grand center of nouriſhment to the whole nation; and, as every part of the kingdom ſends up hither the beſt of their produce, ſo they carry back a return of wealth: the money flows from the city into the remoteſt parts, and furniſhes them again to increaſe that produce, to improve the lands, pay rent to their landlords, taxes to their governors, and ſupply their families with neceſſaries; and all this is the apparent effects of trade, derived from the metropolis.

Nor ſhould we know any thing conſiderable of this trade, if the greatneſs of the city did not cauſe it; here the manufactures, as well as produce of the ſeveral counties, are amaſſed for ſale, as well for the circulation of commerce at home, as the exportation to countries abroad.

Here ſhips from all parts arrive, and ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable branches of trade are confined to this city by law: the Eaſt-India trade is all ſettled here; the Greenland trade deliver all here; the Italian thrown ſilk is confined to be imported here, and here only, and at no other port in England: here the African company import a conſiderable part of their gold, as the South Sea company did alſo their ſilver when they carried on trade: in a word, London is the great gulph of the Britiſh trade; and, as it comes in here, ſo it goes out again from hence to all parts of the nation, circulating in home trade from the merchant to the conſumer.

Nor let us ſuppoſe that the influence of this city is ſmall, at the remoter diſtances of the country, but juſt the contrary; for multitudes of people are employed in the extremeſt parts of England, for the ſupply of London, either with food or fuel, or manufactures, and that to a degree almoſt beyond credibility: for example:

Coals.

What a prodigy of trade does the bare bringing coals, from the north to London, keep up in the nation? Certain it is, that no leſs than 30,000 people are always employed underground, in digging them at Newcaſtle upon Tyne; a thouſand ſail of ſhips are employed in carrying them, and ten thouſand ſeamen, lightermen, keelmen, and boatmen, in the loading, carrying, and unloading the coals.

Provisions in general.

The trade carried on, with reſpect to the article of proviſions only, is not the leaſt conſiderable; the butter trade in Yorkſhire and Suffolk; the cheeſe trade in Wilts, Glouceſter, Warwickſhire, and Cheſhire, all remote from London, and all employed for the ſupply of London; where (according to the moſt moderate accounts) above fifty thouſand tons of cheeſe is conſumed in a year, and as much butter; with this difference only, that the butter is moſt of it made near London, that is to ſay, within 40 or 50 miles, the cheeſe generally from 70 to 150 miles.

The multitudes of people concerned in, and employed by theſe things in the moſt remote parts of the kingdom, are not to be conceived, much leſs calculated, but by thoſe who underſtand the particular funds of proviſions, and the places where they are made: how many lands do they cauſe to be cultivated and improved, by the vaſt ſtocks of cows fed on them? How many, by the numbers of black cattle fed in the fartheſt parts of England, every way, as in Lancaſhire and Weſtmoreland, the North-riding of Yorkſhire, the counties of Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, and Suſſex? And ſuch cattle too, as are to be ſeen in no other parts of the world. Again, the prodigious extent of grounds, in the wilder and remoter parts of Scotland one way, and Wales another, and the mountains of Yorkſhire and Durham another; all employed in breeding, as the other are in feeding the ſtores of black cattle for the market in London.

The like may be ſaid of the ſheep, which take up whole counties and tracts of lands in ſeveral parts of the country; as in Leiceſter and Lincolnſhire, Northampton and Bucks, the bank of Tees, and Rumney-marſhes in Kent, all theſe for large ſheep: Saliſbury-plain, Dorcheſter, and Wincheſter, and Marlborough downs, and all the open country between, for near 50 miles ſquare, for middling-ſized ſheep; as likewiſe the Cats-would-hills, Leominſter-fields, the ſouth downs in Suſſex, Banſted-downs, Newmarket, and Lincolnheaths, whoſe numbers are numberleſs, and all for the ſupply of London.

What an infinite number of people do theſe employ? what millions of acres of land do they improve? and how do they create and propagate trade, even in the remoteſt corners of the iſland, all moved, ſupplied, and the trade ſupported by the prodigious demand of all theſe things at the capital city? not half of which would be felt, if the capital city and it's adjacent multitudes were ſeparated, and dwelt in ten or fifteen ſeveral cities, remote from one another, and every one ſubſiſting, as it were, by itſelf; I ſay, though there would be the ſame number of people to feed, there would not be half the trade or buſineſs occaſioned to feed them.

It is ordinarily ſaid, that there are 30,000 higlers, and travelling market folks, as we call them, about this city, a poor ſort of people that are wholly employed to bring butter, eggs, pigeons, and poultry, &c. to the London markets, and bring veal, pork, and ſmaller things up and down, from houſe to houſe, and every one of them almoſt have a horſe, ſome more, ſome carts, &c.—The like of gardeners, whoſe number is prodigiouſly increaſed, and who now keep carts, and whole teams of horſes, or large luggage boats upon the river, and employ an incredible quantity of land, for 10 miles round the city.

Theſe are ſome of the benefits of a capital city, as to trade: we might give a great many examples of other advantages, which a conflux of people neceſſarily brings with it; but the magnitude of the Engliſh inland commerce is a teſtimony of it; the influence of the city upon it all has evidently been, not the ſupport only, but the very birth and foundation of the trade itſelf.

The article of malt, and malt-liquor, affords another extenſive branch of trade in this city. The number of inns, and public drinking and eating-houſes, which are to be ſeen in London, and the parts adjacent, is even ſo ſcandalouſly great, that, ſhould it be made public, ſtrangers would hardly think it credible: but if we alſo conſider the number that depend upon them, ſuch as maltſters, malt makers, brewers and their ſervants, horſes, carriages, farmers, plowmen, &c. who all get their bread by the drinking trade in this city; reckoning from the ſowing of the barley to the conſumer of the liquor; how many thouſands more would there ſtill be, that would have their bread to ſeek, and new employments to look out for, if the drinking of malt-liquor was to be taken wholly out of trade, and the practice of it at once left off?

The city of Roſtock, in the duke of Mecklemburg's country, is famous for it's brewery, and for the great quantity of beer they brew there, and export to other countries; and, indeed, it is the principal trade of the whole port; yet I am informed, that there are two brewing offices in London, that brew a greater quantity of beer than all that city: and, if it is true, that there are two brewers in London, who brew each of them 1000 barrels a week, which make 104,000 barrels a year, I believe Roſtock cannot go beyond it.

From the beer and ale, let us paſs to the diſtillers of malt-ſpirits, who, in this city, do not conſume leſs than 200,000 quarters of malt every year, beſides 15,000 hogſheads of cyder, in the diſtilling or drawing ſpirits. Add to this, all the ſeveral quantities of ſpirits extracted from melaſſes, from eager, and damaged wines, and bottoms; whoſe number we cannot eaſily gueſs at.

Conſider, likewiſe, the wines, brandy, rum, cyder, and other liquors conſumed in this city, which, according to ſome, is not leſs than 50,000 tons of wine, and 10,000 tons of brandy, cyder, and all other liquors.

The quantity of the woollen manufactures, conſumed and trafficked in within this city, is immenſe. The wool and the oil uſed, are the great principles of this manufacture in general, and are brought from different channels to the hands of the manufacturers; and, indeed, paſs a long way in the ordinary courſe of trade, before they meet at the clothier's houſe.—The oil chiefly comes from Gallipoli, a city in the gulph of Otranto in Italy, and in the kingdom of Naples, as likewiſe from Seville and Cadiz in Spain, and from Faro, Figuera, Liſbon, and Oporto, in Portugal.—We need not add, that this is imported by the merchant, bought by the tradeſmen, and ſold to the manufacturer.

The wool has many channels, as well from abroad as at home.—Wool from abroad makes only two articles. 1. Spaniſh wool, of which we need ſay no more than is ſaid of oil; it is moſtly imported in large quantities from Spain, by London merchants, is bought by London tradeſmen, ſold again to the clothier; being moſtly worked up with the Engliſh wool, and mixed together, the Spaniſh being too fine and ſhort, to uſe by itſelf, except in ſome particular goods. 2. Iriſh wool,

admitted to be imported.—We have ſometimes, and in ſmall quantities, a good ſort of wool from Barbary, the African wool being of good ſubſtance, a long full ſtaple, and not very coarſe.—We have alſo ſometimes Carmenia wool imported from Turkey, which is very good, but the quantity very ſmall.—3. The Engliſh wool is the principal article of this manufacture.

The weavers of Spittlefields, London, ſend exceeding great quantities of wool into remote counties, to be ſpun; they particularly employ a great part of the poor of the whole counties of Cambridge, Bedford, and Hertford; nay, they even ſend large quantities into the north, as far as Weſtmoreland, to be ſpun, and the yarn is brought back in the ſame manner to London.

Beſides the great conſumption of the woollen manufactures in general, in London, the exports from thence to foreign nations is not leſs than three quarters of what is ſent out of England.

The ſilk manufacture of Spittlefields is arrived to a greater degree of perfection, than that of any other nation. France long ſurpaſſed all countries in the world, and, indeed, engroſſed a great part of the trade in Europe, in this general article of apparel; but, as we now vie with them in quality, it is to be hoped we may likewiſe do ſo in the cheapneſs; and then we cannot fail greatly to increaſe our exportations herein.

The hard-ware manufacture, and the trade in metals in general, within the city of London, and from that port to foreign countries, is an article of no little conſideration. Our Birmingham hard-ware has arrived at ſo great perfection, that it beats that of the whole world, not only in the excellency of workmanſhip, but in point of cheapneſs alſo.—And, with regard to the quantities of tin and lead, theſe are not found in greater plenty, than they are in Great-Britain, in any ſtate of Europe; and our exports, in theſe articles, from our metropolis, tend greatly to inrich the whole kingdom in general, as well as the citizens of London in particular.

The quantity of corn conſumed in the city of London, and parts adjacent, is ſo great, and the way of it's being brought thither ſo different, that it is ſcarce poſſible to make an accurate computation of it: it is our felicity, in England, that, how great and grievous ſoever taxes have been, we are not yet come to a gabelle, or tax upon corn; as is the caſe of Italy, and many other countries, and may in time become our caſe, if wars and public perplexities increaſe upon us. Were that our caſe, an evil of this kind would have enabled us to have calculated, exactly, the quantity of corn brought to the London market, as well as to all the reſt of the great corn markets in England.

It may ſuffice, at preſent, to obſerve, that beſides the prodigious quantity of corn and meal, and malt, brought by ſea, and by the navigation of the Thames, and other rivers; ſuch as the Medway, the Lea, and ſeveral ſmaller rivers, to London, the like of which is not to be ſeen in the world; there is alſo a very great quantity, eſpecially of meal and malt, brought by land-carriage, from the counties of Surry, Kent, Suſſex, and Hampſhire; for the wheat is carried by land, even beyond Wincheſter, to Farnham market, and from thence to the mills about Guildford, and all the adjacent country, and then to London by water.

In like manner wheat is brought from Northamptonſhire; nay, from Harborough in Leiceſterſhire, and from Bedford, to the great markets of Hempſtead, St. Albans, and Hitchin; and being then ground at innumerable mills, in the county of Hertford chiefly, which abounds with ſuch mills, is brought to London by land-carriage.

This vaſt carriage of corn and meal to London is a branch of trade, and is to be reckoned as ſuch; for there are many farmers, and others that are not farmers, who keep teams of horſes, on purpoſe to let them out, for the bringing of corn and malt to London; and generally theſe carriages return laden with coals, grocery, wine, ſalt, oil, iron, cheeſe, and other heavy goods, for ſhop-keepers, and tradeſmen of the country, and it is a very great return they make for the mere expence of this carriage.

By the computations of the burials and chriſtenings in this city, one may be enabled to compare the bigneſs and populouſneſs of it with other great cities in the world. As, for example, in the year 1707, the chriſtenings in the imperial city of Vienna, amounted to 3,963, and the burials to 4,354; whereas the burials in London, the ſame year, were 21,600, and the chriſtenings 16,066.

Yet farther, to ſet forth the ſurpaſſing eminency of this city, on account of the vaſt numbers of people it conſiſts of, Sir William Petty makes a compariſon under divers heads, between that and Paris, now one of the moſt flouriſhing cities in Europe, and to exceed it in all theſe particulars following: I. In the wealth and great eſtates of the inhabitants, the number of their ſervants, and greatneſs of their equipages. II. In the wholeſomeneſs of the air. III. In the cleanly and more convenient way of living. IV. In the preference of the river Thames to that of Seine, both in pleaſantneſs and navigableneſs, and in the wholeſomeneſs of it's waters, and the great bridge of London built over it. V. In the ſhipping and foreign trade; London therein incomparably exceeding both Paris and Roan. VI. In the cheapneſs of all the moſt neceſſary ſorts of food, and the great variety and plenty of all ſorts of drink. VII. In the cheapneſs, likewiſe, and goodneſs of fuel, and conveniency of ſtowage. VIII. In the magnificence of the churches; none at Paris being ſo great as St. Paul's hath been and now is, none ſo beautiful as king Henry the Seventh's chapel. IX. In the courts of inns and chancery, and the lawyers chambers. And, laſtly, in the hoſpitals, ſo many and ſo richly endowed, and for the relief of multitudes of miſerable and diſtreſſed people of all ſorts.

Collected bodies of people are alſo a particular aſſiſtance to trade; and, therefore, to have one great and capital city in a kingdom is a very great advantage to trade, and much more than if the ſame number of people dwelt in ſeveral places. For example:

Suppoſe the city of London, and it's ſuburbs, to contain 1,500,000 people, as ſome have computed, though we believe that number to be much too large, it ſeems far more to the advantage of the whole kingdom, in reſpect to it's commerce, that it ſhould be ſo, than that the ſame number of people were divided equally, and lived in 15 ſeveral cities, remote from one another.

It is the ſame as to navigation: it is much better that they have here one commanding port, one noble navigable river, than that they had, in their divided and remote ſituation, as above, 15 navigable rivers, one to every city.

Spain is a remarkable inſtance of this: there is no capital city, except that, or rather the village of Madrid, where the court reſides, which is ſuppoſed to contain 300,000 people; but it has neither ſea-port or inland navigation, no navigable rivers being near it; the neareſt is the Tagus, or Toledo, which is not only diſtant 12 leagues, at leaſt, but does not open into the ſea in the ſame dominions, but in Portugal; ſo that it is no navigation at all as to Spain.

Spain has abundance of other populous cities and ſea-ports in it, diſperſed and remote from one another, as Seville, Granada, Valencia, Toledo, Cordova, and ſeveral others.

Seville has at leaſt 300,000 people in it alſo, and ſeveral of the reſt from 100,000 to near 200,000, at Cadiz, Barcelona, Malaga, Saragoſſa, Valencia, Granada, which laſt city our beſt geographers reckon to be very near as populous as Seville or Madrid; the beſt accounts we can meet with from the Spaniards themſelves are as follow:

1. Madrid, 24,000 families, half of which are of nobility and quality, having from 20 to 30 and upwards in family, the reſt being of the ordinary rate.

Beſides eſtimating the king's houſhold at the Pardo, which, including the ordinary guards, is ſaid to contain always 12,000 ſouls. 2. Seville, containing 60,000 families, at ſix in a houſe, 360,000 ſouls. 3. Granada, 50,000 families. 4. Malaga. 5. Cordova. 6. Valencia. 7. Barcelona. 8. Saragoſſa. 9. Cadiz. 10. Majorca; each of theſe 15,000 families; which, with the poor and the religious houſes, make far above 100,000 in each city.

The reaſon of naming theſe cities will appear preſently: put them all together, they are not ſuppoſed to contain more people than the city of London, and thoſe adjacent towns to London which depend upon their ſupply of proviſions from the city, including alſo the ſhips in the river.

Now as theſe cities ſtand all remote from one another, and moſt of them in the moſt rich and fertile ſoil, or near the ſea-coaſts, or on the banks of navigable rivers, their ſupply of proviſions, fuel, cloathing, equipage, furniture, and take it of as many kinds as you pleaſe, does neither come with difficulty, call for multitudes of hands to be employed in raiſing, procuring, fetching, or carrying them; nor does it influence the country to any perceptible degree, except, perhaps, for 20 or 30 miles round them. But were all theſe cities, that is to ſay, the number of the inhabitants included in them, all joined in one capital, ſuppoſe Madrid, and though you were to ſuppoſe Madrid had a noble navigable river coming up to it, ſuch as the Tagus, or the Ebro, or the Guadalquiver, it is evident the whole kingdom of Spain, large and ſpacious as it is, for it may be reckoned almoſt 500 miles ſquare, would be engaged and influenced, more or leſs, in ſupplying that one city with proviſions.

All the ſea coaſts, and all the cities and ports upon thoſe coaſts, would be buſied, and fleets of ſhips employed to furniſh wine, corn, oil, fruits, and foreign importations of every kind, all to the capital port of Madrid.

All the inland provinces would be engaged and employed in ploughing and ſowing the lands, to raiſe corn, planting vines and groves of olives, to make wine and oil for this great metropolis.

All the rich meadows and paſtures would be improved to feed and fatten the black cattle, to nouriſh the cows, ſuckle the calves, and furniſh beef, veal, and milk, butter, cheeſe, &c. and all the mountains, the foreſts, and plains, for breeding the black cattle and horſes before they come to thoſe rich paſtures; alſo the plains muſt be covered with flocks of ſheep, which are now diſperſed and ſcattered a few and few together: and thus, as it is in England, every province would be providing ſomething for the capital.

Nor is it a juſt objection to ſay, the ſame number of people will conſume the ſame quantity of proviſions, in whatever ſituation they may be placed; for, though the quantity ſhould be the ſame, yet the influence upon trade, occaſioned by it's being all pointed to one center, is ſuch as quite alters the caſe, and would put the whole body of the people into motion, as it is in England. What fleets would there be employed to bring oil from Seville and Majorca, wine from Cadiz, Malaga, Alicant, Barcelona, and Galicia, &c. fiſh, wrought iron and ſteel, all ſorts of weapons, fire-arms and artillery, from Bilboa and St. Antonia, and ſilk and wool from Segovia and Valencia, and the like from other parts?

What an infinite number of horſes, mules, and carriages, and carriers, muſt be employed by land from all the inland provinces, to carry the product of the earth directly to Madrid, or, if too remote for that, to carry them to the ſeveral ſea-ports where thoſe ſhips and fleets were to take them on board! How is this the cauſe of employing a thouſand ſail of ſhips, and, perhaps, three times as many in England, to bring the coals from one place, ſalt from another, cheeſe from another, lead from the north, block-tin from the weſt, corn from Hull, from Lynn, and from all the coaſts of Norfolk, Suffolk, Eſſex, Kent, Suſſex, and Southampton; fiſh from all the ſeas on the eaſt and ſouth ſides of the iſland, and ſo of the reſt?

How many thouſands, I might ſay hundreds of thouſands, of men and horſes are employed in the carrying and re-carrying to and from London the growth of England, and the importations of foreign countries? And how many of theſe would ſtand ſtill and want buſineſs (nay, want bread, perhaps) if this great city was divided into 15 cities, as above, and they were ſituated in ſo many different places, remote from one another, where the country within 20 or 30 miles round them would be ſufficient for them, and able to ſupply them, and where every port would import their own goods from abroad.

In a word, we ſhould have a general want of buſineſs; whereas now all the world (in this city) are in a hurry, and fully employed, in carrying out and fetching in.

Particularly obſerve another article, the number of people at London makes this city the center of foreign commerce: here a great quantity of goods from all foreign countries are brought in, becauſe here is always a market, and here they can be conſumed; whereas, take all the other ports of England, many of them can ſend ſhips loaden out, but few can bring them loaden home, as before ſhewn.

To bring this to our ſubject: all theſe proviſions expended at Madrid, what do they for the country as to trade? Some benefit they are, it is true, to the neighbouring provinces; ſo is our city of Briſtol to it's counties: but how far in the country from them does that employment extend? How far do they feel the influence? Perhaps in Spain the country may be concerned in furniſhing corn 20 or 30 miles, and cattle 40 or 50; but, after that, we find little or nothing of it.

At Briſtol, indeed, they carry corn a great way, by water, down the rivers Severn and Avon, out of Glouceſterſhire and Worceſterſhire, and from the vale of Eveſham; they likewiſe bring cyder from Herefordſhire, down the Wye, Cheſhire cheeſe by the Severn, out of Shropſhire, and butter from South Wales, by ſea: and ſo Briſtol may, in ſome degree, affect all thoſe counties.

But their black cattle are ſupplied from Somerſetſhire and Wales, and their mutton and corn, cheeſe and bacon, from Wilts and Glouceſterſhire, all counties juſt adjoining; and, after 20 miles from them, even in thoſe counties, you ſcarce find any mention of Briſtol: nay, one way, there are other cities and great towns that intercept the proviſions; ſo that very little comes that road, except beef; I mean Somerſetſhire, where there are the city of Wells, the city of Bath, and the towns of Bridgewater and Froom; the latter more populous, perhaps, than both the two former put together, though cities.

Thus trade receives but little influence from ſuch places as Madrid in Spain, or Briſtol in England, except it be juſt in the adjacent counties, and within 20 or 30 miles of the place.

But bring this back to the great city of London, and conſider the multitudes of people there, and the exceeding numbers which are gathered ſouthward into the counties and towns for 30 or 40 miles round London, almoſt every way; how all the country round is made populous by the vaſt run of buſineſs occaſioned by the neighbourhood of the city; inſomuch that it is ſuppoſed, if there is a million and a half of people in London and it's ſuburbs, there is at leaſt half a million more in Middleſex, and in thoſe parts of Eſſex, Surrey, and Kent, which lie ſo adjacent to London as to be within about 10 miles of it: now, for the ſupply of theſe two millions of people, we find the whole kingdom more or leſs engaged, and the wheels of trade are ſet a-going by it almoſt all over the iſland.

We take this propoſition about great cities, and the number of people collected together making trade, to agree in ſome meaſure with what you may obſerve in the ſpring of the year, from the variety of the ſeaſons; take a time of drought, and, when the earth, for want of rain, is dried, hard, and parched up, comes a light flying ſhower, and wets the ſurface a little, and goes off; then comes a hot gleam from the ſun, and licks it up; and by and by comes another daſh of wet, and then more ſunſhine: and ſo on ſucceſſively and alternately, ſeveral times a day, and for a week or a fortnight together.

Theſe light flying ſhowers anſwer no end, do little or no good; the ſun dries it up as faſt as it wetted, and, by the long intervals between, all the benefit is loſt; the ground remains hard, ſterile, and barren ſtill; it is all one as a drought.

But would the ſame quantity of rain fall all in one ſhower, was there a weight of water ſufficient to ſet nature at work, ſink down to the root, and duly moiſten the plants, give drink to the thirſty earth, and ſet the priſoners free, (I mean the ſeeds, which lie baked and blocked up in the earth, and cannot get out) then the earth is refreſhed, and every thing thrives and flouriſhes as it ſhould do.

I think the ſimile is pretty juſt: a ſmall body of people do nothing as to this article of trade; they do not influence trade, even in proportion to their numbers; like a ſmall ſtream of water to a mill, it not only will not make the wheel go at a proportioned rate, but it runs by, or under it, goes off in waſte, and does not make the mill go at all; it runs all away to no purpoſe.

Here is a ſmall city, and there a large town; they are good to depend upon the capital, and to have the capital, in many things, depend upon them; but they are not able to ſubſtitute a capital, and to ſtand in the room of it: when they come to have the general body, the whole nation's trade depend upon them, inſtead of a capital city, then they are nothing at all, they are of no importance.

They tell us France is ſo ſituated by the aſſiſtance of navigable rivers, that there are two and forty large cities which have all a communication with the great city of Paris by water, either by ſea or river navigation; and what is the conſequence? Not that theſe cities make Paris great and rich, but that all theſe cities are made rich and great by the city of Paris.

We ſay the ſame of London, though not as to river-navigation; but the whole kingdom of England, by it's communication with London, is the ſame; it is not the kingdom makes London rich, but the city of London makes all the kingdom rich. The country correſponds with the city, but the city correſponds with all the world; the country ſupplies the city with corn and cattle, that is to ſay, with proviſions; yes, and if there was not ſuch a city to take off and conſume them, what would the country do? How muſt the product of the land be ſold? How the rents paid? The land muſt lie waſte and uncultivated, the cattle would run wild, and devour the country, or be ſtarved and die: the country ſends up their corn, their malt, their cattle, their fowls, their coals, their fiſh, all to London; and London ſends back ſpice, ſugar, wine, drugs, cotton, linen, tobacco, and all foreign neceſſaries to the country; and, above all the reſt, that uſeful drug called money: ſo that ſtill it is the capital city that is the life of the country, and keeps them all in motion.

Again, the countrymen ſheer their ſheep, ſell their wool, carry it from place to place; the manufacturers ſet it to work, to combing, carding, ſpinning, winding, twiſting, dyeing, weaving, fulling, dreſſing; and thus they finiſh their numberleſs manufactures. But what muſt they do with them? What could a Madrid or a Briſtol do for them? Briſtol could take off ſome, indeed, and does export a proportion with it's neighbours; but London is the center of the groſs body of manufacture; London anſwers the end of every trade abroad, and of every manufacture at home; be it Mancheſter for cotton ware, Yorkſhire for coarſe cloth, kerſies, &c. Wilts and Glouceſter for fine cloths; Norwich for ſtuffs; Wales for flannels; all goes to London, and all have their money in return from London.

London conſumes all, circulates all, exports all, and, at laſt, pays for all; and this is trade: this greatneſs and wealth of the city is the ſoul of the commerce to all the nation; and, as there is the greateſt number of tradeſmen in this city that are to be ſeen in any place in the world, ſo they again ſupport and ſupply an innumerable number of ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen of every kind in the country, and in every part of the country.

It may be thought a little aſſuming to ſay, the city ſupports the tradeſmen of the country, but the fact is plain; you cannot go to a ſhopkeeper of any note in the remoteſt town in England, but he holds ſome correſpondence at London; or elſe he muſt be a mean tradeſman, that buys his goods of ſome of his better-furniſhed neighbours, and they buy at London: ſo that the other may be ſaid to buy at London too, only he does it at ſecond-hand.

Nor is this all; but, as all theſe country tradeſmen buy at London, ſo they all are in debt at London more or leſs; they all owe the London ſhopkeepers money; ſo that the whole country may in ſome reſpects be ſaid to trade upon the city's ſtock, the London tradeſmen giving them all credit.

It is, indeed, a little remote from the ſubject of inland trade, or elſe it is very remarkable and worth our obſerving, that the city of London trades with ſuch an immenſe ſtock, that it may be ſaid they give credit to all the world more or leſs; all the trades they carry on abroad, almoſt in every part of the world, are carried on by the ſtrength of their ſtocks; they

do not receive the goods from abroad, and ſo make the returns back to the ſeveral countries from whence they come, but they ſend their own goods firſt out, and receive the goods of other countries back in payment.

Thus in all the ports of Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey, the merchants of London have their houſes (as they call them) there; the warehouſes are piled full up to the cielings with Engliſh bales; Engliſh ſtocks carry on the trade; in a word, we give credit to all the world.

Not a fleet of Portugueze ſhips from the Brazils, not the galleons or flota from New Spain, but a ſhare of the gold of the firſt, and the ſilver of the laſt, is the product of Engliſh ſtocks, and belongs to London merchants, whoſe goods, ſold upon credit at Liſbon and Cadiz, went firſt out to America to purchaſe that gold and ſilver.

Not a Turkey fleet, or a ſhip from Leghorn, Meſſina, or Genoa, how rich ſoever freighted with the fineſt raw and thrown ſilk, the choiceſt drugs and gums, but it is all the effects of the merchants of London, and in return for credit firſt given by the city of London.

It is the like in the plantation trade; all the New England trade, the Jamaica trade, the Barbadoes trade, it is all carried on by the ſtocks of the Engliſh merchants.

The ſugars, the tobaccoes, the furrs, the turpentine, the cacao, the indico, and all the reſt of the produce of our colonies, come home in return from all thoſe iſlands for the goods long before conſigned to them chiefly from London; ſo that, in fine, almoſt all the plantations are managed upon the ſtock and ſubſtance of the citizens of London.

To bring it all back to what we have obſerved before: as this vaſt correſpondence abroad is thus carried on by the city of London upon it's own ſtock, and they give credit to all the world; ſo, when thoſe returns come back, they diſperſe all thoſe goods again among the country tradeſmen, and give them credit too; and this is the effect of a capital city: a capital city carries on a capital trade, and enriches and employs the whole country; which, if the ſame people dwelt in a divided and ſeparate capacity, would not be the caſe at all.

So many deductions muſt be made from the home trade, that thouſands, nay hundreds of thouſands of people now employed in collecting the commerce thus to one place, would then be left without buſineſs, and by conſequence without bread; as in the country, if the ſheep fed all about the farmers houſes as the ſwine do, or were domeſtics like their dogs, and not in flocks, requiring to be tended and directed, there would be no employ for all the ſhepherds, which in the weſt and northern parts of England are maintained by keeping, and waiting upon, and folding them; ſo the neceſſary attendance upon the trade, as it all goes up to, and comes back from London, how many thouſands of people does it employ?

Moreover, this capital city is the grand ſource and ſupport of the public credit of the whole ſtate, as hath been experienced upon numberleſs occaſions.—Here the circulating power of all the public funds, and the public revenue is conſtantly exerciſed, for the benefit of the kingdom in general, and for the convenience of its traffic.—This is the center of paper circulation, by the means of that national and noble eſtabliſhment the bank of England, and the high credit of it's eminent and opulent bankers, who are not inferior, in point of wealth, honour, and ſagacity, to thoſe of any ſtate or empire in the whole world.

What numbers of the greateſt and moſt illuſtrious nobles of this kingdom have ſprung from the city of London [ſee our article COMMERCE], and what ſome of the merchants of this capital have done for the ſupport of the kingdom in general on the moſt critical emergencies, ſee our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE. However, to add another inſtance to what I have elſewhere ſaid:—'The parliament granted, ſays Rapin, king Richard II. a ſubſidy for the maintenance of the war: but it was clogged with this condition (which ſhewed they were reſolved to be upon their guard during the minority) that the money ſhould be lodged in the hands of Philpot and Walworth, two very noted ALDERMEN of LONDON, who were ordered to take care that it ſhould be expended only in repulſing the French and Caſtillians, in league againſt England.—In the mean time the duke of Lancaſter, who was vexed to ſee money, granted the king by the parliament, in the hands of two citizens of London, haſtened not the getting ready the ſhips neceſſary for the defence of the coaſts. This affected negligence gave occaſion to a great many complaints. But he pleaded in his excuſe that he could not form any project, leſt it ſhould not be approved of by thoſe who had the management of the money. In fine, he importuned ſo the other regents upon that ſcore, that the two aldermen were ordered to put into his hands the ſums they had in charge. He promiſed, for his part, that the coaſts ſhould be better guarded, and the merchantmen protected. However, it was a good while before he ſent a fleet to ſea, becauſe he expected from Bayonne ſome ſhips which were to join thoſe he had equipped.

Whilſt the fleet was getting ready, the earls of Arundel and Saliſbury had orders to go to Normandy and take poſſeſſion of Cherbourg, which the king of Navarre had promiſed to deliver up to the Engliſh. Hardly were they got to ſea, when they met ſome Spaniſh men of war, who fiercely attacked them, and did them ſome damage. Notwithſtanding this, they put a garriſon into Cherbourg, which opened the Engliſh an inlet into Normandy, as Calais did into Picardy. Before the fleet deſigned to guard the coaſts was ready, a Scotch pirate, one Merier, ſeeing that the Engliſh neglected the northern ſeas, entered the port of Scarborough, and carried off the merchantmen that lay there. This ſucceſs having inſpired him with greater hopes, he cruized a long time in thoſe parts, and took conſiderable prizes. The damages the merchants ſuſtained, on this occaſion, caufed freſh complaints againſt the duke of Lancaſter, who ſo ill performed his promiſe.

Philpot, whom I mentioned before, full of indignation to ſee the Engliſh merchants expoſed to the ravages of this pirate, undertook to do, at his OWN EXPENCE, what the duke neglected to do with the public money. He fitted out ſome ſhips, on board of which he put a THOUSAND SOLDIERS, and, having found the Scotch pirate, he defeated him, took him priſoner, and returned in triumph to London. This action, which gained him the applauſes of the people, offended the regent, who thought it of dangerous conſequence to ſuffer a private perſon to undertake a thing of that nature without the government's leave. But he vindicated what he had done, with ſuch good reaſons and with ſo much modeſty, that he was acquitted.—This, among many others mentioned throughout this work, is a memorable action of a LONDON MERCHANT to preſerve the commerce of the nation!

As king Richard the IId of England was very fond of pomp and magnificence, his expences far exceeded his revenues, ſo that he was forced to make uſe of ſeveral illegal methods to ſupply his occaſions. He had a mind once to try the affections of the city of London, by deſiring them to lend him only a thouſand pounds ſterling: but, though it was no great ſum, they bluntly denied him *; which ſo mortified him, that not long after, there being a tumult † in the city, occaſioned by a baker's boy, he deprived the city of it's privileges, turned out the mayor, eſtabliſhed a warden in his room, and removed the courts of judicature to York; and it afterwards coſt the city no leſs than 10,000 l. to recover it's charter.

* It is ſaid that an Italian merchant, who offered to lend him that ſum, was mobbed, and, according to Rapin, cut to pieces.

† Our hiſtorians tell us, that this was the occaſion of the tumult; a baker's boy, paſſing through Fleet-ſtreet with a baſket of bread, a ſervant belonging to the biſhop of London, as Caxton ſays (but, as Sir John Hayward ſays in his Life of Henry IV. to the biſhop of Saliſbury, wherein he agrees with Hollingſhead and others) took out a loaf, and abuſed the boy, who demanded it, in ſuch a manner as raiſed a mob, that threatened to fire the biſhop's palace, into which he retired for ſhelter, 'till the magiſtrates came and ſuppreſſed them.

An order to the courts of juſtice at Weſtminſter, to remove to York, dated at Stamford, March 13, 1392.

The eſtabliſhment of a warden of London, in the room of the depoſed mayor, dated June 25, 1392, at Nottingham-caſtle *. A receipt for 10,000 l. ſterling, paid to the king by the city of London, to regain his good-will, dated February 28, 1393, at Weſtminſter.

* This warden was Sir Edward Dalyngrugge, who, being thought too favourable to the citizens, was quickly removed, and Sir Baldwin Baddington, a perſon of a rougher temper, put in his place, who by his prudent conduct pleaſed both the king and the city. It appears by the account we have of this reign, in the Compleat Hiſtory of England, vol. i. and in that called the Life and Reign of King Richard II. compiled by a perſon of quality, and from the accounts of Knighton and Walſingham, that the biſhop of Saliſbury, having an old grudge againſt the citizens, who were generally reckoned favourites of Wickliff's doctrine, took the opportunity of the riot before-mentioned, to ſtimulate and heighten the king's diſpleaſure againſt the city to that degree, that he threatened to raze it to the ground; but, at the mediation of ſome of the nobility, ſent for the mayor, ſheriffs, aldermen, and 24 others of the ableſt citizens to his court, then held at Nottingham; where, impeaching one another in hopes to curry favour with the king, the mayor was committed to Windſor-caſtle, and the reſt to other goals. Mean time, the queen, the duke of Glouceſter, the biſhop of London, and other perſons of diſtinction, interceding with the king heartily for the city, he was ſo pacified that he ſet out for London, being met from the city by 400 men on horſeback, clad all in one livery, and innumerable multitudes on foot, a ſolemn proceſſion of the clergy, and 500 boys in ſurplices, the balconies being hung with tapeſtry and pictures, the conduits flowing with wine, &c. Beſides, they preſented the king with a crown of gold of great value, and another of the ſame metal to the queen, together with a picture of the Trinity worth 800 l. and ſeveral other great gifts, by which means they obtained all their old privileges: but, after all this, they were forced to pay 10,000 l. or elſe they muſt have ventured the effects of the king's freſh

freſh diſpleaſure. The biſhop of London, who had ſuch a great hand in the reconciliation, was not only highly honoured by the citizens all his life, but after his death; the mayor, aldermen, and companies, made nine proceſſions a year to Weſtminſter, where he lay buried, to pray for his ſoul. Mr. Rapin obſerves, that Richard lived to repent his ſevere treatment of this city, by which he entirely loſt the citizens hearts, who afterwards convinced him, how dangerous it is for a king of England to have that metropolis for his enemy. Rymer's Fœdera.

And, how zealous the citizens of London were in bringing about the revolution, upon the abdication of the late king James, appears from what follows*:

* See the Revolution vindicated; in anſwer to the two memorials, and the proteſtation againſt the peace of Ryſwic, and other papers publiſhed in king James's name. State Tracts of 1707, folio.

'About ten o'clock, the lords ſpiritual and temporal about the town, came to Guildhall, and, ſending for the lord mayor and aldermen, agreed on a declaration, which among other things bears—'That they did reaſonably hope that, the king having iſſued out his proclamation and writs for a free parliament, they might have reſted ſecure under the expectation of that meeting: but, his majeſty having withdrawn himſelf, and, as they apprehended, in order to his departure out of the kingdom, by the pernicious councils of perſons ill affected to the nation and their religion, they could not, without being wanting to their duty, be ſilent under thoſe calamities, wherein the popiſh councils which ſo long prevailed, had miſerably involved theſe realms; they did therefore unanimouſly reſolve to apply themſelves to his highneſs the prince of Orange, who, with ſo great a kindneſs to theſe kingdoms, ſo vaſt expence, and ſo much hazard, had undertaken, by endeavouring to procure a free parliament, to reſcue them, with as little effuſion of Chriſtian blood as poſſible, from the imminent dangers of popery and ſlavery; and declare, that they will, with their utmoſt endeavours, aſſiſt his highneſs in the obtaining ſuch a parliament, in which their laws, and libertics, and properties, and religion, might be ſecured, and the proteſtant religion and intereſt over the whole world ſupported and encouraged, to the glory of God, the happineſs of theſe kingdoms, and the advantage of all princes and ſtates in Chriſtendom that may be therein concerned.—And ſuch a parliament they would endeavour to have with all ſpeed, they ſay, and ſo it ſeems were reſolved not to wait 'till king James's return.

It was ſigned by 31 lords and biſhops, and ſent to the prince by four of their number.

This declaration of the lords was followed the ſame day by two addreſſes to the prince, one from the LORD MAYOR, COURT of ALDERMEN, and the COMMON COUNCIL, and the other from the lieutenancy of LONDON. The firſt bears thanks to God almighty for having bleſſed his highneſs's endeavours with miraculous ſucceſs, and thanks to his highneſs for appearing in arms to reſcue theſe kingdoms from ſlavery and popery, and to eſtabliſh, in a free parliament, their religion, laws, and liberties, upon a ſure and laſting foundation. That they had hitherto looked for ſome remedy for thoſe oppreſſions and imminent dangers from his majeſty's conceſſions, and concurrences with his highneſs's juſt and pious purpoſes expreſſed in his declaration. But, herein, finding themſelves finally diſappointed by his majeſty's withdrawing himſelf, they preſumed to make his highneſs their refuge; and, in the name of the CAPITAL CITY, they implored his protection, and begged that he would repair to the city, where they aſſured him he would be received with univerſal joy and ſatisfaction, as quickly after happened. The lieutenancy or militia of the city, in their addreſs, expreſſed the deep ſenſe they had of what they owed to him. That without his undertaking they had been undone; that it was their firm reſolution to venture all that was dear to them, to attain the glorious ends of his declaration: that they had put themſelves into ſuch a poſture, as with the bleſſing of God was ſufficient to prevent all ill deſigns, and to preſerve the city in peace 'till his arrival; which they deſired he would haſten, for the perfecting the great work which he had ſo happily begun, to the general joy and ſatisfaction of them all. How well this lieutenancy ſtood affected to the late king, and had proved firm to him 'till now that he abandoned them, is known.'

Further REMARKS.

That the reader may entertain a juſt idea of the importance of this city to the commerce of the kingdom, we ſhall give him the deſcription of the Royal Exchange of London, from our countryman, that inimitable writer Mr. Addiſon; for authorities have often more force than the ſtrongeſt reaſoning, or the cleareſt demonſtration.

'There is, ſays he, no place in the town, which I ſo much love to frequent as the Royal Exchange of London. It gives me a ſecret ſatisfaction, and, in ſome meaſure, gratifies my vanity as I am an Engliſhman, to ſee ſo rich an aſſembly of my countrymen and foreigners conſulting together upon the private buſineſs of mankind, and making this metropolis a kind of emporium for the whole earth; I muſt confeſs, I look upon high change to be a great council, in which all conſiderable nations have their repreſentatives. Factors, in the trading world, are what ambaſſadors are in the politic world. They negociate affairs, conclude treaties, and maintain a good correſpondence between thoſe wealthy ſocieties of men, that are divided from one another by ſeas or oceans, or live on the different extremities of a continent. I have often been pleaſed to hear diſputes adjuſted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London; or to ſee a ſubject of the Great Mogul entering into a league with one of the Czar of Muſcovy. I am infinitely delighted in mixing with theſe ſeveral miniſters of commerce, as they are diſtinguiſhed by their different walks, and different languages. Sometimes I am joſtled among a body of Armenians, ſometimes I am loſt in a crowd of Jews, and ſometimes make one in a group of Dutchmen. I am a Dane, Swede, or Frenchman, at different times; or rather fancy myſelf like the old philoſopher, who, upon being aſked what countryman he was, replied that he was a citizen of the world.

Though I very frequently viſit this buſy multitude of people, I am known to nobody there but my friend Sir Andrew, who often ſmiles upon me, as he ſees me buſtling in the crowd, but at the ſame time connives at my preſence, without taking any farther notice of me. There is, indeed, a merchant of Egypt, who juſt knows me by ſight, having formerly remitted me ſome money to Grand Cairo; but, as I am not verſed in the modern Coptic, our conferences go no farther than a bow and a grimace.

This grand ſcene of buſineſs gives me an infinite variety of ſolid and ſubſtantial entertainments. As I am a great lover of mankind, my heart naturally overflows with pleaſure at the ſight of a proſperous and happy multitude; inſomuch that, at many public ſolemnities, I cannot forbear expreſſing my joy with tears, that have ſtolen down my cheeks. For this reaſon, I am wonderfully delighted to ſee ſuch a body of men thriving in their own private fortunes, and at the ſame time promoting the public ſtock; or in other words, raiſing eſtates for their own families, by bringing into their country whatever is wanting, and carrying out of it whatever is ſuperfluous.

Nature ſeems to have taken a particular care to diſſeminate her bleſſings among the different regions of the world, with an eye to this mutual intercourſe and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the ſeveral parts of the globe might have a kind of dependance upon one another, and be united together by their common intereſt. Almoſt every degree produces ſomething peculiar to it. The food often grows in one country, and the ſauce in another.

The fruits of Portugal are corrected by the products of Barbadoes, the infuſion of a China plant ſweetened with the pith of an Indian cane. The Philippic Iſlands give a flavour to our European bowls. The ſingle dreſs of a woman of quality is often the product of an hundred climates. The muff and the fan come together from the different ends of the earth. The ſcarf is ſent from the torrid zone, and the tippet from beneath the pole The brocade petticoat riſes out of the mines of Peru, and the diamond necklace out of the bowels of Indoſtan.

If we conſider our own country in it's natural proſpect, without any of the benefits and advantages of commerce, what a barren, uncomfortable ſpot of earth falls to our ſhare? Natural hiſtorians tell us, that no fruit grows originally among us, beſides hips and haws, acorns and pig-nuts, with other delicacies of the like nature; that our climate, of itſelf and without the aſſiſtance of art, can make no farther advance towards a plum than to a ſloe, and carries an apple to no greater perfection than a crab; that our melons, our peaches, our figs, our apricots and cherries, are ſtrangers among us, imported in different ages, and naturalized in our Engliſh gardens; and that they would all degenerate and fall away into the traſh of our own country, if they were wholly neglected by the planter, and left to the mercy of our ſun and ſoil. Nor has traffic more enriched our vegetable world, than it has improved the whole face of nature among us. Our ſhips are laden with the harveſt of every climate. Our tables are ſtored with ſpices, and oils, and wines. Our rooms are filled with pyramids of China, and adorned with the workmanſhip of Japan.

Our morning's draught comes to us from the remoteſt corners of the earth. We repair our bodies by the drugs of America, and repoſe ourſelves under Indian canopies. My friend Sir Andrew calls the vineyards of France our gardens, the Spice Iſlands our hot-beds, the Perſians our ſilk-weavers, and the Chineſe our potters. Nature, indeed, furniſhes us with the bare neceſſaries of life, but traffic gives us a great variety of what is uſeful, and at the ſame time ſupplies us with every thing that is convenient and ornamental. Nor is it the leaſt part of this our happineſs, that, whilſt we enjoy the remoteſt products of the north and ſouth, we are free from thoſe extremities of weather which give them birth; that our eyes are refreſhed with the green fields of Britain, at the ſame time that our palates are feaſted with fruits that riſe between the tropics.

For

For theſe reaſons, there are not more uſeful members in a commonwealth than merchants. They knit mankind together in a mutual intercourſe of good offices, diſtribute the gifts of nature, find work for the poor, add wealth to the rich, and magnificence to the great. Our Engliſh merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold, and exchanges his wool for rubies. The Mahometans are cloathed in our Britiſh manufacture, and the inhabitants of the frozen zone warmed with the fleeces of our ſheep.

When I have been upon the change, I have often fancied one of our old kings ſtanding in perſon, where he is repreſented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy concourſe of people, with which that place is every day filled. In this caſe, how would he be furprized to hear all the languages of Europe ſpoken in this little ſpot of his former dominions; and to ſee ſo many private men, who in his time would have been the vaſſals of ſome powerful baron, negociating, like princes, for greater ſums of money than were formerly to be met with in the royal treaſury? Trade, without enlarging the Britiſh territories, has given us a kind of additional empire. It has multiplied the number of the rich, made our landed eſtates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them an acceſſion of other eſtates as valuable as the lands themſelves.'

It is ſaid of England, by way of diſtinction, and we value ourſelves upon it, that it is a trading country: and king Charles II. who, though he was not the beſt governor, was the beſt acquainted with the world of all the princes of his age, uſed to ſay, THAT THE TRADESMEN WERE THE ONLY GENTRY IN ENGLAND: his majeſty ſpoke it merrily, but it had a happy ſignification in it. For

Our tradeſmen, eſpecially thoſe of the great city we have been deſcribing, are not as in other countries, the meaneſt of our people: ſome of the greateſt and beſt families among not the gentry only, but even the nobility, have been raiſed from trade, owe their beginning and their eſtates to trade: and we may add, that theſe families are not aſhamed, as they have no reaſon, of their original. See our article COMMERCE.

We have in England a numerous and an illuſtrious nobility and gentry, and it is true, alſo, that, not ſo many of thoſe families have raiſed themſelves by the ſword as in other nations, though we have not been deſtitute of military heroes.—But trade and learning have been the true principal channels by which our gentlemen have raiſed their fortunes and ſplendor to the prodigious height we now behold them. As ſo many of our noble and wealthy families are ſprung from trade, ſo it is true, that many of the younger branches of our gentry, and even of the nobility itſelf, have deſcended again into the ſpring from whence they flowed, and have become tradeſmen: whence it is that we ſaid above, our tradeſmen in England, eſpecially in London, are not, as in other countries, always of the meaneſt of the people. Nor is trade in this kingdom a mean employment: it is on the contrary, the readieſt way for men to raiſe their fortunes and families: and, therefore, it is a field for men of figure and diſtinction to enter upon.

It reflects, therefore, not a little upon the underſtandings of thoſe refined heads who pretend to depreciate that part of the nation, which is ſo infinitely ſuperior in wealth to the families who call themſelves gentry, and ſo infinitely more numerous. The wealth of the nation lies chiefly among the trading part of the people; though there have been a great many families raiſed by the late wars, by great employments, and by renowned actions abroad, to the honour of the Engliſh gentry; yet how many more families among the tradeſmen have been raiſed to immenſe eſtates, even during the ſame period, by the attending circumſtances of the wars? ſuch as the cloathing, the paying, the victualling, and furniſhing, &c. both army and navy? And by whom have the prodigious taxes been paid, the loans ſupplied, and money advanced upon all occaſions? By whom are the banks and companies carried on? On whom are the funds levied, and by whom the public credit upheld? Have not the trade and tradeſmen borne the burthen of the wars? Is not trade the inexhauſtible fund of all funds, and upon which all the reſt depend?

As is the trade, ſo in proportion are the tradeſmen; and how opulent are tradeſmen in almoſt all the ſeveral parts of England, as well as in London? How ordinary is it to ſee a tradeſman go off of the ſtage, even but from mere ſhopkeeping, with from 10 to 40,000 l. eſtate, to divide among his family? On the contrary, take the gentry in England in general, what with high living, which is grown ſo much into a diſeaſe, and the other ordinary circumſtances of families, we find few of the lower gentry, that is to ſay, from 6 to 700 l. a year downwards, but they are in debt, and in neceſſitous circumſtances, and many of much larger eſtates alſo. How are the ancient families worn out by exceſs and family misfortunes, and the landed eſtates poſſeſſed by a new race of tradeſmen, grown up into families of gentry, and eſtabliſhed by the immenſe wealth gained in the ſhop, the warehouſe, or the counting-houſe? How are the ſons of traders now ranked among the prime of the gentry? How are the daughters of London traders at this time adorned with the ducal coronets? Nay, many of our trading gentlemen at this time refuſe to be ennobled, ſcorn being knighted, and content themſelves with being known to be rated among the richeſt commoners in the nation? And it muſt be acknowledged, that, whatever they may be as to court-breeding, and the external politeſſe, they, generally ſpeaking, are inferior to none of the gentry in the knowledge of the world.

In how ſuperior a port or figure, as we ſay, do our tradeſmen live to what the middling gentry either do, or can ſupport? An ordinary tradeſman now, not in the city of London only, but in the inland counties, as well as the out-ports, ſhall ſpend more money by the year than a gentleman of 4 or 500 l. a year can do, and ſhall increaſe his fortune every year too: whereas the gentleman ſhall, at the beſt, ſtand ſtill, juſt where he began, nay, perhaps, decline; and as for the lower gentry, from 100 l. a year to 300 l. or thereabouts, though they are often high in their appearance, yet a ſhoemaker in London ſhall keep a better houſe, ſpend more money, cloath his family better, and yet grow rich too: is it not evident, therefore, where the difference lies? An eſtate is a pond, but trade is a ſpring.

This being the caſe in England, it is no wonder that our tradeſmen fill the liſts of our nobility and gentry; no wonder that the gentlemen of the beſt families marry tradeſmens daughters, and put their younger ſons apprentices to tradeſmen. And how often do theſe younger ſons come to buy the elder brothers eſtates, and reſtore the family, when the head of the houſe, proving unhappy in his conduct, for want often of employment, has waſted his patrimony, and is obliged to make out the bleſſing of Iſrael's family, where the younger ſon bought the birth right, and the elder was doomed to ſerve him?

Trade is ſo far from being inconſiſtent with a gentleman in this kingdom, that it makes gentlemen, and has peopled this nation with gentlemen, and will continue ſo to do, while it ſhall be ſupported in proportion as it may be in neighbouring countries; for, after a generation or two, the tradeſmens children, or at leaſt their grand-children, become as good gentlemen, ſtateſmen, parliament-men, privy-counſellors, judges, biſhops, and noblemen, as thoſe of the higheſt birth and the moſt ancient families. See the article COMMERCE, and various other parts of this work.

They tell us a ſtory of the old lord Craven, who was afterwards created earl of Craven by king Charles II. that, being upbraided with his being of an upſtart nobility, by the famous Aubery, earl of Oxford, who was himſelf of the very ancient family of the Veres, earls of Oxford, the lord Craven told him, that he [Craven] would cap pedigrees with him [Oxford] for a wager: the earl of Oxford laughed at the challenge, and began, reckoning up his famous anceſtors, who had been earls of Oxford for a hundred years paſt, and knights for ſome hundreds of years more. But, when my lord Craven began, he read over the family thus: I am William lord Craven, my father was LORD MAYOR OF LONDON, and my grandfather was the LORD KNOWS WHO; wherefore I think my pedigree as good as yours, my lord (meaning the earl of Oxford.) The ſtory is to my purpoſe: for, let the grandfather be who he would, his father, Sir William Craven, who was lord mayor of London, was a wholeſale grocer, and raiſed the family by trade; and yet no body doubts but that the family of Craven is, at this day, as truly noble as moſt.

In Italy, and eſpecially at Venice, we ſee every day the ſons of merchants, and other traders, who grow in wealth and eſtates, and can advance, for the ſervice of their country, a conſiderable ſum of money, viz. from 60,000 to 100,000 dollars, are accepted to honour by the ſenate, and tranſlated into the liſt of the nobility; and in all ages the beſt princes have thought fit to reward the extraordinary merit of their ſubjects with titles of honour, and to rank men among their nobility who have deſerved it by great and laudable actions, whether the dignity of their birth, and the antiquity of their families, intitled them to it or not.

The word tradeſman, in England, does not ſound ſo deſpicable as it does in other countries; and to ſay a gentleman-tradeſman, is not ſo great an impropriety as ſome people are wont to think; and, indeed, as trade is now flouriſhing in England, the wealth of our tradeſmen increaſing, it is very probable a few years will ſhew us ſtill a greater race of trade-bred gentlemen than ever England yet had.

The very name of an Engliſh tradeſman will, and does already obtain in the world; and as our ſoldiers, by the late wars, gained the reputation of being ſome of the beſt troops in the world, and our ſeamen are at this day, and very juſtly too, eſteemed the beſt ſailors in the world: ſo the Engliſh tradeſmen may, in a few years, be allowed to rank with the beſt gentlemen in Europe; and, as the prophet Iſaiah ſaid of the merchants of Tyre, That her traffickers were the honourable of the earth. Iſa. xxiii. 8.

In the mean time, it is evident their wealth, at this time, out-does that of the like rank of any nation in Europe; and, as their number is prodigious, ſo is their commerce; for the inland commerce of England (and it is of thoſe tradeſmen and traffickers that we are now ſpeaking of in particular, who carry on trade from the metropolis to the moſt remote parts of the kingdom) is certainly the greateſt of it's kind of any of the globe; the conſumption of all ſorts of goods, both of our manufacture

manufacture, and of foreign growth being ſo exceeding great. All this confirms, that trade in England neither is or ought to be levelled with what it is in other countries, or the tradeſmen depreciated as they have been in ſome nations, and as ſome of our gentry would pretend to in England; but that, as many of our beſt families roſe from trade, ſo many branches of the beſt families in England, under the nobility, have been put apprentices to tradeſmen in London, and ſet up and followed thoſe trades, when they have come out of their times, and have thought it no diſhonour to their blood.

If I might be permitted, not only without offence, but with a moſt reſpectful intention, theſe obſervations might not injudiciouſly or ſarcaſtically be applied to the ladies of this kingdom, many of whom are ſo ſcandalized at that mean ſtep, as they call it, of marrying a tradeſman, even a London tradeſman: it may be modeſtly told them, for their humiliation, that, however they think fit to act, ſometimes thoſe tradeſmen come of better families than their own; and oftentimes, when they have refuſed and contemned them to their loſs, thoſe very tradeſmen have married ladies of ſuperior fortune to them, and have raiſed families of their own, who, in one generation, have been ſuperior to thoſe nice ladies, both in dignity and eſtate; and have, to their great mortification, been ranked above them upon all public occaſions.

The whole glory and greatneſs of England then being thus raiſed by trade, and in a great degree, by that of it's metropolis, it muſt be unaccountable folly and ignorance in us to leſſen that one article in our own eſteem which is the only fountain from whence we all, take us as a nation, are raiſed, and by which we are inriched, and maintained with dignity and ſplendor. The ſcripture ſays, ſpeaking again of the riches and glory of the city of Tyre, which was, indeed, at that time, the great emporium of the world for foreign commerce, and from whence all the ſilks and fine manufactures of Perſia and India were exported all over the weſtern world, That her merchants were princes; and in another place, By thy traffic thou haſt increaſed thy riches, Ezek. xxviii. 5. Certain it is, that our traffic has increaſed our riches and our power; and it is alſo certain, that one principal foundation of all our traffic is the grandeur and magnificence, as well as the wealth, the honour, and ſagacity of it's renowned citizens of London.

And here, in juſtice to the well-intentioned and judicious writer, I would beg permiſſion to recommend to candid peruſal a performance * lately publiſhed, which does no leſs honour to the author, than he zealouſly intends glory and advantage to the city of London.

* An Eſſay on the many advantages accruing to the community from the ſuperior NEATNESS, CONVENIENCE, DECORATIONS, and EMBELLISHMENTS of great and capital CITIES; particularly applied to the city and ſuburbs of LONDON. Addreſſed to Sir John Barnard, Knt. ſenior alderman and ſenior repreſentative in parliament of the ſaid city. Printed for Mr. Whitridge, at the Royal Exchange, 1754.

'The decorations and fine embelliſhments of cities, ſays this 'ingenious gentleman, more eſpecially of great and capital 'ones, whilſt they reflect honour, ſtate, and dignity on their 'ſovereigns, their country, and their own particular magiſtrates and citizens, will ever be found productive of perpetual acceſſions of wealth and commerce, of people, power, 'and influence; ſeeing a general reſort to, and reſidence at, 'ſuch finely-adorned cities, by perſons of high rank and 'opulence, will neceſſarily occaſion much money to be 'brought thither, and will as neceſſarily bring much employment to their people *.'—And again: 'A ſeaſon like 'the preſent, ſays he, of profound peace and tranquillity, is 'undoubtedly the only proper one for the ſubject of this eſſay; a ſubject, as herein peculiarly applied to our great 'metropolis, not before handled by any, as far as I know. 'Whilſt almoſt every conſiderable city beyond ſea, and many 'of our own at home (as Dublin, Edinburgh, Briſtol, Glouceſter, Bath, &c.) are diligently embelliſhing and adorning, 'juſtly perceiving the ſubſtantial benefits ariſing therefrom, 'ſhall the city of London remain any longer ſupine and inactive, until it be rivalled, and in ſome manner eclipſed, 'by cities both abroad and at home, not even ſo conſiderable as one of her ſingle wards!

* See page 2.

'Since the laſt general pacification, almoſt every nation in 'Europe is puſhing into commerce, manufactures, and fiſheries more than ever was known before. It therefore behoves us, who ſtill hold the ſuperiority in trade and navigation, not only to keep the ground which we gained by perſeverance and induſtry, and have ſo long held, but which 'we are in no ſmall danger of loſing, by the indefatigable 'application of our moſt dangerous rivals in both; but likewiſe to ſtudy every means in our power to attract the rich 'and noble to reſort to us, from every corner of Europe; 'whereby our commerce, manufactures, and ſhipping, our 'wealth and our people, would be greatly increaſed. Theſe, 'and ſuch-like conſiderations induced me to fall into this 'hitherto untrodden path*.'

* See Introduction.

In the application of theſe ſentiments to the city of London in particular, the gentleman gives a ſummary view of the benefits which would reſult to the city from his deſign; which are comprized under the following particulars.

'I. REPUTATION, ſingly conſidered, is queſtionleſs beneficial: but although the completion of our ſcheme be extremely well calculated for advancing our reputation and 'glory beyond ſeas, this would nevertheleſs be the leaſt of 'it's good conſequences.

'II. By the ſuppoſed general reſort of foreigners to our metropolis, it is eaſy to conceive how great the additional demand would be for all the various neceſſaries, conveniencies, 'and ſuperfluities, whether for nouriſhment, cloathing, equipages, plate, jewels, pictures, books, toys, medals, &c. for 'all which London would then undoubtedly be the general 'mart and ſtaple.

'III. Very conſiderable, alſo, would the additional employment be of our manufacturers, artizans, farmers, ſhopkeepers, labourers, &c.

'IV. All which would neceſſarily tend to the proſperity and increaſe of our foreign commerce, navigation, and plantations, and, conſequently, of our ſeamen, as well as of all 'the various occupations dependent on commerce, ſhipping, 'and plantations.

'V. Another obvious conſequence from the premiſes would 'be a proportionable increaſe of the public revenues, of cuſtoms, exciſe, &c. whereby our heavy national debt would 'be the ſooner diſcharged.

'VI. The increaſe of the rents of houſes (as well as of their 'number and goodneſs) in London, and even of the rents and 'improvements of lands in the country, would be alſo another neceſſary conſequence.

'VII. And, as our manufacturers, artizans, farmers, and 'labourers, would find fuller employment, both in town and 'country, this would neceſſarily leſſen our poor rate, at preſent ſo exorbitant, and ſo grievouſly burthenſome to the 'bulk of our people.'

REMARKS in 1764.

Since the public-ſpirited writer of the before-mentioned eſſay wrote the ſame, the city of London bears a different and more ſplendid aſpect than what it did. The taking down the city gates has proved very ornamental; and the alterations about making to the Bank of England, are likely to add no little luſtre to the center of our metropolis. Whether the firſt intimation hereof was derived from what the judicious gentleman obſerves in his eſſay, I cannot ſay; but it looks ſomething like it. He ſays, 'The Bank is 'a good houſe, but ſituated in too narrow a ſtreet; where 'a perpetual conflux of wheel-carriages of all kinds, 'occaſions very frequent obſtructions to buſineſs. This 'might in a good degree be remedied, if that prudent 'corporation would purchaſe and demoliſh four houſes 'fronting their great gate; whereby a good coach and foot-way might be opened directly from thence into Cornhill, 'which would likewiſe open an advantageous view of the 'fine front of that ſtructure.'

I cannot paſs this eſſay over without noticing one thing this ingenious gentleman mentions, concerning 'A MERCANTILE LIBRARY being placed in the MANSION-HOUSE to 'be conſulted by all the citizens as occaſion may require.' I could wiſh that this our labour, might fall into the hands of this gentleman, and that he would turn to our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE, where he will find ſuch a MERCANTILE LIBRARY as he recommends, might be of far more public utility than at the MANSION-HOUSE.

The duchy of MILAN in Italy. The Milaneſe is one of the fertileſt provinces of Italy: it is bounded on the weſt by Piedmont, Savoy, and Montferrat, on the ſouth by the Appenine mountains and the territory of Genoa, on the eaſt by the ſtates of Venice, Parma, and Mantua, and on the north by the territory of Valois, the Griſons, and Switzerland.

The whole country is well watered and very fruitful. Beſides the rivers Teſino, Po, Adda, and Seſſia, are many ſmaller, and ſeveral great lakes which furniſh it with plenty of fiſh.

This duchy is commonly divided into the following 13 territories, viz.

I. The MILANESE, properly ſo called, having the Comaſco on the north, the Lodeſan on the eaſt, the Pavieſe on the ſouth, and the Navoreſe on the weſt.

MILAN, the capital of the duchy, is not only well peopled, but is one of the moſt trading cities in Italy. It's principal manufactures are thoſe of the ſilken and woollen, ſteel and iron work, prodigiouſly neat, eſpecially ſword hilts, ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buckles, and the like. They likewiſe work very neat on a ſort of rock-cryſtal, which is brought hither from the Alps, and Glacuris of Savoy, ſome pieces of which are large enough to be worked into fine looking-glaſſes of about 12 inches by 13: but this laſt kind is very difficult to work. The citizens here are very rich, and the gentry numerous.

II. The Paviese hath the Milaneſe Proper on the north, the country of Bobbio on the ſouth, the Lodieſe on the eaſt, and the Laumellineſe on the weſt; and ſo fertile, that it is commonly ſtiled The garden of the duchy of Milan. But here are no towns of any trade.

III. The Lodesan lies along the river Adda, between the Cremoneſe and Comaſco. It hath Milan Proper on the north, the Pavieſe on the weſt, and the Placentine on the ſouth, and is a very fertile and well-peopled diſtrict.

New Lodi is a rich and populous town on the river Adda. They breed a vaſt quantity of cattle in the territory about it, and it is famed likewiſe for making excellent cheeſes, and of a monſtrous bigneſs, ſome of which weigh above 500 pounds, and far exceed the Parmeſan in taſte, as alſo for dried neats tongues, and a fine ſort of earthen-ware, not inferior to the Dutch Delft.

IV. The Cremonese has Parmeſan on the ſouth, the Mantuan on the eaſt, Lodeſan on the weſt, and the Breſciano on the north. It is fertile in good wines and fine fruits.

It's only place of note is the city of Cremona.

V. Comasco, or the territory and county of Coma, lies between the Bergameſe, the Griſons, the Valteline, and the four Italian bailiwicks belonging to Switzerland.

VI. The county of Anghiera is ſituate at the foot of the Alps, between Switzerland and the territory of Valais on the north, Aoſta on the weſt, and the Vercelleſe and Novareſe on the ſouth. It is ſmall, but very fertile and well inhabited.

VII. The Novarese lies between the Milaneſe Proper, Piedmont, Seſſia, and the Vigeveneſe, and is a fertile and pleaſant country.

VIII. Vigevanese. IX. Laumellinese. X. The Alexandrino. XI. The Tortonese. XII. The vallies of Sessia. XIII. The Bobbiese, or territory of Bobbeio, in none of which are any trading towns worth mentioning.

MINERAL is a compound foſſil, wherein there is ſomething diſcoverable like metal, but not malleable; it being joined or compounded with ſome other foſſil, as ſalt, ſulphur, earth.

To write of metals and minerals, intelligibly and with tolerable perſpicuity, is a taſk much more difficult than to write of either animals or vegetables. For thoſe carry along with them ſuch plain and evident notes and characters, either of diſagreement or affinity with one another, that the ſeveral kinds of them, and the ſubordinate ſpecies of each, are eaſily known and diſtinguiſhed, even at firſt ſight; the eye only being fully capable of judging and determining their mutual relations, as well as their differences.

But in the mineral kingdom the matter is quite otherwiſe Here is nothing regular, whatever ſome may have pretended: nothing conſtant or certain. Inſomuch that a man had need to have all his ſenſes about him, to uſe repeated trials and inſpections, and that with all imaginable care and warineſs, truly and rightly to diſcern and diſtinguiſh things, and all little enough. Here is ſuch a vaſt variety of phænomena, and thoſe many of them ſo deluſive, that it is very hard to eſcape impoſition and miſtake. Colour, or outward appearance, is not all to be truſted. A common marcaſite or pyrites ſhall have the colour of gold moſt exactly, and ſhine with all the brightneſs of it; and yet upon trial, after all, yield nothing of worth, but vitriol and a little ſulphur; whilſt another body, that hath only the reſemblance of an ordinary pebble, ſhall yield a conſiderable quantity of metallic and valuable matter.

So likewiſe a maſs, which to the eye appears to be nothing but mere ſimple earth, ſhall, to the ſmell or taſte, diſcover a plentiful admixture of ſulphur, allum, or ſome other mineral.

Nor may we with much better ſecurity rely upon figure, or external form. Nothing more uncertain and varying. It is uſual to meet with the very ſame metal or mineral, naturally ſhot into quite different figures, as it is to find quite different kinds of them all of the ſame figure. And a body that has the ſhape and appearance of a diamond, may prove, upon examination, to be nothing but cryſtal, or ſenelites: nay, perhaps, only common ſalt or allum, naturally cryſtallized and ſhot into that form.

So likewiſe, if we look into their ſituation and place in the earth, ſometimes we find them in the perpendicular intervals, ſometimes in the bodies of the ſtrata, being interſperſed amongſt the matter whereof they conſiſt, and ſometimes in both. Even, if I may ſo ſpeak, the gemmeous matter itſelf, with this only difference, that thoſe gems, e. gr. topazes, amethyſts, or emeralds, which grow in the fiſſures, are ordinarily cryſtalized, or ſhot into angulated figures: whereas, in the ſtrata, they are found in rude lumps, and only like ſo many yellow, purple, and green pebbles.

Not but that even theſe, that are thus lodged in the ſtrata, are alſo ſometimes found cryſtalized, and in form of cubes, rhombs, and the like. Or if we have reſpect to the terreſtrial matter, wherein they lie in thoſe ſtrata, here we ſhall meet with the ſame metal or mineral embodied in ſtone, or lodged in coal, that elſewhere we found in marl, in clay, or in chalk.

As much inconſtancy and confuſion is there in their mixtures with each other, or their combinations amongſt themſelves. For it is rare to find any of them pure, ſimple, and unmixed, but copper and iron together in the ſame maſs: copper and gold, ſilver and lead, tin and lead, yea ſometimes all the ſix promiſcuouſly in one lump.

It is the ſame alſo in minerals, nitre with vitriol, common ſalt in allum, antimony with ſulphur, and ſometimes all theſe together. Nor do metals only ſort and herd with metals in the earth, and minerals with minerals, but both indifferently and in common together. Lead with ſpar, with calamine, or with antimony: iron with vitriol, with allum, with ſulphur: copper with ſulphur, with vitriol, &c. yea, iron, copper, lead, nitre, ſulphur, vitriol, and, perhaps, ſome more, in one and the ſame maſs.

In a word, the only ſtanding teſt and diſcriminative characteriſtic of any metal or mineral muſt be ſought for in the conſtituent matter of it; and it muſt firſt be brought down to that, before any certain judgment can be given. And, when that is once done, and the ſeveral kinds ſeparated and extracted each from the other, the homogeneous maſs of one kind is eaſily diſtinguiſhable from any other; gold from iron, ſulphur from nitre, and ſo of the reſt. But, without this, ſo various are their intermixtures, and ſo different the face and appearance of each, becauſe of that variety, that ſcarcely any thing can be certainly determined of the particular contents of any ſingle maſs of ore by mere inſpection.

I know that by experience and converſation with theſe bodies, in any place or mine, a man may be enabled to give a near conjecture at the metallic or mineral ingredients of any maſs commonly found there, but this merely becauſe he hath made trial of other like maſſes, and thereby learned what it is they contain. But, if he remove to another place, though perhaps very little diſtant, it is ten to one but he meets with ſo different a face of things, that he will be there as far to ſeek in his conjectures, as one who never before ſaw a native ore; until he hath here made his trial as before, and ſo further informed himſelf of the matter.

Metals being ſo very uſeful and ſerviceable to mankind, great care and pains hath been taken, in all ages, in ſearching after them, and in ſeparating and refining of them. For which reaſon it is, that theſe have been accurately enough diſtinguiſhed and reduced to ſix kinds, which are all well known.

But the like pains have not been taken in minerals, and therefore the knowledge of them is ſomewhat more confuſed and obſcure. Theſe have not yet been well reduced, or the number of the ſimple original ones rightly fixed; ſome of which are only compounds, the matter of two or more kinds being mixed together, and, by the different proportion and modulation of that matter, variouſly diſguiſed and diverſified, having been reputed all different kinds of minerals, and thereby the number of them unneceſſarily multiplied. Of this we have an inſtance of the gem kind: where of all the many ſorts reckoned up by lapidaries, there are not above three or four that are originals; their diverſities, as to luſtre, colour, and hardneſs, ariſing from the different admixture of other adventitious metallic and mineral matter. It is ſufficient for my preſent deſign to remark in general, that thoſe minerals, and ores of metals which are repoſited in the bodies of the ſtrata, are either found in grains, or ſmall particles, diſperſedly intermixed with the corpuſcles of earth, ſand, or other matter of thoſe ſtrata: or elſe they are amaſſed into balls, lumps, or nodules. Which nodules are either of an irregular and uncertain figure, ſuch as are the common pyritæ, flints, agates, onyx's, pebbles, cornelians, jaſpers, and the more like: or of a figure ſomewhat more regular and obſervable, ſuch as the belemnites: the ſeveral ſorts of mineral coral, of the ſtelechites, and of the lapis mycetoides*: the aſtroites, or ſtarry ſtone, as well that ſort with the prominent, as that with the plane, and that with the concave ſtars: the ſenelites, the echinated cryſtalline balls, with many more analogous bodies.

* Vulgarly called fungites.

Thoſe which are contained in the perpendicular intervals of the ſtrata are, either ſuch as are there accumulated into a rude heap, without any particular form or order, being only included betwixt the two oppoſite walls or ſides of the ſaid intervals, which they wholly or partly fill, as there is a greater or leſs quantity of them; in which manner ſpar is uſually found therein, and other minerals, as alſo the common ores of lead, tin, iron, and other metals, or elſe ſuch as are of ſome obſervable figure. Of this ſort are the ſparry ſtiriæ, iceycles, called ſtalactitæ*: the native ſaline iceycles, or ſal ſtalacticum: the vitriolum ſtalacticum nativum: the vitriolum capillare: the alumen ſtalacticum, and capillare: minera ferri ſtalactica, which, when ſeveral of the cylindric ſtiriæ are contiguous, and grow together in one ſheaf, is called bruſh iron-ore: and, laſtly, the argentum arboreſcens & capillare.

* Or rather ſtagonitæ.

Hither alſo ought to be referred the cryſtallized ores and minerals, e. gr. the iron-rhombs: the tin grains: the mundic

dic grains: the teſſellated pyritæ, or ludis Paracelſi: cryſtallized native ſalt, allum, vitriol, and ſulphur. As likewiſe the gems or ſtones that are found in theſe perpendicular intervals, ſhot into cubes, into pyramidal forms, or into angulated columns, conſiſting ſometimes of three, but moſt commonly of ſix ſides, and mucronated, or terminating in a point, being either opake or pellucid: or partly pellucid, and partly opake and coloured, black, white, grey, red, purple, blue, yellow, or green, e. gr. cryſtal, the pſeudo-adamantes, the Corniſh ſtones, the Briſtol ſtones, cryſtallized ſpars, the amethyſt, the ſapphire, the topaz, the emerald, and ſeveral others.

Remarks.

With regard to the tokens and characteriſtics upon the ſurface of the earth, of ſuch places as may be reaſonably preſumed to contain ſome kind of mineral or metalline earths of value, ſee the article Minerology.

MINERAL WATERS. Theſe are chiefly of three kinds. Some are corporeal (we want a better word for it) others ſpirituous, and the reſt both corporeal and ſpirituous. Thoſe we call corporeal mineral waters, contain fixed and ſolid particles of minerals and foſſils, which may be ſeparated from the water, and ſeen with the naked eye; ſuch as theſe are of two ſorts: ſome carry large particles of minerals and foſſils, which may be eaſily perceived in the water itſelf; nor are they, properly ſpeaking, mixed with the water, and ſome have in them grains of gold, ſilver, &c. and, therefore, are called auriferous, argentiferous, &c. but ſuch are not properly termed mineral waters, becauſe they have not thoſe particles mixed with them, but ſeparate; neither do they receive any property from them: yet, becauſe men admire ſuch rivers, and their explication hath a great affinity with the deſcription of mineral waters properly ſo called, we thought fit to mention them under the ſame heads; to which may be added bituminous fountains, &c.

Corporeal mineral waters are ſuch as contain ſolid particles of foſſils, but ſo minute that they are intirely mixed, and cannot well be diſtinguiſhed by the ſight, unleſs they are made to ſubſide by art, or a long ſpace of time, or by concretion are brought to a viſible maſs; ſuch as ſalt and ſulphureous fountains, &c. and chemical waters, in which metals are diſſolved.

Spirituous waters are thoſe that contain only ſuch a volatile ſpirit as is found in minerals, but have no fixed particles in them; and, therefore, their compoſition can never be made viſible.

We call thoſe waters both corporeal and ſpirituous which contain not only fixed and ſolid particles of minerals, but alſo volatile and ſpirituous; of all which we ſhall give examples.

How mineral waters are generated.

1. If the water be carried under-ground with a rapid courſe, among metalline and mineral earths, which is eaſily looſened, it is evident that it waſhes particles from it, and may carry along with it grains of theſe minerals: and this is the generation of theſe corporeal mineral waters that hold grains in them.

2. If the mineral waters are imperfect, and not ſo cloſely joined as vitriol, ſulphur, &c. or even ſalt, which, of their own nature, eaſily mix with water; and, if a rivulet of water runs through beds or mines of ſuch minerals, or be ſtrained through them (without a channel or duct) the water, when it breaks out at the fountain, will have ſmall particles of theſe minerals mixed with it, and will be corporeal mineral water, of a ſubtile compoſition, according to the ſmallneſs of the atoms. Now, whether the water can in like manner diſſolve or unite with itſelf the particles of metals, is to be queſtioned, becauſe they are hard and ſolid, and, therefore, are not eaſily blended with water. This may be done, but not with ſimple or common water, but by vitriolic and ſalt ſpirituous water, like aqua fortis [ſee Aqua Fortis] for that diſſolves metals into atoms, and eaſily unites them with itſelf, ſo that they do not ſubſide at the bottom, unleſs they be ſeparated by art: in like manner, when ſuch water runs through a metallic earth, it may diſſolve the metalline particles, and unite them with itſelf; and thus are the corporeal mineral waters of the ſecond ſort accounted for and explained.

3. Before metals are formed in the bowels of the earth, ſteams and vapours are condenſed about the extant corners of the rocks, to which they adhere, being at firſt but of a ſoft ſubſtance, and afterwards hardened by degrees; if, therefore, the water ſhould gleet through the places where ſuch vapours are in commotion, it becomes impregnated with them: and thus ſpirituous mineral and metalline waters are produced.

Imperfect minerals alſo make mineral waters of their own nature, after another method, viz. when, being heated by a ſubterraneous, or their own proper heat, they ſend forth ſpirits and vapours, as ſulphur, vitriol, ſalt, coal, &c. and ſuch exhalations is always ſtirred up, where there are ſuch minerals, among which the permeating water is impregnated with the ſpirit. Some think theſe ſpirituous waters may be generated by being only carried through a metallic earth, or by having their receptacles in it, or in their mines; but it is found to the contrary by experience, that water receives no quality from metals and minerals, though they ſhould be immerſed in it a great many years. Therefore, rejecting this opinion, it is moſt reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that theſe waters receive a certain ſpirit from the firſt principles of metals, as we may call them; or we may ſay, that ſuch waters are impregnated with the ſubtile ſpirits of vitriol, ſalt, &c. by the help of which a ſpirit is extracted from hard metals; but we do not lay ſo great ſtreſs upon this latter cauſe, for a queſtion will ariſe again, about the generation of this ſpirituous, mineral, vitriolic, and ſalt water.

From theſe together it appears, how mineral waters, both corporeal and ſpirituous, are generated.

There are innumerable kinds of mineral waters, according to the diverſity of the particles they receive from different minerals.

We have explained how mineral waters receive theſe particles, from which their extraordinary qualities ariſe. Now, becauſe there are divers kinds of minerals, it hence follows, that mineral waters are various, and almoſt infinitely different in their qualities, not conſiſting of one kind of water impregnated with only one ſort of mineral, but of various kinds, mixed with various ſorts. Wherefore mineral waters are either ſimple or mixed; and the mixed have two, three, four, or more ſorts of foſſils in them.

Hence are, 1. Metallic waters, as of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, lead, iron, &c.

2. Salt waters, as of common ſalt, nitre, allum, vitriol, &c.

3. Bituminous waters, ſulphureous, antimonial, as of coal, ambergris, &c.

4. Waters proceeding from various kinds of earth and ſtones, viz. as lime-ſtone waters, chalk, oker, cinnabar, marble, alabaſter, &c.

5. Mercurial waters, &c.

All theſe kinds of waters are to be underſtood three ways, viz. 1. Some of them are corporeal, either ſenſibly ſo, or by a refined and ſubtile commixture. 2. Others are ſpirituous. 3. Others are both corporeal and ſpirituous.

Theſe differences may be applied to the ſeveral kinds of mineral waters. For example: there are golden waters, which are, 1. Corporeal, that carry grains of gold of ſuch magnitude, that, with ſmall trouble, they are diſcernible, by reaſon of their groſs or coarſe mixture. 2. Corporeal, that carry very minute particles of gold, well mixed with them; and, though the ſmalleſt particles of gold do, of their own nature, ſink to the bottom of water, yet that there are ſuch, appears from the aqua regia [ſee Aqua Regia] in which gold is diſſolved into atoms; but this aqua regia is not a ſimple water, neither dees any water carry atoms of gold in it, unleſs it be before impregnated with other mineral particles. 3. Spirituous golden waters, that have engendered a ſpirit and vapour in the earth, from which gold is produced. 4. Golden waters, that are both corporeal and ſpirituous, viz. that have both atoms of gold, and the ſpirit that produces it.

Thus we are to apply this four-fold variety to all ſorts of mineral waters, whether ſimple or mixed (from whence innumerable ſpecies are produced); for either the bodies of foſſils, or their ſpirits, or the body of one foſſil with the ſpirit of another, are mixed or engendered in the water: ſo leaden waters are of four kinds, viz. 1. Viſibly corporeal. 2. Corporeal by a ſubtile mixture. 3. Tinctured by the ſpirit of lead. 4. Impregnated both with the body and ſpirit of lead. And theſe four participations of minerals are to be applied to mercurial waters, &c. and more eſpecially to ſalt, vitriolic, and ſulphureous waters, becauſe in theſe nature itſelf diſplays a four-fold variety; though it is to be doubted whether there be corporeal particles of a ſubtile grain in metalline waters.

Spirituous metallic waters are alſo very rare; but the water of ſalt, ſulphur, &c. both corporeal and ſpirituous, is very common, becauſe theſe foſſils are found in greater plenty, and their particles are alſo ſooner adapted to atoms, and diſſolved by the water; beſide, they frequently emit ſteams and vapours.

Let us explain this four-fold variety of participation by one example of gold.

In the country of Tyrol, and the neighbouring places, there are ſeveral rivers that carry grains of gold; and the Rhine, the Elbe, the Danube, and ſeveral other great rivers, do the like alſo, as other rivers do other metals and minerals. The Rhine carries grains of gold, mixed with clay and ſand, in many places, but eſpecially at theſe, viz. 1. Near Coire, in the Griſons country. 2. At Mayenfield. 3. At Egliſan. 4. At Soking. 5. At the town of Augſt, not far from Baſil. 6. At Newburg. 7. At Saltz. 8. At Worms. 9. At Mentz. 10. At Bacherach. 11. At Bonn, &c. The auriferous rivulets which the Rhine receives, the reader may ſee in Thurnheuſerus, and alſo thoſe that run into the Danube and Elbe. Small grains of gold are found in the Elbe in theſe places: 1. At Lotomeritz in Bohemia. 2. At Purn. 3. At Dreſden in Meiſen. 4. At Torgaw. 5. At Magdeburg. 6. At Lawenburgh tower, about five miles from Hamburgh. Several other auriferous rivers are given an account of in the forecited book of Thurnheuſerus; and ſuch as carry other metals and minerals. And theſe are auriferous corpo-

real waters of the firſt kind, carrying viſible grains, which are not ſo properly called mineral, or golden waters, becauſe the golden grains are not mixed with the water, but only carried in it by it's rapid motion, the water itſelf being uncompounded with it.

2. Corporeal golden waters of fine mixture, whoſe atoms are united with the atoms of gold, like the chemical aqua regia which diſſolves gold, and unites it by atoms to itſelf: for ſince it is poſſible that there may be in nature ſuch water as this of the chemiſts, which may run through golden earth, or gold mines, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that it eats out particles, and diſſolves them into atoms, and unites them to itſelf; and from this cauſe proceed thoſe (or ſuch-like) golden rivulets as are deſcribed by Thurnheuſerus, in his account of the Danube, Rhine, &c.

3. Spirituous golden waters are but very few, ſome of which, perhaps, are enumerated among the reſt by Thurnheuſerus; but theſe are not ſo much known, becauſe golden earth and gold mines are very ſcarce; beſides, where there are ſuch mines, there is ſuch a mixture of other minerals, that they are not perceptible. Nevertheleſs, there are ſome rivulets in the high Alps of Bohemia, that are ſaid to participate of theſe golden ſpirits, as in the Frichtelberg mountains in Sileſia. The hot baths alſo in the biſhopric of Coire are believed to be impregnated with this kind of ſpirit; yet, becauſe of the mixture of other minerals in a greater quantity, this quality is rendered leſs perceptible.

4. Golden waters that carry both the atoms and ſpirit of gold, are ſome of thoſe rivulets mentioned by the abovenamed Thurnheuſerus.

Let us alſo give an example of ſalt waters.

1. Corporeal ſalt waters, which carry groſs and undigeſted particles of ſalt, are found in many places, and ſufficiently known, as fountains, whoſe waters produce ſalt, and ſea-water, from which ſalt is extracted by boiling.

2. Subtile corporeal ſalt waters, which contain ſalt diſſolved in the minuteſt atoms, are ſuch as are very ſalt, and yet very clear, as many ſalt fountains are, and ſea water that is thin and fine; though there is a great difference in this ſubtile mixture. Hereto may be referred the urine of all animals.

3. Spirituous ſalt waters, which do not contain the particles of ſalt, but only the ſpirit of it, are of ſuch a nature, that, if ſeveral tons be ever ſo much boiled, they will not yield any ſalt. There are a great many of theſe in Germany, and other places, but they are ſeldom without mixture.

4. Corporeal and ſpirituous ſalt-waters, which contain the particles and ſpirit of ſalt. Almoſt all corporeal waters have ſome ſmall portion of ſaline ſpirits in them, but few of them any quantity. Thus the fountains about the city of Saltzinge, near the Rhine, are ſalter than other ſalt ſprings, and yet yields leſs ſalt, becauſe their ſharp and brackiſh taſte is heightened by a ſpirit or volatile ſalt.

Hence it appears how this four-fold variety of participation is to be applied to the ſeveral kinds of mineral waters, viz. to vitriolic, allum, and lead waters, &c.

To enumerate the moſt remarkable varieties of mineral waters. In the foregoing propoſitions we have explained the kinds and differences of mineral waters, taken from their nature, which conſiſt in having mineral particles in them, which they carry, or with which they are impregnated; but, becauſe theſe varieties are not ſo perceptible to the ſenſes, and there are ſeveral mixtures of minerals that cauſe various, and almoſt unaccountable properties in the waters, therefore they are not ſo eaſily known and diſtinguiſhed by the vulgar; for waters (and other bodies) become famous among mankind, and receive their names from their manifeſt qualities, which ſtrike and affect the ſenſes, whoſe cauſe and explication are to be deduced from their compoſition and participation. There are, therefore, ten ſpecies of waters, or liquids, that flow out of the ground, which are commonly taken notice of by the vulgar: 1. Acid waters. 2. Bitter. 3. Hot. 4. Very cold. 5. Fat and oily. 6. Poiſonous or deadly. 7. Coloured. 8. Boiling. 9. Waters that harden bodies, change their colour, or otherwiſe alter them. 10. Saline. 11. To theſe may be added ſuch as are inveſted with other uncommom properties. All kinds of waters deſcribed by authors may be referred to one or other of theſe heads.

MINEROLOGY, that previous part of metallurgy, which teaches the ways of finding, judging, and digging of mines. Minerology is an art that requires a conſiderable compaſs of knowledge, before it can be practiſed to advantage: for, as this art includes the diſcovery, ſinking, and working of mines, it requires a competent ſkill in the nature, effluvia, and effects of mineral matters, whether earths, ſalts, ſulphurs, ſtones, ores, bitumens, gems or metals. It likewiſe requires a knowledge of the internal ſtructure of the earth and it's various ſtrata, with a competent ſkill in ſubterraneous architecture, menſuration, hydraulics, levelling, and mechanics; without which, we can never judge what mountain, plain, or valley, is proper to be dug; in what manner to dig it; how to diſcharge the water that may flow in upon the works; how the beds of ore and ſtone will dip or run; how the various kinds of earths, marble, and other mineral or metallic matters, are to be cut through or broken; or how the general proceſs of mining ſhould be conducted, in order to procure, with the leaſt expence, or bring to open day, the principal matter or ore required.

And, even when all theſe difficulties are conquered, no more than half the work is effected; and the end can ſtill be never obtained, without a tolerably exact knowledge of ſeveral chemical operations, viz. trituration, torrefaction, lotion, calcination, cementation, fuſion, amalgamation, and the like: whence it may be laid down as a rule, that every directing metalliſt ſhould not only be tolerably verſed in the ſeveral parts of natural philoſophy, but particularly be well acquainted with chemiſtry.

And, perhaps, it may not be improper to intimate, that many metallurgical attempts have miſcarried, merely for want of a competent ſkill to conduct them. The under workmen, in this way, are generally a head-ſtrong ignorant people, that cannot be managed without the uſe of ſome good political rules, and a knowledge much ſuperior to their own. Yet, how little ſoever the art of minerology may have been underſtood, hiſtory affords us numerous examples of plentiful fortunes and immenſe treaſures raiſed from mines, as well by private perſons, as particular ſtates and kingdoms. But the vulgar, and even philoſophers not verſed in trade, generally eſteem the buſineſs of mining precarious, uncertain, and unproſperous; eſpecially when compared with agriculture, or other arts, exerciſed more in the open day.

The truth is, mines are liable to many contingencies, being ſometimes poor, ſometimes ſoon exhauſtible, ſometimes ſubject to be drowned, eſpecially when deep, and ſometimes hard to trace. Yet there are many inſtances of mines proving highly advantageous for hundreds of years: the mines of Potoſi are, to this day, worked with nearly the ſame ſucceſs as at firſt: the gold mines of Cremnitz have been worked almoſt theſe thouſand years, and our Corniſh tin mines are extremely ancient: in general, the profit of mines, compared with that of agriculture, is immenſely greater in the ſame time, ſo as to compenſate largely for their want of certainty. Even lead mines generally yield twice or thrice the returns of the richeſt ſoils, improved in the ordinary manner, either by nature or art. What then ſhall we ſay of the mines that are rich in the nobler metals? The nett profit of the ſilver alone, dug in the Miſnian ſilver mines of Saxony, in the ſpace of eight years, is computed at a thouſand ſix hundred and forty-four millions, beſides ſeventy-three tons of gold *.

* See Pet. Albin. in Chronic. Miſn. Miner. German.

Many mines have been diſcovered by accident: a torrent firſt laid open a rich vein of the ſilver mine at Fribourg in Germany Sometimes a violent wind, by blowing up trees, or overturning the parts of rocks, has diſcovered a mine. The ſame has happened by violent ſhowers, earthquakes, thunder, the firing of woods, or even the ſtroke of a plough-ſhare, or a horſe's hoof.

The art of mining does not wait for theſe favourable accidents, but directly goes upon the ſearch and diſcovery of ſuch mineral veins, ores, or ſands, as may be worth the working for metal.

The artificial inveſtigation and diſcovery of mines depend upon a particular ſagacity, or acquired habit of judging, from particular ſigns, that metallic matters are contained in certain parts of the earth, not far below it's ſurface.

The principal ſigns of a latent metallic vein ſeem reducible to general heads; ſuch as (1.) The diſcovery of certain mineral waters. (2.) The diſcolouration of the trees or graſs of a place. (3.) The finding of pieces of ore on the ſurface of the ground. (4.) The riſe of warm exhalations. (5.) The finding of the metallic ſands, and the like. All which are ſo many encouragements for making a ſtricter ſearch, near the places where any thing of this kind appears. Whence rules of practice might be formed, for reducing this art to a greater certainty.

But, when no evident ſigns of a mine appear, the ſkilful mineraliſt uſually bores into the earth in ſuch places as, from ſome analogy of knowledge, gained by experience (or by obſerving the ſituation, courſe, or nature of other mines) he judges may contain metal.

This method of boring conſiſts in the uſe of a ſett of ſcooping-irons, made with joints, ſo as to be lengthened at pleaſure; and thruſt down to a conſiderable depth below the ſurface of the earth, ſo as, when taken out again, to bring back ſamples of the earth, or mineral matter, from the depth whereto the iron deſcended; much after the manner that ſamples of ſugar are taken by the inſtrument called a REST, out of the hogſhead.

After a mine is found, the next thing to be conſidered is, whether it may be dug to advantage. In order to determine this, we are duly to weigh the nature of the place, and it's ſituation, as to wood, water, carriage, healthineſs, and the like; and compare the reſult with the richneſs of the ore, the charge of digging, ſtamping, waſhing, and ſmelting. This is a matter of œconomical prudence.

Particularly the form and ſituation of the ſpot ſhould be well conſidered. A mine muſt either happen (1.) In a mountain. (2.) In a hill. (3.) In a valley, or (4.) In a flat. But mountains

tains and hills are dug with much greater eaſe and convenience, chiefly becauſe of the drains and burrows, as the miners call them; that is, the adits, or avenues, may be here readily cut, both to drain off the water, and to form gangways for bringing out ore, &c.

In all the four caſes, we are to look out for the veins, which the rains or other accidental things may have laid bare; and, if ſuch a vein be found, it may often be proper to open the mine in that place, eſpecially if the vein proves tolerably large and rich: otherwiſe, the moſt commodious place for ſituation is to be choſe for the purpoſe, viz. neither on a flat, nor on the tops of mountains, but on the ſides: for the mineraliſt is always to exerciſe his judgment, in due choice of a place to begin the work.

The beſt ſituation for a mine is a mountainous, woody, wholeſome ſpot, of a ſafe eaſy aſcent, and bordering upon a navigable river. And, ſuch a place as this being the ſtandard of goodneſs, all others may be judged of as they approach to, or recede from it.

Wood is indiſpenſibly neceſſary for making the neceſſary inſtruments, engines, and huts; as alſo for fencing the pits, or avenues, and ſupporting the rock, where large caverns are made, by digging away the ore: and again, for ſupplying fuel to the melting works, unleſs where pit-coal will ſerve the turn. But, though no wood or coal ſhould grow upon the ſpot, it may often be ſupplied by means of a navigable river, or cheap carriage. And thus there are ſome rich mines in the hotter climates, without ſo much as a ſhrub growing near them.

Plenty of water ſhould never be wanting, and is beſt ſupplied by a river; whence it may be commodiouſly derived by pipes, into the lavadero's, ſmelting-huts, &c. or even brought into the burrows themſelves, and made to work the ſubterraneous machines. Theſe are conveniencies not conſtantly to be expected from caſual rains, or the torrents of the mountains.

The roads and conveniencies of carriage, to and from the adjacent parts, muſt be likewiſe regarded, as well for the ſale of the metal produced, as the conveyance of goods, and the neceſſaries of life to the workmen: for it rarely happens, that proviſions are afforded upon the ſpot where metals are found.

The places abounding with mines are generally healthy, as ſtanding high, and every way expoſed to the air: yet ſome places, where mines are found, prove poiſonous, and can upon no account be dug, though ever ſo rich. The way of examining a ſuſpected place of this kind is, to make experiments upon brutes, by expoſing them to the effluvia or exhalations, to find the effect.

But a conſiderable advantage may ſometimes be made, without the labour and expence of digging: for, as ſprings and rivulets are frequently the outlets of mines, it may happen that the ſand of ſuch waters ſhall be worth the waſhing for metal, in which manner large quantities of gold-duſt are often procured: and hence it appears to be, that the ſands of many rapid rivers contain gold; and even the ſand of the ſea in ſome places, though the latter in ſo ſmall a proportion as ſeldom to be worth the waſhing. But the ſand of ſuch rivers wherein ſtamped ores are continually waſhed, may frequently deſerve to be aſſayed.

The veins of a mine greatly differ from each other, in depth, length, and breadth. Some ſtretch obliquely from the ſurface towards the central parts of the earth, and theſe are called deep veins: others lie ſhallow and circular, ſo as to encompaſs a large ſpace; theſe are termed ſpreading veins: others poſſeſs a great part of the ſpace they lie in, both in length and breadth, and theſe are called accumulated veins, being no more than a ſpace poſſeſſed by a group of foſſils of one certain kind. But to give the hiſtory of veins, and fibres, which are ſmaller veins, their differences, their directions, their interſections, their different goodneſs, their diſcontinuations, their riſing, falling, &c. would be a large work. Let it, however, be obſerved, that theſe things ſeem to proceed in a certain order, though the laws of them have not been well obſerved, ſo as to afford the ſure rules of practice: whence it ſometimes happens, that, after a vein has been ſucceſsfully tried for ſome time, it dips, breaks off, or takes a different courſe, leaving the workmen as it were at fault.

When a vein of ore is found, and all things prepared for the work, if the vein be of the deep kind, it is firſt to be laid bare and a pit to be ſunk upon it, at the mouth whereof a ſhed is to be raiſed, and a crane, or barrel and winch fixed, for craning up the ore. The pit is to be ſunk either perpendicular or oblique, according as the vein happens to run.

It is alſo uſual, in this caſe, to cut a burrow or adit, into the ſide of the hill. This burrow is uſually cut twice as high as wide, that the workmen may commodiouſly paſs along it with their barrows and burdens, being for that purpoſe uſually about ſeven feet and a half high, and almoſt four feet wide. If this ſide pit reaches to the firſt pit, it becomes a true burrow, open at both ends, and thus renders the work more facile and commodious, as the ore may be now wheeled out in barrows, inſtead of being craned up to the mouth of the pit. After the ſame manner it is uſual to dig many caverns into the ſides of the mountain, in order to ſcoop out the ore; ſo that ſometimes there are thus ſeveral burrows made, to the eaſe and advantage of the work.

The art of digging the veins varies according to the nature of the vein, or according as it is ſoft or hard. The ſoft vein is generaly dug with the ſpade, and turned out into wooden trays, placed underneath to receive it: but the hard veins are knocked out with a gad, or kind of chiſſel and hammer. But, if the ore is ſo hard as to be incapable of breaking in this manner, they uſually ſoften it with fire, which has the power of rendering the hardeſt and moſt flinty ſtones brittle and friable. But a ſtill more expeditious method is the working with gunpowder, by means whereof much of the hardeſt rock may be ſhivered and ſplit in a very little time; a ſmall parcel of powder being laid in a long hollow cut for that purpoſe, after the nature of a gun-barrel, and fired as it were at a touch-hole; a ſmall vent, where the quick-match is applied, being left for the purpoſe, and the orifice being otherwiſe hard ſtopped up with clay.

The manner of purſuing and digging all ſorts of veins, the ways of under-propping and diſcharging the water from the works, the ſinking of air-ſhafts, curing of damps, and the like, to the beſt advantage, requires more philoſophy than the generality of mere workmen, or the common miners have, though their experience may as much aſſiſt the theoretic philoſopher, as the diſcernment of the latter may that of the former.

Remarks on Minerology.

We learn from the preceding enquiry, that, to practiſe minerology and metallurgy to advantage, a conſiderable knowledge in natural philoſophy, as well as in the operations of chemiſtry, in relation to the point of metallurgy, is required.

That many miſcarriages, in mineral attempts, have been owing to the want of a competent ſkill of mechanics, hydraulics, and chemiſtry.

That the profit attending the ſcientifical working of mines is generally greater, and upon the whole more conſiderable, than that of agriculture or merchandize.

That there are two ways of diſcovering mines, viz. by accident and by art: the latter whereof belongs to the intelligent mineraliſt.

That the art of diſcovering mines depends upon a certain ſagacity, which may be acquired by uſe and practice; or upon the obſervation of particular ſigns, that generally denote a mine; and again upon the method of boring, according to ſome analogy of knowledge, gained by being converſant with the common appearances, ſituations, and other phænomena of mines.

That the art of diſcovering mines is reducible to rule, ſo as not to be mere conjecture, or gueſs-work.

That, in general, mines are to be firſt opened where a vein is, by accident, or otherwiſe, laid bare, eſpecially if it prove large or rich: but, where no ſuch encouragement appears, the ſide of the hill is principally to be choſe for the opening.

That a deliberate conſideration, and a competency of œconomical prudence, are uſually required to determine beforehand, whether a mine, after it is diſcovered, may be wrought to profit.

That the moſt perfect ſituation of a mine is to be mountainous, woody, eaſy of aſcent, healthy, bordering upon a navigable river, and good roads.

That metals may be ſometimes obtained to advantage without digging, or barely by waſhing the ſands of certain ſprings and rivers.

That mineral veins differ greatly from each other, and accordingly require different methods of digging, which may be reduced to ſtandard rules of practice.

That the buſineſs of mining is improvable, by diſcovering better methods of preventing or curing the damps in mines, rendering poiſonous mines wholſome, or defending the bodies of the workmen againſt their ill effects; as alſo by diſcovering better methods of raiſing or diſcharging the waters, following the veins, breaking the rock, getting up the ore.

Before we take leave of this article, what the learned Dr. Edward Browne ſays, with regard to the miner's compaſs, in his Travels through Hungary, Theſſaly, Macedonia, &c. may deſerve the attention of thoſe, who may become adventurers herein.

'They [the miners] ſays he, work, towards one, two, or three of the clock; for the miner's differs from the mariner's compaſs, being not divided into 32, but into 24 points.—This is very true, not only in regard to the Hungarian and German miners, but with reſpect to our own coal miners: where, if you aſk any of the workmen about the courſe of the veins, they anſwer you, that it dips towards ſix o'clock, which is utterly unintelligible to common people. The truth of the matter is, that the miner's and mariner's compaſs is founded upon different principles, though it is to be doubted, whether a method might not be found of uſing the mariner's compaſs to great advantage in mines; but at preſent we have not room to inſiſt upon this, and ſhall therefore content ourſelves with obſerving, that in the miner's compaſs the upper twelve o'clock anſwers to the meridian of the place

where the mine is, and from thence the hours are marked on each of the ſemicircles; ſo that ſix o'clock makes a quadrant on each ſide, and each of the hour lines is diſtant from the other 15 degrees; ſo that, in fact, the miner's compaſs is a kind of dial; and, when they ſay they have worked to ſuch an hour, they mean that they work to ſuch a point as the ſun bears from them at the time of the day which they mention.'

'Kircher, in regard to this diſcovery of mines, ſays, we muſt allow, that all the ſigns for the diſcovery of mines, here mentioned, are founded on a weak bottom, and that there is none of thoſe ſuppoſed marks, whereby one can be ſure and certain, after you have diſcovered the place that contains ore, neither what quantity nor what kind it holds; for theſe ſigns will direct as well to ſulphur, antimony, ſalt, mercury, lead, iron, copper, tin, as to ſilver and gold. But, by virtue of the WINCHEL-ROD, we may with confidence diſtinguiſh the one from the other, and know what kind of ore the mines contain: for, by holding in each hand a piece of gold, the rod which thereby attracts the atoms of the gold, will beat or move to no other metal; with ſilver it will do the ſame, as thoſe who profeſs themſelves profeſſors of that art affirm:' which we are afraid is a groſs impoſition, and that Kircher herein might be deceived by ſome of the artifices of miners, which leads us to take ſome notice of them.

'The operation with the virgula divina, ſays Mr. Gabriel Plattes *, is thus to be performed: ſome obſerve a ſet day and hour, with certain words and ceremonies at the cutting up of the ſame, which I have found to be little to the purpoſe. Thus I worked about Midſummer, in a calm morning: I cut up a rod of haſel of the ſame ſpring's growth, almoſt a yard long; then I tied it to my ſtaff in the middle, with a ſtrong thread, ſo that it did hang even, like the beam of a balance: thus I carried it up and down the mountains where lead grew, and before noon it guided me to the oriſice of a lead mine; which I tried, having one with me with an hatchet of iron, and a ſpade; and, within two hours, we found a vein of lead ore, within leſs than a foot of the graſs: the ſign that it ſheweth is to bow down the root-end towards the earth, as though it would grow there, near unto the oriſice of a mine: when you ſee it do ſo, you muſt carry it round about the place, to ſee that it turneth in the ſpring ſtill to the place, on which ſide ſoever you ſtand.

* See his Diſcovery of Subterranean Treaſures, p. 4. 5.

The reaſon of this attraction, continues he, I conceived to be of kin to the loadſtone, drawing iron to it by a ſecret virtue, inbred by nature, and not by any conjuration, as ſome have fondly imagined.

And the reaſon of this my opinion was, becauſe that, in divers of my practical experiments, I have obſerved an attraction betwixt ſeveral things, like that of the loadſtone and iron; and, if it were to good purpoſe, I ſuppoſe that I could ſhew more experience of that kind than any man in England.'—But the truth of the ſure diſcovery of valuable mines or minerals by ſuch-like means as here pretended, has not yet been made experimentally appear to the ſatisfaction of the learned world.

Further REMARKS ON MINEROLOGY.

OF THE DECEITS AND IMPOSITIONS OF MINERS, AND OTHERS IN LEAGUE WITH THEM, IN ORDER TO GUARD THE PUBLIC AGAINST THEM.

1. After the practiſing every art to induce adventurers to hazard their money and give the miners employment, they uphold the adventurer's ſpirit, from time to time, by fair promiſes and plauſible appearances: and, when they find that people begin to be quite wearied out, they then think it time to produce ſome ore; which they frequently have conveyed under-ground from ſome other mine, to engage the adventurers ſtill to keep them employed.

2. But, when no more ore appears, then they amuſe people with the notion, that what they had diſcovered was only a leader to ſome vein, and that the vein could not be far off: thus they lead their dupes on, 'till perhaps, they do at length really diſcover a vein of ore: but, that they may make the moſt of it to their own advantage, they will then tell the adventurers, that they find it is in vain for them to go on in that place any longer, for that they ſee no likelihood of reaping any advantage.—Thus the firſt adventurers are impoſed on to deſiſt, when they might carry on the work to profit, as they were drawn in to continue it, when there was not the leaſt view of advantage.

3. The miners fixing their private mark upon the ſurface of the earth where the vein was diſcovered draw others in, for a time, to hazard their money in other places; and at length apply to ſome perſons to work where the real mine is, for a fortnight, three weeks, or a month, for nothing; for that they are, by certain ſecret ſigns, known only to themſelves, convinced, that there is a good vein there; and, provided they ſhall have ſuch an extra-conſideration, if they, in that time, diſcover a mine, and have the ſole working thereof, they will engage gratis. This naturally draws adventurers, the mine is really found, and thoſe reap the ſole advantage of it, who never hazarded one ſhilling in it's diſcovery.

4. Artful and villainous projectors alſo are frequently in combination with the miners, to deceive people by the following arts:

1. Theſe projectors prevail on the miners to give out that a valuable mine is diſcovered; ſamples of the ore are produced, and aſſays made by aſſay-maſters of credit, who pronounce the ore to yield ſo much metal. This being confirmed by divers aſſays, numbers are ſeduced to hazard their money, in concert with the projector's emiſſaries, when the whole is ſunk in the pockets of the infamous ſchemers and miners.

2. It has been ſaid, that, in order to draw people into thoſe adventures, ſome tons of ore have been often purchaſed from other mines, carried to places where there was none, and pretended to be there diſcovered. A wealthy gentleman, and of experience in mining in CORNWALL, was thus egregiouſly impoſed upon by thoſe villains, though he had the circumſpection to go down into the mine himſelf, and ſee with his own eyes; and was, as I have been well informed, greatly redueed.

3. Another art ſaid to have been practiſed by theſe deceivers is, the making of an artificial mineral, abounding richly with gold and ſilver.—This they do, by melting a portion of gold and ſilver with ſome ſulphureous marcaſite or mineral, and break the ſame in ſuch a manner as to appear like a native mineral; by which, upon the aſſay's yielding real gold and ſilver, people are impoſed upon.

Theſe are the ſhameful impoſitions to which perſons are liable; ſo that unleſs they live in the neighbourhood of places that abound with mines, can depend upon the fidelity of the miners, and have ſufficient judgment themſelves, and will venture thier perſons down into the mines from time to time, there is no great dependance to be made upon the report of others.

Certain it is, that many have got great eſtates by mining; and if they reſide upon the ſpot, and have competent ſkill to guard themſelves againſt fraud and deluſion, people may often ſtand a good chance of great gain for very little hazard.

MINES, are places in the earth, out of which metals, minerals, and other kinds of earth are dug.

So many different kinds of foſſils as there are, ſo many various names have their mines, viz. gold-mines, ſilver-mines, copper-mines, iron-mines, coal-mines, ſalt-mines, and ſuch as produce gems, &c.

The moſt celebrated gold and ſilver mines, are

1. Thoſe of PERU and CASTELLA DEL ORO, which are the richeſt in the world, yielding gold and ſilver in abundance, and not being deſtitute of other metals; inſomuch that the natives of Peru and the Spaniards uſed to boaſt, that this kingdom was founded upon gold and ſilver. [See the article PERU.]

Girava, a Spaniſh writer, affirms, that there were formerly mines about the town of Quitto, which produced more gold than earth. And, when the Spaniards made their firſt expedition into this golden country, they found ſeveral houſes, eſpecially in the regal city Cuſco, which were all covered over within and without with plates of maſſy gold. And the officers of the Peruvian forces not only wore ſilver armour, but all their arms were made of pure gold. The moſt rich and advantageous mine of ſilver is in the mountains of Potoſi, where 20,000 labourers are daily employed to dig it. Theſe mines produce that vaſt quantity of gold and ſilver, which the king of Spain receives out of America every year, to the mortification of other kings and potentates; and which he therefore keeps fortified, with ſtrong forts and garriſons.

2. There are excellent rich mines of ſilver in the JAPAN ISLANDS, whence they are called, by the Spaniards, the Silver Iſlands. There are alſo ſome mines of gold found there, but theſe are not ſo rich as formerly.

3. There were more plentiful gold-mines formerly in ARABIA, than at preſent.

4. In the mountains of PERSIA, and in CHINA, there are ſome ſilver-mines.

5. In GUINEA there are ſeveral mountains that produce gold, but they are remote from the ſhore, and the gold duſt that is brought from thence, is not dug out of the ground, but gathered up and down by the natives. Their inland kings are however ſaid each to poſſeſs his mine, the product of which he ſells to the neighbouring merchants, and they again to others, 'till it reaches the ſea-coaſt, where it is exchanged with the Europeans.

6. In MONOMOTAPA, there are found rich mines of gold and ſilver, and alſo in Angola, both of which are thought to be parts of one continued vein.

7. GERMANY excels the reſt of the kingdoms of Europe for plenty of mines, of which ſome produce ſmall quantities of gold, others abundance of ſilver, and a great many of them copper, iron, lead, vitriol, antimony.

8. SWEDEN is enriched with the beſt copper-mine of any hitherto diſcovered, it is in a vaſt high mountain, which they call Kopperberg, out of which as much copper is dug as makes up a third part of the king's revenue. Here are alſo numerous iron mines, and ſome ſilver-mines, but the latter ſcarcely defray the expence of digging them.

9. There are mines of precious ſtones found in the iſland of CEYLON, and alſo in CONGO (where there is a ſilver-mine, and ſo much marble, that the earth under-ground is thought to be all marble) and in PERU, about PORTOVIGO, in SMARAGDINA, and in GUIANA, near the coaſt of which there is a ſmall iſland called ST. MARIA, which yields a pretty deal of gold, if we may believe the Dutch. In the kingdom of GOLCONDA, there is a mine which yields precious ſtones, particularly diamonds in abundance, but it is not now dug.

10. In CHILI there are mines yielding gold, ſilver, and gems, but the warlike inhabitants, ſetting more by iron-weapons than gold or ſilver, have partly killed, and partly driven away, the Spaniards, and demoliſhed the mines that were but newly begun.

11. The iſland of MADAGASCAR abounds in iron and tin, with a moderate quantity of ſilver, a little gold, but no lead. Wherefore the natives value leaden ſpoons above ſilver ones.

12. In the iſland of SUMATRA it is reported, that there are rich mines of gold, ſilver, braſs, and iron, and that the king in one year, (viz. in 1620) received into his treaſure 1000 pounds weight of gold.

13. In the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, and in JAVA, HISPANIOLA, CUBA, and others, there are found mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and iron; and, in the mountains of SIAM, there are got gold, ſilver, and tin.

14. There are mines of ſalt in POLAND at POCHNIA, four miles from CRACOW (where large lumps of tranſparent white ſalt are cut out of the ground) in TRANSYLVANIA, in the county of TYROL, and in places near the CASPIAN SEA, not far from the river WOLGA, over againſt the iſland KISTOWAT, where the Ruſſians dig their ſalt and boil it to a more pure ſubſtance, and afterwards tranſport it to all parts of Ruſſia. In CUBA there is a whole mountain of ſalt. All the mountains in the iſland of ORMUS, at the mouth of the Perſian gulph, are of ſalt, which may be gathered in any part of them, in ſuch great quantities, that the very walls of their houſes are built of cryſtalline ſalt. In a valley in PERU, about eighteen miles from LIMA to the northward, are found deep and large pits of ſalt, where every one may take away what quantity he pleaſes, becauſe it continually increaſeth, and ſeemeth impoſſible to be exhauſted. In AFRICA there is no other ſalt uſed, but ſuch as is dug out of pits or quarries, like marble, of a white, greeniſh, or aſh colour. All India fetch their ſalt from the great ſalt-mines of BAGNAGAR in COROMANDEL, &c.

In DERBYSHIRE, YORKSHIRE, FLINTSHIRE, in ENGLAND, there are conſiderable lead-mines, and ſome copper. CORNWALL abounds with tin-mines. SUSSEX, SOMERSETSHIRE, with iron, &c. SCOTLAND and IRELAND alſo, and the BRITISH PLANTATIONS in NORTH AMERICA, have numerous mines, many of which are wrought to great advantage.

Of the GENERATION of MINES.

Mines are commonly found in high mountains, becauſe the heat does concenter and unite better there than in low grounds, and conſequently there is a ſtronger fermentation for the production of metals.

The hardieſt, the weightieſt, and moſt compact metals, are generated, when by fermentation there has been an entire ſeparation of the groſs parts; for they are only a coagulation of very ſubtile particles, and a ſtrict union of theſe very ſmall pores.

Metals lie in mines very often like great trees, which ſpread their branches towards all ſides; whence it is, that many have thought they were nouriſhed as plants and animals, by juices which run and circulate in the veins or veſſels ſuppoſed to be within them; but, if the thing be examined narrowly, it may eaſily be conceived, that theſe branches of metals (which are called veins by thoſe who deal in mines) happened only by the running of the metallic matter through ſeveral ſmall canals, before it was coagulated; which may have been occaſioned by the fermentation that ſwells the matter, and forces it to open the circumadjacent earth in divers places. This fermentation alſo raiſes very often (even to the top of the mountain where there is any metal) ſtrings of ſome marcaſite or metallic earth, which is taken as a great ſign of metals by thoſe who ſearch after them.

Becauſe it would be a very laborious and unpleaſant work to dig for metals, without ſome reaſonable aſſurance of finding them; therefore ſome have ſtudied to know the ſeveral characteriſtics, by which it may be concluded, that ſuch and ſuch places do afford mines.

There are, indeed, ſometimes mines, whoſe veins appear in the very ſurface of the earth, ſo that none can doubt of finding them. [See AFRICA.] But, if none others were ſought after, we ſhould not have ſuch abundance of metals. Some therefore of the following marks may be added to thoſe already given for diſcovering mines.

Firſt, It is to be conſidered whether the ridges and tops of mountains, their chinks, cavities, or pits digged in them, do yield any marcaſites, or pieces of metal; for that is a ſign there is a mine ſomewhere about: and, to find out the place, you muſt follow the ſtring, or track, of theſe marcaſites.

Another ſign of a neighbouring mine is, when there are found, in the ſand of any rivulet, or ſpring, ſmall pieces of marcaſites; for thoſe have been carried off by the waters, which commonly come out of mountains; and ſo, by tracing the rivulet or water to it's head, you may come at laſt to the mine itſelf.

A third mark of a mine is, when abundance of hot waters, or waters which have a mineral taſte, flow from a mountain, or any other place: for the places where metals are generated are always invironed with theſe waters, which is the occaſion of no ſmall trouble and difficulty to thoſe who dig in mines.

A fourth ſign of a mountain's having a mine in it is, when it is bare and barren, without trees, and having very few plants upon it; or when thoſe that grow there are pale, and without any freſh colour: for the mineral vapours which ariſe through the pores of this mountain, burn the roots of theſe plants.

Indeed, ſometimes metals are found in very green and fertile mountains, where there are many trees, and other plants; for the metallic vapours do either ariſe there in a leſs quantity, or are of a different nature, and ſo do not hinder the growth of plants in theſe mountains: or, perhaps, the mines lie at the bottom of them, or may be covered with ſome hard ſtone, which intercepts the exhalation of the vapours from the plants.

Finally, ſome very ſkilful in mines pretend to know, whether there be any in a mountain, by adverting to the reflection of the ſun-beams. There being ſo much water in mines, which neceſſarily muſt be drawn off, therefore they commonly rather begin at the foot of the mountain than at the top, becauſe the waters may this way be more eaſily drained.

Then they dig a vault near to the foot of the mountain, which ought to be continued, in a ſtraight line, the neareſt way to the body of the mine; but many do often amuſe themſelves with the ſmall veins of the metal which they meet with, and upon that account leave the right way, and ſo both loſe their time, and ſpoil their work: beſides that, they expoſe themſelves to great danger; for they ſhake the ſoft ſtones, which, by this means, fall down in great quantity, filling up what they had digged, and ſometimes cruſhing the very workmen. To avoid this accident, they uſe to prop the roofs of their vaults, or rooms which they dig, with great rafters of wood, to prevent the falling of the looſe earth and ſtones, and then they work by proper inſtruments for looſening the metal itſelf.

Metals differ from other minerals in being malleable, which the others are not.

They are accounted ſeven, gold, ſilver, iron, tin, copper, lead, and quickſilver; this laſt is not malleable of itſelf, but is ſo mingled with the others, that it is thought to be the ſeed of metals.

Aſtrologers have conceived that there was ſo great an affinity and correſpondence between the ſeven metals beforenamed and the ſeven planets, that nothing happened to the one but the other ſhared in it; they made this correſpondence to happen through an infinite number of little bodies, that paſs to and from each of them; and they ſuppoſe the corpuſcles to be ſo figured, that they can eaſily paſs through the pores of the planet and metal they repreſent, but cannot enter into other bodies, becauſe their pores are not figured properly to receive them; or elſe, if they do chance to get admittance into other bodies, they cannot fix and ſtay there to contribute any nouriſhment; for they imagine that the metal is nouriſhed and perfected by the influence that comes from it's planet, and ſo the planet again the ſame from the metal.

For theſe reaſons they have given theſe ſeven metals the names of the ſeven planets, each according as they are governed: and ſo have called gold the ſun, ſilver the moon, iron Mars, quickſilver Mercury, tin Jupiter, copper Venus, and lead Saturn.

They have likewiſe fancied that each of theſe planets has his day apart to diſtribute liberally his influence on our hemiſphere: and ſo they tell us that, if we work upon ſilver on Monday, iron on Tueſday, and ſo of the reſt, we ſhall attain our end much better than on other days.

Again, they have taught us that the ſeven planets do every one govern ſome particular principal part of our bodies; and, becauſe the metals do repreſent the planets, they muſt needs be mighty ſpecific in curing the diſtempers of thoſe parts, and keeping them in good plight. Thus they have aſſigned the heart to gold, the head to ſilver, the liver to iron, the lungs to tin, the reins to copper, and the ſpleen to lead.

Thus you ſee, in ſhort, what ſome of the moſt ſober aſtrologers do fancy concerning metals; and they draw conſequences from hence which it would be too long here to relate. I have told you what the ſobereſt among them ſay; for nothing can be ſo abſurd as what ſome of them would have us believe.—But this has been judged by the moſt eſteemed philoſophers mere whim and enthuſiaſm.

Never-

Nevertheleſs, if we could be ſatisfied that experience confirmed what theſe perſons have offered to maintain, we might then have reaſon to think there were ſome likelihood in their doctrine, although their principles were found to be altogether falſe; but in truth there is nothing to confirm their opinion, and we find it every day plain enough, that the faculties and virtues are utterly falſe which they attribute to the planets and metals. The metals, indeed, are of good uſe in medicine, and excellent remedies may be drawn from them; but their effects may better be explicated by cauſes near at hand than the ſtars.

Working in metal is very ancient, even from the firſt age of the world; in the time of Tubal Cain, according to the teſtimony of Moſes, they had got the art of working with a hammer, and they knew how to make utenſils of tin and iron. It is very probable that, in the time of that lawgiver, they practiſed chemiſtry, becauſe of the children of Iſrael, under Aaron, made themſelves a golden calf; and Moſes, after he came down from Mount Sinai, in a great wrath againſt the people, reduces this calf to aſhes; which was, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, done by diſſolution and precipitation, and mercury. See the articles METALS, METALLURGY, MINERALS, MINEROLOGY.

REMARKS.

As land produces more or leſs corn according to it's goodneſs or fertility, and the labour employed in manuring it; ſo the mines of iron, lead, copper, coal, tin, ſilver, &c. produce more or leſs according to the richneſs of the veins, and of the labour of digging, drawing off the waters, melting, refining, &c. The labour of the ſilver miners is the deareſt, by reaſon of the danger and mortality attending it; and the ſilver miners are eſteemed to live, at a medium, but five or ſix years in that labour.

The value of metals is like every thing elſe, proportionable to the land and labour that enters into their production; and the price of them varies according to the demand and conſumption, which depends principally on the fancy and manner of living of the proprietors of land.

If all the tin that is drawn annually out of the mines of Cornwall, and which commonly ſells at London for about 100,000 l. has every year a conſtant conſumption and vent, the land and labour that enter into it's production are equal to the land and labour that produce any other quantity of commodities which ſell for 100,000 l.

But if every body rejected the uſe of tin, and made uſe of earthern ware inſtead of it, it would ceaſe to be in eſteem, and to have a value, and the tin adventurers would diſcontinue the work of the tin mines.

Let us ſuppoſe in a ſtate without foreign trade, that a regular and uniform quantity of copper is annually dug out of the mines for the common uſes of life, as pots, kettles, pans, and kitchen ware, to replace the quantity of copper which is yearly conſumed by fire, or worn away, and then that copper is begun to be made uſe of as money; this additional demand of copper will make it dearer, and encourage the digging out of the mines more of it than uſual, and there will be more copper yearly required to replace that which is conſumed.

All ordinary metals, as iron, lead, tin, copper, coals, &c. are conſumed by fire, the computation of the land and labour that goes to their production. See the article LABOUR.

But ſilver and gold are not conſumed by fire, and they wear out ſo ſlowly by friction and attrition, that they may be eſteemed permanent metals in this regard, as well for their other qualities, as their volume, ſubdiviſion without waſte, the impoſſibility of falſifying them, &c. They ſeem beſt fitted of any metals or commodities to ſerve for money.

If there were conſtantly an equal demand and conſumption in a ſtate of corn and wool, there would be alſo a conſtant proportion of value between them, ſuppoſing alſo an equal quantity of each to be conſtantly produced.

In this caſe, a meaſure of wheat would always bear a conſtant proportion of value to a pound of wool; and an accomptant might, by imagining aliquot parts, find out a common meaſure to know how much wool is worth ſo much wheat.

But, in regard the conſumption of theſe and all other commodities, as well as their quantities in a ſtate, vary frequently, or rather conſtantly, no accomptant or algebraiſt can fix any proprortion of value between them.

Money alone (I do not here conſider what is uſed for money) naturally finds out this proportion, and the quantity of money which is brought to market to barter for each kind of commodity, readily fixes the proportion of value that is between them all, Quæ eadem uni tertio ſunt eadem inter ſe. Every body who brings his money to market knows what money he has to lay out, or, at leaſt, what he intends to lay out for the expence of that day.

The working of mines is undertaken either by private perſons, or by companies of ſuch, or by corporations endowed with certain privileges, as the Mine-Adventurers, &c.

Further REMARKS.

The ſubſtance of what has been ſuggeſted for the advancement of mining, ſeems to be reducible to what follows, viz.

There is not any method that appears ſo conducive towards effectually carrying on works of mining and ſmelting, as that which is eſtabliſhed in Sweden; there the whole buſineſs is under the direction and management of commiſſioners, in the ſame manner as there is in this kingdom a board of trade and plantations, where the principal branches are under the niceſt regulations imaginable: they have two perſons who are principally employed, and under whoſe direction are put all the machine works belonging to their mines; theſe again have mechanics under them, who are very induſtrious, and continually aiming at ſome improvements; then, in order to promote diſcoveries, they appoint people in every province and county, who are called minor metal ſearchers; becauſe their daily employment and conſtant buſineſs, is to ſurvey the grounds, and examine the mountains, for all kind of metalline ores, minerals, veins, beds, &c.

Whatever diſcoveries happen to be made by theſe, they are inſtantly reported to the grand board; to which, if they ſeem likely to prove beneficial, orders are iſſued out immediately, and miners are ſet to work in the moſt advantageous manner: after the ſame method are all the other branches of this ſcience carried on, in which the ſame ſpirit prevails.

In order to facilitate and accompliſh the perfection of this ſcience, and to range it's laws in ſuch a juſt order, ſo as to render the whole into a compleat body of mining and ſmelting, the following method, we apprehend, will not appear irrational or impracticable.

1. Both mining and ſmelting ſhould be treated in an hiſtorical manner: a juſt account of them ſhould be brought down from the earlieſt ages to this preſent time, in which particular notice ſhould be taken, what improvements have been made, and what declenſions and decays it has ſuffered, and in what ages and in what nations, they have happened.

2. A true theory muſt be eſtabliſhed: the ſymptoms, which by experience have been confirmed to be characteriſtics, whether good or bad, ſhould be laid down in their proper order; the rationale of them be given; thoſe that are equivocal ranged under one claſs, and thoſe that are univocal or pathognomnic under another: it ſhould be ſhewn likewiſe, how they are dependent upon each other, or how one is the neceſſary conſequent of the other: taking care, that the whole be demonſtrated in ſuch a plain and eaſy manner, that it may juſtly be ſaid to be adapted to the meaneſt capacity, though ſounded upon an exact ſyſtem of natural philoſophy; ſo that a proper regard is to be taken, that nothing is aſſerted, but what may, and is made evident from the ſame principles.

3. All the branches of the mechanical part of mining, or the various ways of working under-ground, ſhould be familiarly particularized, and made as clear as poſſible; the different methods of different countries be faithfully repreſented; for from every one of them ſomething may be collected, towards improving our own: wherefore we muſt not forget to mention the tools, which, with all curious under-ground ſtructures, ſhould be delineated in a lively and intelligible manner upon copper-plates.

4. Draughts of all machines appertaining to mine-works, ſhould, in like manner, be exactly exhibited upon copper-plates: in this branch we need not be aſhamed to borrow from foreigners; amongſt thoſe that have been invented by the Swedes, we ſhall find a great many worthy of our obſervation; for they have excelled all other nations, particularly in one, which, in all reſpects, anſwer the end in a very ſurprizing manner, without the aſſiſtance of ropes; as is particularly deſcribed by Mr. Swedenborg, in his Regno Subterraneo.

5. As the mineral veins of one country differ from thoſe of another; for inſtance ſake, we will mention two of the moſt material: veins on the continent are in long ranges and rakes, they are not there liable to bars or out-cuts; they, therefore, moſt commonly run pretty ſtrait and certain, for as many miles as the courſe of the mountains will admit of; they are entirely unacquainted with beds and bellies in their mines, which are moſt commonly called Pipe-works: ſo on the contrary, in all iſlands, the ranges or rakes are ſeldom found to run in ſtrait lines; their veins are very uncertain, ſeldom continue long; they are frequently impeded with bars or out-cuts of the rocks, and the ore is too often found in bellies and pipe-works: in fine, they have ſcarce any thing alike or common with thoſe on the continent, except the underſets, which are generally the ſame in moſt places.

The ſame uncertainty and irregularity holds good, and extends itſelf even to the very rocks and mountains, which in this kingdom are different, in different counties; thoſe in Flintſhire are moſt commonly ſoft, thoſe in Montgomeryſhire hard, and thoſe in Cardiganſhire are in no reſpect like thoſe of either place; theſe differences are ever to be cautiouſly weighed and conſidered, for they occaſion a different method of ſcrutiny and examination, as well as a different one of working; nor can we borrow any light from our neighbours into this affair, the picture muſt abſolutely be taken from the original: therefore, if any author ſhould attempt to write a diſtinct treatiſe of this art, and deſcribe the particular method of working which ought to be purſued in a particular county or ſoil, before he can pretend to render ſuch an under-

taking complete and beneficial to the inhabitants, and proficients of the place he deſigns it for; he muſt ſurvey the mineral mountains very careſully, that he may be able to compoſe his Geographia Subterranea in a correct and ſkilful manner; for, if this is not done, how can he be ſuppoſed to form his maps exactly true? How will he be able to deſcribe the labouring part? How will he be capable of diſtinguiſhing the promiſing ſymptoms from thoſe that are otherwiſe? How will he manifeſt the product of the mountains, and point out the way by which they may be worked to the beſt advantage? Yet all theſe things muſt be diligently obſerved, and punctually proſecuted; theſe rules muſt be ſtrictly regarded by every writer that deſigns his labour to benefit the nation, to ſerve the proprietor, and to inſtruct the ignorant. In fine, he muſt follow the example of the accurate coaſt-ſurveyor, that not only points out the ſafeſt roads and harbours, but likewiſe manifeſts the dangerous ſhoals and rocks; therefore, let the ſubterranean geographer deſcribe the barren, as well as the fertile mountain, for by that he will give us to underſtand the promiſing ore-bearing ſigns, and vice verſa; for a good guide ought not only to be acquainted with the main road, through which he is to conduct his traveller, but he ſhould alſo know the bye ones, that he may not be at a loſs to get into the main one, if by any accident he ſhould happen to be thrown out of it.

6. When he comes to the ſmelting part, he muſt lay down a general hiſtory of the produce of nature in the caverns of the earth; he muſt give us a deſcription of the various ſorts of ores and minerals, by ſhewing us not only the different properties which eſſentially diſtinguiſh one ſpecies from another, but likewiſe the diverſity that may be found in each ſpecie; theſe, according to their ſeveral degrees and natures, are to be diſtributed into proper claſſes, divided and ſubdivided under proper heads; giving to each it's inſeparable characteriſtics, whereby to diſtinguiſh it from the reſt; telling us how and where they are commonly found, what appearances they afford when analyzed, what principles they are compoſed of, what mixed bodies they are incorporated with, what compoſitions and fluxes are moſt ſuitable to them, to free them from other heterogeneous mixture, and ſet at liberty their pureſt contents: in fine, it muſt be ſet forth after what manner they are to be treated, and what diſcoveries have been made in this reſpect in different ages; exhibiting exact draughts of furnaces that are and have been uſed in foreign countries as well as in our own, that choice may be made of thoſe that are the beſt adapted for the purpoſe; pointing out their perfections and imperfections, that they may be farther improved, as the artiſt ſhall have occaſion.

7. The mine and mineral manufactures are fully to be treated of, the materials that all are compoſed of be regiſtered; how they are produced, and after what manner they are obtained in foreign countries, even in the common way of ſmelting, muſt be clearly ſet forth: theſe would make a conſiderable article in the trade and manufactures of this kingdom; for the materials of thoſe commodities are to be met with in great abundance, in ſeveral parts of this country.

8. The whole work muſt be concluded, with giving compleat inſtructions on the art of aſſaying metalline and mineral ores in ſmall quantities [ſee the article ASSAY]; nothing here ſhould be omitted, which can in any ſhape be conducive to this purpoſe, for it is of very great and material concern.

If a treatiſe ſhould be executed, that laid out a plain plan, founded upon a ſolid theory, the whole confirmed and eſtabliſhed by experiments, it might reaſonably be expected, that mining and ſmelting would undoubtedly raiſe their head; it might juſtly be concluded, that theſe two arts would ſoon come into a flouriſhing ſtate in this kingdom; that they would in a few years gain the aſcendancy, even over thoſe where the mines are worked to the greateſt perfection yet known.

MINORCA, an iſland in the Mediterranean Sea, ſituate about 100 miles ſouth of the coaſt of Catalonia in Spain, and about 20 miles eaſt of the iſland Majorca, and is 30 miles long and 12 broad.

The ſoil of this iſland is of ſeveral kinds; that of the hills and upper grounds, is of a colour nearly approaching to black. It is light, fine, and extremely fertile; and, though it is very thinly ſpread over the face of the rock, it yet produces tolerable crops with very little cultivation. It has a ſmall intermixture of ſand, which diſpoſes it to ſeparate freely before the plough; a quality very advantageous to the Minorquins, as it ſaves them a world of labour as well as expence.

The ſoil of the plains is far leſs fertile than that of the riſing grounds. It is cold and clayey, and equally unfit for agriculture and paſture; and produces only a ſour herbage, that is exceſſively diſtaſteful to cattle, great plenty of ſpart (a kind of ruſhes) in many places, a variety of weeds. The vallies, indeed, have been enriched by the earth that has been waſhed on them from the adjoining hills to a great depth: but the hills have been impoveriſhed by the ſame means, and in the ſame proportion. However, we frequently ſee ſtone-walls, that have probably ſtood many ages, run acroſs the ſides of the hills to detain the ſoil; and ſuch hills yield good crops to the very ſummit, which muſt otherwiſe have had their rocky entrails laid bare, as is viſible, wherever this caution has been neglected.

Iron ore is ſo plentifully diſperſed over the whole face of the earth, that it is not ſurprizing we find it in Minorca. It's ferruginous colour and great weight diſtinguiſh it, in many flat maſſes, of from four to ten inches diameter, in moſt parts of the iſland. But it is not converted to any uſe here, either on account of it's unfitneſs to make iron alone, the ſcarcity of fuel, or the want of ſkill in the natives.

But of lead ore here is a mine at St. Puig, which has been worked to advantage within theſe 40 years, and the ore ſent into France and Spain, for the uſe of the potteries of thoſe countries. The proprietor diſcontinued his work on ſome ſmall diſcouragement; and it muſt be owned, that theſe people are of all mankind the moſt eaſily put out of conceit with an undertaking, that does not bring them in mountains of preſent gain, or that admits of the ſlighteſt probability of diſappointing their moſt ſanguine expectations: nor will their purſe admit of many diſappointments; and thus their poverty co-operating with their natural deſpondence and love of eaſe, is the principal cauſe of their backwardneſs to engage in projects, though never ſo promiſing, for the improvement of their private fortune, and the advantage of the commerce of their country. This lead ore went under the name of Vernis among the natives, as it was wholly uſed by the potters in varniſhing and glazing their earthen veſſels.

There are few exports of any account, and they are obliged to their neighbours for near one third of their corn, all their oil and aguardiente, and ſuch a variety of articles of leſs conſideration, that nothing could preſerve them from a total bankruptcy, but the Engliſh money circulated by the troops, which is exchanged for the daily ſupplies of proviſions, increaſed by the multiplication of vineyards, the breeding of poultry, and the production of vegetables, in a proportion of at leaſt five to one ſince the iſland has been in our poſſeſſion.

It will not require many words to enumerate their exports: they make a ſort of cheeſe, little liked by the Engliſh, which ſells in Italy at a very great price; this, perhaps, to the amount of eight hundred pounds per annum. The wool they ſend abroad may produce nine hundred pounds more. Some wine is exported, and, if we add to it's value that of the home conſumption, which has every merit of an export, being nine parts in ten taken off by the troops for ready money, it may well be eſtimated at ſixteen thouſand pounds a year. In honey, wax, and ſalt, their yearly exports may be about four hundred pounds; and this comes pretty near the ſum of their exports, which we eſtimate together at eighteen thouſand one hundred pounds ſterling per annum.

A vaſt balance lies againſt them, if we conſider the variety and importance of the articles they fetch from other countries, for which they muſt pay ready caſh. Here it may be neceſſary to withdraw ſome things from the heap, ſuch as their cattle, ſheep, and fowls, on which they get a profit; for the country does not produce them in a ſufficient abundance to ſupply them, eſpecially when we have a fleet of men of war ſtationed there.

Their imports are, corn, cattle, ſheep, fowls, tobacco, aguardiente, oil, rice, ſugar, ſpices, hard ware, and tools of all kinds, gold and ſilver lace, chocolate, or cacao to make it, tobacco, timber, plank, boards, mill-ſtones, tobacco-pipes, playing cards, turnery ware, feeds, ſoap, ſaddles, all manner of cabinet-maker's work, iron ſpikes, nails, fine earthenware, glaſs, lamps, braſiery, paper, and other ſtationary wares, copperas, galls, dye ſtuffs, painters bruſhes, and colours, muſical inſtruments, muſic, and ſtrings; watches, wine, fruit, all manner of fine and printed linens, muſlins, cambrics and laces; bottles, corks, ſtarch, indigo, fans, trinkets, toys, ribbands, tape, needles, pins, ſilk, mohair, lanthorns, cordage, tar, pitch, roſin, drugs, gloves, firearms, gunpowder, ſhot and lead; hats, caps, velvet, cotton, ſtuffs, woollen cloths, ſtockings, capes, medals, veſtments, luſtres, pictures, images, agnus Dei's, books, pardons, bulls, relicks, and indulgencies.

REMARKS on MINORCA.

The Spaniſh dons here are above trade, and the reſt of the natives are unable to exerciſe it to any purpoſe. Yet if this infatuated people would ſet themſelves ſeriouſly to make the moſt of their native produce, a few years induſtry would enable them to traffic with their neighbours to advantage, and even to provide exports of conſiderable value for an Engliſh market. To inſtance in a few: the cotton ſhrub has been tried here, and ſucceeds to admiration: they have ſpart growing in many places, in ſufficient plenty to make all their own cordage, and to ſpare. The tunny fiſh abounds on their coaſt, and they might eaſily fall into the method of curing it: by this the French of Languedoc and Provence, their neighbours, make a vaſt advantage.

They have abundance of olive-trees, yet they make no oil of the fruit, and are utterly ignorant of the right method of pickling it.

Some capers they pickle; and might, from the frequency of the plant, improve this into a very valuable export.

Hemp and flax do extremely well, and might be increaſed, and manufactured for exportation. Their canes and reeds are of uſe in the clothiers trade, but they export none; and they have great plenty of excellent ſlate, but do not work it. It might poſſibly anſwer to ſend their cantoon ſtone to England as ballaſt; but certainly their marble would be a valuable commodity with us, of which no country can boaſt a greater quantity in proportion, nor of greater beauty or variety, than this poor iſland.

Squills they have in abundance, maſtic, aloes, and ſome other drugs, which they neglect.

Their bees thrive well, and ſhould be carefully managed, and increaſed as much as poſſible; their wax is inferior to none, and their honey cannot fail of being extremely delicate and fine in a country abounding with ſuch a variety of aromatic plants, and is, therefore, in high eſteem every where.

They raiſe a little tobacco, but ſeldom half the quantity they conſume; and they make a kind of ſnuff, in ſmall quantities, which is in no reſpect inferior to that of Liſbon.

Their neighbours of Majorca make good advantage of their plantations of ſaffron, which theſe people uſe in their cookery, and yet will not take pains to raiſe it.

Their palm-trees, for want of a proper cultivation, produce no dates; and they ſend none of their fruit abroad, though they have it in their power to ſupply us with as good figs, prunes, almonds, raiſins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and ſeveral other kinds, as any country in Europe.

But we will cloſe theſe hints of what an induſtrious people might do to inrich themſelves, and this indolent generation of men careleſsly overlook, with the mention of ſalt, a ready-money commodity every-where, and of which they might eaſily make a thouſand times the quantity they now do. Their method requires little trouble. There are a great many places on the coaſt of the iſland, where the rock is but little higher than the ſurface of the ſea, and is flat for a great way together. In gales of wind the ſea is beat all over theſe levels; and the ſalts have, by degrees, corroded the ſofter parts of the ſtone, and reduced it's face to an infinite number of ſmall cavities, divided from each other by the more ſolid veins, which have reſiſted their impreſſion.

Theſe cavities they fill with water from the ſea, by means of ſcoops, and one day's ſun ſuffices to evaporate the water, and leaves the concreted ſalt dry in the cells. The women and children gather it in the evening, and carry it home; and the cells in the rock are filled as before.

Having inſtanced ſome of the natural produce of this iſland ſlighted by the inhabitants, which yet are capable of being improved into very valuable articles of commerce; we will attempt an eſtimate of the charge they are at in their importations.

From authentic papers, which contain an exact account of their harveſts for thirty-ſeven years, it appears, that there are annually raiſed here 53,501 quarters of wheat, and, 22,683 of barley, one year with another.

Wheat is their only bread-corn, all their barley being given to their beaſts. Of the laſt they ſeldom import any; but they have occaſion for 35,000 quarters of wheat every year; which, at nine ſhillings each, amount to 15,750 l. They import oil yearly to the value of 10,000 l.

By an exact account of their aguardiente for 14 years, we find they import annually of this ſpirit a quantity that coſts them 9250 l. allowing only 10 per cent. for the profit of the farmers; and this, at ſix-pence a quart, makes their yearly conſumption of this ſpirit to be upwards of 1540 hogſheads.

They import tobacco to the amount of 1200 l. a year.

We may compute that their imports in linen and woollen goods of all kinds do not come to leſs than 15,000 l. It is not poſſible to make a nice calculation of the value of all the reſidue of their imports, but we may reaſonably ſet them at 20,000 l.

So that here we have an annual expence of 71,200 l. from which if we deduct 18,100 l. the amount of their exports, the remainder, 53,100 l. ſterling, is a clear balance of trade againſt them.

To enable theſe people, in ſome meaſure, to ſupport the charge of this great balance, we are to reckon the large ſum of money yearly brought into the iſland, and ſpent among them by the troops; a ſum that falls but little ſhort of their whole balance; the greateſt part of which goes to market for the common neceſſaries of life.

Every vintage produces 18,000 hogſheads of wine; and, if we allow for the clergy 2000 hogſheads, and for all the reſt of the natives 1000, the remaining 15,000 hogſheads are ſold, to the Engliſh, for 27,825 l. in ready money, the price of a hogſhead, taken at a medium, being 35 ſhillings.

This is a very conſiderable article in their favour; and they are ſo ſenſible of the advantage they draw from their vineyards, that they are continually enlarging them and increaſing their number, notwithſtanding they are taxed to near half their value.

They are, indeed, tied down to a ſet price for their red wine, and the aforacion, or rate, is ſettled the beginning of the year; but, for the little white wine they make, they are at liberty to drive their bargain as advantageouſly as they can.

It is certain this people can never be rich, unleſs they become induſtrious; the ſea is open to them, as well as to their neighbours, on every ſide, who thrive by a foreign commerce, and yet not one of them can victual or navigate their veſſels near ſo cheap as theſe ſlothful Minorquins, who lie in the center of ſo many trading ports, that it is amazing how they can have ſo long overlooked their true intereſt, and ſuffered themſelves to be ſupplied with ſo many of the neceſſaries of life in foreign bottoms.

The Minorquins are naturally liſtleſs, and, if they contrive the means to keep their families from poverty, they are but little ſolicitous to enquire into the arts and manufactures by which ſudden fortunes are acquired on every ſide of them. Tell them the Malteſe are inriched by the quantities of cummin and anniſe-ſeed they export; remind them that the plant which produces the canary-ſeed grows ſpontaneouſly all over the iſland; or that a gum is produced from the maſtic-tree, of very great value abroad (and though this tree is an incumbrance which they eagerly root out of their grounds) they treat you as a viſionary, and, with a ſhrug of contempt, ſeem to thank heaven that they have no turn to whims and projects, but are contented to jog on in the plain track which their fathers trod before them.

MISSISSIPPI, MESSASIPPI, or MESCHASIPPI, a country of North America, bounded by Canada on the north; the Britiſh plantations on the eaſt; the gulph of Mexico on the ſouth; and the principality of New Mexico on the weſt. Miſſiſſippi river, which gives the name to the country, riſes in Canada, and runs to the ſouthward, 'till it falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is a large navigable river, ſaid to run above 2000 miles; to which, as well as the adjacent country, the French lay claim, and have poſſeſſed themſelves of part of the country ever ſince the year 1712, giving the river the name of St. Louis, and the country the name of LOUISIANA, and have made great efforts towards planting it, as it is a moſt fruitful and deſirable country, of vaſt extent; though the eaſt part of it, in reality, belongs to Great-Britain [ſee LOUISIANA,] and the weſt to the Spaniards, who have planted part of theſe countries long ſince, and are every day extending their ſettlements into it. The French raiſed the expectations of their people ſo high in relation to the immenſe riches that were to be acquired by planting it, and being ſettled ſo contiguous to the Spaniſh mines in MEXICO, in the year 1719, that every one was ready to throw his money into the ſtocks, which the company ſold at upwards of 2000 per cent. But the government ſeized moſt of the money, and the adventurers were ruined; which put a ſtop to the planting this country at that time: but it has been encouraged ſince; and, if the Engliſh do not oppoſe their encroachments, before they are too powerful on that ſide, they are like to be very troubleſome neighbours to the Britiſh plantations.

REMARKS on the MISSISSIPPI before the laſt war.

This French Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, as well as the Engliſh South Sea ſcheme, tending to the deſtruction of fair and honourable commerce, and to the ruin of the public credit of nations, it will be expected that we ſhould not ſlightly paſs over a matter of this nature, in order to guard poſterity againſt the like enormous bubbles.—See the articles BUBBLES and ACTIONS. The ſhort hiſtory of this remarkable ſcheme is as follows, viz.

The regent of France having nothing more at heart than to diſcharge the ſtate-bills, which amounted in value to ſome hundreds of millions, bethought himſelf, among other expedients, of erecting a company that ſhould have the ſole privilege of the trade of Miſſiſſippi, a large fruitful country in North America. Mr. Law, a Scotch gentleman, whoſe genius always carried him to the ſtudy of trade and money, contrived the plan of this eſtabliſhment, which was made in 1717, of which he was appointed the principal director.

Every body was admitted to ſubſcribe to this company; and the ſtock firſt propoſed to be raiſed, was only ſixty millions of livres, to be ſubſcribed in ſtate-bills. Nevertheleſs, though this was no great ſum, and though the ſtate-bills might be bought at between 60 and 70 per cent. diſcount, and were received at par, or without any loſs in the company's ſubſcriptions; yet, at firſt, people were not forward to ſubſcribe, becauſe they were ſtill ignorant of the advantages which might accrue to them from the company.

The ſixty millions being at length completed, the ſtate enlarged the capital to a hundred millions, and granted the company the farm of tobacco, which produced four millions per annum, for the paying the intereſt of the ſaid hundred millions, at the rate of 4 per cent.

The grant of this farm gave ſuch a ſudden credit to the ſubſcribed bills (ſince called actions, or ſhares) that their price roſe to a hundred and twenty, Mr. Law having ſo well managed the farm of tobacco, that the company made thereby conſiderable profits. Some time after the actions fell even to par, but they roſe again in a few days.

After this, a new creation of actions was made, for the ſum of 25 millions, which were delivered at 110. The companies of India and China were incorporated with that of Miſ-

M I S

ſiſſippi in 1719; whereupon the price of the actions roſe from 100 to 200. About that time, the Miſſiſſippi company aſſumed the name of the India company.

When it appeared that the people of France took a reliſh to theſe actions, 'till then unknown in that kingdom, and that they were eager to lay out their money this way, being perſuaded the company would make great profits, which would be divided among the owners of thoſe actions, Mr. Law, in concert with the regent, formed a mighty project for enlarging the credit and profits of this company. An arrêt of the council of ſtate was publiſhed for circulating bank bills to the value of 25 millions in the Miſſiſſippi company. To this advantage the ſtate ſhortly afterwards added a grant of the coinage for nine years, and other ſpecious encouragements.

Theſe privileges made the actions immediately run up to 500; but they ſell afterwards to 445, only upon the news of Mr. Law's being taken with a ſlight indiſpoſition. After this, the actions roſe again in a few days to 610, and ſoon fell to 560. All this happened a little after Midſummer, 1719.

The company finding their credit ſo well eſtabliſhed, propoſed to advance to the king a loan of 50 millions, in 15 monthly payments; and, in order to raiſe this ſum, they obtained an arrêt of council for the creation of 25 millions of actions, upon the foot of 200 per action. But, as there was a conſiderable time allowed for the payments, and that the actions ſold for three times that price, the company reſerved to themſelves a power to diſpoſe of them, at what times they thought fit: whereby they kept in reſerve a fund ſufficient to buy merchandize, to build neceſſary ſhips, and ſettle good colonies in Miſſiſſippi; for thus the proprietors expected to receive very great ſums from the ſale of part of thoſe actions, made at different times; the other part thereof having been at firſt delivered to the chief proprietors of the old ones, according to the purport of the arrêt.

About the end of Auguſt, the company propoſed to the king to make another loan of 1200 millions of livres, at 3 per cent. intereſt; and, at the ſame time, to take the five great farms, paying to the ſtate three millions and a half more than was given by the perſon who then held the leaſe, that is, 52 millions yearly, for the ſpace of nine years, the term of the leaſe granted to the company. Out of this ſum, they were every year to receive 36 millions, for the ſpace of 25 years, for the intereſt of 1200 millions they had engaged themſelves to advance to his majeſty, in order to reduce to 3 per cent. the intereſt of the ſtate debts upon the town-houſe of Paris, and others, which uſed to carry 4 per cent. which reduction ſaved the king 12 millions of livres yearly. The company's privileges were then prolonged to the year 1770.

The French fondly hoping that the company would get immenſe profits by trade, and principally by the direction of the general farms, which, 'till then, had been very illy managed, ran more than ever into theſe actions; ſo that, in a few weeks, they advanced to 1200.

Every thing at Paris then aſſumed a ſmiling countenance; money grew ſo common, that people did not know where to put it out at 3 per cent; the public ſecurities, which before were at great diſcount, now ſold for 10, nay, 15 above their par; the tradeſmen had a greater vent for their goods; the workmen were better paid for their work; the value of land about Paris roſe to 50, and even to 60 years purchaſe; many noblemen repaired their broken fortunes, and others grew very rich, by the great advantages they made in dealing in the actions of this new company.

Numbers of people never known in the world, and who ſprung from nothing, were all of a ſudden ſeen riding in their coaches, only by ſtriking into this trade, by which, in a very few months, they had gained vaſt ſums.

As the company had undertaken to lend the king 1200 millions, they found it neceſſary, in the month of September following, to raiſe 500 millions, by the ſale of 50 millions of actions, at the rate of 1000 per action, which was ten times the original value of the actions.

The ſubſcriptions were filled in a few hours; nay, they were obliged to return a third part that was ſubſcribed above the ſums, which amounted to 775 millions. The ſubſcribers were not obliged to pay the whole ſum all in at once, but in ten monthly payments; which, however, was afterwards altered for their convenience.

The firſt payment of theſe new ſubſcriptions was ſold the very next day at cent. per cent. profit.

In a few days afterwards, books were again opened to take in ſubſcriptions for the like ſum, upon the ſame conditions and reſtrictions as the former; and they were filled in as ſhort a time.

The company's caſhiers were forbidden, by an arrêt of council, to receive for thoſe ſubſcriptions, or in the nine payments remaining to be made for the laſt, any money or bank bills, but only ſtate bills, or other the king's debts therein ſpecified; which greatly raiſed the value of the effects royaux, or public ſecurities.

This way of borrowing money, or rather of bringing into the company near 1000 millions of livres of the king's debts, having ſucceeded perfectly well, the company again opened their books for 500 millions more, and with the like ſucceſs. About that time, every action was divided into two parts, each valued at 5000 livres; for the reſt, the actions were on paper, payable to the bearer; ſo that the owners might at any time exchange them for ready money, or bank notes, which were altogether as good, and more convenient than money.

The firſt payment of theſe three ſubſcriptions, far from falling, roſe conſiderably, that it quickly went at 1, 2, and even 300 per cent. profit; ſo that ſuch ſubſcribers as were willing to transfer their new ſubſcriptions to other perſons, did, in a few weeks, double and tripple, nay quadruple the money which they had advanced for that firſt payment.

Nevertheleſs, theſe laſt ſubſcriptions ſunk the price of the old ones, though the old ones were of the ſame nature, and as good as the laſt. The old ſubſcriptions fell almoſt at once to 760, becauſe the ſubſcribers to the laſt wanting money to anſwer the ſecond payment, which was ſo near, were forced to ſell their firſt ſubſcriptions.

The company, in order to put a ſtop to this fall, cauſed notice to be given at the bank, that they would repay them at 900. This advertiſement gave ſuch a ſupport to the credit of thoſe old ſubſcriptions, that, in leſs than a month, they went at 1200, as before, and even roſe higher, while the new actions fluctuated about 1300.

But, what contributed to it moſt, was, an arrêt of the council of ſtate, allowing a longer term for the firſt payments that were to be made upon the new ſubſcriptions. The whole ſum borrowed by the company in theſe three new ſubſcriptions being 1500 millions, they repreſented to his majeſty, that the loan they were to make to the ſtate amounting to 300 millions more than they at firſt propoſed, it was reaſonable the company ſhould be allowed an annual intereſt of 45 millions, after the rate of 3 per cent. inſtead of the 36 millions already granted: to which his majeſty conſented.

Upon the whole matter, the ſums of the ſeveral ſubſcriptions made at different times, are as follow:

60 Millions of the firſt ſubſcription,
40 Millions of the ſecond,
25 Millions of the third,
25 Millions of the fourth,
50 Millions of the fifth,
50 Millions of the ſixth,
50 Millions of the ſeventh,

300 Millions, the total of the actions.

When theſe actions ſold at 1000, their total value amounted to 3000 millions of livres, of which ſum the king did not owe the company much above half, which made the real and intrinſic value of every action to be 550.

We ſhall now give you an eſtimate of the ſums which the company were ſaid to have in their power to divide yearly, by which the ſubſcribers were made to expect very good dividends.

The company were to receive every year,

	Millions.
Out of the king's revenue - - -	45
By the farm of tobacco - - -	3
By the management of that farm - -	4
By the profits of the five great farms - -	30
By the coinage - - - - - -	5
By the Eaſt-India trade - - -	12
By the timber and Miſſiſſippi trade ſome years after	7
	106

Without reckoning what ſome other branches were to produce, as the fiſhery, the refining and parting of bullion of gold and ſilver, the traffic of ingots of the ſame bullion, which the goldſmiths and merchants were obliged to buy of the company, and ſell at a certain ſpecified ſtandard. So that the profits ſchemed to ariſe from all this, were to have been above 25 millions: for the ſtate were to ſupport the credit of the company, though at the expence of yielding up the profits of the bank, and ſeveral other privileges.

The advantages propoſed to accrue to the king from the eſtabliſhment of the India company, were ſet forth as follow:

The eſtabliſhment of the India company in France, ſay the memoirs of thoſe times, has not only been of infinite advantage to the ſubjects of the kingdom, by opening the purſes of the rich, that ſtrove who ſhould put their money in firſt, but the king alſo has gained by it very conſiderably; ſince all the branches of his revenues muſt bring ſums into his coffers, infinitely beyond what was ever known before, by reaſon of the circulation of the ſpecies, which is certainly three times greater than ever, as is manifeſt from the price of proviſions, land, and merchandizes. The regent has found in the ſubſcriptions of this company a ſource almoſt inexhauſtible, whereby he has made large gifts in actions to the officers of the army, and the king's houſhold, and to a number of private gentlemen, by which means they are grown rich. Mr. Law on his part, has done ſervice to vaſt numbers of people, even

even to his enemies, in putting them in a way to make their fortunes. Since the circulation of the ſpecie has been reſtored, the regent has taken off ſeveral taxes in Paris, and the provinces, ſo that all France ſhares the advantages of his happy adminiſtration.

By this ſcheme, the revenues of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty will increaſe 40 or 60 millions a year, and yet the people will be eaſed of many taxes, and of the burden of many uſeleſs officers, who have been actually paid back the money they gave for their places.

Now, if a judicious man will impartially judge of what hath paſſed, and what is now doing in France, in relation to commerce and the revenues, he muſt own, that from the remoteſt ages, hiſtory does not record any thing ſo inconceivable. One cannot reflect on this, without being brought to confeſs, that the prince who is at the head of affairs, knows how to make uſe of the readieſt and moſt agreeable means of ſetting France in the moſt flouriſhing ſtate it ever was in. Has not the world always ſaid of him, that he had a ſuperior genius, and fit for every thing? Beſides the arts and ſciences, to which he all his life devoted himſelf, he is a perfect maſter of accompts, without which he had never carried the affairs of France to the height they now are. Mr. Law's ſcheme had not ſucceded ſo well under the reign of a prince, whoſe natural and acquired parts had been inferior to his who is now guardian of the royal authority.

The eſtabliſhment of the royal bank of Paris.

Mr. Law ſet up the bank at Paris by the royal authority, ſome time before the eſtabliſhment of the Miſſiſſippi. It was governed much like the bank of England, the regent having reſerved to himſelf the inſpection of their accounts: there was at firſt ſome difficulty in eſtabliſhing it's credit, the French having no notion of the convenience of an eſtabliſhment ſo advantageous. But, as the regent was convinced of the great benefit that would accrue to the public from it, his royal highneſs took all the care imaginable to make them ſenſible of it. In a ſhort time there were ſeveral arrêts in favour of the bank, the chief of which was that which required the officers who levied the king's taxes, to receive the bank notes in payment of the revenues. The French, ſeeming at length to be ſenſible of the conveniency of making payments in notes payable to the bearer, it was ordered in the beginning of the ſummer 1719, that the bank bills ſhould be increaſed to the ſum of four hundred millions. It was permitted by the ſame arrêt, to the royal bank to ſet up bank offices in all the mint-towns of the kingdom, except Lyons, which declared againſt receiving any; yet ſoon after the merchants of Lyons, of their own accord, very earneſtly ſolicited to obtain the privilege of a bank in their city.

The increaſe of bank bills to the ſum of 400 millions of livres not being ſufficient, a larger quantity were delivered out about the cloſe of the ſame ſummer for 120 millions of livres, each bill being for the ſum of 10,000 livres.

But even this was found inſufficient to anſwer the demands that were daily made, which moved the regent to iſſue out an arrêt in October following, ordering the bank to give out to the value of 120 millions more, and that the notes ſhould be likewiſe for 10,000 livres each.

The ſum total of all the bills which the bank had iſſued out at the end of the year 1719, amounts to ſix hundred and forty millions, which exceeded the value of the bills circulated by all the other banks in Europe put together.

It will not be amiſs to obſerve, that there were bank notes for ſmall ſums as well as great; ſome of ten, ſome of a hundred, and others of a thouſand livres; thoſe of ten thouſand amounting but to two hundred and forty millions of livres.

Likewiſe a new addition of three hundred and ſixty millions was ordered in bank bills, which, with the ſix hundred and forty millions before, amounted to a thouſand millions of livres, making then above 38 millions of pounds ſterling, upon the par of exchange; for the crown in ſpecie of France, which was then current in that kingdom for five livres and two fifths, or an hundred and eight of their pence, was worth in weight and fineneſs but four ſhillings and three halfpence Engliſh money.

An ARRET, ordering in what manner payments ſhall be made, as well in Paris as in the provinces, and regulating the difference between bank money and the current coin. December 21, 1719. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

The king having cauſed the ſeveral arrêts iſſued concerning the bank and the lowering of the coin to be laid before him, his majeſty judged, that it would tend to the good of the ſtate, and the benefit of his ſubjects, as well as to the advancing of the public credit, to put his people in a way to avoid the loſſes which are ordinarily occaſioned by the variation in the currency of the coin. To which end, his majeſty being in council, by the advice of the duke of Orleans regent, has ordered, and orders,

I. That the bank money ſhall be and remain fixed at five per cent. above the value of the current coin, at which price bank bills ſhall be delivered out as well at the general office in Paris, as at the other offices in the provinces; the bearers of the ſaid bills, after they ſhall be given out by the bank, being left at liberty to negociate them at ſuch higher rate as they ſhall find convenient.

II. It is his majeſty's will, that beginning from the day of the publication of the preſent arrêt in the city of Paris, from the firſt of March next, in thoſe towns where are offices of the mint, and from the firſt of April following in the other towns and places of his kingdom, the gold and ſilver coins, as well thoſe ſtruck purſuant to the edict of May 1719, as thoſe ſtruck this preſent month of December, ſhall not be offered nor received in payments; that is to ſay, the ſilver coins, but for payments under the ſum of ten livres, and the gold coins but for payments under the ſum of 300 livres; and that the payments above the ſaid ſums ſhall be made in bank bills, on the penalty to the offenders herein of confiſcation of the amount of the payments, and of a fine of 300 livres.

III. It is his majeſty's intention, that the India company pay in bank bills the produce of the impoſts and duties which they ſhall receive; and as to the payments that they ſhall make in money for ſums under ten livres in ſilver, and 300 in gold, which their officers may receive, the ſaid company ſhall pay five per cent. augmentation; his majeſty authorizing them to receive the ſaid five per cent. from the perſons liable to thoſe duties, upon payments of ſums under ten livres in ſilver, and 300 in gold.

IV. It is alſo his majeſty's will, that reckoning from the day of the publication of the preſent arrêt, the payments of foreign bills of exchange, ſhall be made in bank bills; and this notwithſtaading the arrêt of the 27th of May laſt, from which his majeſty derogates.—Done in the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty therein preſent, held at Paris the 21ſt of December, 1719.

The grand ſupport of this ſcheme was the great territory of Louiſiana, otherwiſe called Miſſiſſippi. See the article LOUISIANA.

That we may have a juſt notion of the nature of this remarkable project, the following further account of the proceedings in France, for raiſing a PAPER CREDIT, and ſettling the Miſſiſſippi ſtock, may not, perhaps, be thought altogether uſeleſs.

It was many years ago, ſay the writers of thoſe times, ſince the French court regretted the height of the public credit in England. They looked upon it as the great, and perhaps, the only advantage we had over them in war; namely, that by the eſtabliſhed reputation of the public funds here, and the authority of parliamentary credit, whatever ſum of money was voted in England, though the funds did not produce it many years, and though the loans were prodigiouſly great, yet the public could command the money in a few days, perhaps, in a few hours.

This was as much the terror of our neighbours, as it was the honour and advantage of England; and foreigners have been heard to ſay, That there was no getting the better of England by battle, no, though victory was always on their ſide. That, while we had thus on inexhauſtible ſtorehouſe of money, no ſuperiority in the field could be a match for this ſuperiority of treaſure; for money being the ſinews of the war, it had long ſince been a received maxim, that the longeſt purſe, not the longeſt ſword, would be ſure to conquer at laſt.

It was in vain that the late king of France, though he had an abſolute command of the greateſt, and, at firſt, the wealthieſt nation in the world, tried all the arts that human wit could invent to raiſe a fund of credit in his kingdom; the whole council of France could never dictate to him the method how it ſhould be done; this coy miſtreſs, called Credit, could never be wooed; the more he purſued her, the faſter ſhe fled from him; and he had the continual mortification to ſee his national credit fall, even by the ſame methods which made our national credit riſe; and our credit here grew daily, and at laſt increaſed to ſuch a height, that from paying 12 and 14 per cent. for money, and ſtruggling with infinite difficulties to get it brought in, we came to reducing the intereſt from 6 to 5 per cent. and after to have the public command of what money we pleaſed at 4 per cent. and had it brought in faſter than we had occaſion for it.

It is not poſſible to repreſent the projects, and infinite arts and practices, which the king of France uſed to command credit; all which were diſappointed by the frequent exigencies of his affairs, forcing him to violate the faith and honour of his edicts: whereas in England, one parliament always voted the making good deficiencies, and no miſapplication of money could be made, but every fund was kept ſacred to it's peculiar ſpecial appropriation: ſo that no man whatever having lent his money to the government on the credit of a parliamentary fund, has been defrauded of his property.

Thus the arbitrary government of the king of France, deſtroyed the very nature and fundamental principle of public credit; and the limited power of the crown of Great-Britain (the ſtrings of the purſe being in the hands of the parliament) has been the reaſon and foundation of ſuch an immenſe boundleſs credit, that nothing can hurt or deſtroy it, unleſs

unleſs the parliament ſhould invert their way of acting, and take into their hands the ſame abſolute power, which it is their buſineſs to reſtrain, and wound and injure themſelves; that is to ſay, the people whom they repreſent.

But fate and the fortunes of France, at the period we are ſpeaking of, turned the tables, and we ſaw the ſame arbitrary power that in the late reign in France plunged them into an inſuperable debt, and into an irrecoverable ſtate of deficiency and diſcount, raiſed an inconceivable ſpecies of mere air and ſhadow, realizing fancies and imaginations, viſions, apparitions, and making the mere ſpeculations of things, act all the parts, and perform all the offices of the things themſelves; and thus in a moment their debts were all vaniſhed, the ſubſtance was anſwered by the ſhadow, and the people of France made the inſtruments of putting the cheat upon themſelves: the name of the thing is made an equivalent to the thing itſelf, tranſpoſing the debts from the king to themſelves, and being contented to diſcharge the public, owe the money to one another.

As this is the mere conſequence of a boundleſs power in the king, by which he is made able to put every ſcheme, however impracticable in other places, in a courſe of operation there; ſo that every limitation of power, which is, in other caſes our glory and advantage, is the reaſon why, let our credit be what it will, our debts remain, and muſt be diminiſhed by the ſlow fire of parliamentary proceedings, and by no other way.

And thus for once in the world, tyranny has the whip-hand of liberty, for nothing can be done in England like this; even the parliament itſelf is limited, and there are it's redeemable and unredeemable funds, the laſt of which are a burthen, nothing but the number ninety-nine (years) * can put an end to: but in France they have an unbounded liberty to act as they pleaſe.

* The reader will obſerve, that this was the ſtate of our funds at the time we are ſpeaking of.

Let no man miſtake me here, ſays our author, as if I were bewailing the incumbrances of national privileges, and ſuggeſt, that it was pity we ſhould be a nation of liberty with ſuch a burthen of debt; on the other hand, let us be, ſay I, a free nation deep in debt, rather than a nation of ſlaves owing nothing; and, indeed, even in this the condition of France and England ſtands in a poſture much to our advantage when compared together; namely France, a kingdom immenſely rich as a government, wretchedly poor as a people; England, a government embarraſſed in debt, exhauſted of funds, and not able eaſily to get out of debt; but as a people immenſely rich, rich in the particular and private wealths of the ſubjects; poor, that is to ſay, encumbered in debt, ſpeaking of the public ſtate of things, as a government; and yet with all this, while the public credit is upheld, we can never be ſaid to be poor.

It remains now, that we look into this flagrant deluſion of paying a nation's debts, as it is practiſing upon the ignorant people in France: never, in my opinion, was any number of people ſo hooked in to put a ſham upon themſelves, and then call it paying of the king's, or the public debts; for it is no more than a parcel of fools diſcharging the king of his debts, and owing it to one another. And this is another reaſon of this piece of magic in France; for the very want of credit in France, has been the reaſon of their obtaining the credit of paying their debts. This paradox ſhall be unriddled immediately, thus: had not the public credit been bad, had not the ſtate bills, that is to ſay, the public credit, run at 60 to 63 per cent. diſcount, the people would never have brought themſelves to part with them for the bonds, or ſhares in a new company, a brat of ſtate, which has it's life in the king's breath, and muſt die whenever that breath pleaſes to determine it.

Mr. Law, being firſt acquainted with the ſolid immoveable ſtate of credit in England, and ſeeing the fluctuating manner of things in France, plainly ſaw alſo, how eaſy it was to puſh theſe things there, which he could not ſo much as think of in England, without apprehenſions of being pulled in pieces by the rabble. He wiſely concluded, that a foundation of credit muſt be laid, before any ſufficient project could be founded upon it, and ſo the firſt thing he did was the raiſing of a royal bank in France, by the concurrence of the king, whoſe ſanction there, as the parliament would be here, was abſolutely neceſſary for ſuch a work.

Now let the ſchemes engrafted ſince, or then deſigned to be engrafted upon the foot of this beginning be what they will, it is evident Mr. Law made a right judgment, and that nothing could be projected for the public ſervice of any kind, without an eſtabliſhed credit to center ſomewhere.

It was impoſſible this ſhould be grafted upon the government, the endeavours to bring it to paſs before having been rendered abortive, by the frequent exigencies of that ſtate, forcing them to break in upon royal edicts and royal promiſes; by which means the few men that had any money were made cautious, and were grown too wiſe to put it into hands, which they could not depend upon for the demand of it again, when it ſhould be wanted.

It remained then to reſolve, that credit could now be only raiſed upon the forming ſocieties of private men, who were maſters of caſh, and able to ſupport the credit they took, with whom it might be ſafe to venture the depoſit of money, and who, by an exact currency of payments, might in conſequence and by degrees, obtain the name and title of a ſafe fund, and become the baſis of proper credit for the whole kingdom; a thing at that time greatly wanted, for the advantage of trade in France, as well as for the purpoſe deſigned by Mr. Law. This almoſt, by the nature of the thing, would be called a Bank, and would be managed by the firſt adventurers, in their own right, and independent of the king, or of any branch of the government; ſo that except by mere plunder, even all one as by rifling the city of Paris, the king could never lay his hand upon any thing, which was put into their keeping.

This was a well laid deſign, had there been no more projected than was pretended. For, upon the credit and capital ſtocks of the firſt ſubſcribers, there was immediately a clear proſpect of a running caſh, eſtabliſhed upon juſt foundations, and ſufficient to anſwer all the buſineſs of France. When this ſcheme was ſhewn to the regent, he was penetrating enough not to ſee immediately, that it was too beneficial a thing not to be encouraged, as well for the credit of the nation in general, as for the uſe of the government in particular; and, therefore, received it with open arms, and aſſured Mr. Law of his favour and protection: and, as they found his firſt ſcheme capable of great improvements, he was encouraged to employ his thoughts effectually to thoſe improvements, that ſomething might be brought to paſs for the public good, and eſpecially to reſtore credit to France. In proſecution of this confidence, the bank was eſtabliſhed, the patents were expedited for it's foundation; the king begins the ſubſcription, the duke regent follows, and innumerable others; they are impowered to take in a hundred millions original ſtock, and to give out bills for current caſh payable at demand, and to the bearer, juſt after the manner in England. They lent money upon jewels, plate, and things of real value, and upon mortgage of lands at 3 per cent intereſt; they diſcounted bills, and took in money, iſſuing bills of credit payable at demand; and it is inconceivable the mighty increaſe of buſineſs they had upon their hands in ſo little time, and the immenſe ſums of money they had by them in ſpecie.

Mr. Law having thus ſucceſsfully finiſhed this great affair, was at leiſure to enquire what further projects might be founded upon this of a royal bank: he was too knowing not to have in his head the general idea of all thoſe things which have happened ſince: but he knew, that ſuch a fund of credit being once well eſtabliſhed, nothing could miſcarry that was founded upon it; for, as half the projects in the world become abortive, for want of ready money and credit, ſo when once a good project was ſupported with a flaſh of ready caſh, they muſt be weak managers indeed, if they miſcarry.

The firſt thing of moment he went upon, was the planting a colony in the Weſt-Indies, or in North America. He knew, indeed, that the planting the Louiſiana, or the country on the river Miſſiſſippi, would not produce any great effects, at leaſt in his time: for the ſettling a colony, however proſperous in it's beginning, is a work of time, and muſt take up ages. But Mr. Law, like a man of penetration, knew that two things would be abſolutely neceſſary for this deſign: 1. To have the king approve it; and, 2. To make his ſcheme popular, to have ſomething in view beyond not only what he could manage, but even beyond what he ever intended in the propoſal. Having ſtarted the project of Miſſiſſippi, he branched it out in a different manner from all projects; for he did not deſcend from the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme as the general to the ſubſequent things as the particulars, but he aſcended from the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme as a particular, to a Weſt-India company as the general.

His next work was to propoſe the foundation on which the company was to be eſtabliſhed, viz. a ſubſcription of ſtock; and here he ſhewed his firſt maſterly ſtroke, and that he had concerted all the ſteps and meaſures of his management from the beginning.

The public credit in France was ſtill low, nor did the riſing credit of the royal bank add any thing to it, but rather diminiſh it, and let the world ſee that private credit in France might revive, but public credit could not: the ſtate bills, and annuities on the town-houſe loans, and all the paper circulation, were, at this time, exceeding low, namely, from 57 to 63 per cent. diſcount; it was, therefore, the eaſieſt thing in the world to eſtabliſh a fund for any new undertaking that was but tolerably promiſing, where the ſubſcribers could be allowed to ſubſcribe theſe dying credits at a par, and put that into ſtock at 100 livres, which coſt the purchaſer but 37 to 40 livres per cent. and this thing alone filled his firſt ſubſcription.

We ſee the credit of the company riſing to an immenſe height, by the aſſiſtance of the government, and the management of Mr. Law, their director; we ſee the following myſteries, or, indeed, miracles, wrought in the compaſs of a few weeks, things as incredible as the greateſt impoſſibility in nature

could be thought to be; things which, when done, were as a dream, even to thoſe that ſaw them; even the people who have the money in their hands, and who have received their ancient debts, ſo long given over, look amazed, and conſider again and again, whether they are awake or aſleep; the particulars are as follow:

Firſt, we have ſeen them bring the people to refuſe or decline payment, of what they would before have given half the debt to be ſecured of.

Secondly, The ſtate bills, that were before little better than waſte paper, made worth 10 and 20 per cent. above par.

Thirdly, We have ſeen them gain 1350 millions of money in leſs than a month's time, by ſelling the air, and putting a real value upon an imaginary value.

Fourthly, We have ſeen the king's revenues augmented to millions a year, by abating the taxes on the people.

Fifthly, We have ſeen the general farms raiſed four millions a year to the king, and yet 12 millions a year paid leſs by the people.

Sixthly, We have ſeen them pay 1500 millions of debt for the king, without one penny of money.

Seventhly and laſtly, We have ſeen a private gentleman raiſe himſelf, by the dexterity of this management, to be the greateſt ſubject in the world; to have all the nobility, the princes, the public miniſters, and even the government itſelf, at his beck, and above 300 coaches in a morning at his levée, himſelf behaving with all the modeſty imaginable; not elevated by his good fortune, nor diſcompoſed by the application to ſo much buſineſs, but calm and ſerene, and always preſent to himſelf, anſwering briefly and pertinently to every new diſcourſe, receiving 6 or 700 gentlemen in a morning, diſpatching every body's buſineſs with a readineſs inimitable, and every day producing new wonders in the great affair of the public, which was upon his hands.

As the advantages of public buſineſs thus flowed in, the credit of the ſtock neceſſarily advanced; and we were ſurprized in England, to find that every poſt the price ſtarted up whole hundreds in a day, 'till at length we ſaw the ſtock up at 1150 and 1200 per cent. and, after that, to 2050 per cent. Now was the time for Mr. Law to give the blow he had in view.

The multitude of people who came every hour to Paris, and run their money into the ſtock, made this project not rational only, but natural, viz. that they might enlarge the capital ſtock, by engrafting a farther ſubſcription; and, that the new ſubſcribers might have encouragement to ſubſcribe, they ſhould be allowed to ſubſcribe at 1000 livres each, original ſtock. Purſuant to this reſolution, an arrêt was publiſhed, empowering the company to take new ſubſcriptions, upon the firſt foot of the ſtock for 50 millions, the ſubſcribers paying 10,000 livres each; for which they had credit in the company's books, for one action, or ſhare, of 100 livres original ſtock. Thus the company, receiving 1000 millions of livres for 50 millions original ſtock advance, were clear gainers by the ſubſcription no leſs than 450 millions of livres; and this doubled by the ſecond ſubſcription of 50 millions, made the company's gain amount to 900 millions of livres; add to that a third, it made it 1350 millions.

Add to this, that the firſt ſtock of the company was much of it ſubſcribed by the government itſelf, by the king, and by Mr. Law, as in the company's name; and, being ſold afterwards at 1000 and 1100 per cent. put above 200 millions into their pockets, beſides what Mr. Law was ſaid to have gained for his private account.

From this time forward, the ſtock is grown up to a prodigy of 2050 per cent. It is true it ſunk a little on the approach of the time of payment for the firſt three months, which was to be paid on the 1ſt of January, viz. 300 livres per ſhare, and this, for want of money, ſunk the ſtock to about 1850; but Mr. Law, who never wants a remedy for theſe diſeaſes, immediately calls a meeting of the directors, and agrees to declare a dividend of profits, to amount to 6 per cent. upon the ſtock, which, though it be a trifle on the preſent advanced price, yet was really conſiderable in itſelf, and amounts to a very great ſum, no leſs than ſix millions and upwards: however, it was agreed that the company really gained near 100 millions extraordinary, by ſelling her own ſubſcriptions, and buying and ſelling her own ſtock; ſo that they were able very eaſily to divide 20 per cent. on the firſt ſtock, which would have been 1 per cent. upon the after-advance.

This is a brief account of the prodigious riſe and greatneſs of the French India ſtock, to which we ſhall only add, that all the world ran to Paris; the prodigious ſums ſtrangers laid out in the ſtock, and the numbers that reſorted to negociate there, filled that city with money and people, and, conſequently, with trade; and they tell us, there was nothing to be ſeen but new coaches, new equipages, new liveries, and buying new furniture; innumerable families were inriched by this ſurprizing advance of ſtock: in a word, there were no leſs than 1200 new coaches ſet up, and half a million of people more than was before; ſo that no lodgings were to be had; and they built new houſes and ſtreets in every place where they had room.

On the 30th of December, N. S. there was a general meeting of the India company, at the royal bank, at which were preſent the duke of Orleans, regent of the kingdom, the duke of Chartres, and the duke of Bourbon. The company having firſt approved and confirmed what had been done in it's name by the directors, ſince the laſt meeting, took into conſideration ſeveral articles before them, and reſolved, that the dividend for the year 1720 ſhould be 40 per cent. upon the 300 millions of actions; and that the ſubſcriptions, which made part of the 200 millions, ſhould be intitled to the dividend of the years 1718 and 1719, at the rate of 4 per cent. per ann. as ſoon as they were full, and converted into actions. They likewiſe reſolved, that, for the good of the public, and to give countrymen and foreigners an opportunity of buying and ſelling theſe actions, an office ſhould be erected, wherein the company would buy and ſell actions at fixed prices; which office was accordingly erected, the 2d of January, N. S. five days after, Mr. Law was ſworn comptroller-general of the finances of France. But, whether his head turned giddy upon this ſtupendous elevation, it appeared ſoon after, by the various arrêts of council which he cauſed to be iſſued out, in relation to the coin, that he was not a little embarraſſed.

REMARKS on our article MISSISSIPPI, ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

Under our article of LOUISIANA, particularly in our REMARKS ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, we have ſhewn the diſadvantages, which our Britiſh colonies in North-America were under, in reſpect to their want of a ſufficient quantity of good lands there, whereby our planters might raiſe variety of ſtaple commodities, which we are, at preſent, obliged to take at a great expence from divers other countries, provided our people were ſituated in thoſe freſh and good lands on the Miſſiſſippi for that purpoſe. Under this article, we ſhall continue the thread of our intended obſervations upon this material point.

Our article LOUISIANA is concluded, with obſerving, that if the preſent ſtate and condition of our North-American colonies is not ſoon changed, by being put upon the planting and cultivation of ſuch ſtaple commodities as we are now compelled to take of other nations, we ſhall force theſe coloniſts into the arts of farming, manufactures, trade, and commerce, which would interfere with the commercial intereſts of Great-Britain.

Some of our colonies, perhaps, may imagine, they cannot ſubſiſt with theſe employments; which, indeed, would appear to be the caſe in their prefent ſtate: but that ſeems to be as contrary to their true intereſt, as it is to their condition of Britiſh colonies. They have neither ſkill, materials, nor any other conveniencies, to make manufactures; whereas their lands require only culture to produce a ſtaple commodity, provided they are poſſeſſed of ſuch as are fit for that purpoſe. Manufactures are the produce of labour, which is both ſcarce and dear among them; whereas lands are, or may and ſhould be made, both cheap and in plenty, by which they may always reap much greater profits from the one than the other. That is, moreover, a certain pledge for the allegiance and dependence of the colonies; and at the ſame time makes their dependance to become their INTEREST. It has been found by frequent experience, that the making of a ſtaple commodity for Britain is more profitable than manufactures, provided they have good lands to work.

It were to be wiſhed indeed, that we could ſupport our intereſt in America, and thoſe ſources of navigation by countries that were more convenient to it, than thoſe on the Miſſiſſippi. But that we fear is not to be done, however it may be deſired.

We wiſh we could ſay as much of the lands in FLORIDA, and on the bay of MEXICO, as of thoſe on the Miſſiſſippi: but they are not ſo good, any thing contiguous to the coaſts, however convenient they may be in other reſpects to navigation.

The moſt convenient part of thoſe countries ſeems to be about MOBILLE and PENSACOLA; which are, as it were, an entrepôt between our ancient ſettlements and the Miſſiſſippi, and ſafe ſtation for our ſhips. The port of ST. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH of FLORIDA, will alſo be of no little utility to our navigation in theſe parts; and what the lands may be deficient in, in many reſpects, near the coaſt, the ſituation of the above-mentioned ports may jointly contribute to ſupply.

As the harbour of PENSACOLA will appear to be a conſiderable acquiſition to Britain, it may be of ſome uſe to give the following account of it from F. LAVAL, royal profeſſor of mathematics, and maſter of the marine academy at TOULON; who was ſent to Louiſiana, on purpoſe to make obſervations in 1719; and had the accounts of the officers, who took PENSACOLA at that time, and ſurveyed the place.

'The colonies of Penſacola, and of Dauphin iſland, are at preſent on the decline, the inhabitants having removed to ſettle at Mobille and Bilexi, at New Orleans, where the lands are much better; for at the firſt the ſoil is chiefly ſand, mixed with little earth. The land, however, is covered with woods of PINES, FIRS, and OAKS; which make good timber as well as Ship-Iſland. The road of PENSACOLA is the only

good

good port thereabouts for LARGE SHIPS, and SHIP-ISLAND for ſmall ones, where veſſels, that draw from 13 to 14 feet water, may ride in ſafety, under the iſland, in 15 feet, and a good holding ground; as well as in the other ports, which are all only open roads, expoſed to the ſouth, and from weſt to eaſt.

Penſacola is in north latitude 30° 25′, and is the only road in the BAY of MEXICO, in which ſhips can be ſafe from all winds. It is land-locked on every ſide, and will hold a great number of ſhips, which have very good anchorage in it, in a good holding ground of ſoft ſand, and from 25 to 34 feet water. You will find not leſs than 21 feet water on the bar, which is at the entrance into the road, provided you keep in the deepeſt part of the channel. Before a ſhip enters the harbour, ſhe ſhould bring the fort of Penſacola to bear between north and ſouth ¾ eaſt, and keep that courſe till ſhe is weſt, or weſt ¼ ſouth, from the fort on the iſland of St. Roſe; that is, 'till that fort bears eaſt, and eaſt ¼ north. Then ſhe muſt bear away a little to the land on the weſt ſide, keeping about midway between that and the iſland, to avoid a bank on this laſt, which runs out to ſome diſtance weſt-north-weſt from the point of the iſland.

If there are any breakers on the ledge of rocks, which lie to the weſtward of the bar, as often happens; if there is any wind, that may ſerve for a mark to ſhips, which ſteer along that ledge, at the diſtance of a good muſket-ſhot, as they enter upon the bar, then keep the courſe above-mentioned. Sometimes the currents ſet very ſtrong out of the road, which you ſhould take care of, leſt they ſhould carry you upon theſe rocks.

As there is but half a foot riſing on the bar of Penſacola, every ſhip of war, if it be not in a ſtorm, may depend upon 19, perhaps 20 feet of water, to go into the harbour, as there are 21 feet on the bar. Ships that draw 20 feet muſt be towed in. By this we ſee, that ſhips of 60 guns may go into this harbour; and even 70 guns ſhips, the largeſt requiſite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed like the Dutch ſhips, might paſs every where in that harbour.

In 1719, Penſacola was taken by Mr. Champmeſlin, in the Hercules man of war, of 64 guns, but carried only 56; in company with the Mars, pierced for 60 guns, but had only 54; and the Triton pierced for 54 guns, but carried only 50; with two frigates of 36 and 20 guns *.

* The admiral was on board of the Hercules, which drew 21 feet water, and there were but 22 feet into the harbour in the higheſt tides, ſo that they deſpaired of carrying in this ſhip. But an old Canadian, named Grimeau, a man of experience, who was perfectly acquainted with that coaſt, boaſted of being able to do it, and ſucceeded; for which he was the next year honoured with letters of nobleſſe. DUMONT (an officer there at this time,) vol. ii. p. 22. BELLIN, from the French admiralty cheſts, makes but 20 feet of water on the bar of Penſacola. The difference may ariſe from the tides which are very irregular and uncertain on all that coaſt, according to the winds; never riſing above three feet, ſometimes much leſs. In 24 hours the tide ebbs in the harbour for 18 or 19 hours, and flows 5 or 6. LAVAL.

This road is ſubject to one inconvenience; ſeveral rivers fall into it, which occaſion ſtrong currents, and make boats and canoes, as they paſs backwards and forwards, apt to run aground; but as the bottom is all ſand, they are not apt to founder. On the other hand, there is a great advantage in this road; it is free from worms, which never breed in freſh water, ſo that veſſels are never worm-eaten in it.'

The many advantages that would enſue, from the well peopling of thoſe ſouthern parts of the continent with proteſtant foreigners, are hardly to be enumerated. We might thereby people and ſecure thoſe countries, and reap the profits of them, without any loſs of people; which are not to be ſpared for that purpoſe in Britain, or any of her dominions. This is the great uſe and advantage that may be made of the expulſion of the French from thoſe northern parts of America. They have hitherto obliged us to ſtrengthen thoſe northern colonies, and have confined the people in them to towns and tow ſhips, in which their labour could turn to no great account, either to themſelves or to the nation; by which we have, in a great meaſure, loſt the labour of one half of the people in our colonies.

But as they are now free from any danger in their borders, they may extend their ſettlements with ſafety, diſperſe themſelves on plantations, and cultivate thoſe lands, that may turn to ſome account, both to them and to the whole nation. In ſhort, they may now produce ſtaple commodities for this nation, on which the intereſt of the colonies, and of the kingdom in them, chiefly depends; and which we can never expect from thoſe colonies in their preſent ſituation.

The commodities which theſe ſouthern parts of North-America promiſe to afford us, are HEMP, FLAX, and SILK, thoſe great articles and neceſſary materials of very valuable manufactures; for which alone this nation pays at leaſt a MILLION AND A HALF A YEAR, and could never get them from all the colonies we have. COTTON and INDICO in plenty, are alſo eſtimable. Not to mention COPPER, IRON, POT-ASH, which with HEMP, FLAX, and SILK, make a great balance of trade againſt the nation, and not a little contribute to drain it of it's treaſure; when we might certainly have thoſe commodities from our colonies for manufactures, and both ſupply ourſelves, and others with them. WINE, OIL, RAISINS, and CURRANTS, &c. thoſe products of FRANCE and SPAIN, on which this nation expends ſo much of her treaſure, to enrich her enemies and rivals in trade, might likewiſe be had from thoſe her dominions, and export in return her manufactures for them, equivalent in time to what ſhe does to FRANCE and SPAIN.

Britain thereby might cut off thoſe reſources of her reſtleſs enemies, ſecure her colonies for the future, and prevent ſuch calamities of war as we have experienced, and cultivate the arts of peace.

Some have ſaid that LOUISIANA, &c. is never likely to turn to any account, becauſe the French have made ſo little of it. But that objection, however common, will appear to proceed only from the ignorance of thoſe who make it. No country can produce any thing without labourers; which it is certain, the French have never had in LOUISIANA, in any numbers ſufficient to make it turn to any greater account than it has hitherto done. The reaſon of this appears not to be owing to the country, but to their proceedings and miſconduct in it. Out of the many thouſand people who were contracted for by the grantees, to ſend to LOUISIANA in 1719, there were but 800 ſent; and of theſe the greateſt part were ruined by their idle ſchemes, which made them and others abandon the country entirely. The few again, who remained in it were cut off by an Indian maſſacre in 1729, which broke up the chief promiſing ſettlements they had in the country, thoſe of the NATCHES and YASONS, which were never afterwards re-inſtated. Inſtead of encouraging the colony in ſuch misfortunes, the miniſter, Cardinal Fleury, either from an ill-judged ſpirit of œconomy, or becauſe it might be repugnant to ſome other of his views, withdrew his protection from it, gave up the public plantations, and muſt thereby, no doubt, have very much diſcouraged others. By theſe means, they have had few or no people in LOUISIANA, but ſuch as were condemned to be ſent to it for their crimes, women of ill fame, deſerted ſoldiers, inſolvent debtors, and galley-ſlaves, 'who looking on the country only as a place 'of exile, were diſheartened at every thing in it; and had 'no regard for the progreſs of a colony, of which they were 'only members by compulſion, and neither knew nor con-'ſidered it's advantages to the ſtate. It is from ſuch people, 'that many have taken their accounts of this country; and 'throw the blame of all miſcarriages in it upon the country, 'when they have been only owing to the incapacity and 'negligence of thoſe who were intruſted to ſettle it *.''

* Charlevoix's Hiſt. N. France, Tom. iii. p. 447.

REMARKS on the MISSISSIPPI SCHEME.

That we may judge more fully of the effects of this extraordinary ſcheme, it will be neceſſary to conſult the following French arrêts.

'The king having cauſed to be examined in his council, the condition to which the kingdom was reduced before the eſtabliſhment of the bank, that he might compare it with it's preſent condition: it has appeared to his majeſty, that the high rate of money had done more damage to the kingdom than all the expences which the late king had been obliged to be at during the ſeveral wars: the avarice of the lender having riſen to that height, as to demand more intereſt for a month than the laws allowed for a whole year.

This uſury had even ſo weakened the kingdom, that his majeſty's revenues were not paid, but by multiplying compulſions on thoſe who were liable to pay them. The price of the products of the earth being hardly ſufficient to pay the charge of the culture and the taxes, the proprietors received nothing for their lands. This general miſery forced part of the nobility to ſell their eſtates at a low price, to maintain themſelves in his majeſty's ſervice; and the other part of the nobility had their lands ſeized. The king's favours were their only reſource, and his majeſty was not in a condition to grant them, and even could not pay the ſalaries of officers, and the penſions which had been granted for the reward of ſervices. The manufactures, commerce, and navigation, were almoſt at a ſtand; the merchant and trader were reduced to bankruptcy, and the artificer compelled to abandon his native country, to ſeek employment among foreigners. Such was the condition to which the king, the nobility, the merchants, and the people were reduced, while none but the lender of money lived in plenty; and the kingdom was like to fall into a general diſorder, had not his majeſty applied a ſpeedy remedy to theſe evils.

By the eſtabliſhment of the bank, and of the India company, the king has reſtored things to good order: the nobility have found, in the increaſe of the value of their lands, means to make themſelves eaſy: manufactures, commerce, and navigation, are re-eſtabliſhed: the lands are cultivated, and the artificer

artificer works. But, notwithſtanding the viſible advantages which thoſe eſtabliſhments have procured, there were perſons malignant enough to form a deſign to deſtroy them: and this obliged his majeſty to iſſue an arrêt of his council, of the 5th of March laſt, for ſupporting, by the decrying of money, the credit of thoſe ſo uſeful and neceſſary eſtabliſhments. By that arrêt his majeſty reduced the different ſpecies of the India company's bills to one ſort, and ordained that actions (or ſhares in the ſtock of that company) might be converted into bank notes, and thoſe notes into actions, according to the proportion, which at that time was reckoned to be the moſt juſt with reſpect to the value of the coin. This decrying of money, and favouring of actions, empowered debtors to clear themſelves. It remained for his majeſty to find an expedient for employing the ſums which were to be paid back to minors, to hoſpitals, to communities, and others the moſt privileged creditors: and, at the ſame time, for re-eſtabliſhing the value of the coin in ſuch proportion as might ſuit foreign commerce, and the vent of the products of the country. His majeſty has provided for theſe ſeveral things by his arrêts, and particularly by his declaration of the 11th of March laſt, which orders the reduction of the value of the coin: but, as that reduction muſt neceſſarily produce a diminution, not only of the price of commodities, and of moveable goods, but alſo of the value of lands, and other immoveable eſtates, his majeſty has judged the general intereſt of his ſubjects required, that the price, or nominal value of the India company's actions, and of bank notes, ſhould be leſſened, for maintaining them in a juſt proportion with the coin and other commodities of the kingdom, for hindering the too high value of coin from ſinking the public credit; for giving, at the ſame time, to the privileged creditors, means for employing to the better advantage the ſums which might be repaid to them; and, laſtly, for preventing the loſſes which his ſubjects might ſuffer in commerce with foreigners. And his majeſty has the more willingly reſolved upon this deduction, becauſe it will be even beneficial to the proprietors of the India company's actions, and of bank notes, for the dividends on them will be more to their advantage, and will be convertible into money of intrinſic value, which will produce at leaſt 50 per cent. more in real coin, or bullion, after the reduction, than at preſent. Upon all which, the Sieur Law, the king's counſellor in all his councils, comptroller-general of the finances, having made his report, his majeſty being in his council, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, regent, has ordained and ordains:

Article I. That the actions of the India company ſhall be reduced, that is to ſay, beginning from the day of the publication of the preſent arrêt, to 8000 livres; on the 1ſt of July to 7500 livres; on the 1ſt of Auguſt to 7000 livres; on the 1ſt of September to 6500 livres; on the 1ſt of October to 6000 livres; on the 1ſt of November to 5500 livres; and on the 1ſt of December to 5000 livres.

II. That the bank notes ſhall alſo be reduced, ſo that they ſhall not be received in payments, that is to ſay, from the day of the publication of the preſent arrêt, thoſe of 10,000 livres but for 8000 livres; thoſe of 1000 livres for 800 livres; thoſe of 100 livres for 80 livres; and thoſe of 10 livres for 8 livres: that, on the 1ſt of July next, the ſaid notes ſhall be reduced, viz. thoſe of 10,000 livres to 7500 livres; on the 1ſt of Auguſt to 7000 livres; on the firſt of September to 6500 livres; on the firſt of October to 6000 livres; on the firſt of November to 5500 livres; the leſſer notes in like proportion; and, on the 1ſt of December of the preſent year, the ſaid notes ſhall remain reduced and fixed, viz. thoſe of 10,000 livres to 5000 livres; thoſe of 1000 livres to 500 livres; thoſe of 100 livres to 50 livres; and thoſe of 10 livres to 5 livres.

III. His majeſty foreſeeing that thoſe of his ſubjects who are poſſeſſed of conſiderable ſums in bank notes, may convert them with advantage into the India company's actions, and being willing to favour ſuch perſons as have not fortunes ſufficient to employ them that way, his majeſty ordains, that, during the courſe of the preſent year, and 'till the 1ſt of January, 1721, the bank notes ſhall be received by the receivers of the tallies and other taxes, at the office of his majeſty's farms, and even at the ſalt warehouſes, at the full value the ſaid notes were at before the reductions ordained by the preſent arrêt, yet without the abatement for the future of the 4 ſols per livre, or of the 10 per cent. granted by the arrêts of the 29th of January, the 5th of March, and the 28th of April laſt. The ſaid bank notes ſhall likewiſe be received for their full value, at the office appointed for the diſtribution of contracts for annuities for life, purſuant to the arrêt of council of the 16th of the preſent month.

IV. His majeſty's will is, that all bills of exchange drawn or endorſed in foreign countries to be paid in France, ſhall be paid in bank notes, according to the currency and value of the ſaid notes, known in foreign countries the day of the date of the ſaid bills of exchange: and, for avoiding abuſes and diſputes which might ariſe, becauſe the greateſt parts of the endorſement made in foreign countries are without date, his majeſty's intention is, that the bills of exchange made and payable in France, and which ſhall be endorſed in foreign countries, ſhall be likewiſe paid in bank notes, according to the currency and value of the ſaid notes at the time of the date of the bills. Done in the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty preſent, held at Paris the 21ſt day of May, 1720.'

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

REMARKS.

The ſtile and contents of the preamble of that arrêt ſhew, that the council of France thought their ſcheme beyond the poſſibility of miſcarrying; and, therefore, begun to execute the laſt part of it, viz. to lower or raiſe their bank bills and actions of the company as they pleaſed, which they had ſubſtituted in the room of gold and ſilver. This did not ſucceed according to their expectation; for people refuſed to take bank notes; which occaſioned ſo much diſturbance and murmurings, that, on the 25th of May, the government was obliged to poſt guards in the market places, to prevent tumults. The parliament met extraordinarily, and ſent deputies to make remonſtrances againſt the arrêt aforeſaid; and ſome of their deputies were appointed to confer with ſome counſellors of ſtate, in the preſence of the regent, to concert meaſures for preſerving the public peace, and preventing the intire ruin of trade.

The firſt thing that was judged proper to be done, was to revoke the fatal arrêt of the 21ſt, which was accordingly declared void by an arrêt of the 27th, whereby the bank notes were declared to be current, as before the former arrêt. Commiſſaries were appointed to examine the books and caſh of the bank, and the accounts of the India company; and, to proceed therein, payment was ſtopt at the bank the 29th of May, but they began to pay again the 1ſt of June.

On the 31ſt of May another arrêt was publiſhed for proroguing, to the 1ſt of July next, the lowering of the new ſpecies, which was to begin the 1ſt of June, purſuant to the declaration of the 11th of March, inſerted above, and making current, for that time, the old ſpecies of gold and ſilver. By the ſame arrêt his majeſty permits all his ſubjects, and others, to import gold and ſilver ſpecies bullion into the kingdom, which before was only permitted to the company. By another arrêt of the 1ſt of June, the prohibition publiſhed ſome time ago, forbidding people to keep by them above 500 livres in ſpecie, and allowing the company to ſearch all houſes whatever, was taken off.

Theſe diſpoſitions removed, in part, the uneaſineſs of the people; and, in order to recover and ſupport the public credit, which had been deeply wounded, the following arrêt of the council of ſtate was publiſhed:

'Upon the petition preſented to the king in his council, by the general directors of the India company, in the name of the ſaid company, ſetting forth, That, by the accounts they have delivered, it appears, that, by their ſeveral operations, and the actions they have called in again, and have now in their poſſeſſion, they have a fund of above 300 millions of livres: that, in reſpect to their commerce, they have undertaken great things, advantageous for the proprietors and ſtate: that they have increaſed their ſhips already ſent out, or ready to ſail to 105, without including brigantines and frigates, and have ſent rich cargoes; and that, notwithſtanding the multiplicity and quickneſs of their operations, their books have been found in the moſt exact order: that as to the adminiſtration of the truſt committed to them within the kingdom, they have increaſed, beyond what could be expected from them, the produce of the farms, and the general receipts of the finances, by the good order they have eſtabliſhed therein: but that, in order to render more and more the eſtabliſhment of the ſaid company ſolid and advantageous to the proprietors, they are of opinion, it is neceſſary to leſſen the number of the actions, and reduce them to 200,000, inſtead of the 600,000, which were created purſuant to the edicts of December 1717, and May 1719, and of the arrêts of the 27th of July, 13th and 28th of September, and 2d of October following: that the company having called in near 300,000 actions, and being in a condition to re-call what is wanting to make up that number, there remains nothing to be done for the execution of this project, but to ſuppreſs as well thoſe 300,000 actions belonging to the company as the 100,000 belonging to his majeſty; which ſaid 100,000 actions being a profit made by his majeſty, the company hope his majeſty will give them this new mark of favour and protection, which will enable the company, by new operations, to diſcharge what they owe to his majeſty and the bank, to call in, by theſe means, a conſiderable number of bank bills, and reduce them to the number his majeſty ſhall think neceſſary for maintaining circulation and commerce: that with theſe views, and to ſecond the intentions of his majeſty in relation to the creation of rents or annuities on the town-houſe of Paris for 12,500,000 livres, making a capital of 500 millions, the ſaid company offers to yield and make over again the 12,500,000 livres, part of the forty-eight millions which his majeſty has aſſigned to the company on the aids and gabels, in deduction and for diſcharging the engagements contracted by the ſaid company with his majeſty: that the ſaid company deſire his majeſty to authorize them to demand from the

the proprietors, a fupplement of three thouſand livres per action, which ſupplement is to be voluntary; but ſuch proprietors who ſhall pay the ſame, ſhall have a dividend of 3 per cent. at the rate of 12,000 livres per action; and that ſuch who ſhall not think fit to pay that ſupplement or additional ſum, ſhall have only the dividend of 200 livres per action, which was granted by the reſolution of the company of the 30th of December laſt: that the condition of the company is ſuch, that they may look upon the dividend of 3 per cent. as a fixed and certain revenue; and, that the public may be ſure of it, the directors and many of the moſt conſiderable proprietors, who have joined them, humbly deſire his majeſty to give them leave to form a ſociety of inſurance, which ſhall have a ſtock of 20,000 actions, amounting at the rate of 12,000 livres each action, to two hundred and forty millions, the profits of which are the principal, and ſhall be anſwerable for the dividend of 3 per cent. to be paid to the proprietors; who ſhall advance the ſupplement aforeſaid, and ſhall inſure the dividend on the foot aforeſaid of 3 per cent. and likewiſe for the 200 livres per action to thoſe who do not furniſh the ſaid ſupplement; upon condition nevertheleſs, that the overplus of the profits of the company, beyond the 3 per cent. and 200 livres per action incurred to the owners of the ſaid actions, ſhall belong to the ſociety of inſurance.—That to perfect and put that plan into good order, and give all the ſecurity that can be deſired, it would be neceſſary, that an exact account be taken by ſuch commiſſaries of the council as his majeſty ſhall be pleaſed to appoint, of all the ſubſcriptions, premiums, and actions, called in by the company, and now in their poſſeſſion, to be burnt at the town-houſe, in the preſence of the ſaid commiſſaries, the provoſts of merchants and eſchevins.—That two hundred thouſand bills, each of one action, with the dividends of three years, be made out, to be numbered from number 1 to number 200,000 incluſive, ſigned by one of the general directors and one of the commiſſaries appointed by his majeſty, and ſealed with the ſeal of the company, and that within a certain term, which ſhall be preſcribed by his majeſty, all the actions, in the hands of the public, be brought in to be converted into new actions, and that the old be afterwards burnt with the formalities aforeſaid. For which his majeſty being willing to provide, the report being heard, the king being in his council, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans regent, has ordained and ordains.

This arrêt contains ſix articles, which are in ſubſtance as follow:

I. The king appointed commiſſaries to take an account of the number of the ſubſcriptions, premiums, and actions, of the India company, which they have called in or converted into bank notes.

II. His majeſty accepts the offers made by the ſaid company, to make over again unto him the hundred thouſand actions his majeſty yielded to them by the arrêt of the 24th of February laſt, and in conſequence thereof diſcharges the company from the nine hundred millions they had obliged themſelves to pay to his majeſty in ten years, for the ceſſion of the hundred thouſand actions aforeſaid. And his majeſty being willing to contribute, on his part, to the leſſening of the number of actions, in order to reduce them to two hundred thouſand, the number propoſed by the company, ordains that the ſaid hundred thouſand actions ſhall be burnt, as alſo the three hundred thouſand which the company propoſed to ſuppreſs.

III. His majeſty fixes the number of actions of the company to two hundred thouſand, and declares they ſhall not be augmented upon any pretence whatſoever; and, to make up that number, orders two hundred thouſand bills, of an action each, to be printed, with the dividend of the years 1721, 1722, 1723, numbered, ſigned, and ſealed, as above, and all the old actions, premiums, and ſubmiſſions, to be burnt in the preſence of the commiſſaries of the council, provoſt of merchants, &c. Declaring farther, that all actions, ſubſcriptions, or premiums, which ſhall not be brought in before the 1ſt of September next, ſhall be null and void by virtue of the preſent arrêt.

IV. The actions that are in the hands of the public, and thoſe depoſited and regiſtered in the books of the company, are to be converted within that time into new actions.

V. The company is allowed to demand from the proprietors a ſupplement, or additional fund of three thouſand livres per action, to be paid in ſix months; that is, five hundred livres per month; but ſuch proprietors, who ſhall not think fit to furniſh that additional ſum, ſhall continue to enjoy their dividend of two hundred livres per action.

VI. His majeſty approves and authorizes the ſociety of inſurance, propoſed by the directors, to conſiſt of the ſaid directors, and as many proprietors of ſtock, as ſhall be willing to concern themſelves therein: that the ſtock of the ſociety be for twenty thouſand new actions, which ſhall be forthwith depoſited, for ſecuring the payment of the dividend of ſuch proprietors as will enſure the ſame therein, and the overplus of the ſaid dividend is to belong to the ſociety of inſurance. Done in the council of ſtate, June 3, 1720.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

This reduction of two thirds of the actions, and the ſociety for inſuring the intereſt thereof, was regarded as the likelieſt means to retrieve the public credit: but the people had been ſo frighted, that they would not meddle with bank notes, except in payment for their goods, which they raiſed four times above their real value, or upon a very great diſcount: but what effect this project had, we ſhall ſee hereafter; and ſhall here take notice, that Mr. Law reſigned his office of comptroller-general of the finances on the 19th of May, and two officers of the Swiſs guards were ſet upon him; but on the 3d of June they were ordered to leave him, and the duke D'Antin was ſent to acquaint him, that he was to continue at the head of the bank, and of the India company: but, on the 7th of that month, the ſeals were taken from Mr. D'Argenſon, and reſtored to the chancellor Dagueſſau.

Soon after this, the government, finding that the public affairs did not take the turn they expected, ſeemed to be undoing by degrees what had been ſo lately done; and, at the ſame time, fell to uſing very extraordinary methods to oblige thoſe who had remitted any money abroad, to re-call it into France, as will appear by the following unexampled ordinance.

The king's ordinance, requiring all his ſubjects who have remitted money into foreign countries to re-call the ſame, dated the 20th inſtant, is as follows:

His majeſty being informed, that many of his ſubjects, who, in theſe latter times, have got conſiderable fortunes, forgetting what they owe to their country, inſtead of laying out their money in purchaſes in the kingdom, or promoting commerce and manufactures, have ſent the greateſt part thereof into foreign countries, and have concerned themſelves in their trading companies; and that ſome others of his ſaid ſubjects keep in the ſaid foreign countries conſiderable ſums in ſpecie, with a deſign to place the ſame there, which has kept up the courſe of exchange to the advantage of foreigners, and has occaſioned the exporting out of the kingdom a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie: and his majeſty, conſidering how much it is important to remedy an abuſe ſo contrary to the laws of government, and at the ſame time ſo prejudicial to the ſtate, and the neceſſity of providing againſt the ſame, however, without conſtraining the liberty of commerce, to which his majeſty is always reſolved to continue his protection; his majeſty, with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans regent, has ordained and ordains, That in general, all his ſubjects, of what quality or condition ſoever they be, who are concerned in companies of commerce in foreign countries, ſhall be obliged to re-call their funds, and cauſe the ſame to be brought again into the kingdom within two months at the fartheſt, reckoning from the day of the publication of this preſent ordinance; which ſhall be likewiſe obſerved by thoſe who have depoſited any money out of the kingdom, excepting, nevertheleſs, the funds of bankers, which merchants and traders have there for their commerce, or for their own account, or the particular ſocieties they have in the ſaid foreign countries, upon a penalty to ſuch as ſhall act contrary thereunto, of double the ſum they have remitted into foreign countries: which penalty, whereof one half is to belong to his majeſty, and the other to the informer, ſhall not be remitted or reduced, or moderated upon any pretence whatſoever. His majeſty forbids, moſt expreſsly, all his ſubjects, of what quality or condition ſoever they be, to intereſt and concern themſelves in any trading companies in foreign countries, or to place any money therein without his ſpecial leave; requiring the lieutenant-general of the police of Paris, the intendants of the ſeveral provinces, &c. to cauſe theſe preſents to be obſerved, and to be read, publiſhed, and affixed, where occaſion ſhall require, &c. Done at Paris, June 20, 1720.

Signed LEWIS,
And lower, PHELYPEAUX.

Mean while the affairs of the finances fell into ſo great diſorder, that the court, ſeeing little hopes of retrieving them, applied to the parliament, whoſe deputies and the miniſters of ſtate had ſeveral conferences together. But the parliament refuſing to come into the meaſures the court had projected, this produced an open rupture between them, and the parliament was removed from Paris to Pontoiſe in the following manner. On the 1ſt of July, by three in the morning, the muſqueteers, the life-guards, the French and Swiſs guards, and the archers of the marſhalſea were in arms; and a ſtrong detachment was ſent to the palace where the parliament meets, with orders to ſuffer no aſſembly there; and about the ſame time letters, under the royal ſignet, were ſent by muſqueteers to all the preſidents and other members of the parliament, requiring them to repair to Pontoiſe (a place within ſix leagues of Paris) in forty-eight hours.

Upon the whole, this remarkable ſcheme created far more confuſion in France, than there is at preſent, and proved the moſt groſs and enormous cheat and impoſition upon the public,

lic, that ever was hatched; nor is it to be parallelled, except by the famous æra of the South Sea year in England.

This tampering with the public credit, under colourable pretexts of raiſing mountains of treaſures, always terminates in nought but empty bubble and chimæra, to the ruin of commerce and induſtry, and the uſeful arts, and therefore cannot be too much guarded againſt in all wiſe ſtates: for which reaſon we have taken due notice of it. See the articles Actions, Bubbles, Credit [Public Credit], Debts [National Debts], Funds, Monied Interest.

MODENA, a duchy in Italy, compoſed of ſeveral principalities, viz. the duchy properly ſo called; thoſe of Reggio, of Mirandola, and Coreggio; the principality of Carpio; the ſeignories of Saſſuola, Trigalla, and the greater part of that of Carſagnano —It is bounded on the north by the duchies of Mantua and Mirandola; on the eaſt with the Bologneſe, and the territories of the Church; on the ſouth with Tuſcany and the republic of Lucca; and, on the weſt, by the duchy of Parma.

This country is fertile and delightful, produces plenty of corn, wine, and other valuable commodities, ſufficient not only to maintain, but to inrich it's innabitants, were they not ſo grievouſly loaded with taxes. But the misfortune is, that the dukes of it keep a court too ſplendid and magnificent for their income; ſo that they are obliged to rack their ſubjects, and reduce them almoſt to beggary, in order to vie with other princes in grandeur.

The duchy, or territory of Modena, properly ſo called, has it's name from it's capital; and, beſides that and the dependencies of it, contains the country of Frignano, and part of Carſagnano. The chief towns of it are Modena, the capital, Baſtia, Final, Frignano, Seſtola, and Carſagnano.

Modena is ſeated in a ſpacious plain, on a fine canal, between the rivers Panaro and Secchia, and is of a ſmall oblong figure, nearer to a round. The city has nothing that ſhews the inhabitants to be rich, or to carry on any conſiderable commerce.

Bastia is a ſmall pretty town in the Modeneſe Proper, pleaſantly ſituated on an iſland formed by the river Panaro, about 16 miles below the city of Modena.

Final, or Finale, is likewiſe ſituated on an iſland made by the ſame river, on the north-eaſt of Modena, and upon the confines of Mantua. It is often called Final Modeneſe, to diſtinguiſh it from a famed ſea-port of that name on the coaſt of Genoa.

Frignano, or Frigano, is a little city and territory in the ſame duchy, at the foot of the Apennines, on the frontiers of the Bologneſe, near the ſpring head of the Panaro.

Carsignano, Carfeniano, Grafignano, the laſt territory in the Modeneſe Proper, ſituate at the foot of the Apennines, and between that duchy and the republic of Lucca. The territory runs on each ſide of the Secchia.

It's chief town, of no great note, is called Castel Novo De Carsignano, with ſome other villages, part of which belong to the republic of Lucca.

Carpi, a city and territory in the duchy of Modena, with the title of principality, is fortified with a good caſtle, and did formerly belong to the houſe of Pio, who were lords of it. It is ſeated in a beautiful fertile plain, upon a canal cut from the river Secchia, about 11 miles north of Modena, and four from Correggio.

Sassuolo, Sassuoli, is ſituated on the river Secchia, and gives name to a lordſhip ſituate between Reggio, Modena, and Correggio, and is in the poſſeſſion of a prince of the houſe of Eſte, who is commonly ſtiled marquis De St. Martino.

The principality of Reggio takes it's name from the city of that name, called Regium Lepidi, to diſtinguiſh it from Reggio, another famed town in Calabria. It is ſituate in a very fertile plain, is well inhabited, and very rich, though it's air be not ſo wholeſome as other parts of Italy.

The duchy of Modena, properly ſo called, comprehends one of the faireſt and moſt fruitful countries in Italy, abounding with corn, wine, oil, and fruits, is very populous, and inhabited by an ingenious and induſtrious people. The ſmall country of Frignano, bordering on the Bologneſe, is annexed to it on one ſide, and part of the country of Carſagnano on the other, the reſt belonging to the republic of Lucca. It is very mountainous, but far from being deſpicable, ſince in theſe mountains there are mines of great value; and the inhabitants are a race of people robuſt, hardy, and brave, as any in Italy. The duchy of Reggio lies weſt from that of Modena, and is by ſome accounted the more conſiderable duchy of the two, and, indeed, ſo it is, if we conſider it's dependencies, ſuch as the principalities of Correggio and Carpi, the former heretofore poſſeſſed by princes of the ſame name, and the latter belonging to the family of Pio. In the north-weſt corner of this duchy ſtands Bercello, upon the Po, formerly a place of great ſtrength, yielded by the late duke of Modena, in 1701, to the imperialiſts, to facilitate their military operation in Italy, and, for that reaſon, beſieged, taken, and intirely demoliſhed by the French in 1705; nor has it been ever ſince reſtored to it's ancient condition.

The duchy of Mirandola, including that of Concordia, is about 20 miles in length, and five in breadth; it is a very beautiful and a very plentiful territory, full of villages, and the country round about them thoroughly cultivated.

Mirandola is ſtrong by ſituation, and has been formerly well fortified.

The city of Concordia ſtands on the Secchia, at the diſtance of ſix miles from Mirandola; between which cities there is a fine canal, called the Navilio, which facilitates the commerce of both.

Theſe duchies were very great acquiſitions to the family of Eſte, ſince their revenues are moderately computed at 100,000 crowns a year.

The whole eſtates of the duke of Modena have the duchies of Mantua and Guaſtalla on the north; the grand duchy of Tuſcany on the ſouth, together with the territories of the republic of Lucca; the Bologneſe, and the duchy of Ferraia, on the eaſt; and the duchy of Parma on the weſt. The extent of theſe countries, from ſouth to north, is about 56 Engliſh miles, and they are about 50 miles in breadth, from weſt to eaſt. The duke of Modena, in time of peace, enjoys a revenue of about 100,000l. ſterling a year at leaſt, with which he maintains a very ſplendid court, and when his circumſtances renders it requiſite, can keep up a body of 8000 regular troops. The greateſt inconvenience in the ſituation of his country is, that he has no communication with the ſea; which might be eaſily removed, if he could recover, either by treaty or force, the duchy of Ferrara, which lies upon the gulph of Venice.

MOGUL EMPIRE. See Indostan.

MOLDAVIA, a principality of European Turkey, bounded by the river Neiſter, which divides it from Poland, on the north eaſt; by Beſſarabia on the eaſt; by the Danube, which ſeparates it from Bulgaria, on the ſouth; and by Walachia and Tranſilvania on the weſt; being 240 miles long, and 150 broad, ſituate in a good air and fruitful ſoil, producing corn, wine, rich paſtures, a good breed of horſes, oxen, and ſheep, plenty of veniſon, game, fiſh, and fowl, and all European fruits, and is well watered with the rivers Danube, Pruth, Neiſter, &c.

The capital city is Jassy.

MOLUCCA ISLANDS. See Indian Islands.

MOMBAZA, a ſubdiviſion of Zanguebar, on the coaſt of Africa, a country ſubject to the Portugueze, which furniſhes them with ſlaves, gold, ivory, rice, fleſh, and other proviſions, with which they ſupply their plantations in Brazil, &c.

MONEY.

Of the Origin of Money.

In the moſt early ages, when trade was carried on, as there was no money, men uſed to barter one commodity for another, a cuſtom that ſtill obtains among the ſavage unpoliſhed nations of Chili on the South Sea, in the land of Jeſſo in the Eaſt-Indies, and other barbarous countries. But, as ſuch a method of bartering commodities was, on many occaſions, attended with great difficulty, and always inconvenient, men agreed to make choice of one commodity, which being in general and conſtant eſteem, an equivalent quantity of it might always remove the difficulty of bartering in kind.

The ſame opinion concerning the origin of money we find expreſſed very much to our purpoſe, in the firſt book of Ariſtotle's Politics, ch. 6. 'As all uſeful things, ſays he, could 'not, without great difficulty, be tranſported from place to 'place, it was reſolved, by common conſent, that, in bar-'tering commodities, they ſhould reciprocally give and re-'ceive ſome ſubſtance, which, being in it's nature applicable 'to the purpoſes of life, might, at the ſame time, be eaſily car-'ried about.' From which words of Ariſtotle it is very plain, that the introduction of money was owing to the difficulty of bartering, as human ſociety could not ſubſiſt without the exchange of neceſſaries, nor could this matter be managed without the uſe of money.

To determine, therefore, this ſubſtance that ſhould be in univerſal and conſtant eſteem, they made choice of gold and ſilver, not only becauſe they were more valuable than other metals, but alſo becauſe, in the various uſes to which they might be applied, they were particularly adapted to the ſupport and improvement of human life. But, becauſe there was a conſiderable difference in the nature of theſe two metals, and gold was more precious than ſilver, both by it's intrinſic worth and greater ſcarcity, and alſo far exceeded the other in the expence that was neceſſary for working it, as appears by the tax that is paid to the ſovereign lords of mines, who require no more than five in the hundred of gold, whereas they exact twenty in the hundred of ſilver; therefore a greater value was aſcribed to gold. And, becauſe the baſer metal ought to be given in greater meaſure, that what was wanting in value might be made up in quantity; for this purpoſe it was neceſſary to fix the proportion between them, by a certain determinate rule: whence it is, that in the practice of commerce, though formerly the proportion of gold to ſilver was ſettled as ten to one, yet at preſent the matter is ſo regulated almoſt all over Europe, that one ounce of gold is reckoned equal in value to 15 of ſilver, or thereabouts. See the article Coin.

When

When this ſubſtance was agreed upon at firſt, as we have obſerved, the particular quantities of it were originally determined by their bulk and weight only; but afterwards, to ſave the trouble of proving this weight upon every occaſion, it was coined into a certain form by public authority, and impreſſed with a mark of diſtinction, expreſſing the quantity each piece contained, ſo that it ſhould always have the ſame determinate value, and be every-where the ſame, both for matter and weight.

In order to inquire more particularly into the nature of money, and the better to illuſtrate what we have further to offer concerning the effects it produces in trade, and the various advantages and diſadvantages of one kingdom in reſpect of another, ariſing from money; it muſt be conſidered, that we are to diſtinguiſh two ſorts of value in money; the one intrinſical, founded in the rate or value according to which it uſes to paſs: and though, in different places, on ſeveral preſſing occaſions, the extrinſical value of money may be raiſed higher, at the diſcretion of the ſupreme power, ſuch is the nature of commerce, that in it money is never eſtimated but as to its intrinſic value; ſo that, in the courſe of trade, money can have no higher value than a maſs of the ſame metal and quantity would have, if given in barter for any ſort of goods. We muſt alſo obſerve further, that ſuch is the cuſtom of well-regulated kingdoms, that, when foreign money is ſuffered to paſs current therein, ſo much is deducted from the extrinſical value as is neceſſary for defraying the charge of coining, and it never paſſes for more than it's intrinſical value; and the intention of this regulation is, that the money of the ſtate itſelf, which bears the ſtamp and authority of the prince, may always have the preference. From all which conſiderations it is extremely plain, that it is a matter of the utmoſt conſequence that the ſyſtem of money be ſettled under ſuch fixed regulations, as that it may conſtantly keep pace with the courſe of trade, and never in the leaſt deviate therefrom; it being certain, that no variation can ever happen in this reſpect, but it will, at the ſame time, produce a remarkable alteration in commerce.

After all, however certain it may ſeem that money is that which alone conſtitutes the riches of a nation, and it cannot be denied that, conſidered in itſelf, it has this prerogative, yet it will never diſcover it's effects, if it is not put in motion by commerce; ſo that, as the body of a planet, being in itſelf opaque, would never diſcover to us it's form and figure, if (according to that hypotheſis) it did not revolve round the ſun, whoſe light preſents it to our view, we muſt form the very ſame judgment concerning money; which, it is certain, has in itſelf no power at all to increaſe and multiply, and thereby to form the riches of a kingdom, or even, on the contrary, to reduce it to poverty; for, if a proſperous or unfavourable motion were not communicated thereto by commerce, we ſhould never be ſenſible of it's effects. And, becauſe we can no otherwiſe arrive at a clear and diſtinct knowledge of theſe effects but by a fixed and certain rule, which can ſhew with accurate exactneſs the ſituation of any kingdom, with regard to it's internal and external commerce, that is, whether the balance of trade ſtands in equilibrio, or is inclined to either ſide: and ſeeing there is not a more infallible rule by which this knowledge can be attained than the courſe of exchange, ſee the article EXCHANGE.

REMARKS on the article MONEY.

Of the INCREASE and DECREASE of the ACTUAL QUANTITY of REAL or HARD MONEY in a STATE.

Let us familiarly conſider the land eſtate of a country, where the general circulation is carried on by 2000 ounces of ſilver: this money paſſes through ſeveral hands, and always returns into thoſe of the undertakers, whom we ſuppoſe the proprietors of it.

Let us likewiſe ſuppoſe, theſe undertakers have received 2000 ounces more for a preſent from Americans, ſo as that each undertaker has double the quantity of money he had before, and that the quantity of money in all becomes 4000 ounces of ſilver.

Each undertaker will endeavour to enlarge and augment the quantity of his buſineſs: ſo the farmer's commodities will grow dearer in the altercations, by the greater demand made by the undertakers: but, perhaps, this will not immediately double the price of things, becauſe ſome of the farmers will at firſt be ſatisfied with a greater price than uſual, but afterwards the price will double in the altercations; each undertaker will deſire to live better than he did before, ſince he has got his additional ſum, and, conſequently, he will conſume in his family more wine and meat than uſual; therefore wine and meat will grow proportionably dearer than bread; and the farmers will endeavour to have more of theſe kinds the next ſeaſon, ſince they yield in proportion a better price than corn, and, conſequently, the corn will become ſcarcer, and grow dearer alſo.

This increaſe of conſumption of the produce of land, which, on the footing now introduced, cannot maintain all the inhabitants, will make it neceſſary for ſome of them to ſeek their livelihood elſewhere. Theſe will be chiefly turned away by the proprietor of the land, who, having but 6000 ounces per annum for his eſtate, cannot maintain his family as before, ſince all commodities are grown dearer. The labourers and journeymen, remaining, not being able to ſubſiſt upon their uſual wages, muſt have an augmentation, as well as the remaining ſervants of the proprietor: and, in all the changes this new quantity of money produces, the farmers ſeem to be the only gainers, and the proprietors the only loſers. The undertakers, who buy their commodities and materials dearer, will be for turning the loſs upon the conſumers: but, as they are themſelves conſumers with reſpect to one another, they will find the expences in their families increaſe beyond the additional conſumption of meat, wine, &c. they intended; and, when the money introduced into barter ſhall gradually have doubled the price of every thing, they will be obliged to retrench the ſaid additional conſumption, ſince their double quantity of money carries on but the ſame undertakings their ſingle quantities carried on before; otherwiſe they will turn bankrupts, and be ruined, which is commonly the caſe, in regard people do not often care to retrench their expences; and then others, who have ſaved money, will ſet up in their places.

The proprietor, at the expiration of his leaſe, will demand 12000 ounces for his rent, inſtead of 6000: ſince the price of the farmers commodities is doubled; and, if he returns to his former manner of living, he will call back his ſervants, whom he had ſent away, or have others in their place; and the new undertakers will live upon the ſame footing of conſumption as the firſt, the farmers will have the ſame profits out of the lands that the farmers had at firſt, and all the diſpoſitions of this eſtate will turn nearly to it's primitive ſtate, with this difference only, that the farmers, who ſaved money are richer, and the undertakers, who ruined themſelves, are forced to turn journeymen to others, who are ſet up in their room, and that 4000 ounces circulate inſtead of 2000.

Theſe changes, or ſomething like them, commonly happen in a ſtate, when a ſudden quantity of money is introduced into the general barter; but, becauſe money moſt commonly increaſes but ſlowly and gradually, commodities riſe in their value inſenſibly.

Let us again ſuppoſe there are ſilver mines on this eſtate, that an undertaker farms them from the proprietor, or from the farmers, that the veins are ſo rich that he ſhall quickly get out of them the additional quantity of 2000 ounces on our hypotheſis.

This new quantity of money will cauſe much the ſame variation in the price of all commodities, as we obſerved in the preceding example. The undertaker, or mine-adventurer, will increaſe his expence, and give great encouragement to the miners and others he employs. The facility wherewith he gets money will make him generous, and he will more chearfully than before beſtow money on the poor. The douceurs he gives to thoſe he employs will encourage them alſo to ſpend more than uſual. All that are concerned under him feel the influence of his opulence, and conſequently conſume more commodities than uſual. They will enhance the price of them in the altercations; and, which way ſoever theſe additional 2000 ounces of ſilver come into barter, they will raiſe the price of things. The circulating money will be 4000 ounces inſtead of 2000, and the price of commodities will be double.

It may be worth while to obſerve here, that we may diſtinguiſh ſeveral channels and walks of circulation at market. The corn, or bread market, is proportioned to all the inhabitants in general, ſince the meaneſt workman muſt have bread, as well as the greateſt lord. The wine-market correſponds to a ſmaller number of inhabitants, but yet is very conſiderable, ſince not only the proprietors of land and money penſioners and officers, but likewiſe ſeveral middling undertakers, tradeſmen, and workmen, drink more or leſs wine. The butchers, or meat-market, is much the ſame. The wild fowl market, and that of rarities and delicacies, correſponds to a ſmaller number of inhabitants, as lords, wealthy proprietors, and others.

So that, if the additional money which is brought into a ſtate is at firſt all in the hands of the wealty ſort, the price of wild fowl may very well riſe, and continue high, without influencing the price of bread; and the price of wine and meat may riſe long before bread grows dearer: but it will, at the long-run, affect the price of bread alſo.

Whenever the additional quantity of money decreaſes, it will create an additional expence proportionable, mediately or immediately, and enhances, conſequently, the price of commodities.

If we ſuppoſe that 10 perſons increaſe the expences of their family on the eſtate we mentioned before, that they raiſe the price of wine, meat, &c. in the altercations, without much affecting that of bread: the farmer will have another year more cattle and wines, and, conſequently, leſs corn, and ſo corn will then grow alſo dearer.

There is generally a ſtock of every commodity in a nation exceeding the yearly conſumption; which anſwers the ſudden and extraordinary conſumption; and, as that waſtes, the commodities grow dearer, and the dearneſs again, if it continues, makes ſeveral families diminiſh their conſumption, 'till

things

things return to their primitive ſtate as to the conſumption. But the dearneſs of the commodities continues, ſince the quantity of money in barter correſponds to it, and a double quantity of money in the hands of undertakers, when the price of things is doubled, has but the ſame effect the ſingle quantity had before.

If the additional quantity of money belongs to money-lenders, it will diminiſh intereſt, and at the ſame time increaſe the undertakings, which conſequently will enhance the price of commodities, by an additional demand. The money-lenders will increaſe their expence and conſumptions, and the additional undertakers will do the like; the demand for workmen in the ſeveral undertakings will raiſe the price of their wages; the price of things will keep up in barter, ſince the quantity of money continues to anſwer the advanced price, though ſeveral of the undertakers ſhould break.

But, if an additional QUANTITY OF CREDIT * ſhould by the acceleration of circulation, and barters by evaluation, make the 2000 ounces anſwer the ſame circulation as 4000, it will have pretty much the ſame effect as 2000 ounces increaſe of money. It will occaſion an additional number of undertakers, who will increaſe the price of commodities, which will grow dearer in the altercations. Theſe will enhance the conſumption, &c. but, when ſome of them come to break, their example will ſtagnate circulation, and the ready money only will carry it on as before; and conſequently money will grow ſcarcer, and commodities will grow cheaper, and the difficulties in circulation will make the undertakers ſell cheaper than they bought, and ſeveral of them will break and diminiſh their conſumption, &c. So that a ſudden augmentation of credit may for ſome time anſwer the ſame ends and purpoſes, as the ſudden increaſe of the quantity of money, but will not continue to keep up the price of commodities, as the real quantity of additional money does: but, when a quickneſs of circulation is gradually introduced into barter, and continues naturally in the manner and methods of carrying on the undertakings, we don't ſee why it may not have conſtantly the ſame effect in keeping up the price of things.

* This ſhews how injurious the effects of long perſonal credit are to trade in general. See the article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT.] I cannot but think that a cuſtom ſo injurious to trade in general, might and ſhould be prevented.

I have enlarged upon theſe particulars and circumſtances, to ſhew by what methods and ſteps in the detail of barter, an additional quantity of real money in a ſtate increaſes the price of all commodities. As to the fact itſelf, it ſeems ſufficiently proved by experience, and agreed upon by all hands. Mr. Locke lays it down as a principle, and frequently inſinuates, that the price of all commodities is proportionable to the actual quantity of circulating money. But he ſeems to have clearly loſt the view of this ſubject, when he ſuppoſes, nevertheleſs, that the profits and advantages made in a ſtate increaſe without bounds, with the increaſe of the quantity of money: whereas it follows from his own principles, that, if the money is doubled, the price of commodities is alſo doubled, and conſequently that a double quantity of money will buy but the ſame quantity of commodities, if they are doubled in their value. [For what occaſions the riſe of labour and commodities, ſee the articles DUTIES, DEBTS, [PUBLIC DEBTS], TAXES, LABOUR.]

Let us now examine how things find their proportion in a ſtate, when the price of commodities riſes, either by an additional quantity of money introduced into barter, or by the ſcarcity of commodities and bad years.

When there happens a great demand for any kind of commodities, ſeveral families will conſume leſs of it than uſual, by reaſon of it's dearneſs: a man who commonly eats three pounds of bread in a day, will ſubſiſt if he has but two pounds; and a ſtate which maintains 1,000,000 of inhabitants, will, with little difficulty, and without any ſenſible hardſhip, maintain 1,100,000, and even 1,500,000 with difficulty and famine: but things will afterwards find their own proportion, and the inhabitants will proportion themſelves in number to the means they find to ſubſiſt on, according to the manner of living of the place.

Hitherto we have not any where conſidered foreign trade; but, by a commerce with foreigners, a ſtate may maintain a greater number of inhabitants than the land can maintain. For example:

The inhabitants of Provence may buy wool of the Spaniards, and pay the value of it with about a quarter part of the ſame wool manufactured; and export the other three quarters of it manufactured to Barbary, and bring home, in exchange for it, more corn than will anſwer the maintenance of all the workmen, undertakers, exporters, and importers, concerned in the whole commerce in queſtion.

The little iſland of St. Dennis near Paris contains three pariſhes, the buſineſs of theſe inhabitants is moſtly tanning of leather: the iſland produces nothing for their ſuſtenance: they ſell their labour in exchange for the produce of the lands of the continent, which maintains them: their tanned leather is moſtly conſumed at their doors [at Paris]. If it were to be tranſported, and conſumed in Italy, it would ſcarce maintain them, becauſe of the expence of the remote carriage.

But the Dutch find means, by the cheapneſs of their navigation, to exchange their labour with remoter parts, where the produce of their labour is not voluminous; their manufactures of linen, their bleaching, their herring and whale-fiſhery anſwer the charge, and ſo does their ſawed timber and ſhipping to ſome places; for their ſaw-mills, one with another, ſave the labour of 25 perſons. See the article LABOUR. That circumſtance contributes to the cheapneſs of their ſhipping, as well as the timber of the countries adjacent to the Meuſe, Moſelle, and Rhine, which falls down theſe rivers to them with little expence of carriage. So it is not ſurpriſing there are more inhabitants in Holland than their lands are able to maintain, but this cannot be increaſed in infinitum; but theſe latter conſiderations have inſenſibly carried me ſomething from my ſubject.

The value of money, as well as of other commodities, ariſes from the quantity of, and demand for it. The quantity of ſilver, by the opening of the mines of Peru and Mexico being greater than gold, gave an extraordinary value to gold; and hence it was that in the 11th of king James I. the unity piece of gold was raiſed from 20 to 23 s. On the contrary, a few years ago the demand for ſilver was ſo great, that we were obliged to lower the value of gold; and, in all probability, in a little time we ſhall think a farther diminution abſolutely neceſſary. But it is not alone the quantity of gold and ſilver that leſſens the demand for them, but the circulation too; a great trade, making a greater demand for induſtry and commodities than money, leſſens it's value, and conſequently raiſes the price of the other two.

Trade and credit, as they are inſeparable in themſelves, ſo they are the parents of circulation: money without theſe would be but a dead treaſure in few people's hands, and conſequently the community little the better for it. France is to England as 8 to 3, their ſpecie perhaps proportionable, yet there is a greater ſhew of money in England than in France; but, if the circulation of France were equal to that of England, then ſhe would appear of courſe ſo much the richer.

For more matter on this ſubject, ſee the articles BANKING, BARTAR, CASH, CIRCULATION, COIN, GOLD, SILVER, BULLION, EXCHANGE.

MONIED INTEREST, or MONIED PROPERTY.

The chief ſubject of what is now meant by the monied intereſt in this kingdom, is the national debt, ſee DEBT [NATIONAL DEBT]; and it is called monied property, only in oppoſition to the landed, and becauſe of the facility of turning it into money; not that any body is weak enough to imagine, that there does exiſt, or that it is neceſſary there ſhould exiſt, money enough in the kingdom to anſwer what is due to the public creditors.

That we may give a juſt idea of this debt, we ſhall conſider, (1.) What the public debt is. (2.) To whom it is due. (3.) Whence came the money lent to the public. (4.) How far the public is affected by it. (5.) How and where that money was employed before it was lent the public. (6.) What has become of it ſince. (7.) What would be the conſequence of paying it off. And, laſtly, What will be the conſequence of increaſing it.

1. The public debt is a ſhare out of the profits and expences of every inhabitant of Great-Britain; which he is bound to pay, without receiving any benefit or advantage for it, 'till the public ſhall be rich and honeſt enough to pay out of it's ſavings no leſs than eighty millions ſterling.

Where a revenue conſiſts in land, the owner feels, that, at two ſhillings in the pound, he gives away one tenth of his income; but does not ſo eaſily perceive, that he muſt ſtill contribute out of the nine parts that remain: and a day-labourer is not ſenſible, that he gives a groat at leaſt towards the public debt, out of his hard earned ſhilling. He muſt pay for his ſhoes, his light his drink, his waſhing, &c. and, becauſe he keeps no account with the exciſeman, he never dreams that he contributes to his collections.

This tribute is ſqueezed out of the bowels of the people in the ſhape of taxes; and, beſides what is applied to the national debt, like the wretch that is caſt at law, they muſt pay for the expence of raiſing it, and muſt maintain a ſwarm of tax-gatherers; who, though they are, perhaps, as neceſſary as jack-catch, as an anonymous writer ſays, cannot fail to be looked upon as the inſtruments of oppreſſing the very country, which had a right to the benefit of their honeſt induſtry.

The public debt, then, is an abſolute alienation, with privilege of redemption, of a conſiderable part of the means of ſubſiſtence of every individual in Great-Britain; which he would have a right to poſſeſs and beſtow on himſelf and family, was it not for ſuch debt, and which he is now obliged to pay to another becauſe of that debt.

2. As to the ſecond point, one muſt diſtinguiſh between thoſe to whom the public debt is due at preſent, and thoſe to whom it was originally contracted.

King William's war having involved this nation in an expence unknown 'till then, every invention was exerted to find

find out new methods of raiſing money. After every tax that hiſtory or ſpeculation could ſuggeſt was impoſed on the people, it was ſo contrived, that the money raiſed came vaſtly ſhort of the demands for it; and the government had recourſe to anticipations, and delivered over the nation to the mercy of uſurers. Clerks, agents, brokers, money-ſcriveners, commiſſaries, Jews, and members of parliament, were allowed 30 or 40 per cent. for pretending to advance the public the very money they had already received, or juſt robbed it of.

In thoſe times, it was uſual to contract with the public to perform a certain ſervice, ſuppoſe for 30,000l. one third down, and the reſt payable at two different terms. The contractor, after receiving his 10,000l. down, either ſold his contract to great advantage, or perhaps performed the whole ſervice on credit. When the remaining payments became due, he, by another hand, advanced to the public, at 30 per cent. premium, the very money it had paid him a few months before. Thus, without being one ſhilling out of pocket, he contrived to make the public 10 or 15,000l. in debt to him: ſo abundant a harveſt drew reapers and gleaners from every quarter. Things were contracted and paid for that never were furniſhed. Falſe muſters were winked at by ſea and land. Every one aimed at his ſhare of the plunder: no man pretended to check another, and to eſtabliſh a precedent that might make againſt himſelf: the maxim was, To live, and let live; and the nation, like a town taken by ſtorm, was given up to plunder. It was at this time that the word PERQUISITE grew into vogue. Thoſe who did the real ſervice, were forced to be content with their wages; but ſecretaries, paymaſters, clerks, &c. had their perquiſites.

The firſt proprietors, then, of that ſhare of the profits of the induſtrious called public debt, were originally ſuch who took advantage of the public folly; and, by furniſhing them their own money at an extravagant premium, got annuities aſſigned them for it at 7 per cent. intereſt. Theſe underſtood their trade too well, to ſpare ready money to thoſe who had done real ſervice. Inſtead of money, all ſuch were obliged to receive debentures, which their neceſſities forced them to part with to uſurers at 50 or 60 per cent. diſcount.

As ſoon as they found themſelves poſſeſſed of theſe, they claimed all the merit and compaſſion due to the unhappy old ſoldiers, ſailors, and other wretches they had ſtarved out of them: and, inſtead of money, of which they knew they had left none unſqueezed out of the preſent generation, they were ſo very obliging, as to content themſelves with having poſterity delivered over to them in ſecurity for 7 per cent. intereſt, to be paid 'till the principal, which they never advanced, ſhould be refunded.

After the peace, theſe gentlemen had got too high, and the people of England too low, to admit of enquiries. Public credit grew a cant word, and the law being debarred from enquiring into their titles, their ſecurities were preferred to land, and found real purchaſers; who actually, and bona fide, paid a new premium for what had coſt the ſellers very little.

The money lent the public came from ourſelves, the very people whoſe induſtry it was employed to purchaſe, furniſhed the price that bought it.

The notion, that money was brought from abroad to purchaſe our taxes, is leſs true than imagined. Where could it come from? Not from Holland, France, Spain, or Portugal. Happy for us, the three firſt nations were drove to the ſame extremity, and were ſelling themſelves as faſt as we were, and the Portugueze had not then diſcovered the mines of Brazil. Vaſt fortunes have been made in England by foreigners, as well as natives; but it will be difficult to inſtance many conſiderable ones that have been imported. When the public funds were eſtabliſhed, the certainty of gain might tempt ſome foreigners to lay out their money here; and ſo much the worſe for us, ſince for every ſhilling they brought in, they were ſure to carry out two. The different nations in Europe have run in debt, or borrowed, as they term it, near FIVE HUNDRED MILLIONS STERLING, SINCE KING WILLIAM'S WAR. No body can be ſo unreaſonable as to imagine, that that money was lent them from abroad.

REMARKS on MONIED INTEREST.

Whoever has frequented the Groom-porter's, will be at no loſs to conceive, how a few money-lenders, with 200l. of borrowed money, muſt infallibly pick up all the money played for, and muſt, in time, get into the eſtates of every conſtant gameſter.

My lord duke A ſhall play againſt my lord B. They ſhall bring each 1000l. in their pockets. On Monday the run ſhall be againſt his grace: he loſes all his ready money: his money-lender C is at hand, to ſupply him with a rouleau of 50. The run continues; C has t'other and t'other rouleau at his ſervice. The luck turns; C receives back his 150l. with thanks, and three guineas due to his kindly ſuccour. On Tueſday, lord B comes to be in the ſame ſituation. He too has recourſe to his money-lender D. This traffic is repeated every day through the year. Nothing ſo equal as luck: on caſting up accounts, it will be found, that his grace and my lord are each 5 or 6000l. out of pocket, and that C and D have got it. His grace gets at laſt into ſo bad a run, that he is out 100 rouleaus to C; and finds good natured C, not only willing to accept of a mortgage on his grace's eſtate for the 5000l. borrowed, but ready to lend him 5000l. more on the ſame ſecurity. Thus his grace has loſt all his ready money, and mortgaged his eſtate for 10,000l. Has my lord B got it? No; he is in the ſame ſituation. But C and D have got all the others have loſt, though they have found no treaſure, diſcovered no philoſophers ſtone, nor imported a ſingle farthing from abroad.

We know there were at leaſt fourteen millions of ſpecie in England, when king William's war broke out. Moſt of that money muſt have been employed in trade, there having been then no more profitable way of diſpoſing of it. When the public demands took place, there was more to be got by ſupplying them; and of courſe every wiſe man would take his money out of trade, and carry it to the Treaſury, as the better market. There was at that time at leaſt 20 or 30 per cent. to be got fairly, by ſupplying the government; the money paid was ſure to return again in a few years, and, being lent again on new ſecurities, it can be no wonder, that ſo profitable a traffic has, from a moderate ſtock, produced even eighty millions in ſixty years.

In ſhort, the people, who had no conception that it was poſſible to grind above two millions a year out of them, were now taught to pay ſix, beſides the ſums annually borrowed; and thoſe who received that ſix millions, or rather thoſe with whom it ſtopped, brought it back again to the Treaſury, and it then became public debt. So far were we from receiving money from abroad, that it can, perhaps, be demonſtrated from the conſtant courſe of exchange, that the expence of beaten armies, ſubſidies, and, above all, the interruption of trade, occaſioned the ſending vaſt ſums out of the kingdom.

The public debt is attended with every dreadful conſequence that can accompany any national calamity, of which we ſhall hint only at the moſt obvious of ſuch as diſtinguiſh it. If it was payable only out of the rents of land, and of ſuch as live on their means, it might be pretended, that ſince the induſtrious farmer muſt pay his rent, it is the ſame thing to the nation, whether it is wholly poſſeſſed by the eſquire, or if one half of it is enjoyed by a ſtock-jobber. Even in that caſe, there would be a wide difference. But the rents of land are not in queſtion: our taxes are chiefly paid out of the conſumption of the induſtrious; and the farmer muſt pay his ſhare out of his own particular profits, independent of what the eſquire pays out of his eſtate.

A tax of 5 per cent. on any commodity, muſt raiſe the price of it above 8, [ſee the article DUTIES;] and, as our tradeſmen work under the diſadvantage of paying taxes for almoſt every thing they conſume, they cannot afford their labour ſo cheap as thoſe who pay conſiderably leſs, and of courſe muſt be underſold in the foreign market. In other words, if an Engliſhman conſumes to the value of 6d. a day, and muſt pay 3d. for the privilege of doing ſo, he cannot live ſo cheap as the foreigner, who enjoys that privilege for a penny.

We inhabit the moſt plentiful ſpot in Europe, our people are allowed to be naturally induſtrious, yet our poor want employment. We have not mouths at home to conſume our produce. Foreigners can afford to ſmuggle our wool at a vaſt expence, and to underſell us even in that manufactory. If we have ſtill ſome trade left, thanks to the provident care of our anceſtors, who ſettled our colonies, and to the ſingularity of our taſte, that can accommodate itſelf with Portugal wine, which has ſecured to us a part of the trade of that country; which, however, daily declines at preſent. See the article PORTUGAL.

To judge fairly of the bad effect of our taxes, let us ſuppoſe ourſelves releaſed from them, or let us ſuppoſe all the money paid to the ſtocks and ſinking fund given back in bounties to the manufacturers and exporters, and then let one imagine how many hands would be ſet to work at home, and whether we ſhould not underſell all the world abroad.

The public debt has, in a great degree, intailed immorality and idleneſs upon the people; and the civil magiſtrate, whoſe chief office ought to be to reſtrain vice, is forced to connive at it. The revenue cannot be ſupported without encouraging idleneſs and expence, and licenſing numberleſs public houſes; moſt of which are to be conſidered as ſo many academies, for the acquiring and propagating the whole ſcience of iniquity. It is from theſe academies that Newgate is peopled, and Tyburn ſupplied; but it is likewiſe from theſe, that a great part of the revenue ariſes. Pulpits may thunder againſt vice, and juries may hang criminals to eternity, while every means of corrupting the morals of the people is thrown in their way, it is in vain to look for reformation.

The public debt has opened the iniquitous traffic of ſtock-jobbing, and introduced a ſpirit of gaming amongſt all degrees of men. The attention of the merchant is too much taken off from ſolid trade; he engages in what he fancies the more lucrative buſineſs of Exchange-alley, and leaves export and import to ſuch as have patience to follow it.

The trade of the Alley, conſiſts too much in conſpiring to pick the pocket of every body not in the ſecret. Thoſe who are, can make ſtocks riſe and fall at pleaſure, and pocket the difference. A has 5000 l. to lay out. India ſtock is at 180. B transfers 100 l. to C. at 179. Next morning he transfers another 100 l. at 178. The price is ſet, and A buys 5000 l. at 178. In a week or two A wants to ſell. If the object is conſiderable, an article in the Hague Gazette is made to confirm, that the emperor of Monomotapa deſires to be comprehended in the alliance of Peterſburgh. C transfers his 200 l. back to B at 180; the market is ſettled again, and A ſells out at 180. Thus their induſtry brings 2 per cent. in a few weeks. But who do they get it from? From women, younger brothers, and all ſuch of the well-meaning people of England as will dabble in ſtocks, without being in the ſecret. It is from this ſcandalous commerce, that numbers of theſe meer money-jobbers have, in a few years, acquired millions among them; and, what is moſt provoking, they have the impudence to dub themſelves merchants, and ſome real merchants have the meanneſs to ſuffer them to aſſume that title.

One would imagine, that nothing but our neceſſities could make us wink at a practice ſo iniquitous and detrimental; yet there are ſome men abſurd enough to fancy, that we are extremely beholden to theſe jobbers, for condeſcending to ſet up their trade amongſt us.

The city of Briſtol, or Birmingham, might, with equal reaſon, think itſelf obliged to a ſett of ſharpers, who ſhould bring a ſum of money along with them, and ſet a Faro bank for all the citizens to pont at. Nor would it be more ridiculous in a country eſquire to think to improve his carp, by throwing in a parcel of pike amongſt them. We can only increaſe our people as we do our game, by diſcouraging poachers and deſtroying vermin.

There is an inconveniency attending the public debt, not inferior to any mentioned, which has eſcaped the notice of moſt people. The public debt has produced a difference of intereſts in this country, that we have lately ſuffered by, and, if not remedied, can have no end. It is the intereſt of the ſtockholders to involve the nation in war, becauſe they get by it: it is the intereſt of landed men and merchants to ſubmit to many evils, rather than engage in war, ſince they muſt bear the chief burden of it: and, however contemptible one may think the weight of the former, in compariſon of that of the latter, it was their ſuperior influence that involved the nation in the late frivolous war with Spain. The greater the debt, the greater the weight of the public creditors, and the louder their cry. And we may expect, that theſe worthy patriots will, on every proper occaſion, renew their endeavours to keep us in the thraldom.—Deplorably precarious muſt the ſituation be, where one ſett of men muſt be undone, even by a neceſſary war, and another, of perhaps equal influence, impoveriſhed by the beſt peace.

Amongſt the bad effects of the public debt, we muſt not omit the particular loſs the nation ſuffers by the ſhare of it belonging to forcigners reſiding abroad. If they poſſeſs 20 millions of it, there is a dead loſs to the kingdom of 600,000 l. a year. If England was obliged to pay a tribute of that amount to France, or any other foreign country, every body would pronounce that we could not hold it long without being undone: and yet that tribute ſtands on a footing at preſent ſtill more deſtructive to the nation, becauſe there is no probability of getting free from it, but by paying above 35 years purchaſe, and becauſe the foreign ſtockholders have a temptation to increaſe the tribute due to them, by applying their dividends to buy up more ſtock; of which, that we are to pay the dividends is CERTAIN: but the benefits we are to receive from letting their money remain with us is DOUBTFUL. Men not uſed to think of theſe ſubjects, talk of money like a vegetable, as if it were the nature of it to grow and increaſe. No doubt the particular man, who lends it out at intereſt, feels himſelf grow richer, and, perhaps, the perſons who borrow it may lay it out ſo as to bring in a return. But it muſt ſtop ſomewhere; and, conſidered in itſelf, it does not grow, but wears. More of it than what is ſufficient for the circulation and commerce of a nation is of no uſe, and brings no profit to the nation in general.

The fifth point to be enquired into is, how and where the money was employed before it was lent the public. It has already been explained, that the money ſuppoſed to be lent came chiefly out of the pockets of the very people who now pay intereſt for it: the public debt being an annuity out of the profits and conſumption of every individual, before it was eſtabliſhed, every body poſſeſſed and enjoyed all his gains. There was then no Exchange-Alley: thoſe who frequent it had no exiſtence; and, had there been no opportunity of exerciſing their genius that way, their neceſſities would probably have pointed out to them ſome other branches of induſtry, in which many of them might have been of uſe to the public, which they now prey upon. The ready money which circulates in the Alley, and, by being toſſed backwards and forwards, is found ſufficient, in ſuch hands, to draw into it all the wealth of the kingdom, was, and, without our debts, would be employed in trade, in improving and extending our colonies, in public works, for uſe as well as ornament, and might then draw in the wealth of other countries, where now it operates only on our own.

As to the ſixth article, if money was brought from abroad to ſupply our demands, ſo I admit, that none has gone out on that ſcore, further than ſo far as foreigners have taken advantage of our ſituation ſince that time, by buying in cheap, and ſelling out dear; for few of them ſhared in our general plunder: or, as our debt was contracted to ſupport foreign wars, and to pay foreign ſubſidies, a great part of the money laid out that way may have remained abroad. Our debt affects us not ſo much by carrying our money abroad, as by putting it out of our power to work our goods cheap enough to get money for them in the foreign market. What makes it likely that our ſpecie is greatly diminiſhed within theſe 60 years is, that ten parts out of eleven of all the ſilver in circulation is either of king William's coinage, or before it; but paper currency makes a little money to do the buſineſs of a great deal; and it is certain there remains ſpecie enough in the kingdom for all our occaſions.

It follows, from what has been ſaid, that, if the public debt was paid off, the profits of the manufacturer would be all his own. He would be exempted from paying at leaſt 40 per cent. out of his gains. It would be equal, in every reſpect, to a bounty to that amount on all our productions, and of three-pence a day to the day-labourer, and ſo in proportion. With that advantage, we ſhould be able to underſell our neighbours: our people would of courſe multiply: our poor would find employment: even the aged and diſabled might earn enough to live upon: new arts and manufactures would be introduced, and the old ones brought to perfection: our moſt barren lands would be cultivated, and the produce of the whole inſufficient to ſupply the demands of our people. See the article MANURE.

The ſtock-jobber, when paid off, would find employment for his money in trade and manufacture, and would find that turn to better account than their preying on the vitals of their country. He would then become an uſeful member of ſociety. Rents would riſe, and the country gentleman would be able to provide for his younger children. We ſhould be able to reſtore morality amongſt our people; and the immenſe increaſe of trade would furniſh employment for every induſtrious man. Our colonies would ſhare in the benefit; and many cauſes of jealouſy between them and their mother-country would vaniſh. We ſhould become formidable to our neighbours; for, beſides the increaſe of our naval power, in caſe of a juſt cauſe of war, we ſhould be able to advance much more money within the year than we have ever done by anticipation. Such of our blood-ſuckers as had no taſte for honeſt induſtry, would probably go with their millions, and prey on our enemies, to our great emolument, and their perdition.

It may probably be objected, by men of narrow conceptions, that there was a time when we owed no debt, and yet this country was never richer, nor had it more trade than at preſent. Let ſuch men recollect the ſtate of this nation 60 or 70 years before king William's war, with reſpect to numbers, trade, ſhipping, wealth, and manufacture; and let them compare it with our ſituation when that war broke out, and then let them give a reaſon why we have not increaſed in the ſame proportion ſince that period. Trade was then in it's infancy; our colonies were hardly eſtabliſhed; thoſe times had all the expence of them, and we all the profit; Ireland was then but little better than our ſettlements in America are now; we had no union with Scotland, and Portugal afforded but little money; each of theſe has opened a new ſource of wealth to us; and, with ſuch advantages, ought we not to have throve in the ſame proportion we did in the former period? Had it not been for the public debt, there can be no doubt but our improvements for the laſt 60 years muſt have ſurpaſſed thoſe of the 60 years preceding.

If our debt does not diminiſh it muſt increaſe; and, if it does, one may pronounce with certainty, that nothing can preſerve us but our neighbours being in the ſame unhappy ſituation, and that we ſhall only continue a great nation as long as they are ſo.

The ſtock-jobbers have the words PUBLIC FAITH and PUBLIC CREDIT conſtantly in their mouths; and want to eſtabliſh it as a maxim, that they are both engaged to ſupport their monopoly, at the expence of the whole body of the people. The advanced price of ſtocks is more a proof of the folly, than of the faith of the public; and, if people did not depend more on the firſt than the laſt, a redeemable annuity could never riſe above par. The exceſſive premiums are owing to an opinion, that we want either the means or inclination to pay off our debts; ſuch an opinion would not add to the credit of a private man; and how it ſhould increaſe that of the nation, is difficult to be comprehended by thoſe who do not clearly diſcern the conſequences of theſe things.

Some people tell us too, that paying off our debts is annihilating ſo much property. On the contrary, it is purchaſing at par, for the national benefit, what is ſuppoſed to be worth a great deal more; and the ſubject is not annihilated, but only transferred to the public from a private man, who might have employed it to the public detriment.

When the art of funding was firſt introduced, the common talk of mankind was, that the people of England muſt be undone. Some tell us, that the event has proved the vanity of that apprehenſion. The prediction has been verified, perhaps, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. All that could be meant by the aſſertion was, that the then poſſeſſors, and their poſterity, muſt be undone, and their inheritance given away from them, and become the property of other men. It could never be their meaning, that the land would run away, or ceaſe to be occupied by ſome body. At preſent, that is, 60 years after the Revolution, one tenth of the land of England is not poſſeſſed by the poſterity or heirs of thoſe who poſſeſſed it at that time; and if the extermination (as it may be juſtly termed) is not univerſal, it is only becauſe there were a few overgrown eſtates, ſuch as the Devonſhire, Bedford, Curzon, &c. which were proof againſt the waſte of luxury and taxes. Suppoſe the Turks were to over-run England, it might certainly be affirmed with propriety, that, if we did not drive them out, England muſt be undone; and yet, if they ſhould prevail, the land would ſtill remain, would ſtill be occupied and cultivated, and poſſibly the trade of England would receive ſome advantages from the favour of other Mahometan nations, who are all great cuſtomers for the woollen, and moſt other manufactures: and it is more than probable, that a greater proportion of the property of the country would remain in the poſſeſſion of the original inhabitants 60 years after ſuch a conqueſt, than is now to be found in the poſterity of thoſe to whom it belonged at the Revolution. As the cauſe, I mean the public debt, ſtill ſubſiſts, the preſent poſſeſſors muſt not expect a more durable eſtabliſhment. Was the plague to rage in a city, and all the rich to periſh, the poor would get poſſeſſion of the houſes and effects; but, if the infection continued to prevail, they would ſoon make way for others in their turn.

Let no body imagine that the people of England will ſuffer things to come to extremity, without making ſome effort to relieve themſelves. If they have made no attempt of that ſort hitherto, it has only been from the hopes that their burden would ſoon be made lighter, and from the juſt confidence they have had in thoſe at the helm.

Remarks on the Monied Intereſt before the laſt War.

This is the ſtrain of reaſoning of many, in relation to the public debts of the nation, and particularly ſo in a late enquiry into the original and conſequences of the public debt, ſaid to be drawn up by a perſon of diſtinction. This piece being drawn up with too much ſeverity againſt the public creditors, we have ſtripped it of a great part of it's malignity, and yet have thought proper to retain ſo much of the ſubſtance thereof, as may give an idea, how obnoxious the monied intereſt is in the ſight of ſome.

Suppoſe, however, that all, and much more in the like ſtrain, might be true, with reſpect to the proprietors of the public ſtock; it can never be conſiſtent with the general intereſt of the nation, to annihilate at once, as that writer propoſes, the whole 80 millions of properties, which now belongs to the public creditors of the nation, This would be of infinitely worſe detriment to the public, than the Miſſiſſippi or South-Sea ſchemes were; and would for ever after diſable the nation from borrowing more money on the moſt preſſing exigency, by giving ſuch a blow to the public faith.

There is ſome uſe and advantage, notwithſtanding, to be made of this gentleman's ſuggeſtion; and that is the only reaſon for our taking notice of it: the public creditors may be hereby forwarned of what may poſſibly enter into the heads of ſome other people, as well as into that of the author of this piece; and therefore this ought ſo to alarm the public creditors, as to excite them to think of every meaſure to obtain the leſſening of the public debts, in a manner the leaſt dangerous and oppreſſive to them; for, if they continue to increaſe, and remain undiminiſhed, the taxes occaſioned thereby, upon the trade and navigation of the kingdom, may one day be thought to render their property ſo highly detrimental to the public intereſts, that men in power may take it into their heads to relieve the nation from the weight of it's taxes and incumbrances, by an abſolute annihilation of all the monied property in the kingdom, occaſioned by the funds. For, the writer before-mentioned ſtrongly excites to a conduct of this kind, when he ſays,

'That in a like extremity, when the clergy had engroſſed 'too large a ſhare of the property of the country, Henry 'VIII. was obliged, for the relief of the people, to ſeize 'on their temporalities; and had the approbation of every 'lover of his country. That the grievance was by no 'means ſo intolerable at that time as now; becauſe the 'clergy contented themſelves with poſſeſſions in land, without pretending to a ſhare in induſtry.

'That as to violation of laws and public faith, it is in vain 'to urge theſe in caſes of neceſſity. The firſt of all principles is ſelf-preſervation; nor could the ties of law and 'public faith be ſtronger in favour of ſtock-jobbers now, 'than of the clergy at the Reformation. That, as to public 'credit, we ſhould have no more occaſion for it; ſince the 'people, relieved from ſo heavy a burden, would, on an 'emergency, by ſubmitting to the former taxes, be better able 'to raiſe money within the year, than can now be brought in 'by anticipating. And the greateſt advantage of aboliſhing 'the debt would be, that it would ſecure us againſt running 'in debt for the future.

'It may be ſaid, continues this writer, in objection to this 'ſcheme, that it would be dangerous to drive ſo powerful 'and ſo rich a body of people, as the owners of eighty millions, to deſpair. True it is, they are powerful at preſent, and their cry is loud, becauſe they are poſſeſſed of 'eighty millions: but, when ſtripped of that, as would then 'be the caſe, they would be as inconſiderable, and as little 'liſtened to, as any other ſett of beggars. I do not ſay it 'would be wiſe or juſt in a prince to act this part. I only 'imagine it would be popular.'

How the public debts may be equitably and honourably diſcharged, without ever being obliged to come to ſuch extremities, as what this author propoſes; ſee our articles Credit, [Public Credit], Debts, [National Debt], Funds, Interest.

This gentleman's way of reaſoning may be made uſe of, ſome time or other, to reduce the intereſt of the public creditors, ſtill lower than it is: unleſs they co-operate with the public, not only to prevent the further increaſe of the public debts, but the gradual diminution of the greateſt part, if we cannot get rid of the whole of theſe we have; leſt the oppreſſive taxes occaſioned thereby, ſhould one day ſtir up a ſpirit in the nation, to make uſe of a Spunge inſtead of a Sinking-Fund.

Remarks on the Monied Intereſt ſince the laſt War, and the Peace of 1763.

The laſt war having increaſed our Public Debts, from about 80 Millions to upwards of 140 Millions, and multiplied Taxes in proportion thereto, the Monied Intereſt have in conſequence augmented their ſtock property in the public funds. Were the taxes of the kingdom mortgaged to ourſelves only, and the public debts contracted ſolely amongſt the ſubjects of this realm, the whole of the intereſt money annually paid for our debts, would be property of his majeſty's ſubjects, and would circulate amongſt ourſelves. Were our affairs ſo happily circumſtanced, it would prove an extraordinary alleviance of our weighty incumbrances; tho' was that the caſe, it would be no reduction of the weight, which our whole commerce and navigation at preſent ſuſtain: and if the circulation of the intereſt money in Great-Britain increaſed the ſpending money of the nation, and that increaſed our imports proportionably from foreign countries, the nation would be never the richer than it is, whilſt we pay intereſt to foreigners for a proportion of our debts due to them. For however faſhionable it may be for ſome people to magnify the increaſe of our trade, from the increaſe of the Revenue of Customs, this is no ſure criterion thereof; ſuch people deceive themſelves and others too, unleſs that they can demonſtrate the great increaſe of that branch of the revenue proceeds from the greater increaſe of our exports, rather than our imports. If, on the contrary, it ſhould appear that we expend more money in the purchaſe of foreign wares than we receive by the ſale of ours to foreigners, the kingdom grows annually poorer and poorer; and the higher the duties of imports ſwell, the greater confirmation it will be that we really do ſo.

Indeed, the advantages we receive from the article of freight, and the employment of ſhipping, will be ſome diminution of the evil, when our own ſhipping is engaged in our imports, purſuant to the act of navigation, and conſiſtent with all our laws made for the encouragement thereof. But provided our exports decreaſe, theſe advantages may not be an equivalent compenſation for our imports; we may ſtill buy more than we ſell upon the whole, and when what foreign goods are ſmuggled into the nation, are added to our legal imports that pay duties, our purchaſes are thereby ſtill augmented, and the domeſtic conſumption of our native commodities diminiſhed.

Theſe diſadvantages under which our trade labours, are moſt certainly owing to the exceſſive pitch to which our tax-incumbrances are arrived; for the heightening the price of the neceſſaries of life, and the labour of our induſtrious poor in general, occaſion ſuch a ſuperiority in the prices of our native commodities and manufactures in general; and while this continues to be the caſe of theſe kingdoms, our exports muſt diminiſh, while thoſe of our rival nations, who can afford their goods in general conſiderably cheaper than we can ours, will increaſe. Such are the effects of increaſing the public debts and taxes; and as ſome people, and thoſe no bad judges, are of opinion that foreigners have not ſo little as one quarter part of our national debts divided amongſt them, and that they do not drain off ſo little as a Million a year for intereſt money; this is a great drawback upon the national profits of our trade.

The only proviſion we have at preſent made by parliament for the diſcharge of the public debts, and the reduction of

our

our taxes, in that of the SINKING FUND. But as this fund, which, was to have been the redeemer of all others, is become mortgaged, and is now a collateral ſecurity for new contracted debts, ſince the year 1716; our hopes of the efficacious operation of that fund are blaſted, and that whole fund may be ſunk for intereſt of new debts, inſtead of ſinking the principal of the old, as was originally intended: ſo that this ſacred fund, which was deſigned to redeem others, ſtands in need of redemption itſelf, before the public can experience it's long wiſhed for effects.

In the year 1733, ſuch was the ſtate of public credit, that the national creditors dreaded nothing more than to be obliged to receive their money from the ſinking fund; intereſt was made to the adminiſtration by our monied corporations, which of them ſhould be paid the laſt. Of which the miniſtry took advantage, and applied 500,000 l. out of the ſinking fund: and this may be the caſe again, perhaps, ſhould we be in a condition to diſcharge TWO OR THREE MILLIONS a year of the public debts. So that if we may judge from paſt experience, we ought to think of more effectual means to reduce our taxes, and not to wait the ſlow and precarious operation of the ſinking fund. See INTEREST. That this is practicable, the author of this work is of opinion; and may be effected in leſs than half a dozen years, and that without any detriment to the public credit, without any alarm given to the public creditors, and with very great benefit to trade: and if his other avocations will admit of his turning his thoughts to a deſign of this nature, without perſonal injury to his private affairs, he may one day communicate himſelf upon this intereſting occaſion: otherwiſe he leaves thoſe things, to thoſe who are ſure of being well recompenſed for their application, the author of this performance never having been ſo; which will not be thought an encouragement to any one to concern himſelf about the public welfare, but to attend to his own.

Some Maxims relating to the Funds, and the Public Credit, by Sir JOHN BARNARD, Knt. publiſhed juſt before the Peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE.

I conceive that the prices of the funds do not in the leaſt depend on the quantity of them, either taken in the groſs, or any particular ſort of them; that if they were double to what they are now, it would neceſſarily follow, that the prices would be lower; nor yet, if they conſiſted but of half what they do now, would the price be from thence increaſed.

It is therefore the quantity brought to market, compared with the purchaſers, which riſes or falls the prices of the funds.

Thus, if the quantity be ſo ſold, exceeds the money to be laid out, the price may fall, until that fall produces purchaſers, who would not be ſuch at higher prices.

So, likewiſe, if the purchaſers exceed the quantities to be ſold, ſtocks muſt riſe, until that riſe produces ſellers, which before were not ſellers.

When the government have a neceſſity to create new funds, they muſt diſpoſe of them at ſuch prices as buyers may be found; and ſhould uſe ſuch methods in the ſale, as are moſt likely to invite the greateſt number of ſuch purchaſers as deſign to keep them.

When funds are ſold directly, by the government, to perſons who deſign to keep them, they are immediately out of the market, and affect the price no more than all that quantity of the public funds, which remains in the hands of perſons who never think of ſelling them.

When funds are ſold by the government to traffickers in ſtocks, who deſign to ſell them again, the market continues in agitation, until the funds, by degrees, become ſettled in the hands of buyers, who keep them.

Thoſe traffickers who buy to ſell again, will have more encouragement, than is neceſſary to be given to thoſe who buy with a deſign to keep: or elſe there would be no profit ariſing to them.

If, therefore, the government ſhould deal directly with perſons who buy to keep the funds, a good part at leaſt of that immenſe profit, which is now made by theſe traffickers, would remain to the government.

There muſt be found, at leaſt, buyers with an intention to keep; or elſe the traffickers could not get rid of what they buy.

Purchaſers, with a deſign to keep, would much more willingly buy of the government, at any certain price, than they would buy of the traffickers at ſuch price; becauſe they would have a reaſonable expectation, that it would be the loweſt price that year.

If timely notice were given every year, there would probably come in buyers, with a deſign to keep, ſufficient to take off all the funds created that year, provided they may come in freely at the original price.

If new-created funds were thus taken off every year, they would but very little affect the prices of funds at market.

One or two per cent. under the market-price, together with ſome eaſe in payment, may be ſufficient to induce buyers, with a deſign to keep, or take off all the funds to be created in a year.

It is not proper, that any of the payments ſhould be fixed too near the end of the year, becauſe it will interfere with the money to be raiſed the next year.

How many ſoever the payments may be, or whatever the times of payment, it is proper to allow a reaſonable diſcount to thoſe who will pay in any money before the times fixed; which diſcount may be ſaved, by not iſſuing of tallies on the land and malt.

It is more for the intereſt of the public, to have the money paid at ſuch times as beſt ſuit the purchaſers (which will be done, if a diſcount be allowed), than to have it remain to be paid at certain fixed times.

When the purchaſers are not allowed a diſcount, they are unwilling to pay their money long before the prefixed days; and ſo lay out their money in ſomething to bring intereſt in the mean time.

When, by this means, large ſums are to be paid at certain times, if any accident happens, which caſts a damp on public credit, people being under a neceſſity of bringing ſomething to market to raiſe the money; this contributes greatly to hurt public credit.

There will be always large ſums to be laid out in the funds, and more eſpecially when they are lower than they have been at former times; which ſums ariſe, in part, from the following cauſes:

Amongſt people who live on their income, whether by eſtates in land, or in the funds, or in mortgages, there will be many who are always ſaving part of their income, and want to lay it out.

People, who thrive in trade, are willing, as they can ſpare money, to lay it out in ſomething to ſupport them more at their eaſe.

As war neceſſarily contradicts trade, and conſequently ſo much money cannot be employed therein, as in times of peace, thoſe who have large eſtates in trade, muſt have money gradually coming in; which, when the funds are reaſonable, they may chooſe to lay out therein; and ſome, from this beginning, go on to draw all their money out of trade, to place it in the funds.

What is mentioned relating to people in England, holds the ſame with regard to people abroad; who, if the particular friends, with whom they correſpond here, can procure for them new-created funds, on the original prices at which the government ſells them, will give orders to thoſe friends to purchaſe for them ſuch funds.

The raiſing the rate of intereſt on new funds, occaſions the fall in price of the old funds; which is a great prejudice to thoſe who happen to be under a neceſſity of ſelling out.

It likewiſe raiſes the rate of intereſt between private perſons, and alſo lowers the value of land; ſo that the whole community ſuffers thereby.

No money ſhould be raiſed on the ſubjects, but what is abſolutely neceſſary for the public good.

As the neceſſary money cannot now be raiſed without borrowing, the higher rate the intereſt is at, the more muſt the people pay.

If a higher rate of intereſt ſhould ever be given to traffickers in ſtocks, than it might be raiſed at by open ſubſcription, the people will receive a double injury, both by paying more taxes than are neceſſary, and alſo by being deprived of their juſt right of purchaſing funds on the ſame terms with their neighbours.

The credit of the public depends much on the opinion of the people, and therefore great regard ſhould always be had to preſerve in the people a good opinion. Œconomy in management, and impartially in letting all perſons alike into the purchaſe of the funds, will be the beſt means to keep up a good opinion in the people.

All people love to have a liberty of being purchaſers at the original prices, whether they make uſe of it or not.

As all are partakers of the burden of new taxes, ſo none ought to be deprived of ſharing in whatever benefits the public may find it neceſſary to give, to raiſe money on them.

Nothing contributes more to the revolutions in the prices of ſtocks, than the methods of late uſed, of contracting, with a few perſons, for raiſing the ſupplies in a lump; and thoſe perſons having the ſharing it out as they pleaſe.

Thoſe revolutions, in the prices of ſtocks, make the proprietors uneaſy, and out of humour, to ſee their property bandied about, for particular perſons to get great eſtates.

This uneaſineſs begets a diſguſt in people to ſtocks: they ſee them yearly falling, and from thence apprehend greater falls; from whence many ſell their ſtocks.

Thoſe who are in a ſort of poſſeſſion of bargaining for new funds, at their own prices, whilſt they can depend on having a good bargain every year, can have no intereſt to keep up the prices of the funds, any longer than until they ſell good part of their bargain; and, as for the remainder, it may ſerve them to throw down the prices, againſt the time of a new bargain.

What cannot be done by barely ſelling out their ſtocks, they have other ways to bring about.

Let

Let the price at market be never ſo low, although it may be by their own management, whilſt they can make perſons believe the money cannot be raiſed without agreeing with them, they will be ſure to agree much under the market-price, and conſequently run little or no riſk of loſing, and have a ſtrong probability of exceſſive gains.

Some remaining part of what the traffickers purchaſe, being ſold out at proper times, to lower the prices of ſtocks, likewiſe gives them a pretence to ſay, that the bargain was not ſo good as it was taken to be.

If money be raiſed by a lottery, large enough to let in every one, or by ſubſcriptions open to every one, on the beſt terms for the public, all mankind will be on a level.

Thoſe perſons who keep their ſtocks, let the price be higher or lower, certainly act the moſt for the public good, and ought to receive the greateſt encouragement.

Thoſe dealers in ſtocks, who have large ſums of money in hand, have certainly acted againſt the public good, by ſelling out their property in the funds; and yet are often the perſons moſt favoured, and admitted to annual bargains.

The beſt way of ſupporting the prices of the funds will be, to let the people know, that for the future the money wanted ſhall be raiſed on the loweſt terms poſſible, with an equal liberty to all perſons to be purchaſers.

If this method be conſtantly practiſed, ſuch perſons who ſell their funds, in hopes to come in again cheaper, may find themſelves miſtaken.

This is certain, that the public ſelling new funds too cheap, tends to make all mankind have a worſe opinion of the funds in general, than they would otherwiſe have.

If a perſon who has goods to ſell, does not put a value on them himſelf, how can it be expected that others will value them?

Whenever the government ſhall have no occaſion to create new funds, the money which will neceſſarily come to market to buy ſtocks, will inevitably raiſe the prices of all, let the quantity in being be never ſo large.

Therefore, it muſt be cheaper for the government, at any time, in compliance with the neceſſity of the times, to give a higher intereſt redeemable, than an intereſt ſomething leſs with any part of ſuch intereſt irredeemable; becauſe, in the firſt caſe, they may reaſonably expect, in a very few years, to reduce the intereſt on a level with the other funds.

If any ſhould be of opinion, that giving a high intereſt for new funds will reduce the other funds in price, in proportion to the different rates of intereſt, I conceive it to be a great miſtake.

If there were different funds, at the rates of 3, 4, and 5 per cent. all irredeemable, they would generally ſell in exact proportion one to the other.

But, ſuppoſe the ſame funds all redeemable, they will never ſell in proportion one to the other; becauſe people will have in view the reduction of intereſt.

Suppoſe any quantity of new funds to be created, and ſold in any one year, it will not occaſion there being leſs money the next year, than if no ſuch funds had been created; becauſe as the government iſſues out all the money received, the ſame quantity of money will ſtill be in private perſons hands, as the year foregoing.

As the ſame quantity of money will be in being one year as the former, although it have ſhifted hands, the queſtion with the poſſeſſors of it will be, what is the beſt uſe that they can make of it? And probably there will be perſons enough diſpoſed to come into the purchaſe of funds, to take off any new-created quantity, if it be free for every one to purchaſe at the government's price.

It is a very great hardſhip on merchants, who have foreign correſpondents, when they cannot execute ſuch correſpondent's orders for new funds, on the ſame terms with their neighbours here, as by that means they are in danger of loſing their future commiſſions, even in other affairs.

If the intereſt of the nation, in it's public capacity, the intereſt of the creditors of the nation, and the intereſt of the individuals of the nation, are all promoted by open ſubſcriptions, it muſt appear very ſtrange, that the intereſt of a few perſons, who have been acting againſt all three, ſhould be preferred.

If the government ſhould think it neceſſary to give advantageous terms for raiſing of money, equity would require, that it ſhould be given to thoſe who ſuffer moſt thereby; and, conſequently, that the preſent proprietors of the funds ſhould have the pre-emption before thoſe who have ſold their funds, and thereby contribute to create that neceſſity.

If no-body ſold their property in the funds, but out of neceſſity, the prices would keep up very well, notwithſtanding the annual creating of new funds.

Thoſe perſons who ſell their property in the funds may be eaſily known, and whatever pretence they may make of zeal for the government, their actions ſpeak the contrary: and although it would not be right to hinder any perſon from ſelling their property in the funds, in a fair way; yet ſurely there is no reaſon to reward them for ſo doing, by giving them freſh funds, immoderately under the market-price.

I think thoſe perſons who were large ſubſcribers to the bargain, for raiſing the money for the year 1745, ſhould have made it appear, that they were in poſſeſſion of their ſubſcriptions, before they were admitted to be large ſubſcribers for the year 1746.

If perſons are admitted to ſubſcribe largely one year, when they are known, or might have been known, to have parted with the ſums ſubſcribed for the former year, what is this but encouraging them to go on with a traffick highly detrimental to the nation?

Whenever, by any means, there happens to be a run on the Bank, it occaſions many perſons, although well-affected, to join in the run, for fear of loſing their money; and gives an alarm to the Bank: and, if the Bank call on their ſubſcribers for circulation, it adds to the difficulties.

I am of opinion, that as the Bank is now conſtituted, it is ſcarce poſſible for them to be drained of their money: many of their notes are ſo diſperſed, that they cannot come in for payment for a good while; and men of ſenſe, and affection for the government, will always do what lies in their power to ſupport them: which, in ſome time, will put a ſtop to the run.

If the Bank find it neceſſary, they may give intereſt to thoſe who will bring in money voluntarily, to be paid at a fixed time: which method will not affect credit, like a call to the ſubſcribers; many of whom are not able to pay their money; or they may, at laſt, allow intereſt on their caſh-notes, which I have ſeen practiſed with ſucceſs.

But if, at worſt, the Bank ſhould be forced to ſtop payment, the inconvenience to the public would not be ſo much as ſome may imagine; becauſe the debt owing by the government, is a ſufficient ſecurity to their creditors, for the principal and intereſt, which, in that caſe, it be reaſonable to allow; and would give ſuch a currency to their notes, as few perſons would refuſe to take them in payment; which would, by degrees, reſtore their credit.

A proper quantity of exchequer-bills might be every year iſſued on the land and malt taxes, at a reaſonable intereſt, to be ſunk, in courſe, by the produce of the taxes on which they were iſſued.

The iſſuing ſuch exchequer-bills, would ſupply, in ſome degree, the want of money; and could never occaſion any run on the exchequer, not being payable on demand.

The inconvenience which aroſe, in former times, from iſſuing exchequer-bills, proceeded from the quantity being too large, and there not being a fund to ſink them in a reaſonable time.

People would be glad to take ſuch bills in payment; becauſe thereby they would be enabled to make intereſt of their running caſh.

Thoſe who contract with the government, would be glad to agree to have their payments in ſuch bills; which would keep navy and victualling bills from being at diſcount; and, conſequently, the government would buy their goods cheaper than when the contractors are at an uncertainty what they ſhall be paid in. See the articles MONIED INTEREST, DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS,] CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT,] FUNDS.

MONEMUGI, a kingdom in the ſouth of Africa, has Zanguebar on the eaſt, Monomotopa on the ſouth, Motamba and Makoko on the weſt, and Abyſſinia on the north, and partly to the eaſt; though it's boundaries that way cannot be exactly aſcertained. It is divided into the following parts, viz.

MUJACO borders on Congo weſtward, on Nubia northward, on Abyſſinia, and on Makoko ſouthward. That the extent of this monarchy is very great, appears by the diſtant countries it's confines extend to, and the ſovereign's great power, by his being in continual war with his neighbour the king of Makoko. The people of Congo travel hither for elephants teeth.

MAKOKO, otherwiſe called ANZICO. It's boundaries northward, eaſtward, and ſouthward, cannot be well aſcertained. The people here do not till the ground, have no property, nor any ſettled habitation; but, like the Arabs, they wander from place to place, and ſubſiſt by plunder. They traffic in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry ſlaves from their own country; and from Nubia, which they exchange for ſalt, glaſs-beads, ſilk, knives, and other wares. See the article BARBARY, and my REMARKS particularly.

GINGIRO, a potent kingdom, lies between Narca, the moſt ſouthern kingdom of Abyſſinia, and Makoko, and Cambate; north and eaſt of the firſt of them, and weſt of the latter. The great river Zebee, that runs down to Makoko, almoſt invirons it. When the king here purchaſes any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in ſlaves, and theſe are the ſons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleaſure, without contradiction.

CAMBATE joins to this kingdom on the weſt; has Abyſſinia on the north; Alaba, or the country of the Galas, on the eaſt; and Makoko on the ſouth. The country pays ſome acknowlegements to the emperor of Abyſſinia, which is only voluntary.

ALABA, another large kingdom, ſtill to the eaſtward of Cambate, inhabited by a cruel people, called Galas, and reaching to the coaſt of Zanguebar.

MONEMUGI PROPER, ſo called, lies in the torrid zone, and about the equinoctial line ſouth of Makoko, weſt of Zanguebar, north of Monomotopa, and eaſt of Congo, and of the northern parts of Monomotapa. To aſcertain it's extent, is too difficult a taſk, being a country ſo little frequented. The country known, abounds with gold, ſilver, copper mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themſelves in ſilks and cottons, which they buy of ſtrangers, and wear collars of tranſparent amber-beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads ſerve alſo inſtead of money; gold and ſilver being too common, and of little value among them.

Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, to keep an open trade with Quitoa, Melinda, and Mombaza, on the eaſt, and with Congo on the weſt, from all which parts the black merchants reſort thither for gold. The Portugueſe merchants report, that on the eaſt ſide of Monemugi there is a great lake full of ſmall iſlands, abounding with all ſorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by negroes They relate alſo, that on the main land eaſtward, they heard ſometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could obſerve buildings, very much like churches; and that from theſe parts came men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with thoſe iſlanders, and with the people of Monemugi.

This country of Monemugi affords alſo abundance of palm-wine, and oil, and ſuch great plenty of honey, that above half of it is loſt, the blacks not being able to conſume it. The air is generally very unwholſome, and exceſſively hot, which is the reaſon why no Chriſtians undertake to travel in this empire. De Liſle gives the diviſion of this country as follows: 1. The Maracates, the Meſſeguaries, the kingdom of the Buengas, the kingdom of Maſti, and that of Maravi.—But we are not acquainted with any particulars relating to theſe nations or kingdoms.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, in England, is bounded by part of Herefordſhire on the north, Glouceſterſhire on the eaſt, Glamorganſhire on the weſt, and is waſhed on the ſouth by the Severn, and is about 84 miles in circumference.

It's air is temperate and healthy, and the ſoil fruitful enough in general, producing as good wheat as any county in the kingdom, great quantities of which are ſhipped by the Briſtol merchants for Portugal, and other countries. Coals are ſo plentiful here, that a horſe-load coſts but two-pence at the pit's mouth. The principal manufacture of the county is flannels.

MONMOUTH, the ſhire town, is a populous, handſome, and well-built town. It's principal traffic is with the city of Briſtol, by means of the Wye.

CHEPSTOW is the port for all the towns that ſtand on the rivers Wye and Lug. Ships of good burthen may come up to it, and the tide comes in here with the ſame rage as at Briſtol, it riſing commonly 6 fathoms, or more, at the bridge.

ABERGAVENNY, on the river GAVENNY, is a handſome, well-built town, and drives a great trade in flannel.

PONTIPOLE, is a ſmall town, noted only for it's iron mills.

MONOMOTOPA, a country in Africa, has the maritime kingdom of Sofala on the eaſt, the river del Spiritu Santo on the ſouth, the mountains of Caffraria on the weſt, and the river Cauma on the north, which parts it from Monemugi.

The air of this country is very temperate, the land fertile in paſtures, and all the neceſſaries of life, being watered by ſeveral rivers; on the banks of which grow many fine trees, and ſugar-canes, without any culture: and yet this fine country is not peopled throughout.—The inhabitants are rich in black cattle, which they value more than gold. There are here no beaſts of burthen, but a vaſt number of elephants, as appears from the great quantity of ivory that is exported from this country.

There are here a great many gold mines; and the rivers that run through their veins, carry a great deal of gold duſt along with their ſtreams. The inhabitants dive to the bottom of the rivers and lakes, take up the ſand, and carry it on the banks to ſeparate the gold from it.

The negroes here, are tall, well-ſhaped, ſtrong and healthy. They are much more lively than the people of Mozambique and Melinda. They are lovers of war, which is the trade followed by all thoſe who do not apply themſelves to commerce.

This country is divided into 7 provinces, or petty kingdoms, vaſſals to the king. They are Monomotopa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Inhemior, Sabia, and Sofala. The places where there is any thing of trade, are

MANICA, which has Quiteve on the north, Sabia on the eaſt, the river del Spiritu Santo on the ſouth, and Caffraria on the eaſt. The capital town is alſo called Manica, and to the ſouth of it are gold mines.

SOFALA kingdom has Sabia on the ſouth, Monomotopa Proper on the eaſt, the river Cauma on the north, and the gulph of Sofala, which is part of the channel of Mozambique, on the eaſt. From the mouth of the river of the Holy-Ghoſt, to cape Corientes, the ſoil is very even, barren, and deſert: but from that cape to the mouth of the river Cumena, the country is fruitful, and very populous. The coaſt is very low, and mariners diſcover their approach to it, not ſo much by their ſight as by their ſmell, it abounding with fragrant flowers. Here are elephants, lions, and other wild beaſts. The inhabitants aſſert, that their gold mines yield above 2 millions of metigals per annum, each amounting to 14 livres French money; that the ſhips from Zedein and Mecca, carry off above 2 millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mozambique, whoſe office laſts but three years, has above 300,000 crowns revenue, without reckoning the ſoldiers pay, and the king of Portugal's tribute: from hence Moquet concludes this to be the Ophir, whither Solomon ſent ſhips every three years from Eziongeber to fetch gold; Eziongeber being thought to be Suez, a ſea port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is ſupported by ſeveral edifices, which ſeem to have been built by foreigners. Some think this to be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who tranſlate the word Ophir (2 Kings ix. 28.) by the word Σοφειρα [Sophira]. And, ſince liquids are often put one for another, Sophira does not differ much from Sofala. Beſides, Thomas Lopez, in his India voyage, relates, that the inhabitants of this country boaſt that they have books which prove, that in the time of Solomon, the Iſraelites ſailed every third year towards theſe parts to fetch gold. The inhabitants of Quitoa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in little boats, called zambues, with ſtuffs of blue and white cottons, ſilk ſtuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory, and there ſell them again to the ſubjects of Monomotopa, who give them gold in return, without weighing it. It is ſaid, that when the Sofaleſe ſee ſhips coming, they light up fires, to ſignify that they ſhall be welcome. They know how to make ſtuffs of white cotton, but cannot dye them; and when they would make party-coloured ſtuffs, they unravel the dyed cloths of Cambaya, and mix them with white thread

The capital city here, and the only one of note, is alſo called Sofala. It ſtands on a river of the ſame name, about 6 leagues from the ſea-coaſt. The Portugueſe are maſters of this town, and built a ſtrong fortreſs there, ever ſince the year 1500. Their chief trade here conſiſts in ambergris, gold, ſlaves, and ſilk ſtuffs. The Portugueſe likewiſe take care to have thoſe mines worked, which lie to the ſouth of the town.

REMARKS.

This is a ſpacious country, and little known to any but the Portugueſe; and they appear to be wiſer in relation to the conduct of their trade in Africa than any other of the European potentates, they having not contented themſelves with erecting a few forts and factories, but have ſettled themſelves upon the continent in great numbers, and brought the natives to clothe according to the European mode; which has created a conſiderable and profitable commerce to them. See the articles AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and PORTUGUESE AFRICAN TRADE.

MONOPOLIES are allowances of the king by grant, or otherwiſe, for the ſole dealing in any thing, by which others are reſtrained from any freedom they had before. Though a monopoly may be more truly defined a kind of commerce uſurped by few, and ſometimes but by one perſon, to his or their private gain, and to the detriment of others.

Thoſe uſed in this kingdom have been diſtinguiſhed by three claſſes; firſt, reaſonable, of trifles, as cards, or the like; unreaſonable, as of fleſh, fiſh, butter, or other things needful for man's ſuſtenance; indifferent, of velvets, ſilks, ſpices, and other delicacies indifferent to be uſed or not. But all monopolies are contrary to the ancient and fundamental laws of this realm, and againſt the freedom of trade, &c. Wherefore it hath been held, that the king's grant to any corporation for the ſole importing any merchandize, by our common law, is void.

Some are ſatisfied if it be by act of parliament; as when a ſociety of private merchants have a privilege, by that authority, to ſell or import certain commodities, and all others are excluded: but if by the king's prerogative, they take it to be a monopoly. Others would have all things at large in the courſe of trade, and no ſocieties for any places of trade; for, by way of partnerſhip, merchants might, ſay they, aſſociate to make any voyages, without any regard to our trading companies, ſome of which are of great antiquity. And others make a difference between companies dealing in a joint ſtock or apart; affirming the management of a joint ſtock to be within the compaſs of a monolopy; yet would be content to tolerate it for the employment outward, but for returns would have a particular diviſion of the goods they receive.

Judge Vaughan ſays, That, if the export or import of a commodity, or exerciſe of a trade, be prohibited only generally, by parliament, and no cauſe expreſſed, the king may grant a licence to one or more perſons to export or import, or exerciſe the trade: for, by ſuch general reſtraint, the end of the law is no more than to limit the over-numerous exporters, &c. in that kind, by obliging them to procure licences; which, therefore, ſhall not be accounted monopolies; the law implying

plying it, as well as if the prohibitory law had been, that no ſuch exportation, &c. ſhould be without the king's licence. Vaughan's Rep. 345.

Having given the ſubſtance of various opinions concerning what is monopoly, or not ſo, we ſhall now take particular notice of the great caſe of monopolies in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, as delivered by Sir Edward Coke. Queen Elizabeth intending that her ſubjects being fit for huſbandry, ſhould be exerciſed therein, and not in making playing-cards, by which card-playing was become more frequent, and eſpecially among ſervants, apprentices, and poor artificers; by her letters patents of the 13th of June, in the 30th year of her reign, granted to R. B. Eſq; full power, by himſelf, ſervants, &c. to provide and buy in any foreign parts, all ſuch playing-cards as he thought good, and to import and ſell them in this kingdom, and to enjoy the whole trade for 12 years.

On an action of the caſe brought by the patentee againſt one for importing and making cards, contrary to theſe letters patents, notwithſtanding the glorious preamble and pretence, it was reſolved that this grant was void: for it is a monopoly, and againſt the common law, and divers acts of parliament; for all trades which prevent idleneſs (the bane of the commonwealth) and exerciſe men and youth, for the maintenance of themſelves and their families, and for increaſe of their ſubſtance, to ſerve the queen when occaſion ſhall require, are profitable to the realm: and the ſole trade of any mechanic art, or any other monopoly, is not only a damage to thoſe who exerciſe the ſame, but to all other ſubjects, the end of them being the private gain of the patentees: and there are three inſeparable incidents to every monopoly, the price of the ſame commodity will be raiſed; it is not ſo good and ſaleable as it was before; and it tends to the impoveriſhment of divers artificers, and others.

And it is evident, by the act of 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4. that the importation of foreign cards was prohibited, at the grievous complaint of the poor card-makers, who could not live at their trades if ſuch cards ſhould be imported; and the ſaid act provides remedy for maintaining the trade, becauſe it maintained many families by their labour and induſtry; and the like proviſion is made in 1 Rich. III. cap. 12. and perſons may not be reſtrained from exerciſing any trade but by parliament. Now, when the wiſdom of the parliament has reſtrained, for public good, the importation of foreign manufactures, that the ſubjects may be employed therein; to grant the ſole importation of them to one for private gain, or to divers without limitation, is a monopoly againſt the common law: and, therefore, the licence to have the ſole importation and trade of cards, notwithſtanding the act 3 Ed. IV. is utterly againſt law. Adjudged Trin. 44 Eliz. 11. Co. Rep. 84, 85.

King Edward III. by letters patents, granted to one John Peeke the ſole importation of ſweet wines into London; which grant, by ſtat. 50 Ed. III. was declared void. And queen Elizabeth having granted to certain patentees the ſole coinage and tranſportation of all the tin in Cornwall and Devon, for 21 years, under a large yearly rent to be paid at the Exchequer, it was adjudged that this patent was a monopoly, anno 13 Jac. I.

In an action the plaintiff ſet forth, that, in the reign of Henry IV. there was a ſociety of merchant-adventurers in England, and queen Elizabeth did incorporate them by that name, with privilege to trade to Holland, Brabant, Flanders, &c. prohibiting all others not free; and that the defendant did trade there without their leave, and imported goods to their damage, &c. To which the defendant pleaded the ſtat. 15 Ed. III. That the ſeas ſhall be open to all merchants to paſs with their merchandize whither they pleaſe: the queſtion was here, whether the king could reſtrain his ſubjects from trading to particular places? This caſe was not determined; but the better opinion was, that ſuch a grant was void, it agreeing with lord Coke's definition of a monopoly: it is againſt the ſtat. of Ed. III. and expreſsly againſt the ſtatute 21 Jac. I. The caſe of the Eaſt-India company is not like this, becauſe that patent reſtrained the ſubject from trading with infidels, without leave; if it had been to reſtrain them from trading with Chriſtians, it had been void. 3 Mod. Rep. 126.

By ſtat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 3. all monopolies, grants, letters patents, &c. for the ſole buying, ſelling, and making of goods, and manufactures, ſhall be void: and perſons grieved by the putting them in uſe, to recover treble damages and double coſts, by action on the ſtatute: and perſons cauſing ſuch action to be ſtayed before judgment, by any order, warrant, &c. except of the court where depending; or, after judgment had, cauſing execution to be ſtayed, by means of ſuch order, &c. ſave only by a writ of error, incur a præmunire.

But this act extends not to grants confirmed by act of parliament, nor to any charter to any corporation, company, &c. nor to grants of new manufactures, made to the inventors by patents for 14 years, nor to any grant of privilege for printing, or making ſalt-petre for gun-powder, or for caſting ordnance, &c. and certain patents granted to divers perſons are excepted.

And patents heretofore made for 21 years, or under, to the inventors of any new manufactures, not contrary to law, or hurtful, by raiſing the price of commodities at home, are excepted.

All matters relating to monopolies, grants, &c ſhall be examined and determined by the common law of the realm; and the uſing or procuring any unlawful monopoly, is puniſhable by fine and impriſonment at common law. 3 Co. Inſt. 181.

It is held, that a new invention to do much work by an engine, is contrary to the ſtatute, as turning many men to idleneſs. [See the article LABOUR.] And, concerning inventors of new manufactures, &c. on this ſtatute it hath been determined, that they muſt be ſubſtantially NEW, and not barely an IMPROVEMENT of any old one, to be within the ſtatute. 3 Inſt. 184.

A grant of a monopoly may be to the firſt inventor, by the 21ſt of Jac. I. and, if the invention be new in England, a patent may be granted, though the thing was practiſed beyond ſea before; the act being intended to encourage new devices uſeful to the kingdom, whether acquired by experience and travel abroad, or by ſtudy at home. 2 Salk. 447.

A perſon had a grant by patent from king Charles II. for the ſole printing of blank writs and bonds, &c. for the term of 30 years; and one Dorrel, a ſtationer, having printed 500 blank bonds, an action was brought againſt him, who pleaded, That the company of ſtationers, for 40 years laſt paſt, had conſtantly printed them, and ſo made a general concluſion. It was argued, That the king hath a prerogative in printing, and may grant it excluſive to others; and that ſuch grants had been made ever ſince printing was invented, of which ſeveral inſtances were given. Now the ſtatute againſt monopolies, doth not reach this caſe, becauſe of the proviſo to exempt all grants of ſole printing; and the king's inherent prerogative herein, when exerted, binds up all who were at liberty before. To this was anſwered, That the king hath ſuch prerogative, but it muſt be in caſes where no others can claim a property in it. On conſidering printing as an art excluſive from the thing printed, this patent is not good; for, if a man invents a new art, and another learns it before he obtains a patent, if afterwards granted, it is void: and this conſidered in relation to the blank bonds printed, it is not a new invention, and therefore the patent is void; for, where the invention is not new, trade ſhall not be reſtrained. And ſole printing is a manufacture, an art the king cannot reſtrain; but, where it is of public concern, the prerogative may interpoſe.

The court of King's-Bench made a difference in this caſe, between things of a public uſe, and thoſe public in their nature; and the court inclined the patent was not good. 3 Mod. 75, 76, 78. 2 Nelſ. Abr. 899.

It is agreeable to our common law, and the fundamental laws of all nations, to grant inventors of uſeful things privileges for 21, 14, 11, or 7 years; and as to the time granted, the thing itſelf ſhould make the difference. But the general intention of all grants for manufactures, ſhould be to ſet people on work, to recompenſe the inventor of the art, and that things may, in ſome reſpect, be cheaper to the ſubjects.

Patents may be granted to reward a projector, and be no monopoly, though the public liberty may ſeem reſtrained by it, but rather a common diſtribution, whenever it brings a general good to the nation. The ſtatutes reſtraining from exerciſing divers crafts all who have not ſerved an apprenticeſhip to the art they would exerciſe, do it to no other end, but that thoſe arts might be brought to better perfection, and the things be good and ſerviceable.—Theſe are the chief principles of law in relation to monopolies.

REMARKS.

Under the article COMPANIES, we have ſhewn the origin of thoſe, which have related to our foreign trade; and, under the reſpective articles of ſuch of thoſe companies which are now in being, we have endeavoured, with all candour and impartiality, to ſtate the reaſonableneſs, or otherwiſe, of their being endowed with any ſort of excluſive privileges.—[See the article ASSIENTO] particular REMARKS.

In regard to the caſe of the Eaſt-India company, in particular, we have, in general, conſidered the conſtitution of that corporation; and, although we have urged the neceſſity of ſupporting that company, yet we have alſo ſhewed, that, if they do not trade to all places within their charter, where it may be done to the advantage of the nation, private people ſhould not be excluded from ſuch traffic: they ſhould, on the contrary, be encouraged therein to the utmoſt. See the articles EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and COMPANIES; ſee alſo the other particular companies that ſubſiſt.

It has been ſaid, if that trade were enlarged, it would increaſe ſuch a demand for woollen goods, for iron ware, and for every other branch of buſineſs in England, as would employ all the manufacturers, who are now ſtarving, and thereby relieve the poor, by making them no longer ſo.—This might be demonſtrated, by the many places that are not yet traded to by the Engliſh. The company trades in the Red Sea but to one port, that is, Mocha; but the Habazines empire, or that of Ethiopia, which lies on the weſt ſide of that ſea, is not attempted to be traded to, although it is inhabited by many

Chriſtians, and abounding with gold, myrrh, ſena, aloes, civet, and numbers of rich dyeing and medicinal drugs, and other commodities; and they have no iron nor woollen goods but what are carried to them over-land from Egypt or Turkey, and which is moſtly manufactured by the French, or at Damaſcus.

The company doth not trade to Siam, a rich and great kingdom; nor to Pegu, a kingdom that produces rubies, gum-lac, gum-dragon, and all the materials of the fine Indian varniſh: the inhabitants are very induſtrious, and great trade might be made there. Tonquin is alſo a kingdom full of induſtrious people; and the kingdom of Cochin-China would give vent to a great number of commodities. The kingdoms of Japan and Corea are amongſt the richeſt in the world; and with theſe the Eaſt-India company are ſaid to have no commerce; and yet they abound in raw ſilk, gold, ſilver, ſpice goods, tea, porcelaine, japan, &c. nor need the company ſtrive to gain acceſs, ſince they have more trade already than they can turn their hands to.

The many ſpice iſlands unpoſſeſſed by the Dutch, and Mindanao, and other iſlands near the Philippines, unpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards, are a glorious field for the Engliſh commerce; numbers of adventurers might make their fortunes by ſuch a trade, and hundreds of ſhips might be employed therein, to the great national emolument.—It is neceſſary for us to think of theſe things; for, if we do not, the Pruſſians, or others, will, the gain being ſo great; and the company cannot uſe their charter againſt foreigners, who are ſo ſaucy as not to obey an Engliſh act of parliament.—It has been further ſaid, upon this occaſion, That, if Scotland and Ireland had the liberty of trading to all parts of the globe, they, by the cheapneſs of their labour, and the number of their hardy and induſtrious people, among the former in particular, would under-trade foreigners, and open many markets, that are, at preſent, unthought of; and that this would increaſe the ſhipping and wealth of Great-Britain to an immenſe degree.

The attempts of the Scots nation before the Union, to open a trade to the Eaſt-Indies and America, particularly their ſettlement at Darien, were glorious; and the barbarous treatment they met with will ever be ignominious; for, had the Scots maintained the iſthmus of Darien, and a free paſſage between the North and South Seas, within a colony of their own, Britain might, by this time, have been ſo powerful in America, as would have prevented the French from breaking the treaty of Ryſwick, and, conſequently, have prevented thoſe wars which have been attended with ſo weighty an incumbrance on our whole trade. Theſe diſadvantages have been attributed to monopolizing companies; for, while the South Sea company ſubſiſted as a trading corporation, they had a monopoly, though, perhaps, not ſo nationally injurious as ſome others, if we conſider all the peculiar circumſtances thereof. See the articles ASSIENTO, and SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

But if the Scots, as well as the Engliſh, are excluded by the court of Spain from trading directly to Spaniſh America, it has been doubted whether our own Eaſt-India company have it in their power to exclude any ſhip trading to Japan from Edinburgh and Glaſgow. It ſeems, that the company have never traded to Japan ſince their charter was confirmed by act of parliament; and, ſurely, if they thought it within their charter, they would have certainly attempted that trade, which is, perhaps, much more advantageous than any they now carry on. Certain it is, that trading to theſe countries would highly tend to the benefit of Scotland; and, therefore, it has been thought reaſonable to require an explanation of what parts of the globe the people of North Britain are debarred trading to, by charters granted before the Union, or by acts of parliament made before or ſince; or whether the ſubjects born and dwelling in North Britain and Ireland, are bound by any act, unleſs it ſhould mention thoſe countries particularly.

The ſubſtance of what has been further urged in this kingdom againſt MONOPOLIES in general.

Beſides the misfortunes ariſing from our taxes, we have ſome monopolies very deſtructive to a trading nation, and inconſiſtent with a free one, which encourage idleneſs, villainy, and extravagant demands for wages; whereby the many are deprived of their rights, without having committed any crime to forfeit them, and for the benefit of a few only: a country that ſuffers them cannot ſend it's goods ſo cheap to a foreign market as it's neighbours who ſhould not, for never yet was a monopolized trade extended to the degree of a free one; therefore any country abounding in monopolies muſt decline in trade.

To apply this to Britain.

The trade of exporting woollens, and ſome other ſorts of goods, with the trade to ſome particular countries given to companies, we monopolize to ourſelves, and, in our abundant wiſdom, pay all the charges of government; our fellow-ſubjects in Scotland pay but a trifle to the general ſupport; in Ireland and the plantations nothing at all; theſe trade under the protection of fleets that coſt them not a farthing: our land wars to maintain the ballance and liberties of Europe, at the riſque of our own, coſt them not a doit; all that we endeavour is, to ſtarve them without expence, and ourſelves with; for that is the caſe, we drive one part of our people out of trade by monopolies, and the other by taxes. We bleed ourſelves almoſt to death, and think to recruit our ſpirits by devouring three millions of ſtarved Iriſh and Americans, and, by exceſs of cunning, make the ruin general.

Excluſive companies prevent the increaſing the vent of our manufactures abroad, conſequently they ſtarve our poor, as will appear by the following reaſons:

By being all of them confined to London, the prices of the woollens they export are enhanced by long land-carriages up to town, with the additional charges of commiſſion, warehouſe-rent, porterage, &c. much to the prejudice of their ſale; and what materials of manufacture they import are diſperſed over many parts of the kingdom, by the like expenſive conveyance, to the great diſadvantage of the nation in general.

It is not the intereſt of the Eaſt India company to increaſe the quantities of the woollens they export, but rather to contract them (which we ſuppoſe was the reaſon for obliging them by their charter to export woollens to a certain value) for at all markets where there are any demands for goods, the ſmallneſs of the quantity naturally enhances the price; and, if the company can gain as much on 5000 cloths as on 10,000, is it not their intereſt to prefer the leſſer quantity, on account of the leſs diſburſement and riſque? Though it is plain the nation would loſe the ſale of one half of the manufactures capable of being vended; whereas private traders puſhing againſt one another, ſtudy to increaſe the vent of their goods, by ſelling at moderate profits, and making the quantities anſwer to themſelves and their country.

The large charges the Eaſt-India and South-Sea companies, when the latter traded, are forced to be at for the ſalaries of the directors, governors, ſupercargoes, &c. beſides what may ſlip through their fingers ſometimes, muſt make theſe companies neglect all trades that will not yield extraordinary profits to defray them; which trades private merchants would be glad of, and turn to good account for themſelves and their country, were they not debarred by excluſive charters. See a diſtinction, with regard to the South-Sea Company in particular, under the articles ASSIENTO [REMARKS], and SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

Excluſive companies buying at home by directors, and ſelling abroad by ſervants, who may have an eye to their own or friends intereſt, and the foundation of all being the company's money, they cannot naturally be ſuppoſed to be ſo induſtrious, as thoſe who trade only on their own ſtocks; therefore companies can never extend trade like private dealers, but it muſt decay where interlopers are admitted, of which our late Royal African company was a ſtrong inſtance. What confirms the whole, is the prohibition of the Eaſt-India company againſt their ſervants carrying out cloth, which would be needleſs, did they not know that their ſervants can underſell them, for the company wants no money to ſupply all the cloth that can be vended with the uſual profit. In the year 1741, a ſeizure was made in one of the out-ports of a large quantity of cloth deſigned for India, belonging to one of the company's ſervants, when at the ſame time, by the decay of our woollen trade, the poor's rates were at 8 s. in the pound, in ſome of our clothing towns; from whence this abſurdity aroſe, that whilſt our clothiers were ſtarving, the exportation of cloth was thereby made a contraband trade.

It is impoſſible to make any enquiry into our companies, without taking notice of their vaſt villainies; which, as they have been made ſufficiently public, few can be ignorant of; therefore the bare mention of them is enough, ſuch as the fatal South-Sea ſcheme, that ruined thouſands of families.—See the articles ACTIONS, and BUBBLES.

We need not to mention former directors, receiving ſalaries from companies, and, though contrary to law, being notwithſtanding concerned in the Oſtend trade to India, whereby they were cutting the throats of their benefactors; the ſelling goods by falſe ſamples, and buying them for their private accounts; carrying on private trade contrary to treaty, and bribing officers to wink at them with the company's money, and charged to account by the genteel name of preſents, ſubjecting thereby the company's effects to ſeizures, and their country to perpetual jars. The rapaciouſneſs of governors abroad, who, by engroſſing goods, nay, even the neceſſaries of life, have oppreſſed the people by arbitrary prices, and drove away our trade. Supercargoes, cheating by falſe invoices. Captains, quitting or loſing ſhips, to defraud inſurers and bottomry-lenders: are not theſe things written in the books of their chronicles? But the greateſt miſchief of all is, that the honeſty of the people hath been corrupted, by having preſented to their eyes roguery lightly puniſhed, if not triumphant.

Theſe companies have prevented the increaſe of our navigation, by their excluſive charters, debarring us from a free trade to $\frac{3}{4}$ parts of the known world. The dominions of the Grand Seignior, in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, were, 'till lately, confined to the Turkey company. All South, and part of North America, from Vera Cruz to Carthagena, from Buenos Ayres round Cape Horn to California, that vaſt extent

tent of coaſt, were alſo, 'till lately, the portion of the South Sea company. Yet we have not found, that the nation is any thing the better for the annihilation of this latter monopoly; it is hoped, however, we ſhall in time, ſome how experience the benefit of it.

All the coaſts of Africa, Aſia, from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan, are the lot of the Eaſt-India company. And, what a ſmall number of ports did they all trade to, and what a trifling navigation did they all maintain? There is a greater quantity of ſhip tonnage employed in the trade of the free port of Leghorn only, than all theſe three companies ever employed in their monopolies to $\frac{3}{4}$ parts of the world; like the fable of the dog in the manger, not eating themſelves, but preventing thoſe who would. For more matter, having an affinity herewith, ſee the article PATENTS.

MONTFERRAT, a duchy in Italy, is bounded on the north by Savoy, on the eaſt by the Milaneſe, on the ſouth by the territory of Genoa, and on the weſt by Piedmont. It is computed to be 26 miles in length, and 48 in breadth, and was formerly divided into the Mantuan and Savoyard Montferrat. Both countries are very pleaſant and fertile, though hilly; and beſides the great plenty of all neceſſaries, afford vaſt quantities and variety of game. It abounds in ſilk, corn, wine, and oil, wherein it has a pretty conſiderable trade.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the eaſt with Shropſhire and Radnorſhire, on the ſouth with Cardiganſhire and Radnorſhire, with Merionethſhire on the weſt, and with Denbighſhire, and part of Merionethſhire and Shropſhire on the north. It is computed to be in length from eaſt to weſt 30 miles, in breadth from north to ſouth 25 miles, and it's circumference 94.

The air is ſharp and cold on it's mountains, but wholſome and pleaſant in the vallies. On the north and weſt ſides, where the former are moſt predominant, the ſoil is ſtony, and not very fruitful, except in the vallies between them, which are very pleaſant, and afford corn, and plenty of paſture; but the ſouth-ſouth-eaſt and north-eaſt parts, which are more level, are exceeding fruitful, eſpecially thoſe parts that lie on the banks of the Severn, and are ſometimes overflowed by it.

It's chief commodities are corn, cattle, horſes, fiſh, and fowl. It has been long remarkable for a peculiar breed of horſes, which are ſtill larger here as well as their black cattle, than in ſome of the neighbouring Welſh counties, and are much valued in England.

It's principal rivers are the Severn, the Tanat, and the Turgh.

MONTGOMERY TOWN ſtands in a healthy air, is large and handſome, but the buildings are generally very indifferent, except a few faſhionable houſes that belong to ſome conſiderable families.

LLANIDLOS lies near the head of the Severn, and it's pariſh, which is noted for mines of lead and copper, belongs to the dioceſe of Bangor: it has fairs in July and September.

MACHYNLETH, an ancient town in the dioceſe of St. Aſaph, and has fairs on June 27, July 25, Sept. 29. and Nov. 13.

LLAVELLING, or LHEN VYLLYN, a conſiderable town, and has a good market for cattle, coney-wool, and other proviſions, but ſtands low. It's fairs are in June, July, and September.

WELSHPOLE, a large well built corporate town, where is a noted manufacture of flannel. It has a fair in Auguſt.

Upon the whole, there is ſcarce a finer county in England, than theſe parts towards the Severn ſide.

MONTSERAT, one of the ſmalleſt of the Caribbee Iſlands, in the Atlantic Ocean in America, ſubject to England. See BRITISH AMERICA.

MORAVIA MARQUISATE, a principality of the kingdom of Bohemia, bounded by Sileſia and Poland on the north and eaſt, Auſtria and part of Hungary on the ſouth, and Bohemia on the weſt. The north and weſt parts are woody and mountainous, but the reſt is fair and champaign good ſoil, yielding much corn of all ſorts, with wine, both red and white, and abounding with ſpacious towns and villages.

The paſtures are filled with horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and goats; and the woods with hares, foxes, wolves, and beavers. It's rivers abound with trout, crayfiſh, barbels, eels, jack, perch, and many other ſorts of fiſh.

OLMUTZ, it's metropolis, is 20 miles weſt from the borders of Sileſia, 28 north-eaſt of Brin, 80 north of Vienna, 45 ſouth-weſt of Teſchen, and 94 ſouth of Breſlaw. It is a ſmall, but neat, well built, ſtrong, and populous city; and has a trade, by means of it's river Morawa, with Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Sileſia, and Auſtria.

BRIN is a pretty large well built town, and is held by ſome to be the capital.

IGLAW, or GHILAWA, is a pretty large, ſtrong, well built, and populous town, on the borders of Bohemia. It's principal trade is in beer and coarſe woollen cloth, which they make and dreſs themſelves.

ZNAIM, or ZNOGMO, on the river Taya, not above 5 miles from the borders of Auſtria, has a pleaſant ſoil and wholeſome air; and being on the road from Prague to Vienna, brings a tolerable trade to it. There are many vineyards in the neighbourhood, which afford a pretty palatable wine.

MOROCCO and FEZ EMPIRE, in Africa, comprehending the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north, by the river Fulvia, which divides it from Algiers on the eaſt, by Bilduligerid on the ſouth, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt, being about 500 miles long and 200 broad. It is a fine country, conſiſting of mountains and vaſt extended plains, none of them unfruitful: of the mountains, thoſe of Atlas are the chief, extending from Algiers in the eaſt to the ocean in the weſt, which from them has obtained the name of the Atlantic Ocean. Their ſoil produces good wheat, rice, and barley, and would yield a great deal more, if well cultivated, but only the Jews plant the vine; the olive alſo thrives here, and yields excellent oil. They have alſo dates, figs, almonds, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, and a variety of other fruits; nor do they want flax or hemp; but wood, eſpecially timber, is ſcarce here. They have no ſhips of war, only ſome ſmall piratical veſſels, which they croud with men, and take great prizes ſometimes, eſpecially the Sallee rovers; but as for merchant-ſhips, or foreign trade, they carry on none on their own bottoms.

REMARKS.

No flouriſhing trade or improvements can be carried on under a government ſo deſpotic, oppreſſive, and rapacious. The land is judged capable of producing a hundred times more than the inhabitants can conſume, yielding three crops a year; yet, except within 3 leagues of a town, it has no proprietor; there is generally corn in the emperor's poſſeſſion underground to ſerve the whole country five years. They who have a little money, are afraid to let it out upon intereſt, leſt they ſhould be reputed wealthy, and conſequently become a prey; ſo they bury it with any furniture of value, nothing being ſeen in their houſes but a mat or two to lie on, and a few ordinary things. Their traffic is of a piece with their agriculture; beſides, the Moors having no immediate commerce with any foreign nation, nor any trading veſſels of their own, the navigation is by European ſhips, and the Jews are the chief traders and factors, and by their immenſe profits make themſelves amends for the exorbitant impoſt with which they are loaded.

The chief exports are tin, copper, wax, hides, wool, cordovans, honey, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, indico, gum arabic, gum ſandric, elephants teeth, oſtrich feathers, and fine maſts. The exportation of corn is abſolutely prohibited, as contrary to Mahomet's precept, though it is encouraged at Algiers and Tunis.

The duties on goods exported, are on wax, per hundred weight, twenty-five ounces; old copper, twelve; red Morocco ſkins, per half dozen; one ditto other colours, two blanquilles. Hides tanned or raw, each two ditto; wool, dates, almonds, gums, ſoap, per quintal, three ounces, tallow ſix ounces; mats per bale; ſix goat ſkins in hair per bale; ſix calve ſkins dreſſed or raw, one blanquille; ſheep-ſkins per half dozen; two blanquilles are two-penny pieces, and four, when full weight, paſs for an ounce; but they are ſo thin, clipped, and cracked, and the people ſo fraudulent that a ſtranger ſhould provide himſelf with a pair of their ſcales, to weigh all he receives.

The moſt uſual imports are linens, cloths, iron in bars, hard ware, brimſtone, gunpowder, arms, and lead, which pay a duty of about ten per cent.

Their inland trade chiefly conſiſts of caravans, two of which ſet out every year from Fez to Mecca and Medina, viz. one every ſix months, carrying woollen manufactures, of which they make ſome exceeding fine and beautiful, indico, cochineal, ſkins, and oſtrich-feathers.

The Engliſh might put a ſtop to this trade from Mecca, by tranſporting ſilks from Turkey to Barbary by ſea; and the emperor would certainly countenance the ſcheme, on account of the ten per cent. cuſtom, on the importing theſe goods in European bottoms, and likewiſe as it would prevent ſo many people going to Mecca, where they often ſettle, accounting the Turks milder tyrants, and ſo of two evils prudently chuſing the leaſt.

They likewiſe ſend caravans to Guinea every year, conſiſting of many thouſand camels, which the difficulty of the paſſage through deſerts, without fodder, proviſion, or water, renders it neceſſary that every other camel be loaded with thoſe neceſſaries. They carry to Guinea, ſalt, cowries, woollen manufactures, ſilks and oil, which they exchange for gold-duſt, ivory, oſtrich-feathers, and negroes. Some Turks of Algiers and Tunis trade thither in ſilks, cottons, ſtriped ſtuffs, and fine faſhes, from the Levant, and grow rich, as their birth exempts them from the common exactions. The tyranny of the government is ſaid to be the motive of the Arabians continuing a wandering life, leſt by living in fixed habitations, they ſhould forfeit all property and liberty by the rapaciouſneſs of the officers.

The ſhips trading to the Morocco dominions, pay one barrel of gunpowder for entrance, with twelve for loading and anchorage, and twelve to the captain of the port; veſſels trading to and from Gibraltar, pay but half this duty, by indulgence

dulgence of Muley Iſhmael, who, though ſo ſavage that he could neither read nor write, had a particular kindneſs for the Engliſh, on account of their frankneſs and bravery. Engliſh and French conſulage is eight dollars. A French or Spaniſh veſſel likewiſe, pays three dollars to a fraternity of Spaniſh friars, who aſſiſt them in ſpiritual offices.

Their whole navy conſiſts of but three or four ſhips, mounting ſixteen or twenty ſmall guns, and a few row-boats; accordingly about thirty years ago, a ſingle Engliſh ſmall frigate, with an active commander, by taking ſome, and running others aſhore, ſtruck ſuch a terror, that, as is related of other formidable warriors, the Sallee women uſed to quiet their untoward children, by telling them Delgarno was coming for them: yet the Chriſtian powers, though the Barbary pirates are ſuch a detriment to their commerce, are kept from exerting themſelves with due force againſt theſe enemies, leſt their ſuppreſſion ſhould be an over-balancing advantage to any particular ſtate. It is a happineſs that all the Morocco dominions do not afford one tolerable harbour; that of Sallee, which is the beſt, being almoſt dry at low, and not twelve feet deep at high water, beſides a very inconvenient bar: better ports might be an inducement to their making a figure at ſea, and become a greater annoyance.

The policy in the Moors is, that they will trade with any ſhip (though of a ſtate at war with them) which comes to their ports. A convent of Spaniſh friars is likewiſe tolerated at Mequinez, for a yearly acknowledgement.

The emperor has a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the ſoil; likewiſe the tenth of prizes, and all the captives. His whole revenue, ordinaries and extraordinaries, is computed at five hundred quintals of ſilver, each worth 385 pounds ſterling: If the revenue of a monarch can be ſtated, who holds not his ſubjects lives and fortunes by the tenure of unmeaning addreſſes, or the good-will of a parliament, but frequently confirms his abſolute prerogative, by the ruin and death of the moſt dignified perſons in his dominions.

Of the union of the Chriſtian powers, to extirpate theſe piratical ſtates.

In ſpeaking of Africa as it once was the ſeat of commerce for the whole world, we muſt look back as far as to the flouriſhing ſtate of the Carthaginian government, but it ſhall be as ſhort as can be deſired.

It is true, as has been obſerved by a well informed writer on this ſubject, that the Romans (like the Turks in our time) were no friends to trade; they carried on their war for glory; like mere ſoldiers, they fought to conquer, and conquered to plunder, not to plant and people the world: ſo far were they from encouraging or improving the commerce and wealth of the nations they ſubdued, that they overthrew and deſtroyed the greateſt trading cities in the world: ſuch as Corinth, Syracuſe, Carthage, and all the cities of Egypt and Africa: inſtead of encouraging trade and navigation, they murdered the merchants, burnt their ſhips, and carried away the people, which are the life and ſupport of manufacture and trade.

On the other hand, the Carthaginians, as they had the richeſt ſoil and a numerous people (for Africa was then infinitely populous) they improved the firſt, and employed the laſt, to the utmoſt: their people were as rich as they were numerous; they carried on trade to all the parts of the world, planted colonies, built cities abroad, and ſhips at home: and wherever they came, whether by conqueſt or by conſent, they planted the country not deſtroyed it, carried people to it, not away from it; and, in a word, made them rich, not plundered and ſtarved them. Carthage and Corinth at that time, were the two great emporiums of the world; this carried on all the commerce of the weſt, and that of the eaſt: Corinth managed the commerce of Aſia, Perſia, and India, and brought the wealth of the Eaſt-Indies, the ſpices, the ſilks, the callicoes, the gold, the diamonds, and, in a word, the whole Indian and Perſian trade in caravans; part from Ormus and the gulph of Perſia, to Baſſora and Bagdat by water, and thence by caravans to Aleppo and Scanderoon; and ſo by ſea to the gulph of Cenchræa and Corinth, another part of Trapezond in Armenia, and by the Euxine Sea through the ſtraights of Boſphorus and the Helleſpont, and through the Archipelago to the ſame gulph, and ſo to Corinth. Carthage, on the other hand, planted colonies, and extended their poſſeſſions upon the coaſt of Spain, as well within as without the Straights; built cities from New Carthage, now called Carthagena in Spain, to the Groyne, as well in the Mediterranean as in the ocean, and from Tangier, then a populous city of 100,000 inhabitants, to the Cape de Verde on the weſt ſide of Africa, and from thence into America itſelf; which, there is no room to doubt, was diſcovered, if not peopled, from Africa, by the indefatigable Carthaginians; and had never been loſt and forgotten to this part of the world, if the Romans, thoſe deſtroyers of commerce and navigation, had not ſo utterly ruined Carthage, not the city only, but the very nation, as not to leave them a name under heaven, and ſo of courſe cauſed all their remoteſt ſettlements to be abandoned, and, in conſequence, at laſt forgotten; but that, by the way, it requires, and, indeed, deſerves too long a digreſſion for this place.

Now, when theſe two cities of Corinth and Carthage fell, (for they were deſtroyed by the Romans within a year of one another) the trade of the whole world received a mortal wound; and, as thoſe cities never recovered, ſo the trade which was fixed among them, was divided and ſcattered, and, in effect, loſt, for it never fully recovered itſelf.

The colonies which the Carthaginians planted, ſunk and died away, and many of them lie in ruins to this day, eſpecially on the ſide of the ocean from the Straight's mouth to cape None; for, as the Carthaginians planted colonies for trade, the trade being loſt by the overthrow of the merchants in the mother-city Carthage, the new planted cities, and the ſea-ports, were ruined of courſe, and periſhed, as a child ſtarves when a nurſe is taken from it.

It is true, the city of Carthage was rebuilt, and recovered itſelf in ſome degree, under the government of the weſtern emperors; and eſpecially as thoſe emperors were Chriſtians, and were encouragers of the induſtry and application of their ſubjects: then, indeed, the trading genius revived very much, eſpecially in Africa; and the climate and ſoil of that country being particularly productive of many valuable things, and thoſe things adapted to trade, the African merchants carried on a very conſiderable buſineſs; navigation alſo being their peculiar talent, they traded by ſea to all the known parts of the world, but nothing like what they did before.

The principal branches of their commerce in thoſe times, as we gather from the hiſtories of the neighbouring countries, conſiſted, firſt, in exporting the growth of their country, and the manufactures of their people, juſt as it is with us in Britain: for the nature of commerce is ever and every-where the ſame. And, ſecondly, in importing again the product of other countries, either for their own conſumption, or for re-exportation to remoter parts, which had not the ſame product. Their own product conſiſted chiefly in corn and cattle, and among the laſt, chiefly horſes, of which they furniſhed great numbers to mount the Roman cavalry, for the Numidian horſe were then, as the barbs and jennets (which are the ſame) are now, famed for their beauty, ſwiftneſs, and fine ſhapes, through all the Roman empire.

But above all, their products the moſt valuable were their wax and copper, in both which they ſtill excel the whole world; alſo their corn, fruit, drugs, and rich gums, all which remain to them.

For manufactures, we do not, indeed, read much of their woollen manufactures: but the Carthaginians as well as the Egyptians (and both were Africans), are famed for the product of fine linen; and, it is to be ſuppoſed, the ſoil produced a very fine kind of flax, which, as the fund of that manufacture, they improved to great advantage, but that part is now loſt.

As to their importations, we are aſſured they fetched tin and lead from Great Britain, gold and wine from Spain, for Old Spain ever produced much gold; ſilks and fine Eaſt-India goods from Corinth and Alexandria; what trade they had with Gaul (France) we do not find, but the other was very conſiderable, and is ſufficient to our purpoſe. Thus ſtood their condition, flouriſhing in wealth and commerce, when the Romans, to the eternal infamy, not glory, of their very name, deſtroyed them all.

As by that the trade of the world received a mortal wound, ſo when it revived under the Roman and Grecian emperors, it was apparent all their recovery and increaſe, was owing to their commerce; that alone reſtored them, and enriched them; and they were, in Juſtinian's time, the moſt valuable branch of the weſtern empire, with reſpect to the taxes they paid, and the many regiments, or rather legions, they raiſed, for recruiting the Roman armies under Beliſarius, and other generals; and this continued long afterwards, even in the moſt declining times of the weſtern empire.

But this riſing wealth of Africa was too rich a bait for the times; the deluge of barbarous nations, which overthrew the Roman empire, broke in upon them alſo; and the Vandals over-running Spain, ſpread themſelves into Africa, waſted and over run the fruitful plains, and deſtroyed the populous cities; and, in a word, trade ſunk a ſecond time, under the unſupportable burden of war, the Vandals, over-running all, ruined and poſſeſſed the country.

As the Vandals came in over the bellies of the native inhabitants, ſo ſome ages after them, the Saracens, Arabians, and Mahometans, came in over the heads of the Vandals.

With theſe, not the old Africans only were rooted out; not only religion, but at laſt trade too, ſunk quite out of the country; for, as the followers of Mahomet are, wherever they come, like the Romans, the deſtroyers both of commerce and cultivation, ſo it was here.

Trade being thus, as it were, rooted out of Africa, the Moors ſpread themſelves, by a rapid and irreſiſtible torrent, over Spain and Portugal; and as for Africa, they have, by a ſtrong hand, kept poſſeſſion there ever ſince.

To apply this to our preſent purpoſe: Theſe Mahometans, as we have ſaid of the Turks, have very little inclination to trade; but, dwelling on the ſea-coaſt, and being a rapacious

and

and tyrannical people, void of induſtry or application, neglecting all culture and improvement, it made them thieves and robbers, as naturally as idleneſs makes beggars: they diſdained all induſtry and labour; but being trained to rapine and ſpoil, when they were no longer able to plunder and deſtroy the fruitful plains of Valentia, Granada, and Andaluſia, they fell to roving upon the ſea; they built ſhips, or rather ſeized them from others, and ravaged the coaſts, landing in the night, ſurprizing and carrying away the poor country people, out of their beds into ſlavery.

This was their firſt trade, and this naturally made pirates of them; for, not being content with mere landing and plundering the ſea-coaſt of Spain, they, by degrees, being grown powerful and rich, made bold and audacious by their ſucceſs, they armed their ſhips, and began to attack, firſt the Spaniards upon the high ſeas, and then all the chriſtian nations of Europe, wherever they could find them: thus this deteſtable practice of roving and robbing began.

What magnitude they are ſince that arrived to, what miſchiefs they have brought upon the trading part of the world, how powerful they are grown and how they are erected into ſtates and governments, nay into kingdoms, and, as they would be called, empires, (for the kings of Fez and Morocco call themſelves emperors) and how they are, to the diſgrace, even of all the chriſtian powers, treated with as ſuch, is matter of hiſtory, and we ſhall meddle no more with it here, than is neceſſary to our preſent occaſion.

The firſt chriſtian prince, who, reſenting the inſolence of theſe barbarians, and diſdaining to make peace with them, reſolved their deſtruction, was the emperor Charles V. He was moved with a generous compaſſion for the many thouſands of miſerable chriſtians, who were, at that time, kept among them in ſlavery: and, from a benevolent principle of ſetting the chriſtian world free from the terror of ſuch barbarians, he undertook ſingly, and without the aſſiſtance of any other nation, to fall upon them with all his power.

In this war, had he been joined by the French and Engliſh, and the Hanſe-Towns, (as for the Dutch, they were not then a nation) he might have cleared the country; at leaſt he might have cleared the ſea coaſts of the whole race, and have planted colonies of chriſtians in all the ports, for the encouragement of commerce, and for the ſafety of all the European nations.

But Francis the firſt, king of France, his mortal and conſtant enemy, envied him the glory of the greateſt and beſt enterprize that was ever undertaken in Europe; a thouſand times beyond all the cruiſadoes and expeditions to the Holy-Land, which coſt Europe a million of lives, an immenſe treaſure, during one hundred and twenty years, to no purpoſe. Though the emperor was aſſiſted by no one prince in Chriſtendom, the Pope excepted (and his artillery would not go far in battering ſtone-walls); yet he took the fortreſs of Goletta, and afterwards the city, and the whole kingdom of Tunis; and, had he kept the poſſeſſion, it might have proved a happy fore-runner of farther conqueſts; but miſcarrying in his attempt againſt Algier, and a terrible ſtorm falling upon his fleet, the farther attempt was laid aſide, and the kingdom of Tunis returned to it's former poſſeſſors, by which means their piracies are ſtill continued.

There ſeems to be a neceſſity, therefore, that all the powers of Europe, eſpecially the maritime powers, ſhould unanimouſly determine to free themſelves from the inſolence of theſe rovers; that ſo their ſubjects may be protected in their perſons and goods, from the hands of rapine and violence; their coaſts ſecured from inſults and deſcents, and their ſhips from capture on the ſea.

But this cannot be done effectually, but by rooting out theſe neſts of robbers on the coaſt of Africa, or at leaſt driving them from the poſſeſſion of any of the towns, ports, and harbours, ſo that they may have no more ſhips to appear upon the ſea.

The conqueſt, it has been apprehended, could not be attended with any great difficulty, if the Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Spaniards would unite to join their forces and fleets, and fall upon them in ſeparate bodies, and in ſeveral places at the ſame time.

The general benefit of commerce would immediately follow, by ſettling the government of the ſea-coaſt towns, in the hands and poſſeſſion of the ſeveral united powers; ſo that, every one ſhould poſſeſs the leaſt in proportion to the forces employed in the conqueſts of it. The conſequence of the ſucceſs would ſoon be ſenſibly felt by the intereſted parties. For, certain it is, that the coaſt of Africa, ſome few places excepted, is a fruitful rich country; and though by it's latitude it muſt be exceeding hot, and that (eſpecially on the eaſtermoſt parts of it) there are many deſerts and waſte places given up to ſalt and ſand, and fit only for the retreat of wild beaſts, &c. yet, even in that part, there are vallcys and plains interſperſed among the wildeſt deſerts, and which are fruitful, yield corn in abundance, and cattle, with ſeveral fruits and other productions, fitted not for the uſe of the inhabitants only, but for merchandize, and in quantities alſo ſufficient for both.

The general product of the country, and in which the chief wealth conſiſts, and upon which a trade with them might be ſettled, if the country was in the hands of chriſtians, is as follows; corn, ſalt, wool, horſes, wax, honey, coral, copper, ſkins of beaſts, drugs and gums, almonds, pomegranates, oſtrich feathers, lions and leopards, proviſions of ſundry kinds. If the quantity of all theſe is ſo conſiderable as we find it to be, even now, under the indolence and ſloth of the moſt barbarous people in the world; how may we ſuppoſe all thoſe valuable things to be increaſed in their quantity by the induſtry and application of the diligent Europeans, eſpecially the French, or Dutch, or Engliſh; all which nations joining in the conqueſt, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe, ſhould have their ſeveral and ſeparate allotments of territory upon the coaſt, and in the country adjacent.

We might alſo reaſonably ſuppoſe, that the Moors being, in the conſequence of ſuch a conqueſt, driven up farther into the country, (for we have not been propoſing the rooting them out as a nation, but only the ſupplanting or removing them from a ſituation, which they have juſtly forfeited by their depredations upon other nations) and being obliged to ſeek their ſubſiſtence by honeſt labour and application; we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that even theſe may be taught to apply themſelves to the cultivation of the earth, by the neceſſity of their circumſtances, and be brought to increaſe the product, by their labour, for all thoſe chriſtian nations.

As the product of the country would thus be increaſed, and multitudes of people, encouraged by the advantages of the place, to go over and ſettle upon it, the manufactures and merchandizes of Europe would ſoon find a great additional conſumption, and the many new ports and harbours, where thoſe chriſtian nations might ſettle, would be ſo many new markets for the ſale of thoſe manufactures, where they had little or no ſale or conſumption before: and the finding out new markets for the ſale or vent of merchandize, where there were none for thoſe goods before, is the great principle whereon to found the general advancement of commerce.

It may be ſaid, indeed, that to vend our goods at new, or different ports only, may be no increaſe of commerce; or to ſend them to new and different places, becauſe they may ſtill be ſent from thence to the ſame people, and to the ſame nations as the laſt conſumers, who conſumed them before.

Thus ſending our Engliſh manufactures to Jamaica, to be ſold there by the ſloop-trade; that is, by clandeſtine commerce with the Spaniſh ſmugglers, or to the Spaniards of Carthagena, and the coaſt of Caraccas, is no new conſumption, though it be a new market; becauſe it is only ſelling to the ſame people, who would otherwiſe call for the ſame manufacture, and other goods from Old Spain, and they from England; ſo that it is as water iſſuing out of the ſame fountain, and running into the ſame gulph or pond, only by new channels.

Thus likewiſe the Eaſt-India company ſending Engliſh broad cloth to the gulph of Perſia, to be ſent from thence to Iſpahan, to Georgia, and other places in that country, to be ſold to the Perſians, and others, as the laſt conſumers, is only ſupplying the ſame people, who were ſupplied before, with the ſame goods from Aleppo and Scanderoon; ſo that it is only taking the trade from the Turkey company, and transferring it to the Eaſt-India company, which is no increaſe of commerce, the laſt conſumers being the ſame.

But this would not prove the caſe of the Barbary trade: it is true, we have ſome trade there now, and ſome places might, in ſome reſpects, be called the ſame markets: but, ſuppoſe theſe barbarians to be removed as above, from the populous cities and provinces of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoly, &c. and driven up the country, in order to ſuppreſs piracy and robbers; and ſuppoſe thoſe cities, &c. peopled with a new nation, or new nations made rich by commerce, and the country adjacent cultivated and peopled after the manner of Europe, and thoſe people living, cloathing, furniſhing their houſes and equipages, and feeding after the manner of Chriſtian nations, let it be anſwered, what kind of commerce would there be then? Would it not be twenty times what it is at preſent? Beſides, would not the ſucceſs hereof be delivering Europe from the depredations of powerful thieves, and their commerce and navigation from the rapine of a mercileſs crew, who are the ruin of thouſands of families, and in ſome ſenſe the reproach of Chriſtendom. The propoſal is great, but far from impracticable: it is worthy being undertaken by the princes and powers of Europe, and what would bring infinitely more glory to the Chriſtian name, than all their inteſtine wars among each other; which are the ſcandal of Europe, and the only thing that at firſt let in the Turks, and other barbarians among them. See ALGIERS, TUNIS, TRIPOLY.

MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTAITY.]

Under the articles ANNUITIES, LEASES, INTEREST, LIVES, we have conſidered the doctrine of annuities, according to the principles and computations of the learned Dr. Halley, De Moivre, Lee, &c. and others, who have treated the moſt judiciouſly on this ſubject. But, as the ingenious Mr. Simpſon ſince their time, has conſidered this matter in another light, we think it neceſſary to add his ſentiments alſo to what

we

we have already ſaid; all which together, will comprehend in miniature, the ſubſtance of what has been communicated upon this head.

The value of an annuity for life, ſays he, depends upon the intereſt which money bears, and the probability of the life continuing a longer or ſhorter time; the former of which is generally ſettled by law, but the latter muſt be determined from obſervation.

Of all that has been hitherto offered for eſtimating the probability of the duration of life, nothing ſeems deduced with greater judgment and exactneſs, than the tables publiſhed by Dr. Halley and Mr. Smart for this purpoſe; which nevertheleſs, are both liable to ſeveral objections.

The doctor's table, being grounded on obſervations at Breſlau, a place where the generality of people live to a greater age than at London, (as appears by comparing the bills of mortality here with thoſe obſervations) can be no juſt meaſure of the probability of life in this place; and as to that of Mr. Smart, though it is indeed free from this objection, and founded on a very large number of obſervations, yet the great and continual afflux of people from all parts up to town, renders the deductions from thoſe obſervations conſiderably different, in one part of life, from what they would otherwiſe be; and this Mr. Smart ſeems not, in his table, to have conſidered, or made any allowance for.

For theſe reaſons, though I had determined to depend on, and make uſe of, this laſt gentleman's obſervations, in the enſuing pages (as, undoubtedly, the beſt for the city of London and parts adjacent); yet have I deemed it neceſſary to make ſome alterations, in the table of the probability of life from thence derived.

In doing this, I have ſuppoſed the number of perſons coming to live in town after 25 years of age, to be inconſiderable, with reſpect to the whole number of inhabitants: and therefore the probabilities of life, for all ages above 25 years, the ſame as this author has made them; but they have increaſed the numbers of the living, correſponding to all ages below 25; ſo that they may, as near as poſſible, be in the ſame proportion one to another, as they would be, were they to be deduced from obſervations on the mortality of thoſe perſons only, that are born within the bills. Which was done, by comparing together the number of chriſtenings and burials, and obſerving, by help of Dr. Halley's table, the proportion which there is between the degrees of mortality at London and Breſlau, in the other parts of life, where the ages are greater than 25. I ſhall here ſubjoin the table, altered as above, then proceed immediately to the uſes thereof.

A TABLE, ſhewing the probabilities of LIFE, from obſervations.

Note, The numbers marked * are ſuppoſed to die off yearly, and are what, in the ſucceeding pages, are called the decrements of life.

No. of Ages perſons curr.	No. of Ages perſons curr.	No. of Ages perſons curr.	No. of Ages perſons curr.
1280 born	462——20	294——40	130——60
410 *	7 *	10 *	7 *
870—— 1	455——21	284——41	123——61
170 *	7 *	10 *	6 *
700—— 2	448——22	274——42	117——62
65 *	7 *	10 *	6 *
635—— 3	441——23	264——43	111——63
35 *	7 *	9 *	6 *
600—— 4	434——24	255——44	105——64
20 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
580—— 5	426——25	246——45	99——65
16 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
564—— 6	418——26	237——46	93——66
13 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
551—— 7	410——27	228——47	87——67
10 *	8 *	8 *	6 *
541—— 8	402——28	220——48	81——68
9 *	8 *	8 *	6 *
532—— 9	394——29	212——49	75——69
8 *	9 *	8 *	6 *
524——10	385——30	204——50	69——70
7 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
517——11	376——31	196——51	64——71
7 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
510——12	367——32	188——52	59——72
6 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
504——13	358——33	180——53	54——73
6 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
498——14	349——34	172——54	49——74
6 *	9 *	7 *	4 *
492——15	340——35	165——55	45——75
6 *	9 *	7 *	4 *
486——16	331——36	158——56	41——76
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
480——17	322——37	151——57	38——77
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
474——18	313——38	144——58	35——78
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
468——19	304——39	137——59	32——79
6 *	10 *	7 *	3 *
462——20	294——40	130——60	29——80

Now, in order to ſhew the uſe of the foregoing table by an example, let it be required to find the probability, that a perſon of 36, lives 30 years longer, or attains to the age of 66 years; look in the table againſt 36 years and 66 years, and correſponding thereto, you will find the numbers 331 and 93 reſpectively; ſhewing, that out of 331 perſons living of 36 years of age, only 93 of them arrive to the age of 66: therefore, ſeeing the whole number of perſons living at the beginning of this term, is to the number remaining alive at the end of it, in the ratio of 331 to 93; the number of chances that a perſon of 36 years of age has to live 30 years longer, will be to the number of all the chances, that he has both to live beyond, and die within 30 years, in the ſame ratio of 331 to 93; and therefore $\frac{93}{424}$ is the meaſure of the probability required; the probability of the happening of any event, being always to be conſidered as the ratio of the chances which that event has to happen, to all the chances which it has both to happen and fail.

This being underſtood, ſuppoſe it were now required to find the value of an annuity of 100 l. for a life of 20 years of age, intereſt at 4 per cent.

Becauſe the preſent value of 100 l. due at the end of one year (diſcount being allowed) is 96,15, it is plain, that ſo much would be the value of the firſt year's rent, was the purchaſer ſure to receive it; but the probability of his living one year, appearing from the table to be only $\frac{455}{462}$, the aforeſaid ſum 96,15, in order to make a juſt deduction out of it, for the contingency of his dying before the end of one year, ought to be diminiſhed in the ratio of 462 to 455, or multiplied by $\frac{455}{462}$, which will reduce it to 94,70, equal to the true value of the firſt year's rent. After the ſame manner may the value of the ſecond year's rent be calculated; for, ſince the probability of receiving this rent, or living two years is $\frac{448}{462}$, let this be multiplied into 92,45, the preſent value of 100 l. to be received at the end of two years, and the product 89,65, will be the true value of the ſecond year's rent. And, by a like way of proceeding, the value of the 3d, 4th, 5th &c. years rents, to the utmoſt extent of life, may be determined; and the ſum of all theſe will be the required value of the annuity, which will be found to come out 1480 l. very near.

TABLE I.

For the valuation of annuities upon one life.

Age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent	Years purch. at 3 per cent
6	14.1	16.2	18.8	41	10.2	11.4	13.0
7	14.2	16.3	18.9	42	10.1	11.2	12.8
8	14.3	16.4	19.0	43	10.0	11.1	12.6
9	14.3	16.4	19.0	44	9.9	11.0	12.5
10	14.3	16.4	19.0	45	9.8	10.8	12.3
11	14.3	16.4	19.0	46	9.7	10.7	12.1
12	14.2	16.3	18.9	47	9.7	10.5	11.9
13	14.1	16.2	18.7	48	9.4	10.4	11.8
14	14.0	16.0	18.5	49	9.3	10.2	11.6
15	13.9	15.8	18.3	50	9.2	10.1	11.4
16	13.7	15.6	18.1	51	9.0	9.9	11.2
17	13.5	15.4	17.9	52	8.9	9.8	11.0
18	13.4	15.2	17.6	53	8.8	9.6	10.7
19	13.2	15.0	17.4	54	8.6	9.4	10.5
20	13.0	14.8	17.2	55	8.5	9.3	10.3
21	12.9	14.7	17.0	56	8.4	9.1	10.1
22	12.7	14.5	16.8	57	8.2	8.9	9.9
23	12.6	14.3	16.5	58	8.1	8.7	9.6
24	12.4	14.1	16.3	59	8.0	8.6	9.4
25	12.3	14.0	16.1	60	7.9	8.4	9.2
26	12.1	13.8	15.9	61	7.7	8.2	8.9
27	12.0	13.6	15.6	62	7.6	8.1	8.7
28	11.8	13.4	15.4	63	7.4	7.9	8.5
29	11.7	13.2	15.2	64	7.3	7.7	8.3
30	11.6	13.1	15.0	65	7.1	7.5	8.0
31	11.4	12.9	14.8	66	6.9	7.3	7.8
32	11.3	12.7	14.6	67	6.7	7.1	7.6
33	11.2	12.6	14.4	68	6.6	6.9	7.4
34	11.0	12.4	14.2	69	6.4	6.7	7.1
35	10.9	12.3	14.1	70	6.2	6.5	6.9
36	10.8	12.1	13.9	71	6.0	6.3	6.7
37	10.6	11.9	13.7	72	5.8	6.1	6.5
38	10.5	11.8	13.5	73	5.6	5.9	6.2
39	10.4	18.6	13.3	74	5.4	5.6	5.9
40	10.3	11.5	13.2	75	5.2	5.4	5.6

TABLE II.

For the valuation of annuities upon two joint lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	11.3	12.7	14.4	41	7.2	8.0	8.9
7	11.5	12.9	14.6	42	7.1	7.8	8.7
8	11.6	13.0	14.7	43	7.0	7.7	8.6
9	11.6	13.0	14.7	44	6.9	7.6	8.5
10	11.6	13.0	14.7	45	6.7	7.4	8.3
11	11.5	12.9	14.6	46	6.6	7.3	8.2
12	11.4	12.8	14.5	47	6.5	7.2	8.1
13	11.3	12.7	14.3	48	6.4	7.1	7.9
14	11.2	12.5	14.1	49	6.3	7.0	7.8
15	11.0	12.3	13.9	50	6.2	6.8	7.6
16	10.8	12.1	13.7	51	6.1	6.7	7.4
17	10.7	11.9	13.5	52	6.0	6.6	7.3
18	10.5	11.7	13.2	53	5.9	6.5	7.2
19	10.3	11.5	13.0	54	5.8	6.3	7.0
20	10.1	11.3	12.8	55	5.7	6.2	6.9
21	10.0	11.2	12.6	56	5.6	6.1	6.7
22	9.8	11.0	12.4	57	5.5	6.0	6.6
23	9.7	10.8	12.2	58	5.4	5.8	6.4
24	9.5	10.6	12.0	59	5.3	5.7	6.3
25	9.4	10.5	11.8	60	5.2	5.6	6.1
26	9.2	10.3	11.6	61	5.1	5.5	6.0
27	9.1	10.1	11.4	62	5.0	5.4	5.9
28	8.9	9.9	11.2	63	4.9	5.3	5.7
29	8.8	9.8	11.0	64	4.8	5.1	5.5
30	8.6	9.6	10.8	65	4.7	5.0	5.4
31	8.5	9.4	10.6	66	4.6	4.9	5.3
32	8.3	9.2	10.4	67	4.5	4.8	5.1
33	8.2	9.1	10.2	68	4.4	4.6	4.9
34	8.1	8.9	10.0	69	4.3	4.5	4.8
35	8.0	8.8	9.9	70	4.2	4.4	4.6
36	7.8	8.6	9.7	71	4.1	4.3	4.5
37	7.6	8.4	9.5	72	3.9	4.1	4.3
38	7.5	8.3	9.3	73	3.8	4.0	4.2
39	7.4	8.2	9.2	74	3.7	3.8	4.0
40	7.3	8.1	9.1	75	3.6	3.7	3.8

TABLE III.

For the valuation of annuities upon the longeft of two lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	16.9	19.7	23.3	41	13.2	14.9	17.0
7	17.0	19.8	23.4	42	13.1	14.7	16.8
8	17.1	19.9	23.5	43	13.0	14.5	16.5
9	17.1	19.9	23.5	44	12.9	14.3	16.3
10	17.1	19.9	23.5	45	12.8	14.2	16.1
11	17.1	19.9	23.5	46	12.6	14.0	15.8
12	17.0	19.8	23.4	47	12.5	13.8	15.6
13	16.9	19.7	23.3	48	12.4	13.6	15.3
14	16.7	19.5	23.1	49	12.2	13.4	15.1
15	16.6	19.3	22.9	50	12.1	13.3	14.9
16	16.4	19.1	22.6	51	11.9	13.1	14.6
17	16.2	18.9	22.4	52	11.8	12.9	14.4
18	16.1	18.7	22.1	53	11.6	12.7	14.1
19	15.9	18.5	21.9	54	11.5	12.5	13.9
20	15.7	18.3	21.6	55	11.3	12.3	13.6
21	15.6	18.2	21.3	56	11.2	12.1	13.4
22	15.4	18.0	21.1	57	11.0	11.9	13.1
23	15.3	17.8	20.8	58	10.9	11.7	12.8
24	15.1	17.6	20.6	59	10.7	11.5	12.5
25	15.0	17.4	20.3	60	10.5	11.2	12.2
26	14.9	17.3	20.1	61	10.3	11.0	12.0
27	14.7	17.1	19.9	62	10.1	10.8	11.7
28	14.6	16.9	19.7	63	9.9	10.5	11.4
29	14.5	16.8	19.5	64	9.7	10.3	11.1
30	14.4	16.6	19.3	65	9.4	10.0	10.8
31	14.2	16.4	19.1	66	9.2	9.7	10.5
32	14.1	16.2	18.9	67	8.9	9.4	10.2
33	14.0	16.1	18.7	68	8.7	9.2	9.9
34	13.9	15.9	18.5	69	8.5	8.9	9.5
35	13.8	15.8	18.3	70	8.2	8.6	9.2
36	13.7	15.6	18.1	71	8.0	8.4	8.9
37	13.6	15.5	17.9	72	7.7	8.1	8.6
38	13.5	15.3	17.7	73	7.5	7.8	8.2
39	13.4	15.2	17.5	74	7.2	7.5	7.9
40	13.3	15.0	17.3	75	6.9	7.2	7.6

TABLE IV.

For the valuation of annuities upon three joint lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cen.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	9 7	10.6	11.7	41	5.5	6.1	6.8
7	9.9	10.8	11.9	42	5.4	6 0	6.7
8	10.0	10.9	12.0	43	5.4	5.9	6.5
9	10.0	10 9	12.0	44	5.3	5.8	6.4
10	10.0	10.9	12.0	45	5.2	5.7	6.3
11	9.9	10.8	11.9	46	5.1	5.6	6.2
12	9.8	10.7	11.8	47	5.0	5.5	6.1
13	9.6	10.5	11.6	48	5.0	5.4	5.9
14	9.5	10.4	11.4	49	4.9	5 3	5.8
15	9.3	10.2	11.2	50	4.8	5.2	5.7
16	9.2	10.0	11.0	51	4.7	5.1	5.6
17	9.0	9.8	10.8	52	4.7	5 1	5.5
18	8 8	9.6	10.6	53	4 6	5.0	5.4
19	8.5	9.4	10 4	54	4.5	4.9	5.3
20	8.4	9:2	10.2	55	4.4	4.8	5.2
21	8.2	9 0	10.0	56	4.4	4 7	5.1
22	8.1	8.9	9.8	57	4.3	4.6	5.0
23	7.9	8.7	9.6	58	4.2	4.5	4.9
24	7.7	8.5	9.4	59	4.1	4.4	4.8
25	7.6	8.3	9.2	60	4.0	4.3	4.6
26	7.4	8.1	9.0	61	3.9	4.2	4.5
27	7.3	8.0	8.8	62	3.8	4.1	4.4
28	7.1	7.8	8.6	63	3.7	4.0	4.3
29	7.0	7.7	8.5	64	3.7	3 9	4.2
30	6.8	7.5	8.3	65	3 6	3.8	4.1
31	6.7	7 4	8.2	66	3 5	3 7	3 9
32	6.5	7.2	8.0	67	3.4	3.6	3.8
33	6.4	7.1	7.9	68	3.3	3.5	3.7
34	6.2	6.9	7.7	69	3.2	3 4	3.6
35	6.1	6.8	7.6	70	3.1	3.2	3.4
36	6.0	6.7	7.4	71	3.0	3.1	3 3
37	5.9	6.5	7.2	72	2.9	3.0	3.1
38	5.8	6.4	7.1	73	2.8	2.9	3.0
39	5.7	6.3	7.0	74	2.6	2.7	2.8
40	5.6	6.2	6.9	75	2.5	2.6	2.7

TABLE V.

For the valuation of annuities upon the longeft of three lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	18.0	21.0	25.0	41	14.6	16.4	18.9
7	18.1	21.1	25.1	42	14.5	16.3	18.7
8	18.2	21.2	25.2	43	14.4	16.2	18.5
9	18.2	21.2	25.2	44	14.3	16.0	18.2
10	18.2	21.2	25.2	45	14.2	15.9	18.0
11	18.2	21.2	25.2	46	14.1	15.7	17.7
12	18.1	21.1	25.1	47	13.9	15.5	17.5
13	18.0	21.0	25.0	48	13.8	15.3	17.2
14	17.9	20.9	24.8	49	13.7	15.1	17.0
15	17.8	20.7	24.6	50	13.5	14.9	16.7
16	17.6	20.5	24.3	51	13.4	14.7	16.5
17	17.5	20.3	24.1	52	13.2	14.5	16.2
18	17.3	20.1	23.8	53	13.1	14.3	15.9
19	17.2	19.9	23.5	54	12.9	14.1	15.7
20	17.0	19 7	23.3	55	12.8	13 9	15.4
21	16.9	19.5	23.1	56	12.6	13.7	15.1
22	16.8	19.4	22.8	27	12.5	13.5	14.8
23	16.6	19.2	22 6	58	12.3	13.2	14.5
24	16.5	19.0	22.3	59	12.1	12.9	14.1
25	16.4	18.8	22.1	60	11.9	12.7	13.8
26	16.3	18.7	21.9	61	11.7	12.5	13.5
27	16.1	18.5	21.6	62	11.5	12.2	13.1
28	16.0	18 3	21.4	63	11.3	11.9	12.8
29	15.9	18.2	21.2	64	11.0	11.6	12.5
30	15.8	18.0	21.0	65	10 8	11.4	12.2
31	15.6	17.8	20.8	66	10.5	11.1	11.8
32	15.5	17.7	20.6	67	10.2	10.8	11.5
33	15.4	17.6	20.4	68	9.9	10.5	11.2
34	15.3	17.4	20.2	69	9.6	10.2	10.9
35	15.2	17.3	20.0	70	9.3	9 9	10.5
36	15.1	17.2	19.9	71	9.0	9.6	10.2
37	15.0	17.0	19.7	72	8.7	9.2	9 8
38	14.9	16.9	19.5	73	8.4	8.9	9 5
39	14.8	16.7	19.3	74	8.1	8.6	9.1
40	14.7	16.6	19.1	75	7.8	8.2	8 7

Here follow the practical folutions of feveral problems, depending on the foregoing tables.

Problem VIII.

To find the value of an annuity for an aſſigned life.

Solution.

Look out the given age in Tab. I. and againſt it, towards the right-hand, under the propoſed rate of intereſt, will ſtand the number of years purchaſe, which an annuity upon that life is worth.

Example.

Let the given age be 18 years, and the rate of intereſt 4 per cent. then looking againſt 18, under 4 per cent. I find 15.2, equal the number of years purchaſe required.

Problem IX.

To find the value of an annuity upon two aſſigned joint lives.

Solution.

Case I.

If the two lives be equal, ſee Tab. II. with the common age, and againſt it you will have the value required.

Case II.

If the given ages be unequal, but neither of them leſs than 25, nor greater than 50 years, take half the ſum of the two for a mean age, and proceed as in Caſe I. *

* This and the following ſolutions are ſo contrived, as to be always depended on to leſs than $\frac{1}{4}$ of a year's purchaſe.

Case III.

If one or both ages be without the limits above-mentioned, but ſo that the difference of the values correſponding to thoſe ages, be not more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the leſſer; let $\frac{4}{10}$ of that difference be added to the ſaid leſſer value, and the ſum will be the value ſought.
Generally, be the difference of the values what it will, multiply it by $\frac{1}{2}$ the leſſer of the two values, dividing the product by the greater; then the quotient, added to the leſſer value, will give the true anſwer very near.

Example of Case I.

Let the two given ages be each 18, and intereſt at 5 per cent. then in Tab. II. againſt 18, under 5 per cent. is 10.5 years purchaſe.

Example of Case II.

In which the rate of intereſt is ſuppoſed as above, and one of the two ages 34, the other 48, therefore the half ſum of the age is 42, againſt which ſtands 7.1.

Example of Case III.

Where one age is ſuppoſed to be 15 years, the other 29; here againſt 15 years will be found 11.0, and againſt 29, 8.8, the difference of which two values is 2.2, and $\frac{4}{10}$ thereof, equal to 0.88; this therefore, added to 8.8, gives 9.68, or 9.7, for the anſwer.

Example of Case IV.

Let the rate of intereſt be 4 per cent. and one age 11 years, the other 68. The values correſponding to theſe ages, are 12.9 and 4.6, their difference is 8.3, which multiplied by 2.3, will be 19.09, this divided by 12.9, quotes 1.5, which therefore, added to 4.6, the leſſer value, gives 6.1, equal the value ſought.

Problem X.

To find the value of an annuity upon two lives, that is to continue as long as either of them is in being.

Solution.

Case I.

If the lives be equal, find the given age in Tab. III. and againſt it, under the propoſed rate of intereſt, will be the number of years purchaſe required.

Case II.

If both ages be between 25 and 50, take half their ſum for a mean age, and proceed as in Caſe I.

Case III.

If one or both ages be without the limits mentioned in the laſt caſe, but the difference of values correſponding to thoſe ages, as found in Tab. III. be not more than $\frac{1}{6}$ part of the leſſer, take half the ſum of thoſe values for the value required.
Generally, let the given ages be what they will, find the value of the two joint lives by Caſe IV. Prob. IX. which ſubtract from the ſum of the values of the two ſingle lives, and there will remain the required value of an annuity upon the longeſt life.

Example of Case I.

Wherein the two given ages are each ſuppoſed 50 years, and the rate of intereſt 4 per cent. Here againſt 50 years, in Tab. III. under 4 per cent. ſtands 13.3, ſhewing the number of years purchaſe which an annuity is worth for two ſuch lives.

Example of Case II.

Suppoſe one age 30 years, and the other 46, then the half ſum of the ages will be 38, anſwering to which, under 4 per cent. ſtands 15.3.

Example of Case III.

Let the two propoſed ages be 6 and 21 years; then againſt 6 years will be 19.7, and, againſt 21, 18.2, the half ſum whereof is 18.95, equal to the number of years purchaſe required.

Example of Case IV.

Let one age be 11 years, the other 68, and the rate of intereſt as in the preceding examples; then the value of the two joint lives, by Caſe IV. of the laſt problem, will be found 6.1, and the values of the ſingle lives, by Problem VIII. equal to 16.3, and 6.7, the ſum of which two, decreaſed by 6.1, is 16.9, equal to the value required.

Problem XI.

To find the value of an annuity upon three joint lives.

Solution.

Case I.

If all the lives be equal, find out the given age in Tab. IV. and againſt it, under the propoſed rate of intereſt, will be the number of years purchaſe required.

Case II.

If all the three ages be between 15 and 55 years, and the difference between the greateſt and leaſt of them not more than 15 years, take $\frac{1}{3}$ part of their ſum for the mean age, and proceed as in Caſe I.

Case III.

If one or more of the propoſed ages be without the limits mentioned in the laſt article, but the difference of the values anſwering to the greateſt and leaſt of them, not greater than half the leaſt; then to the ſum of the two greater values add twice the leaſt, and take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the ſum for a mean value required.
Generally, be the ages what they will, multiply the ſum of the three correſponding values by the ſquare of the leaſt of them, reſerving the product; multiply the two greater values into each other, and to the double of the product add the ſquare of the leſſer values; divide the reſerved product by this ſum, and ſubtract the quotient from twice the leſſer value; the reſult will be the value ſought.

Example of Case I.

Let each age be 35, and the rate of intereſt 3 per cent. then in Tab. IV. againſt 35, under 3 per cent. ſtands 7.6, which is the number of years purchaſe that an annuity is worth for the three joint lives.

Example of Case II.

Let the three given ages be 20, 25, and 33 years. Here $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ages will be 26, correſponding to which, under 3 per cent. ſtands 9.0.

Example of Case III.

Where the propoſed ages are 7, 15, and 33 years; againſt theſe ſtand 11.9, 11.2, and 7.9, therefore the ſum of the two greater values is here, 23.1; this added to twice the leſſer, gives 38.9, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of which, or 9.725, is the value ſought.

Example of Case IV.

Let the three ages be 13, 31 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 53 years, and intereſt 4 per cent. then the values anſwering to thoſe ages will be 10.5, 7.3, and 5.0; the ſum whereof is 22.8, which multiplied by 25, the ſquare of the leaſt of them, gives 570, to be reſerved. Again, the two greateſt values multiplied into each other, produce 76.65, the double of this added to 25, the ſquare of the leaſt, will be 178.3, by which dividing 570, the reſerved product,

product, there comes out 3.2; this subtracted from 10, the double of the leaſt value, leaves 6.8 for the value required.

Problem XII.

To find the value of an annuity upon the longeſt of three lives.

Solution.

Case I.

If the lives be all equal, ſeek the common age in Tab. V. and againſt it, under the propoſed rate of intereſt, will be the number of years purchaſe required.

Case II.

If none of the ages be leſs than 10, nor greater than 60 years, and the difference between the greateſt and leaſt of them not more than 15 years, to twice the ſum of the two leaſt add the greateſt, and take $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the ſum as a mean age.

Case III.

If the difference of the greateſt and leaſt values, found againſt the propoſed ages in Tab. V. be not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the leaſt, then, to twice the ſum of the two greateſt values, add the leaſt, taking $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the ſum for a mean value.

Generally, find the value anſwering to the greateſt of the given ages in Tab. III. and the values correſponding to all the three ſeveral ages in Tab. V. and let the difference of the two values, anſwering to the greateſt age, be taken and reſerved; let the ſquare of the greater of theſe two be divided by the product of the two other remaining values; multiply the ſquare of the quotient by the reſerved difference, then this laſt product, added to the value of an annuity for the two youngeſt lives, will be the value required.

Example of Case I.

Let the three ages be each 35 years, and intereſt 4 per cent. then in Tab. V. againſt 35, under 4 per cent. ſtands 17.3, for the number of years purchaſe required.

Example of Case II.

Let the propoſed ages be 16, 24, and 30 years, then will the mean age be 22 years, and the number of years purchaſe required 19 4.

Example of Case III.

Suppoſe the three ages to be 28, 35, and 44, then the three correſponding values will be 18.3, 17.3, and 16 0, and therefore twice the ſum of the two greater added to the leſſer, is 87.2, which divided by 5, quotes 17.44 for the anſwer.

Example of Case IV.

Let the given ages be 20, 36, and 60; and intereſt as in the preceding examples: here, the value found againſt 60 years in Tab. III. is 11.2, and thoſe againſt 20, 36, and 60, in Tab. V. 19 7, 17.2, and 12.7, reſpectively; wherefore, taking 11.2 from 12 7, we have 1.5 for the difference to be reſerved: now the ſquare of 12.7, divided by the product of 19.7, and 17.2 is 0.5, the ſquare of which, multiplied by 1.5, the reſerved difference gives 0.375; this added to 17.0, the value of an annuity for the two youngeſt lives (as determined by Caſe II. Prob. X.) will give 17.375, or 17.4, for the number of years purchaſe, which an annuity is worth upon all the three lives.

Remark.

That the reader may not entertain any ſcruple concerning the exactneſs of the methods of ſolution hitherto laid down, for eſtimating the values of annuities upon two or more unequal lives, I ſhall here, according to my promiſe, endeavour to make it appear, that thoſe ſolutions may be always depended on as very near the truth. In order to this it will be requiſite to reſume the two hypotheſes laid down in Corol. II. and IV. Prob. I. wherein the probabilities of life are ſuppoſed in a geometrieal and in an arithmetical progreſſion, and to compare the values of equal fictitious lives, computed according to thoſe hypotheſes, with the correſponding values in the tables, for real lives, computed from actual obſervations, and then to conſider from thence, how the values ought to differ in lives that are unequal. Accordingly, let the value of each of the equal lives, whether conſidered as real or fictitious, be ſuppoſed equal to any number of years purchaſe, as 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 ſucceſſively; and let the rate of intereſt be at 4 per cent. then will the correſponding value of two equal joint lives be as in the following little table; whereof the firſt column expreſſes the value of each of the ſingle lives, and the ſecond, third, and fourth columns, the value of the joint lives, according to obſervations, and the two foreſaid hypotheſes reſpectively.

Value of one ſingle life.	Value of two joint lives, per Tab.	Value of two joint lives, per 1ſt hypot.	Value of two joint lives, per 2d hypot.
7	4.7	3.9	4.9
8	5.4	4.6	5.6
9	6.1	5.3	6.4
10	6.8	6.1	7.1
11	7.6	6.9	7.9
12	8.5	7.8	8.8
13	9.5	8.7	9.7
14	10.5	9.7	10.6
15	11.5	10.6	11.6

Now, by inſpecting this table, we may obſerve, firſt, that the value of the joint lives, according to the laſt of the two hypotheſes, is a ſmall matter greater than the value of the ſame lives, as deduced from real obſervations, but never by more than about $\frac{3}{10}$ of a year's purchaſe; and, ſecondly, that, on the other hand, the value of the joint lives, according to the firſt hypotheſis, is always leſs than the true value deduced from obſervations, and that at leaſt by $\frac{7}{10}$ of a year's purchaſe. Hence we may infer, that the probabilities of life, as given in the table of obſervations, do not come ſo near a geometrie progreſſion as to an arithmetic one (which, in ſome meaſure, appears from the table itſelf) and, conſequently, that the value of an annuity upon real lives, whether equal or unequal, will differ little from the value derived from the laſt hypotheſis, but ſomething more from the former. Let us, therefore, now ſee what the differences will be, in two unequal joint lives, by the general rule before given (in Prob. IX.) from whence we ſhall be enabled to judge of the exactneſs of that rule. What theſe differences are, may be ſeen by the following table, which exhibits the values of the joint lives, according to each of the three foreſaid ways; wherein the value computed by the rule, compared with thoſe derived from the hypotheſes, appears to agree ſo exactly, throughout the whole table, with what has been above obſerved, with reſpect to the true value, as to ſufficiently prove, that the rule itſelf muſt be very near the truth. But if this rule be near the truth, the two particular ones preceding it muſt be ſo too, being ſo contrived as to always bring out nearly the ſame value with the general one; but with this difference, that as the general one, for the moſt part, gives the anſwer a little too ſmall, the firſt of theſe always makes it a little too great, though neither of them ſcarce ever err by more than $\frac{1}{10}$ of a year's purchaſe.

Value of the two ſingle lives.		Value of the two joint lives, per rule.	Value of the two joint lives, per firſt hypoth.	Value of the two joint lives, per ſecond hypoth.
6 and	8	4.5	3.8	4.7
6	10	4.8	4.3	5.0
6	12	5.0	4.6	5.2
6	14	5.2	4.9	5.4
6	16	5.4	5.2	5.5
8	10	6 0	5.3	6.2
8	12	6.4	5.8	6.7
8	14	6.7	6.3	7.0
8	16	6 9	6.7	7.2
10	12	7.5	6.8	7.8
10	14	8.0	7.5	8.3
10	16	8.4	8.1	8.7
12	14	9.3	8.6	9.5
12	16	9.9	9.4	10.1
14	16	11.4	10.6	11.5

In the ſame manner it may be made to appear, that the other rules for three joint lives, and the longeſt of two or three lives, are likewiſe very near the truth; but I ſhall content myſelf here with giving one or two inſtances, in annuities upon three joint lives. Let there be three equal lives, and the value of an annuity upon each of them 14 years purchaſe, and intereſt at 4 per cent. then will the value of the joint lives, by Tab. IV. come out 8.3, but, by the two hypotheſes, 7.3, and 8.5, reſpectively. Again, let the lives be ſuppoſed very unequal, ſo as to be worth 6, 10, and 16 years purchaſe, then will the value of the joint lives be, by the general rule, 4.5, but, according to the hypotheſes, 3.84, and 4.63; which examples, agreeing ſo well with each other, and with what has been aboveſaid, tend greatly to evince the accuracy of the rules, or, at leaſt, to ſhew that they are conſiſtent with the table of obſervations. Simpſon's Annuities upon Lives.

MOSKITO COUNTRY, is ſituated in North America, between 85 and 88 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 13 and

13 and 15 degrees of north latitude; having the North Sea on the north and eaſt; Nicaragua on the ſouth; and Honduras on the weſt; and, indeed, the Spaniards eſteem it a part of the principality of Honduras, though they have no colonies in the Moſkito country. When the Spaniards firſt invaded this part of Mexico, they maſſacred the greateſt part of the natives, which gave thoſe that eſcaped into the inacceſſible part of the country an inſuperable averſion to them; and they have always appeared ready to join any Europeans that come upon their coaſts, againſt the Spaniards, and particularly the Engliſh, who frequently come hither, and the Moſkitonien being excellent marksmen, the Engliſh employ them in ſtriking the maratee fiſh, &c. and many of the Moſkito Indians come to Jamaica, and ſail with the Engliſh in their voyages.

REMARKS.

Theſe people are ſo ſituate between moraſſes and inacceſſible mountains, and a coaſt full of rocks and ſhoals, that no attempts againſt them by the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, could ever ſucceed. Nevertheleſs they are a mild inoffenſive people, of great morality and virtue, and will never truſt a man who has once deceived them. They have ſo great a veneration towards the Engliſh, that they have ſpontaneouſly put themſelves and their lands under the protection and dominion of the crown of England. This was firſt done when the duke of Albemarle was governor of Jamaica, and the king of the Moſkitoes received a commiſſion from his grace, under the ſeal of that iſland; ſince which time, they have not only been ſteady in their alliance with the Engliſh, but warm in their affections, and very uſeful to them on many occaſions.

When their king dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, to certify that he is next in blood, and receives a commiſſion in form from the governor of Jamaica to be king of the Moſkitoes, 'till which he is not acknowleged as ſuch by his countrymen. So fond are theſe people of every thing that is Engliſh, that the common people are proud of every chriſtian or ſurname given them by our ſeamen, who honour their chief men with the titles of ſome of our nobility.

Quere, Might not ſome valuable ſettlements be made by the Engliſh among theſe people, that would produce logwood and other dyeing woods, and many valuable commodities beſides? See the article LOGWOOD.

MUNSTER, in Ireland. This province lies open to the Vergivian Sea on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and the Atlantic on the weſt; and is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt with the Ocean and province of Leinſter; and, on the north, with the province of Connaught: it's circumference, including the great windings and turnings, is above 600 miles.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays and havens, and rich towns, and the ſoil, in general, fruitful. It's commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fiſh; of which laſt it abounds with all ſorts, eſpecially herrings and cod.

It is divided into the five counties following, viz.

I. WATERFORD county, which has Wexford on the eaſt; Cork on the weſt; the ocean on the ſouth; and the river Shure on the north, by which it is parted from Kilkenny and Tipperary. In ſome parts it is pleaſant and fruitful, but moſtly mountainous, and of a barren coarſe ſoil.

WATERFORD is as conveniently ſeated for trade as any port in the world; it has a good harbour, and ſhips of burthen come up cloſe to it's fine key, though it is a good diſtance from the ſea, Gallway contends with this city for priority, and claims the preference as to trade; though, as Waterford outdoes it in bulk and people, ſo it is thought it does in commerce; particularly Waterford drives a very great trade with England, which Gallway cannot have, by reaſon of it's ſituation.

DUNGARVAN ſtands upon a bay of it's own name, with a narrow tide haven, and a commodious road for ſhips; but it is a town of no conſequence, and of little buſineſs.

TALLAGH is a handſome flouriſhing town, in a fine fruitful vale, near the river Bride, which being navigable from hence to Youghal, renders this a place of good trade.

II. The county of CORK, has Waterford on the eaſt; Kerry on the weſt; Limeric on the north; and the Vergivian Ocean on the ſouth. It is partly woody and mountainous, and partly fenny, yet has many good towns, abounds in fine rivers and good harbours, is both rich and populous, and the inhabitants induſtrious. A copper mine was lately diſcovered near Cork, which is likely to turn to very good account.

The firſt conſiderable ſea port, next to Waterford, is YOUGHAL, or YOUGHIL, a place of good trade, at the mouth of the Broadwater. The convenience of the harbour, which has a good well-fenced key, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draws ſo many merchants hither, that the town is pretty populous and rich.

CORK is a fine, large, populous, and wealthy city, being thought the richeſt in Ireland except Dublin. The town ſtands up the river, about 15 miles from the ſea, where the mouth of the harbour is two miles broad. The great ſhips generally ride at a place called Paſſage, about ſix miles below the city; but ſmaller veſſels come quite up to the key. It is the chief port for merchants buſineſs in the kingdom; and there is more beef, butter, and tallow ſhipped off here, perhaps, than in all the other ports put together, as well for our own colonies as for France, and the butter for Flanders and Holland in particular. This occaſions a great reſort of ſhips always to this port, particularly thoſe bound to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Iſlands, which put in here to complete their lading.

KINSALE is a populous and rich town, in a fruitful ſoil, near the mouth of the river Bann, or Bandon, with a trade the moſt conſiderable of any on this ſide of the iſland, next to Cork. Many good ſhips belong to it, and a great quantity of proviſions is exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the Engliſh iſlands in the Weſt-Indies. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay without it.

DOWNHAM's BAY, ſo called from a neighbouring village, is a large and commodious retreat for ſhips in a ſtorm, and lies on the north ſide of the Miſſen-Head.

III. The county of KERRY, has that of Cork on the ſouth and eaſt; Limeric on the north; and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt.

TRAILEY is a thriving corporation, and the ſhire-town; it ſtands on a bay of the ſame name.

DINGLE has a good harbour, very convenient for trade; the bay near it is one of the largeſt in Ireland, and has ſeveral harbours.

MAIR, or KILMARE river, is a bay on the ſouth-eaſt corner of the county, which is a ſafe harbour for the greateſt ſhips.

KILLARNY is a thriving pretty market-town, near which is a conſiderable lead mine.

IV. The county of LIMERIC has Tipperary on the eaſt; Cork on the ſouth; part of Tipperary on the north; and Kerry on the weſt. It is fruitful in all ſorts of corn and rape, has a large breed of cattle, and is well inhabited, but has few remarkable towns.

The city of LIMERIC ſtands on the Shannon, which is navigable very near to it for ſhips of burthen, though it ſtands almoſt 50 miles within the point called Loupſhead. It is a rich and populous city. Though here are ſome merchants to whom belong ſhips, it is not ſo famous for it's wealth as it's ſtrength. The chief trade it uſed to drive was to France, but a pernicious one to the fair trader, viz. the carrying out wool, and bringing in wine and brandy by ſtealth.

V. The county of TIPPERARY is bounded on the weſt with that of Limeric; on the eaſt with Queen's county and Kilkenny; on the ſouth with thoſe of Cork and Waterford; and, on the north, with King's county. The ſouth part is fruitful, and well inhabited; the weſt is well watered, and both abound in good paſtures, and furniſhed with the greateſt and beſt flocks in Ireland; the north part is barren and mountainous.

CLONMELL is a rich and populous town, with a market of good reſort, on the river Shure.

MUSÆUM, originally ſignified a place in the palace of Alexandria, which took up a fourth part of the city; ſo called, as being deſtined to the Muſes, and the Sciences. Here were lodged, in colleges, a great number of learned men, who were of various ſects, and applied to different ſciences; and each college had a handſome revenue appropriated to it.

The Aſhmolean Muſæum, at Oxford, is a magnificent pile, erected at the expence of the univerſity, for the promotion of ſeveral parts of curious and uſeful knowlege.

The muſæum of the late Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. contains a great variety of the production of nature and art, and has been lately purchaſed by the public, for the benefit of the nation; and, as it may be rendered of no leſs general benefit to trade, than to the advancement of natural knowlege, and experimental philoſophy, our readers may not be diſpleaſed if we give a genuine account of

The NAMES and NUMBERS of the ſeveral things contained in the MUSÆUM of Sir HANS SLOANE, Bart.

The library, including about 347 volumes of drawings and illuminated books, 3516 volumes of manuſcripts, together with the books of prints, conſiſts of about 50,000 volumes.

Medals and coins, antient and modern, about	32,000
Antiquities, viz. urns, inſtruments, &c.	1,125
Seals, &c.	268
Camea's and intaglio's, &c. about	700
Precious ſtones, agates, jaſpers, &c.	2,256
Veſſels, &c. of agates, jaſpers, &c.	542
Cryſtals, ſparrs, &c.	1,864
Foſſils, flints, ſtones, &c.	1,275
Metals, mineral ores, &c.	2,725
Earths, ſands, ſalts, &c.	1,035
Bitumens, ſulphurs, ambers, ambergreeſe, &c.	399
Talcs, micæ, &c.	388
Teſtacea, or ſhells	5,843
Corals, ſponges, &c.	1,421
Echini, echinites, &c.	659
Aſteriæ, trochi, entrochi, &c.	241
Cruſtacea, or crabs, &c.	363
Stellæ marinæ, &c.	173

Fiſhes,

Fiſhes, and their parts - -	1,555
Birds, and their parts; eggs and neſts of different ſpecies, - - -	1,172
Vipers, ſerpents, &c. - - -	521
Quadrupedes, &c. - - -	1,886
Inſects - - - -	5,439
Humana, as calculi, anatomical preparations, &c.	756
Vegetables, as ſeeds, gums, woods, roots, &c.	12,506
Hortus ſiccus, or volumes of dried plants -	334
Miſcellaneous things, natural, &c.	2,098
Pictures and drawings, &c. framed - -	310
Mathematical inſtruments - - -	55

All the above particulars are entered and numbered, with ſhort accounts of them, and references of ſeveral writers who have heretofore wrote about them, in 38 volumes in folio, and eight in quarto.

Remarks.

Nature, and all her wonderful productions, having ever been looked upon by the wiſeſt and beſt men as the great book of God, it becomes a duty incumbent on mankind to read and ſtudy that book, which we are aſſured can never miſlead or deceive, if we are happy enough to underſtand it.

Natural hiſtory deſcribes numberleſs of the productions of nature, which the various parts of the known globe afford; and thoſe who have judiciouſly collected any variety of particulars in the foſſil, vegetable, and animal kingdoms, have contributed to render this divine book [the univerſal ſcripture of the Supreme Being] the more intelligible: and thoſe who have modeſtly ſtudied to underſtand the qualities and uſes of but few of theſe infinite productions, have conſpicuouſly diſcovered the digitus Dei in whatever exiſts throughout the whole creation: and ſuch ſearchers into the works of the Almighty, have not only contributed to give mankind in general more juſt and exalted ideas of the firſt cauſe, but have themſelves generally proved the moſt uſeful, the wiſeſt, and beſt of men, and their great example has influenced numbers to follow it.

So wonderfully numerous are the diſtinct particulars of univerſal nature, that I can hardly think we have yet made any great progreſs in her alphabet; and much leſs do we know, I am afraid, of her ſyllables and ſentences; for, 'till we well underſtand our chriſt-croſs-row, we ſhall not be able to read to any great purpoſe.

What I would be underſtood to mean by the alphabet of nature, is not only the numberleſs diſtinct ſpecificated matters of nature, but the real properties and qualities of ſubjects; for it is not the mere collection of the works of nature, that will afford juſt ideas of their inherent excellencies, and, therefore, we ſhall ever be at a loſs thoroughly to underſtand their uſefulneſs, unleſs we are equally aſſiduous to comprehend the properties of particulars, becauſe, without that, we ſhall always remain ignorant of their general uſes.

The little knowlege we have of this kind ſeems to be included under the two articles of agriculture and medicine; for in thoſe arts there may be ſome ſmall degree of certainty, upon ordinary occaſions; but, if any thing extraordinary happens, how are the wiſeſt baffled and confounded? The greateſt phyſicians confeſs their ignorance in the infallible cure of diſeaſes, the greateſt philoſophers own their inſufficiency to prevent a blight, and thereby preſerve nature's productions againſt natural inclemencies, &c.

If therefore, we could exhibit to one view, on the ſurface of the earth, all ſubterranean productions within her bowels; if we had before us all vegetable nature, from the hyſſop on the wall to the cedar of Lebanon; if the myriads of animals were collected together into one ark: if nature was thus ranged, as it were, in array before us, for contemplation, ſhould we not rather be loſt in aſtoniſhment, at the unſpeakable variety, than be able, by MERE INSPECTION, to judge rightly of the qualities of the ſimpleſt and moſt contemptible matter before us? We might, perhaps, by racking our brains for ages, make ſhift to give names in all languages to a few of thoſe wonders; but what advance would this be to the diſcovery of their general virtues and uſes throughout all nature? We are delighted with the ſight of a diamond of the firſt water and magnitude, and may uſe it as an external ornament; ſo we may be pleaſed with the appearance of gold, which too much captivates us all; but to look upon theſe things in a trafficable light only, and as they are ſubſervient to the mere grandeur of life, is highly undervaluing theſe objects of nature.

It is true, one principal uſe of theſe collections is, the conſideration of their being objects of traffic; but, if their natures and qualities were more ſtudied, as their uſes to mankind would multiply in proportion, the ſame objects would adminiſter an infinite greater variety in point of commerce.

But, notwithſtanding all thoſe collections that have hitherto been made, in all repoſitories both at home and abroad, we have grounds to believe that very much more matter, which has been yet unhandled, may ſtill be brought to light, even in the moſt civil and moſt peopled countries; whoſe underground treaſures have been accurately pried into, whoſe cities, iſlands, rivers, and provinces, have been deſcribed by the labour of geographers: it is not to be doubted, we conceive, but ſtill there may be an infinite number of creatures over our heads, round about us, and under our feet, in the large ſpace of the air, in the caverns of the earth, in the bowels of mountains, in the bottom of ſeas, and in the ſhades of foreſts, which have hitherto eſcaped all mortal ſenſes. In this the microſcope alone is enough to ſilence all oppoſers. Before that was invented, the chief help that was given to the eye by glaſſes was only to ſtrengthen the dim ſight of old age; but now, by the means of that excellent inſtrument, we have a far greater number of different kinds of things revealed to us than were contained in the viſible univerſe before; and even this is ſcarce yet brought to perfection.

As a trading nation, we cannot be too aſſiduous in ſearching after theſe productions of nature, which will afford objects of traffic in any ſhape, or materials for the improvement of the old, or the invention of new manufactures.—But the mere external form of things does not always ſignify to us what properties they may have, and in what variety of caſes they may be importantly, beautifully, and profitably applied.—There is no great matter, therefore, to be learned by theſe productions, by mere inſpection only; and the greateſt repoſitory would prove of little benefit to the community, if it is to be conſidered only as a raree ſhow, or for the virtuoſo to ramble over, and merely to repeat the names of, as if he was really knowing in all the qualities, uſes, and applications of theſe things in nature, which he affects to be ſo familiar with.—The natural hiſtorian, and the collector of nature's works, are very ſerviceable, as they bring the objects of creation to light, which otherwiſe might remain for ever hid from our view.—Wherefore the mere naturaliſt, who ſtudies nature no further than her outſide, is not the moſt uſeful philoſopher; ſuch an one would ſcarce be inſtrumental to the breeding of a lapidary or a ſmith, much leſs to the inventing of new manufactures or new arts, to the advantage or delight of mankind. A Bacon, a Boyle, a Boerhaave, would look upon the objects of nature with a far different eye to what the mere external naturaliſts do; they only burthen their memory with the names of things, and affect to be knowing in them; whereas the others would inform us of the qualities and beneficial applications thereof in all reſpects, and ſhew themſelves to be thoroughly knowing, while the others only pretended to be ſo. Such may dub themſelves with the titles of connoiſſeurs and virtuoſoes, and make great parade of their extraordinary knowlege; but when we enquire of what uſe they have been to ſociety, what valuable diſcoveries they have made in nature to benefit mankind, their talents to the community are far leſs ſerviceable than thoſe of the loweſt mechanic.

What I would infer from hence is, that thoſe repoſitories we have for the productions of nature are made a very mean and a ſcandalous uſe of, if they are maintained with great ſhew and expence, only for the amuſement of the uſeleſs and ſuperficial virtuoſo. However, we have great reaſon to believe that this will not be the caſe of the Sloanean Muſæum, lately purchaſed by the public, for the public uſe and advantage, it being under the direction and management of ſo many honourable perſons, and eſpecially many of thoſe of the Royal Society, who have given teſtimony of their talents to make uſeful and important experiments upon the works of nature, for the benefit, delight, and ornament of mankind.

Nor are the collections with regard to the works of art to be leſs attended to in a commercial ſtate, than thoſe of nature; for having all curious machines, &c. ranged with relation to every diſtinct mechanic and manufactural art, and proper admiſſion given to all artiſts, or improvers of art, they might, from narrowly inſpecting thoſe that had been invented, make either conſiderable improvements thereupon, or from thence derive ſuch notions as might enable them to diſcover new ones of divers kinds.—But, as we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak more at large upon this point, under the article ROYAL SOCIETY, we refer the reader thither.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued.

WITH reſpect to MALT, ſee the article CORN.

MALT imported from beyond ſea, forfeited, or the value, purſuant to the annual malt act.

The bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, for exportation; as ſhall appear by certificate from the proper officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

Relanded in Great-Britain is forfeited, with treble the value, beſides the penalty of the bond. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15. and ſince continued yearly with the malt act.

WITH REGARD TO MARINERS.

MARINERS. No mariner, or perſon, ſerving on board any privateer, or trading veſſel, employed in any of the Britiſh ſugar colonies in America, or being on ſhore there, or at ſea in any of thoſe parts, ſhall be liable to be impreſſed by any officer belonging to a man of war (unleſs ſuch mariner ſhall have deſerted from ſuch ſhip of war) under the penalty of 50l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1.

Every maſter of a trading veſſel or privateer in thoſe parts, before he receives any mariners into his ſervice, is to make diligent enquiry, whether ſuch mariner hath deſerted from any of his majeſty's ſhips of war; any maſter receiving a mariner who hath deſerted, without reaſonable endeavouring to diſcover the ſame, to forfeit 50l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2.

Every maſter of ſuch trading veſſel or privateer, before departure from any port in the ſaid ſugar colonies, is to deliver to the chief officer of the cuſtoms an exact liſt of all his men, containing names, ages, and deſcription of perſons; neglect thereof, the maſter to forfeit 10l. for each man ſo omitted; the officer of the cuſtoms to return to the ſaid maſter an atteſted copy of ſuch liſt: on the death or alteration of any ſeaman, ſuch liſt to be immediately altered accordingly, and delivered to the naval officer, or chief officer of the cuſtoms in any port where the ſhip may arrive. All ſuch liſts to be produced, and ſhewn to the captains and other officers of his majeſty's navy. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 3, 4. For more matter hereon, ſee our article MARINERS.

OF MEDITERRANEAN PASSES at the Cuſtom-Houſe.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES. Counterfeiting, altering, or eraſing them, or knowingly uttering or publiſhing ſuch counterfeited, altered, or eraſed, paſſes, is felony without benefit of clergy. 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

OF MERCHANTS AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

MERCHANTS put out of their turns, without expreſs order or approbation of the ſuperior officers, penalty double coſts and damages. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 34.

One of the bills of every entry inwards and outwards muſt, in order to prevent the colouring of ſtrangers goods, be ſubſcribed by the MERCHANT, his own ſervant, factor, or agent, with the mark, number, and contents of every parcel of ſuch goods, as are rated to pay by the piece or meaſure, and the weight of the whole parcel of ſuch goods as are rated to pay by the weight. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 10.

Cockets, or certificates outwards, to be in the MERCHANT's poſſeſſion, after he has paid the duty, till he ſhips his goods, and then to be delivered, with the marks and numbers to the ſearchers. See rule 25, at the end of letter A. See alſo latter end of letter G, and ditto of S, and ditto of P.

N.

NAPLES, a kingdom of Italy, and by far the largeſt ſtate there. It is bounded on the north ſide by the Adriatic Sea, on the ſouth by the Tuſcan, on the weſt by the Eccleſiaſtial State, and on the eaſt by the mouth of the Adriatic and the Mediterrancan.

The air, ſoil, &c. are extremely delightful and excellent in moſt places, and the country in general is very rich, fertile, and well watered with rivers and ſprings, which flow through it from both ſides of the Apennines; theſe rivers are, indeed, commonly ſo rapid, that they may rather be called torrents. The land produces excellent wines, eſpecially that emphatically called lachrymæ Chriſti. They have likewiſe in ſeveral parts, plenty of corn, oil, rice, and pretty good paſture; and the Neapolitan horſes are in no ſmall requeſt. Their almonds, olives, figs, citrons, oranges, granates, grapes, and other fruits, are very good, and in great plenty; and ſo is their flax, hemp, pulſe, aniſe, coriander, and other ſeeds. The air is, indeed, in ſome places, exceſſively hot, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide of the Apennines, where the mountains reflect the ſun's heat with ſuch vehemence, that it is hardly to be borne in the three or four hot months of the year, but the north ſide of them is quite temperate, healthy, and delightful. They are ſometimes annoyed with the locuſt.

The far greater part of the provinces into which this kingdom is divided, have an advantage peculiar to themſelves. For inſtance, the air of the hither principality, is ſo ſerene and healthy, that people live in it to a prodigious age; and the farther principality abounds in cattle more than any other, and all it's fruits are excellent. The Baſilicate is famed for it's fine ſaffron, honey, and wax; Calabria for it's plenty of good manna; and the hither, for corn, wines, and mulberries, and the farther for it's fine honey and beautiful horſes. Otranto is ſaid to produce as much oil, as would ſupply all Italy. Moliſe abounds with ſuch quantity of veniſon, that it ſells cheaper there than beef or mutton. The territories of Lavoro, Campania, and ſome others, are bleſſed with ſo rich a ſoil, and excellent temperature, that they produce the ſame flowers twice a year. The Abruzzo, eſpecially the hither, beſides being the cooleſt part of the kingdom, produces great quantity of corn, wines, oil, and ſaffron. The other three provinces not only come ſhort of all thoſe conveniences mentioned in the reſt, but have, moreover, ſome grievous diſadvantages peculiar to them: as in the Capatmate the ſoil is dry, ſandy, and in many places barren, and the climate unhealthy: in Apulia the heat is ſo exceſſive, and the people and cattle plagued with ſuch ſwarms of venomous flies, that it is ſcarce inhabitable. In the province of Bari the air is pretty temperate, but the people are greatly infeſted with ſcorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, eſpecially the tarantula, which renders their territory as uncomfortable as that of Apulia.

Of the COMMERCE of NAPLES and SICILY.

Naples, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is a very conſiderable trading city, and the goodneſs of it's port draws thither a great quantity of foreign ſhipping: they are daily, under the preſent reign of Don Carlos, endeavouring to render the ſame more and more grand and magnificent: it's principal trade conſiſts in divers ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, raw ſilk, knit ſilk ſtockings and waiſtcoats, ſuch whoſe clocks are of ſilver and gold, oils of various ſorts, ſulphur after the Calabrian manner, roſemary flowers, anniſeed and coriander ſeed, dried raiſins, raiſins of Corinth, figs and olives, tartar, ſoap, dried orange and citron peels, eſſences and quinteſſences of all kinds.

The weight of Naples is called rottolo, and is of two kinds, as that of Lucca, but of different weight.

100 rottoloes great weight, make a little more than 185 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$ at Paris and Amſterdam, and 100 rottoloes ſmall weight, make but 65 $\frac{3}{5}$ pounds in thoſe two cities; ſo that 100 pounds in Paris and Amſterdam, make but 54 rottoloes great weight, and 152 ſmall weight.

The canne is the meaſure for ſilk and woollen ſtuffs; the canne is 8 palms, 100 cannes or 800 palms make 310 ells of Amſterdam, and 30 cannes $\frac{1}{2}$, or 258 palms $\frac{1}{3}$ of Naples.

The palm at Amſterdam makes $\frac{3}{8}$ of an ell, and four lines French royal meaſure, and the canne three ells $\frac{1}{8}$ and ſix lines leſs, of the ſame meaſure.

Corn, and other grain, are ſold by the carro, of 36 tomoli, being 40 rottoloes great weight; one carro and a half, or 54 tomoli, make a laſt of Amſterdam.

They keep their accounts in ducats, tarins, and grains; the ducat is five tarins, and the tarin 20 grains: thus the ducat of the kingdom is 100 grains, and 12 piccioli the grain; there are alſo carlins, 10 of which make one ducat.

All bills of exchanges between Amſterdam and Naples are negociated by the way of Leghorn, Venice, or Genoa. The par of exchange with Genoa is 118 ducats per 100 piaſtres of eight rials, bank money, or four livres 10 ſols of Genoa, bank money, per ducat.

REMARKS.

A treaty of peace, commerce, and navigation, concluded at Conſtantinople the 7th of April, 1740, between the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the Ottoman Porte, by Chevalier Finochietti, miniſter plenipotentiary of his Neapolitan majeſty to the Porte.

Art. I. All trade ſhall be free between the ſubjects of the contracting powers, and it ſhall be permitted to them to trade with the ſame liberty and privileges as all other allies in friendſhip; to ſell their merchandizes, repair damages ſuſtained by their ſhipping at ſea, or other accidents, and purchaſe proviſions, &c.

II. Our ſubjects and their ſhipping ſhall pay, in all the ports of the Ottoman empire, 3 per cent. at the cuſtom houſe, as well as the other duties paid by other powers; and the ſubjects and ſhips of the ſublime Porte ſhall, in our dominions, pay the ſame duties, and in the ſame manner, as thoſe of other powers do.

III. Our miniſter reſiding at the Porte ſhall be allowed to eſtabliſh conſuls in all the ports and maritime places of the Ottoman empire, and be granted all prerogatives and franchiſes due to his rank, and our conſuls interpreters, and thoſe dependent on them, ſhall have the ſame privileges that other nations enjoy.

IV. In caſe of the death of any merchant, or other of our ſubjects, in what place ſoever of the Ottoman empire, his effects ſhall not be confiſcated, nor ſhall any one ſeize or poſſeſs themſelves thereof; but the effects of the deceaſed ſhall be remitted to our miniſter or conſuls, to be diſpoſed of according to the will of the deceaſed; and, if he died inteſtate, to the partners of the deceaſed reſiding in the ſame place: and, if there be no conſuls or partners in the place, his effects ſhall be intruſted with the judge of the place commonly called the cadi, who ſhall afterwards remit the whole to ſuch perſon as our miniſter at the Porte ſhall appoint, and nothing ſhall be paid to the cadi but what is called the reſmi: the ſame ſhall be practiſed towards the trading ſubjects of the Ottoman empire.

V. If any diſpute, or law-ſuit, happens between our conſul and interpreters, and the ſum amounts to 4000 aſpers, the ſuit ſhall not be brought before any tribunal of the provinces, but be referred to the ſublime Porte. Merchants, and other of our ſubjects, or thoſe who ſhall be under our banner, who have any law-ſuits or controverſies with thoſe of the Ottoman Porte, be it on account of the ſale, purchaſe, or any other negociation of merchandizes, or for whatever other reaſon, ſhall be obliged to have recourſe to the judges: if none of their interpreters be preſent, the judges ſhall not receive the information, nor determine the affair; and, if the debts or ſecurities are not legally proved by authentic vouchers, the debtor ſhall not be moleſted. If any differences happen between our merchants, they ſhall be examined and determined by our conſuls and interpreters, according to our law and ordinary conſtitutions. And the like practice ſhall be followed towards the ſubjects and merchants of the Ottoman empire who may reſide in our dominions.

VI. The Ottoman Porte ſhall be allowed to eſtabliſh in our territories an attorney general, commonly called ſuch Lender,

for

for the ſecurity and protection of their trading ſubjects who ſhall reſide in our dominions, and he ſhall dwell at our capital of Meſſina.

VIII. Pilots, and others ſkilful in the art of navigation, being in our reſpective ports, ſhall give, as ſoon as required, all aid and aſſiſtance to ſhips that have ſuffered by a tempeſt; and the merchandizes, ſhipwrecks, and other effects, belonging to thoſe that have been caſt away, ſhall be intruſted to the moſt neighbouring conſuls, to be afterwards reſtored to the maſters of ſuch ſhips.

XIII. No perſons, merchandizes, or effects, belonging to our ſubjects, or thoſe under our banner and protection, ſhall be moleſted, unleſs they have been engaged with the corſairs, enemies of the Ottoman empire, or inliſted into their ſervice; but they ſhall be permitted to paſs freely with their effects. And, in caſe a ſhip provided with our licence, happens to be taken by a corſair of the Ottoman empire, the merchandizes, ſubjects, and effects ſhall be reſtored.

XV. If any of our ſubjects be catched in a contraband trade, they ſhall be uſed no worſe than the ſubjects of other nations are upon the like occaſions. Our merchants ſhall, in their way of traffic, make uſe of ſuch brokers as they think fit; and whoſoever forcibly interferes therein, ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed. Our ſhips ſailing to the ſcales of the Levant, or to the ports of the Dardanelles, ſhall not be ſearched otherwiſe than thoſe of other friendly powers.

XVI. Ships belonging to the Ottoman empire ſhall not be purſued or moleſted in the ſight of our coaſts; nor ſhall they purſue or moleſt thoſe in friendſhip with us.

XVII. The ſublime Porte ſhall ſtrictly forbid all her ſubjects, eſpecially thoſe of Dulcigno, Albany, or others, ſailing, from committing any hoſtilities againſt our ſhips or veſſels of any kind; which, on the contrary, ſhall be received as friends in all the ſcales and ports of the Levant; and thoſe nations ſhall be permitted to trade freely in our dominions.

The ſublime Porte ſhall communicate theſe articles to the regencies of Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, and they ſhall take all proper meaſures to regulate a free and unmoleſted commerce and navigation between our kingdoms; and there ſhall be ſent, as well on the part of the Porte as of ours, a miniſter, who ſhall jointly treat upon the plan of the preſent articles.

XVIII. It ſhall not be permitted, in time of war, to arm foreign veſſels in the reſpective ports of the contracting powers, nor any privateers to take out commiſſions to ſerve under the banner of the enemy. In caſe one of theſe veſſels are taken, the commander, as an example to others, ſhall be hanged at the maſt of his ſhip, which alſo ſhall be good prize, with all her effects, and the ſailors ſhall be enſlaved.

Neither the one or the other of the contracting potentates ſhall grant commiſſions but to their own ſubjects, or to thoſe who are ſettled in their ſtates.

XIX. Our miniſter and conſuls ſhall be allowed to demand the ordinary duty of conſulage on all the merchandizes which pay the duty of cuſtom, and which are imported under our banner, in the ſame manner as it is demanded on the part of other friendly powers; nor ſhall our ſubjects be hindered from loading merchandizes on board their ſhips, except, nevertheleſs, powder for cannon, arms, and other contraband goods.

XX. The ſale and purchaſe of merchandizes ſhall be carried on by our ſubjects, and thoſe who are under our protection, in the ſame manner as thoſe of other powers in friendſhip do. They ſhall not be obliged to uſe other monies than thoſe which are generally current, nor ſhall any duty but what is common be required on the exportation of monies.

XXI. Any ſhip loaded and ready to depart, ſhall not be detained on account of any intended law-ſuit, but the diſpute ſhall be determined without delay by the conſul.

Our ſubjects ſhall be treated in all caſes expreſſed, or otherwiſe, in this treaty, in the ſame manner as thoſe of all other nations in friendſhip with the Porte.

If we cannot prevent the veſſels of Malta, of the Pope, of the Genoeſe, and thoſe of the Inquiſition of Spain, with commiſſion from his Catholic majeſty, from ſailing in the Archipelago, we will give advice thereof to the Porte by writing, that they may take their meaſures in conformity. This article ſhall be inſerted in the treaty. See LEVANT TRADE.

Of SICILY in particular belonging to the kingdom of Naples.

SICILY, the largeſt of the Italian iſlands, is ſituate between 12 and 16 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 37 and 39 degrees of north latitude, being about 170 miles long, and 100 broad. It lies in a warm, but pleaſant and healthful climate. It is ſeparated from Calabria in Italy only by the ſtraight or faro of Meſſina, which is not ſeven miles over in the narroweſt part; but from Meſſina on the coaſt of Sicily, to Reggio on the continent, which is the uſual paſſage, it may be 12 or 15 miles over. The country is divided into mountains and vallies, in which there are abundance of ſprings and rivulets, that make both hills and vallies exceeding fruitful, and which occaſioned it's being called the granary of Rome. The produce of the iſland is corn, wine, oil, ſilk, and excellent fruits, of which they export great quantities, but chiefly in foreign bottoms; their preſent monarch, of French extraction, applies himſelf with great diligence to increaſe their ſhipping and foreign commerce, and has opened a trade with Turkey, which they never had before, being, like the Spaniards, perpetual enemies to the Turkiſh empire.

Mount Ætna in this iſland is a vulcano, which, by it's fiery eruptions and earthquakes, has overturned ſeveral of their cities, particularly thoſe of Syracuſe and Catania, on the caſtern coaſt of the iſland. This mountain is ſo high, that it is ſurrounded with a circle of ſnow towards the top, great part of the year; but, advancing a little further, we come to the grand vulcano, from whence there iſſues flame and ſmoak. This is a baſon, or cavity, about ſix miles in circumference, the ſides whereof are incruſted with ſulphur, from whence there ſometimes iſſues a pure flame; and the noiſe of this burning pit is inconceivably dreadful. This hill is much larger than mount Veſuvius in Naples, viz. about 70 miles in circumference at the bottom; and the eruptions from it have been more frequent and more terrible than thoſe of Veſuvius. The kingdom of Naples, as well as this iſland, was anciently called Sicily; whereupon Don Carlos has revived the former name, and ſtiles himſelf king of the Two Sicilies.

MESSINA is the greateſt trading city in all Sicily; the great trade carried on there in ſilk, and the good ſituation of it's port for all ſhipping from the Levant, draws thither a great number of foreigners, which makes the trade flouriſh. There was no appearance of it's loſing it's reputation, when it paſſed under new dominion, by the treaty of Utrecht; and the manufactures that the duke of Savoy eſtabliſhed at Turin, and in ſeveral places of his ancient territories, excited the jealouſy of the workmen of Lyons and Tours, and was prejudicial to the ſale of their fineſt ſtuffs.

But the revolutions in Sicily, occaſioned by the Spaniards invaſion thereof in 1717, and which afterwards, by the ceſſion of the duke of Savoy, paſſed under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria, drew the foreign trade to Sicily, which was yielded to him by the treaties of Utrecht and Raſtadt.

Sicily changed maſters again in the year 1735, in favour of Don Carlos, his preſent Neapolitan majeſty, the ſon of Philip. V. king of Spain; and the trade of this iſland has greatly flouriſhed under his ſovereignty.

The greateſt part of the ſilk manufacturers dwell in the ſuburbs of Meſſina, which ſpreads itſelf along the ſea coaſt, on the ſide of the faro; and there is a very ſpacious place, encompaſſed with workhouſes, for the organzine ſilk, which is a very eſtimable branch of that manufacture.

The Genoeſe, Florentines, and Lucaſians, are chiefly maſters of the whole ſilk trade of Meſſina, which draws foreigners there in great numbers.

Another diſadvantage to foreigners attending this commerce, is, that the Meſſinians are principally their own factors, and will not ſuffer, as is done at other places, ſtrangers to ſettle there for that purpoſe; there are, notwithſtanding, ſome French and Engliſh families, and thoſe of other nations, who have houſes of trade among them.

The trade in linens of all ſorts, both for apparel and the table, imported, is very extenſive, and carried on with great facility for credit, the Italians having firſt introduced the cuſtom of trading generally on credit, at two, three, or ſix months for their imports, but ſell their own goods for ready money.

The payments for ſilk, and other merchandizes, is commonly made in Spaniſh rials, brought from Spain, Genoa, and Leghorn.

When the merchants do not chuſe to riſque ſpecie by ſea, they may take bills of exchange for Meſſina and Palermo, where you may eaſily draw for the fair of Novi in Genoa, with little diſadvantage; you may likewiſe occaſionally remit from Lyons to Novi, with ſome profit.

The chief trade of the city of PALERMO conſiſts in ſilk and ſilk manufactories, crude ſulphur, tartar, and fine ſponges; a great quantity of wheat alſo comes from thence, and many other parts of Sicily; from whence Marſeilles, and the greateſt part of the cities of Italy ſupply themſelves.

There comes from hence likewiſe a great quantity of manna.

The rottolo is the weight of Palermo; it is of two ſorts, the ſmall and the great weight; 100 rottoloes great weight make 141 pounds $\frac{2}{3}$ of Paris and Amſterdam, and 100 rottoloes ſmall weight make only 65 pounds of the ſame cities.

The canne is their long meaſure. It is divided into 8 palms; they meaſure ſilks and cloths indifferently therewith, which is not very cuſtomary in Italy: 100 cannes of Palermo make 287 ells $\frac{3}{4}$ of Amſterdam, and 100 ells of Amſterdam make 33 cannes $\frac{9}{25}$ of Palermo.

There are three meaſures for grain of all kinds, the ſalme, the tomolo, and the mandilo; 16 tomoli make the ſalme, and 4 mandiloes the tomolo.

10 Salmes $\frac{1}{7}$
117 Tomoli $\frac{3}{7}$ } make the laſt of Amſterdam. Savary.
685 Mandiloes $\frac{1}{3}$

A new memoir upon the general trade of Sicily, from Savary.

Their accounts in Sicily are kept in ounces, tarins, and grains; an ounce is worth 30 tarins, and the tarin 20 grains: beſides, there

there is a crown conſiſting of 12 tarins, or two crowns and a half, which make an ounce.

Formerly, the ounce was imaginary, nevertheleſs, while the Germans were maſters of that kingdom, they coined both ſilver and gold money, and the gold coin is current under the preſent government.

There are two kinds of weight in Sicily, the great and ſmall weight, both of which are called cantarre: the cantarre is compoſed of 100 rottoloes; the great weight is of 33 ounces; each rottolo of the ſmall weight has but 30 ounces, which makes a difference of 10 per 100; they reckon 100 rottoloes or cantarres ſmall weight, to a little leſs than 200 pounds of Marſeilles weight.

There is beſides the pound, which is compoſed of 12 ounces; ſo that two ounces and a half, make one rottolo ſmall weight, or two pounds $\frac{3}{4}$ make the rottolo great weight.

Their merchandizes commonly are ſold by the rottolo, and very little by the pound, among which are ſilk and ſome fine drugs. Thoſe which are ſold by the great weight are all ſorts of ſalt fiſh, cheeſe, and fruits: there are nevertheleſs ſome little towns, where the ſmall weight only is uſed.

The following coins are current in Sicily, beſides thoſe of foreign countries, viz.

All Portugal money: alſo the Spaniſh piſtole is worth 45 tarins, or one ounce and a half; the old French piſtole, and that of Savoy, is worth one ounce and 14 tarins, or 44 tarins. The French piſtole d'or ſol, is worth one ounce 23 tarins, and 10 grains.

The Venetian ſequin rupee being full weight, is worth 26 tarins, according to the order of the king; nevertheleſs, there is always an agio more or leſs, as they are wanted, which never advances beyond 26 tarins and a half. The other Venetian ſequins are worth 26 tarins, for which there is very ſeldom an agio. They take ſometimes the Genoeſe ſequins for 24 tarins, though they make ſome difficulty.

The Florentinea nd Hungarian ſequins are alſo current there, and are worth 25 tarins; very few of the firſt are ſeen there, becauſe there is ſome loſs in their importation.

The genouines are worth 17 tarins, the ducaton 14 tarins 8 grains, the philippes 12 tarins 16 grains, the lenternines 12 tarins, the roſe piaſtres 11 tarins and a half, the ſevillanes 12 tarins.

All the coins are weighed, and they pay what they are deficient, viz. 7 grains for a piſtole that wants a grain, and ſo in proportion; obſerving, that if they are too light by 12 or 15 grains, they are not paſſable. It is the ſame for ſilver coins, and they pay a grain for every two grains deficiency, but they generally refuſe to take them when they are not full weight.

Of the Measures of Sicily.

Corn is meaſured by ſalmes, the ſame as barley, large and ſmall beans, peaſe, and ſmall nuts. There are two kinds of ſalmes, the general ſalme, and the great ſalme, which differ from one another $\frac{1}{6}$; ſo that one great ſalme makes 1 and $\frac{1}{6}$ of the general ſalme; nevertheleſs, when it is ſpoken of ſalmes principally for corn, it is always underſtood the general ſalme, and if of the great ſalme it is explained; all pulſe is ſold by great ſalmes. The general ſalme makes 1 and $\frac{3}{4}$, or 100 general ſalmes make 175 charge at Marſeilles.

Oil is meaſured by caſſis, which weigh commonly 12 rotolloes $\frac{1}{2}$ great weight, and 5 caſſis and $\frac{1}{2}$ make the millerolle of Marſeilles. There are ſome places where it is ſold by the cantarre, and prices are fixed in proportion.

Wine is meaſured by the ſalme, but there are ſalmes of different qualities; the ſalme of Meſſina holds 126 meaſures, which are called cartouches, and weigh from 22 to 24 ounces. That of Syracuſa differs $\frac{1}{8}$, ſo that 1 ſalme and $\frac{1}{8}$ of Syracuſe makes 1 ſalme of Meſſina. There are ſome other different ſalmes, nevertheleſs theſe two ſalmes are made uſe of, in caſe of exportation, which commonly is done from Maſcali, Melazzo, Syracuſe, or the Faro of Meſſina, which are the places where they load, and the meaſure is different only at Syracuſe.

All the cloths, ſilks, and linen, are meaſured by the canne of 8 pans, each pan making 10 inches and 2 lines: the French ell makes 4 pans and $\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 Holland ells make a little leſs than one canne of Sicily.

Remarks.

The balance in Italy is thought to concern the intereſts of Great-Britain; [ſee the article Mediterranean] to which we have hitherto ſhewn a juſt and laudable regard; and, indeed, diſtance in this reſpect is of little conſequence, more eſpecially to a maritime power. Our commerce in the Mediterranean and in the Levant, is of very high importance, and we cannot but be ſenſible, that whatever alterations have been felt in the Italian balance, have likewiſe affected thoſe branches of our commerce in a very ſenſible degree; ſo that whatever ſteps we have taken, either during the continuance of peace by negociation, or in time of war, by ſupporting the only prince in Italy, who declared for the common cauſe, and was true to his own intereſts, which were likewiſe ours, were right and juſt meaſures, and have no doubt left thoſe impreſſions, which we hope will never be effaced by any arts or intrigues whatever.

The injuries our merchants not long ſince ſuſtained, and the great inſult offered to the nation by the corſairs of Barbary, will not allow us to doubt, that it is our true intereſt to keep the Italian ſtates firmly united to us, that when occaſion requires, they may afford us all the conveniencies in their power towards chaſtizing theſe infidel ſtates, as our uſing rigorous meaſures in ſuch caſes, and ſending a powerful fleet occaſionally into the Mediterranean, will contribute not a little to make us reſpected by the Italian potentates, as well as to obtain juſtice from thoſe pyratical governments, which is a thing ſcarce to be expected from milder meaſures. See the article Morocco.

In the Spaniſh war, in the year 1742, the Neapolitans experienced the weight of the naval power of Great-Britain. The behaviour of France in protecting the Spaniſh fleet occaſioned us to take every advantage we were able. The king of Naples had then joined his father's troops with his forces, which amounted to 20,000 men, and they were, in every reſpect, in much better condition than thoſe of Spain. It was, therefore, of great importance at this time to oblige the king of Naples to adhere ſtrictly to that neutrality which he profeſſed. For this purpoſe, admiral Matthews diſpatched captain Martin, as commodore, with a ſquadron of ſhips, with bomb-veſſels, and tenders, to the bay of Naples, with a meſſage from his Britannic majeſty, importing, that his Sicilian and Neapolitan majeſty, having violated his neutrality by joining his forces with the declared enemies of Great-Britain, of the queen of Hungary, and the king of Sardinia, with whom his Britannic majeſty was in alliance, he, the commodore, was ſent to require the king of Sicily, not only to withdraw his troops from acting in conjunction with thoſe of Spain, but to promiſe, in writing, not to give them any further aſſiſtance in any reſpect; adding, that if his Sicilian majeſty ſhould delay giving the propoſed ſatisfaction, he had orders to bombard Naples.—But the court of Naples thought proper to comply with the ſpirited demands of the Britiſh court. For it is incredible, into what a conſternation our fleet threw the capital of that monarch. The hiſtory, perhaps, of no country can parallel the quickneſs, the deciſion, and the importance of this expedition, which was undertaken with ſo inconſiderable a force, againſt a powerful prince, ſitting in his capital, and ſurrounded by 300,000 ſubjects. It is an illuſtrious proof, how unavailing the pride of the fineſt city in the world, is againſt the very frown of a people that has the command of the ſea. See Naval Power, and Sea British.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

Under the articles Accountantship, Banking, Debtor and Creditor, Ledger, Mercantile Accountantship, I have endeavoured naturally to introduce the reader into this uſeful art, by repreſenting the ſame in variety of familiar lights, with a view to ſhew him how it was applicable to every kind of buſineſs, from the moſt diſtinguiſhed merchant and tradeſman, to the private gentleman and greateſt nobleman.

If what we have ſaid under the ſeveral heads enumerated be duly attended to, and thoroughly comprehended, no gentleman of diſtinction can be at a loſs to underſtand, what may further be ſaid, in relation to the beſt method of keeping the Accounts of the Nation, the ſureſt way of unravelling any accounts of this nature, and diſcerning every kind of miſapplication of the public money, and every deſigned miſconſtruction of acts of parliament, in order to alienate the national funds from the real deſign of their primitive eſtabliſhment, and thereby to occaſion ſuch alteration in thoſe funds, that has defeated, or may hereafter defeat any the moſt wiſe and upright intentions of the legiſlature to maintain the public credit, and honourably to diſcharge the public debts. Nothing can more apparently ſhew the neceſſity of ſomething of this kind, than the great debates for many years together, both within doors and without, during the adminiſtration of the late Right Hon. Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards lord Orford, more particularly in regard to the application of the Sinking Fund, to other purpoſes than the redemption of the principal money-debt; for, had the primitive ſenſe of the acts of parliament been immediately ſignificantly explained, in the adjuſtment, regulation, and ſtating the public accounts of the nation, there could not have been a poſſibility of miſtaking the original meaning of the acts of parliament; for ſuch is the ſupreme excellency of the art of accountantſhip, that if the Money Affairs of the kingdom are juſtly and faithfully ſtated in the Public Accounts, according to the true and ſolid principles of that art, I will preſume to ſay that no ſuch-like intemperate debates could ever happen, as then did, the natural and priſtine cauſe of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of any fund could never be miſtaken, and no party feuds and animoſities take place among our repreſentatives, in their deliberations upon the nature of the funds, and the uſes and application thereof at all times, and upon all occaſions. And how this may be done, I intend one day to ſhew, and to do myſelf the honour muſt humbly to ſubmit a New Scheme of National Accountantship, to the conſideration

ſideration of the honourable houſe of commons. For the preſent I ſhall only refer to the article REVENUE [PUBLIC REVENUE].

NAVAL AFFAIRS. Not only the preſervation of that ſhare of commerce we poſſeſs, but it's future advancement, depend on the good condition and the wiſe regulation of our naval affairs, and not only ſo, but the very being of Great-Britain as an independent empire and a free people, depend upon the conſtant ſuperiority of it's maritime power.—We ſhould be held inexcuſable, therefore, if in a work of this kind, we paſſed over an article of ſuch high concernment to the intereſts of commerce.

Whoever would be fully informed concerning the figure which England has made in all ages in maritime affairs, may find abundance of curious matter in Selden's Mare Clauſum, and from his time to ours, we may trace a ſeries of facts, in Lediard's or Burchet's Naval Hiſtories. I ſhall take notice of two remarkable periods of our ancient maritime ſtory, becauſe ſome uſeful obſervations may be made in comparing them, both with other nations and with ourſelves, in our preſent ſituations.

We are told that Edgar, king of this iſland, had four thouſand ſhips; by the terror of which he ſubdued Norway, Denmark, all the iſlands of the ocean, and the greateſt part of Ireland. Theſe inſtances of his power, are ſpecified in a record * cited by that great lawyer Sir Edward Coke, in the preface to his fourth Report. This monarch made a naval progreſs yearly round this iſland, and once took it in his head to cauſe eight conquered kings to row his barge on the river Dee. But it ſeems that ſome of his ſucceſſors have had ſuch miniſters, as either neglected to keep our fleets in repair, or were afraid to make uſe of them: for, at ſeveral periods of time, ſince the days of king Edgar, we find that this kingdom has been miſerably inſulted on the ſeas, and even ſucceſsfully invaded by other nations.

* Altitonantis Dei largiflua clementia, qui eſt rex regum & dominus dominantium, ego Edgarus Anglorum Baſileus, omniumque inſularum oceani quæ Britanniam circumjacent, cunctarumque nationem quæ infra eum includuntur. Imperator & dominus, gratias ego ipſi Deo omnipotenti regi meo, qui meum imperium ſic ampliavit & exaltavit ſuper regnum patrum meorum qui licet monarchiam totius Angliæ adepti ſunt a tempore Athelſtani, qui primus regum Anglorum omnes nationes, quæ Britanniam incolunt ſibi armis ſubegit nullus tamen eorum ultra fines imperium ſuum dilatare aggreſſus eſt, mihi tamen conceſſit propitia divinitas cum Anglorum imperio, omnia regna inſularum oceani cum ſuis ferociſſimis regibus uſque Norvegiam, maximamque partem Hiberniæ cum ſua nobiliſſima civitate de Dublina Anglorum regno ſubjugare. Pref. to 4th. Co. See alſo Rapin's Hiſtory of England, in the life of Edgar.

The Britiſh Neptune ſlept, or ſlumbered, moſt part of the time, from the reign of king Edgar, to that of queen Elizabeth: in her days he ſprung up with vigour, being rouzed by Spain, which was then the greateſt maritime power on earth. From queen Elizabeth to our time, our naval ſtrength has gradually increaſed, inſomuch that at this day, the Spaniſh fleets oppoſed to ours, would make a very contemptible figure on the ocean: we now have it in our power to lord it over the watery world. It may be worth our enquiry, to know how theſe fluctuations have happened in the dominion of the ſeas.

The taſks and courſe of life of ſeafaring men are not to be learned in an inſtant; their employment is a laborious and dextrous employment, to be acquired only by application and induſtry. Money will buy all naval ſtores except mariners, but unleſs a ſucceſſion of them be preſerved, no wealth will be able to purchaſe them. The ſureſt, the cheapeſt, we may juſtly ſay, the only profitable method of ſupporting ſuch a ſucceſſion, is to have perpetual occaſion for a multitude of ſeamen in a courſe of foreign traffic. It is indeed probable, that Edgar's amazing power at ſea was, for the moſt part, owing to his own great genius, attended with indefatigable endeavours in training up, and year by year augmenting the number of his mariners; for in thoſe days, England had no great ſhare of foreign commerce, people generally contenting themſelves with the produce and manufacture of their native country. This great prince muſt, therefore, have grievouſly oppreſſed his vaſſals to enable him to keep up ſo great an armament; and it is no wonder that it dwindled in ſucceeding reigns, becauſe it had not that ſolid aliment, trade, to nouriſh it.

The ſucceſs of the Spaniards in America, cauſed their ſhipping to increaſe beyond all their neighbours; they had occaſion in their beginning there, for great numbers of tranſports, to carry not only men, but alſo horſes and other cattle, and ſtores of every kind, to their new conqueſts. Add to which that Sicily, and a great part of Italy belonged to them at that time. The communication with theſe laſt-mentioned places was by ſea, ſo that they had a conſiderable part in the increaſe of the Spaniſh naval power. In this flouriſhing condition they continued for a great part of the long reigns of their Philip the IId, and of our Elizabeth. She had not a fleet able to give their armada battle: her ſhips, indeed, were light and nimble, the Spaniſh, though larger and more numerous, were unwieldy; therefore the lighter veſſels being in no danger of a chaſe, fought or ſtood off as they ſaw occaſion. But this advantage would not have been ſufficient, if Providence had not interpoſed a tempeſt for the protection of England.

The queen knew to what cauſes ſhe owed her danger and her deliverance, and became more attentive than ever to plant colonies in America. Death prevented her from executing her great deſigns; but ſome of her beſt and wiſeſt ſubjects, and moſt gallant ſeamen, had entered ſo deeply into the plan, and laid it ſo nearly to their hearts, that what ſhe had intended in the ſettlement of Virginia, was in a good meaſure effected in the reign of king James the Iſt, though the undertaking was a great † difficulty upon his timorous councils, becauſe the Spaniards, of whom he ſtood in ſervile awe, did not approve of it. But his ſhame, with much debate, barely got the better of his fears, and that mine of treaſure was opened to Great-Britain.

† See a Short Collection of the moſt remarkable paſſages from the original to the diſſolution of the Virginia company.

This, with what elſe has ſince been executed in favour of England, both on the continent and in the iſlands of that new world, has added ſuch a weight of maritime force to the natural ſtrength, which we owe to our ſituation, that we are able, by wiſe management, to give law to the ocean. Spain indeed, has greater countries and more ſubjects in America, than we have, and yet does not navigate in that trade a tenth part of the ſhipping that we do. By a lucky kind of poverty, our dominions there have no mines of gold or ſilver: we muſt be, and ought to be, contented to deal in rum, ſugar, rice, tobacco, horſes, beef, corn, fiſh, lumber, and other commodities that require great ſtowage; the perpetual carriages of theſe, employ above 100,000 tons of ſhipping. The value of 5000 l. in theſe wares loads a veſſel, which in the Spaniſh trade would be freighted homeward with half a million of pounds ſterling.

Thus has the Almighty placed the true riches of this earth on the ſurface of it, our ſugars, rice, and tobacco, &c. are more real and permanent wealth, than their richeſt minerals. They are wealth, which create a power to defend our poſſeſſion of them: and, without a ſufficient force to defend that, the poſſeſſion of all wealth is precarious. Should not Great-Britain, therefore, be ever attentive to the true intereſt of our American plantations? Will not ſuch meaſures prove an eternal increaſe to the tonnage of Britiſh ſhipping? See BRITISH AMERICA.

The Dutch were eſteemed all the laſt century, the only match for England on the ſeas; but, as a great part of their ſtrength was merely artificial, it ſubſides like the vivacity of a wretch, who has raiſed his ſpirits with a doſe of opium. Commerce, and that wealth and power which attend it, may be either abſolutely in the power of a ſtate or empire, conſidered in and by itſelf, without regard to it's neighbours, which we call natural wealth, power and commerce; or they may depend upon treaties with other ſtates, or be owing to their connivance, which, pro tempore, amount to a tacit agreement: theſe latter ſpecies may be called technical wealth, &c. Such was the fiſhery of the Dutch, which they enjoyed by the inactivity of ſome of our Engliſh kings: and this muſt decline of courſe, if we vigorouſly ſupport our fiſheries of every ſort, becauſe of our ſuperior treaſures of this kind on the banks of Newfoundland and on our own coaſts. Another branch of their artificial ſtrength was, that by the indolence of all nations, they were for a time the carriers of the univerſe: but the world is grown wiſer, other nations begin to work for themſelves; and the Netherlands will ſadly find, that this temporary fund of ſtrength muſt alſo fail them. Their only natural foreign wealth and ſtrength is their Eaſt-India trade; part of this is truly their own, becauſe the land that produces ſpice is in their poſſeſſion: but when the two former branches ſhall be cut off, they will find that poſſeſſion every day more and more precarious.

Thus the Britiſh empire has a natural wealth in itſelf, and in it's dependent members, but it has alſo for many years paſt, enjoyed an adventitious, or artificial traffic. We have been employed by all the world in the woollen manufacture, but other nations have begun of late to clothe themſelves and their neighbours too. It is a fond fancy in us to imagine, that there are no fleecy ſheep in the world but our own, or that the reſt of mankind will not learn the myſtery of working in wool.

We feel this trade decreaſing daily, and yet there are thoſe among us, who would argue againſt demonſtration. But when they hope, by any laws of Great-Britain to hinder foreign nations from falling into the woollen manufacture, they may as well ſolicit an act of parliament to prevent their graſs to grow, and to intercept their ſun-ſhine. We will conſider one objection before I leave this point, becauſe ſome imagine that we are ſecure in this trade, againſt the endeavours of all foreigners: ſay they, we make better goods than can be made with any foreign wool, unleſs it be mixed with

ours.

ours. Be it ſo. But then, does our great wealth and income by that trade conſiſt only in our fineſt goods? Have not the Engliſh merchants complained, that Ireland has undersold us in coarſe goods at Liſbon; that becauſe their wares are coarſe, they can be afforded cheaper, therefore they have a ready market, while ours, that are finer, but dearer, may rot in the warehouſe? What ſays our Ruſſia Company? Has not Pruſſia ſupplanted us in the clothing of the Muſcovite army? Who can be ignorant of the extenſiveneſs of the woollen manufactories of France, if they conſult what I have ſaid, under the article FRANCE? We have ſent armed ſloops to check the Iriſh, but who will reſtrain the French, Germans, and Pruſſians? The multitude don't much value the fineneſs of their garments, they only deſire to be warm; it is the cloathing of the millions that produces miillions of money, and this is what other countries will certainly have their ſhare in.

Is not this a time to caſt our eyes upon our natural wealth, and to augment it as faſt as poſſible? If Muſcovy ſupplies it's own woollen goods, or is ſupplied by any other foreigner, it ought to make us reſolve to bring our naval ſtores from North America; if Spain and Italy refuſe our drapery, we may reject their ſilks, their raiſins, oil, wine, olives, and divers other merchandizes, and be ſupplied from Carolina and Georgia, with proper management.

We have been credibly informed that a gentleman, not long ſince deceaſed in this kingdom, was the firſt perſon who made pitch in America; the people whom he converſed with then, looked on this experiment as a chimera, but it proved ſo real, as to reduce that commodity above one half in it's value.

France has not the ſame advantage as Great-Britain, in it's ſituation for maritime affairs: that country is extended wide within land, and has not the benefit of being penetrated by many deep creeks, or navigable rivers; on half it's borders it is bounded with the continent, and the good harbours of France are but few, compared with the numbers of ours. See BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN]. Theſe reaſons of our capacity for conſtant ſuperiority over them in maritime affairs in general, ſerved to prevent their increaſing in North America as faſt as we did; and there is another ſpecial reaſon, viz. we have had the navigation of North America in us, by the larger traffic of our early ſettlements, and even of the French ſugar-colonies, which we ſupply in a great meaſure, with lumber, horſes, and proviſions, though this trade may not be ſo nationally beneficial as ſome are wont to think. We have five ſouls on the continent for one of theirs; their principal ſettlement is in a climate too cold, and not very fruitful; and yet they contrive all imaginable methods of augmenting their numbers: they intermarry with the natives, and convert them; and the French king ſupplies 2000 perſons yearly with money to enable them to go thither, without being afraid that he ſhall drain his country of people.

It is eaſy to demonſtrate, that we can afford to ſend people abroad better than France and Spain. They have in each of thoſe kingdoms more than 100,000 cloiſtered females, not permitted to propagate their ſpecies; and the number of males in a ſtate of celibacy is ſtill abundantly greater, as it comprehends their ſecular and regular clergy, and a conſiderable part of their great armies, who reſolve againſt marriage, becauſe of the uncomfortable proſpects they have with regard to their progeny.

It may be ſaid indeed, that though theſe do not marry, yet many of them get children; but it muſt be admitted, that the uſual fate of that kind of propagation is, to be deſtroyed ſecretly, either before or after the birth; and the former of theſe crimes frequently procures barrenneſs in the women. We have entered into the conſideration of the loſs by the celibacy of their males, that nobody may imagine the computation of their deficiencies ſhould be made upon their cloiſtered females only.

And yet let us take a ſhort view of their loſſes upon that calculation, allowing a monk, or a prieſt, for an huſband to each immured woman. The moſt exact rules in this kind of arithmetic are as follow:

Firſt, the people who go on in an ordinary courſe of propagation and mortality, and are not viſited with ſome extraordinary deſtructive calamity, grow double in their number in 100 years.

Secondly, thirty-three years are a ſufficient allowance for a generation, or three generations to 100 years. Now,

Since the Reformation, we will ſay, about 200 years are elapſed, at which time celibacy was aboliſhed in England.

Therefore, in that time, France has loſt more than five generations of it's inhabitants, at the rate of 200,000 in each generation, beſides the accumulated numbers of cent. per cent. for each hundred years, which loſs muſt be reckoned upon the ſecond century, as intereſt upon intereſt; ſo that the 200,000 individual perſons who were under the vow in France, 180 years ago, will, 20 years hence, be a negative upon their numbers to the value of 800,000 people.

They who underſtand a little arithmetic, may divert themſelves by computing the amount of all the parts of this loſs of people in the five generations.

My aim, from what has been ſaid, is to rectify the notions of ſome of my countrymen, upon an affair ſo important as our commerce; to point out the differences between a natural and an artificial trade; to inſtance them in our neighbours compared with ourſelves; to ſhew the induſtry of the French to rival us in America; in ſpite of their geography and their religion; and to inculcate that our ſtrength depends on our SHIPPING, and our ſhipping on our wide extended colonies, which have neither gold nor ſilver, and, for that very reaſon, confirm us the more powerfully in the dominion of the ſeas.

It is an obſervation worthy the ſerious attention of every Engliſhman, that empire has always followed trade, travelling, as it were, from one part of the world to another, as commerce has ſhifted it's ſtation; and, in all countries, ſtill growing or declining in power in proportion as traffic has been encouraged or diſregarded.

Cicero ad Attic. ſays, Qui mare teneat eum neceſſe rerum potiri. This is the opinion of a very great man, who had been at the head of affairs in a moſt powerful ſtate, above 1700 years ago and the practice of all great princes who have lived ſince that time, and have ever deſigned either to extend their dominions, or to render themſelves conſiderable to their neighbours, fully proves the obſervation to be true.

The Romans (who aſpired to nothing leſs than univerſal empire) while their conqueſts were confined within the narrow bounds of Italy, were ſo much prejudiced with the notion of a landed intereſt, that, as Livy relates, they thought it ſcandalous for a man of faſhion to exerciſe any merchandize: and in conſequence of that prepoſſeſſion, they were not in a capacity to make any figure by ſea, an element little practiſed by them, and leſs underſtood. But this notion laſted only 'till they had an opportunity to look more abroad into the world; then experience taught them, as they came to quarrel with the Carthaginians (who at that time, were the great trading people) that commerce was neceſſary to eſtabliſh their empire; and that not only their conqueſts were at an end, but the poſſeſſion of the territories they had conquered were precarious, unleſs they could acquire and ſecure to themſelves the dominion of the ſea.

If the dominion of the ſea is abſolutely neceſſary to a people who aim at empire, of how much greater moment is it to a nation whoſe grandeur, whoſe wealth, whoſe very being depends upon COMMERCE and NAVIGATION? It is with the higheſt reaſon, therefore, that we ought to look upon every wrong done to our trading ſubjects, and on every attempt towards eſtabliſhing a NEW MARITIME power in Europe, as the moſt fatal, and, therefore, the moſt unpardonable injury to a nation, whoſe glory conſiſts in being miſtreſs of the ſea, and whoſe ſtrength lies in trade.

The nations recorded in hiſtory to have been at any time poſſeſſed of the empire of the ſea, have always eſteemed a neighbouring prince's offering to ſet up a naval power, by building more ſhips of war than were requiſite to ſecure the trade of his ſubjects from piracies, &c. to be as juſt a foundation of political jealouſy, as the raiſing of new forts upon his frontiers, or the levying of a formidable army in a time of profound peace: and, therefore, they have always taken meaſures either to prevent ſuch attempts, or to deſtroy them in their birth. This was the practice of the Romans: and this has been the policy of his majeſty's royal predeceſſors, the kings of England.

The Romans, as ſoon as they had acquired the ſovereignty of the ſea, (which they thought not dearly purchaſed with the loſs of above 700 ſhips) immediately entered upon meaſures to preſerve ſo valuable an acquiſition. They grew watchful over their new dominions, and were ſoon alarmed by the ſmalleſt umbrages, from any power that did but ſeem to interfere with them in naval affairs. It was from theſe political conſiderations, that they would not admit the Carthaginians to fit out any fleets, and that they forbid Antiochus (at that time the greateſt king in the eaſt) to build more than 12 ſhips of war. See the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

It is not an empty title which the kings of England have always taken to themſelves, of being ſupreme lords and governors of the ocean ſurrounding the Britiſh ſhore, but a right which they have conſtantly maintained at the expence of numerous fleets. In that famous accord made between our great king Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, it appears, that the French king was by him called to an account for piracies committed by his ſubjects within the Britiſh ſeas: and, by that memorable ordinance made at Haſtings, in the reign of King John of England, the honour of the flag (ever claimed by the Engliſh) is decreed to take place univerſally, not barely as a civility, but as a right to be paid (cum debita reverentia) with due deference.

There is no occaſion for troubling my readers with a detail of examples to the preſent purpoſe, ſince nothing is more known in our Engliſh hiſtory, than that our kings have ever been jealous of their neighbours making uſe of any pretext to increaſe their naval ſtrength; and have accordingly judged it of the greateſt importance to fruſtrate ſuch deſigns though at the

riſque

riſque of a war: for what leſs did our immortal queen Elizabeth riſque, when ſhe ſent to the French king, to prohibit his building any more ſhips of war than what he then had, without her leave firſt obtained. This was an inſtance of wiſdom and reſolution worthy a princeſs who claimed the ſovereignty of the ſea.

Maritime trade, and in wholeſale, has nothing in itſelf but what is honourable. Antiquity furniſhes us with illuſtrious teſtimonies in favour of thoſe who practiſed it. Solomon, king of Iſrael, according to ſcripture hiſtory, carried on a great trade abroad. Solon, that great legiſlator of Athens *, who was of one of the nobleſt families in that flouriſhing republic, being, by the father's ſide, deſcended from Codrus, the laſt king of Athens †, in order to repair the decays of fortune, into which his family was fallen, by the exceſſive liberality of his father, choſe rather to carry on trade, than to take money from rich perſons, who offered him large ſums, and promiſed never to allow him to be in want.

* He lived 598 years before Chriſt.
† Plutarch's life of Solon.

Now at that time, ſays Plutarch *, after Heſiod, no handicraft was ſhameful; no art nor trade made any diſtinction between men. Merchandize eſpecially was honourable, becauſe it opens a communication with barbarous nations, affords the means of making friendſhip and alliance with kings, and leads to the knowledge of an infinite deal of things, which would be unknown without it. There have been merchants founders of great cities; as Proteus, who founded Marſeilles, after having gained the friendſhip and eſteem of the Gauls who lived upon the banks of the Rhône. We are told alſo, that the wiſe Thales and Hippocrates, the mathematicians, applied themſelves to commeree, and that Plato defrayed the charges of his journey into Egypt, by ſelling oil in that country.

* M. Dacier's tranſlation.

Cato the cenſor *, that Roman Demoſthenes, a man of ſuch rigid and delicate ſentiments of virtue and honour, thought it not below him to aequire an eſtate by commerce: wholeſale trade, he ſaid, depended chiefly upon the mind, whereas trade in retail gave only employment to the hands. As all the acts of the mind are noble, the laws, which have neglected the diſtinction and illuſtration of trade in retail, for certain moral reaſons, have honoured and diſtinguiſhed wholeſale trade.

* Plutarch's life of Cato; he lived 196 years before Chriſt.

As a proof that commerce had nothing in it baſe and derogatory among the Romans, the emperor Pertinax exerciſed it the greateſt part of his life, and even after he was emperor. Caracalla *, in the cruel maſſaere he cauſed to be made at Alexandria, had great regard to the body of merchants, who were very numerous in that city: in giving orders to all foreigners to remove from it, he excepted the merchants, and allowed them to ſtay there at liberty. Alexander Severus, from a view to make trade flouriſh in Rome, and to bring in merchants thither, granted them large immunities. Maximinus himſelf carried on trade with the Goths, &c.

* Hiſtory of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, by M. Huet, cap. 57. no. 9, 11, 12, and 13.

We have given occaſionally a multitude of other examples, throughout the courſe of this work, which ſhew us that great men have thought it no diſparagement to them to acquire great eſtates by trading: ſuch examples are common among the Greeks and Romans; theſe people had as delicate notions of honour as we. The Venetians, in order to train up the ſons of their nobility in the knowledge of the navy, oblige the merchant ſhips that ſail into foreign countries to take always two of them, whom the captain is obliged to maintain at his table, without being bound to any work, but only to take notice how the ſhip is wrought, and what obſervations are made by the pilots.

In fine, trade was ſo honourable among the Ancients, that the emperors granted it a particular protection. They honoured the cities that ſignalized themſelves in commerce, or in building ſhips, or that were famous for ſome conſiderable ſea-port. Theſe cities cauſed their medals to be ſtamped either with a ſhip, or with a prow, or ſometimes with a Neptune and his trident, or with a dolphin. Such were the medals of Tyre * and Sidon, of Byzantium, of Leucate, Chelidonium, Syracuſe, &c. Hiſtory of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, chap. xlvi. no. 15. p. 273.

* The Scripture, Ezek. xxvii. furniſhes us with a glorious teſtimony of the riches and maritime forces of the city of Tyre, which the prophet extols, as well as her ſailors, her ſhipping, her great trade, &c. But this might be the old Tyre; the new city far ſurpaſſed it, according to the late M. Huet, in his Hiſtory of the Commeree and Navigation of the Aneients, chap. viii. no. 4. p. 33. Aceording to Herodotus, the Tyrians came from the Lydians.

REMARKS.

How the French regard their maritime affairs.

'France, as well as the Roman empire, ſays Monſ. Dutot, has maritime and trading towns that deſerve medals, and are undoubtedly of conſequenee to be honoured and protected, becauſe they have ſignalized themſelves in trade, and by building of ſhips. Nay, ſhe has ſome that has done more; and, though they have neither lands nor manufacture, have found a way to carry on navigation. They are accuſtomed to hazards; their ſhips have braved the dangers of the main; they have grown formidable to their neighbours, by harraſſing them continually, and by weakening them to ſuch a degree, that thoſe enemies, in revenge of their loſſes, ſwore the deſtruction of one of thoſe cities; and, for that effect, invented that formidable machine, ſo celebrated, which was to reduce it into aſhes. What wonders have been done by the courageous inhabitants of that city, equally diſtinguiſhed in it's warlike and trading capacity, in defiance to all the efforts of the enemies to the crown? Bound to ſome rocks, they had found a way to render it inacceſſible on all ſides; to build fortreſſes, which ſecure their port; in a word, to make the rocks a prodigy of art, and an eternal monument of a genius for war, matched with a genius for trade. How many excellent ſea captains have been produced in that city, and ſome others like it, which cultivate trade! How many ſhips have they built and fitted out! What noble ſailors! What excellent artiſts! How many young combatants have they trained up *! And then how much gold and ſilver have they brought into the kingdom! Their ſhips happily arriving from the South Sea in 1709, brought home gold and ſilver bullion to the amount of thirty millions, which was a ſupply to the ſtate of ſo much the more importance, as thoſe cities lent the king fifteen millions in a very preſſing exigence. This is what we are told by the miniſter of the finances himſelf, in the 13th page of his Memoirs. What ſpoils of the enemy have thoſe trading towns brought home, ruining the commerce of our neighbours, and ſecuring our own! Shall the nobility then [hear the Frenchman, Britons!] moſt of whom live idly in their caſtles, be thought more ſerviceable to the ſtate, more brave, more warlike, than thoſe heroic citizens? How would the republics of Greece and Rome have heaped honours and rewards upon citizens ſo worthy of that name!

* I ſhall take leave to remark here, that ſeveral of the privateers and ſeamen whom the city of St. Malo made uſe of during the courſe of queen Anne's wars, were Normans. Among them who manned their ſhips, and diſtinguiſhed themſelves in fight, there were many from that province: at this day ſeveral Maloine families are natives thereof.

The maritime forces of the Romans contributed not a little to their great power. Aecordingly we ſee in the Digeſts, ſome laws which inform us how much they applied themſelves to ſea affairs in certain conjunctures, even during the heat of their wars. The exemptions from all municipal charges, which they granted to the citizens to invite them to build ſhips and cultivate trade, are invincible proofs of their having been perfectly ſenſible, that maritime force and commerce were neceſſary to the preſervation and advancement of their power.

Cardinal Richlieu, who had ſo extenſive views for aggrandizing the ſtate, found no way more effectual to promote the power of the king, and the riches of the nation, than to improve navigation and trade; and, indeed, there is no other that can bring us in gold and ſilver. That great ſtateſman ſhews us very well the neceſſity and uſefulneſs of a power by ſea *. According to him, trade has a neceſſary dependance upon that maritime power.

* The Politieal Teſtament, chap. 9. ſect 5. l. 6.

After having ſhewn the advantages which the Engliſh would have over us, if our weakneſs by ſea ſhould cut us off from all means of attempting any thing to their prejudice, our author cites, by way of example, the inſult offered by that proud nation [obſerve monſieur again] to the duke of Sully, ſent by Henry IV. into England, in quality of ambaſſador extraordinary; and he counſels Lewis XIII. to put himſelf in ſuch a poſture, that he may not ſuffer the like again. He ſhews all the advantages of a powerful navy; he proves the uſefulneſs of it and of trade, by the example of the Dutch, who owe their power only to their navy and their trade. It was in the time of his miniſtry, that Lewis XIII. made that glorious ſtatute of February 1, 1629; where, in order to induce the ſubjects to carry on ſea-trade, he declared by the 452d article, That the gentlemen, who ſhould apply themſelves to that commerce in their own perſons, or by ſubſtitution of others, ſhould DEROGATE NOTHING FROM THEIR NOBILITY, &c.

It was upon theſe ſame principles that the great Colbert, that faithful miniſter, protected arts and manufactures. Here were at that time in France a great many factors and commiſſioners from foreign traders, and very few merchants. He

looked

looked upon ſocieties or companies * as the moſt proper means to engage the French to carry on trade by themſelves: and, as among all the examples of commerce that are extant in the ſeveral parts of the world, there is none richer nor more conſiderable than that of the Eaſt-Indies; he diſcovered thereby the importance of navigation and of long voyages; he obſerved that thoſe voyages not only were indications of the power of a ſtate, but alſo an infallible means of introducing plenty into it. He was of opinion, therefore, that it ſuited with the glory of the king, and the intereſts of his people, to undertake that trade, which Henry IV. and Lewis XIII. could not carry to it's perfection. He determined the king to form the ſame deſign in 1664, and to ſpare nothing for the accompliſhment of ſo great a work, which might be ranked among the moſt famous tranſactions of the reign of Lewis le Grand. He formed the Eaſt-India company, he protected it with all his power, aſſiſted it with his money, and took upon himſelf the heavieſt charges of the execution, though he would have no ſhare in the profits of the ſucceſs. You will even find in father Charlevoix, the jeſuit's Hiſtory of Japan, that knowing the Japaneſe received in their ports only Dutch ſhips, and would traffic neither with the Spaniards nor the Portugueze, upon account of their profeſſing the Catholic religion, whereby they became odious to them, this miniſter propoſed that the emperor of Japan ſhould be told, that the king of France had a great many ſubjects who followed the religion of the Dutch; and that if he thought fit, the king would ſend ſhips to him manned by none but thoſe of that religion †. This is called thinking like a miniſter. The project, however, did not ſucceed, by reaſon of the prejudice of the Japaneſe government, which is terribly apprehenſive of ſtrangers, having got intelligence of what paſſed in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

* This is the firſt ſtep by which all maritime nations cut out their branches of foreign trade; and it is the beſt way for all new branches to be firſt eſtabliſhed, becauſe companies will hazard what private men will not.

† See Obſervations upon modern writings, Tom. X. p. 305.

In this manner did that great miniſter encourage traders to apply themſelves to maritime commerce, and to build ſhips proper for long voyages. That company was not the only one he formed; he eſtabliſhed one for the Weſt-Indies, for the trade in the Levant, and for that in the North Seas. He laid out himſelf for the improvement of the old manufactures, and eſtabliſhed new ones; in fine, he gave powerful protection to trade, arts, and manufactures, which he juſtly conſidered as the moſt effectual means to increaſe the power of the king, and the riches of the kingdom. And, indeed, to ſay it over again, there is no other way that can bring us in gold and ſilver.

M. Colbert had the ſatisfaction to ſee, that his pains and endeavours were not fruitleſs, he left trade in a flouriſhing ſtate: but after him, the face of things very much changed, commerce was ruined, and all the expences he had laid out for the eſtabliſhment of the Eaſt-India company, and what were laid out ſince his time by his ſucceſſors, who were no longer ſufficient to make that trade advantageous.

Navigation, which is the ſoul of commerce, procures always a vaſt profit to the ſtate. The building of ſhips, their victualling and ſtores, conſiderable articles of expence, which, being laid out within the ſtate, furniſh ſeveral inhabitants with the means of living and enriching themſelves. It employs all the inhabitants of the ſea-coaſts, who can hardly be uſeful in any other way; and, for want of this navigation, are in a manner neceſſitated to ſerve in foreign countries; this is what happened, whenever we gave over ſea trade. By loſing them we ſuſtain a double loſs; our coaſts become deſolate, our navigation languiſhes, and that of our foreign neighbours increaſes at our expence. Prohibitions againſt SAILORS going out of the kingdom are uſeleſs: they are born only for ſailing, the ſea is their element; if we do not employ them that way ourſelves, no prohibitions will prevent their going elſewhere to ſeek for employment.

But we are told, the maintenance of a powerful navy coſts the ſtate immenſe ſums of money, which it is unable to ſupport.

To remove this prejudice, we muſt ſhew by an accurate and well calculated detail, what was the monthly expence of the French navy in 1681, the moſt flouriſhing one that France ever had. Here is an exact ſummary thereof below *.

This navy, as we know, was as ſplendid and magnificent as it was powerful. It conſiſted of 115 ſhips, of the firſt, ſecond, third, fourth, and fifth rates, of 24 ſmall frigates, 8 fire-ſhips, 10 barca longas, and 22 pinks, making in all 179 ſhips; conſiſting of 7080 pieces of cannon, 1028 major officers, 7955 marine officers, 20,618 mariners, 10,904 ſoldiers, the whole crews being 39,477 (the 1028 major officers not included).

* The SUMMARY.

Rate of the ſhips.	No.	Guns.	Maj. officers.	Marine offic.	Sailors.	Soldiers.	The whole crews.	Pay per month.	Victualling per month.	Coſt of the equipment per month.
1ſt Rate - - -	12	1080	108	1232	4132	2486	7850	118,086l.	65,483l. 10s.	183,569l. 10s.
2d Rate - - -	21	1518	189	1719	4470	2661	8850	142,776 10s.	74,782 10s.	217,559
3d Rate - - -	36	1928	251	2350	6142	3008	11,500	188,329	98,105	286,434
4th Rate - - -	26	1088	156	1167	2713	1570	5450	93,942	46,758 15s.	140,700 15s
5th Rate - - -	20	608	119	681	1427	682	2790	55,091	24,356	79,447
Totals -	115	6222	823	7149	18,884	10,407	36,440	598,224 10s.	309,485 15s.	907,719 5s.
Small frigates - -	24	400	125	446	937	497	1880	42,397 15s.	16,721 5s.	59,119
Fire-ſhips - -	8	74	16	80	160		240	6064	2130	8194
Barca longas - -	10	43	20	90	190		280	6204	2475	8679
Pinks - - -	22	341	44	190	447		637	14,253	5838	20,091
Totals -	179	7080	1028	7955	20,618	10,904	39,477	667,143 5s.	336,650	1,003,793 5s.
Gallies - - -	30					3010	3010	72,322 15s.	26,930	99,252 15s.
The whole navy thereof coſt							42,987	739,466	363,580	1,103,046

Whoſe monthly pay when they were equipped, amounted to the ſum of -	667,143	00	00	
And the victuals per month coſt - - - - -				336,650 00 00
Which makes the ſum of - - - - -				1,003,793 00 00
The 30 gallies, all of them likewiſe armed, whoſe whole crew were 5600 ſlaves, 2400 ſailors of one claſs, 935 of another *, and 3010 ſoldiers, coſt for their pay and victualling - - - - - - -	99,252	15	00	208,220 10 00
Pay and victualling extraordinary - - - - - -	108.967	15	00	
The expence of that whole navy armed and equipped, would therefore coſt per month the ſum of - - - - - -				1,212,013 10 00
Suppoſing the whole to be equipped for ſix months of the year, a thing which never happens every year, that formidable navy would coſt - -				7,272,081 00 00

* Mariners de rang and mariners de rambades, names taken from the parts of the galley to which we have nothing correſpondent in Engliſh.

Had all things riſen in proportion to the ſpecie in France, ſays our author, we might ſay that this expence at preſent would amount to 12,933,920 livres; becauſe 7,272,081 livres of that time, are exactly equal to 12,933,920 livres of the preſent. But all things have not riſen in proportion to the ſpecie: the ſalaries or pay of the ſea-officers, are much the ſame as they were in 1681; a ſeaman of the firſt claſs has no more than 15 livres per month; thoſe of the ſecond 13 livres 10 ſols, and ſo of the reſt. Proviſions are not dearer at this day than they were. This being the caſe, the pay and victualling of 39,477 men, who were in the aforeſaid 179 ſhips (not including 1028 major officers) and of the 10,985 men, who were in the above-mentioned gallies, making 50,462 men, which amount, as we have ſeen, to 7,272,081 livres of that time, would hardly coſt more at this day. The additional expence, if it can be called one, will only reſpect the conſtruction and equipment of the ſhips and gallies, which we don't comprehend in this calculation, and which, to a mere trifle, might be made up by the ſaving of thoſe years, when only a part, or at leaſt not the whole, of that navy is armed,

armed, for the whole navy is not armed or equipped every year; when at ſea, it is there for ordinary only ſix months of the year; or when it is not, or but a part of it, the expence is not ſo high; what is ſhort of it amounts to a good deal, and at the long-run, perhaps, more than compenſates the charges of the conſtruction, rigging, and arming of thoſe ſhips.

Another CALCULATION.

It is agreed among thoſe who know what the conſtruction and equipment of ſhips is, that a man of war of 60 guns, equipped and victualled for a year, pay, &c. coſts 600,000 livres.

	Livres.
Now the pay and victualling for a crew of 500 men for one year, and the pay of the major officers, amount to 160,000 livres, at leaſt they exceed 159,000 livres - -	160,000
This ſum ſubtracted from the 600,000 livres above, the remainder 440,000 livres is for the conſtruction, the equipment, guns, &c. of the ſhip. And the common duration of a ſhip is 20 years, we muſt therefore reckon for every year only - - - -	22,000
A ſhip of 60 guns, compleatly equipped in war, coſts therefore per annum at moſt but - -	182,000
Conſequently 100 ſhips of that kind would coſt 18,200,000 livres per annum: but ſuch a navy is at ſea at moſt but ſix months of the year. A man of war of that kind, is able to carry proviſions for 500 ſeamen, only five or ſix months at moſt. Now the pay and proviſions of that ſhip for ſix months amount only to - - - - -	80,000
The conſtruction and rigging as above -	22,000
It would therefore be only - -	102,000

And for 100 ſhips, 10,200,000 livres per ann. ſuppoſing the whole to he equipped ſix months of the year, which never happens every year; thus we may ſay, that a navy of 100 ſhips of 60 guns, would not coſt ten millions, communibus annis, all things included; an expence not to be laid in the balance with the honour and advantage, which would accrue from thence to the nation.

In 1681, the expence of 7,272,081 livres, was not more than France was able to bear; the king, however, at that time, had only 116,873,476 livres of revenue *. He enjoys now at leaſt 200 millions: therefore, you will ſay, he is better able to ſupport that expence, than he was in 1681. That is true if we look only to the tale of pieces, which is at preſent more than it was then by 83,126,524 livres: but, if we conſider that theſe livres are not the ſame, we ſhall find our error.

* See Chap. II. art. 5.

	Marks.
For the 116,873,476 livres in 1681, at 28 livres the mark of ſilver, made to Lewis XIV. a yearly ſum of - -	4,174,052 5/7
And the 200 millions of livres which Lewis XV. enjoys at preſent, conſiſt of livres, whereof 49 l. 16 s. go to the mark; conſequently his preſent majeſty receives only the ſum of - - -	4,116,466
Therefore Lewis XV. receives the yearly ſum of 7,865,825 livres leſs than Lewis XIV. received, amounting to - -	57,586 5/7

Lewis XV. is therefore really leſs rich with his larger tale of 200,000,000, than Lewis XIV. was with his ſmaller one of 116,000,000, though the people are not thereby more eaſed, abſtracting from the price of commodities which has riſen. This is a very plain proof, that the riſe of the numerical value of money has been diſadvantageous to the king and people as debtors. But this does not hinder France from being able to furniſh out the expences of a powerful navy; it will be eaſy for her, if ſhe has a mind, even without burdening the people with new taxes, to find 8, 10, and 12,000,000 a year, if they be neceſſary for the maintenance of that navy. This expence is the more neceſſary to France, as ſhe never will be powerful, reſpected, nor feared by her neighbours, 'till ſhe is miſtreſs of the ſea. All the forces ſhe may or can have by land, will never produce the ſame effect. An army of 20,000 men upon that liquid plain, would procure to her more honour and profit than 200,000 men by land.

The Ancients knew, that their power and riches abſolutely depended upon maritime forces. They were no leſs perſuaded than Themiſtocles had been, and than Pompey was afterwards, of the truth of this great maxim, He who is maſter of the ſea, is maſter of all *.

* Hiſtory of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, chap. xvi. No. 14. And the French Mercury, Tom. III. p. 226.

The anſwer given by the oracle of Delphi to the Athenians, to fortify their city with wooden walls, to defend themſelves againſt the invaſion of Xerxes, is an advice which all conquerors have taken to themſelves, and which Lewis XIV. made uſe of ſo ſucceſsfully, that his power by ſea was become formidable to the Engliſh, Dutch, and Spaniſh, as that of his grandfather was weak and contemptible; witneſs the affront offered by king James to the duke of Sully, which we have mentioned above.

* Notes of Amelot de la Houſſaye, p. 238. of the ſecond volume of cardinal d'Oſſat's Letters.

The indiſpenbſile neceſſity France lies under to maintain a powerful navy, is alſo fully confirmed by a diſcourſe upon that ſubject, delivered by an old ſervant of the crown, quoted in the 13th tome of the French Mercury, p. 209, & ſeq. By the letter of cardinal d'Oſſat of the 16th of October 1596, to M. de Villeroy, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate *; by the counſel which Antony Perez gave to Henry IV. and by that which cardinal Richlieu gave to Lewis XIII. as we ſee it in the 9th chapter of the ſecond part of his Political Teſtament, ſect. 5. Now, if in order to be more powerful by land, we muſt be ſtronger by ſea, and if the prince who is the maſter of the ſea is infallibly umpire of his neighbours, there is no room for demurring: whatever expence a powerful fleet may coſt, we ought to lay it out preferably to other things which are leſs important, ſince the intereſt and grandeur of the king, the good of his people, and the ſecurity of the ſtate require it. France may have 100,000 ſeafaring people, the ſoldiers of the navy not included. It is her intereſt to employ and maintain theſe ſeamen, they are uſeful and valuable ſubjects to their country. I ſhall here give a particular account of all thoſe who were through the ſeveral coaſts, and in all the diſtricts of the kingdom, according to the reviews of them which were taken by the commiſſaries in the month of January 1713, amounting to 92,450 men, viz.

* It is the 84th in that collection of letters publiſhed in 5 volumes in 12mo, with notes, by Amelot de la Houſſaye, p. 237, & ſeq. of the 2d tome.

Sea-officers.	Captains, maſters	5585	16,610
	For working the ſhip	3225	
	For the ſteerage	1577	
	For the gunnery	3329	
	For the carpentry	1643	
	For the caulking	721	
	For the ſails	530	
Sailors *.	At 15 livers per month	8253	41,278
	At 13 livres 10 ſols	7153	
	At 12 livres	7247	
	At 11 livres	5861	
	At 10 livres	12,764	
The unexperienced ſeamen in all the diſtricts			11,276
Ship boys ditto			10,920
Invalids ditto			12,366
Total of all the ſeafaring people in all the diſtricts of the kingdom.			99,450

* They receive no more pay at this day. Proviſions, or grain in general, is not dearer now than in 1681. Thus the additional expence cannot fall upon the pay and victualling, it can only reſpect the building and rigging of the ſhips.

Now the major officers, ſuch as lieutenant-generals of naval armies, commodores, captains, lieutenants, enſigns, &c. of ſhips, are not included in this calculation; thus we have more than a HUNDRED THOUSAND SEAMEN, without reckoning the ſoldiers and the gardes marines *.

* Theſe are gentlemen diſtributed through the ſeveral ſeaports, to be inſtructed at the king's expence in the knowledge of navigation, and whatever belongs to it, who ſerve as volunteers, out of this body the ſea-officers are generally choſen. Is it not very ſurpriſing to hear people ſay, that the French cannot man a fleet equal to that of Great-Britain?

The land-forces coſt much more than this powerful navy, and they are neither capable of bringing us ſo much honour nor profit; they can neither make the French flag be reſpected nor feared ſo far; they are no ſort of protection to our foreign trade, which is the only means of aggrandizing and enriching the ſtate. All the forces we can have by land, will never free us from ſubjection to maritime powers, nor put us in a condition to humble the pride of thoſe haughty iſlanders, who believe and call themſelves the kings of the ſea. [Obſerve how Britons are here treated!] This we are only to look for from a powerful navy, able to diſpute that empire with them, and to oblige them to pay the firſt honour to the FRENCH FLAG; an honour which is due to it by a juſt claim, as we ſhall endeavour to make appear. Attend, Britons, again!

Cæſar, in his Commentaries, ſpeaks of the northern Gauls *,

* Theſe are at this day the inhabitants of Normandy and of the Low-Countries. They have always been famous for navigation. See Thuanus's Hiſtory.
According to the geographical ſtate of Normandy by Maſſeville, Tom. II. p. 688. we owe to the Normans.
The diſcovery of Guinea, found out by the inhabitants of Dieppe in 1364.

The

The conqueſt of the Canaries, by John de Bethencourt, lord de Grainville in the county of Caux, in 1420, and not in 1348, as the author of the Hiſtory of Navigation alledges, Tom. I. p. 69. In 1479, the privateers of that province took from the enemy 80 ſhips loaded with corn and herrings. The Hiſtory of Normandy by Maſſeville, Tom. IV. p. 318.

The diſcovery of the third continent of the world, known under the name of Terra Auſtralis, made in 1504, by Capt. Gouneville of Liſieux.

The diſcovery of Canada, made anno 1508, by Thomas Aubert of Dieppe.

According to Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 665 of his large Hiſtory, Guillemot's edition, the people of Dieppe have always had the glory of the ſea among the French; and anno 1556, with 19 ſhips they beat 22 Flemiſh, larger and better provided in artillery and fireworks, they carried ſeveral of them to Dieppe. He adds, that the Normans had more men, thatthe Dutch were wont to fight with cannon-ſhot, and the Normans with ſhort arms and by boarding. Thuanus gives the ſame account of them. And it was by order of king Henry II. that they ſet out and attacked that fleet. Geographical State of Normandy by Maſſeville, Tom. I. p. 142.

According to the Hiſtory of Navigation, Tom. II. p. 19 chap. IV. Nambue, a cadet, of a good family in Normandy, and captain of a king's ſhip, was the firſt of all the Europeans, who projected the deſign, with ſucceſs, of forming a colony in the American iſlands, anno 1625.

And, in fine, the diſcovery of Louiſiana, made in the year 1676 or 1680, by La Salle Cavalier of Rouen.

We might place at the head of the atchievements of the Normans, their conqueſt of England, anno 1066, and that of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, made anno 1070, by the lords of Houteville, of the dioceſe of Coutances.

as thoſe who underſtood commerce and navigation, the beſt of any who were then known, without even excepting thoſe of Marſeilles. He highly extols the dexterity of their pilots; he glories in having tranſmitted to the Romans the manner of building ſhips, and of navigating, as practiſed by the northern Gauls. Vegetius has written upon their naval diſcipline. Sidonius ſpeaks to the advantage of their mariners; he makes them as expert as the pilots of other nations; he ſays, they know how to obey, as they know how to command. At that time the Engliſh knew nothing of navigation; Cæſar ſays, they had only little canoes of ozier for their fiſheries, and for navigating along their coaſts.

It is very much to the honour of our nation, that ancient hiſtorians find there the oldeſt and the moſt expert ſailors. Ought not this to put it beyond debate that the firſt honour is due to the French flag?

At that time, commerce was not looked uponas derogatory to the nobility; it was, on the contrary, the original and ſupport thereof. The Gauls made no diſtinction in the affair of commerce and navigation; the nobles, as well as the plebeians, traded equally. The trading people, far from being excluded from offices and employments, were, on the contrary, inveſted with them, as having greater ability and experience than others; for, as commerce and navigation inrich perſons, ſo they make them, alſo, more capable than others of MANAGING AFFAIRS, and, conſequently, fitter for poſts and offices *.

* Father Lamy, in his Diſſertations upon the Sciences, ſays, There are none who reaſon in general with ſo much good ſenſe and juſtneſs, as a merchant does with reſpect to the affairs of commerce. The reflections and calculations which he is continually obliged to make, accuſtom him to think. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE. And quere, Whether ſuch a courſe as I have there humbly propoſed, would not accompliſh perſons of diſtinction for the greateſt poſts of truſt and honour in the ſtate, better than the ordinary ſcholaſtic method of education? And whether being a few years converſant with real traffic, would not prove the moſt uſeful college for ſuch men of public buſineſs?

But the wars with which the Gauls were harraſſed for ſeveral ages, having too much diſtinguiſhed from others thoſe who bore arms, by their ſervices and poſts, as by the riches which they acquired by the ſpoils of the enemy; and theſe having given over commerce, to devote themſelves ſolely to arms, commerce remained only with the populace. A diſtinction ſo rivetted by long uſe, that, whatever laws the kings have made to engage thoſe whom we call the nobles, to cultivate maritime and wholeſale trade, by making it compatible with the privilege of their birth, they have always preferred to an honourable commerce, a dull inactive life of IGNOMINIOUS POVERTY, deſpiſing the examples of the Ancients, of the Engliſh, the Dutch, the Genoeſe, &c. who, conſidering commerce in a quite other light than we, live in a happy plenty.

It is navigation and commerce that renders Great-Britain ſo rich, ſo powerful, and have enabled that iſland to counterbalance all the powers of Europe; and yet that country is not equal in extent to the half of France.

It is alſo navigation and commerce that makes Holland ſo powerful, though it's dominion extends only over ſeven little provinces, which produce not the twentieth part of what is neceſſary to the inhabitants; and yet they put to ſea a prodigious number of ſhips, and maintain conſiderable armies by land; which has made that ſmall country, as it were, the general treaſury of all the nations which their policy has found a way to unite againſt us; and who, without the aſſiſtance of money from Holland, would not be long of breaking their union *.

* That nation has at all times artfully improved every occaſion that offered in favour of their commerce, and remarkably the intereſt that we had in 1678 to diſunite her from her allies. This unhappy circumſtance determined the king to grant her a renewal of old treaties, and to allow her to explain them as ſhe pleaſed; which ſhe joyfully accepted, and, in conſequence thereof, the treaty of Nimeguen was agreed to, April 10, 1678.

After having ſaid, in the ſixth article of that treaty, that the ſubjects on either ſide ſhould enjoy a full and intire liberty of commerce in Europe, in all the bounds of each other's dominions, the Dutch added to the former ones that we find in the ſeventh article: this article is of ſo much importance and advantage to them, that they have again extended it in the treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, April 11, 1713. This particular regard which the Dutch ſhew to this article, lets us ſee that they hold for almoſt nothing the reſt of the treaty, provided we put in execution this article, which is as favourable to them as it is contrary to the intereſt of our commerce: for this article they made no ſcruple to withdraw from their allies at Nimeguen, and to be the firſt who ſigned the treaty of Ryſwick.

By means of this article, the Dutch enjoy the fertility of our country, and all the advantages of the French ſubjects: they make a very advantageous uſe of it, to the prejudice of the natural ſubjects, and without contributing in any thing to the ſupport of the ſtate. Beſides the advantages which this article procures them, they take from the king even the liberty of granting any particular favour to his own ſubjects, unleſs, at the ſame time, he gratifies with it the Dutch merchants: and, by the ninth article, we, in a manner, renounce the Levant trade in favour of the Dutch, who are become the maſters of it. The Dutch are not ignorant, that, upon the remonſtrances and complaints of the ſubjects, the ſovereign, who owes them juſtice preferably to foreigners, is always in the right to make what regulations he thinks proper for the good of the ſtate. To conclude, this article included in the treaty of Utrecht, was limited to 25 years, and conſequently it expired April 11, 1738.

Genoa, that formerly magnificent city, has but a ſmall compaſs of dominion; would ſhe ever have been in a condition to ſupport ſo many wars, were it not for the riches that commerce and navigation procured her? In what vaſt expence has ſhe been engaged for many ages, to reſiſt the Venetians, and other people in Italy, to whom her proſperity gave umbrage? How many ſeditions at home amongſt her inhabitants? How many tumults and commotions excited by thoſe famous names of Guelphs and Gibelines? How much muſt all theſe have coſt her? What vaſt expence has ſhe been put to by the rebellion of Corſica for theſe many years paſt? That article alone, we are aſſured, amounts to upwards of 30 millions: ſhe is ſtill flouriſhing after all, and abounds with every thing: in the mean time, ſhe has no other reſource but from commerce.

There are numbers of other examples we might cite; but theſe I take to be ſufficient to ſhew us, that France would reap vaſt advantages from commerce and navigation, if the taſte for commerce could be further promoted in France *. What noble families would then be raiſed!

* The erection of the India company is a pretty ſure means to engage the French to carry on our commerce, and to give them a taſte for it; this is a bleſſing to the ſtate. The maritime trade, which it carries on with ſucceſs enough, ſets us at liberty from the ſervile tribute we paid to our neighbours before it's erection, to be ſupplied with things we wanted: they took advantage of our ſupineneſs, to inrich themſelves at our expence.

At all times, the Engliſh and Dutch have endeavoured to get us to demoliſh any conſiderable ſea-ports we have had in the channel. Theſe ports give umbrage to them, and extremely incommode their commerce. But their continual oppoſition is an invincible proof, that it would be beneficial to our commerce and navigation to have at leaſt one ſecure retreat for our ſhips, towards the middle of that bay. Cardinal d'Oſſat was ſenſible how neceſſary this was; for, in his 90th letter, dated December 18, 1596, he ſays to M. de Villeroy, to whom he writes, That it is of very great importance to us, that we have men of war in that ſtraight. Now, we can have no ſhips there without a port for their retreat; I have always heard it ſaid, that, with a little expence, we might make an excellent one at La Hogue, in Lower Normandy. This is the place in the world moſt proper for raiſing an important fortreſs, either for commerce or for ſhips. It would hold a great many of them; there they would lie in ſecurity, and ſheltered from every dangerous wind, by making a mole of about 2 or 300 toiſes, of the great or ſmall redoubt of Morſalines, towards the port of La Hogue, leaving, at the foot of that fort, a convenient entrance for the port, and by digging the bay which the mole would incloſe.

We might even cauſe the port to be cleanſed by the river Saire, which is but about the diſtance of ſix or ſeven toiſes from

from it, and which might eaſily be turned into it. That port would then be very conſiderable, and well ſituated; it has an admirable road; and all who are acquainted with the affairs of the navy, and with navigation, agree, that we ought to labour at it, and improve the advantages of that place, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of our neighbours; for, the more they ſet themſelves in oppoſition to it, the more ought we to be ſenſible that it tends to our advantage. We ought by no means to be afraid of them; this would be to do them too much honour: in a word, there it is we muſt have a port. The late marſhal de Vauban was of this mind; he has, as I am told, laid down the whole plan and ſcheme of this work. The low jealouſy of other ſea-ports towns has oppoſed it; perhaps the intereſt of the ſtate, and of commerce in general, has not been ſufficiently conſulted, which ought always to prevail over private motives; but private intereſt has always numbers of advocates, and the general intereſt has but few.

To make peace, in order to procure to ourſelves all the advantages of an extenſive commerce, is to make war upon our enemies. Let us have no more to do, therefore, with thoſe victories that are gained by ruinous means; let glory ſleep and be at reſt. It is in the heart of our plains that induſtry ſhall open to us eaſy paths to greater conqueſts. May propitious heaven preſerve to us a prince whoſe wiſdom meaſures his glory by the happineſs of his people, and a worthy miniſter, who ſeconds his views with ſo much zeal and extenſive diſcernment. France, ſuperior by the advantages of her commerce, ſhall make neighbouring ſtates know, that ſhe is as capable of raiſing her power by peace as by war.'

REMARKS on NAVAL AFFAIRS before the laſt war.

We have now ſeen what has been urged in France *, to ſpirit up that notion to uſe every endeavour to augment their maritime proweſs; and we have no little reaſon to fear that they will one day arrive at ſo great a height therein, as may give them the ſuperior dominion over the ſeas, which they have ſo long ſtruggled for. Our author inſiſts, that every power ought to bow down to the French flag, and that this is a right and an homage due by all the powers upon earth to the fleets of this Grand Monarch. Many, too many, I am ſenſible, will laugh at this, and treat it as the mere gaſconade of a Frenchman; others, who are really acquainted with the extent of the maritime commerce of the kingdom, the number of ſeamen they can raiſe for the equipment of their fleets, and the daily increaſe of their royal navy, by the almoſt conſtant purchaſe and building of ſhips abroad and at home, will not think ſo meanly as ſome are wont to do, who ought to know better of the naval ſtrength of this neighbour kingdom. Before the laſt war, was it not ſanguinely propagated by ſome, that the French had no trade, none that ought to give Great-Britain the leaſt umbrage? Has not experience taught us the contrary? Some will yet ſay, that France has no ſeamen to man a fleet any thing formidable, nor any ſhips fit to look the Britiſh navy in the face. I am afraid theſe people talk without book.—Under this head we can only touch the outlines, as it were, of a matter of this concernment; we ſhall reſume the ſubject hereafter, under the articles SAILORS, SEA DOMINION, and SHIPPING, where we ſhall endeavour to give an authentic account of the French marine, and of the whole conſtitution of their naval affairs, leaving others to make compariſons. The author is the laſt perſon in the kingdom who would wantonly ſpread groundleſs alarms; he has taken ſome pains to inform himſelf, not only of the commercial policy of this nation, but of the foundation now laid to raiſe it's maritime power to a pitch that may ſome time make Britain tremble, however omnipotent ſhe may think herſelf by ſea at preſent.—The conſequence hereof, I cannot help owning, as a friend to the liberties of mankind, appear to me with an aſpect I ſhould not chuſe to deſcribe at preſent.—It is my buſineſs to ſtate what is repreſented to me for facts, before the public; if the danger is at greater diſtance than we can preſume to foreſee, none will blame our vigilance, and honeſt zeal for the public intereſts, who really wiſh well to the trade and liberties of theſe kingdoms.—Do we not ſee the greateſt part of Chriſtendom enſlaved by eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military tyranny? Have we not long enough experienced the refractory politics of the court of Spain? What cardinal point has the nation gained of Spain, from the treaty of Hanover to that of Aix la Chapelle, to make us any compenſation for the numerous millions they have occaſioned us to ſpend, and for the thouſands and ten thouſands of lives they have obliged us to ſacrifice? Rather than act with cordiality and juſtice towards Great-Britain, in conſideration of what ſhe has as well borne from her, as done for her, are not depredations ſtill made on our merchants? And we wiſh that ſhe may not appear ready to join with the firſt power that may draw the ſword againſt us, inſtead of doing us right in point of our trade and navigation? Glad ſhall we be if theſe apprehenſions prove groundleſs. We, however, think it our duty not to conceal them, but modeſtly ſubmit them to others.

* See Reflexions Politiques ſur les Finances & Commerce de France.

Under the article BRITISH AMERICA, we have ſet forth the claims and encroachments of the French in the new world.—We have experienced, by our recent accounts from North-America, that our fears on that occaſion have not been chimerical; and what will be our fate in relation to the negociations touching the adjuſtment of limits upon the continent, as well as in regard to our iſland colonies, we do not yet ſeem to be ſatisfied.—Under the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, and divers other parts of this work, we have repreſented from facts indiſputable, the nature and extent of the French commerce and navigation, and what ſtrides they have actually made to univerſal empire: we have done the like under the chief provinces of Spain, and ſhewn, that, inſtead of doing right to the trade of theſe kingdoms, ſhe is only ſtudying to advance her own, and that ſhe is abſolutely changing her ſyſtem, from a paſſive to active commerce, and increaſing her maritime ſtrength; all which forebodes ſtill greater and greater evils to this nation in particular.—In regard likewiſe to the barrier of the Dutch, we have repreſented, under the article HOLLAND, how importantly neceſſary it is to ſecure, without delay, a good BARRIER to the States General.—Their marine, we well know, is far from being in a reſpectable condition: ſo that if France and Spain ſhould unite their naval forces againſt us, we muſt ſtand, as it were, alone; we can have no timely and effectual aid by ſea from our natural allies, and very little by land, if their barrier continues unſettled 'till a freſh war breaks out; their councils ſeem ſome how perplexed and diſtracted, by machinations that are apparent to every man who will vouchſafe to open his eyes.—In a word, we wiſh the affairs of a certain nation may not be ſo conducted as they are, with a view chiefly to throw duſt in the eyes of another nation, that ſhe may be lulled into a lethargy, or diverted from the purſuit of her own ſafety and preſervation, 'till the PROPER TIME may come for the great blow to be ſtruck, by the ſecret increaſe of a maritime force, that may prove formidable to all Europe.—Hitherto, all other means have failed them; their military alone they find will not effectually anſwer their reſtleſs intentions; nothing will humble the haughty iſlanders but a ſuperior naval force, and that they ſeem determined, at all events, to have, and therefore have been, imperceptibly, at it were, augmenting the ſame, ever ſince the late peace, by purchaſing Engliſh ſhips, building others both at home and abroad, and filling their magazines with naval ſtores.—Theſe things have been doing, and are daily doing; but that we ſhould not clearly diſcern their doings; that this nation ſhould, as much as poſſible, be kept in ignorance of thoſe meaſures, and our ſight eclipſed from ſeeing the gradual riſe of their naval power, we wiſh that pretended, inſtead of real ſchemes of diſtraction, may not have been hatched and kept alive 'till they think the happy criſis is come.—We wiſh theſe conjectures may prove viſionary; but is it not right rather to be upon the Qui vive than otherwiſe? In our negociations ſince the peace, have we met with that cordiality and diſpoſition neceſſary to adjuſt and terminate theſe miſunderſtandings between the two crowns? On the contrary, have we not juſt cauſe to ſuſpect that they mean nothing leſs than to ſettle thoſe points amicably?

Upon the whole, Great-Britain ſhould ſeem, as ſhe is at preſent circumſtanced, to have nothing to truſt to but the increaſe of her naval power; and, if we take the proper meaſures to ſupply ourſelves with NAVAL STORES of every kind, the money we ſpend on this occaſion will ſpring from ourſelves, and circulate among ourſelves, and thereby our very NAVAL EXPENCES may be made inſtrumental to the increaſe of the riches of the nation, while they are augmenting it's NAVAL POWER.

However paradoxical this, at firſt ſight, may appear, it is nevertheleſs true: for, if our naval ſtores are all raiſed within ourſelves and our plantations, will they not all ſpring from our own lands, and the labour of our own people? And are not the produce of our lands, and the arts and labour of our people, the great ſource of all our treaſures? Suppoſe, in order to maintain the Britiſh navy in a ſtate of ſuperiority, requiſite to encounter every danger wherewith we might be ſurprized, the nation was to be at an extraordinary expence of half a million a year, for ten years together; if we took no article whatever which concern our naval affairs from foreign nations, this would be half a million a year clear and abſolute gain to the nation, and ſuch a real increaſe of her treaſures; for if our own lands were ſo cultivated as to produce every ſpecies of timber neceſſary for the occaſion, as well as we have all proviſions within ourſelves; and if we could provide ourſelves with all pitch, tar, turpentine, and hemp for cordage and ſail-cloth; if we could alſo ſupply ourſelves amply with iron of all kinds, proper for the purpoſe, and every other individual article, from the ſhipwright and grazier, even to the very ſhip chandler; would not every one intereſted in the ſupply be gainers, in proportion to the additional national expence, from the landed gentleman to the very caulker and rigger by ſuch increaſe of naval ſtrength? And, while the nation actually poſſeſſed an increaſe in her quantity of ſhipping, equivalent to the additional expence incurred, we do not ſee how the nation could be any greater loſer by ſuch extra-expence, than what may be allowed for wear and tear, &c. becauſe

the

the whole is the additional produce of our lands, our own labour, and our own arts.

If, indeed, by our contracts for naval ſtores, the nation is impoſed upon, and made to pay 50, or cent. per cent. more for them than they are intrinſically worth; in ſuch caſe, the loſs to the nation is ſo much more than the article of mere wear and tear, as the nation is actually defrauded of.—Now, if this be the true ſtate of the matter, we have no reaſon to apprehend that ſuch an additional expence incurred, and paid within the year, could ever prove injurious to the nation, unleſs the taxes for that purpoſe were ſo laid, as to prove a clog and incumbrance upon our trade; for if thereby the price of our labour, arts, and manufactures, was increaſed in proportion to the yearly incurred national expence, then the nation might loſe in the vent of it's commodities at foreign markets, more than it gained by the augmentation of it's royal navy.—This, among numerous other reaſons given throughout our work, ſhould ſeem to ſhew, that the preſent conſtitution of the public revenue is as little calculated to promote the increaſe of our naval, as of our commercial power; and, therefore, that it may one day become neceſſary to think of ſo gradually changing the preſent ſyſtem of the revenue, that it's neceſſary plight and condition may ever go hand-in-hand with the advancement of our trading intereſt, as well as the increaſe and ſplendor of our royal marine.—This is what all wiſe and honeſt men, who are true friends to their country, wiſh to ſee happily accompliſhed; and this is one great point that we ſhall moſt ſincerely endeavour to promote, with due ſubmiſſion to the judgment of the public.

Certain it is, that the ſurprizing ſucceſs of the French in navigation (to which, but in our fathers days, they were almoſt abſolute ſtrangers) is, in our opinion, principally owing to the excellent laws and ordinances which have been eſtabliſhed, within little more than half this century, in that kingdom, for the regulation of all maritime affairs; in which their ſummary and eaſy method of proceeding has been found to be very beneficial to all that have had occaſion to be concerned in it: for the government finding that the only means to have a powerful navy, was to encourage trade and navigation amongſt private perſons, nothing was omitted that could, in any manner, tend to the advancement of commerce.

And, indeed, if we conſider the prodigious increaſe of the naval ſtrength of France within theſe 70 years laſt paſt, we are obliged to acknowledge, that they have been very induſtrious in promoting trade; and if, likewiſe, we examine the meaſures they have uſed, we ſhall find them to be ſuch as ſeldom, if ever, miſſed of the deſired ſucceſs, becauſe particular care has been taken to remove every impediment that might obſtruct the progreſs and improvement of their navigation, and the good execution of whatever ordinances they made for that purpoſe.

We can hardly ſuppoſe that any man of ſenſe can take amiſs what we ſay here to the advantage of the naval laws and conſtitutions of France, as if we hereby ſeemed to have leſs reſpect than we ought to have for thoſe of England. Though the French be enemies to us, we ſhould not be ſo much enemies to ourſelves, as to reject the uſe of good laws, merely becauſe they are in force amongſt them, or have been deviſed by them. Whatever our practice may be, I can aſſure you, that they are nevertheleſs taken with good laws that are enacted in bad governments; and they have, in their affairs of trade, conſulted all the laws and ſtatutes in force in every part of Europe, and, by retrenching what therein was ſuperfluous or inconvenient, and ſupplying what was deficient, with proper regulations for every ſubject, they have certainly compiled the moſt complete ſyſtem of laws for trade and navigation that ever Europe ſaw. Nor would it in the leaſt derogate from our honour to follow their example in many things worthy of imitation, ſince all the world acknowledges the reaſonableneſs of that uſeful maxim,

Fas eſt & ab hoſte doceri.

The French are now ſo thoroughly convinced of the folly of their forefathers, in deſpiſing and neglecting commerce, that, at the beginning of queen Anne's war, an edict was publiſhed, tolerating gentlemen to trade by wholeſale, either in the mercantile, or any other way, which, 'till then, was never heard of in France: on the contrary, if a gentleman only married a merchant's daughter, he derogated from his quality, of which they were ſo ridiculouſly jealous, that neither merit nor money could induce them to marry below their own condition: but, by the above-mentioned edict, traffic is made conſiſtent with nobility; which has had as ſucceſsful effects as that nation could deſire.

Nor is there, at preſent, a ſhorter way for a man to make his fortunes in France, than by projecting any thing that may tend to the benefit of commerce. The famous Colbert was indeed raiſed to the poſt of ſur-intendant of the finances, by the character that cardinal Mazarine gives of his extraordinary talents for that employment; but his capacity in advancing the intereſt of the kingdom, by the improvement of commerce and navigation, rendered him a man ſo neceſſary at court, that the king neither undertook, nor ſuffered others to undertake, any thing conſiderable of that nature, without his advice and approbation. He was the principal contriver of the excellent regulations for exchange and commerce in France: and, in a word, being acknowledged by all to be a competent judge of all ſuch matters, a perfect deference was ever had to his opinion about every thing that had any relation to trade.

However, that accompliſhed miniſter being ſenſible, that (conſidering the other great affairs of ſtate, with which the manifold dignities he deſervedly poſſeſſed at court neceſſarily obliged him to be taken up) he could not apply himſelf ſo much as he deſired to the improvement of the national traffic, which was his darling ſtudy; yet he ſo highly encouraged the induſtry of other fit perſons, and ſo favourably received every propoſition made for it's advancement, that the hopes of preferment ſetting people's brains a working, the naval and mercantile polity of France was ſoon reduced into ſuch a ſyſtem, that could not fail to render it flouriſhing and proſperous almoſt all the world over.

Amongſt other methods that have been taken for the proſperity of navigation, and the increaſe of navigators, ſchools are erected in ſeveral places of the kingdom, in which all perſons that will repair thither, are taught the theoretical part of ſailing, and all things belonging thereto, by the moſt accompliſhed mathematicians that the kingdom can afford, who have very HANDSOME SALARIES FROM THE GOVERNMENT FOR THAT SERVICE, which they muſt perform gratis to all that deſire to be inſtructed: and, what is more, ſo very deſirous are they of providing themſelves with able and ſkilful ſeamen, that, upon the humble requeſt of any young man deſirous to learn navigation, and wanting means to ſubſiſt without ſome other buſineſs, during the time that muſt be employed in that ſtudy, A COMPETENT SUBSISTENCE IS ALLOWED HIM BY THE GOVERNMENT; ſo that inſtead of paying for the knowledge he acquires in ſuch a uſeful art, by which he procures a certain livelihood for his life-time, he is paid for his trouble in learning a profeſſion which may eaſily enable him to ſubſiſt handſomely, and frequently to make his fortune. Thence it is that France is very well provided with a great number of able and ſufficient PILOTS, GUNNERS, MASTERS, &c. and all other ſea officers, both for the ſervice of the king and the merchants; and whether we conſider the ſtrength of the French navy, the number of their merchant ſhips and mariners, or the ſtate of their foreign plantations, the extraordinary effects of the means they have uſed to encourage navigation will be obvious.

Upon the whole; from an impartial ſurvey of the commercial and naval affairs of this kingdom, one of the greateſt cauſes to which we may juſtly attribute all the advantages of the French in trade, is the wiſdom of their mercantile and naval laws; whereby all perſons have been encouraged to engage their money in trade, and ſo have extraordinarily improved both their own and the public treaſure.

REMARKS on NAVAL AFFAIRS ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By our ſucceſſes during the laſt war, and the new acquiſitions obtained by the peace, both from France and Spain on the American continent, and likewiſe of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, that are annexed to the crown of theſe kingdoms; we may rationally enough hope for an increaſe of our mercantile ſhipping, by the general increaſe of our North American commerce, as well as that of the iſlands of the GRENADOES, ST. VINCENT, TOBAGO, and DOMINICA: and whether that of France may not decreaſe in proportion as our trade and navigation ſhall augment, in conſequence of the loſſes they have ſuſtained in America, is a matter that nearly concerns us. For if it does not, and France ſhall keep up and preſerve the ſame degree of general trade and mercantile navigation, and thereby uphold as great a degree of royal naval power as they poſſeſſed before the laſt war, we have obtained no advantage over them; on the contrary, by entailing on ourſelves, ſo great an increaſe of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES as the laſt war has coſt us, we have ſo loaded and encumbered our whole commerce, while that of France has not been ſo to the like degree; though it is to be feared, the GREATER CHEAPNESS OF FRENCH COMMODITIES, and the GREATER DEARNESS OF ENGLISH ONES, will enable France to increaſe their foreign trade in proportion as ours ſhall diminiſh.

To prevent which effectually, it is to be wiſhed that our rulers will embrace every poſſible meaſure that can be ſuggeſted to give IMMEDIATE RELIEF to our trade, by exonerating the ſame from as much of the burthen of taxes, as can be deviſed, and found practicable. For if that is not done, and without delay too, France will ſoon gain more by dint of COMMERCE, than they have loſt by the war; foreign nations giving thoſe the preference in their dealings, who can afford to ſell their commodities the cheapeſt; and the immenſity of our preſent debts and taxes rendering Engliſh commodities ſo much dearer than thoſe of France, whoſe expences during the laſt war bore no proportion to thoſe of Great-Britain, their wares in general muſt neceſſarily be

ſo much cheaper compared with ours, that foreigners will not be able to purchaſe ours, and therefore muſt be obliged to have thoſe of our commercial competitors: the conſequence muſt inevitably prove the loſs of all our trade with foreign nations; and what then will avail all our plantation improvements, be they e'er ſo much extended? If they are enlarged to a degree to enrich and aggrandize the continent of America, may not this in the end ruin the mother-kingdoms? Will not ſuch riches in America, enable the Americans to manufacture every material they ſhall be able to produce? If they do, will not their greater cheapneſs of commodities be as detrimental to this nation as that of France? That this injurious effect alſo, may not follow from our new acquiſitions, too much care cannot be taken to prevent thoſe colonies turning to any ſort of manufactures that ſhall at all interfere with thoſe of Great-Britain and Ireland; every improvement that muſt be ſuffered to be made on the continent of America, muſt be reſtrained to the MATERIALS FOR MANUFACTURES, and thoſe ſuch only that the three kingdoms are not able to afford themſelves, and that we are under the neceſſity of importing from foreign nations: and even with regard to this point, it muſt be conſidered, that unleſs we will take ſome proportion of the produce of foreign nations, they will ceaſe to take any of ours, and there will be an end of our reciprocal commercial connections.—It muſt not be forgot neither, that if we diminiſh greatly in our importations of foreign commodities, our public revenue, the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS, will immediately feel the effects of it, and what will become of the PUBLIC CREDIT? And as we ſhall decline in our imports from foreign nations, as we may increaſe in them from our own American plantations, and ſtill keep up the ſame DUTIES OF CUSTOMS on the one, as we have done on the other, this may prove a great diſcouragement to our improvements on the American continent.—Theſe things are not ſuggeſted to intimidate us from attempting every wiſe improvement that can and ought to be made in America; theſe obſervations are made, with no other intent than to manifeſt, that the moſt conſummate wiſdom is at this time requiſite in the conduct of our commercial intereſt, conſiſtent with thoſe of every other kind.

NAVAL STORES comprehend all thoſe particulars which are made uſe of, not only in the royal navy, but likewiſe in every other kind of navigation: as timber and iron for ſhipbuilding, alſo pitch and tar, hemp, cordage, ſail-cloth, gunpowder, ordnance, and fire-arms of every ſort; alſo all ſhipchandlery wares, &c.

REMARKS.

The principal ſupport of this nation, and the preſervation of it's commerce and liberties, depending upon the conſtant reſpectable plight of it's mercantile, as well as royal marine, nothing can be more deſirable than for the nation to be in a condition to furniſh and ſupply itſelf amply and cheaply with every kind of naval ſtores; for, if we could once be happy enough to effectuate this, even the public by ſuch like national debts, provided they remained in the hands of the ſubjects of Great-Britain, and no intereſt money for the ſame was carried out of the kingdom, could ſuſtain no greater detriment thereby, than what aroſe from the weight of ſuch intereſt-money lying, by way of taxation, upon our commerce.

It is well known, that we formerly received our ſupply of pitch and tar from Sweden: but the Swediſh merchants, knowing that the beſt tar and pitch was made in their country, thought they had an opportunity given them to engroſs it to themſelves, and to ſend it abroad in their own ſhipping, and ſell it to their neighbours at their own prices. In order thereunto, they formed a tar-company, who engroſſed the whole; and ſeveral ſevere laws were enacted, that no makers ſhould ſell to any but them, and that no ſhips, either foreign or their own, ſhould load any but for their account, and by their order.

This monopoly gave great uneaſineſs to our merchants, who thought it a hardſhip to be debarred bringing home what pitch and tar they had occaſion for in their own ſhipping; for loſing that navigation, was putting a number of ſhips out of employment, and, conſequently, paying our neighbours for work whilſt our people were unemployed.

They made ſeveral complaints, but to no purpoſe, 'till the year 1703, a war being then declared with France, and, conſequently, a royal navy to be fitted out.

Upon examination it was found, that there was not then pitch and tar enough for an immediate ſupply.

Hereupon ſeveral letters were wrote to Dr. Robinſon, afterwards biſhop of London, then queen Anne's envoy at the court of Sweden, upon that occaſion: to which the doctor returned an anſwer from Warſaw, the 4th of Auguſt, 1703, to Sir Charles Hedges, then ſecretary of ſtate. This letter was copied out, and given to ſeveral merchants, that they might ſee how much it was in the power of the king of Sweden either to forward the fitting out the royal navy of England, or to keep it in harbour.

That we may judge from FACTS what has been our caſe, I have tranſcribed the letter.

SIR,

'I juſt now received your honour's letter, of July the 6th, with orders that I ſhould earneſtly preſs the king of Sweden to give ſuch directions about the delivery of pitch and tar, as that her majeſty may know what ſhe has to truſt to therein. Upon this ſubject I humbly take leave to repeat what I have formerly writ your honour, that, on the $\frac{17}{28}$th of March laſt, I tranſmitted to the king of Sweden her majeſty's letter about this buſineſs, and ſent it, with a large deduction, to count Piper; whereupon, on the 20th of March, his majeſty writ to the college of commerce at Stockholm, that they ſhould give all due aſſiſtance to the Engliſh factors employed to buy up that commodity for her majeſty's ſervice; that for ready money they ſhould be ſupplied as well with what was wanting for the two former years, as what was deſired for this: which letter I ſent to Stockholm, where it was in due time received.

Not long after, count Piper told me, The directors of the tar trade had repreſented it to the king as a great grievance, that they ſhould be obliged to deliver at Stockholm any pitch or tar for the uſe of the Engliſh navy, for that they could to much more advantage carry it thither, and ſell it themſelves.

I preſſed the count very earneſtly, that at leaſt the king's letter, which was already ſent, might be complied with for this year, and that, if the like was deſired for the future, we ſhould give them time for deliberation, whether they thought fit to gratify the queen therein or not.

I had hopes this fair requeſt would not have met with any difficulty; but have lately heard from Mr. Jackſon, it has been wholly rejected, and that the directors of the tar trade have declared they will export to England, and elſewhere, all their pitch and tar for their own accounts, and that her majeſty's navy ſhall be ſupplied at the market-price fixed. This I take to be all her majeſty has to truſt to on that ſide; and my humble opinion is, no relief from hence can much mend the matter.

For as it can hardly be expected any new order from the king of Sweden (if procured, which is uncertain) can arrive at Stockholm 'till ſome time in September; ſo it is not ſure it will then be obeyed more than hitherto, eſpecially conſidering that, by that time, the tranſportation of pitch and tar from Finland to Stockholm will be almoſt over, and the directors will have to ſay, that they have not the quantity deſired.

It would alſo fall into a hazardous winter voyage, and, in all human appearance, not anſwer her majeſty's occaſions; wherefore I am much in pain what reſolutions to take.

To repeat her majeſty's requeſt to no purpoſe, and where there may be a tolerable pretence for not complying with it, ſeems to me to be very improper; and I humbly hope your honour will be of that mind.

Mr. Jackſon writes me, in his letter of July 1, That a good ſum was then offered to facilitate the matter, but he had no hope it would ſucceed; I alſo believe it will not, the count Wrede being ſo little inclined to contribute, in any caſe, to a good intelligence between England and Sweden, and none elſe having any authority in thoſe matters: and, therefore, if theſe endeavours alſo fail, I cannot perceive her majeſty can, with any certainty, be ſupplied otherwiſe than either by buying pitch and tar of thoſe directors, at ſuch a price as they will ſell it at in England, or by ſeizing what they ſend, whether found by ſea or in port, and taking it at a reaſonable price. The king of Sweden did the ſame laſt year by lead bound for Dantzick; and our merchants there write me, they apprehend it may be ſo this year alſo.

The reclaimers, not inſiſting upon the advantage they might have had by carrying their lead to Dantzick, offered it at the ſame price the admiralty of Sweden paid for the laſt lead they bought; but, inſtead of that, were obliged to let fall one ſixth, and without any compoſition for the bringing up and detention of their ſhips. Againſt this may be objected, That thereby the preſent occaſion may be ſerved, but the uncertainty become greater for the future.

To this I can only anſwer, That the Swedes muſt always, by themſelves or others, ſhip out their pitch and tar; and we ſhall, therefore, hereafter be at ſo much certainty as now. Beſides, as thoſe directors have for many years monopolized and reſerved to themſelves the tranſportation of all pitch and tar that goes to Holland; ſo I judge they intend to do in regard to England alſo, which, if ſo, would fall hard both on our traders in that commodity, and on our ſhipping employed hitherto in a good proportion to fetch it: beſide that the price in England would be what the monopolizers pleaſed.

Theſe inconveniencies will, I hope, be conſidered, and remedied one way or other. I am alſo of opinion, that, if the war with Muſcovy be of any long continuance, and inroads be made into Finland, as moſt probably will, Sweden will not have ſuch quantities of pitch and tar to ſend abroad as the occaſions of Europe require. Courland furniſhed ſome formerly; but, while the Swedes are maſters there, none can be expected thence.

It is but very little, and not good, that Norway yields; and I ſuppoſe there is but very little certainty it can be had from Muſcovy.

What difficulties there are in making and bringing it from New England, I am not acquainted with, but take it for granted, England had better give one third more from thence, than have it at ſuch uncertainties, and in ſo precarious a manner, from other countries, &c.'—The end of Dr. Robinſon's letter to Sir Charles Hedges, ſecretary of ſtate, the 4th of Auguſt, 1703.

Further REMARKS before the laſt WAR.

The Swedes were ſo fond of their new monopoly of pitch and tar, that an Engliſh ſhip had not been there for ſix or ſeven years: and that, when ſome of our merchants reſiding there made application to the tar-company for a loading of pitch and tar upon an Engliſh bottom, offering them their own price in ready money, no intereſt could prevail, unleſs the captain would give ſecurity not to carry the ſaid loading to London, Liſbon, or any other port where the company had a factory.

The people of England ſoon took the alarm; the merchants made ſtrong application for making theſe commodities in our plantations, and therefore that matter was brought before the parliament, who gave encouragement for importing pitch and tar from our plantations, which ſoon produced very great quantities from thence; they ſo much increaſed therein, that we received twice as much as the nation could conſume, and were thereby enabled to export great quantities to the Straights, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Bremen, and Hamburgh.

The bounty given by the government, amounted to a large ſum yearly; but what we re-exported and ſold to our neighbours, made the kingdom amends for that diſburſement; and it brought down the price ſo low, that both pitch and tar have been ſold with us for one third part of the price we once paid for Swediſh pitch and tar: and, if this way of ſupplying ourſelves from our own plantations had not been fallen upon, nobody knows how high the Swedes might have raiſed their price upon us, beſides the uncertainty of having them at any price.

What was feared ſoon came to paſs, a war in the Baltic was begun, great numbers of our ſhips were ſeized on frivolous pretences, and carried into Swediſh ports, and condemned as prize, to the unſpeakable damage of the merchants of this kingdom.

The lords commiſſioners of trade being ſenſible of the great advantage of ſupplying ourſelves with pitch and tar from our own plantations, ſent to the merchants to give them an account what other naval ſtores might be produced and brought from thence.

Their lordſhips were informed, that if encouragement were given, and the people put in a proper way to begin, all other ſorts of naval ſtores, as well as pitch and tar, might be brought from thence; that the Swedes had laid a new duty on iron of near 25 per cent. and that the interruption of our trade in the Baltic had greatly diſtreſſed our iron manufactures for want of iron to carry on their buſineſs: and farther, that the Danes had raiſed their boards from eight or nine dollars, to eighteen dollars per hundred: that undertakings of this nature (as in the caſe of pitch and tar) would at leaſt lower the prices, and leſſen the imports of Daniſh and Swediſh commodities, which then drew from us a moſt prodigious ſum of money. And laſtly, it was manifeſt, that unleſs we imported about 20,000 tons of foreign iron per ann. our manufactories could not be compleatly carried on.

For, in the two years before the war began in the Baltic, viz. 1714 and 1715 (in which years we had a free trade with Sweden) above 40,000 tons of iron were imported; and, though in the two following years above 23,000 tons was imported, yet that being ſhort of a ſufficient ſupply, it created terrible complaints among the manufacturers.

Now 20,000 tons of iron, at 12l. per ton, comes to 240,000l. and the boards and timber we received at their advanced price, came to 200,000l. more; and, if they found we could not otherwiſe be ſupplied, they would raiſe the price on us.

Beſides all this, it was further urged, that the Danes and Swedes had uſually the navigation of all their own boards and timber, &c. in their own ſhipping; which employment qualified them to breed up ſeamen, and conſequently upon any irruption, to fit out ſhips for war and privateers to annoy our trade; and, if ſo great an advantage as bringing the ſaid commodities from our plantations could be brought to paſs, it would augment our navigation to the plantations to more than double what it then was, and not only be an additional employment to our ſhip-builders, and all others concerned thercin, as well as to our ſailors and ſeamen, but increaſe the conſumption of our proviſions, and other neceſſaries for victualling and fitting out the ſaid ſhips; and that as our navigation increaſed, that of Sweden and Denmark muſt of courſe decline, and our new ſupply of ſeamen prove a proportionate additional ſtrength to the naval force of this kingdom, which ſailors will be ready on all occaſions to man out our fleets.

That in the navigation we then carried on to our plantations, it often happened that the crops of tobacco and ſugar, &c. fell ſhort, ſo that many of the ſhips were forced to come home dead freighted, and ſome lie a whole ſeaſon for the next crop, which (if encouragement was given for bringing timber and naval ſtores from our plantations) would, upon ſuch diſappointments, be ſure of a loading.

Theſe accounts were received with great ſatisfaction by their lordſhips; and the merchants, to promote ſo good a work, waited on the miniſtry at the board of trade, who heard and thoroughly examined what the merchants had to offer.

After their lordſhips had been attended at a great many meetings, and received full ſatisfaction, that it would be greatly for the advantage of this nation, to be ſupplied with naval ſtores from our own plantations, and very much enlarge the exportation of our woollen and other manufactories to theſe plantations, a motion was made for bringing a bill into the houſe; which was accordingly agreed to, and paſſed the commons with a clauſe, That no perſon or perſons within the ſaid plantations, or any of them, ſhall manufacture any iron wares, of any kind whatſoever, out of any ſows, pigs, or bars whatſoever, under the penalty of

one part to ſuch perſon or perſons as ſhall ſeize or ſue for the ſame, to be recovered in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, or court of Exchequer in Scotland, courts of admiralty, or other courts of record in the plantations, &c. the proof to lie on the poſſeſſor. By this clauſe, no ſmith in the plantations might make ſo much as a bolt, or ſpike, or nail.

This clauſe muſt, indeed, have put the colonies into a moſt miſerable condition, the ſmith being above all other trades abſolutely neceſſary for carrying on all other employments: among the reſt, that of ſhip-building had by it been utterly deſtroyed, though by this article they make a great part of their returns to England for purchaſing our manufactures.

And there was another clauſe added in the houſe of lords, That from and after the 25th of December 1719, no forge going by water, or other work whatſoever, ſhall be erected or kept up in any of the ſaid Britiſh plantations, for the making, working, or converting any ſows, pigs, or caſt iron, into bar or rod iron, upon pain, that if any perſon from thenceforth erect or keep up, or cauſe to be erected or kept up, any ſuch forge, or other work, for the uſe or purpoſe aforeſaid, ſuch perſon ſo offending, being thereof lawfully convict in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or in the court of admiralty, or other court of record held in ſuch plantation, where the offence ſhall be committed, at the pleaſure of the informer, ſhall, for ſuch his or her firſt offence, ſuffer ſix months impriſonment without bail or mainprize, and for every other ſuch offence ſhall ſuffer ſix months impriſonment without bail or mainprize; and all governors or commanders in chief of the ſaid plantations, and every of them, now and for the time being, are hereby ſtrictly required not to ſuffer ſuch forge, or other work to be erected, or kept up, in any of the ſaid plantations within their reſpective governments, contrary to the true intent and meaning hereof; and, if any of the ſaid governors or commanders in chief, ſhall willingly or wittingly offend or be negligent in doing his duty herein, upon complaint and proof made thereof before his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, or ſuch as ſhall be by him or them thereunto authorized and appointed, by the oath of two or more credible witneſſes, the ſaid governor, or commander in chief, ſo neglecting or offending, ſhall be removed from his government.

This ſecond clauſe muſt have ruined all thoſe iron works in the colonies, to the great loſs of the proprietors of them, and given the French a much fairer handle to tempt them into their ſettlements which join to ours, than the ſcarcity of iron gave them to entice away our artificers.

Which being duly conſidered, thoſe perſons that were ſolicitous for the benefit of the public, deſired the bill ſhould be dropped that ſeſſion, that the members of both houſes might have time fully to inform themſelves of the advantages thereof.

Thoſe gentlemen who chiefly oppoſed this undertaking, were concerned in iron works, who, on the before-mentioned interruption of the trade with Sweden, raiſed their iron to an extraordinary price: they did all they could to obſtruct the bill; they reported, it would hinder the exportation of wrought iron to the plantations, that it was only a trick of ſome ſtock-jobbers, and that it was carried on by ſome perſons that had a grant from the crown of ſome part of Nova Scotia, &c.

All which were groundleſs inſinuations; for there never was a deſign of making a ſtock of it, nor were any ſtock-jobbers ever concerned in the ſoliciting it, much leſs did any perſon concerned whatſoever, think of a grant from the crown; neither was Nova Scotia the place intended for carrying on the aforeſaid buſineſs, or thought to be proper for the ſaid undertaking.

But, as the people of New England, New York, Penſylvania, Carolina, &c. were under great neceſſities for Engliſh manufactures, and an incapacity of providing commodities to pay for them, preventing the Engliſh merchants from ſend-

ing

ing them thoſe large quantities that might be a ſufficient ſupply; and, as inevitable neceſſity put them upon manufacturing for themſelves, therefore this NEW EMPLOYMENT OF PROVIDING NAVAL STORES, WAS PROPOSED TO TAKE THEM OFF THE MANUFACTURES THAT INTERFERED WITH OUR OWN.

At length, however, the wiſdom of parliament judged it expedient to grant a bounty on pitch and tar, which we ſhall ſee hereafter.—This was but a ſmall advance to ſupply ourſelves with naval ſtores in general.

Hemp and flax are ſo uſeful in navigation and trade, that we cannot poſſibly do without them; the firſt for cordage of all ſorts, the latter for making ſail-cloth, as well as for the linen manufactures that are carried on in this kingdom; and the late Czar of Muſcovy being ſenſible we muſt have our ſupply of hemp, &c. from him, did, as the Swedes by their pitch and tar, make a monopoly of it in a manner; and the Ruſſians had their own price for it, in ready money or bills of exchange, and the reſt in ſuch goods as they thought fit.

Upon which it was urged by thoſe who underſtood the public intereſts, (1.) That the neceſſity we were under for thoſe commodities, ought to put us upon all imaginable care and ſtudy how to provide them, leſt we ſhould happen to be under the ſame neceſſity for them, that we were in the year 1703 for pitch and tar, when the government of Sweden, as obſerved, abſolutely refuſed to let us have them for our ready money, otherwiſe than in their own ſhipping from their tar-company here at their own price, and only in ſuch quantities as they thought fit. Upon that diſappointment, the government, by allowing a conſiderable encouragement for carrying on the manufactures of pitch and tar, had ſufficient quantities from our own plantations; and it is greatly to be deſired, the like encouragement was given for raiſing hemp and flax; for ſince we have plantations where hemp and flax and all ſorts of naval ſtores may be raiſed, with ſo many and ſo great advantages to this kingdom, it would be unaccountable to leave us dependent and at an uncertainty for them, and to be ſupplied only by a prince that will be paid for them juſt as he pleaſes. (2.) That it is very well known, our land in general is too dear for raiſing hemp and flax, and what is grown here (though it is tough and makes ſtrong linen) neither dreſſes ſo kindly, nor whitens ſo well as that which grows in warmer climates. In Ruſſia the beſt hemp and flax grow in the ſouthermoſt parts of the kingdom, where the ſummer is hot, and the air clear, and yet the flax is not accounted ſo good as that which grows in Egypt or Italy.

Egypt has always been eſteemed for it's linen, and now ſupplies Leghorn with quantities, and the coaſt of Syria, Aſia Minor, Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and other great cities, have a ſupply of hemp and flax from thence.

All our colonies (which run twelve or fourteen hundred miles in length, and all the way border upon the ſea) have very hot ſummers, the ſouthermoſt parts of them lie near the ſame latitude with Egypt, and the north part much about the ſame with Ancona, or Bologna in Italy, where excellent hemp and flax grow, therefore we have the greateſt proſpect to receive mighty ſupplies of hemp and flax from them. Part of the land in the colonies is very rich, and of ſo ſmall value, that there will be opportunity of breaking up freſh as often as there is occaſion to change the ground; which, if laid down, will recover itſelf again without the charge of manuring, as we do here, to the very great damage of our ploughing lands. Nothing impoveriſhes land more than hemp and flax, and though it is manured, that alone will not do ſo well, for the land ought to be changed after three or four crops, and generally the fineſt and fatteſt pieces are converted to that uſe.

Thoſe great conveniencies of having land ſo very cheap, and ſo fine a climate, which we know produces excellent hemp and flax, ſo commodiouſly ſituated along the ſea-coaſt, with ſuch numbers of large rivers running up the country to the moſt inland ſettlements, where proviſions may be raiſed at ſo ſmall a charge, and where work may be done by the labour of ſlaves, almoſt as cheap as it is in India, give ground to hope, that we may manufacture linen here cheaper than any part of Europe can import them upon us; and the colonies be as profitable to us, by raiſing rough materials to carry on the linen manufacture, as the Suſſex and other downs are for ſupplying wool for that manufacture, the profits of which we have valued ourſelves ſo much upon, that we have ſet the reſt of Europe to be our competitors therein.

However, a great deal of the value we ſet upon it proceeds from miſtake, we think abundantly more of it than it really is; the foreign linen and Flanders lace, linen yarn, and naval ſtores imported into this kingdom, being ſuppoſed to amount to more than the exports of all our woollens. The manufacture of linen in Britanny, and other parts of France, forty years ago, was thought to be better to them than the woollen to us; for it was generally allowed we took above a million a year from them, and Portugal, Spain, and the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, twice that value, beſides what other countries took.

Indeed, they have in ſome meaſure loſt their trade with us; we now receive little from thence, but what comes by ſtealth, or under the denomination of Swiſs linen through Alſatia, their cambrics excepted, of which I have elſewhere taken notice. And now the emperor of Germany's hereditary countries, and other parts of the empire, have gained the ſupplying of us, which has made them very rich and powerful. Now, as the woollen manufacture, eſpecially the coarſe part, has ſpread itſelf of late into ſeveral parts of the kingdom, which has exceeded the demand, and cauſed great ſtocks to lie by, if thoſe rough materials of hemp and flax were prepared in our plantations, the people in North-Britain and Ireland, &c. would ſoon find the advantage of falling upon and advancing that manufacture; the laborious and coarſe part being performed abroad, the reſt would invite not only the poor and neceſſitous, but people of better circumſtances to employ their time in it.

If theſe propoſitions are heartily put in practice, we may hope, that by providing the aforeſaid rough materials, we ſhould have the delightful proſpect of ſeeing trade flouriſh; for, as the ſilk and linen manufactures, where brought to perfection, are altogether as profitable to thoſe nations, as the woollen now is to us; and as we increaſe in our linen manufactures, thoſe of Sileſia, and all the emperor's hereditary countries, from whence we take ſuch quantities, muſt abate of courſe; their people will alſo reſort to us, and help to carry them on; for it has always been obſerved, where new manufactures are ſet up, and take away part from another country, the manufacturers will likewiſe remove: this was the caſe of the Flemings, when queen Elizabeth gave ſuch great encouragement to have the woollen manufacture removed hither; and ours when we had that inundation of China and India wrought ſilks, our weavers went to Holland, Flanders, France, &c. and ſeveral ſtreets in Spitalfields were almoſt deſolate; and when thoſe ſilks were prohibited, the manufacturers returned again.

It has been computed, that the Ruſſians export to England and all other parts, in hemp and flax, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be ſo valuable a product for merchandize with them, there ſeems to be much greater proſpect of enriching ourſelves, by raiſing them in our plantations.

1. Becauſe they will not be ſubject to any land-carriage, but ſhipped immediately from the place of growth.

2. Becauſe land is much cheaper in our plantations than in the ſouth parts of Ruſſia.

3. The climate being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is ſuppoſed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

Sir Joſiah Child ſays, That in the plantations of ſugar and tobacco, every white man there employs four perſons at home; he means, we ſuppoſe, in providing clothes, part of their food, and all ſorts of utenſils for carrying on their buſineſs. If ſugar and tobacco employ ſuch a number of hands at home, certainly every perſon employed in the plantations in raiſing and dreſſing hemp and flax, muſt, by his labour there, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by ſugar and tobacco; for they are manufactured in the plantations, the refining the ſugar, and cutting tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled, excepted; whereas flax and hemp are materials for employing all idle hands, and of conſequence the poor's rate will ſoon be abated, and the nation will find in a little time what they ſave yearly thereby, will be more than ſufficient to encourage the people to begin that employment.

We mention part of the poor's rate, becauſe they muſt be maintained by our lands, if employment is not provided for them; and abundance are thrown upon the pariſhes for want of work, others make that a pretext for their begging from place to place: but, where workhouſes have been built, though materials for employing the poor are ſcarce, yet ſome public-ſpirited men have there maintained them for half the expence they were at before thoſe workhouſes were erected. [See the article POOR.]

This ſhews what good œconomy can do, and the happineſs it is to thoſe places, which have ſuch gentlemen to direct and aſſiſt them. We may obſerve here, that together with the produce of hemp and flax, ſilk may be raiſed by the ſame hands, [ſee the article SILK,] and not interfere the one with another; for, after the ſowing of hemp and flax, the mulberry-leaves come to be in perfection for feeding the ſilk-worms; and the ſilk-harveſt (as it is called) is over before hemp and flax are ripe: thus the perſons employed in the ſilk may turn their hands to that of hemp and flax, the breaking and dreſſing of which, may be work for them all the reſt of the year. The ſtocks and utenſils to be employed in them, will coſt but a ſmall matter. If ſuch a public ſpirit prevailed now for promoting the general intereſt of the nation, as did in our nobility and gentry upon the firſt ſettling of our plantations, I am perſuaded, that we may raiſe ſufficient quantities of rough materials for carrying on all our home manufactures.

And, if once we come to be amply ſupplied with hemp and flax by the aforeſaid methods, every place will be filled with flax-dreſſers, and the overſeers of the poor of every pariſh, where the wool-ſpinning trade is not carried on, may very eaſily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; and the more

diſtinct

diſtinct the employment is, the better, for many inconveniencies have attended one manufacture interfering with another; beſide, there will be an intercourſe of trade created, by one part of the kingdom ſupplying the other with their diſtinct manufactures; this will give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an univerſal chearfulneſs to every body: for the poor are never happier, nor their minds eaſier, than when they have full employment; and when they are employed, riches are diffuſed over the nation.

It has been a common opinion, that we have above a million of people in the three nations deſtitute of work; but, if thoſe rough materials ſhould come to be raiſed in our plantations, there need not be one idle perſon. Suppoſe that one million of people were put upon manufacturing thoſe rough materials, and each perſon earned but 1 d. a day, and allowing but 300 working days in a year, it would amount to 1,250,000 l. Now, as we have already ſaid, the importation of foreign linen, Flanders lace, and naval ſtores in general, amount to more than all our woollens exported; it is aſtoniſhing that ſo wiſe a nation as this, does not take care to regulate thoſe matters effectually, and have the greateſt part of thoſe linens made in the three kingdoms. See the article LINEN. All other nations of Europe are ſo wiſe, as to make linen enough for their own uſe, Portugal, Spain, and what is imported into Italy, excepted; and, if the government does not take care to put thoſe poor people into proper regulations and employments, they muſt continue in miſery and want.

Setting up the making of pitch and tar in our plantations, was very advantageous; there was, indeed, very great encouragement given to begin that undertaking, which had it's deſired end, and vaſt quantities of pitch and tar were imported; and it is hoped the proper encouragement will be given for every other kind of naval ſtores, that the Swedes and Ruſſians, &c. may not retain ſo conſiderable a ſhare of the importation of that commodity upon us.

Our plantations in America abound with vaſt quantities of timber, and the navigation from New England, Nova Scotia, or Newfoundland, is not more tedious, nor at a greater diſtance from us than the bottom of the Bothnic gulph, or Peterſburgh: but thoſe places have been long in trade, and having a conſtant demand from us for that commodity, they always have great ſtocks of timber ready ſquared, and boards lying ready to load a ſhip of five or ſix hundred tons in ten or twelve days; but hitherto we have never had ſtocks lying ready in our plantations, nor due encouragement for building large bulky ſhips, ſuch as are uſed by the Danes and Swedes, who ſail with a few hands, and at a ſmall charge. What timber we have had hitherto come directly to England, has been rather put on board to fill up, when tobacco or other merchandize has not been to be had; and therefore, no care has hitherto been taken to make a regular trade, which may deſerve further conſideration. See the article TIMBER.

They have iron-ſtone all along the Continent, from the ſouthermoſt parts of Carolina, to the northermoſt part of New England, in great plenty; ſome of it, upon trial, has made extraordinary good tough iron, and very good ſteel.

No part of the world abounds more with prodigious quantities of wood, nor has more rivers and ſtreams than that part of the Continent. There is ſo much wood, that the great charge of the planter is to clear the ground.

And, as no one undertaking conſumes ſo much wood as plenty of iron works, if they were erected, the land would be cleared of the wood, the air purified, the ground made fit for hemp and flax, and the beſt timber might be preſerved for bringing home.

In charcoaling the wood, there will be a very good opportunity of drawing pitch and tar out of the pine-trees; and no wood, according to the beſt obſervation, makes better charcoal for iron works: and all this without any other charge, than providing fuel for the iron works; ſuch a dependency have theſe operations one upon another.

And, as there are ſo many circumſtances that attend the making iron in our own plantations, if due and effectual encouragement be given *, it may be brought to a very great perfection, and ſuch quantities made, as to exceed in value any other product of our plantations.

* It is but within theſe few years that they have had any encouragement for the making of pig and ſow iron, which is extended to pig.

Iron is a commodity of univerſal uſe, ſtaple, and certain in all parts of the known world; conſequently as much to be valued as ſilver or gold; a commodity that will be carried every-where as ballaſt, at little or no charge.

And, whereas the Dutch do ſupply Portugal, the Straights, and Turkey, with great quantities, if we could be ſo happy as to have a full ſupply from our own plantations, either by adventurers from hence, who would lay out their eſtates in erecting iron works, or in exchange for the woollen or other manufactures, which we export to thoſe places; we ſhould not only ballaſt our ſhips with iron, but export great quantities, not only all over the Straights and Turkey, but even to India and Africa, and ſoon become maſters of a good part of the trade.

And, as we were once dependent on the Swedes for pitch and tar, we muſt remain ſo ſtill to them for iron, as we muſt to Norway and to them for boards and timber, and to Muſcovy for hemp, unleſs ſome effectual care is taken to relieve us from ſuch a dependency: it may one day prove highly dangerous, as it heretofore has done, to depend upon any power whatever, for any eſſential branch of our naval ſtores.

Further REMARKS on the benefits we may reap from North America, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

That our plantations are really able to furniſh a ſufficient quantity of hemp, flax, tar, pitch, turpentine, fir, timber, deal-boards, maſts, yards, pipes, and hogſhead-ſtaves, fully to ſupply the whole demand of Great-Britain and Ireland, has been taken for granted by many; ſo as that we ſhould ſuffer no ſcarcity, or want of thoſe goods, though we ſhould abſolutely prohibit their importation from any other place, after they become once well eſtabliſhed, in regard to NAVAL STORES in general.

By being able to furniſh ourſelves, muſt be underſtood thus; for we muſt not ſpeak more for them, than our plantations do for themſelves; and it is neceſſary to be very exact and explicit, in what we call the firſt principles: we would not be underſtood to mean, that, at preſent, they have hands enough to fell and cut out the quantities of timber, &c. draw and extract the tar and turpentine, ſplit out the ſtaves, &c. raiſe the hemp, and make the iron neceſſary for our ample ſupply; for that may ſtill be a difficulty for want of hands, but that this is not invincible, ſee the articles PEOPLE and POOR; but we mean that the country and the woods, have a ſufficient quantity of all theſe; that they are not to be planted, or waited for 'till grown; they have a boundleſs extent of woods, as well on the hills as on the plains, unexhauſted, and, indeed, unexhauſtible; which are ſufficient for all our demands, and much more.

Likewiſe we do not ſay or inſiſt, that they do now produce or plant a ſufficient quantity of hemp and flax to ſupply our demand; but that they have land enough, ſufficient in ſtrength of ſoil, and ſufficient in quantity, and which, by cutting down the woods, would daily increaſe: this we think is undoubted.

The countries where this ſupply of timber and naval ſtores would be produced, are, in a word, the whole Engliſh part of the continent of North America, viz. New England, New York, Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, Penſylvania, and all the country, whether poſſeſſed or no, upon the great river of Delawar, as far as that river is navigable.

All the colonies of Virginia and Maryland, to the bottom of the bay of Cheſeapeake, all the colonies of North and South Carolina, and all the rivers thereof; in which laſt colony alone, they tell us, there is as much fir timber growing, as in all the kingdom of Norway.

Likewiſe it is to be added, that, mutatis mutandis, the coin and value of payment conſidered, they will be able to furniſh all theſe things as cheap as the eaſt country and Norway trade does furniſh them.

Theſe things granted, the propoſal for amply ſupplying ourſelves with naval ſtores, has been reduced to a narrow compaſs; for it has been urged, that all the difference then between England (the market) and our colonies, the producers of theſe goods, lies in the price of the freight, occaſioned by the diſtance of the place, and length of the voyage; how to bring this to a par, is the whole of the enquiry: and this is to be done by the ſeveral methods following.

N. B. Bounties and payments of dead money to the importer for encouragement, has been rejected by ſome, as being a mere charge upon the nation, though not upon the particular buyer of the goods, and is not by any means to be called a leſſening the diſparity, only it removes the burthen from private hands to the public, which is not ſufficient; and ſhould it extend to all the importations, would be a burden too heavy to bear, even for the whole nation.

The only weight, therefore, we would lay, ſay the propoſers, on the public, and even that but for a while, is to take off the duties entirely from all thoſe ſpecies of goods (not to repeat them) and prohibit the importation from other places; and not this laſt part neither, 'till the colonies were fully entered into the trade.

Then for the freight; we are to ſuppoſe, that the freight of all theſe articles, from the eaſt and north ſeas, ſtands now at a medium of forty to fifty ſhillings per ton, call it more or leſs: and ſuppoſe the freight of the ſame goods from the colonies ſhould then ſtand at a medium of ſix to eight pounds per ton, ſo that the freight would be three times as much one way as the other: it is true, this is a very conſiderable article, and eſpecially conſidering them likewiſe to be all bulky goods. But two articles will immediately contribute towards, if not be a full equivalent to, this exceſs of freight.

Firſt, Taking off the duty upon importation here, which being very high, ſuppoſe it for argument ſake to be 20 per cent.

may fairly be calculated at one half of the difference, and muſt be found by the importer in the price of his goods at market.

Secondly, Laying an impoſt, ſuppoſe it to be about ten per cent. upon all the importations of Engliſh goods into thoſe colonies, and this, we conceive, will be equal to the other half: the money ſo raiſed to be paid to the commanders of the ſhips, in ſuch proportions as ſhall be adjudged by the public, and upon ſo much tonnage only, as is loaden upon them of ſuch particular goods.

The colonies will never complain of ſuch a duty, becauſe it is in a manner paid to themſelves, and is but taking the money out of one pocket, and putting it into the other; the growth of their country will be exported (indeed the waſte growth, for they burn a great part,) their own people will be employed, and will be prodigiouſly increaſed, and theſe two are of the laſt importance to them; that give them but an aſſurance of theſe, they may give you aſſurance, that in a few years they will be the greateſt, and moſt proſperous colonies in the world.

I acknowledge, I deſpiſe (with the utmoſt contempt of their ignorance) the ſuggeſtions of thoſe times, when this glorious ſcheme of New England's proſperity was laid aſide ſome years ago, from a pretended jealouſy of thoſe colonies growing too powerful, and making themſelves independent; inſinuating, becauſe they were independent in a religious profeſſion, they wanted to be ſo in government; whereas firſt, the very thought, beſides a worſe principle it began in, viz. of party malice, was to the laſt degree weak and fooliſh; ſince it is evident, the proſperity, and, indeed, the very being and ſubſiſtence of New England in matters of trade, conſiſts in, and depends wholly upon their union with, and ſubjection to Great-Britain, as the principal growth of their country, which is the only article that ſupports their commerce, is taken off but by the Engliſh, and the ſame of the reſt: for example,

The proviſions of North America are the mere growth of the country, ſuch as flour or meal in barrels, peaſe, malt, rice, and tobacco; beef and pork, pickled and barrelled; ſheep and horſes alive; beer in caſks and in bottles; white fiſh ſalted and dried, and ſalmon barrelled; beſides lumber, for building and repairing as well houſes as ſhips, and ſhips and ſloops ready built and finiſhed.

Theſe all are the product of the country, and the labour of the people in the colonies of New England, New York, the two Jerſeys, Penſylvania, Virginia, and Carolina; without this export, thoſe colonies would periſh. It is true, the iſlands would ſtarve for want of the proviſions too, at leaſt at firſt: but, on the Continent, if the iſlands did not take off their product, the lands, which they have been at a vaſt expence to cure, and clear, and plant, would lie uſeleſs and uncultivated; the ſwine, which the woods feed for them by thouſands, would over-run them with their multitude, and be worſe to them, in time, than the bears and the wolves; their plantations would produce more of every thing than their mouths could devour, or than they could find markets to vend them at; their timber would ſtand, indeed, where it was, for no body would fell it to have it, and they may ſet their woods on fire, as they did formerly, to clear the land of them.

In a word, this being their caſe, their intereſt ties them to England, though their duty ſhould not; and, to ſeparate from England, would be to be undone.

Then carry the ſame argument on to the purpoſed commerce, for timber, naval ſtores, &c. this would ſtill bind them the faſter to their dependance on England, for no nation in Europe could give them the ſame encouragement. We need not enlarge upon this article here, it is evident to all that underſtand trade.

Let us then return to the propoſal: having thus ſtated the equivalent, by which the government may be reimburſed what they ſhall be out of pocket for the complete trial, it remains only to give a brief account of the advantages of ſuch a commerce: take them in a few ſhort heads.

I. Inſtead of the trade for deals and timber, tar, maſts, &c. which we carry on now with Norway, almoſt all for ready money, and which carries out more ſilver in ſpecie, nay, in our very coin, crowns and half-crowns, than the Eaſt-India company itſelf, however little notice has been taken of it: we ſay, inſtead of this diſadvantageous trade, we ſhould then receive all the ſame goods in exchange for our own manufactures, and they would be purchaſed of, and produced by the labour of our own people, the induſtrious planters, ſubjects to the government of his majeſty of Great-Britain.

II. Inſtead of having at leaſt two-thirds of theſe goods brought over in foreign bottoms, Danes and Swedes, and the ſhips navigated by foreign ſeamen, to whom we pay dead freight in the like ready money, and which they carry away in ſpecie, as before intimated, it would be wholly brought to us in our own ſhips, New England built, and navigated wholly by our own ſeamen.

III. Inſtead of a very few Engliſh ſhips, which now uſe the Norway trade, this new commerce would at leaſt employ a thouſand ſail of ſhips every year, and all the year, and moſt of them ſhips of burden: ſo that, beſides the benefit of building, repairing, and fitting out ſo many ſhips, it would be a new nurſery of ſeamen to us, having always 15 to 20,0000 ſeamen employed therein.

IV. The colonies would be increaſed in people beyond expreſſing; and, conſequently, not only the conſumption of proviſions would be increaſed there, which is, as ſaid before, the grand fund of their proſperity, but the conſumption of manufactures, and all European exportations to them, would be increaſed in proportion.

By the calculations which have been made, it is ſuppoſed that not leſs than 100,000 men would be employed in the woods, in cutting and felling timber, deals, maſts, yards, &c. in the managing and planting of hemp and flax; in the extracting and drawing off the tar; and in preparing all the articles mentioned, to be fetched from thence on account of this trade; and beſides the building ſhips among them, an article ſo conſiderable, as well deſerves to be handled by itſelf.

V. It would effectually furniſh thoſe colonies with returns for England, which they are now greatly diſtreſſed for, in order to pay the balance of their trade with England; the quantity of our manufactures which they take off, infinitely exceeds what they have of their own growth to ſend us in return: whereas, in caſe of ſuch a trade for the produce of their country, they would be at about a par with us, and we ſhould always be able to call for as much goods from them as would pay ourſelves.

VI. By this means they would receive ſilver in great quantities from Jamaica, and the other iſlands, for all that trade would be clear gain to them; and that ſilver alſo would remain with them, which now it cannot do, the bulk of it being ſnatched up for returns to England in ſpecie, though it be ſometimes to their great diſadvantage; ſo that, in conſequence of this commerce, there would be a circulation of current money in the colonies on the Continent, a thing they have too long been ſtrangers to.

It would take up a volume by itſelf to lay open all the glorious ſchemes of improvement in trade which would be the conſequence of ſuch a buſineſs, and particularly THE INCREASE OF OUR MANUFACTURES HERE, BY THE DEMAND OF GOODS FROM THENCE, when THE NUMBERS OF PEOPLE IN THOSE COLONIES SHOULD BE THUS INCREASED: let any one calculate that is able to judge of theſe things by what it is already, what it muſt neceſſarily be on an increaſe of people: let them compute the exportations to the colonies on the continent at preſent; let them conſider thoſe exportations to be as they really are, one intire improvement, derived from mere nothing, or next to nothing, in the LAST HUNDRED YEARS, for then it was all an embryo, and ſome of them were not in being as to trade, viz. New York and the Jerſeys, conquered but in 1666 from the Dutch, Penſylvania not above 70 years growth, Carolina and Georgia leſs.

Let them tell us, or but gueſs at for us, what a glorious trade to England it would be to have thoſe colonies increaſed with A MILLION OF PEOPLE, TO BE CLOATHED, FURNISHED, AND SUPPLIED WITH ALL THEIR NEEDFUL THINGS, food excepted, only from us; and tied down for ever to us, by that immortal, indiſſoluble band of trade, their intereſt, which wiſely regulated, need never injure, but unſpeakably benefit that of the mother-kingdom.

Let them conſider, that all thoſe people muſt fetch from Great-Britain only, their cloaths, woollen, linen, cotton, and ſilk; all their haberdaſhery; all their manufactures of hard ware, wrought iron, braſs, &c. all their heavy ware, ſuch as caſt iron and braſs, guns, mortars, ſhot, ſhells, pots, cauldrons, bells, battery, &c. all their clock-work, watch-work, even ſo much as their toys and trinkets; all their houſe-furniture, kitchen-furniture, glaſs-ware, upholſtery-ware, tin-ware; in a word, almoſt every thing we make, and every thing we import: it would be endleſs to repeat it.

How prepoſterous muſt thoſe notions be, and how oddly muſt they think, if they can be ſaid to think at all, who ſuggeſt miſchief from the increaſe of our colonies! Do any other nations act thus? Do even the Spaniards think their empires of Mexico and Peru, Chili and St. Martha, too many and too great, though a hundred times as large as thoſe we are naming, and though they drain even Spain itſelf of people? Were the French jealous of the number of their people in the vaſt countries of Canada and Louiſiana before they loſt them? Did they not, and do they not ſtudy, by all means poſſible, to increaſe them, and to extend their plantations? See the articles BRITISH AMERICA and FRENCH AMERICA. Might we not with wiſe management have people enough to ſpare? Do we not increaſe 'till we are ready to eat up one another, we mean in trade? And can we not ſpare enough of the unprofitable part of our people, thoſe who are rather ſaid to ſtarve among us than to live? who, if they were well ſettled there, would be induſtrious, thrive, and grow rich; and it is by the induſtrious that trade is ſupported, and wealth increaſed.

Let us no more amuſe ourſelves, and raiſe the vapours with our phlegmatic thoughts about every little German incroachment on our manufactures, and the prohibitions of a few petty princes in the North; here we can raiſe a conſumption

of our manufactures, ſuperior to all the obſtruction they can give us; here our manufactures will never be prohibited; here the demand for ever will be increaſing with the people; it is like a mill built by the lord of the manor, it grinds for all his tenants, and is kept going by his own ſtream; ſo that on one hand, it can never want work, and, on the other, can never want water.

We have no room to ſay more, though we ſcarce know when to leave off. We will conclude with obſerving, in a few words, that here is the greateſt opening for a very great advancement of our trade, and the eaſieſt to put in practice, that ever was propoſed, or perhaps can be propoſed to this nation; and, 'till we enter heartily and vigorouſly into it, in it's full latitude, we ought never to complain of the decay of our trade, or of the want of a vent for our manufactures.

As the increaſe of commerce and people in our colonies is, in conſequence of our property in them, an increaſe and improvement of our trade in England, and, in particular, an increaſe of the conſumption of our manufactures; ſo it is a natural inference, and evident to demonſtration, that an increaſe of colonies muſt have the ſame effect, PROVIDED, I MEAN, THAT OUR COLONIES ARE DULY REGULATED IN SUBSERVIENCY TO THEIR MOTHER-KINGDOM, BUT NOT OTHERWISE.

We may, therefore, lay it down as a fundamental maxim, that additional colonies, where the people may plant and ſettle to their advantage, is a viſible improvement to our national trade.

Employment of our people, or, as we call them, our poor, is the great ſupport of our VERY BEING AS A NATION; without it, the poor will eat us up, the pariſh-rates will devour not the produce of our land only, but the land itſelf; and the church-wardens will call upon you for 20s. in the pound for your beggars.

This employing of the poor is the effect of OUR MANUFACTURES; but, as our manufactures employ the poor, ſo trade carries off THE MANUFACTURES, or elſe they would ſoon over-run the conſumption, and come to a full ſtop: THE MANUFACTURES SUPPORT THE POOR, FOREIGN COMMERCE SUPPORTS THE MANUFACTURES, AND PLANTING COLONIES SUPPORTS THE COMMERCE.

Here you diſpoſe of your increaſing numbers of poor; they go there poor, and come back rich; there they plant, trade, thrive, and increaſe, even your tranſported felons, ſent to Virginia inſtead of Tyburn; thouſands of them, if we are not miſinformed, have, by turning their hands to induſtry and improvement, and, which is beſt of all, to honeſty, become rich ſubſtantial planters and merchants, ſettled large families, and been famous in the country; nay, we have ſeen many of them made magiſtrates, officers of militia, captains of good ſhips, and maſters of good eſtates.

This way, therefore, we may diſpoſe of the growing numbers of our poor to an inexpreſſible advantage, as well to a public as a private one: it is a private advantage, as it is really a benefit to the poor that go freely and voluntary. We would not be thought to inſinuate the tranſportation of the poor; that would be ſending them away becauſe they are poor; but thoſe who being deſtitute of employment here, that are willing to ſeek it abroad, would have a viſible advantage, and would ſoon give encouragement to others to follow them, and thouſands of ſuch families would raiſe themſelves there by their induſtry, and grow rich; for, WHERE WAGES ARE HIGH, AND PROVISIONS LOW, as is the caſe there, the labourer muſt be idle, or extravagant, or thrive, and grow rich; and the conſequence of the diligent labouring man there is always this, that, from a MEER LABOURER, HE BECOMES A PLANTER, and ſettles his family upon the land he gains, and ſo grows rich of courſe.

The advantage of the public we have ſpoken of, though but briefly: we ſhall only add here, that, beſides the increaſe of commerce and people, it neceſſarily makes an increaſe of ſeamen; all this growing commerce, to and from our colonies, muſt be carried on by ſea; all the commerce they can have there, one colony with another, muſt be the ſame: the firſt by large ſhips of force, the laſt by ſloops, ketches, and ſmall ſhips. The increaſe of the people increaſes the trade; the increaſe of the trade increaſes the number of ſhips, and the increaſe of ſhips calls for an increaſe of ſeamen: thus your ſtrength, as well as wealth, grows with your colonies, the climax is very agreeable in proſpect.

Whence that the advancement of our eſtabliſhed colonies, and ſettlement of new ones muſt prove highly beneficial; which is, without queſtion, extending the commerce; it is enlarging the field of action; it calls in more hands to aſſiſt in the public proſperity; it employs profitably the unprofitable numbers of your poor, and lays a foundation of more extended trade, INDEPENDENT OF ALL OTHER NATIONS; WHICH IS NOW BECOME A PRINCIPLE OF POLICY TO BE THE MORE STEADILY PURSUED, AS OTHER NATIONS ARE DAILY ATTEMPTING TO INJURE OUR TRADE, BY SETTING UP ARTS AND MANUFACTURES FOR THEMSELVES, AND PROHIBITING THE IMPORTATION OF OURS.

The PREMIUMS, or BOUNTY, that have been granted by parliament on NAVAL STORES imported.

I. From the Britiſh plantations in America.

By 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1, 8. firſt granted from 1 Jan. 1705, to 1 Jan. 1714.
By 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 1. thence continued to 1 Jan. 1725.
By 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1: hemp only further continued to 1 Jan. 1741.
2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3, 18. granted from 29 September 1729, to 29 September 1742.
13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. thence continued (as to maſts, yards, and bowſprits, tar, pitch, and turpentine) to 25 December 1750; and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

During the aforeſaid terms of years, the ſeveral ſorts of naval ſtores hereafter mentioned, imported directly from any of the Britiſh plantations in America, in any ſhip that may lawfully trade, manned as by law is required, are to enjoy the following bounty, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Hemp, water-rotted, bright and clean, the ton containing 20 hundred weight - -	6	0	0
Maſts, yards, and bowſprits, the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt-meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies - - - - -	1	0	0
Tar, Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, the ton, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31 ½ gallons, to be well hooped and fitted up - - -	2	4	0
Tar, Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the ton, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31 ½ gallons, to be well hooped and fitted up on the exportation thereof	4	0	0
Pitch, clean, good, merchantable, and well conditioned, not mixed with dirt or droſs, the ton, containing 20 groſs hundreds nett pitch, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal ſize -	1	0	0
Turpentine, clean, good, and merchantable, clear of droſs and water, the ton, containing 20 groſs hundreds nett turpentine, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal ſize. - -	1	10	0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within 20 days after the diſcharge, or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe, upon certificates of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms, and naval officers, or any two of them, reſiding within any of his majeſty's ſaid plantations, teſtifying, that, before the departure of the ſhip, the perſon lading the ſame had made oath before them, That the ſaid ſtores were truly and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of his majeſty's ſaid plantations; and, with reſpect to the high bounty on tar, expreſſing, That it has appeared to them, the perſons ſo certifying, by the oath of the owner, or maker of the tar, which certificate was granted, that the tar therein mentioned was made from green trees prepared for that purpoſe, after the following manner: that is to ſay, that, when ſuch trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was ſtripped eight feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a ſlip of the bark of about four inches in breadth having been left on one ſide of each tree; and that each tree, after having been ſo barked, had ſtood during one year at the leaſt, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the ſaid tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith: as likewiſe, upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in Great-Britain, That the ſame were ſhipped within ſome of his majeſty's plantations in America, and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid ſtores were the produce of the ſaid plantations. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1, 2. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1, 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4, 12.

But the aforeſaid certificates of the chief officers of the cuſtoms are not to be made out for the premiums on pitch, until the ſame be freed from dirt or droſs; nor for any tar that is not fitting to be uſed for making of cordage, and ſhall not be freed from droſs and water; and unleſs ſuch pitch and tar be clean, good, merchantable, and well conditioned. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. § 16. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

And the ſaid officers of the cuſtoms, before they make out ſuch certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, ſawing of the ſtaves in the middle, and breaking

ing the barrels, or by ſuch other means as they ſhall think proper, to diſcover whether the ſaid pitch is good and merchantable, not mixed with dirt or droſs; and alſo to examine and ſearch the ſaid tar, to diſcover whether the ſame is clean, good, merchantable, well conditioned, and clear of droſs or water, and fit for making of cordage. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 17. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

II. From North Britain, or Scotland.

By 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. firſt granted from September 1713, to 1 January 1725.
By 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. hemp only further continued to 1 January 1741.
By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13. granted from 29 September 1729, to 29 September 1742.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. thence continued (as to maſts, yards, and bowſprits) to 25 December 1750, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.
During the aforeſaid terms of years, the naval ſtores hereafter mentioned, imported from North Britain into South Britain, in any ſhip built in Great-Britain, are to enjoy the following bounty, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Hemp, water rotted, bright and clean, the ton containing 20 hundred weight - - - - -	6	0	0
Trees of 12 inches diameter and upwards, fit for maſts, yards, or bowſprits, regularly converted, and turned at leaſt into eight ſquares, ſound, freſh, and in good and merchantable condition, the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies - - - - - -	1	0	0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe; upon certificates of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms, and the naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding at the port or ports of exportation in North Britain, teſtifying, That before the departure of the ſhip, the perſons concerned or employed in cutting down the aforeſaid trees, or any two of them, had made affidavit in writing, before ſuch comptroller and collector, and naval officer, or any of them, that ſuch trees were truly and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of North Britain; and ſpecifying in the ſaid affidavit, the particular number, quantity, and quality of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the names of the proprietors, and the places where the ſame did grow; as likewiſe, upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in South Britain, that the ſame were truly laden in North Britain, and that he knows or believes, that the ſaid trees were of the growth of North Britain. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13.
Perſons counterfeiting, or making falſe affidavits, or certificates, of the growth of the trees or hemp, in order to obtain the premium, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit 100l. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14.
Comptrollers, collectors, or naval officers, making falſe certificates, are to forfeit their office and 50l. to be impriſoned a year without bail, to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of Exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the cuſtoms. 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 8. 12 Ann cap. 9. §. 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14.
Maſters or owners of ſhips knowingly importing foreign trees fit for maſts, &c. as of the product of North Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit 100l. together with the ſhip and furniture. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 5. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 15.

From the Britiſh plantations and Scotland.

Upon the landing of the aforeſaid ſtores and trees, the preemption or refuſal muſt be offered and tendered to the commiſſioners of the navy; and, if within twenty days after ſuch tender, they ſhall not contract for the ſame, the importers may otherwiſe diſpoſe of them. 3 & 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 3. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 3. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 6, 13.
No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the cuſtoms, for the examining, viewing, or delivering any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or for making or ſigning certificates, in order to receive the premium; upon forfeiture of office and 100l. and to be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 5. Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.
And, if any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores (except hemp) or trees, ſhall be again exported, the exporter muſt, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treaſurer of the navy, or his caſhier, ſubſcribed by his comptroller, or his chief clerk, ſignifying that the full amount of the aforeſaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, ſuch ſtores may not be exported: and, if ſuch ſtores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 7, 9, 16.
And if, upon the exportation of the aforeſaid ſtores, doubts ſhall ariſe concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the onus probandi ſhall lie on the owner or claimer thereof, 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 10, 16.
By an act of the 24th of Geo. II. entitled, An act to continue ſeveral laws therein mentioned, &c. there is the following clauſe for continuing the like encouragement on the importation of naval ſtores, from the year 1750 to 1757. This act is further continued to 1764.
During the late war, an act paſſed in the year 1745, to allow the purchaſe for his majeſty's uſe, of naval ſtores brought into this kingdom on board neutral ſhips, by any of his majeſty's ſhips, and to allow ſuch ſtores to be landed and entered during the continuance of the wars with France and Spain, or either of them. See the end of this letter N, for the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, &c.

NAVARRE, is a kingdom in Spain, divided from France on the north by the Pyrenees, which alſo cut it into two parts, diſtinguiſhed into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, and on the Spaniſh ſide, is the kingdom we ſhall particularly ſpeak of; the other, beyond theſe mountains, by much the ſmaller, and belonging to France, is bounded by the territory of Labeur on the north; by the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spaniſh Navarre, on the ſouth-weſt; and by the principality of Bearn in Gaſcony on the eaſt; and is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad, and one of the barreneſt provinces in France.
Spaniſh Navarre borders upon Biſcay and Old Caſtile on the weſt; on Caſtile and Arragon on the ſouth; and eaſtward upon Arragon. It's length is about 90 miles from north to ſouth, and about 80 in breadth, from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into five diſtricts, viz. Pampelona, Tudela, Eſtela, Olite, and Longueſſa, which are parted by prodigious high and uncouth mountains, yet yielding good corn and grain, wine, oil, honey, fruit and herbs, and affording plenty of food and paſture for their cattle, beſides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains produce, alſo, metals and minerals, and had formerly ſeveral rich ſilver and gold mines, though, at preſent, they are either neglected or exhauſted.

NAVIGATION.

Of the practical art thereof, in relation to ſhip-ſailing.

What a complete treatiſe of that art ought to contain, according to Sir William Petty.

1. What arithmetic, in whole numbers and fractions, as alſo in decimals and logarithms, is neceſſary for the ſame; and what books are beſt for teaching ſo much thereof. 2. What vulgar, practical, mechanical geometry, performable by the ſcale and compaſs, is ſufficient. 3. What trigonometry, right-lined and ſpherical, will ſuffice. 4. How many ſtars are to be known. 5. What inſtruments are beſt for uſe at ſea, with the conſtruction of them, and the manner of uſing them. 6. The whole ſkill of the magnet, as to the directive virtues thereof, and all the accidents that may befal it. 7. The hydrography of the globe of the earth, the perſpective of the coaſts, and the deſcription of the under-water-bottom of the ſea. 8. The knowledge of winds and meteors, ſo far as the ſame is attainable. 9. The hiſtory and ſkill of all ſorts of fiſhings. 10. The art of medicine and ſurgery peculiar for the ſea. 11. The common laws of the admiralty, and juriſdiction of the ſea. 12. The ſeveral victuallings and cloathings fit for ſeamen. 13. The whole ſcience of ebbing and flowing, as alſo of currents and eddies at ſea. 14. Dromometry, and the meaſures of a ſhip's motions at ſea. 15. The building of ſhips of all ſorts, with the ſeveral riggings and ſails for each ſpecies, and the uſe of all the parts and motions of a ſhip. 16. Naval œconomy, according to the ſeveral voyages and countries. 17. The art of conning, rowing, ſailing, of all the ſeveral ſorts of veſſels. 18. The gunnery, fire-works, and other armatures peculiar to ſea and to ſea fights. 19. The art of loading and unloading the chief commodities to the beſt advantage. 20. The art of weighing up ſunk ſhips and goods, as alſo of diving for ſunk goods in deep water. 21. The general philoſophy of the motion and figures of the air, the ſea, and of ſeaſons; of timber, iron, hemp, brimſtone, tallow, &c. and of their ſeveral uſes in naval affairs. 22. An account of five or ſix of the beſt navies of Europe, with that of the arſenals, magazines, yards, docks, &c. 23. An account of all the ſhipping able to croſs the ſeas belonging to each kingdom and ſtate of Europe. 24. An account of all the chief commercial parts of the world, with mention of what commodities are originally carried from, and ultimately to, any of them. 25. An account of the chief ſea-fights, and all other naval expeditions and exploits, relating to war, trade, or diſcovery, which have happened in this laſt century. 26. Of the moſt advantageous uſe of teleſcopes for

ſeveral purpoſes at ſea. 27. Of the ſeveral depths of the ſea, and heights of the atmoſphere. 28. The art of making ſea-water freſh and potable, and fit for all uſes in food and phyſic at ſea.

Remarks.

I am not acquainted with any book written upon the ſubject of navigation according to this extenſive plan propoſed by Sir William Petty. The beſt book that has fell in my way upon this ſubject, is that lately wrote by the judicious Mr J. Robertſon, F. R. S. the mathematical maſter at Chriſt's Hoſpital, London; to which we refer the reader, after giving an extract therefrom upon one of the moſt material parts relating to practical navigation.

Of a ſhip's reckoning, in regard to the art of conducting of ſhips from one part of the world to another.

A ſhip's reckoning is that account whereby, at any time, it may be known where the ſhip is; and on what courſe or courſes ſhe is to ſteer to gain her port.

Dead-reckoning, is that account deduced from the occurrences wrote on the log-board.

The log-board is a painted black board, whereon is wrote in chalk whatever is thought worthy of note from day to day; and, for a proper diſpoſition of ſuch notes, the board is divided into five columns: the left hand one contains 24 hours, from the noon of one day to the noon of the next; in the ſecond and third columns are the knots and fathoms the ſhip is found to run per hour, ſet againſt the hours when the log was hove; the fourth column contains the courſes the ſhip ſteers; and in the fifth, or right-hand column, is wrote the winds; the alteration of the ſails, the buſineſs doing aboard, and what other remarks the officer of the watch thinks proper to inſert: for it ſhould be obſerved, that it is uſual to divide a ſhip's company into two parts, called the ſtarboard and larboard watches, who alternately do the duty of the ſhip, for four hours and four hours.

The log-book is a book ruled like the log-board, in order to contain the daily copies of the remarks wrote on the log-board; which is the only authentic record of the ſhip's tranſactions; and theſe are, by the perſons who keep journals, tranſcribed every day at noon into their log-books, from whence they make the neceſſary deductions relative to the ſhip's place.

But, as the ſhip's motion is liable to be diſturbed from a variety of cauſes, ſuch as continual deflection from the courſe ſet, by the ſhip's playing to the right and left round her center of gravity, and the unequal care of the helmſmen; the diſtance being faulty, on account of tumbling ſeas, rolling with or againſt the ſhip; the unſteadineſs of the wind, unknown currents, ſudden ſtorms, and many other impediments, which ſeem impoſſible to be ſurmounted; conſequently her place, according to the dead-reckoning, may be juſtly doubted; and, therefore, mariners try every day to find the latitude their ſhip is in, by obſervations on the ſun or ſtars; and, if the latitude obtained by obſervation, and that found by the dead-reckoning, agree, it is preſumed the ſhip's place is well determined; but, if they diſagree, the account of Longitude must be corrected *; and, for the latitude, that found by obſervation is always to be depended on.

* The lateſt method, and the ſimpleſt, that has ever been propoſed for this purpoſe, is that lately communicated by the Rev. Mr. Richard Locke; the certainty or uncertainty of which, if I am rightly informed, is now trying experimentally. See the articles Commanders of Ships and Longitude, where what Mr. Locke has hitherto offered to the public is given at large: and, if it ſhould prove true in practice, will certainly render the whole practical art of navigation extremely eaſy and ſecure, and bids fair, according to ſome, for the real diſcovery of that great deſideratum, the Longitude at Sea: but the certainty hereof being doubted by ſome mathematicians, the matter muſt be left to repeated and infallible experience, where we leave it.

Various methods of correcting the reckoning or longitude.

Conſider whether the difference may not have been occaſioned by a current, and, if it is poſſible, try it (by the method deſcribed below *) or make ſuch an eſtimate of it's ſetting and drift as may be judged reaſonable; then with the ſetting and drift, as a courſe and diſtance, find the difference of latitude and difference of longitude, with which increaſe or diminiſh the dead-reckoning; and if the latitude, thus corrected, agrees with the latitude by obſervation, then the longitude thus corrected may be ſafely taken as true, and ſo the ſhip's place determined.

* Of ſailing in currents.

A Current, or Tide, is a progreſſive motion of the water, cauſing all floating bodies to move that way towards which the ſtream is directed.

The ſetting of a tide or current, is that point of the compaſs towards which the waters run; and the drift of a current is the rate it runs per hour.

The ſetting and drift of the moſt remarkable tides and currents are pretty well known; but, in unknown currents, the uſual way to find the ſetting and drift is thus:

Let three or four men take a boat a little way from the ſhip, and by a rope faſtened to the boat's ſtern, let down a heavy iron pot, or loaded kettle, into the ſea, to the depth of 80 or 100 fathoms, where it can be, whereby the boat will ride almoſt as ſteady as at anchor: then heave the log, and the number of knots run out in half a minute will give the miles which the current runs per hour; and the bearing of the log ſhews the ſetting of the current.

Exam. Suppoſe a ſhip, in 24 hours, finds, by her dead-reckoning, ſhe has made 96 miles of diff. latitude north, and 38 miles of departure weſt; but, by obſervation, finds her difference of latitude is 112, and on trial finds a current, which, in 24 hours, make 16 miles of diff. latitude north, and 10 miles of departure eaſt: required the ſhip's departure?

Diff. lat. by account 96 m. N.	Depart. by acc. 38 m. W.
Diff. lat. by current 16 m. N.	Depart. by curr. 10 m. E.
True diff. lat. - 112 m. N.	True departure 28 m. W.

Here the dead-reckoning, corrected by the current, gives the diff. latitude 112 miles, which is the ſame as found by obſervation; therefore the departure, 28, is taken as the true one.

The error in the dead-reckoning is uſually attributed to unknown currents; for, by various cauſes yet undetermined, there are many counter-motions of the water in the open ſeas, as well as thoſe obſerved near the ſhores, where the motions may be tolerably well accounted for. Some of the obſerved currents in the great ſeas may, perhaps, be owing to the tide's following the moon, and to the libratory motion the waters may have thereby; and the unſettled ſetting and drift of theſe currents may poſſibly depend on the change in the moon's declination: however, it is well known from obſervations, that the trade-winds occaſion a conſiderable current within their limits, particularly within the torrid zone, where the motion is perpetually towards the weſt, at the rate of about eight or ten miles a day: but, at the extremities of the trade winds, or near the latitudes of 30 degrees north and ſouth, it is likely that the currents are compounded of the ſaid weſtern motion, and of one towards the equator: therefore all ſhips ſailing within theſe limits ſhould allow a courſe each day for this current.

If, when all currents have been allowed for, there ſhould ſtill be a difference between the obſerved latitude, and that given by account, then a further correction muſt be made.

The buſineſs of correcting a ſea-reckoning is a very precarious operation, and, at beſt, is little more than gueſſing; for, by ought that appears, the ſhip may be either to the eaſtward or weſtward of the point wherein the reckoning places her, and the mariner not be able to pronounce with certainty whether; however, the following methods are uſually taken: if the difference of latitude is much more than the departure, or the direct courſe has been within three points of the meridian, then it is moſt likely the error is in the diſtance.

And if the departure is much greater than the difference of latitude, or the direct courſe is within three points of the parallel, or more than five points from the meridian, the error may be aſcribed to the courſe.

But, if the courſes are in general near the middle of the quadrant, the other may be either in the courſe, or in the diſtance, or in both.

For, to cauſe an alteration in the difference of latitude, the firſt of theſe caſes requires a greater error in the courſe than can well be ſuppoſed to have been committed; in the ſecond caſe, the diſtances muſt be ſo faulty as would ſcarce eſcape obſervation; and, in the laſt, it is often doubtful whether to attribute the error to the courſe or diſtance, but is as uſually corrected in both.

Firſt method.

When, by the dead-reckoning, the difference of latitude is more than once and a half the departure: or, which is the ſame, when the courſe is leſs than three points: to the difference of latitude, and the departure by account, find the courſe. With this courſe, and the difference of latitude by obſervation, find a new departure. With the new departure, and the co-middle latitude, find the difference of longitude.

Exam. Yeſterday noon we were in latitude 39° 18′ north, and, by an obſervation, are this day noon in latitude 37° 48′ north; our dead-reckoning gives 106 miles of ſouthing, and 64 miles of eaſting: required the ſhip's true difference of longitude?

By the traverſe table.

The difference of latitude 106, and the departure 64, gives the courſe 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ points. The courſe 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ points, and the difference of latitude by obſervation 90, gives a departure of 54. The co-middle latitude 51° 27′, and true departure 54, gives the difference of longitude 69.

Second method.

When, by the dead-reckoning, the departure is more than once and a half the difference of latitude, or the courſe is more than five points.

With the difference of latitude and departure by account, find the diſtance. With this diſtance, and the difference of latitude by obſervation, find the true departure. With the co-middle latitude and true departure, find the difference of longitude.

Exam. Yeſterday noon we were in latitude 48° 52′ north, and were to day noon in latitude 50° 18′ north; our dead-reckoning ſhews we have made 68 miles of northing, and 112 miles of weſting: required the true difference of longitude the ſhip has made?

By the traverſe table.

The difference of latitude 68, and departure 112, gives 132 for the diſtance. The diſtance 132, and difference of latitude by obſervation 86, gives the true departure 100. The co-middle latitude 40° 25′, and true departure 100, gives 155 miles for difference of longitude.

Third method.

When the difference of latitude and departure by account are nearly equal, or the direct courſe has been between three and five points of the meridian.

To the difference of latitude and departure by account, find the diſtance. With this diſtance and difference of latitude by obſervation, find another departure. Take the half ſum of the two departures for the true one. With the co-middle latitude and true departure find the difference of longitude.

Exam. Theſe laſt 24 hours we have made 84 miles of northing, and 76 of eaſting; we were yeſterday noon in latitude 52° 40′ north, and are this noon in latitude 54° 22′ north: what difference of longitude has the ſhip made?

By the traverſe table.

To the difference of latitude 84, and departure 76, the diſtance is 113 miles. With the diſtance 113, and difference of latitude by obſervation 102, find a departure 47,7. The ſum of the two departures 76 and 47,7 is 123,7, it's half is 61,8. To the co-middle latitude 36° 29′, and true departure 61,8, the difference of longitude is 103.

The difficulty of finding the longitude at ſea has inclined many perſons to attempt the ſolution of this moſt uſeful problem: ſome with no other view than the great advantage which the art of navigation would derive from their labours; others, and by much the greateſt numbers, who have exhibited their thoughts on this ſubject, were viſionary whimſical men, only lured by the hopes of the appointed reward: but Dr. Halley having collected a great multitude of obſervations made on the variation of the needle in many parts of the world, he, by the help of the latitude and longitude of the places of thoſe obſervations, was enabled to draw on a mercator chart certain lines, ſhewing the variation of the compaſs in all thoſe places over which they paſſed at the time he publiſhed, in the year 1700; and, conſequently, the longitude of any of thoſe places could be found by the chart, having it's latitude, and the variation of the needle in that place given.

Fourth method.

To find the longitude at ſea by the variation chart.

Find the variation of the compaſs, for which ſee art. 1076, in Mr. Robertſon's tract. Draw a parallel of latitude on the chart, through the latitude found by obſervation; and the point where it cuts the curved line, whoſe variation is the ſame with that obſerved, will be the ſhip's place.

Exam. A ſhip finds, by a good obſervation, that ſhe is in the latitude of 18° 20′ north, and that the variation of the compaſs is 4° weſt: required the ſhip's place?

Take from the graduated meridian the diſtance between the equator and the latitude of 18° 20′ north; lay a ruler along the equator, and ſlide one point of the compaſſes along it's edge, 'till the other point cuts the curve of 4° weſt variation, and the interſection gives the ſhip's place, whoſe longitude will be found to be about 27° 10′ weſt from London.

There are two conſiderable inconveniencies which attend this method.

Firſt, That, wherever the variation lines run eaſt or weſt, or nearly ſo, this way of finding the longitude becomes imperfect: but, among all the trading parts of the world, this imperfection is at preſent found chiefly on the weſt coaſts of Europe, between the latitudes of 45° and 53°; on the eaſtern ſhores of North America, and in ſome parts of the Weſtern Ocean and Hudſon's Bay, lying between the ſaid ſhores; therefore, for the other parts of the world, a variation chart may be eſteemed as of the greateſt uſe.

But the variation curves, even where they run eaſt and weſt, may be ſometimes applied to good uſe in correcting the latitude, when meridian obſervations cannot be had, as it frequently happens on the northern coaſts of America, in the Weſtern Ocean, and about Newfoundland: for, if the variation can be obtained correctly, then the caſt and weſt curve, anſwering to that variation on the chart, will ſhew the latitude.

Secondly, As the deflection of the magnetical meridian from the true one is ſubject to continual alteration, therefore a chart, to which the variation lines are fitted for any year, muſt in time become uſeleſs, unleſs new lines, ſhewing the ſtate of the variation at that time, be drawn on that chart: but, as the change in the variation is very ſlow, therefore new variation charts being publiſhed every 10 or 12 years, will anſwer the purpoſe wanted.

In the year 1746, Mr. William Mountaine, F. R. S. and Mr. James Dodſon, fitted the variation lines to Dr. Halley's chart, for the year 1744. As theſe gentlemen had collected ſeveral thouſands of obſervations to work upon, they were enabled to perſom this buſineſs with great correctneſs; inſomuch that, wherever their chart has been uſed, it was found of very great importance, even to the ſaving a ſhip in the Indian Ocean; and it is much to be wiſhed they were in more general uſe.

Fifth method.

To find the longitude from celeſtial obſervations.

The difference of longitude between two places may be determined by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens is ſeen in thoſe places *.

* The difference of longitude between two places is eſtimated by the difference of time, allowing an hour to every 15 degrees of longitude, and one minute of time for every 15 min. of a degr. or a degr. for every 4 min. of time.
Example. Having at 6 h. 48. p. m. obſerved at ſea a certain appearance in the heavens, which I knew was ſeen the ſame inſtant at 3 h. 25 m. p. m. in London: required the different longitude between the places of obſervation.

From	6 h.	48 m.	3 h. =	45 degr.
Take	3	35	13 m. =	3 15′
Leaves	3	13 = diff. time.	Sum	48 15 = diff. lon.

And, becauſe the hour of appearance at London was leaſt, therefore I knew myſelf to be at the eaſtward of London.

For, as theſe appearances conſiſt in the appulſes, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their paſſage by one another; and theſe appulſes when they happen, are ſeen at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time to all parts of the earth where they are viſible: therefore, by knowing the relative times of the day when ſuch appearances are ſeen in two diſtant places, the difference between thoſe times is known, and conſequently the difference of longitude between thoſe places.

There are every year publiſhed ſeveral almanacks, or ephemeres, wherein are noted the eclipſes of the ſun and moon, the times of the planets riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing; the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites, and the times when other celeſtial appearances may be ſeen at the places for which thoſe ephemeres are calculated: now a mariner having one of theſe almanacks, if he obſerves at what time any of theſe appearances happen in any part of the world he may be then in, will readily know his longitude.

Among the ſatellites of Jupiter, one or more is eclipſed almoſt every night; for they diſappear either in going behind Jupiter, or in paſſing before him; and the inſtants of ſuch immerſions and emerſions may be ſeen by a refracting teleſcope of about 8 or 9 feet long, or by a reflecting one of about 9 inches focal length. The reflecting teleſcope is much more commodious at ſea, on account of it's ſhortneſs; but the metals are very ſubject to be tarniſhed by the moiſt air.

To determine the longitude of any place from celeſtial obſervations, it is neceſſary that the time of the day be well known in that place where the obſervation is made; and among the various methods propoſed for this purpoſe, none ſeems more fit to be practiſed at ſea, than the method by equal altitudes; for no regular deductions can be made, without knowing the preciſe time of noon. Now, as clocks and watches undergo conſiderable alterations from the motion of a ſhip and the change of the climate, they ought to be carefully examined, and their gain or loſs per day aſcertained, whenever they are to be uſed in the correcting of the longitude; and this need not be done very often, only at ſuch times when the ſhip may be ſuppoſed through ſtorms or bad weather, to be conſiderably out in her dead-reckoning.

At ſuch times, the ſhip lying by, let the ſun's altitude be taken at any time in the forenoon, ſet down that time and altitude: in the afternoon, watch for the ſun's having the ſame altitude exactly, and note down that time; then the half ſum of theſe two times, is the time ſhewn by the clock or watch when it was noon in that place.

As it is poſſible that an altitude, equal to one taken on the eaſtern ſide of the meridian, cannot be obſerved on the weſtern ſide by the interpoſition of clouds, it is therefore beſt to take ſeveral in the forenoon, or on the eaſt ſide, in order to have the greater probability of ſecuring a correſponding altitude on the weſtern ſide, or afternoon; and, if ſeveral obſervations

vations of equal altitudes can be made on both ſides of the meridian, it will be beſt to take the mean time correſponding to each pair of equal altitudes; and if the means all agree, it is an evident ſign that the obſervations were well made: but ſhould they diſagree half a minute or ſo, then it is beſt to add together all the times of noon, and divide the ſum by the number of times, and the quotient may be taken for the true time of noon in that place, as ſhewn by the clock or watch.

In the taking of theſe equal altitudes of the ſun, it will be moſt convenient to have them at a diſtance from one another not exceeding 4 or 5 hours; becauſe then there will be no occaſion to correct the latter altitude, by the alteration in declination during that time.

The true time of noon being obtained, then the time that any planet, or other celeſtial body paſſes the meridian, may be thus known: on the evening following, let one or more altitudes of the planet be taken, which ſet down with their reſpective times; and on the next morning, note down the times when that planet has the ſame altitudes: the half ſum of theſe two times, will be the time when the obſerved planet paſſed the meridian of that place; and, if ſeveral obſervations have been taken, find the mean of them, as before for the ſun: but, if the planet obſerved be the moon, whoſe declination may be conſiderably altered between the times of the obſervations, then let a proportional part of her daily variation in declination be added to, or ſubtracted from, the time found for her paſſing the meridian, according as the moon is receding from, or approaching to, the elevated pole. And, if there is reaſon to ſuſpect that the clock or watch gains or loſes every day, let the times of two equal altitudes of the ſun be taken next day, and the noon thereby determined: then the difference between the times of noon both days, as ſhewn by the clock or watch, will be it's daily variation; and the time of the planet's paſſing the meridian, muſt be increaſed or diminiſhed by a proportional part of that variation.

Now, by having a table or an ephemeris, containing the times when the moon paſſes the meridian of a certain place, and by having from obſervation the time when ſhe paſſes the meridian of any other place, the difference between the longitudes of thoſe two places may be thus found:

Seek in the ephemeris for the time of her ſouthing on the given day, and that of the following day, and take their difference; alſo take the difference between the times of the tabular ſouthing and the obſerved one, on the ſame day; then ſay:

As the daily difference is to the obſerved difference, ſo is 360 degrees to the difference of longitude ſought.

For, as the whole difference ariſes in a day, or by the running through 360 degrees, conſequently any part of that difference will require a proportional part of 360 degrees.

Example. Suppoſe at ſea, the moon was obſerved to paſs the meridian on the 18th day of June 1753, at 57 minutes after one in the morning: required the longitude of that place?

At London the moon paſſes the meridian on the 18th of June, at 1 hour 47 minutes, and on the 19th day, at 2 hours 31 minutes, the difference is 44 minutes; and the obſerved time is 10 minutes later than at London.

Then as 44 min.: 10 min.:: 360°: $\left(\frac{3600}{44} =\right)$ 81 degr. 49 min. Which ſhews that place to be 81 deg. 49 min. to the weſt of the meridian of London.

As the tables of the moon's motions are not yet arrived at the wiſhed-for accuracy, conſequently the times of her paſſing the meridian of any place, as ſhewn by an ephemeris, are not ſo true as they might be, and therefore the difference of longitude found by the time of the moon's ſouthing, may err about 2 degrees; and ſhould the time of her paſſing the meridian be ill obſerved: the error may be much greater: it has therefore been propoſed to keep an account of longitude by a time-keeper, or kind of clock, that ſhould always ſhew the true time under the meridian of ſome one place; conſequently, was the time of the day found in any other place, compared with the time then ſhewn by ſuch a clock, the difference of longitude between thoſe places would be determined: but the difficulties attending the conſtruction of ſuch an inſtrument, have been hitherto found too great to be overcome. Indeed, the ingenious Mr. Harriſon has removed ſome of, if not all, the capital obſtructions; and his judicious friends ſuſpect he will entirely perfect his moſt elaborate machine: he has received ſome gratuities from the public, for the advances he has already made towards the ſolution of this intricate problem of the longitude; and it is wiſhed he may merit the whole reward allotted by the government for the diſcovery of this ſo much deſired acquiſition in navigation.

Upon the whole, it appears that there are many means by which a ſhip's place may be found at ſea, nearly exact enough for navigating her to places whoſe longitudes are almoſt as incorrectly known as the ſhip's place; and, was the method of finding the longitude at ſea correctly known, the ſhips muſt then keep as good a look-out for land as they do now, and alſo keep their account of dead-reckoning: therefore, would ſeamen put in practice all the precepts that are given them for this purpoſe, they might proceed on their reſpective voyages, and (which is ſuſpected now to be the caſe) have very little concern about the perfecting the diſcovery of the longitude.

Of a Sea-Journal.

A ſea journal is a book, wherein is truly entered the moſt remarkable daily occurrences relating to the ſhip during her voyage outward and homeward. There are various ways of keeping ſea journals, according to the different notions of mariners concerning what articles are to be entered.

Some writers direct the keeping ſuch a kind of journal, which is only an abſtract of each day's tranſactions, ſpecifying the weather, what ſhips or lands were ſeen, accidents on board, the latitude, longitude, meridional diſtance, courſe and run: theſe particulars are to be drawn from the ſhip's log book, or that kept by the perſon himſelf, for moſt good mariners keep private log-books.

Other authors recommend the keeping but of one account, including the log-book and all the work of each day, with the deductions drawn therefrom: this method is uſed in Mr. Robertſon's treatiſe, on account of repreſenting to the beginner the whole of each day's work: but when he is well verſed in this method, he may abridge what part of it he pleaſes: although it is conceived that a journal neatly kept, with all the particulars of the work commodiouſly ranged, would give more ſatisfaction to thoſe who might have occaſion afterwards to inſpect it, than a journal containing the heads only, and all the intermediate parts ſuppreſſed.

The method choſe by Mr. Robertſon to introduce the young mariner into this moſt capital part of navigation, is, by ſhewing him firſt how to work a few ſeparate days works independent one of the other, and then to proceed to a continued journal of ſeveral ſucceſſive days works; for the doing of which, it was judged neceſſary to premiſe the following obſervations.

I. That the day is ſuppoſed to begin at noon, and the day's work relates to the tranſactions done in the time between the noon of one day and the noon of the following day.

II. If there is an obſervation for an amplitude or an azimuth, let that amplitude or azimuth be worked as ſhewn between art. 1070 and 1076, in Mr. Robertſon's treatiſe, and then find the variation as ſhewn at art. 1077 in the ſame tract; taking care in theſe operations, that the declination of the day be fitted to the proper time and longitude, as ſhewn art. 964, 965, in the ſame author.

III. Correct each courſe by the variation thus found, as at art. 1078, alſo correct theſe corrected courſes by the proper allowance for lee-way, as ſhewn at art. 1080, 1081.

IV. Write theſe corrected courſes in a traverſe table, ſum up the knots and fathoms belonging to theſe hours the ſhip kept on the ſame courſe, and write the ſeveral ſums as diſtances in the traverſe table againſt their reſpective courſe.

V. Complete the traverſe table as by art. 695, find the preſent latitude and longitude, as ſhewn in art. 786, 787, of Mr. Robertſon, and the examples, in art. 1128, & ſeq. and then will the ſhip's place be obtained by dead-reckoning. See Mr. Robertſon's treatiſe, entitled the Elements of Navigation: containing the Theory and Practice, with all the neceſſary Tables. To which is added, A treatiſe of Marine Fortification. For the Uſe of the Royal Mathematical School at Chriſt's Hoſpital, and the Gentlemen of the Navy.

Remarks.

That the reader, who is deſirous of underſtanding the art of navigation, either to the perfection of the theory to which it has hitherto been brought, or only to underſtand the ſame in a mere practical light, without concerning himſelf with the mathematical elements whereupon the art is grounded, we recommend him to the above-mentioned excellent treatiſe, in the commendation of which too much cannot be ſaid. But, as the learned author has himſelf given a juſt idea of his own performance in few words, we cannot give it it's due recommendation in a better manner, than introducing his own

Advertisement.

As it may be expected that four kinds of readers will look into this book, it was thought convenient to point out to ſome of them, the places where they may meet with what they more particularly want.

Firſt, Thoſe who have made a proficiency in the mathematics, will, it is likely, examine in what manner the ſubjects are here treated, and whether any thing new is contained therein: it is conceived, that ſuch readers will find ſome things which may recompence them for their trouble, in almoſt every one of the books.

Secondly, Thoſe learners who are deſirous of being inſtructed in the art of navigation in a ſcientific manner, and would chuſe to ſee the reaſon of the ſeveral ſteps they muſt take to acquire it: to ſuch perſons, it is recommended that they read the whole book in the order they find it. Or, if the learner is very young, he may omit the fourth book 'till after he is maſter

maſter of the fifth and ſixth. Adult perſons, and thoſe under the direction of a maſter, may, if they pleaſe, read the eighth book immediately after the fifth, and read the ſixth, ſeventh, and ninth books in ſucceſſion.

Thirdly, That claſs of readers, which, with too much truth may be ſaid, comprehend moſt of our mariners, who want to learn both the elements and the art itſelf by rote, and never trouble themſelves about the reaſon of the rules they work by: as there ever will be many readers of this kind, they may be well accommodated in this work; thus, if they are not already acquainted with arithmetic and geography, let them read the five firſt rules of arithmetic, to page 20; thence proceed to the definitions and problems in geometry, from page 42 to 55. In the book of trigonometry, read pages 83, 84, 85, 86, 92, 93, and from 98 to 108: the whole of book V. In book VI. he may read to page 267, and as much more as he pleaſes. In book VII. let him read the ſections III, IV, V, VI. from page 368 to page 407. In book VIII. he may read ſection III. and as many problems in the Vth and VIth ſections as he can, and let him read the whole of the ninth book.

Fourthly, That ſet of readers who will not be at the pains of learning any thing more than how to do the practice of a day's work, ſuch may herein meet with the practice almoſt independent of other knowledge. Let ſuch perſons make themſelves acquainted with ſection VIII. of book V. and the uſe of the table at page 200; then learn the uſe of the traverſe table at the end of book VI. which he will find exemplified between pages 243 and 274; alſo he muſt learn the uſe of the table of meridional parts at page 423: after which he may proceed to book IX. where he will find ample inſtructions in all the particulars which enter into a day's work. But, as with this ſcanty knowledge of things he will not clearly ſee every part of book IX, he may omit the articles 1059, 1091, 1106, and the XIth and XIIth ſections.

NAVIGATION.

Some of the principal LAWS that have been enacted, relating to the trading NAVIGATION of ENGLAND.

According to the common right of mankind, the navigation through the world, is no leſs free and open to every one, than the air; and hence it proceeds, that paſſage by ſea to and from all Chriſtian countries, is and hath been ſo indifferently permitted to all nations, not being profeſſed enemies: and none can be prohibited to ſail in the main ſea, unleſs in places where the waters are as royalties, which the Venetians claim in ſome of their territories and juriſdictions, and other princes and ſtates by preſcription. Lex Mercat. Malines, 124, 130.

If a ſhip bound for Venice do enter into the river of Liſbon, and there deliver goods or merchandizes, and afterwards entering into the ſtraits of the Mediterranean Sea, be driven by contrary winds to ſome other place or iſland in the ſaid ſeas, and after that make her diſcharge at Venice, all this time of the voyage is conſidered as one navigation, and the maſter of the ſhip hath committed no fault, if he departed from the firſt port at the time limited. Ibid. 124.

As to ſhips in general, there have been many ſtatutes made for increaſing and preſerving them, and improving the navigation of this kingdom: by 5 Rich. II. c. 3. it was enacted, That none of the king's ſubjects ſhould bring in or carry out any merchandize, but in Engliſh ſhips, on pain to forfeit all merchandize otherwiſe conveyed, or the value thereof. But 6 Rich. II. c. 8. ordains, That the ſtatute before-mentioned ſhall only take place where able ſhips of the king's allegiance may be found, otherwiſe the merchants may hire other ſhips, notwithſtanding that ſtatute.

By 4 Hen. VII. c. 10. No Gaſcoign or Guiene wine, &c. ſhall be imported into this realm but in Engliſh veſſels, on pain of forfeiture: and none ſhall freight any merchandize in any ſtranger's ſhip, if he may have ſufficient freight in the ſame port, in a denizen's ſhip, under the penalty of forfeiting all merchandize not thus ſhipped, to be divided between the king and the ſeizer. This act ſhall not extend to any ſhip having merchandize on board, that is forced by tempeſt into any port of this kingdom, ſo as the owner thereof make no ſale of the merchandizes here, except only for neceſſary victuals, or repairing of the ſhip and tackle.

The ſtat. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 14. ordains, That Gaſcoign or Guiene wines, or Thouloufe woad, may be brought into this kingdom in any other ſhips, as well as Engliſh, notwithſtanding the act of 4 Hen. VII. And by this ſtatute, a rate was ordained of what ſhould be paid for the freight or portage of the ſeveral ſorts of merchandizes, in ſhips from the port of London to other places, and from thence to London.

By 1 Eliz. c. 13. If any owner of any merchandize, ſhall in the time of peace, embark or unload any part thereof (maſts, pitch, tar, and corn only excepted) out of or into any ſhip, other than an Engliſh bottom, he ſhall pay cuſtom as an alien: and no Engliſhman ſhall croſs the ſea in any hoy, &c. with any goods or merchandize, on pain to forfeit the ſame, to be divided between the king and the proſecutor. But merchants, at their ſeveral ſhippings of cloth out of the Thames twice in the year, may embark merchandize in a ſtranger's ſhip, ſo long as there are not Engliſh ſhips enough and convenient to convey ſuch merchandize into Flanders, Holland, Zealand, or Brabant, &c.

By the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. c. 18. it is enacted, That no goods ſhall be imported into, or exported out of, any territories belonging, or which may hereafter belong, to his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, in Aſia, Africa, or America, in any other ſhips but ſuch only as belong to the people of England, or Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, and whereof the maſter and three fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, on pain to forfeit all the goods and commodities, and the ſhip or veſſel with all its furniture; one third part whereof to the king, another third to the governor of the country where ſuch default ſhall be, if ſeized there, otherwiſe that third alſo to the king, and the other third to him that will ſeize or ſue for the ſame. And commanders at ſea, having commiſſion from the king, are to bring in as prize, ſhips offending contrary hereunto; and in ſuch caſe of condemnation, one moiety ſhall be to the uſe of ſuch commanders and their companies, and the other moiety to the king.

No goods of the growth or manufacture of any countries belonging to Muſcovy, or of the produce of the Turkiſh empire, ſhall be imported into England, Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick, in any ſhip or veſſel, not Engliſh built, or not belonging to the people of ſome of them, and navigated as aforeſaid; except veſſels of the built of that place of which the goods are, or of ſuch port where they can only be, or uſually are ſhipped, the maſter and three fourths of the mariners being of the ſaid country, on pain of forfeiting the ſhip and goods, to be divided and diſpoſed as abovementioned: and all wines of the growth of France or Germany, and divers goods and merchandize from Spain, Portugal, Ruſſia, &c. which ſhall be imported into the places aforeſaid, in any other ſhip than what doth belong to England, Ireland, &c. and are navigated as aforeſaid, ſhall be deemed aliens goods, and pay accordingly. Stat. ibid.

And no foreign built veſſel ſhall paſs as a ſhip belonging to England, Ireland, Wales, &c. 'till the owner makes appear to the chief officers of the cuſtoms, in the port next to the place of his abode, that he is not an alien, and take an oath that it was bonâ fide bought of ſuch perſons, expreſſing the ſum given, and the time and place, when and where, &c. and that no foreigner hath a ſhare therein. Alſo none ſhall load in any bottom, whereof ſtrangers are owners, part owners, or maſter, and of which three fourths of the mariners at leaſt are not Engliſh, any goods whatſoever from one port or creek of England, Ireland, Wales, Guernſey, Jerſey, or town of Berwick, to another port of the ſame, on pain to forfeit ſuch goods and veſſel. Ibid.

The 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 11. ordains, That where any goods ſhall be laden on board any Engliſh ſhip of the burthen of 200 tons or upwards, and mounted with ſixteen guns or more, if the maſter yields up ſuch ſhip or goods to any Turkiſh veſſel, or any pirate, without fighting, upon proof thereof in the admiralty, he ſhall be incapable of taking charge of any Engliſh veſſel, &c. And maſters of Engliſh ſhips, though not of that burthen, nor mounted as aforeſaid, that ſhall yield to a Turkiſh ſhip or pirate (not having at leaſt double number of guns) without fighting, ſhall be liable to the penalties of this act: if any inferior officers or mariners of a ſhip, ſhall refuſe to fight when commanded, or utter words to diſcourage others, they ſhall loſe all their wages due, and be impriſoned, not exceeding ſix months, &c. and mariners laying violent hands on their commanders to hinder them from fighting in defence of their ſhips, ſhall ſuffer death as felons.

When any Engliſh ſhip ſhall have been defended by fight, and brought to her port, in which fighting any of her men have been wounded, the judge of the admiralty, or his ſurrogate, &c. where the ſhip ſhall arrive, upon the petition of the maſter and ſeamen, may call ſo many as he ſhall be informed to be adventurers or owners, and by adviſing with them, levy upon the reſpective owners ſuch ſums as himſelf and the major part of them then preſent ſhall judge reaſonable, not exceeding two per cent. of the ſhip and goods; which money ſhall be diſtributed among the maſter, officers, and ſeamen, or the widows and children of the ſlain, according to the direction of the judge, with the approbation of three or more of the owners or adventurers. Ibid.

By the 5th and 6th W. and M. c. 24. Every perſon that ſhall within ſuch a time, build, or cauſe to be built, any ſhips of three decks, containing 450 tons, and mounted with 32 pieces of ordnance, having ammunition, &c. proportionable, ſhall, for the firſt three voyages which the ſaid ſhips ſhall make to any foreign parts, receive one tenth part of the cuſtoms called the ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage, payable for merchandizes exported and imported in ſuch ſhips: but if, after the end of the three firſt voyages, any of the ſhips ſo built, ſhall be altered or put into another form of building, whereby they ſhall become leſs defenſible than they were at firſt, then they ſhall be forfeited and loſt.

By 2 Ann. c. 9. During the war with France, owners of ſhips might navigate with maſters, and one half of the mariners Engliſh, as if the maſter and three fourths of the men

had been ſo: alſo by 3 and 4 Ann. c. 13. any ſhips might be navigated by foreign ſeamen; and foreigners ſerving on board any Engliſh ſhip for two years, were to be deemed natural-born ſubjects, &c.

By 4 Geo. I. c. 12. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. If any captain, maſter, officer, or mariner, belonging to any ſhip or veſſel, ſhall wilfully caſt away, burn, or deſtroy the ſhip to which he belongeth, or in any wiſe direct or procure the ſame to be done, with intent to prejudice a perſon that ſhall have underwritten any policy of inſurance thereon, or any merchant who ſhall load goods therein, or any owner of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, the perſons offending being lawfully convicted thereof, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. See the article ASSURANCE.

The 5th of Geo. II. c. 20. enacts, That no commander of any ſhip outward bound ſhall receive on board any gunpowder, either as merchandize, or ſtore for the voyage (except for his majeſty's ſervice) before ſuch ſhip ſhall be at Blackwall in the river Thames; and all maſters of ſhips coming into the river, ſhall put on ſhore all powder, either before the arrival of their ſhips at the ſaid place, or within 24 hours after they came to an anchor there, upon pain of forfeiting 5 l. for every 50 pounds weight of gunpowder found on board, and in the like proportion for a leſs quantity. And no guns ſhall be kept loaded with ſhot in merchant-ſhips between London-bridge and Blackwall, or fired before the riſing, or after the ſetting of the ſun, under the penalty of 5 l. and for every gun ſo fired 10 s. And if any pitch, tar, roſin, or other combuſtible matter, ſhall be heated or melted by fire in any ſhips, every perſon ſo offending, ſhall for every offence forfeit 5 l. And the ſhips are liable to ſearch by an elder brother, appointed by the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-houſe at Deptford.

And, in caſe any ſhip ſhall be laid up or moored in the mouth; or any other part of St Saviour's dock (except ſhips as ſhall be loading or delivering their cargoes, and others not exceeding two at one time, that ſhall lie at Shipwright Yard at the north-weſt corner of the ſaid dock, during the time they ſhall be repairing) the maſter of every ſuch ſhip ſhall forfeit 20 s. for every day the ſame ſhall continue to be laid up and moored, to be recovered and levied as the other penalties inflicted by this act, before two juſtices of peace, ſubject to appeal to the quarter ſeſſions.

By 6 Geo. II. c. 29. Maſters of ſhips lying in the river Thames, having occaſion for ballaſt, ſhall pay 12 d. per ton colliers, other ſhips 15 d. and foreign ſhips 19 d. to the corporation of the Trinity houſe at Deptford, who ſhall pay ballaſt-men 9 d. a ton for raiſing and carrying it, &c. And ſuch ballaſt-men delivering more or leſs ballaſt than mentioned in tickets, or without order, ſhall forfeit 2 s. 6 d. per ton. Alſo working in lighters not marked and allowed, or counterfeiting any gauge-mark, they ſhall forfeit 10 l. leviable by two juſtices of peace, by diſtreſs, &c. And it ſhall be lawful for any maſter of a ſhip to appoint two perſons, whereof his mate to be one, to go on board any lighter bringing ballaſt to ſuch ſhip, to inſpect the marks thereof; and every ballaſt-man ſhall immediately before the delivery of ballaſt to any ſhip, trim ſuch lighter, ſo as to make the ſame ſwim at equal marks, at the ſtem and ſtern, and pump all the water out, &c. And the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-houſe, are to make good to the maſter the quantity or value of ballaſt which ſhall be found deficient, or forfeit 50 l. one moiety to the poor, and the other to the perſon ſuing for the ſame.

The 7th of Geo. II. c. 15. ordains, That no owners of any ſhip ſhall be liable to anſwer any loſs by reaſon of embezzlement, by the maſter or mariners, of any goods or merchandize which ſhall be ſhipped on board, or for any act done by them without the privity or knowledge of ſuch owners, further than the value of the ſhip, and amount of the freight during the voyage, where ſuch embezzlement, or other malverſation of the maſter or mariners, ſhall be committed: and if ſeveral perſons ſhall ſuffer damage by the means aforeſaid, and the value of the ſhip, &c. ſhall not be ſufficient to make compenſation, then the freighters ſhall receive ſatisfaction in average, in proportion to their reſpective loſſes, to be aſcertained on a bill in equity exhibited for a diſcovery thereof, and of the value of ſuch ſhip and freight, &c.

But nothing in this act ſhall diſcharge any remedy, which any perſon may have againſt the maſter and mariners, in reſpect of any embezzlement. See the articles SHIPPING, SEA LAWS, MARINE TREATIES, OLERON'S LAW, RHODIAN LAWS. FREIGHT, ASSURANCES, and particularly the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, at the end of every letter.

A MEMOIR that may be neceſſary to be referred to occaſionally.

The caſe of Britiſh merchants, owners of ſhips, and others, relative to the employment and increaſe of BRITISH SHIPPING AND BRITISH NAVIGATORS.

The ſpirit and tendency of all the laws which have been made in relation to the navigation of theſe kingdoms, clearly ſhew, that the principal view and aim of the legiſlature, has ever been to increaſe and encourage BRITISH SHIPPING AND BRITISH NAVIGATORS.

That nevertheleſs, THE FREIGHTS between theſe kingdoms and ſeveral countries in Europe, have been almoſt wholly engroſſed by FOREIGN SHIPS, becauſe foreigners will always give the preference to ſhips of their own country; and thoſe who are merchants or factors reſiding here, having connections, or perhaps engagements, with ſome of their countrymen at home, who are owners of ſhipping, always have employed their OWN SHIPS BEFORE OURS, not only when the prices of both were the ſame, but even in ſome inſtances, when Britiſh ſhips have been offered to load at a CHEAPER RATE THAN FOREIGNERS WOULD AGREE TO. From which it may be inferred, that the prices paid for freighting ſhips with thoſe goods, are a ſufficient encouragement for our owners, and that ſuch freighting voyages would be ſought after by them. Nor is it to be apprehended, that the exportation of merchandize can be leſſened, by confining it in ſome meaſure to BRITISH VESSELS, becauſe few or none of thoſe foreign owners are the freighters, but merchants (who are unconcerned in ſhipping) are the real proprietors of theſe cargoes.

And the neceſſity of contriving ſome means for maintaining our wonted ſuperiority, as a MARITIME POWER, appears the more evident at this juncture, when an univerſal ſpirit and uncommon ardour for IMPROVING TRADE, NAVIGATION, and NAVAL STRENGTH, PREVAILS THROUGHOUT EUROPE; which is manifeſted, by the various nations thereo purchaſing ſhips from us, and by the great number of hands employed in building new ſhips of their own; and it may not be improper to obſerve, that their own built ſhips are allowed different degrees of remiſſion from DUTIES AND CUSTOMS ON THEIR CARGOES, IN PROPORTION TO THE NEWNESS OF THE VESSEL, 'till they have been occupied ſixteen years. And ſuch like bounties and encouragements, may in time ENABLE FOREIGNERS TO OUTVY US IN SHIPPING; for, in proportion as the number of their ſhips and ſailors increaſe, ours muſt become unemployed, and conſequently diminiſh. And, indeed, had it not been for the NAVIGATION ACTS, our merchants ſhipping would, at this time, have been very inconſiderable.

That the increaſe of our ſailors is not the only advantage that depends upon the increaſe of our ſhipping; for our ſhipwrights, caulkers, and ſailcloth-makers, would meet with full employment and encouragement at home, and have no occaſion to ſeek their bread in foreign countries; and, in general, all trades depending upon the building and employment of ſhipping be proportionably benefitted, to the great augmentation of the inland revenues, and advantage of the landed intereſt, which always riſes and falls with the increaſe and decay of trade. Beſides, a greater importation of pitch, tar, hemp, timber, and other commodities uſed in building and equipping ſhips would be promoted, which muſt increaſe his majeſty's cuſtoms. Whereas none of theſe advantages accrue FROM FOREIGNERS, who never REFIT OR VICTUAL THEIR SHIPPING HERE, but in caſes of abſolute neceſſity.

That our knowledge and acquaintance with the navigation in foreign ſeas and on foreign coaſts (ſome of which for want of experience we are unacquainted with) will conſequently be improved in proportion to the greater DIVERSITY OF OUR VOYAGES; by which means ſeamen may be trained up capable of navigating ſhips of war in thoſe, at preſent unfrequented, ſeas and coaſts; which may in ſome meaſure countervail the advantage foreigners have, in being ſo generally acquainted with ours.

That bounties and debentures, in the original inſtitution of them, were calculated for the benefit of trade in general; and under that general head, muſt certainly be included the ſhipping and navigation of theſe kingdoms, which ought therefore to have the benefit and advantages ariſing from ſuch encouragements, and which they undoubtedly will, by limiting and confining the exportation of goods, on which bounties and debentures are given, TO BRITISH SHIPS AND VESSELS. And when any government thinks proper to grant an encouragement to the exportation of ſome particular ſpecies of goods, it is but reaſonable that the advantages reſulting from it ſhould be enjoyed by it's own ſubjects only, and not by foreigners.

The frauds committed upon the revenue, by the relanding of BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS, would be more eaſily detected, if Britiſh veſſels were obliged upon their return home to produce vouchers of the DELIVERY OF THEIR CARGOES, or be puniſhed for fraud or neglect; whereas foreigners, that never return to a Britiſh port, may practiſe THESE FRAUDS UPON THE REVENUE with impunity.

That the liberty allowed to foreigners to export OUR BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS, with other SORTS OF MERCHANDIZE by way of back freight, and the profit ariſing from it, is manifeſtly the encouragement and inducement to them to load ſo conſiderably in theſe kingdoms; whereas were that liberty (as to bounty and debenture goods) allowed to Britiſh ſhips only, we might ourſelves enjoy the great profit which they now draw from us, and at the ſame time the manufactures and goods of this country, on which there are NO

BOUNTIES OR DRAWBACKS, might continue to be exported on FOREIGN BOTTOMS. Nor will theſe reaſons be invalidated by objecting, that a Britiſh ſhip would with difficulty, or perhaps not at all, get a back freight from the port to which ſhe might carry our bounty and debenture goods; becauſe it has been found by experience, that a veſſel, after ſhe has once undergone the expence of her firſt out-fit, might even go in ballaſt to another port for a back freight, with ſufficient profit; as in the caſe of many of our CORN SHIPS, whoſe cargoes being landed in the Mediterranean, or other places, they proceed thence to Britiſh America in ballaſt, in order to procure a lading home. Another advantage ariſing from the increaſe of our ſhipping, which would be occaſioned by this limitation is, that our diſcharged ſeamen and marines will meet with immediate employment, and a more EXTENSIVE PLAN BE LAID FOR THE TRAINING UP OF SEAMEN FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE PUBLIC IN CASE OF EMERGENCY. Benefits which, without ſuch a limitation, will naturally reſult to foreigners, to the proportionable diminution of the navigation and ſecurity of theſe kingdoms.

That the EXPORTATION OF PROVISIONS FROM IRELAND HATH been almoſt ENTIRELY ENGROSSED BY FOREIGNERS in foreign bottoms, whereas were that trade to be confined to BRITISH SHIPS ONLY, it would tend manifeſtly to the employment and increaſe of Britiſh ſhipping; nor would the exportation of proviſions from thence at all be leſſened, becauſe foreigners cannot be ſo well ſupplied from any other country: neither would this be any impediment to foreigners, for few of them take in proviſions at Ireland on voyages to their plantations or ſettlements, but ſend ſhips to Ireland merely to carry proviſions to their own European ports, and there victual out their veſſels for their voyages and ſettlements; which freight would employ a conſiderable number of OUR OWN SHIPPING. And ſhould it be objected, that thoſe limitations in time of war may be a diſadvantage to trade, yet this objection may eaſily be obviated, by veſting a power in the crown to diſpenſe with, alter, or enlarge the limitation during ſuch war; and perhaps too it may be objected, that ſuch a limitation may be of dangerous conſequence to the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms: but this limitation is not to be conſidered as a general prohibition, for it is propoſed to extend no further than the exportation of SOME PARTICULAR GOODS, on which BOUNTIES AND DEBENTURES HAVE BEEN GRANTED BY PARLIAMENT, and to IRISH PROVISIONS, and would leave the navigation in other reſpects as free and open as ever to foreign ſhips, for the exportation of all other goods and manufactures.

That freights will not be enhanced by theſe limitations, ſince the number of veſſels at preſent unemployed, and numbers of others which would be built in conſequence of this encouragement, would always be ſufficient to export thoſe kinds of goods, upon as eaſy or eaſier terms than they are at preſent exported by foreigners, who frequently come here in ballaſt, in order to export bounty or debenture goods, and of that ſpecies with which of neceſſity they muſt provide themſelves from hence, as being only to be had of us.

Should it be alledged, that the profit of freightage is the only inducement foreigners have to take ſome kinds of goods from it, yet inducements of ſo pernicious a conſequence ſhould be avoided, as this trade tends ſo manifeſtly to increaſe THEIR SHIPPING, and of courſe their NAVAL POWER, whereby they may ſoon become our equals, and compel us to increaſe OUR MARITIME FORCE, though for no other uſe than to PREVENT THEIR SUPERIORITY, even when we are (from our natural reſource) leſs able to ſupport or bear the expence of ſuch an increaſe.

That importations into theſe kingdoms will be more conſiderable in Britiſh veſſels, which by theſe means may afford to freight back upon eaſier terms than foreigners, without any diminution of foreign commerce, ſince FOREIGN COMMODITIES are imported into theſe kingdoms without any regard to the veſſel that brings them, but merely for the benefit ariſing from our markets.

That confining the exportation of CORN TO BRITISH SHIPPING, has been productive of no loſs or inconveniency to us, but on the contrary many good effects have been experienced from it, by the number of our ſhipping, which has been, and is employed therein; whence it may be reaſonably concluded, that a GENERAL LIMITATION OF BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS TO BRITISH SHIPPING, will be of a ſtill further and proportionable advantage to theſe kingdoms.

And experience has ſhewn, that ſeamen employed in the European navigation have ever enjoyed a greater degree of health, and better conſtitutions, than thoſe employed in the Eaſt-India, Weſt-India, American, or African trades, which have been fatal to a great number of young, ſtout, and valuable ſeamen; and the devaſtation occaſioned by the mortality of ſeamen in thoſe climates, has been ſupplied only by the nurſeries of ſeamen in Europe; and, as thoſe diſtant countries import and ſend hither merchandize entitled to a drawback on exportation, our European navigation ſhould be employed in ſuch exportation; otherwiſe we have no equivalent relative to our navigators, for ſupplying the trade of India, Africa, and America, with ſuch numbers of ſeamen.

That the moſt valuable ſeamen for the ſervice of the public in the navy, are thoſe bred up in the MERCANTILE EMPLOY, who are no expence to the nation, but a conſiderable benefit; becauſe by their labour they maintain themſelves and enrich their employers, and alſo ſerve as a natural reſource for the defence and protection of this iſland. It is not quite certain how many ſhips are employed by this nation, but it is generally believed, that the number belonging to England trading over ſea, is about 2000 ſail great and ſmall, amounting in the whole to about 170,000 tons; and the coaſting veſſels in England may conſiſt of about the like number, and contain about 150,000 tons: and, by the liſt annexed is ſhewn, to what foreign countries or ſtates the ſhips therein mentioned belong, together with the number of their voyages, their names, and the tonnage of each foreign ſhip employed in bringing goods to England, in one year before the war in 1741, one year during the war, and one after the peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE: which liſt is brought to a head, and ſhews the total of thoſe particulars, and alſo the tonnage of the repeated voyages, added to that of the firſt voyage. It likewiſe aſcertains the whole foreign tonnage of each year, the voyages and tonnage that have increaſed ſince the war, by being compared with the year before the war, and an average made on the three years; by which may be formed a calculation of the ſhips belonging to England, with the foreign ſhips really employed in carrying freights for England.

The average of the burthen of foreign ſhips is 86,094 tons annually employed by England (excluſive of thoſe carrying proviſions from Ireland); and the tonnage of Britiſh ſhips belonging to England in the foreign and coaſting trade is 320,000 tons, which, if actually employed, does not amount to four times the quantity of foreign tonnage: and hence a calculation may be formed of the natural GROWING STRENGTH OF OUR NEIGHBOURING MARITIME POWERS, ſo far as particularly relates to their trade carried on WITH ENGLAND.

Upon the whole, therefore, it will ſurely appear, that, by limiting the exportation of BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS TO BRITISH SHIPPING ONLY, no prejudice will ariſe to the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms; but on the contrary, the happieſt and moſt deſirable effects will reſult from it, in the greater encouragement which will be neceſſarily given to artificers in general, to our manufactures of Britiſh ſail-cloth, to all trades depending upon the building and employment of ſhipping; and by it the ſkill and experience of our ſeamen will become more extenſive, and even univerſal IN THE NAVIGATION OF FOREIGN SEAS, and a leſs encouragement will be given to foreigners to INCREASE THEIR SHIPPING: and thereby alſo the revenues of the crown from inland-duties and cuſtoms will be more conſiderably improved, and frauds in the latter more eaſily detected, and the landed intereſt in general will partake of theſe benefits ariſing from it; and (which is of the utmoſt importance to the nation) a foundation will be laid, not only FOR THE INCREASE AND EMPLOY OF BRITISH SHIPPING, but alſo of BRITISH NAVIGATORS, trained up and made able and ſkilful for the ſervice of the public in all emergencies; from whence the neceſſity of an act of parliament, as a foundation for producing theſe beneficial conſequences, is very apparent.

An ACCOUNT of all the Foreign Shipping which have entered in at the ſeveral Ports of England, ſet forth in Columns, under the Title of the Nation or State to which they belong, for two ſeveral Years, ending at Chriſtmas 1743 and 1747, and one Year ending at Lady-Day 1749; which is one Year before the French War, one Year in the War, and one Year ſince the War.

HOLLAND.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons
5	Alida Catherina	40	3	Alida Catherina	40	3	Alida Catherina	40
1	Anne and Elizab.	300	1	Abraham	100	1	Abram's Offering	60
1	Abram's Offering	50	1	Abraham	100	1	Anna	120
1	Anne and Elizab.	120	1	Anna	80	1	Blackmoor's head	96
1	Anne	70	1	Anna Margareta	130	1	City of Zurickſee	120
1	Bringentroft	215	1	City of Harlem	100	1	David	170
1	Crown'd Elianor	162	2	Catherine	60	1	Dirk	20
1	City	300	1	Don Pedro	120	1	D'Hoope	50
1	Deooſt Zaenda	100	1	Driel Maul, Dr. Br.	70	4	E'endraught	120
1	Gold Mill	40	1	Dan. and Nicholas	100	1	E'endraught	50
1	Jorge Gerd. Hanning	90	1	Dirk	20	1	Eighert	70
5	Lady Anne	140	4	Emanuel	70	1	Elizabeth	40
1	Lady Hendrica	60	1	Anna Maria	110	1	Fame	110
7	Lady Elizabeth	140	3	City of Zurickſee	120	1	Foſſendam	180
3	Lady Elizabeth	190	5	Flying Pigeon	70	1	Graaf Van Bunren	60
5	Lady Mary	140	2	Four Brothers	40	1	Graave Van Buvren	80
1	Lady Maria	80	1	Gereothlighite	70	1	Ger. Valarius	160
2	Lady Elizabeth	90	4	Hope	80	2	Hollandia	70
1	Lady Suſanna	140	1	Jonge Elizabeth	130	2	Hartley and Inman	210
1	Lamburbeg	40	3	Jonge Willem	148	1	Juſtitia	200
1	Lady Sarah	60	1	Juffrow Geranda	96	1	Jonge Willem	140
1	Lady Cæcilia	60	1	Ippenhove	150	1	Juffrow Elizabeth	40
1	Lady Jacoba	100	1	Juffrow Jacoba	150	1	Juffrow Amelia	50
1	Lady Regina	305	1	Juffrow Elizabeth	50	1	Iſobella	80
1	Lady Dorothea	200	1	Johannes Maria	100	3	Lady Anna	140
2	Mary	70	1	Koopman	80	3	Lady Elizabeth	90
1	Mary	80	1	Lady Hendrina	70	1	Lady Mary	150
1	Margerta & Jacoba	90	6	Lady Mary	140	1	Lady Catherine	130
2	Maria	100	5	Laurel Tree	90	1	Lady Margaretta	130
1	Neptune	100	4	Lady Elizabeth	148	2	Lady Elizabeth	148
5	Princeſs Royal	40	4	Lady Anne	140	2	Lady Anna	140
1	Queen of Sheba	30	3	Lady Elizabeth	140	1	Lady Cæcilia	70
1	Silver Eel	40	1	Lady Elizabeth	90	1	Lady Anna	150
1	Society	60	2	Louiſa	50	1	Lady Maria Catherina	120
1	St. Andrew	40	1	Lady Catherina	90	1	Paulus Galley	120
3	Two Brothers	70	1	Liefde	60	1	Pagten Angel	40
7	Union	140	1	Lady Maghlet	150	1	Three Brothers	70
1	Ufrow Grarde	96	1	Mercury	80	1	Vrude	50
1	Vry Nederland	220	1	Mary	80	4	Union	140
2	White Lyon	60	1	Prince Adolph	40	1	Vrude	50
4	White Lyon	40	1	Princeſs Royal	40	1	Vigilant	50
1	Young Francis	95	1	Queen of Sheba	30	1	Young Lovina	20
1	Young Henderic	60	2	Silver Eel	40	1	Young Maria	20
1	Young Peter	80	2	Saltiel	40	2	Maria Agnetta	140
1	Young Jacob	120	1	St. Anne Y'Almas	70	1	Silver Eel	40
			1	St. Mich. Y'Almas	70			
			2	Three Brothers	60			
			1	Three Emon Gan.	60			
			1	Two Friends	60			
			5	Union	140			
			1	Young William	130			
			2	Vrendlyok Toev.	50			
			1	Ufrow Catherina	60			
			1	Vredt	420			
			1	Young Iſaac	90			
			2	Young Peter	100			
			1	Catherine	80			
			1	Verdraagſaame	60			
			1	De Hoope	50			
			1	Young Lovina	30			
			1	Young Maria	20			
			1	Young Moſes	60			
			1	Young Alida	100			
			1	Yuffrow Jud. & Ja.	140			
			1	Young Harringm.	100			
			1	De Botter	140			
	45 Ships	4861		66 Ships	5992		45 Ships	4344
	39 Repeat. Voy.	4080		45 Repeat. Voy.	4550		17 Repeat. Voy.	1938
	84 Total	8941		111 Total	10542		62 Total	6282

A computation on the foregoing three years, to form an average.

Voyages			Tons.
84	Year 1743		8941
111	Year 1748		10542
62	Year 1749		6282
257	Total		25765
85	—Average—		8588

DENMARK.

DENMARK.

1743.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Anne & Margaret	177
3	Grundhal	440
1	Anne & Catherine	400
2	Andrew and Eliz.	450
1	Anhalt	40
1	Anna Catherina	40
1	Anna Catherina	60
1	Anna Catherina	75
4	Angel Raphael	60
2	Alicia and Maria	40
1	Angel Gabriel	40
1	Angel Gabriel	100
1	Anna Sophia	60
2	Concord	200
1	Antonetta	150
1	Anne	90
2	Catherine	400
1	Chriſtian Sextus	80
1	Catherine	120
2	Dorothea	60
3	Ebenezar	400
1	Emanuel	445
2	Ebenezar	160
1	Emanuel	70
1	Free Unity	430
1	Emanuel	150
1	Fortune	60
1	Fortune	30
3	Hope	350
1	Hope	40
1	Hobo	30
2	Helwigg Cather.	70
2	Hope	100
2	Hope	60
1	Hope	150
3	Hope	40
2	Laurence	214
1	Lady Betty	45
1	Lodovicus	130
1	Merchant	300
1	Mary Sophia	120
1	Mary	60
2	Norway Bear	100
5	Peter and Bridget	300
1	Prince Frederic	350
2	Providence	300
1	Providence	300
1	Providence	460
2	Patience	400
3	Peter and Anne	300
2	Prince Frederic	450
1	Providence	250
1	Patience	450
2	Providence	456
2	Crown'd Prince	50
1	Catherine	70
1	Fortune	20
1	Four Brothers	60
1	Hope	100
1	Lady Clara	100
1	Prophet Jonas	80
3	Queen Anne	300
1	Rebecca and Eliz.	100
2	St. Johannes	428
2	Salvator	500
2	Sun	301
1	St. Johannes	428
1	St. Peter	50
2	St. Peter	100
2	Severinus	60
1	Sun	304
4	St. Anne	70
1	Salvator	130
2	Suſanna	40
2	Sophia Magdalen	35
2	St. Anne	30
2	Three Brothers	509
1	Two Siſters	450
1	Two Brothers	400
2	Two Brothers	378
1	Three Brothers	15
1	Three Siſters	310
82	Carried forward	16070

1747		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
3	Arundahl	420
5	Catherina	355
3	Andrew and Eliz.	500
1	Anne	300
1	Anchell	40
2	Antonetta	240
4	Anne & Catherine	40
2	Angel Raphael	60
1	Antonetta	120
1	Andreas	400
1	Anne & Chriſtian	40
1	Angel Gabriel	50
4	Anth. Cath. Marg.	80
1	Anna Catherina	50
1	Alida Catherina	40
1	Brothers	365
1	Benjamin	250
1	Bert. Catherina	40
2	Berte Marie	40
3	Catherine	260
3	Claas Berthell	319
3	Count Reus	300
2	Catherine & Brid.	300
3	Chriſtiana	500
2	Charitas	40
1	Chriſtian Sextus	80
1	Catherine Berget	150
1	Catherina	130
1	Catherine	130
3	Catherine & Eliz.	350
1	Content	80
1	Chriſtiana Maria	70
1	Catherina	150
1	Content Child	80
2	Crown'd Prince	70
1	Chriſtiana	90
1	Dorothea Chriſt.	90
1	Dove	40
5	Emanuel	40
2	Elizabeth	60
1	Emanuel	440
3	Ebenezar	400
2	Elizabeth & Cath.	410
6	Emanuel	60
2	Emanuel	140
4	Ebenezar	90
1	Evenninghed	72
1	Eliz. & Cather.	180
3	Edele Dorothea	120
2	Fortune	70
1	Fortune	50
1	Grer Reus	40
1	Hope	100
4	Hope	60
5	Hope	100
2	Helrigg & Cath.	100
1	Hope	80
1	Hope	140
1	Hunter	92
2	Hope	100
1	Hope	150
1	Haabet	40
2	Inger Mar. Keſt.	80
1	Jager	92
2	Ambroſia	90
4	Concordia	100
1	Chriſtian & Suſan	80
2	Dolphin	120
1	Ebenezar	180
2	Elin Bolotha	150
3	Hope	400
2	Ingeboe Maria	80
1	Juffrow Silla	50
1	Jarleſburgh	160
4	Laurence	300
3	Laurence & Mary	300
1	Lady Catherine	460
1	Lewis	50
2	Laurentius	100
1	Lorentz	100
2	Lady Catherine	100
1	Lady Helena	80
82	Carried forward	12860

1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Andrew and Eliz.	510
2	Arundahl	500
1	Anna Catherina	460
1	Angel Gabriel	50
1	Anna Dorothea	190
2	Anna Catherine	140
1	Andrew	100
1	Andrew and Eliz.	450
1	Anne & Dorothy	40
1	Angel Raphael	60
1	Anna Catherina	40
3	Angel	120
2	Antonetta	150
1	Abraham	70
5	Barth. Maria	50
3	Count Reus	350
3	Claas Berthell	300
2	City of Chriſtiana	440
3	Concordia	100
3	Catherine	130
2	Chriſtiana	80
1	Chriſtian Maria	70
2	Content Child	100
1	Catherina Briget.	250
1	Charitas	120
2	Catherine & Eliz.	70
1	Crown'd P. Louiſa	200
1	Chriſtian Sextus	80
1	Dolphin	30
1	Dramen	140
4	Elizabeth	400
1	Emanuel	120
3	Emanuel	50
1	Emanuel	150
1	Ebenezar	240
3	Emanuel	150
2	Emanuel	80
2	Ebenezar	90
2	Elizabeth & Cath.	180
2	Emanuel	60
1	Elianor	120
3	Elſe Maria	50
2	Edel Maria	60
1	Elen Boletha	100
2	Ebenezar	120
2	Fortune	399
2	Frederic Louiſa	500
3	Fortune	60
5	Fortune	70
1	Frow Maria	70
1	Fortuna	120
1	Frow Bauhilla	70
1	Francis and Jane	100
1	Frances Cæcilia	50
2	Frederic Quintus	150
1	Frances Chriſtiana	85
2	Fortune	50
1	Gromſtadt	120
1	Haubart	40
1	Hope	400
1	Hope	100
4	Hope	54
1	Halfmande	80
1	Haabet	60
1	Helena	40
2	Hope	50
4	Hope	110
2	Helwig Catherina	100
1	Juſtitia	250
1	Johannes & Anne	450
1	Jacob	40
1	Jomfrew Chriſtina	150
1	Juſtitia	200
1	Ingeber Maria	80
1	Juffrow Chriſtina	60
1	Ingleborg Maria	90
2	Laurence & Mary	350
1	Laurentius	344
1	Lady Mary	50
1	Lady Marina	60
1	Laurence	340
1	Lady Brigetta	60
82	Carried forward	12762

DENMARK.

1743.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	36070
1	True Catherine	120
2	Young Tobias	80
1	Young Peter	80
1	Lady Anne	120
1	Providence	200
1	St. John	50
2	Unity	400
2	Elizabeth & Cath.	120
	90 Carried forw.	17240

1747.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	12860
1	Lady Burgitta	50
3	Mart. and Louisa	450
4	Mermaid	50
3	Mary	50
1	Maren Maria	90
1	Metta Catherina	60
1	Maria Hellena	100
2	Mariner	60
1	Marg. Christiana	130
2	Mar. and Elizab.	70
1	Memoria	50
1	Mar. Catherina	140
3	Nich. and Anne	500
1	Norway Merch.	280
2	Norway	180
1	Old George	250
3	Princess Louisa	450
4	Prince Frederic	450
3	Providentia Dei	340
5	Patience	400
3	Peter and Anne	300
1	Peter and Bridget	300
3	Providence	450
3	Prince Christian	400
2	Providence	200
1	Providence	350
1	Providence	313
1	Pagten Englin	40
1	Princess Louisa	140
1	Prophet Jonas	150
1	Peter and Marg.	150
1	Peter and George	150
1	Pugina Elizabeth	160
1	Providentia	200
2	Petrus	225
1	Prince Christian	100
1	Princess Louisa	170
1	Queen Anne	300
1	Richard and Anne	450
1	Regina Elizabeth	212
1	Rifor	90
1	St. Johannes	400
3	Salvator	500
3	St. Anne	300
2	Spes & Fortuna	400
1	Sebella Maria	24
1	Sandfleet	25
2	St. Peter	100
1	Severinus	100
3	St. Peter	50
1	St. Peter	80
1	St. Johanna	50
1	St. Paulson	60
1	St. Andreas	100
1	St. Johannes	428
1	St. Anne	100
2	St. Johannes	80
1	St. Peter	60
2	St. Jorgen	50
1	St. Johannes	50
1	Susanna Marg.	60
3	St. Anna	70
1	Susanna Christia.	100
1	St. Nicholas	76
1	Sophia Magdalen	30
3	Susanna	64
1	St. Thomas	120
1	St. Mary's Church	90
5	Two Brothers	400
1	Two Brothers	140
3	Two Sisters	450
1	Treunity	430
1	Three Brothers	340
1	Talmodighed	320
1	True Christian	130
1	Two Sisters	200
1	Two Sisters	100
2	Three Brothers	100
4	Three Brothers	50
1	True Norw. Man	100
3	Three Brothers	50
5	Unity	400
2	Vreede	120
1	Vigilance	400
1	Ufrow Elizabeth	50
3	Ufrow Maria	160
1	Young Tobias	80
1	Anna Dorothea	40
1	Anna Susanna	70
1	Angel and Jacob	150
1	Anna Christan	50
	173 Carried forw.	29757

1749.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	12762
2	Laurentius	100
1	Merchant	440
3	Mariner	60
2	Memoria	80
1	Maria Hellena	100
1	Mary and Elizabeth	55
1	Mermaid	50
2	Norway	120
1	Noble Maria	60
3	Norway Lion	350
2	Norway Merch.	280
1	Norway Bear	120
1	Newbridge	50
2	Providentia	300
4	Peter and Anne	260
2	Princess Louisa	370
1	Providentia	350
1	Providentia	400
2	Providentia Dei	376
1	Patience	400
1	Prince Christian	130
1	Pugina Elizabeth	160
2	Providence	180
3	Providentia	200
1	Prince Jorgan	120
1	Patriarch	30
1	Pearle	100
2	Peter and Marg.	100
1	Peter	83
1	Peter and Anna	150
1	Patience	400
1	Providence	450
1	Prince Frederic	440
1	Reo andine	70
1	Sarah	145
1	Salvator	500
1	Spes & Fortuna	350
2	Severinus	100
1	St. Anne	100
1	St. Nicholas	50
2	Sally Johannes	50
4	St. Anna	70
2	St. Jacob	70
5	Susannah	60
1	Spice Hope	60
2	St. Michael	80
1	Severinus	100
1	St. Olaus	50
1	St. Maria	50
1	St. Peter	50
1	St. Anna	140
1	St. Johannes	200
1	Two Sisters	350
3	Three Brothers	350
1	Talmodighed	420
1	Three Brothers	360
1	Two Brothers	330
1	Two Sisters	400
1	Two Sisters	300
2	Three Brothers	350
1	Three Brothers	500
1	Three Brothers	80
1	Trofast Norman	150
1	Two Brothers	50
3	Frauen	40
1	Three Brothers	60
3	Froem Ingeberg	90
1	True Brotilla	70
1	Trifoldigg	50
1	Three Brothers	340
1	Three Brothers	400
1	Twelve Sisters	60
1	Vrude	120
1	Unity	400
1	Unity	430
2	Unity	500
1	Ufrow Maria	100
3	Unity	150
2	Unity	430
2	Unity	80
1	Young Bella	400
3	Young Tobias	80
5	Anna Catherina	60
1	Feedes	110
1	Alletta Maria	40
1	Anna Susanna	70
1	Adventure	40
1	De Stendo Softice	200
2	Dorothea Christia	60
1	Gree Revonsloe	170
1	Hope	120
	173 Carried forw.	30291

DENMARK.

1743. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1747. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1749. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	90 Brought forw.	17240		173 Brought forw.	29757		173 Brought forw.	30201
			1	Eliz. and Maria	100	2	Hope	80
			1	Eneighet	150	3	Maria	40
			1	Frow Helena	80	2	Noſcowbungo	30
			2	Hope	60	4	St. Johannes	50
			1	Hoffneg	100	1	St. Anna	50
			1	Margaret Marie	90	1	St. Ildute	40
			1	Norca Bungo	30	1	Ufrow Martha	144
			1	Nieuwar Young	120	2	Maria Margaretta	60
			1	Prince Frederic	150			
			1	St. Johannes	100			
			1	Henry	70			
			1	St. Bartholomew	150			
			1	Young Daniel	150			
			1	Poſtillion	140			
			1	St. John	100			
			2	St. Peter	210			
			1	St. Johannes	400			
			2	Twelve Siſters	50			
			1	Prince of Orange	130			
	90 Ships	17240		192 Ships	32137		181 Ships	30785
	51 Repeat. Voy.	11741		144 Repeat. Voy.	31931		111 Repeat. Voy.	16597
141	Total	28981	336	Total	64068	292	Total	47382

SWEDEN.

1	Aſſurance	140	1	Anna Maria	100	2	Aſſurance	150
1	Elizabeth	150	1	Aſſurance	100	1	Andreas	180
1	May	100	1	Andreas	100	1	Anna Margaretta	170
1	St. Johannes	100	1	Allen Ham	90	1	Anna Maria	130
1	Three Crowns	100	1	Bona Fida	140	1	Anne Galley	100
1	Dienikiet	150	1	Clara Maria	90	2	Chriſtiana	80
1	Three Brothers	180	1	Concordia	150	1	Catherina Maria	150
1	St. Nicholas	8	1	Dorothea	160	1	Comercian	160
			1	Dorothy	160	1	Der Friede	100
			1	Enighet	150	1	Director	285
			1	Mercury	120	1	Exportation	400
			1	Enighet	80	1	Frow Jullyberg	120
			2	Catherina	100	2	Friede	200
			1	Fredericus	80	1	Hoppet	70
			1	Fabriqueur	150	1	Hazard	90
			1	Frow Chriſtian	140	1	Harmony	150
			1	Frow Hallıburg	110	2	Ida and Catherine	180
			1	Goodmithope	300	1	Johannes Freder.	100
			1	Hopped	80	1	Magdalen Dorot.	150
			1	Fredericus Primus	120	1	Maria	60
			1	Johannes	19	1	Hazard	70
			1	Levant Frigate	250	1	North Star	100
			1	Louiſa Ulrica	60	2	Prince Frederic	150
			1	Larke	110	2	Prince Guſtavus	120
			1	Lady Regina	80	1	Sulperiden	120
			1	Mercury	170	3	St. Johannes	60
			2	Mary	40	3	Satisfaction	130
			1	Neptune	350	1	St. Bartholomew	130
			1	North Star	120	2	St Olaus	50
			1	Neptune	108	1	St. Paul	80
			1	Prince Guſtavus	100	1	St. Peter	150
			1	Prince Guſtavus	400	3	St. Johannes	100
			1	Ringſend Jacob	100	1	St. Nicholas	100
			1	Rickſon Stander	400	1	Three Brothers	180
			1	Sarah Burgetta	50	1	Three Crowns	100
			1	Sollin	50	1	Vigilantia	120
			4	St. Johannes	100	1	White Lamb	70
			1	St. Peter	80	1	Roſe	90
			1	Sarah Gretta	60	1	St. Nicholas	80
			1	Three Crowns	100	1	Anne	120
			1	Ulrica Elianora	90	1	Anna Chriſtiana	60
			1	Vigilance	50	1	Ahn	30
			1	Walford	140	2	Concordia	30
			1	Adolphus Freder.	84	1	Catherine	90
			1	Blue Lily	70	2	Emanuel	60
			1	Catherine	70	1	Fama	50
			1	Crown'd P. Louiſa	200	1	Jubella	80
			1	Charity	100	1	Lady Regina	90
			1	Ebenezar	140	1	Patientia	40
			1	Gronſtadt	80	1	Regina and Eliz.	160
			1	Maria Margaret	60	1	St. Peter	100
			1	Regina and Eliz	160	1	Mercurius	175
			1	Sextus Quintus	100	1	Marg. Benedicta	300
			1	St. Johannes	70	1	Patientia	40
			1	St. Peter	30	1	Samuel	250
			1	St. Nicholas Ch.	140	1	St. Thomas	100
			1	Fran Adelair	52			
			3	Two Brothers	40			
			1	Lady Mary Chriſt.	200			
			2	Lady Elizabeth	70			
			1	Epenſlan	100			
			1	Maria	60			
	8 Ships	928		62 Ships	7373		56 Ships	6800
	Repeat Voy.			8 Repeat. Voy.	590		15 Repeat. Voy.	1600
8	Total	928	70	Total	7963	71	Total	8400

HAMBURGH.

1743. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Anna Catherina	170
1	Anna Maria	200
1	Anna Maria	160
2	City of London	240
5	Flying Mercury	160
1	Franciſcus	60
2	Hambro' Exchan.	160
3	Hambro' Arms	250
3	Hope	180
3	Lady Elizabeth	320
2	Lady Suſanna	220
1	Lady Maria	60
3	Margaret	170
4	Mary	160
2	Regina	150
3	St. Peter	170
2	St. Peter	140
2	St. Paul	200
2	St. John Evangeliſt	170
1	St. John Baptiſt	120
3	Unity	170
1	Ufrow Catherina	40
1	Vineyard	200
2	Unity	40
1	Young Peter	100
	25 Ships	4010
	27 Repeat. Voy.	4960
52	Total	8970

1747. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Anna Maria	200
2	Anna Catherina	170
2	City of London	250
2	City of Hambro'	250
1	Catherine	140
1	Flying Mercury	150
5	Fortuna	180
2	Hope	200
1	Hambro' Arms	240
1	Hambro' Exchan.	350
1	Juffrow Catherina	70
1	Juffro Cat Elſe	80
1	Joſias Gertrude	120
1	King of Pruſſia	150
1	Lady Elizabeth	240
3	Margaret	70
5	Mary	160
1	Margaret	80
3	Regina	150
1	Roſe	150
2	St. Paul	220
2	St. John Evangeliſt	170
3	St. Peter	160
1	Wappen Van De.	60
1	Young Peter	110
1	Young Otta	160
1	Young Chriſtian	65
1	Lady Suſanna	240
4	Unity	250
	29 Ships	4835
	23 Repeat. Voy.	4130
52	Total	8965

1749. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
2	Anna Maria	200
1	Anna Catherina	160
1	Anna Margaretta	250
2	Agnetha	58
1	City of London	240
1	City of Hambro'	250
1	Dordregſt	190
1	Enigheet	100
1	Fortune	150
1	Fortune	100
1	Hambro' Exchan.	240
2	Harmen	140
1	Hambro' Arms	250
1	Hope	80
1	Hoope	68
1	King of Pruſſia	100
2	Lady Elizabeth	240
2	Lady Suſanna	200
2	Margaret	170
1	Mary	150
2	Regina Dorothea	250
1	Regina	150
3	St. Paul	200
1	St. John Evangeliſt	170
1	St. Antonio	200
1	St. John	70
1	Three Friends	60
1	Twee Siſters	80
2	Unity	250
1	Vreede	100
1	Young Otto	160
	31 Ships	5026
	9 Repeat. Voy.	1738
40	Total	6764

FRANCE.

1	Adrian Maria	70
1	Conquerant	70
1	Counteſs	160
1	Diligence	58
1	Duke du Maine	45
1	Duke de Harcourt	100
2	Elizabeth	24
2	Friendſhip	80
1	Induſtry	60
1	Lion Viellant	60
1	Lady of Goodne.	40
1	Mary and Anne	70
3	Mary and Jane	40
1	Poſt-Horſe	3
1	Adventure	40
1	Bleſſed St. Anne	60
1	Catherine	40
1	Don d'Dieu	40
2	Francis and Anne	40
1	John and Thomas	40
1	Jane and Mary	70
1	Leſtre	40
3	Mary René	45
2	Mary and Cathar.	40
1	Mary and Francis	45
1	Mary and Joſeph	40
1	Mary and Cathar.	40
1	Mary and Joſeph	50
1	Mary and Grace	40
1	Mary and Francis	50
1	Mary and Vincent	40
1	Mary and Joſeph	40
1	Mary	50
1	Mary and Jane	40
1	Proteſt	40
1	Poſtillion	40
1	Reunion	18
1	Rinnet	30
1	St. Peter	40
3	Society	35
1	St. Louis	40
2	St. Francis	4
2	St. Michael	4
1	St. Nicholas	3
1	St. Lewis	2
3	St. Francis	4
1	St. Pierre	42
2	St. Peter	40
2	St. Barbe	62
	49 Carried forw.	2174

1	Amelia	70
1	Aſcenſion	40
1	Count Dan. Kiolt	80
1	Charles	15
1	Chavillman	30
1	Charles	30
1	Dorotha Maria	30
1	Francis	40
1	Grace d'Dieu	15
1	Genevieve	50
1	La Paix	40
1	La Maria Auguſt.	30
1	Maria Julian	50
1	Princeſs Brazil	60
1	Poſtillion	100
1	Prince Conti	60
3	Society	48
1	Samſon	35
1	St. Lorus	30
1	St. Joſeph	60
1	St. Anne	40
1	Sun	240
	22 Carried forw.	1193

FRANCE.

1743. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1747. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1749. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	49 Brought forw.	2174					22 Brought forw.	1193
1	St. Ives	50						
1	St. Vincent	40						
1	St. Michael	70						
2	St. Anna	50						
2	St. Mark	40						
2	Sufannah	40						
1	St. John	40						
1	St. Reno	40						
1	St. Joſeph	40						
1	St. Valentine	50						
2	Society	40						
1	St. Anne	50						
1	St. Anne	30						
1	St. John Baptiſt	80						
1	St. Louis	60						
1	St. Peter	60						
1	Will. Francis	12						
1	Watchful Lion	40						
1	Amazona	80						
1	Anne and Mary	40						
1	Count de Charol.	100						
2	Imperial Eagle	50						
1	Mary and Vincent	40						
1	Providence	80						
1	Providence	40						
1	Rowland	30						
1	St. Michael	40						
1	St. Ives	20						
1	Angelic	20						
1	Marie Anne	60						
	79 Ships	3606					22 Ships	1193
	21 Repeat. Voy.	772					2 Repeat. Voy.	96
100	Total	4378				24	Total	1289

PRUSSIA.

1	Anna Dorothea	60	1	Albe Bartholom.	100	1	Albe Bartholom.	100
1	City of Colberg	110	1	Black Eagle	190	1	City of Colberg	110
1	Lady Sophia	112	1	Catherina Elizab.	120	1	Cr. Pr. of Pruſſia	180
1	Prince Frederic	110	1	Florent Conſtant.	180	1	Commandment	100
2	Pilgar	140	2	Fountain	290	1	Freder. Amelia	120
1	Palm-Tree	120	1	Good Hope	100	1	St. Peter	120
1	St. Paul	150	2	Jacob	140	4	St. Peter	100
2	Unity	100	2	John Chriſtian	160	2	Two Brothers	200
2	Young Tobias	150	2	Johan Charlota	120	2	Two Brothers	180
1	Maria	120	2	Love	160	1	Love	50
			2	Lady Margaret	150	1	Commandment	180
			1	Lady Lavinia	220	2	King of Pruſſia	180
			1	Margaretta	140	1	Prince of Pruſſia	30
			1	Poſtillion	140	1	Sufanna	120
			1	Margar. and Hel.	190	1	Queen of Pruſſia	90
			1	Providence	190	1	Unity	100
			2	Sufanna	140	1	City of Camin	180
			1	St. Michael	220	1	General Vanſack	120
			3	St. Peter	100	1	Lady and Cather.	140
			1	Silver Hammer	150	1	Beehive	160
			1	White Lamb	140			
			2	Beehive	120			
			1	Commandment	140			
			1	Florentine Agath.	130			
			1	Cornhemp	235			
	10 Ships	1172		25 Ships	3965		20 Ships	2560
	3 Repeat. Voy.	390		10 Repeat. Voy.	1480		6 Repeat. Voy.	860
13	Total	1562	35	Total	5445	26	Total	3420

DANTZICK.

1	Anne Elizabeth	240	1	Anna Conſtantia	220	1	Anne and Elizab.	240
1	Anna Maria	240	1	Anna Maria	260	1	Andreas	44
1	Anna Maria	440	1	Anne and Elizab.	250	2	Cather. Conſtant.	200
1	Fountain	180	1	Anna Maria	362	1	Father and 2 Sons	260
1	Lady Sufanna	100	2	City of Colberg	120	1	Friendſhip	200
1	Oldcaſtle	140	2	Catherina Conſt.	190	1	Juffrow Virginia	229
1	St. George	260	1	Conſtant. Florent.	185	1	Lady Florentina	260
1	Soli Deo Gloria	180	1	Diligence de Vor.	180	1	Le Efferme	105
1	Young Charles	190	1	Father and 2 Sons	300	1	La Solide	200
			1	John Baptiſt	70	1	Levina and Eliz.	290
			1	Juffrow Dorothea	128	1	Palm-Tree	120
			1	Lady Sufanna	160	1	Silver-Hammer	150
	9 Carried forw.	1970		12 Carried forw.	2425		12 Carried forw.	2298

DANTZICK.

1743. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1747. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1749. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	9 Brought forw.	1970		12 Brought forw.	2425		12 Brought forw.	2298
			2	Lady Florentia	290	2	Three Crow. Herrings	80
			2	Lady Ann Virg.	280	1	Young John	90
			1	Lady Helena Con.	300			
			1	Leferm	160			
			1	Le Bon Experien.	200			
			1	Palm-Tree	120			
			1	Poſtillion	80			
			1	Red Lion	200			
			1	Soph. Charlotta	290			
			1	Three Cro. Herr.	100			
			1	Touny da Bourd	150			
			1	Young Nathaniel	190			
	9 Ships	1970		24 Ships	4785		14 Ships	2468
	Repeat Voy.			4 Repeat. Voy.	880		2 Repeat. Voy.	280
9	Total	1970	28	Total	5665	16	Total	2748

PORTUGAL.

1	Bon Diſpatch	60	1	City of Bourdeaux	100	1	Anna	120
1	Guardian Angel	30	2	Cæcilia	60	1	Anna Cornelia	120
1	Lampadoſa & Al.	50	1	Dear Garden	50	1	Eurdgal	130
1	Leſtrics Arms	25	1	Evendracht	140	1	Fran. de Eſſ. S. Pedro Al	90
1	La Johan. Jacoba	100	1	Fortune	150	1	Louiſa Galley	120
1	N. S. de Roſ. & St. Dom.	40	1	Heerlig. Runder	40	2	Lady Catherine	80
1	Noſtra Seignora	120	1	Helena	70	2	Lady Elizabeth	140
1	N. S. da Carma	40	3	Juſtus Henricus	150	1	Mary Auguſt.	70
1	Noſtra Dame	30	1	Liſbon Pacquet	75	1	N. S. de Conceica	70
1	Robert	30	1	Maria	80	2	N. S. de Pin Fran. S. An. & Almas	50
2	St. Antonio	112	1	Neptune	150			
1	St. Franciſco d'Aſſ. & St. Ped. d'Alc.	100	1	N. S. Sca. d'Alm.	60	1	N. S. Del. St. An. & Alm.	20
2	St. John	100	1	N. S. de Bon Viay	50	1	N. S. Reme. & St. Barn.	60
1	St. Philip	80	1	N. S. de Roſ. Aug.	80	1	N. S. d'Agi. St. Antonio	90
1	S. An de Liſ. St. Veſart	100	1	N. S. de Pic. des Al.	60	1	N. S. Reſoria	60
1	St. Jeſ. de Ped. Al.	30	1	N. S. de Far. St. An. e Al.	70	1	N. S. de Re. St. Barnardo	70
1	St. Francis	50	1	N. S. de Nazareth	100	1	Salvator	50
1	St. John Baptiſt	65	2	Norway Packet	90	1	St. Philip	60
1	St. Pedro	240	1	N. S. de Concedia	50	1	St. An. & Almas	100
			1	N. S. de Buon Suc.	70	1	St. Domingo	70
			1	N. S. Roſaria	60	1	St. Philip	70
			1	N. S. de Bon Via.	60	1	Two Siſters	100
			1	N. S. d'Inda y Al.	80	1	Snello	60
			1	N. S. Caba e S. Ritta	120	1	N. S. Debon	70
			1	N. S. da Trinidada	50			
			1	N. S. Delar. e St. Fran.	60			
			1	N. S. de Ro. S de Baſſing	110			
			1	N. S. de Ro. e S. M. d'Dios	40			
			2	Providence	70			
			1	Plough	100			
			1	Prudentia	200			
			1	Suſannah	60			
			1	St. Johannes	130			
			2	St. Vin. & St. Jo.	50			
			2	Sarah	140			
			1	Sophia Amelia	100			
			2	St. Domingo	120			
			1	Sarah Fœlix	150			
			1	St. Andreas	80			
			1	St. An. & Almas	60			
			1	St. Roſene Aug.	90			
			1	St. Antonio	40			
			1	St. Anthony Alma	30			
			1	St. Thereſa de Jeſ.	70			
			1	St. Seb. & St. Joſ. y Alm.	89			
			1	St. Laurence	130			
			1	St. Anne	80			
			1	S. de Pedra Almas	30			
			1	Vreyhict	160			
			1	Vrow Jacoba	140			
			1	Young Johannes	90			
			1	St. Anne & St. An.	90			
			1	St Bernardo	50			
	19 Ships	1402		53 Ships	4624		23 Ships	1830
	2 Repeat. Voy.	192		8 Repeat. Voy.	830		3 Repeat. Voy.	270
21	Total	1594	61	Total	5454	26	Total	2100

BREMEN.

1	Chriſtian	160	1	Chriſtian	150	1	Concord	120
2	Concord	160	1	Charity	180	3	Chriſtian	150
1	Catherine	140	1	Concord	200	1	Charitas	200
1	Commandment	160	1	Diederiſh	70	2	Chriſtiana	70
1	Chriſtian	150	1	George	160	1	Endraght	80
1	Dorothy and Eliz.	70	1	Gebither	100	1	Catherine	140
	6 Carried forw.	840		6 Carried forw.	860		6 Carried forw.	760

BREMEN.

1743. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1747. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	1749. Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	6 Brought forw.	840		6 Brought forw.	860		6 Brought forw.	760
3	Gregorius	160	2	Harmione	130	1	George	200
2	George	200	1	Hannah	150	1	Good Harmony	120
1	Lady Anne	60	1	Juffrow Maria	40	1	King David	35
1	Philip	80	2	Hope	150	1	Lady Catherine	150
1	Sincerity	180	1	Mercurius	150	1	Mercury	200
1	White Pigeon	200	3	Neptune	130	1	Two Brothers	140
			2	Peace	150			
	12 Ships	1720		13 Ships	1760		13 Ships	1605
	4 Repeat. Voy.	680		5 Repeat. Voy.	690		3 Repeat. Voy.	370
16	Total	2400	18	Total	2450	16	Total	1975

FLANDERS.

1	Dacgerrat	320	1	Fame	40			
4	St. Franciſco	40	1	Liefde	70			
4	St. Clement	40	1	Maria	30			
	3 Ships	400		3 Ships	140			
	6 Repeat. Voy.	240		Repeat. Voy.				
9	Total	640	3	Total	140			

NAPLES and SICILY.

2	Mary	120	1	Immaculate Con.	305			
			2	Madon. de Roſar.	200			
			1	St. Ancello	160	1	St. Fran. de Paulo alla Antonio de Portatorio	170
			1	St. Maria de Lauro	200			
	1 Ship	120		4 Ships	865		1 Ship	170
	1 Repeat. Voy.	120		1 Repeat. Voy.	200			
2	Total	240	5	Total	1065	1	Total	170

RUSSIA.

3	Claas Berthel	319	1	Two Honours	50	2	Pagten's Angel	40
						2	Two Uffrow	100
						1	Uffrow Anna	160
	1 Ship	319		1 Ship	50		3 Ships	300
	2 Repeat. Voy.	638					2 Repeat. Voy.	240
3	Total	957	1	Total	50	5	Total	440

POPE's DOMINIONS.

1	Petronella Galley	200						

SPAIN.

						1	N. S. de Vic. & St. Anto.	60
						1	N. S. de Nazareth	100
						1	N. S. de Pas	70
						1	N. S. de Begona	40
						1	N. S. de Roſario	40
						2	Pr. of Brazil	100
						1	St. John Bonadv.	50
						1	St. George	50
						1	S. Juan Y'lan-bena bentru.	80
						1	St. Joſeph	30
						3	St. John Baptiſt	40
						1	St. Miguel Y'Alm.	60
						1	St. Joſeph	40
							13 Ships	760
							3 Repeat. Voy.	180
						16	Total	940

GENOA.

1	Young Harman	114						

VENICE.

			1	San Spiridion	305	1	Immaculate Con.	360
			1	Virginia del-la Gratia, S. Anna & St. Jean Baptiſt	305			
			1	Young Henderick	150			
			3	Total	750	1	Total	360

SARDINIA.

			1	Hingelaas	90			
			3	St. Nicholas	60			
				2 Ships	150			
				2 Repeat Voy.	120			
			4	Total	270			

The foregoing LIST brought to a Head.

The country to which the ships belong.	Year ending.	Ships, their First voyage. No.	Ton.	Repeated voyages. No.	Ton.	First and repeated voy. No.	Ton.	Total amount in the year 1743. No° of ships	Tonn. made.	1747. No° of ships	Tonn. made.	1749. No° of ships	Tonn. made.	Increased in the year 1749, compared with the year 1743. No. of voya.	Tonnage.	No. of foreign voyages annually made, comp. on the average of the 3 years 1743, 1747, and 1749, exclusive of Spain No. of voya.	Tonnage.
Holland	1743	45	4861	39	4080	84	8941	45	8941	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	66	5992	45	4550	111	10542	- -	- - -	66	10542	- -	- - -	- -	- -	85	8588
	1749	45	4344	17	1938	62	6282	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	45	6282				
Denmark	1743	90	17240	51	11741	141	28981	90	28981	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	192	32137	144	31931	336	64068	- -	- - -	192	64068	- -	- - -	151	18401	256	46810
	1749	181	30785	111	16597	292	47382	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	181	47382				
Sweden	1743	8	928	- -	- - -	8	928	8	928	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	62	7373	8	590	70	7963	- -	- - -	62	7963	- -	- - -	63	7472	49	5763
	1749	56	6800	15	1600	71	8400	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	56	8400				
Hambro'	1743	25	4010	27	4960	52	8970	25	8970	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	29	4835	23	4130	52	8965	- -	- - -	29	8965	- -	- - -	- -	- -	48	8233
	1749	31	5026	9	1738	40	6764	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	31	6764				
France	1743	79	3606	21	772	100	4378	79	4378	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- -	62	2833
	1749	22	1193	2	96	24	1289	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	22	1289				
Prussia	1743	10	1172	3	390	13	1562	10	1562	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	25	3965	10	1480	35	5445	- -	- - -	25	5445	- -	- - -	13	1858	24	3479
	1749	20	2560	6	860	26	3420	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	20	3420				
Dantzick	1743	9	1970	- -	- - -	9	1970	9	1970	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	24	4785	4	880	28	5665	- -	- - -	24	5665	- -	- - -	7	778	17	3461
	1749	14	2468	2	280	16	2748	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	14	2748				
Portugal	1743	19	1402	2	192	21	1594	19	1594	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	53	4624	8	830	61	5454	- -	- - -	53	5454	- -	- - -	5	506	36	3049
	1749	23	1830	3	270	26	2100	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	23	2100				
Bremen	1743	12	1720	4	680	16	2400	12	2400	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	13	1760	5	690	18	2450	- -	- - -	13	2450	- -	- - -	- -	- -	16	2275
	1749	13	1605	3	370	16	1975	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	13	1975				
Flanders	1743	3	400	6	240	9	640	3	640	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	3	140	- -	- - -	3	140	- -	- - -	3	140	- -	- - -	- -	- -	4	260
	1749	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
Naples	1743	1	120	1	120	2	240	1	240	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	4	865	1	200	5	1065	- -	- - -	4	1065	- -	- - -	- -	- -	2	491
	1749	1	170	- -	- - -	1	170	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	1	170				
Russia	1743	1	319	2	638	3	957	1	957	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	1	50	- -	- - -	1	50	- -	- - -	1	50	- -	- - -	- -	- -	3	482
	1749	3	300	2	140	5	440	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	3	440				
Spain	1743																
	1747																
	1749	13	760	3	180	16	940	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	13	940				
Pope's dominions	1743	1	200	- -	- - -	1	200	1	200								
	1747																
	1749																
Genoa	1743	1	114	- -	- - -	1	114	1	114								
	1747																
	1749																
Sardinia	1743																
	1747	2	150	2	120	4	270	- -	- - -	2	270						
	1749																
Venice	1743	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	- -	- - -				
	1747	3	750	- -	- - -	3	370	- -	- - -	3	370	- -	- - -	1	360	1	370
	1749	1	360	- -	- - -	1	360	- -	- - -	- -	- - -	1	360				
								304	61875	477	112447	423	82270	240	29375	603	86094
								Repeated voyages 156		250		173					
								460		727		596					

NEGROLAND. See AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, ANTILLES ISLANDS.

NETHERLANDS, [The UNITED NETHERLANDS,] or the UNITED PROVINCES of the NETHERLANDS.

Previouſly to the peruſal of this article, the reader is deſired to conſult what we have ſaid under AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, FLANDERS, and HOLLAND.

The United Netherlands conſiſt of the ſeveral provinces of Holland, Zeland, Friezland, Groningen, Overyſſel, Gelderland, with Zutphen, and Utrecht, and are bounded by the German Sea on the north and weſt, by the circle of Weſtphalia in Germany on the eaſt, and by Flanders, Brabant, and the dukedom of Cleves on the ſouth, lying between 3 degrees 20 min. and 7 degr. 30 min. eaſt long. and between 51, 35 min. and 52 degrees 40 min. north lat. and are about 50 miles long, and much the ſame in breadth; including the Zuyder Sea, which takes up a conſiderable ſpace within theſe limits. This is a level country, and cut through with numerous canals, which form numerous ſmall iſlands, ſubject to be overflowed by inundations of ſea and land floods, which are kept out, at a great expence, by the means of dykes. As a part of the country has been loſt by inundations, ſo much more has been gained by damming out the ſea. Sir William Temple ſays, that the ſea may one day have it's own again. The air of this country is very bad, by reaſon of abounding with ſo great a degree of humidity. As to the ſoil of the provinces which lies near the ſea, particularly on the weſt coaſt of Holland; their meadow and paſture is moſt of it under water in winter, which, in ſummer, is either dried up, or the water thrown out with wind-mills, and leaves a fat ſlime, which makes the ſoil very fruitful, whereon they fatten the lean cattle they purchaſe in the north, and make prodigious quantities of butter and cheeſe; but the country does not produce corn enough for their ſubſiſtence: yet they have as great plenty of it as any nation in Europe, and likewiſe of the produce of every country; theſe provinces containing magazines of every thing the earth produces, that is trafficable. But in regard to their trade, we ſhall begin with their

FISHERIES. See our general article FISHERIES, and HERRING-FISHERY, and HOLLAND. Emanuel Van Meteren, the Dutch hiſtorian, informs us, that in 1610, there went from Holland 1500 buſſes upon the herring-fiſhery. The author of Batavia Illuſtrata tells us, that one year with another, the number of theſe buſſes does not exceed 800; but thoſe are from 30 to 50 tons, whereas in Van Meteren's time, they were only from 20 to 30 tons: ſo that though the number of veſſels that may be now employed be not ſo great, yet this is more than made up in their ſize: there is a greater quantity of fiſh taken at preſent, more hands than ever employed, and a proportionable conſumption

conſumption of every thing that depends on their fiſhery. The importance of the herring-fiſhery will appear very great to any one that conſiders how many different parts of commerce it gives motion to, and how great a number of people depend on each of them. There are here two ſeaſons of the herring-fiſhery; the firſt continues for a month or five weeks, on the coaſt of Scotland, from the latter end of June to the latter end of July; the ſecond holds from the middle of September to the latter end of November, on the coaſt of England, about Yarmouth and Leoſtoff.

The inland fiſhery of the Dutch is alſo of no little conſequence to them. Their lakes and rivers afford all kinds of freſh-water fiſh; and thoſe proper to the ſea, are taken on every part of their coaſt, with which their markets are plentifully ſupplied: what is more than competent for home conſumption, is pickled, and added to their cod and herrings for exportation.

What the trade of the United Netherlands was, in the time of Sir William, we have in his account thereof; which, with remarks ſuitable to it's preſent ſtate, will give the reader a good idea of it's preſent compared with it's former condition, will alſo ſhew the difference, and point out the cauſe.

'Tis evident, ſays Sir William, to thoſe who have read the moſt, and travelled fartheſt, that no country can be found, either in this preſent age, or upon record of any ſtory, where ſo vaſt a trade has been managed, as in the narrow compaſs of the four maritime provinces of this commonwealth; nay, it is generally eſteemed, that they have more ſhipping belongs to them, than there does to all the reſt of Europe. Yet they have no native commodities towards the building or rigging of the ſmalleſt veſſel; their flax, hemp, pitch, wood, and iron, coming all from abroad, as wool does for cloathing their men, and corn for feeding them.

Nor do I know any thing properly of their own growth, that is conſiderable, either for their own neceſſary uſe, or for traffic with their neighbours, beſides butter, cheeſe, and earthen wares. For havens, they have not any good upon their whole coaſt: the beſt are Helvoetſluys, which has no trade at all; and Flushing, which has little, in compariſon of other towns in Holland: but Amſterdam, that triumphs in the ſpoils of Liſbon and Antwerp, (which before ingroſſed the greateſt trade of Europe and the Indies) ſeems to be the moſt incommodious haven they have, being ſeated upon ſo ſhallow waters, that ordinary ſhips cannot come up to it without the advantage of tides, nor great ones without unlading.

The entrance of the Texel, and paſſage over the Zuyderſea, is more dangerous than a voyage from thence to Spain, lying all in blind and narrow channels; ſo that it eaſily appears, that 'tis not an haven that draws trade, but trade that fills an haven, and brings it in vogue. Nor has Holland grown rich by any native commodities, but by force of induſtry; by improvement and manufacture of all foreign growth; by being the general magazine of Europe, and furniſhing all parts with whatever the market wants or invites; and by their ſeamen being, as they have properly been called, the common carriers of the world *.

* The Dutch have loſt a very conſiderable part of this beneficial traffic ſince the peace of Utrecht.

Since the ground of trade cannot be derived from havens, or native commodities, (as may well be concluded from the ſurvey of Holland, which has the leaſt and the worſt; and of Ireland, which has the moſt and the beſt of both) it were not amiſs to conſider, from what other ſource it may be more naturally and certainly derived: for if we talk of induſtry, we are ſtill as much to ſeek, what it is that makes people induſtrious in one country, and idle in another.

I conceive the true original and grounds of trade to be, great multitudes of people crowded into a ſmall compaſs of land, whereby all things neceſſary to life become dear, and all men who have poſſeſſions, are induced to parſimony; but thoſe who have none, are forced to induſtry and labour, or elſe to want. Bodies that are vigorous, fall to labour; ſuch as are not, ſupply that defect by ſome ſort of inventions or ingenuity. Theſe cuſtoms ariſe firſt from neceſſity, but increaſe by imitation, and grow in time to be habitual in a country; and wherever they are ſo, if it lies upon the ſea, they naturally break out into trade, both becauſe whatever they want of their own, that is neceſſary to ſo many men's lives, muſt be ſupplied from abroad; and becauſe, by the multitude of people, and ſmallneſs of country, land grows ſo dear, that the improvement of money, that way, is inconſiderable, and ſo turns to ſea, where the greatneſs of the profit makes amends for the venture.

This cannot be better illuſtrated, than by it's contrary, which appears no where more than in Ireland; where, by the largeneſs and plenty of the food, and ſcarcity of people, all things neceſſary to life are ſo cheap, that an induſtrious man, by two day's labour, may gain enough to feed him the reſt of the week; which I take to be a very plain ground of the lazineſs attributed to the people: for men naturally prefer eaſe before labour, and will not take pains, if they can live idle. Though when, by neceſſity, they have been inured to it, they cannot leave it, being grown a cuſtom neceſſary to their health, and to their very entertainment: nor, perhaps, is the change harder, from conſtant eaſe to labour, than from conſtant labour to eaſe.

This account of the original of trade agrees with the experience of all ages, and with the conſtitutions of all places, where it has moſt flouriſhed in the world; as Tyre, Carthage, Athens, Syracuſe, Agrigentum, Rhodes, Venice, Holland, and will be ſo obvious to every man, that knows and conſiders the ſituation, the extent, and the nature of all thoſe countries, that it will need no enlargement upon the compariſons.

By theſe examples, which are all of commonwealths, and by the decay or diſſolution of trade in the ſix firſt, when they came to be conquered, or ſubjected to arbitrary dominions, it might be concluded, that there is ſomething in that form of government proper and natural to trade, in a more peculiar manner. But the height it arrived to at Bruges and Antwerp, under their princes, for four or five deſcents of the houſe of Burgundy, and two of Auſtria, ſhews it may thrive under good princes and legal monarchies, as well as under free ſtates.

Under arbitrary and tyrannical power, it muſt of neceſſity decay and diſſolve, becauſe this empties a country of people, whereas the others fill it; this extinguiſhes induſtry, whilſt men are in doubt of enjoying themſelves with what they get, or leaving it to their children; the others encourage it, by ſecuring men of both; one fills a country with ſoldiers, and the other with merchants, who were never known yet to live well together, becauſe they cannot truſt one another. And as trade cannot live without mutual truſt among private men, ſo it cannot grow or thrive, to any great degree, without a confidence both of public and private ſafety, and conſequently a truſt in the government, from an opinion of it's ſtrength, wiſdom, and juſtice; which muſt be grounded either upon the perſonal virtues and qualities of a prince, or elſe upon the conſtitutions and orders of a ſtate.

It appears to every man's eye, who hath travelled Holland, and obſerved the number and vicinity of their great and populous towns and villages, with the prodigious improvement of almoſt every ſpot of ground in the country, and the great multitudes conſtantly employed in their ſhipping abroad, and their boats at home, that no other known country in the world, of the ſame extent, holds any proportion with this in numbers of people; and if that be the great foundation of trade, the beſt account that can be given of theirs, will be by conſidering the cauſes and accidents that have ſerved to force or invite ſo vaſt a confluence of people into their country. In the firſt rank may be placed the civil wars, calamities, perſecutions, oppreſſions, or diſcontents, that have been ſo fatal to moſt of their neighbours, for ſome time before, as well as ſince their ſtate began.

The perſecutions for matter of religion, in Germany, under Charles V. in France, under Henry II. and in England, under queen Mary, forced great numbers of people out of all thoſe countries, to ſhelter themſelves in the ſeveral towns of the ſeventeen provinces, where the antient liberties of the country, and privileges of the cities, had been inviolate under ſo long a ſucceſſion of princes, and gave protection to theſe oppreſſed ſtrangers, who filled their cities both with people and trade, and raiſed Antwerp to ſuch an height and renown, as continued 'till the duke of Alva's arrival in the Low-Countries.

The fright of this man, and the orders he brought, and arms to execute them, began to ſcatter the flock of people that for ſome time had been neſted there; ſo as, in a very few months, above a hundred thouſand families removed out of the country.

But when the ſeven provinces united, and began to defend themſelves with ſucceſs, under the conduct of the prince of Orange, and the countenance of England and France, and the perſecutions for religion began to grow ſharp in the Spaniſh provinces, all the profeſſors of the reformed religion, and haters of the Spaniſh dominions, retired into the ſtrong cities of this commonwealth, and gave the ſame date to the growth of trade there, and the decay of it at Antwerp.

The long civil wars, as firſt of France, then of Germany, and laſtly of England, ſerved to increaſe the ſwarm in this country, not only by ſuch as were perſecuted at home, but great numbers of peaceable men, who came here to ſeek for quiet in their lives, and ſafety in their poſſeſſions or trades; like thoſe birds that, upon the approach of a rough winter-ſeaſon, leave the countries where they were born and bred, fly away to ſome kinder and ſofter climate, and never return 'till the froſts are paſt, and the winds are laid at home.

The invitation theſe people had, to fix rather in Holland, than in many better countries, ſeem to have been, at firſt, the great ſtrength of their towns; which, by their maritime ſituation, and the low flatneſs of their country, can, with their ſluices, overflow all the ground about them, at ſuch diſtances, as to become inacceſſible to any land forces. And this natural ſtrength has been improved, eſpecially at Amſterdam,

Amſterdam, by all the art and expence that could any ways contribute towards the defence of the place.

Next was the conſtitution of their government; by which neither the States-General, nor the prince, have any power to invade any man's perſon or property within the precincts of their cities. Nor could it be feared, that the ſenate of any town ſhould conſpire to any ſuch violence; nor if they did, could they poſſibly execute it, having no ſoldiers in their pay, and the burghers only being employed in the defence of their towns, and execution of all civil juſtice among them.

Theſe circumſtances give ſo great a credit to the bank of Amſterdam; and that was another invitation for people to come and lodge here, what part of their money they could tranſport, and knew no way of ſecuring at home. Nor did thoſe people only lodge monies here, who came over into the country, but many more who never left their own: though they provided for a retreat againſt a ſtorm, and thought no place ſo ſecure as this, nor from whence they might ſo eaſily draw their money into any parts of the world.

Another circumſtance was, the general liberty and caſe, not only in point of conſcience, but all others that ſerve to the commodiouſneſs and quiet of life; every man following his own way, minding his own buſineſs, and little enquiring into other men's; which, I ſuppoſe, happened by ſo great a concourſe of people of ſeveral nations, different religions and cuſtoms, as left nothing ſtrange or new, and, by the general humour, bent all upon induſtry; whereas, curioſity is only proper to idle men.

Beſides, it has ever been the great principle of their ſtate, running through all their provinces and cities, even with emulation, to make their country the common refuge of all miſerable men, from whoſe protection, hardly any alliances, treaties, or intereſts, have ever been able to divert or remove them. So as, during the great dependance this ſtate had upon France, in the time of Henry IV. all the perſons diſgraced at that court, or baniſhed that country, made this their common retreat; nor could the ſtate ever be prevailed with, by any inſtances of the rench ambaſſador, to refuſe them the uſe and liberty of common life and air, under the protection of their government.

This firmneſs in the ſtate has been one of the circumſtances that has invited ſo many unhappy men out of all their neighbourhood, and, indeed, from moſt parts of Europe, to ſhelter themſelves from the blows of juſtice, or of fortune.

Nor, indeed, does any country ſeem ſo proper to be made uſe of upon ſuch occaſions, not only in reſpect of ſafety, but as a place that holds ſo conſtant and eaſy correſpondencies with all parts of the world, and whither any man may draw whatever money he has at his diſpoſal in any other place; where neither riches expoſe men to danger, nor poverty to contempt; but, on the contrary, where parſimony is honourable, whether it be neceſſary or no; and he that is forced, by his fortune, to live low, may here alone live in faſhion, and upon equal terms (in appearance abroad) with the chiefeſt of their miniſters, and richeſt of their merchants: nor is it eaſily imagined, how great an effect this conſtitution among them may, in courſe of time, have had upon the increaſe both of their people and their trade.

As the two firſt invitations of people into this country, were the ſtrength of their towns, and nature of their government, ſo two others have grown with the courſe of time, and progreſs of their riches and power. One is the reputation of their government, ariſing from the obſervation of the ſucceſs of their arms, the prudence of their negociations, the ſteadineſs of their councils, the conſtancy of their peace and quiet at home, and the conſideration they hereby arrived at among the princes and ſtates of Chriſtendom. From all theſe, men grew to a general opinion of the wiſdom and conduct of their ſtate, and of it's being eſtabliſhed upon foundations that could not be ſhaken by any common accidents, nor conſequently in danger of any great or ſudden revolutions; and this is a mighty inducement to induſtrious people to come and inhabit a country, who ſeek not only ſafety, under laws, from juſtice and oppreſſions, but likewiſe, under the ſtrength and good conduct of a ſtate, from the violence of foreign invaſions, or of civil commotions.

The other is, the great beauty of their country (forced in time, and by the improvements of induſtry, in ſpite of nature) which draws every day ſuch numbers of curious and idle perſons to ſee their provinces, though not to inhabit them. And, indeed, their country is a much better miſtreſs than a wife, and where few perſons, who were well at home, would be content to live; but where none, that have time and money to ſpare, would not for once be willing to travel; and as England ſhews, in the beauty of the country, what nature can arrive at, ſo does Holland, in the number, greatneſs, and beauty of their towns, whatever art can bring to paſs. But theſe, and many other matters of ſpeculation among them, filling the obſervations of all common travellers, ſhall make no part of mine, whoſe deſign is rather to diſcover the cauſes of their trade and riches, than to relate the effects.

Yet it may be noted hereupon, as a piece of wiſdom in any kingdom or ſtate, by the magnificence of courts, or of public ſtructures; by encouraging beauty in private building, and the adornment of towns with pleaſant and regular plantations of trees; by the celebration of ſome noble feſtivals or ſolemnities; by the inſtitution of ſome great marts or fairs; and by the contrivance of any extraordinary and renowned ſpectacles, to invite and occaſion, as much and as often as can be, the concourſe of buſy or idle people from the neighbouring or remoter nations, whoſe very paſſage and intercourſe is a great increaſe of wealth and of trade; and a ſecret incentive of people to inhabit a country, where men may meet with equal advantages, and more entertainments of life, than in other places. Such were the Olympicks and other games among the Grecians; ſuch the triumphs, trophies, and ſecular plays of old Rome, as well as the ſpectacles exhibited afterwards by the emperors, with ſuch ſtupendous effects of art and expence, for courting or entertaining the people; ſuch the wiles of New Rome; the juſts and tournaments formerly uſed in moſt of the courts of Chriſtendom; the feſtivals of the more celebrated orders of knighthood; and, in particular towns, the carnivals and fairs; the kirmiſtres, which run through all the cities of the Netherlands, and, in ſome of them, with a great deal of pageantry as well as traffic, being equal baits of pleaſure and of gain.

Having thus diſcovered, what has laid the great foundation of their trade, by the multitude of the people which has planted and habituated induſtry among them, and, by that, all ſorts of manufacture; as well as parſimony, and thereby general wealth: I ſhall enumerate, very briefly, ſome other circumſtances that ſeem, next to theſe, the chief advancers and encouragers of trade in their country.

Low intereſt, and dearneſs of land, are effects of the multitude of people, and cauſe of ſo much money to lie ready for all projects, by which gain may be expected, as the cutting of canals, making bridges and cauſeys, levelling downs, and draining marſhes, beſides all NEW ESSAYS at FOREIGN TRADE, which are propoſed with any probability of advantage.

The uſe of their banks, which ſecures money, and makes all payments eaſy, and trade quick.

The ſale by regiſtry, which were introduced here and in Flanders, in the time of Charles V. and makes all purchaſes ſafe.

The ſeverity of juſtice, not only againſt all thefts, but all cheats and counterfeits of any public bills (which is capital among them), and even againſt all common beggars, who are diſpoſed of either into workhouſes, or hoſpitals, as they are able or unable to labour. See the article POOR.

The convoys of merchant-fleets into all parts, even in time of peace, but eſpecially into the Straights; which give their trade ſecurity againſt many unexpected accidents, and their nation credit abroad, and breeds up ſeamen for their ſhips of war.

The lowneſs of their cuſtoms, and eaſineſs of paying them, which, with the freedom of their ports, invite both ſtrangers and natives to bring commodities hither; not only as to a market, but as to a magazine, where they lodge 'till they are invited abroad to other and better markets.

Order and exactneſs in managing their trade, which brings their commodities in credit abroad. This was firſt introduced by ſevere laws and penalties, but is ſince grown into cuſtom. Thus there have been above thirty ſeveral placarts about the manner of curing, pickling, and barrelling herrings. Thus all arms, made at Utrecht, are forfeited, if ſold without mark, or marked without trial. And I obſerved in their India-Houſe, that all the pieces of ſcarlet, which are ſent in great quantities to thoſe parts, are marked with the Engliſh arms, and inſcriptions in Engliſh; by which they maintain the credit gained to that commodity, by our former trade to parts, where it is now loſt or decayed.

The government managed either by men that trade, or whoſe families have riſen by it, or who have themſelves ſome intereſt going in other men's traffic, or who are born and bred in towns, the ſoul and being whereof conſiſts wholly in trade, which makes ſure of all favour, that from time to time grows neceſſary, and can be given the government.

The cuſtom of every town's affecting ſome particular commerce or ſtaple, valuing itſelf thereupon, and ſo improving it to the greateſt height: as Fluſhing, by that of the Weſt-Indies; Middleburgh, of French wines; Terveer, by the Scotch ſtaple; Dort, by the Engliſh ſtaple and Rheniſh wines; Leyden, by the manufactures of all ſorts of ſtuffs, ſilk, hair, gold and ſilver; Haerlem, by linen, mixt ſtuffs, and flowers; Delft, by beer and Dutch porcelain; Surdam, by the built of ſhips; Enchuyſen and Mazlandſluys, by herring-fiſhing; Friezland, by the Greenland trade, and Amſterdam, by that of the Eaſt-Indies, Spain, and the Straights.

The great application of the whole province to the fiſhing-trade, upon the coaſts of England and Scotland, which employ an incredible number of ſhips and ſeamen, and ſupplies moſt of the ſouthern parts of Europe with a rich and neceſſary commodity. See the articles FISHERIES, and HERRING-FISHERY.

The laſt I ſhall mention, is, the mighty advance they have made towards engroſſing the whole commerce of the Eaſt-Indies. [See the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY] by their ſucceſſes againſt the Portugueze, and by their many wars and victories againſt the natives, whereby they have forced them to treaties of commerce, excluſive to all other nations, and to the admiſſion of forts to be built upon ſtreights and paſſes, that command the entrances into the traffic of ſuch places. This has been atchieved by the multitude of their people and mariners, that has been able to furniſh every year ſo many great ſhips for ſuch voyages, and to ſupply the loſs of ſo many lives, as the changes of climate have coſt, before they learnt the method of living in them: by the vaſtneſs of the ſtock that has been turned wholly to that trade, and by the conduct and application of the Eaſt India company, who have managed it like a commonwealth rather than a trade, and thereby raiſed a ſtate in the Indies; governed, indeed, by the orders of the company, but otherwiſe appearing to thoſe nations like a ſovereign ſtate, making war and peace with their greateſt kings, and able to bring to ſea forty or fifty men of war, and thirty thouſand men at land, by the modeſteſt computations. The ſtock of this trade, beſides what it turns to in France, Spain, Italy, the Straights, and Germany, makes them ſo great maſters in the trade of the northern parts of Europe, as Muſcovy, Poland, Pomerania, and all the Baltic; where the ſpices, that are an Indian drug, and European luxury, command all the commodities of thoſe countries, which are ſo neceſſary to life, as their corn; and to navigation, as hemp, pitch, maſts, planks, and iron.

Thus the trade of this country is diſcovered to be no effects of common contrivances, of natural diſpoſitions or ſituation, or of trivial accidents; but of a great concurrence of circumſtances, a long courſe of time, force of orders and method, which never before met in the world to ſuch a degree, or with ſo prodigious a ſucceſs; and, perhaps, never will again. Having grown (to ſum up all) from the ſituation of their country, extended upon the ſea, divided by two ſuch rivers as the Rhine and the Maes, with the vicinity of the Ems, Weſer, and Elbe; from the confluence of people out of Flanders, England, France, and Germany, invited by the ſtrength of their towns, and by the conſtitutions and credit of their government; by the liberty of conſcience, and ſecurity of life and goods (ſubjected only to conſtant laws): from general induſtry and parſimony, occaſioned by the multitude of people, and ſmallneſs of country; from cheapneſs and eaſineſs of carriage, by convenience of canals; from low intereſt, and dearneſs of land, which turn money to trade; the inſtitution of banks; ſale by regiſtry; care of convoys; ſmallneſs of cuſtoms; freedom of ports; order in trade; intereſt of perſons in the government; particular traffic, affected to particular places; application to the fiſhery; and acquiſitions in the Eaſt Indies.

It is no conſtant rule, that trade makes riches; for there may be a trade that impoveriſhes a nation: as it is not going often to market, that enriches the countryman; but, on the contrary, if, every time he comes there, he buys to a greater value than he ſells, he grows the poorer the oftener he goes: but the only and certain ſcale of riches, ariſing from trade in a nation, is the proportion of what is exported for the conſumption of others, to what is imported for their own.

The true ground of this proportion lies in the general induſtry and parſimony of a people, or in the contrary of both. Induſtry increaſes the native commodity, either in the product of the ſoil, or the manufactures of the country, which raiſes the ſtock for exportation. Parſimony leſſens the conſumption of their own, as well as of foreign commodities; and not only abates the importation by the laſt, but increaſes the exportation by the firſt; for, of all native commodities, the leſs is conſumed in a country, the more is exported abroad; there being no commodity, but, at one price or other, will find a market, which they will be maſters of, WHO CAN AFFORD IT CHEAPEST: ſuch are always the moſt induſtrious and parſimonious people; who can thrive by prices, upon which the lazy and expenſive cannot live.

The vulgar miſtake, that IMPORTATION OF FOREIGN WARES, IF PURCHASED ABROAD WITH NATIVE COMMODITIES, AND NOT WITH MONEY, DOES NOT MAKE A NATION POORER, is but what every man, that gives himſelf leiſure to think, muſt immediately rectify, by finding out, that, upon the end of an account between a nation, and all they deal with abroad, whatever the EXPORTATION WANTS IN VALUE, to balance that of the IMPORTATION, muſt of neceſſity be made up with READY MONEY. By this we find out the foundation of the riches of Holland, as of their trade by the circumſtances already rehearſed: for never any country TRADED SO MUCH, AND CONSUMED SO LITTLE. THEY BUY INFINITELY, BUT IT IS TO SELL AGAIN, EITHER UPON IMPROVEMENT OF THE COMMODITY, OR AT A BETTER MARKET. They are the great maſters of the Indian ſpices, and of the Perſian ſilks; but wear plain woollen, and feed upon their own fiſh and roots. Nay, they ſell the fineſt of their OWN CLOTH to France, and buy coarſe out of England for their OWN WEAR. They ſend abroad the beſt of their own butter, into all parts, and buy the cheapeſt out of Ireland, or the north of England, for their own uſe. In ſhort, they furniſh infinite luxury, which they never practiſe; and traffic in pleaſures, which they never taſte.

The gentlemen and officers of the army change their cloaths and their modes like their neighbours. But among the whole body of the CIVIL MAGISTRATES, the MERCHANTS, the RICH TRADERS, AND CITIZENS IN GENERAL, the faſhions continue ſtill the ſame; and others as conſtant among the ſeamen and boors: ſo that men LEAVE OFF THEIR CLOATHS, only becauſe they are worn out, and not becauſe they ARE OUT OF FASHION.

Their great foreign conſumption is French wine and brandy; but that may be allowed them, as the only reward they enjoy of all their pains, and as that alone which makes them rich and happy in their voluntary poverty, who would otherwiſe ſeem poor and wretched in their real wealth. Beſides, what they ſpend in wine, they ſave in corn to make other drinks, which is brought from foreign parts. And, upon a preſſure of their affairs, we ſee now for two years together, they have denied themſelves even this comfort, among all their ſorrows, and made up in paſſive fortitude, whatever they have wanted in the active.

Thus it happens, that much going conſtantly out, either in commodity, or in the labour of ſeafaring men; and little coming in to be conſumed at home, the reſt returns in coin, and fills the country to that degree, that more ſilver is ſeen in Holland, among the common hands and purſes, than braſs either in Spain or in France; though one be ſo rich in the beſt native commodities, and the other drain all the treaſures of the Weſt-Indies.

By this account of their trade and riches, it will appear, that ſome of our maxims are not ſo certain, as they are current, in our common politics. As firſt, that example and encouragement of exceſs and luxury, if employed in the conſumption of native commodities, is of advantage to trade: it may be ſo to that which impoveriſhes, but it is not to that which enriches a country; and is, indeed, leſs prejudicial, if it lie in native than in foreign wares. But the cuſtom or humour of luxury and expence, cannot ſtop at certain bounds; what begins in native, will proceed in foreign commodities: and though the example ariſe among idle perſons, yet the imitation will run into all degrees, even of thoſe men by whoſe induſtry the nation ſubſiſts. And beſides, the more of our own we ſpend, the leſs we ſhall have to ſend abroad; and ſo it will come to paſs, that while we drive a vaſt trade, yet, by buying much more than we ſell, we ſhall come to be poor: whereas, when we drove a very ſmall traffic abroad, yet, by ſelling ſo much more than we bought, we were very rich in proportion to our neighbours.

This appeared in Edward the IIId's time, when we maintained ſo mighty wars in France, and carried our victorious arms into the heart of Spain: whereas, in the 28th year of that king's reign, the value and cuſtom of all our exported commodities amounted to two hundred and ninety-four thouſand, one hundred and eighty-four pounds, ſeventeen ſhillings and two pence. And that of imported, but to thirty-eight thouſand, nine hundred and ſeventy pounds, three ſhillings and ſix pence. So as there muſt have entered that year into the kingdom in coin, or bullion (or elſe have grown a debt to the nation), two hundred and fifty-five thouſand, two hundred and fourteen pounds, thirteen ſhillings and eight-pence. And yet we then carried out our wools unwrought, and bought in a great part of our cloaths from Flanders.

Another common maxim is, that if, by any foreign invaſion or ſervitude, the ſtate, and conſequently the trade, of Holland, ſhould be ruined, the laſt would of courſe fall to our ſhare in England. Which is no conſequence: for it would certainly break into ſeveral pieces, and ſhift, either to us, to Flanders, to the Hanſe Towns, or any other parts, according as the moſt of thoſe circumſtances ſhould any where concur to invite it (and the likeneſs to ſuch) as appear to have formerly drawn it into Holland, by ſo mighty a confluence of people, and ſo general a vein of induſtry and parſimony among them. And whoever pretends to equal their growth in trade and riches, by other ways than ſuch as are already enumerated, will prove, I doubt, either to deceive, or to be deceived.

A third is, that if that ſtate were reduced to great extremities, ſo as to become a province to ſome greater power, THEY WOULD CHUSE OUR SUBJECTION RATHER THAN ANY OTHER; or thoſe, at leaſt, that are the maritime, and the richeſt of the provinces. But it will be more reaſonably concluded, from what Sir William has ſaid in his former diſcourſes on this ſtate, that though they may be divided by abſolute conqueſts, they will never divide themſelves by conſent, but all fall one way; and, by common agreement, make the beſt terms they can for their country, as a PROVINCE, if not as a STATE: and before they come to ſuch an extremity, they will firſt ſeek to be admitted, as a Belgic circle, in the empire (which they were of old) and thereby receive the protection of that mighty body, which (as far as great and ſmaller things may be compared) ſeems the moſt like their own ſtate in it's main conſtitutions, but eſpecially in the freedom or ſo-

vereignty

vereignty of the imperial cities. And this I have often heard their miniſters ſpeak of, as their laſt refuge, in caſe of being threatned by too ſtrong and fatal a conjuncture.

And, if this ſhould happen, the trade of the provinces would rather be preſerved or increaſed, than any way broken or deſtroyed by ſuch an alteration of their ſtate, becauſe the liberties of the country would continue what they are, and the ſecurity would be greater than now it is.

The laſt I will mention is of another vein: that if the prince of Orange were made ſovereign of their country, though by foreign arms, he would be a great prince, becauſe this now appears to be ſo great a ſtate. Whereas, on the contrary, thoſe provinces would ſoon become a very mean country. For ſuch a power muſt be maintained by force, as it would be acquired, and as, indeed, all abſolute dominion muſt be in thoſe provinces. This would raiſe general diſcontents, and thoſe perpetual ſeditions among the towns, which would change the order of the country, and anger the property of private men, and ſhake the credit and ſafety of the government: whenever this ſhould happen, the people would ſcatter, induſtry would faint, banks would diſſolve, and trade would decay to ſuch a degree, as probably, in courſe of time, the very digues would be no longer maintained, by the defences of a weak people againſt ſo furious an invader; but the ſea would break in upon their land, and leave their chiefeſt cities to be fiſher-towns, as they were of old.

Without any ſuch great revolutions, I am of opinion, that trade has, for ſome years ago paſt it's meridian, and begun ſenſibly to decay among them: whereof there ſeems to be ſeveral cauſes, as firſt, the general application that ſo many other nations have made to it, within theſe two or three and twenty years. For, ſince the peace of Munſter, which reſtored the quiet of Chriſtendom in 1648, not only Sweden and Denmark, but France and England, have more particularly than ever before, buſied the thoughts and councils of their ſeveral governments, as well as the humours of their people, about the matters of trade.

Nor has this happened without good degrees of ſucceſs; though kingdoms of ſuch extent, that have other and nobler foundations of greatneſs, cannot raiſe trade to ſuch a pitch as this little ſtate, which had no other to build upon; no more than a man, who has a fair and plentiful eſtate, can fall to labour and induſtry, like one that has nothing elſe to truſt to for the ſupport of his life. But, however, all theſe nations have come, of late, to ſhare largely with them; and there ſeem to be grown too many traders for trade in the world, ſo as they can hardly live one by another. As in a great populous village, the firſt grocer or mercer that ſets up among them grows preſently rich, having all their cuſtom, 'till another, encouraged by his ſucceſs, comes to ſet up by him, and ſhare in his gains; at length ſo many fall to the trade, that nothing is got by it; and ſome muſt give over, or all muſt break *.

* This would be juſt, if the world did not afford a perpetual increaſe of traffic.

Not many ages paſt, Venice and Florence poſſeſſed all the trade of Europe; the laſt by their manufactures, the firſt by their ſhipping: and the whole trade of Perſia and the Indies, whoſe commodities were brought (thoſe by land, and thoſe by the Arabian Sea) to Egypt, from whence they were fetched by the Venetian fleets, and diſperſed into moſt of the parts of Europe: and in thoſe times, we find the whole trade of England, was driven by Venetians, Florentines, and Lombards. The Eaſterlings, who were the inhabitants of the Hanſe-Towns, as Dantzic, Lubec, Hamburgh, and others upon the coaſt, fell next into trade, and managed all that of theſe northern parts for many years, and brought it firſt down to Bruges, and from thence to Antwerp. The firſt navigations of the Portugueze to the Eaſt-Indies, broke the greateſt of the Venetian trade and drew it to Liſbon: and the revolt of the Netherlands, that of Antwerp to Holland. But in all this time, the other and greater nations of Europe concerned themſelves little in it; their trade was war; their councils and enterprizes were buſied in the quarrels of the Holy Land, or in thoſe between the popes and the emperors (both of the ſame forge, engaging all Chriſtian princes, and ending in the greatneſs of the Eccleſiaſtical State throughout Chriſtendom): ſometimes, in the mighty wars between England and France, between France and Spain: the more general between Chriſtians and Turks; or more particular quarrels, between leſſer and neighbouring princes. In ſhort, the kingdoms and principalities were in the world, like the noblemen and gentlemen in a country; the free ſtates and cities, like the merchants and traders: theſe at firſt deſpiſed by the others, the other ſerved and revered by them; 'till, by the various courſe of events in the world, ſome of theſe came to grow rich and powerful by induſtry and parſimony; and ſome of the others, poor by war and by luxury: which made the traders begin to take upon them, and carry it like gentlemen, and the gentlemen begin to take a fancy of falling to trade.

By this ſhort account it will appear no wonder, either that particular places grew ſo rich and ſo mighty, while they alone enjoyed almoſt the general trade of the world; nor why not only the trade in Holland, but the advantage of it in general, ſhould ſeem to be leſſened by ſo many that ſhare it.

Another cauſe of it's decay in that ſtate may be, that, by the mighty progreſs of their Eaſt-India company, the commodities of that country are grown more than theſe parts of the world can take off; and conſequently, the rates of them muſt needs be leſſened, while the charge is increaſed by the great wars, the armies, and forts, neceſſary to maintain or extend the acquiſitions of that company in the Indies. For, inſtead of five or ſix Eaſt-India ſhips, which uſed to make the fleet of the year, they are now riſen to eighteen or twenty (I think two and twenty came in one year to the United Provinces). This is the reaſon why the particular perſons of that company in Holland make not ſo great advantage of the ſame ſtock, as thoſe of ours do in England; though their company be very much richer, and drives a far greater trade than ours, which is exhauſted by no charge of armies, or forts, or ſhips of war: and this is the reaſon, that the Dutch are forced to keep ſo long and ſo much of thoſe commodities in their magazines here, and to bring them out, only as the markets call for them, or are able to take off; and why they bring ſo much leſs from the Indies, than they were able to do, if there were vent enough here: as I remember, one of their ſeamen newly landed out of their Eaſt-India fleet, in the year 1669, upon diſcourſe in a boat between Delft and Leyden, ſaid, he had ſeen, before he came away, three heaps of nutmegs burnt at a time, each of which was more than a ſmall church could hold, which he pointed at in a village that was in ſight.

Another cauſe may be the great cheapneſs of corn, which has been for theſe dozen years or more, general in all theſe parts of Europe, and which has a very great influence upon the trade of Holland. For a great vent of Indian commodities (at leaſt the ſpices which are the groſs of them) uſed to be made into the northern parts of Europe, in exchange for corn, while it was taken off at good rates by the markets of Flanders, England, France, Spain, or Italy; in all which countries it has of late years gone ſo low, as to diſcourage the import of ſo great quantities, as uſed to come from Poland and Pruſſia, and other parts of the north. Now, the leſs value thoſe nations receive for corn, the leſs they are able to give for ſpice, which is a great loſs to the Dutch on both ſides, leſſening the vent of their Indian ware in the northern, and the traffic of corn in the ſouthern parts.

The cauſe of this great cheapneſs of corn ſeems to be, not ſo much a courſe of plentiful and ſeaſonable years, as the general peace that has been in Europe ſince the year 1659 or 60; by which ſo many men and ſo much land have been turned to huſbandry, that were before employed in the wars, or lay waſted by them in all the frontier provinces of France and Spain, as well as throughout Germany, before the peace of Munſter; and in England, during the actions or conſequences of a civil war: and plenty grows not to a height, but by the ſucceſſion of ſeveral peaceful as well as ſeaſonable years.

The laſt cauſe I will mention, is the mighty enlargement of the city of Amſterdam, by that which is called the New Town; the extent whereof is ſo ſpacious, and the buildings of ſo much greater beauty and coſt than the old, that it muſt have employed a vaſt proportion of that ſtock, which in this city was before wholly turned to trade. Beſides, there ſeems to have been growing on for theſe later years, a greater vie of luxury and expence among many of the merchants of that town, than was ever formerly known: which was obſerved and complained of, as well as the enlargement of their city, by ſome of the wiſeſt of their miniſters, while I reſided among them, who deſigned ſome regulations by ſumptuary laws; as knowing the very foundations of their trade would ſoon be undermined, if the habitual induſtry, parſimony, and ſimplicity of their people came to be over-run by luxury, idleneſs, and exceſs. However it happened, I found it agreed by all the moſt diligent and circumſpect enquiries I could make, that in the years 1669 and 70, there was hardly any foreign trade among them, beſides that of the Indies, by which the traders made the returns of their money without loſs; and none, by which the common gain was above two or three in the hundred. So, as it ſeems to be with trade, as with the ſea (it's element) that has a certain pitch above which it never riſes in the higheſt tides, and begins to ebb, as ſoon as ever it ceaſes to flow; and ever loſes ground in one place, proportionable to what it gains in another.

REMARKS before the laſt WAR.

There is nothing clearer, than that it is the true intereſt of this republic to live in perfect harmony with Great-Britain, inaſmuch as both countries have continually reaped the greateſt advantages, when this union has ſubſiſted; and have both felt the bad effects of being ſet at variance, and employing their maritime forces againſt each other, through the intrigues of their common enemies. It is, indeed, true, that each of theſe powers have an equal intereſt in commerce; but

but while they live upon good terms, and conſult their reſpective intereſts only, they can, without any difficulty, regulate the views of their ſubjects, ſo as to prevent their claſhing with each other; and for the common benefit of both, which in the preſent ſituation of things is far eaſier than in former times; and of greater conſequence than ever, conſidering the new ſchemes that are every day formed, and forming in different parts of Europe, with a tendency equally prejudicial to the trade of both.

Under the articles FLANDERS and HOLLAND, we have in our obſervations thereon ſhewn the neceſſity, the abſolute and indiſpenſible neceſſity in Great-Britain, to contribute all in her power to ſupport and maintain a good barrier for the preſervation of the Netherlands againſt the dominion of France: to inforce which principle ſtill the more ſenſibly, we have alſo under the article FRANCE, ſhewn the extraordinary encroachments of that nation in point of territory ſince the time of Monſ. Colbert, as well as the ſurprizing increaſe of their commerce and navigation from that period.—And, as the barrier of the Dutch ſtill remains unſettled, it ſtill remains neceſſary to corroborate what we have urged under the heads before-mentioned.—This we ſhall do from the authentic tranſactions of the parliament of England.

The ſenſe of the commons upon this occaſion, can no way be better ſeen, than from their own journals, and therefore I ſhall give the reader a ſhort abſtract of them.

In the beginning of 1677, the commons did directly, and in very preſſing terms, repreſent to the king, that the minds of his people were very much diſquieted with the dangers ariſing from the manifeſt growth and power of the French king; eſpecially by the acquiſitions made, and like to be made by him, in the Spaniſh Netherlands: in preſervation and ſecurity whereof, ſay they, we humbly conceive the intereſt of your majeſty, and the ſafety of your people, are highly concerned; and therefore we moſt humbly beſeech your majeſty to take the ſame into your royal care, and to ſtrengthen yourſelf with ſuch ſtricter alliances, as may ſecure your majeſty's kingdoms, and preſerve the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands, and thereby quiet the minds of your majeſty's people.

And when the lords, who concurred with the commons in this addreſs, would have had partieular mention likewiſe made of Sicily, it being of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king; the commons diſagreed to it for this reaſon, becauſe, 'the ſpecial mentioning of Sicily, would ſeem to put leſs weight upon the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; the conſervation of which they conceive to be of much more moment to his majeſty's kingdoms, than that of Sicily. For though it may be of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king, yet the ſafety of his majeſty's kingdoms is not ſo immediately endangered thereby, and therefore it ought not to be equally inſiſted on.'

The king agreed with his parliament, in owning the great importance the conſervation of Flanders was of to England; but the reſt of his anſwer, which ſhewed his averſion to enter into a war for it's defence, was ſo little ſatisfactory, that a motion was immediately made for a ſecond addreſs to his majeſty, to enter into a ſtrict and ſpeedy alliance with the confederates; and, in purſuance of this motion, the houſe did about a fortnight after (March 30) in a ſecond addreſs implore his majeſty, 'that he would be pleaſed to take timely care to prevent thoſe dangers that may ariſe to theſe kingdoms by the great power of the French king, and the progreſs he daily makes in the Netherlands and other places; and that he would not defer the entering into ſuch alliances as may obtain thoſe ends, promiſing fully to aſſiſt his majeſty if he ſhould be engaged in a war in purſuance of ſuch alliances.'

Within three days after the king's anſwer to this addreſs, April 13, the houſe made a third addreſs, to aſſure his majeſty, that 'they would with moſt chearful hearts proceed both then and at all other times, to furniſh his majeſty with ſuch large ſupplies upon this occaſion (to preſerve the Netherlands and check the growth of France) as might enable him, by God's aſſiſtance, to maintain the alliances they had adviſed, againſt all oppoſition whatſoever.'

This addreſs, upon the king's anſwer to it, was immediately followed by a fourth, April 16, aſſuring his majeſty of their duty and affection; and that he might not only depend upon the ſupply he deſired, but upon all ſuch aſſiſtances as the poſture of his affairs ſhould require: 'in confidence whereof, ſay the commons, we hope your majeſty will be encouraged in the mean time to ſpeak and act ſuch things as your majeſty ſhall judge neceſſary, for attaining thoſe great ends we have formerly repreſented to your majeſty.'

Theſe repeated addreſſes from ſo loyal a houſe of commons, ſufficiently ſhew how much the nation was alarmed, upon the dangers to which they ſaw the Netherlands expoſed.

The commons were ſo bent upon this point, as a matter of the laſt conſequence, that they would take no denial: which made the court reſolve upon adjourning them for five weeks. But what paſſed in this interval, did not make the commons alter their ſentiments, or leſs earneſt in the purſuit of them. When they met again, May the 21ſt, they fell into very warm debates, and reſolved to advance ſtill one ſtep farther in a matter of ſo great concern; which was, to addreſs his majeſty to enter into a league offenſive and defenſive with the States, and to make other fit alliances againſt the growth and power of France, and for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands: and in this addreſs they tell his majeſty, how highly ſenſible they are of the neceſſity of ſupporting, as well as making, the alliances deſired in their former addreſſes; 'which we ſtill conceive, ſay they, ſo important to the ſafety of your majeſty and your kingdoms, that we can't, without unfaithfulneſs to your majeſty, and thoſe we repreſent, omit upon all occaſions humbly to beſeech your majeſty, as we now do, to enter into a league offenſive and defenſive with the States, &c.' And that no time might be loſt in doing this, they give his majeſty this reaſon among others, the great danger and charge which muſt neceſſarily fall upon your majeſty's kingdoms, if, through want of timely encouragement and aſſiſtance, the States, or any other conſiderable part of the confederates, ſhould make a peace with the French king (the prevention whereof hitherto, ſay they, muſt be acknowledged to be a ſingular effect of God's goodneſs to us); which if it ſhould happen, your majeſty would afterwards be neceſſitated with fewer, perhaps with no alliances, to withſtand the power of the French king, which has ſo long and ſo ſucceſsfully contended with ſo many and potent enemies; and whilſt he continues his overbalancing greatneſs, muſt always be dangerous to his neighbours; ſince he would be able to oppreſs any one confederate, before the reſt could get together, and be in ſo good a poſture of offending him as they are now, being jointly engaged in a war; and if he ſhould be ſo ſucceſsful as to make a peace, or diſunite the preſent confederation againſt him, it is much to be feared, whether it would be poſſible ever to reunite it. At leaſt it would be a work of ſo much time and difficulty, as would leave your majeſty's kingdoms expoſed to much miſery and danger. Having thus diſcharged our duty in laying before your majeſty the dangers threatening your majeſty and your kingdoms, and the only remedy we can think of for preventing it, and quieting the minds of your people; we moſt humbly beſeech your majeſty to take ſuch reſolutions, as may not leave it in the power of any neighbouring prince, to rob your people of that happineſs they enjoy under your majeſty's gracious government. Then they oblige themſelves not only by their promiſes with great unanimity renewed in a full houſe, but by the zeal and deſires of thoſe they repreſent, and by the intereſt of all their ſafeties, moſt chearfully to give his majeſty ſpeedy and plentiful ſupplies.

This earneſt and importunate addreſs, which was preſented May the 26th, expreſſed not only the ſenſe of a very full houſe, but indeed of the whole nation; which gave it ſo much weight, that the court ſaw they ſhould be forced to comply with it, unleſs they betook themſelves to the laſt refuge in ſuch caſes, and immediately put an end to the ſeſſion. The parliament, therefore, was accordingly diſmiſſed, and not ſuffered to ſit again 'till the end of January 1677-8. But, though the court could interrupt the ſitting of the parliament as they pleaſed, it was not poſſible to change their ſentiments; and they no ſooner met again, but they reſumed their former debates with more earneſtneſs, if poſſible, than before. For as that long interval, in which they had not been ſuffered to have an opportunity of interpoſing their councils with his majeſty, had given the French ſo much farther leiſure to finiſh their deſigns upon the Netherlands; the nation was ſo much the more alarmed, and in a new addreſs Jan. 31, they 'humbly deſire his majeſty, with the higheſt zeal for his honour, and the ſafety of his people, not to admit of any treaty of peace, whereby the French king ſhall be left in poſſeſſion of any larger dominions and territories, or of any greater power than what he retained by the Pyrenean treaty; leſs than which, they conceive, can't ſecure his majeſty's kingdoms, and the reſt of Europe, from the growth and power of the ſaid king, but that he alone may be able to diſturb the peace thereof whenſoever he is inclined to attempt it.—And they farther deſire, 'that in all treaties in order to the obtaining that end, his majeſty would be pleaſed to provide, that none of the parties that ſhall join with him in making war for that purpoſe, may lay down their arms or depart from their alliances, until the ſaid king be reduced, at leaſt, to the ſaid treaty.'

The commons had reaſon to hope for a compliance with this addreſs; the king having in his ſpeech acquainted them, that he 'had made, according to their deſire, ſuch alliances with Holland, as were neceſſary for the preſervation of Flanders; that ſince a good peace could not be had by fair means, it ſhould not be his fault if it were not obtained by force of arms; that if he be ſupported by them, he will not be weary 'till Chriſtendom be reſtored to ſuch a peace, as it ſhall not be in the power of any prince alone to diſturb.

But, whatever influenced the councils of the court, this addreſs met with no better reception than their laſt. They had been then told, that 'what they did was an invaſion of the prerogative;' and now they were told, not only the ſame thing, but, what is more ſurprizing, that 'the king having aſked

aſked the advice of both houſes, can't act upon any that does not come jointly from both.' The commons, however, not rebuked with his treatment, perſevered; immediately voted a good ſupply, and upon March 14th reſolved to addreſs his majeſty, 'That to quiet the minds of his ſubjects, and encourage the confederates, he would be pleaſed immediately to proclaim and enter into an actual war againſt the French king, promiſing conſtantly to ſtand by and aſſiſt his majeſty with plentiful ſupplies:' to which addreſs they deſired the concurrence of the lords; but, before it could be entirely obtained, they were adjourned to the middle of April, and from thence to the 29th; when the lord chancellor acquainted them in the king's name, 'That the States, whom he had long found weary of the war,' (and, indeed, had made ſo, for they were quite diſcouraged from expecting help from England, when they ſaw the zeal and ſpirit of the nation entirely defeated and eluded by the court) 'were making haſte to get out of it, and were entered upon conſiderations of accepting ſuch a peace as France had thought fit to offer, though it be without his majeſty's conſent or privity; a peace as ill for themſelves and the reſt of Chriſtendom, as their enemies could wiſh.' And in this difficult conjuncture the king deſires their advice (when it is too late) and reſolves to purſue it now; though their giving it before in time, when it would have been of the greateſt conſequence, was made a high crime. It is not my buſineſs to expoſe the inſincerity of the court in this whole affair: they who would ſee this, need only read Sir William Temple's Letters and Memoirs; a perſon of undoubted reputation and authority, and who was in thoſe times his majeſty's ambaſſador in the Low-Countries.

But I cannot but obſerve from theſe words, what a character the king gives of that peace that was a little after concluded at Nimeugen; and what made that peace ſo ill a one, was the leaving ſo much of Flanders in the poſſeſſion of France, and the remainder ſo much expoſed by a weak and inſecure barrier.

But to proceed: the commons, who were willing to hope, that if the court were ſincere, things might be yet retrieved, came, May 4, to two reſolutions, which they laid before the king, without ſtaying to put them into the uſual form of addreſs, by reaſon of the importance of the affair, and the exigency of the time. In the firſt, they 'declared the league made with the States to procure a peace between the two crowns upon certain terms therein ſpecified, not to be purſuant to their addreſſes, nor conſiſtent with the good and ſafety of the kingdom:' and yet by theſe terms (had France been obliged to accept them) Tournay, Condé, and Valenciennes, were to be reſtored, together with the dukedom of Lorrain. The other reſolution was, to deſire his majeſty 'forthwith to enter into the confederacy for the vigorous carrying on of the preſent war; and, particularly, that effectual endeavours might be uſed for continuing the States in the confederacy; and that no peace might be made with France, without general conſent firſt had.' And, upon the king's refuſing to give any anſwer 'till he had the concurrent advice of both houſes, they immediately reſolved to addreſs his majeſty to give a ſpeedy anſwer to their laſt addreſs, and to remove thoſe counſellors who adviſed the anſwers to their former addreſſes of the 26th of May and 31ſt of January, or either of them; 'by which anſwers, they ſay, his majeſty's good ſubjects had been infinitely diſcouraged, and the ſtate of his affairs reduced to a moſt deplorable condition:' they mean the progreſs of the French in Flanders, and the great jealouſy and uneaſineſs that gave the nation. And, notwithſtanding the king told them May 23, that things were driving violently on towards a peace, yet ſtill, to prevent ſo much of Flanders remaining in the hands of France, they reſolved, if his majeſty would then enter into a war againſt the French king, they were, and always would be, ready to aſſiſt him. But theſe and all the other efforts the commons could make, could not force the court into right meaſures, or prevent an ill peace; and ſerved only to vindicate themſelves to poſterity, from having any hand in it; and this I preſume it will be allowed they have done.

It is impoſſible to read this ſhort account of the proceedings of the commons, and not obſerve of how very great importance they thought the ſaving of Flanders was, to the ſafety and ſecurity of this nation. This was ſo plainly the known and certain intereſt of England, that all the arts the court could uſe, could not divert them from purſuing this point. This was the firſt parliament that was choſen after the Reſtoration, which continued ſitting above 17 years; and cannot be ſuſpected either of not having a true regard for the prerogative, or a due deference for the ſentiments of the court. But the intereſt and ſafety of their country was ſo much concerned in the preſervation of Flanders, that this conſideration carried them into theſe meaſures in oppoſition to the miniſtry, in which they ſteadily and unalterably perſevered; and the nation was entirely with them; the point they preſſed againſt the court, having apparently no other foundation, than their hearty zeal and concern for it's true intereſt. And the king himſelf thought fit, when it was too late, to expreſs at leaſt the ſame concern they did, and to concur in the ſame ſentiments; as appears from his ſpeech to them not long after, in which he opens his heart freely to them, and tells them he was, 'reſolved to ſave Flanders, either by a war or a peace, as the greateſt FOREIGN INTEREST of this nation.'

The nature and importance of a good barrier to the Netherlands, will be beſt judged of from the barrier treaty itſelf, of which at preſent we ſhould by no means loſe ſight.

The BARRIER TREATY between her majeſty queen Anne and the States-General.

Her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, having conſidered how much it concerns the quiet and ſecurity of their kingdoms and ſtates, and the public tranquillity, to maintain and to ſecure on one ſide the ſucceſſion to the CROWN OF GREAT-BRITAIN, in ſuch manner as it is now eſtabliſhed by the laws of the kingdom; and, on the other ſide, that the ſaid States-General of the United Provinces ſhould have a ſtrong and SUFFICIENT BARRIER * againſt France and others, who would ſurprize or attack them: and her majeſty and the ſaid States-General, apprehending, with juſt reaſon, the troubles and miſchiefs which might happen, with reſpect to this ſucceſſion, if at any time there ſhould be any perſon or any power who ſhould call it in queſtion; and, if the countries and ſtates of the ſaid lords the States-General, were not ſecured by ſuch a barrier: † for theſe ſaid reaſons, her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain, though in the vigour of her age, and enjoying perfect health (which God preſerve to her many

* [Againſt France and others.] Theſe words [and others] ought not, it was ſaid, by thoſe who did not like it, to have been added in the treaty, the deſign of the treaty being to ſecure the barrier of the States againſt France only. That the firſt and chief deſign of a treaty for the barrier, was to ſecure it againſt France, I readily allow becauſe the firſt and chief danger is from thence; but if it is the intereſt of England that it ſhould be ſecured at all, it is certainly the intereſt of England that it ſhould be ſecured againſt others as well as France. If the barrier be loſt for want of ſuch ſecurity, whoever the invaders be, England as well as Holland loſes the protection it gives them againſt France; and therefore it is our intereſt, as well as theirs, that it ſhou'd be ſecured on all ſides, and expoſed to the leaſt danger poſſible.

And, ſince the States oblige themſelves to aſſiſt in maintaining the Proteſtant ſucceſſion, not only againſt France, but againſt all others that ſhall attempt to diſturb it; there is the ſame reaſon her majeſty ſhould give as full a guaranty to the States, for ſecuring their barrier againſt all that ſhall attack it. The intereſt of both is reciprocal, and therefore the engagement ought to be ſo too. Nor can any inconvenience ariſe, from making the guaranty general againſt all invaders; becauſe the obligations of mutual aſſiſtance, cannot by this treaty take place on any other occaſion, but then only, when her majeſty or the States ſhall be attacked on account of the ſucceſſion or barrier. And therefore if the barrier be not attacked, though the States be invaded in any other part, her majeſty is not engaged hereby. It will be pretended, perhaps, that there is no reaſon to apprehend any danger from any power beſides France: but firſt, that is not true; for France, by her intrigues, has formerly engaged ſome princes of the empire in a war againſt the Dutch, and may do ſo again. But if it were true that nothing was to be apprehended from any other power than France, it is neceſſary the treaty ſhould be made general, if it were only to guard againſt the mean and pitiful evaſions that crown is always ready to make uſe of to carry on her ambitious deſigns. Of which it will be ſufficient to give one memorable inſtance, which is to the preſent purpoſe. In the year 1701, when the French forces had ſeized the whole Spaniſh Low-Countries, and had by lines and forts entirely cooped up the States on that ſide; not content with this, to cut off the States from all communication with the empire, France ſent, in concert with the elector of Cologn, a great body of troops into moſt of the ſtrong towns belonging to that elector, and yet at the ſame time declared they would obſerve the peace and treaty of Ryſwick, and therefore theſe troops were called auxiliary troops of the circle of Burgundy. Where now is the difference whether the king of France attack the Dutch in his own name, or whether his troops do it under the name of any body elſe? The troops are the ſame, and the danger all one. If this treaty therefore were not made general againſt all invaders, ſuch an evaſion might defeat the intention of it even againſt France itſelf. Thus much for the reaſon of this addition; and that the reader may be further ſatisfied, he need only have recourſe to the 16th article, by which the defence of the ſucceſſion and the barrier, is left general and unlimited.

† The reaſon why theſe words [and the aboveſaid queen, &c. duly reflecting upon the advantage which France has always made uſe of, &c. for want of neceſſary and reaſonable preliminaries being well eſtabliſhed among the allies] were left out in the treaty, will appear by obſerving, that the counter-project then made was formed before the preliminary treaty in 1709, whereas this of the barrier was not made 'till after it; and therefore this clauſe was properly left out, the intention of it having been fully anſwered and complied with in the preliminary treaty, ſigned by the Queen, the Emperor, and the States.

years), out of her uſual prudence and piety, has thought fit to enter, with the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, into a particular alliance and confederacy; the principal end and only aim of which, ſhall be the public quiet and tranquillity; and to prevent, by meaſures taken in time, all the events which might one day excite new wars. With this view it is, that her Britiſh majeſty has given her full power, for agreeing upon certain articles of a treaty, additional to the treaties and alliances that ſhe already has with the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, to her ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, Charles viſcount Townſhend, baron of Lynn Regis, privy counſellor of her Britiſh majeſty, captain of her ſaid majeſty's yeomen of the guard, and her lieutenant in the county of Norfolk: and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, to the Sieurs John de Welderen, lord of Valbrugh, great bailiff of the Lower Retuwe, of the body of the nobility of the province of Guelder; Frederic baron of Reede, lord of Lier, St. Anthony and Tirſec, of the order of the nobility of the province of Holland and Weſt Friezland; Anthony Heinſius, counſellor penſionary of the province of Holland and Weſt Friezland, keeper of the great ſeal, and ſuperintendant of the fiefs of the ſame province; Cornelius Van Gheet, lord of Spanbrock, Bulokeſtein, &c. Gideon Hocuſt, canon of the church of St. Peter at Utrecht, and counſellor elect in the ſtates of the province of Utrecht; Heſſel Van Sminia, ſecretary of the chamber of accounts of the province of Friezland; Erneſt Itterſum, lord of Oſterhof, of the body of the nobility of the province of Overyſſel; and Wicher Wichers, ſenator of the city of Groninguen; all deputies to the aſſembly of the ſaid lord the States-General, on the part reſpectively, of the provinces of Guelder, Holland and Weſt Friezland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friezland, Overyſſel, and of Groninguen and Ommelands; who, by virtue of their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles.

ARTICLE I.

The treaties of peace, friendſhip, alliance, and confederacy, between her Britiſh majeſty and the States-General of the United Provinces, ſhall be approved and confirmed by the preſent treaty, and ſhall remain in their former force and vigour, as if they were inſerted in it word for word.

ARTICLE II.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England having been ſettled by an act of parliament paſſed the twelfth year of the reign of his late majeſty king William III. the title of which is, An act for the further limitation of the crown, and better ſecuring the rights and liberties of the ſubject: and lately, in the ſixth year of the reign of her preſent majeſty, this ſucceſſion having been again eſtabliſhed and confirmed by another act made for the greater ſecurity of her majeſty's perſon and government, and the ſucceſſion to the crown of Great-Britain, &c. in the line of the moſt ſerene houſe of Hanover, and in the perſon of the princeſs Sophia, and of her heirs, ſucceſſors, and deſcendants, male and female, already born or to be born. And, though no power has any right to oppoſe the laws made upon this ſubject by the crown and parliament of Great-Britain; if it ſhould happen nevertheleſs, that under any pretence, or by any cauſe whatever, any perſon, or any power or ſtate ſhould pretend to diſpute the eſtabliſhment which the parliament has made of the ſaid ſucceſſion in the moſt ſerene houſe of Hanover, to oppoſe the ſaid ſucceſſion, to aid or favour thoſe who ſhall oppoſe it, whether directly or indirectly, by open war, or by fomenting ſeditions and conſpiracies againſt her or him to whom the crown of Great-Britain ſhall deſcend according to the acts aforeſaid; the States General of the United Provinces, engage and promiſe to aſſiſt and maintain, in the ſaid ſucceſſion, her or him to whom it ſhall belong by virtue of the ſaid acts of parliament, to aid them in taking poſſeſſion, if they be not then in poſſeſſion, and to oppoſe thoſe who would diſturb them in the taking ſuch poſſeſſion of the ſaid ſucceſſion.

ARTICLE III.

Her ſaid majeſty and the States-General, in conſequence of the fifth article of the alliance concluded between the emperor, the late king of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General, the 7th of September 1701, ſhall employ all their forces to recover the reſt of the Spaniſh Low-Countries.

ARTICLE IV.

And further, they ſhall endeavour to conquer as many other towns and forts as they can, in order to their being a barrier and ſecurity to the ſaid lords the States.

ARTICLE V.

And whereas, according to the ninth article of the ſaid alliance, it is to be agreed amongſt other matters, how and in what manner the States ſhall be ſecured by means of this barrier, the queen of Great-Britain ſhall uſe her endeavours to procure, that in the treaty of peace it may be agreed, that all the Spaniſh Low-Countries, and what elſe ſhall be found neceſſary, whether of conquered or unconquered places, ſhall ſerve as a barrier to the States.

ARTICLE VI.

That to this end their high-mightineſſes ſhall have the liberty to put and keep garriſon, to change, augment, and diminiſh it as they ſhall judge proper, in the places following: namely, Newport, Furnes, with the fort of Knocke, Ypres, Menin, the town and citadel of Liſle, Tournay and it's citadel, Condé, Valenciennes, and the places which ſhall from henceforward be conquered from France. Maubeuge, Charleroy, Namur and it's citadel, Liere, Hali to fortify, the ports of Perli, Philippe, Damme, the caſtle of Gand, and Dendermonde; the fort of St. Donas being joined to the fortifications of the Sluice, and being entirely incorporated with it, ſhall remain and be yielded in property to the States. The fort of Rodenhuyſen on this ſide Gand ſhall be demoliſhed.

ARTICLE VII.

The ſaid States Generals may, in caſe of an apparent attack, or war, put as many troops as they ſhall think neceſſary in all the towns, places, and forts, in the Spaniſh Low-Countries, where the reaſon of war ſhall require it.

ARTICLE VIII.

They may likewiſe ſend into the towns, forts and places, where they ſhall have their garriſons, without any hinderance, and without paying any duties; proviſions, ammunitions, arms and artillery, materials for the fortifications, and all that ſhall be found convenient and neceſſary for the ſaid garriſons and fortifications.

ARTICLE IX.

The ſaid States-General ſhall alſo have liberty to appoint in the towns, forts, and places of their barrier, mentioned in the foregoing ſixth article, where they ſhall have their garriſons, ſuch governors and commandants, majors and other officers, as they ſhall think proper; who ſhall not be ſubject to any other orders, whatſoever they may be, or from whomſoever they may come, relating to the ſecurity and military government of the ſaid places, but only to thoſe of their high-mightineſſes (excluſively of all others); ſtill preſerving the rights and privileges, as well eccleſiaſtical as political, of king Charles the IIId.

ARTICLE X.

That beſides, the ſaid States ſhall have liberty to fortify the ſaid towns, places, and forts which belong to them, and repair the fortifications of them, in ſuch manner as they ſhall judge neceſſary, and further to do whatever ſhall be uſeful for their defence.

ARTICLE XI.

It is agreed, That the States-General ſhall have all the revenues of the towns, places, juriſdictions, and their dependencies, which they ſhall have for their barrier from France, which were not in the poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, at the time of the death of the late king Charles the IId; and beſides, a million of livres ſhall be ſettled for the payment of one hundred thouſand crowns every three months, out of the cleareſt revenues of the Spaniſh Low-Countries, which the ſaid king was then in poſſeſſion of; both which are for maintaining the garriſons of the States, and for ſupplying the fortifications, as alſo the magazines, and other neceſſary expences, in the towns and places above-mentioned. And that the ſaid revenues may be ſufficient to ſupport theſe expences, endeavours ſhall be uſed for enlarging the dependencies and juriſdictions aforeſaid, as much as poſſible; and particularly for including with the juriſdictions of Ypres, that of Caſſel, and the foreſt of Nieſſe; and with the juriſdiction of Liſle, the juriſdiction of Douay, both having been joined before the preſent war.

ARTICLE XII.

That no town, fort, place, or country of the Spaniſh Low-Countries, ſhall be granted, transferred, or given, or deſcend to the crown of France, or any one of the line of France, neither by virtue of any gift, ſale, exchange, marriage, agreement, inheritance, ſucceſſion by will, or through want of will, from no title whatſoever, nor in any other manner whatever, nor be put into the power or under the authority of the moſt Chriſtian king, or any of the line of France.

ARTICLE XIII.

And whereas the ſaid States-General, in conſequence of the ninth article of the ſaid alliance, are to make a convention or treaty with king Charles the IIId, for putting the States in a condition of ſafety, by means of the ſaid barrier, the queen of Great-Britain will do what depends upon her, that all the foregoing particulars, relating to the barrier of the States, may be inſerted in the aforeſaid treaty or convention; and that her ſaid majeſty will continue her good offices, 'till the above-mentioned convention between the States and the ſaid king Charles the IIId, be concluded, agreeable to what is before-mentioned, and that her majeſty will be guarantee of the ſaid treaty or convention.

ARTICLE XIV.

And, that the ſaid States may enjoy from hence forward, as much as poſſible, a barrier for the Spaniſh Low Countries, they ſhall be permitted to put their garriſons in the towns already taken, and which may hereafter be ſo, before the peace be concluded and ratified. And, in the mean time, the ſaid king Charles the IIId, ſhall not be allowed to enter into poſſeſſion of the ſaid Spaniſh Low-Countries, neither entirely

nor

nor in part; and during that time the queen ſhall aſſiſt their high-mightineſſes to maintain them in the enjoyment of the revenues, and to find the million of livres a year above-mentioned.

ARTICLE XV.

And whereas their high-mightineſſes have ſtipulated by the treaty of Munſter, in the fourteenth artiele, That the river Sehelde, as alſo the canal of Sas, Swyn, and other mouths of the ſea bordering thereupon, ſhould be kept ſhut on the ſide of the States.

And in the fifteenth artiele, That the ſhips and commodities going in and coming out of the harbours of Flanders, ſhall be and remain charged with all ſueh impoſts and other duties, as are raiſed upon commodities going and coming along the Sehelde, and the other canals above-mentioned:

The queen of Great-Britain promiſes and engages, That their high-mightineſſes ſhall never be diſturbed in their right and poſſeſſion, in that reſpect, neither directly nor indirectly; as alſo that the commerce ſhall not, in prejudiee of the ſaid treaty, be made more eaſy by the ſea ports, than by the rivers, eanals, and mouth of the ſea, on the ſides of the States of the United Provinces, neither directly or indirectly:

And whereas by the 16th and 17th artieles of the ſame treaty of Munſter, his majeſty the king of Spain, is obliged to treat the ſubjects of their high-mightineſſes as favourably as the ſubjects of Great Britain and the Hanſe-Towns, who were then the people the moſt favourably treated; her Britannic majeſty and their high mightineſſes promiſe likewiſe, to take care that the ſubjects of Great-Britain, and of their high-mightineſſes, ſhall be treated in the Spaniſh Low-Countries, as well as in all Spain, the kingdoms and ſtates belonging to it, equally, and as well the one as the other, as favourably as the people the moſt favoured.

ARTICLE XVI.

The ſaid Queen and States-General oblige themſelves to furniſh, by ſea and land, the ſuccours and aſſiſtance neceſſary to maintain, by force, her ſaid majeſty in the quiet poſſeſſion of her kingdoms, and the moſt ſerene houſe of Hanover in the ſaid ſueceſſion, in the manner it is ſettled by the acts of parliament before-mentioned, and to maintain the ſaid States-General in the poſſeſſion of the ſaid barrier.

ARTICLE XVII.

After the ratification of this treaty, a partieular convention ſhall be made of the conditions by whieh the ſaid queen, and the ſaid lord the States-General, will engage themſelves to furniſh the ſuccours which ſhall be thought neceſſary, as well by ſea as by land.

ARTICLE XVIII.

If her Britiſh majeſty, or the States-General of the United Provinces, be attacked by any body whatſoever, by reaſon of this convention, they ſhall mutually aſſiſt one another with all their forces, and beeome guarantees of the execution of the ſaid convention.

ARTICLE XIX.

There ſhall be invited and admitted into the preſent treaty, as ſoon as poſſible, all the kings, princes, and ſtates who ſhall be willing to enter into the ſame; partieularly his Imperial majeſty, the kings of Spain and Pruſſia, and the elector of Hanover. And her Britiſh majeſty, and the States-General of the United Provinces, and eaeh of them in particular, ſhall be permitted to require and invite thoſe whom they ſhall think fit to require and invite to enter into this treaty, and to be guarantees of it's execution.

ARTICLE XX.

And, as time has ſhewn the omiſſion whieh was made in the treaty ſigned at Ryſwick in the year 1697, between England and France, in reſpect of the right of the ſucceſſion of England, in the perſon of her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain now reigning, and that, for want of having ſettled in that treaty this indiſputable right of her majeſty, France refuſed to acknowledge her for queen of Great-Britain, after the death of the late king William the Third, of glorious memory: her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinees, do agree and engage themſelves likewiſe, not to enter into any negociation or treaty of peace with France, before the title of her majeſty to the crown of Great-Britain, as alſo the right of ſucceſſion of the moſt ſerene houſe of Hanover to the aforeſaid crown, in the manner it is ſettled and eſtabliſhed by the before-mentioned acts of parliament, be fully acknowledged as a preliminary by France, and that France has promiſed, at the ſame time, to remove out of it's dominions the perſon who pretends to be king of Great-Britain; and that no negociation nor formal diſcuſſion of the articles of the ſaid treaty of peace ſhall be entered into, but jointly, and at the ſame time, with the ſaid queen, or with her miniſters.

ARTICLE XXI.

Her Britiſh majeſty, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, ſhall ratify and confirm all that is contained in the prefent treaty, within the ſpace of four weeks, to be reckoned from the day of the ſigning. In teſtimony whereof, the under-written ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of her Britiſh majeſty, and the deputies of the lords the States-General, have ſigned this preſent treaty, and have affixed their ſeals thereunto.

At the Hague, the 29th of October, in the year 1709.

(L. S.) Townſhend. (L. S.) J. V. Welderen,
(L. S.) J. B. Van Reede,
(L. S.) A. Heinſius,
(L. S.) G. Hocuſt,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Itterſum,
(L. S.) W. Wiehers.

The ſeparate article.

As in the preliminary articles ſigned here at the Hague the 28th of May, 1709, by the plenipotentiares of his Imperial majeſty, of her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain, and of the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, it is ſtipulated, amongſt other things, that the lords the States-General ſhall have, with intire property and ſovereignty, the Upper Quarter of Guelder, according to the 52d artiele of the treaty of Munſter, of the year 1648; as alſo that the garrifons which are or hereafter ſhall be on the part of the lords the States-General in the town of Huy, the eitadel of Liege, and in the town of Bonne, ſhall remain there 'till it ſhall be otherwiſe agreed upon with his Imperial majeſty and the empire. And as the barrier whieh is this day agreed upon in the prineipal treaty, for the mutual guaranty between her Britiſh majeſty and the lords the States-General, cannot give to the United Provinces the ſafety for whieh it is eſtabliſhed, unleſs it be well ſecured from one end to the other, and that the eommunieation of it be well joined together; for which the Upper Quarter of Guelder, and the garriſons in the citadel of Liege, Huy, and Bonne, are abſolutely neeeſſary: experience having thrice ſhewn, that Franee having a deſign to attaek the United Provinces, has made uſe of the places above-mentioned, in order to come at them, and to penetrate into the ſaid provinces. That further, in reſpect to the equivalent for which the Upper Quarter of Guelder is to be yielded to the United Provinees, aeeording to the 52d artiele of the treaty of Munſter above-mentioned, his majeſty king Charles III. will be mueh more gratified and advantaged in other places, than that equivalent can avail. So that, to the end the lords the States-General may have the Upper Quarter of Guelder, with intire property and ſovereignty, and that the ſaid Upper Quarter of Guelder may be yielded in this manner to the ſaid lords the States General, in the convention or the treaty that they are to make with his majeſty king Charles III. aecording to the 13th artiele of the treaty concluded this day; as alſo that their garriſons in the citadel of Liege, in that of Huy, and in Bonne, may remain there, until it be otherwiſe agreed upon with his Imperial majeſty and the empire. Her majeſty the queen of Great-Britain engages herſelf, and promiſes by this ſeparate article, which ſhall have the ſame force as if it was inſerted in the principal treaty, to make the ſame efforts for all this as ſhe has engaged herſelf to make, for their obtaining the barrier in the Spaniſh Low-Countries. In teſtimony whereof, the under written ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of her Britiſh majeſty, and deputies of the lords the States-General, have ſigned the preſent ſeparate article, and have affixed their ſeals thereunto.

At the Hague the 29th of Octobcr, 1709.

(L. S.) Townſhend. (L. S.) J. V. Welderen,
(L. S.) J. B. Van Reedc,
(L. S.) A. Heinſius,
(L. S.) G. Hocuſt,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Itterſum,
(L. S.) W. Wichers.

The ſecond ſeparate article.

As the lords the States General have repreſented, that in Flanders the limits between Spaniſh Flanders and that of the States, are ſettled in ſuch a manner as that the land belonging to the States is extremely narrow there; ſo that, in ſome places, the territory of Spaniſh Flanders extends itſelf to the fortifications, and under the cannon of the places, towns, and forts of the States, whieh occaſions many inconvenieneies, as has been ſeen by an example a little hefore the beginning of the preſent war, when a fort was deſigned to have been built under the cannon of the Sas Van Gand, under pretenee that it was upon the territory of Spain. And as it is neceſſary for avoiding theſe and other ſorts of inconveniencies, that the land of the States upon the confines of Flanders ſhould be enlarged, and that the places, towns, and forts ſhould, by that means, be better covered; her Britiſh majeſty entering into the juſt motives of the ſaid lords the States General in this reſpect, promiſes and engages herſelf, by this ſeparate artiele, that, in the convention that the ſaid lords the States-General are to make with his majeſty king Charles III. ſhe will ſo aſſiſt them as that it may be agreed, that, by the ceſſion to the ſaid lords the States-General of the property of an extent of land neeeſſary to obviate ſuch-like and other inconveniencies, their limits in Flanders ſhall be enlarged more conveniently for their ſecurity, and thoſe of the Spaniſh Flanders removed

moved farther from their towns, places, and forts, to the end that theſe may not be ſo expoſed any more. In teſtimony whereof, the under-written ambaſſador extraordinary, and plenipotentiary of her Britiſh majeſty, and deputies of the lords the States-General, have ſigned the preſent ſeparate article, and have affixed their ſeals thereunto. At the Hague, the 29th of October, 1709.

(L. S.) Townſhend. (L. S.) J. B. Van Reede,
(L. S.) A. Heinſius,
(L. S.) G. Hocuſt,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Itterſum.

REMARKS, on this article of NETHERLANDS, ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

In the late war from 1740 to 1748, the Dutch loſt their chief barrier; and although the States-General remained neuter, and looked on with indifference, while an unnatural rebellion was carried on in this kingdom in favour of a popiſh pretender to the Britiſh crown; yet when the peace of Aix la Chapelle was concluded, Great Britain gave up the capital conqueſt of CAPE BRETON made that war from France, to the end that the States General of the United Provinces, might be put again in full and peaceable poſſeſſion, ſuch as they enjoyed before that war, of the towns of Bergen-op-Zoom, and Maeſtricht, and of all they poſſeſſed before the war in Dutch Flanders, Brabant, Holland, and elſewhere. And the towns and places in the Low Countries, the ſovereignty of which belonged to the empreſs queen of Hungary and Bohemia, wherein their High Mightineſſes have the right of garriſon, were evacuated by France to the troops of the republic at the ſame time. VIth article of the TREATY of AIX LA CHAPELLE made in the year 1748.—Thus Great-Britain expended THREESCORE MILLIONS of money, and thereby run THIRTY MILLIONS more in debt during that war, and entailed proportionable TAXES upon her trade in general, without receiving any advantage by that war, not ſo much as ſecuring to herſelf the RIGHT OF NAVIGATION TO AND FROM HER OWN COLONIES, without being SEARCHED BY THE SPANIARDS, nor ſecuring her RIGHT TO THE LOGWOOD, which were the poinrs for which we entered into that war with Spain.—In this manner have theſe kingdoms increaſed their PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, and made themſelves TRIBUTARIES TO FOREIGN CREDITORS!

In the laſt war likewiſe, the Dutch acted a part to the advantage of our enemies, by carrying on and protecting their trade for them, while they did all the injury they well could to that of Great-Britain during that war: ſo that during the two laſt great wars, we have been deprived of the alliance of the Dutch, while they have reaped the full advantage of a neutrality; and we have trebled our NATIONAL DEBTS AND TAXES ſince the peace of Utrecht, and have thereby reduced our whole commerce and navigation almoſt to a ſtate of ruin and deſtruction, unleſs we preſerve them by means of the laſt DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and now in time of peace, reduce thoſe IMMENSE TAXES with which the nation is loaded. If this eſſential point is not accompliſhed, and that too without delay, our ENGLISH COMMODITIES will continue ſo EXCESSIVELY DEAR, that foreigners will not be able to purchaſe them, while thoſe of France will be EXCESSIVELY CHEAP, in compariſon thereto, that thoſe of the latter will find their way into every nation in the world, and ours continue a drug upon our hands. By theſe means, France will gain THE DOMINION IN UNIVERSAL TRADE, though we have gained it in territory, and thus the nation muſt at length be undone. See our laſt REMARKS on our article NAVAL AFFAIRS, FLANDERS, HOLLAND, DUTIES, LABOUR.

NEUFCHATTEL and VALLENGIN COUNTIES, are bounded by the biſhopric of Baſil on the north; by the lake of Neufchattel on the eaſt; by the canton of Berne on the ſouth; and by the Franche Comté in France on the weſt; being about 40 miles long, and 20 broad, ſubject to the ſame prince, and form together one little ſtate; for they are a free independent people, though they have a prince at their head. No laws are made but by the three eſtates; no taxes raiſed, or magiſtrates appointed, but by the ſtates. The whole country is of the reformed religion, except two Roman Catholic villages. Upon the death of the dutcheſs of Nemours, ſovereign of Neufchattel, anno 1707, there were many competitors, but the ſtates made choice of the king of Pruſſia to ſucceed her, who derived his title from the houſe of Orange and Châlons. The country produces ſome good wine, but is for the moſt part a maintainous barren ſoil.

NEUTRAL ISLANDS in AMERICA. See LEEWARD ISLANDS.

NEW CASTILLE. See CASTILLE.

NEVIS,
NEW ENGLAND,
NEW JERSEY,
NEW YORK,
} See BRITISH AMERICA.

NEWFOUNDLAND, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean in America, between 55 and 61 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 47 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and ſeparated from New Britain, or Eſkimaux, by the narrow ſtraight of Belleiſle on the north, bounded by the ocean on the eaſt and ſouth, and by the bay of St. Lawrence on the weſt, lying about 40 miles north eaſt of CAPE BRETON, now belonging to Great-Britain. See AMERICA for the treaty of 1763. This iſland is of a triangular form, 350 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 200 miles in breadth at the baſe, from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt.

The ſeas adjacent to Newfoundland produce an infinite ſtore of WHITE FISH, which the Engliſh and French catch upon the banks or ſands, ſo called, overagainſt the iſland. They bring them on ſhore to cure and prepare for market, and ſo ſell them to other merchants, who come in other ſhips to buy the fiſh, and carry them to the Straights, to Spain, and Italy, as alſo to Portugal. The French are allowed by the treaty of Utrecht to cure their fiſh on ſome parts of the iſland: and by the laſt treaty of 1763, they have acceded to them the ſmall iſlands of Miquelon and St. Pierre, for the ſhelter of their Newfoundland fiſhermen, on expreſs condition that they are not to erect any fortifications at either of theſe ſmall iſlands, nor to keep above 50 men there for the police. The property and ſovereignty of the whole iſland of Newfoundland belongs to the Britiſh government.

The cod fiſhery here is very great. See our article COD FISH. The quantity of ſalmon alſo is very great here, and the fiſh large and good. Theſe fiſheries occaſion ſeveral buildings for the cure of the fiſh, and as well of dwelling-houſes as warehouſes and fiſh-houſes, on the banks of the creeks and rivers, where the fiſheries are erected; and they have their ſeveral boundaries in theſe rivers made out by ſhips and wears, for aſcertaining the property of the places reſpectively, as alſo for the more eaſy taking the fiſh.

Theſe buildings increaſing, were not the cold ſo exceſſively ſevere, and the country itſelf ſo inhoſpitable and barren, that it diſcourages the people from planting, would certainly cauſe towns or villages to be built in thoſe places, and would bring numbers of people to ſettle there, rather than go back to England every winter, and return again every ſpring; which is, beſides the hazard of the ſea, exceeding chargeable and troubleſome to the fiſhermen themſelves.

But it cannot be avoided, unleſs numbers of people reſolved to ſettle together, and to aſſiſt one another as a company, as was the caſe in the firſt planting the colonies New England and Virginia, and other places; where, 'till a ſufficient quantity of land was cured and planted, the people could not ſubſiſt themſelves without conſtant ſupplies from Europe, both of men, cattle, and proviſions.

The Britiſh fiſheries at Newfoundland is chiefly carried on by the merchants in the weſt of England, of Pool, Weymouth, Lime, Southampton, and other parts there.

N. B. Thoſe who go to the banks to fiſh, that is, to catch and cure, are called fiſh-boats, and Newfoundland ſhips; or, in the ſeamens language, Newfoundland men, or bankers: but thoſe veſſels ſent by the merchants to buy fiſh, and carry it off from thence to Spain, Italy, &c. as above-mentioned, are diſtinguiſhed by ſack-men, and the voyage is called going FOR A SACK: and when a maſter of a ſhip ſays he is bound for Newfoundland, or for the banks, 'tis cuſtomary to aſk him, What, do you go to fiſh, or go for a ſack? that is to ſay, to catch fiſh, or to buy.

REMARKS ſince the laſt War, and Treaty of Peace of 1763.

In the late petition of the merchants and traders concerned in the Britiſh Newfoundland trade, to the honourable the houſe of commons, it was repreſented that there were employed in the fiſheries 1500 fiſhing boats, which remain at Newfoundland, above 150 banking veſſels of the larger ſize for catching the fiſh, and 300 ſail of other mercantile ſhipping generally employed, in carrying the fiſh and the oil produced therefrom to foreign markets and to the Britiſh plantations, and in bringing home the returns from thence, either in the produce of foreign countries, or of that of our American colonies, or directly carrying the produce of our plantations, purſuant to acts of parliament made to tolerate the ſame directly to foreign markets.—That theſe ſeveral branches of trade connectively conſidered, did not employ fewer than 20,000 of his majeſty's ſubjects in every office relative to this capital fiſhery.—That ſo wiſely had the legiſlature regulated this branch of the Britiſh navigation, as to render it a conſtant nurſery for the increaſe of ſeamen, the ſame breeding at leaſt between 5 and 6000 freſh ſeamen annually. For that by the acts of parliament made in the 10th and 11th years of the reign of king William III. it is enacted, That maſters of ſhips bound to Newfoundland, ſhall carry at leaſt one freſh landman in five; in bye fiſhing boats and veſſels, the maſters ſhall carry at leaſt two freſh men in ſix; that is, one who has never been at ſea before, and one who has made no more than one voyage: and the ſaid maſters of ſhips and fiſhing veſſels are obliged to make oath thereof accordingly before the collector of the port, who is to give them a certificate of their compliance with the ſaid acts of

parliament; which ſhew how conſiderable a maritime nurſery for Britiſh ſeamen theſe fiſheries have proved to theſe kingdoms.—That upon the whole, there was not fewer than 16,000 perſons employed in the catching, the curing, the ſorting, and packing of the fiſh, in ſuch a merchantable manner as to preſerve the credit and reputation of this fiſhery throughout Europe and America; and that the ſaid 16,000 perſons by means hereof, became thorough bred ſeamen; and that the ſhipping employed as bankers, or the larger ſized fiſhing veſſels on the banks of Newfoundland, together with the ſhipping alſo employed in carrying the fiſh and oil to market, and bringing the returns, do not employ leſs than 4000 ſeamen more.—That the Britiſh merchants and traders, who provide ſo large a number of fiſhing veſſels, and other ſhipping, to tranſport the fiſh to the Streights and Italy, Spain and Portugal, and to the Britiſh plantations in general, and who are at the expence of maintaining ſo many thouſand of his majeſty's ſubjects, erecting ſtages, flukes, wharfs, warehouſes, and dwelling houſes for the reſidence of the inhabitants on the iſland, who purchaſe all manner of utenſils, and ſalt for curing the fiſh, and hire artiſts experienced in the beſt methods of curing, ſorting and packing them to the beſt advantage, muſt neceſſarily occaſion a conſiderable capital ſtock to be engaged in this trade at Newfoundland.—That this commerce gave daily bread to a large body of the inhabitants in, or neighbouring upon the chief towns in the weſt of England, from whence this trade is principally carried on: as ſhip-carpenters, ſmiths, ſail and canvas-makers, caulkers, block-makers, rope-makers, line and twine-makers, net-makers, tunnel-makers, pump-makers, compaſs-makers, baſket-makers, fiſh-hook-makers, butchers, brewers, bakers, ironmongers and nailors, ſhoemakers, hatters, and all concerned in the clothing way, both in linen, woollen, and hoſiery, and numerous other kinds of tradeſmen and mechanics, whoſe chief ſubſiſtence depends on the towns of Pool, Dartmouth, Topſham, Tinmouth, Briſtol, and all along the coaſts of Devonſhire and Dorſetſhire, from Southampton to the land's end; alſo in the iſlands of Guernſey and Jerſey, and the iſle of Wight, where there reſide many merchants and traders, who are intereſted in this trade.

The whole of this petition, which was ſigned by many hundreds of the merchants and traders in the weſt of England therein concerned, manifeſts the importance of this trade to the nation in general.

By the treaty of peace concluded at Paris the 10th day of February 1763, the 5th article delares, that 'the ſubjects of France ſhall have the liberty of fiſhing and drying on a part of the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, ſuch as is ſpecified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the preſent treaty (except what relates to the iſland of CAPE BRETON, as well as to the other iſlands and coaſts in the mouth and gulph of St. Lawrence;) and his Britannic majeſty conſents to leave to the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, the liberty of fiſhing in the gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that the ſubjects of France do not exerciſe the ſaid fiſhery, but at the diſtance of three leagues from all the coaſts belonging to Great-Britain, as well thoſe of the continent, as thoſe of the iſlands ſituated in the ſaid gulph of St. Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fiſhery on the coaſt of the iſland of CAPE BRETON, out of the ſaid gulph, the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall not be permitted to exerciſe the ſaid fiſhery, but at the diſtance of fifteen leagues from the coaſt of the iſland of CAPE BRETON; and the fiſhery on the coaſts of NOVA SCOTIA or ACADIA, and every where elſe out of the ſaid gulph, ſhall remain on the foot of former treaties.'

By the 6th article of the ſaid treaty, 'the king of Great-Britain cedes the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, to ſerve as a ſhelter to the French fiſhermen; and his ſaid moſt Chriſtian majeſty engages not to fortify the ſaid iſlands, to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fiſhery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.'

By the 18th article of the ſaid treaty, 'his Catholic majeſty deſiſts, as well for himſelf as for his ſucceſſors, from all pretenſions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guipuſcoans, and other his ſubjects, to the right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of the iſland of Newfoundland.'" See FISHERIES, COD FISHERY.

NEWS-PAPERS are too well known to need deſcription. They are become ſo numerous in Great-Britain, and her plantations, as to afford employment to many, to be inſtrumental in the conſumption of large quantities of paper, and tend, by the ſtamp and advertiſement-duties thereon, to the benefit of the public revenue.

REMARKS.

On the uſe of NEWS-PAPERS.

The curioſity of mankind, to know what paſſes in the world, naturally leads them to the peruſal of theſe papers; and the more authentic the accounts given, the greater reputation has ſuch news-papers. Beſides the gratifying a laudable curioſity, theſe papers frequently convey the materials of obtaining a good knowledge of men and things, even in their mere narratives of the ordinary occurrences, and thereby furniſh numbers, eſpecially among the buſy world, with conſtant topics of converſation; wherein they would often be at great loſs to bear a ſhare, were it not for theſe diaries of public intelligence: and, indeed, they frequently afford notable ſubjects for engaging amuſement, as well as exerciſe of the underſtanding; for they ſometimes contain extraordinary phænomena of nature, and ſuch occurrences that draw the attention, even of the philoſopher, ſtatefman, and divine. The political contents of theſe papers, as they reſpect the tranſactions and negociations of foreign ſtates as well as our own, are not wholly uſeleſs to thoſe who have diſcernment to make proper advantage of them, and more eſpecially ſo, when FACTS are offered to public conſideration. And that the people have a right to be informed of whatever nearly concerns the intereſt and honour of the nation, ſhould ſeem to be inferred, from the eſtabliſhment of the paper called the Gazette, which is publiſhed by authority.

Moſt nations, at preſent, turning themſelves to the advancement of their commerce and navigation, it becomes neceſſary that the people of Great-Britain ſhould be well informed of the meaſures which they ſhall, from time to time, take upon theſe occaſions, our intereſt, as a commercial ſtate, being ſo nearly, and ſo importantly concerned: for if the people of England are kept in ignorance of the progreſs which her competitors make in trade, how can they keep pace with them? How can they guard againſt the greateſt evils that may thereby attend various branches of their traffic? If the miſchief take root before they are apprized of it, it may be too late to apply to the legiſlature for requiſite encouragement to counteract their rivals, or prevent the ill effects ſpreading to a degree they might for want of timely information. The trade of the nation may be as much injured for want of this, as the wiſeſt meaſures of an able miniſter defeated for want of ſeaſonable intelligence.

The neceſſity and reaſonableneſs hereof, will hardly be doubted by any; but the queſtion is, how we are to come at ſuch preſervative information? We cannot have more convenient channels to convey ſuch intelligence through the kingdom, than news-papers; but to come at that which is authentic, and can be ſafely depended on, is more to be deſired, I am afraid, than expected. Yet the difficulty to obtain ſuch, will ſoon vaniſh, if we put in execution the proper means; on which I ſhall give my humble opinion.

The thorough knowledge of trade is no ſuch light and trivial matter, as too many are wont to think; which we conceive is ſufficiently demonſtrated throughout the courſe of this work; it requires ſome talents as well as application, to be well grounded in theſe ſtudies. And who ſhall be able to give the people of Great-Britain a juſt and right ſtate of the trade of foreign countries, but thoſe who underſtand it? Perſons who do not, are diſqualified to repreſent matters of this nature in their true view, ſo as to anſwer intereſting deſigns towards their country: the mere dead narrative of a political meaſure will not always fully convey the conſequences, detrimental to us, that may attend it. Matters of trade are greatly involved in circumſtance, and of a very complicated nature; and to repreſent them comprehenſively, they ſhould be diſplayed in every aſpect and relation; otherwiſe the omiſſion of a ſingle circumſtance may miſguide a whole nation.

Thoſe who repreſent his majeſty at foreign courts in the ſupreme capacity, are not, we are afraid, always the beſt accompliſhed to tranſmit the true ſtate of affairs of this nature to their own country. They generally move in a ſphere too diſtant from the converſe of traders, and think it beneath them, either to aſſociate with mercantile people, or think once ſeriouſly of the ſubject of commerce; which they eſteem as much below them, as they do the traders practically concerned therein.

The miniſters who bid the faireſt to communicate uſeful intelligence of this kind, are thoſe who act in the capacity of conſuls; for they generally not only act in the capacity of merchants, but likewiſe in a judicial capacity, and have daily opportunities of experiencing what advantages in trade competitors may have over us in foreign nations: and the experienced merchants, with a tolerable ſhare of letters, ſhould ſeem to be the beſt qualified to anſwer theſe deſirable national purpoſes. See our articles CONSUL and CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, and MERCHANT'S COURT, or COURT MERCHANT.

That many of theſe gentlemen are duly accompliſhed to give the nation the beſt information of this kind, if they had encouraging appointments, I know from my own experience; having held a correſpondence with ſeveral of them for theſe twenty years paſt, as I do at preſent. Nor can I but think, as before intimated in my REMARKS on the article CONSUL, that the office of conſulſhip is the beſt preparative to accompliſhment for the ambaſſador, where our commercial intereſts are to be taken care of. The ſecretaryſhip to an

ambaſſy is, at preſent, eſteemed the principal qualification of experience, requiſite as introductory to the ambaſſadorſhip. But if the ambaſſador knows nothing of trade himſelf, the ſecretary will find little of that kind in his diſpatches from whence he can derive any uſeful knowledge. We think no men ſo well qualified for an admiral or a general, as thoſe who have run through the channel of inferior offices; nor can any one make an able miniſter of ſtate, without having paſſed through all the proper requiſites to his information, and his experience in public buſineſs.

That ſome one ſhould reſide in foreign nations, who can give proper accounts of the ſtate of trade, will hardly be gainſaid by any; nor ſhould thoſe accounts be ſecreted from the people, will be affirmed, we believe, by few. How then are they to be communicated to the public? As this ſhould be done by authority, that the nation may not be miſled, nothing can be a more proper channel of conveyance than the Gazette. But when have we any thing of this nature contained therein? Whether this would not prove one of the moſt important uſes of a news paper, is ſubmitted to thoſe who may think proper to take notice of it.

The uſefulneſs of theſe vehicles of intelligence is in nothing more obvious, than by the advertiſements contained therein, which relate to general trade, and ſhipping, and other conveniencies of the public buſineſs. It is not many years ſince it was thought mean and diſreputable, in any tradeſman of worth and credit, to advertiſe the ſale of his commodities in a public news paper; but as theſe apprehenſions were founded only on cuſtom, and not on reaſon, it is become now faſhionable for very eminent tradeſmen to puhliſh their buſineſs, and the peculiar goods wherein they may deal, in the news-papers, by way of advertiſement: nor do I ſee what diſgrace there can be in this. For do not the great trading corporations apprize the public of their ſales, in the public news-papers? Do not the monied companies find it the eaſieſt, the moſt effectual, and the leaſt expenſive way to inform the proprietors of the public funds of their tranſactions by this channel? Nay, do we not, by this means, receive all our intelligence from the ſeveral great offices in the ſtate, belonging to the public revenue? Is not even ſuch intelligence as the government itſelf thinks proper to communicate to the people, done by the Gazette, a news-paper publiſhed by authority? In a word, advertiſements in theſe papers ſeem, on the general, to be of no leſs utility to the public, in the concerns of real buſineſs, to the trading and buſy world, than the common news is to the meer ſaunterer and goſſip; the former furniſhes matter of profit to ſome, the latter matter of amuſement and chit-chat to others.

Beſides theſe uſes, there is another in theſe papers, which ſhould by no means be paſſed over in ſilence. We mean the eſſays that are, from time to time, communicated to the public therein. And the articles of news ſeem to be a natural decoy to draw great numbers to the reading of thoſe ſhort diſſertations, who, perhaps, ſcarce read any thing elſe; and who, indeed, was it not for our news-writers, might happen to forget to read at all; whereby our churches might be much thinner than they are, when ſome thouſands of the people ſhould be quite ignorant of the diſcipline of their common-prayer-book. So that, in this ſenſe, our news-writers are of advantage to the cauſe of religion; and truly it muſt be acknowledged, that, for many years paſt, the public have had many excellent though conciſe lectures wrote to them in news-papers upon the ſubject of moral virtue, religion, and the conduct of life in every capacity. And numbers are induced, over their coffee, to throw their eyes, for a few minutes, on a ſhort eſſay, wrote with wit and vivacity, who ſcarce read any thing elſe in the twelve-month. We need not intimate the advantages that the public in general has received from our eſſay-writers in this ſhape; the mere mention of the Tatler, Guardian, Spectators, and numerous other very judicious and excellent performances ſince, ſufficiently prove it.

Nor have we derived leſs benefit, in the general, from occaſional writings in this mode, upon government and the adminiſtration of public affairs. The Freeholder, Cato's Letters, and many other admirable pieces, in defence of liberty and public virtue, leave this no matter of doubt. The privilege of writing and ſpeaking his ſentiment, on matters of religion and the affairs of government, is eſteemed by the Briton the great palladium of liberty, although that glorious privilege may be ſometimes ſhamefully abuſed, and proſtituted to the moſt ignominious purpoſes. This is only the abuſe of the moſt invaluable right, and the law is open to puniſh libellous offenders when they merit it; and this, together with the privilege of the preſs, being allowed to antagoniſts, are the only antidotes that can ever be adminiſtered to check the poiſon, conſiſtent with the enjoyment of public liberty; for when once any adminiſtration in this kingdom, endeavours to ſuppreſs by violence, what they cannot do by law, there is an end of all our liberties, and we may as well be governed by French arrêts, edicts, and lettres de cachet, and the inquiſition, as by ſuch miniſterial tyranny, which ſtrikes at the root of all that is dear to us.

Of the Abuſes of NEWS-PAPERS, with reſpect to public affairs.

It is not to be admired that in the ordinary way of collecting news, there ſhould be frequently committed ſome miſtakes, from miſinformation; and what of this kind is perſonal and injurious to any man's reputation, is puniſhable by law; and the expence, as it ought, falls upon the proprietors of the paper, unleſs the printer is circumſpect enough to be indemnified for the defamation he is induced to publiſh: but nothing tends more to the ruin of a paper, than it's being the vehicle of ſcandal.

The forging of falſe news, in relation to public affairs, by fictitious paragraphs of news formed abroad, and tranſlated from the foreign papers, or by pretended accounts of things tranſmitted in private letters, and put into our news-papers, is another abuſe of a very enormous nature; for if this political lying be practiſed to make the people believe, that our foreign affairs are in a better ſituation than they really are; this public deceit can have no good conſequences, but may prove highly detrimental; becauſe it may poſſibly miſguide ſome of our repreſentatives, who might be inſtrumental, by their counſel in parliament, or otherwiſe, to ſet our affairs with other nations to rights, when they happen not to be ſo. But while they are kept in the dark by deluſion, and amuſed from day to day, and year to year, with ſuch accounts from foreign courts, which the event proves to be groſsly fallacious, theſe mean temporary expedients can only more and more embarraſs the nation, inſtead of extricate it from any difficulties under which it may labour.

We would not be underſtood to ſuggeſt that it is always neceſſary, the public ſhould know the great arcana of ſtate; this might be attended with ſtill greater evils than deluding the people with lies and forgeries; for ſuch openneſs of conduct might, and certainly often would, give other nations an opportunity to defeat the beſt laid deſigns for the honour and intereſt of the kingdom. Wherefore, at critical conjunctures, it may be more for the public intereſt, to let the people know nothing, than to be amuſed and deceived by falſe appearances. For in this nation, where the proprietors of our public funds poſſeſs ſo large a ſhare of the national wealth, the ſtocks are, at certain times, ſuddenly affected with almoſt every puff of news; and if they are raiſed by artifice, this proves injurious to all but thoſe who are in the ſecret, who make their advantage by the deluſion of the reſt. See the articles STOCK-JOBBING, and BUBBLES, and ACTIONS. However, making things better than they are, is not ſo detrimental to the public, as making them worſe than they really are. For,

If, by the artifices of malevolent men, ſuch news ſhall be coined, and pretended to be authentically tranſmitted to them from foreign courts, as may diſtract our affairs, and occaſion the nation to loſe all our weight at foreign courts; if this ſhould be the caſe at any extraordinary criſis of the public affairs, ſuch conduct, practiſed by men of weight and influence with the people, may be attended with very dangerous conſequences; it may clog and impede our negociations, augment the public expence, and give other nations advantages over us, that may prove highly derogatory to the honour, and unſpeakably detrimental to the commerce and navigation of the kingdom.

That the public intereſts have, on certain occaſions, greatly ſuffered by ſuch like practices, I am afraid there is too much reaſon to believe; and eſpecially during the period of the adminiſtration of the late right honourable Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards lord Orford. During that time no miniſter ever met with a more violent oppoſition, both from within doors and without. Whether there was ſufficient cauſe for ſuch conduct towards that gentleman, I ſhall not take upon me here to determine; certain it is, that his adverſaries have been charged extremely home with the forgery of a ſeries of FALSE NEWS, with regard to our foreign affairs, which they publiſhed in their paper called the Craftſman; and they have been charged alſo with making this FALSE NEWS the chief pretext and foundation of the greateſt part of all their political diſſertations, to inflame the paſſions of the people, and to hunt down that able miniſter.

The tract wherein the gentlemen in the oppoſition at this time, were charged with ſuch conduct in their public news-paper before-mentioned, is intitled the D'ANVERIAN HISTORY * of the affairs of Europe, for the memorable year 1731, &c. As the author takes into conſideration, the principal articles of what he calls the forged news contained in the Craftſman for a whole year together, we muſt refer the reader to the pamphlet itſelf, we not having room to do juſtice to the performance in that reſpect. However, as there is one paſſage therein, which I think is quite new, and ſeems to have a tendency as well to preſerve the liberty of the preſs, as to detect thoſe who ſhall, at any time hereafter, abuſe that invaluable privilege againſt future adminiſtrations; it may,

* If I am rightly informed, the writer of this piece was the late Mr. Lyons, the author of the Infallibility of Human Judgment, &c. The D'anverian Hiſtory was printed for J. Roberts, London, 1732.

perhaps,

perhaps, prove very acceptable to many to meet with it in this work; for it is as much every honeſt man's duty to protect and vindicate able and upright miniſters of ſtate, as to expoſe and worry down, by the power of the liberty of the preſs, thoſe who deſerve the contrary character.

The author, after charging the writers of the Craftſman with a long ſeries of falſhoods, obſerves as follows, viz.

'This is what paſſes among the greater part of the common 'people, for the ſtate of our affairs, and the tranſactions of 'the government. This is the D'anverian way of proving 'miniſters of ſtate weak and wicked! this is the uſe theſe 'good patriots have made of the liberty of the preſs! 'and thus have they put it in the utmoſt hazard of being 'loſt; for ſome thouſands of thoſe deluded people have votes 'for members of parliament, and with this account of the 'conduct and actions of the king and miniſtry, do they deſign 'to ſend them into the field of election, in order to diſtreſs 'the government, either by chuſing ſuch repreſentatives as 'may repreſent the paſſions and emotions they have worked 'the electors up to, or to inflame them into immediate tu-'mults and inſurrections; and that this cannot be prevented, 'they hope, by any way but ſuppreſſing the Craftſman, and 'conſequently all others, who ſhall write on government 'affairs.

'Thus is this eſtimable liberty of the preſs come to it's 'criſis, if not to a period; and this dangerous attack is made 'upon it by theſe treacherous patriots, who make a noiſe 'with the word Liberty, while they are tricking and betray-'ing us out of that valuable branch of it, which conduces ſo 'much to the ſecurity and defence of the reſt. For, in 'their popular news-paper, they have brought it to this, 'either they will impoſe ſuch things of their own invention 'for the tranſactions of the king and miniſtry, as may bring 'them into contempt with the people; or they will force 'them to reſtrain the liberty of the preſs, and then they have 'it done more effectually.

'And what more exquiſite joy can theſe envious patriots 'feel after ſeveral years vain attempts, than to have it in 'their power to ſay, this king, parliament, and miniſtry, 'have made ſuch an infringement on liberty; for thus do 'they make it difficult to carry on any political affairs abroad, 'or civil at home, under ſuch bold inſults and interruptions 'as they work people up to, and, indeed, boaſt they have 'worked them up to; and this is the laſt deſperate effort of 'perſons raging with diſappointed malice.'

After this the author comes to his expedient.

'But, I think, they may be yet once more diſappointed; 'for there is one remedy, or an expedient at leaſt untried, 'which may, perhaps, preſerve to us this liberty of the preſs, 'and yet prevent their miſchievous proceedings. We have 'an office called a Gazetteer, in the ſecretary of ſtate's 'office, whoſe buſineſs we expect ſhould be to tranſmit 'things of this nature to the people; and he, or one in his 'office, may be appointed, or at leaſt permitted, to obſerve 'theſe abuſes in intelligence, and take the ſame method to 'prevent the people from being impoſed on, and the go-'vernment from being miſrepreſented, as all others do, from 'noblemen down to the meaneſt mechanic, who do them-'ſelves juſtice in the ſame news-paper, in which they find 'themſelves wronged by ſhort advertiſements upon the 'facts.

'For example, we find the Craftſman of Dec. 11, 1731, 'which we laſt examined, inſinuates, by way of reproach, 'that the new works of Dunkirk were not demoliſhed: 'durſt he have had the thought of affirming ſuch a thing a 'year and a quarter after this demolition, if he knew the 'Gazetteer would have ſent either that letter of Dec. 11, '1730, or that of Feb. 26 following, and half a guinea 'with it, or whatever ſhould be the price of an advertiſe-'ment of that length, and obliged him to publiſh it: and 'let it be conſidered what effect this muſt have had on his 'long railing political letters, as well as on his falſe news: 'and here is no occaſion for one word of introduction or ar-'gument, only the bare narrative inſerted and publiſhed 'from any other diſintereſted news-paper. I ſhall here take 'the liberty to ſhew, that this is not only a proper and na-'tural way, but it is the way which muſt be taken, or 'ſomething worſe will, under another adminiſtration; that 'is, a total ſuppreſſion of any news-paper but what the 'court ſhall think proper. For, though this miniſtry have 'ſtruggled through buſineſs (not without great difficulty) in 'ſpite of theſe interruptions; having a reputation eſtabliſhed 'by many years, and a ſeries of ſucceſs, very much owing 'to the ſtedfaſtneſs and uniformity of his late and preſent 'majeſty; yet another miniſtry, who cannot at firſt have 'theſe advantages, will never venture on any material and 'doubtful affairs in difficult times, with the power in their 'avowed enemies hands of engroſſing near all the intelli-'gence; and with this D'anverian precedent, of the uſe 'which may be made of it: and miniſters of ſtate never 'want enemies, and thoſe too of the moſt turbulent and 'daring ſpirit, nor do the common people inclination, to 'hear and credit every ill thing which can be ſaid of them; 'the miſchief is therefore arrived to that height and danger, 'that a remedy muſt be ſpeedily had, and that the methods 'hitherto taken are none we ſhall ſoon ſee.

'1. The proſecuting the offender, as Mr. Francklin, the 'printer of the Craftſman, lately was, brings no remedy 'nor removal of the grievance, rather increaſes it, as ap-'pears by his printing more in number, after his trial, than 'a little before; for his paper has got the aſcendency of at-'tention, and he ſecurely perſiſts in it, that he is unjuſtly 'dealt by, as in the laſt we examined of Dec. 11, where he 'juſtifies his news, and complains to the people, that he is 'prohibited from giving them ſuch foreign intelligence as he 'conceives they ought to have; and if he had not ſome 'thouſands who credit this, ſo many thouſands of his journal 'would not continue to be ſold. Therefore, to make ſuch 'proſecution have it's due effect, the generality of the people 'are to be convinced that the indictment is juſt; that is, 'that ſuch libel is falſe, malicious, and ſcandalous, the falſity 'muſt appear to them; but whilſt he commands very near 'all the intelligence they have, how can they ſee the falſity? 'And out of theſe deceived people the jury is choſen. But 'if, in May laſt, after it had been perceived that he had ſe-'veral weeks omitted to inſert the treaty of Vienna, (for I 'would have given him ſome time, on purpoſe to have ex-'poſed him the more) the heads of it had been publiſhed for 'him in his own paper; where he would have found vin-'dicators of this Hague letter, for which he was proſecuted, 'and the other vile accounts of things, which then would 'have appeared to be falſe in fact, though he continued to 'juſtify it by them? Whereas, for want of this, nine tenths 'of the people do not know to this day, but that he was 'proſecuted only for ſome bold and indecent reflections and 'freedoms, taken with the king and miniſtry, on certain ne-'gociations and treaties, little imagining that it was for 'FORGING and INVENTING treaties and negociations.

'2. Theſe proſecutions do not put a ſtop to their proceed-'ings. Miſt and Wolf, the preſent principal proprietors of 'Fog's journal, are fled their country; yet their journal is 'ſtill carried on, and as virulently as ever, and it's gain is 'rather outdone than rivalled by the proſecution, than inter-'rupted or reduced by any Craftſman, of the proprietors: 'it may now, indeed, bring in not above four or five hun-'dred pounds a year, inſtead of eighteen hundred, or more, 'which it once did: but it is a ſcandal-ſhop, ready to re-'ceive and vend ſedition in, and will never be laid down 'while there is an enemy to the Britiſh conſtitution capable 'of writing ſcandal in Engliſh; and ſuch a comfortable 'livelihood is produced by it, though the preſent proprietors 'and writers may die, or be removed. So that we have at 'preſent theſe two principal weekly papers (for there are 'others of leſſer note who find a gain in it) whoſe profeſſed 'courſe, and openly avowed intention, is to bring the go-'vernment into contempt; and what uſe any foreign nation, 'whoſe intereſt and deſign it is to be our enemies, and em-'barraſs our affairs, by dividing us among ourſelves, may 'make of them, I have already obſerved, page 67.

'3. The taking them up by the meſſengers, and binding 'them over for three terms, has contributed more than any 'other thing to make the paper popular, and increaſe it's 'gain; and this coſts them, at moſt, but four guineas: and 'this piece of journal-craft has been often practiſed, pur-'poſely; when the paper has ſeemed a little dull, and ſunk 'in number, then get ſomething wrote which may provoke 'a ſecretary of ſtate to ſend the king's meſſengers for the 'printer or publiſher, it makes a new noiſe, and revives 'again. Another piece of this art and myſtery of journal-'craft, is to procure an anſwer; if it is by ſome eminent or 'popular hand, it does excellently well for the proprietors; 'for then, perhaps, a new edition of the journal (wrote 'againſt) is printed, and as many ſold as at firſt; beſides, 'that the writer is, by this means, thrown into a thread of 'argumentation, which makes his writing eaſy, and, by the 'additional gain, more pleaſant too. Not that I would be 'underſtood that theſe anſwers and arguments have not been 'of great uſe; for ſome have been convinced by them: be-'ſides, that they are ſure to furniſh friends of the govern-'ment with proper materials for defending it; but to think 'of convincing theſe patriots out of their malice, or the 'writers and proprietors out of 1600 or 1800 l. per annum, 'is a jeſt.

'Here has been now one proſecution againſt him, I admit a 'chargeable one too, on which he is fined 100 l. and a year's 'impriſonment, which (by the way) is in the King's-Bench, 'where he has the liberty of the rules; I ſay, all this charge-'able proſecution cannot amount to above a quarter of a 'year's gain of the paper. I have no occaſion to enter into 'the progreſs of an exact calculation, except it was diſputed, 'it is ſufficient to allow, in a round computation, 10,000 'in number weekly, and three farthings per paper clear pro-'fit; but their uſual number was not leſs than 12,000, or '13,000 for a long time, even 'till ſince May 22, 1731; 'when, in a courſe of diſputation with the author of the 'Free Briton, and others, his patrons were detected in ſo 'many falſities in facts, as well in his journals as other pam-'phlets, that his paper loſt a great deal of it's credit, ſinking

'in

'in a ſhort time near 4000 in number; that is, from 13,000 'to leſs than 9000: about the time of his trial, it roſe a 'little again; but, notwithſtanding this proſecution, the 'paper is ſtill carried on in it's utmoſt malignancy, thus pro-'fitable, and thus popular, being read by no leſs than four 'hundred thouſand of the good people of Great-Britain, al-'lowing no more than 40 readers to a paper.

'4. Theſe proſecutions are no remedy for his omiſſions; 'and this miſchievous artifice ſeems hitherto to be unob-'ſerved: he has worked his readers up to an opinion, that 'his paper contains a much more perfect account of the 'ſtate of the nation, both at home and abroad, than any 'other; beſides ſcandalizing moſt with being partial and 'miniſterial papers: and this is generally credited, becauſe 'it is wrote under the patronage of gentlemen of diſtinction, 'whoſe underſtandings they cannot doubt, and whoſe for-'tunes ſet them above writing for gain; which is indeed 'true: but the people are not aware that the gentlemen 'trouble themſelves very little with putting things in form, 'though they may often furniſh materials and protection to 'the writer. But the courſe of the paper is performed by 'an hireling, who does it for gain and a livelihood; and it 'is he we mean, when we mention the ſecretary or the au-'thor: and if this author will not inſert ſome things, who 'can force him? And by what law is he puniſhable? Thus 'he thinks it not proper to tell his readers of a negociation at 'Moſcow, where the differences relating to trade are ad-'juſted, nor of the utter abolition of the Oſtend Eaſt-India 'trade,—nor of the diſcharging the Heſſian troops,—nor 'the Spaniards breaking and impriſoning their governors in 'the Weſt-Indies, for encouraging the depredations of the 'guarda coſtas,—nor of the care which has been taken to 'make Gibraltar invincible and inacceſſible, and abundance 'of ſuch things which he, as proprietor of his paper, may 'omit without breach of any law; and what remedy have 'we for this, but writing them in his own paper for him? 'But then, what would Mr. D'anvers do for ſubjects for his 'fine harangues and declamations, and what a deal of his 'excellent wit and ſatire ſhould we be deprived of?

'5. This method can be of no uſe to a weak and corrupt 'adminiſtration; for, if real evil and fooliſh things are tranſ-'acted, there is no concealing them, while the bold ſpirited 'anti miniſterial writer has his liberty of relating and com-'menting upon them, which by this means may be pre-'ſerved, and even further indulged and protected, and there 'is no fear of wanting ſuch: for bad miniſters, as well as 'good, have their oppoſers. However, for the better pre-'ſerving this liberty, the government's intelligencer may be 'reſtrained not to take up more than half a column; or, 'ſuppoſe a column at moſt, which is a twelfth part of one of 'theſe journals; and if he paid for the ſpace he occupied, 'as other advertiſers do, here can be no treſpaſs on the pro-'prietor's room for writing, nor invaſion of his property; 'and I never yet ſaw a caſe which would take up above half 'this room, nor can I perceive there would be occaſion for 'this ten times in a year: for the expectation of ſuch a 'contradiction would be almoſt a ſufficient check upon theſe 'forgers of falſe news.

'Some object to me, that they would refuſe ſuch advertiſement, 'and laugh at ſuch an offer; and really, I am of the objector's 'opinion, if it is in their power to refuſe it, and ſhould con-'tinue long ſo; any enemy of our conſtitution would laugh 'to ſee us ſo fond of liberty in the nation, and proſtitute it to 'the caprice of every angry malecontent, who ſhall attempt to 'deſtroy the government, which is the defence of it, by di-'viding us amongſt ourſelves, and againſt it, whilſt we not 'only ſtand idly by and ſee this, but encourage theſe incendi-'aries and traitors to it, by permitting them to get ſuch ample 'revenues as a thouſand or two thouſand pounds ſterling per 'ann. for doing it, and we to have neither ingenuity nor au-'thority to prevent the miſchief. This would, indeed, make 'ſuch an one laugh, but other laugh than this I can't ſee. 'Suppoſe, for example, he had been deſired to have publiſhed 'an extract of the declaration done at Seville, June 6, 1731, '(which ſee in it's proper place) and money had been ſent to 'have paid for the room it would occupy, as for an advertiſe-'ment, there is no doubt but he would have refuſed it if he 'could, for it would have confuted more than half the papers 'he wrote for two years: but in what manner would he have 'laughed at this? And in what manner, or for what reaſons, 'would he have told his readers he refuſed this?

'He would alſo moſt certainly have refuſed to publiſh a pre-'ſentment of the Craftſman and Fog's Journal, and other li-'bels, by the grand jury of Middleſex, on July 7, 1731. 'But I ſhould, nevertheleſs, think it highly neceſſary, that his 'readers, and in his own paper too, ſhould (as well as other 'articles of London news) ſee ſome ſuch extract of it as 'follows.

'Complaining of that preſumptuous and unprecedented li-'cence, which has been aſſumed by ſome ſtate-incendiaries for 'a few years paſt, of inflaming by falſe, ſeditious, and ſcan-'dalous libels, the minds of the common people with pre-'tended grievances, and alarming them with imaginary dan-'gers;—from whence ſuch miſchiefs may flow, as may be of 'pernicious conſequence to this nation and people, by fixing 'in foreign powers an opinion that we are divided among our-'ſelves, which may give grounds to extravagant demands in 'negociations on their parts, and thereby occaſion an increaſe 'or continuance of our taxes, in order to ſecure our own 'rights, and preſerve his majeſty's honour*.' See the D'an-verian Hiſtory, from whence this is quoted.

* See more reaſons for thus advertiſing, as well as examples of it, in a pamphlet by the ſame author, price 6d. entitled. Liberty and Craftſman, publiſhed in December, 1730.

The principal LAWS relating to NEWS-PAPERS and PAMPHLETS.

I. Stat. Weſtm. 1. 3 Edw. I. cap. 34. None ſhall publiſh or counterfeit any falſe news, whereby diſcord or ſlander may grow between the king and his people, or the great men of this realm. And he that ſo does, ſhall be kept in priſon, until he hath brought him forth into the court which did ſpeak the ſame.

II. Stat. 2 Rich. II. ſtat. 1. cap. 5. Of counterfeiters of falſe news of prelates, dukes, earls, barons, and other nobles and great men of the realm, and alſo of the chancellor, treaſurer, clerk of the privy-ſeal, ſteward of the king's houſes, juſtices of the one bench or of the other, and other great officers of the realm; it is defended that none contrive or tell any falſe things of prelates, lords, and others aforeſaid, whereof diſcord or ſlander might riſe within the realm; and he that doth the ſame ſhall be impriſoned, 'till he have brought him forth that did ſpeak the ſame.

III. Stat. 12 Rich. II. cap. 11. When any ſuch mentioned in the ſtatute Weſtm. 1. cap. 34. and 2 Rich. II. cap. 5. is taken and impriſoned, and cannot bring him forth that did ſpeak the ſame, he ſhall be puniſhed by the advice of the council.

By ſtat. 10 Ann. cap. 19. All papers called pamphlets, ſhall for every half ſheet pay a halfpenny; if larger than a half ſheet a penny, and if larger than a whole ſheet, and not ſix ſheets in octavo, or in a leſs page, or not exceeding twelve ſheets in quarto, or twenty ſheets in folio, 2s. ſterling for every ſheet of paper in one printed copy; and for every advertiſement in the London Gazette, or other printed paper made weekly public, one ſhilling. And they are to be ſtamped accordingly.

Offences in printing, ſelling, or expoſing to ſale, any pamphlet, &c. againſt this act, may be heard and determined by two or more juſtices within their juriſdiction. At any time within three months after the offence, upon complaint made, they may ſummon the offender and witneſs, and may examine them on oath; or for not appearing, upon proof of notice given, may proceed, though the offender doth not appear and give judgment. And, if convicted either upon view of the juſtice, or upon ſuch information, may iſſue warrants to levy the penalty of 10l. on the goods of the offender by diſtreſs and ſale, if not redeemed within ſix days: and if ſuch diſtreſs cannot be had, may commit him 'till the penalty is paid. Thoſe who are grieved may appeal to the next quarter-ſeſſions, who may examine witneſſes upon oath, and finally determine, and may then iſſue warrants to levy the penalty.

The penalty may be mitigated by the juſtices, but then the officers and informers muſt be allowed their reaſonable coſts and charges over and above the ſaid mitigation, and ſo as the mitigation muſt not be leſs than a fourth part of the fine over and above the ſaid coſt and charges.

Perſons ſued for putting the act in execution, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act and any ſpecial matter in evidence, and if he recover ſhall have treble coſts.

Printing a pamphlet above one ſheet, publiſhed within the weekly bills of mortality, and not carrying it within ſix days to the head office for ſtamping; and if printed elſewhere, and not brought to the head collector of the ſtamp duties within fourteen days, the printer and publiſher ſhall loſe the profit of the copy of ſuch pamphlet for which the duty is not paid, and ſhall forfeit 20l. with full coſts.

If the printer's or publiſher's name is not printed thereon, the penalty is likewiſe 20l.

One moiety of theſe penalties is to the crown, the other to the informer. But ſome news-writers taking advantage of the paragraph in the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. wherein for all pamphlets larger than one whole ſheet, and not exceeding twenty ſheets in folio 2s. for every ſheet of paper in one printed copy, and no more, was to be paid, contrived their news-papers ſo as they took up one whole ſheet, and one half ſheet, and no more; by which means they for many years paid only 3s. for each whole impreſſion of their news-papers. Which being taken notice of in parliament, a clauſe was inſerted in a ſtatute made 11 Geo. I. whereby all journals, mercuries, and news-papers, printed on one ſheet and half a ſheet of paper, ſhall not for the future be deemed or taken as pamphlets, to be entered and pay only 3s. for each impreſſion thereof; but there ſhall be paid for every ſheet of paper on which any journal, mercury, or other news-papers whatſoever ſhall be printed, a duty of one penny, and for every half ſheet thereof one half-penny, during the term

mentioned in the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. to be levied in the same manner, and subject to the same penalties, &c. as in the said act of 10 Ann. cap. 19. or any other act relating to those duties is contained.

Since this another act of parliament has taken place, laying an additional duty on news-papers; and yet there appears no less propensity after news than before, and the number of news-papers have increased, as well as that of advertisements in general. See ADVERTISE.

NEW SPAIN, see MEXICO.

NICARAGUA, see MEXICO.

NICOBAR ISLANDS, situate in the Indian ocean in Asia north of the island of Sumatra, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal; 300 miles west of the further peninsula of India, between 92 and 94 degrees of east longitude, and between 7 and 10 degrees of north latitude, the largest of these islands, which gives name to the rest, and lies farthest south, is 40 miles long and 15 broad. This country is almost covered with wood, and produces no corn, but they have a fruit which they boil, and serves them instead of bread; they have also cacao-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits, on which they live with the fish they take, but seem to slight flesh, though they have hogs and poultry enough, with which they supply the ships which touch here: and yet these people, as well as their neighbours of the Andeman islands, were reported to be cannibals, when the Europeans first visited them. The natives, in return for the provisions they furnish ships with, take iron, tobacco, and linen, and don't seem to have any commerce with the nations of the adjacent continent.

NIGRITIA, see AFRICA.

NITRE, or SALT-PETRE. It is probable, that the nitre of the ancients, was either the Egyptian natron, or a salt, found in the earth in a gray compact mass, or else the natural borax, or the salt which is drawn from the water of the river Nile, and many other rivers. And it may be, that all these salts are divers kinds of their nitre, but the nitre of the moderns is nothing else but salt-petre, and this is that of which we shall speak.

Nitre is an acid salt impregnated with abundance of spirits out of the air, which render it volatile; it is taken from among the stones and earth of old ruined buildings. Some of it is likewise to be found in cellars, and several other moist places, because the air doth condense it in those places, and easily unites it with the stones.

Nitre is also sometimes made by the urine of animals, falling upon stones and earths. Nay, some have thought, that all salt-petre comes from that cause, whereas we see every day, that some of it is taken out of places, where there never came any urine at all. There is also found in dry weather in hot countries natural salt-petre, against the walls and rocks in small crystals, which are separated by sweeping softly those places with a broom; this is preferable to the ordinary salt-petre for the making of gunpowder, it must be chosen neat in crystals, easily taking fire upon kindled coals.

A good and well esteemed salt-petre is imported from the East-Indies, principally for gunpowder; it is said, that the same is found in great quantities near Pegu, and that it is observed to elevate from certain barren lands in white crystals, as near one another as the grass, so that one may easily gather and purify the same, which is like to our purified salt-petre.

The great and violent flame which happens so soon as salt-petre is flung upon the coals, and the red vapours which it yields when reduced into a spirit, have caused the chemists generally to believe that this salt is inflammable, and consequently fully loaded with sulphur, because sulphur is the only principle that flames; but, if they had suspended their judgments herein, until they got more experience on this subject, they would not only have known that salt-petre is not at all inflammable in it's nature, but they would even have doubted whether or no any sulphur does enter into the natural composition of this salt; for, if salt-petre were inflammable of itself, like sulphur, it would burn where there is no sulphur, for example, in a crucible heated red-hot in a fire; but it will never flame therein, use what quantity of it you please, and let the fire be ever so great. It is true, indeed, if you throw salt-petre upon kindled coals, it makes a great flame, but this is only through the sulphureous fuliginosities of the coals, which are violently raised and rarified by the volatile nature of nitre.

As for any sulphur that is thought to be contained in salt-petre, it can't be demonstrated by any operation whatever; for the red vapours that come from it are no more inflammable than the nitre, when they are not mixed with some sulphuereous matter; and it is far from probable, that this salt contains no sulphur, if we consider it's cleanness, transparency, acidity, and cooling quality, which have no manner of affinity with the effects of sulphur, which are commonly to make a body opake, to take off acidity, and to heat.

Of the purification of salt-petre.

To purify salt-petre, is to deprive it of part of it's fixt salt, and of a little bituminous earth which it contains.

Dissolve ten or twelve pounds of salt-petre, in a sufficient quantity of water; let the dissolution settle, and filtrate it; then evaporate it in a glass or earthen vessel, to the diminution of half, or until there begins to appear a little skin upon it; then remove your vessel into a cool place, stirring it as little as may be, and leave it there 'till the morrow, you'll find crystals which you must separate from the liquor; evaporate this liquor again to a skin, and set the vessels in a cool place to get new crystals, repeat the evaporations and crystallizations, until you have drawn all your salt-petre.

Note, That in the last crystallizations, you'll have a salt altogether like unto sea salt, or sal gemme, keep it apart, it may serve to season meat with.

The first crystals are the pure salt-petre.

You may, if you please, dissolve and purify salt-petre several other times in water, observing every time what I said before, for to render it more white, and purify it from it's sea-salt.

Salt-petre purified is a great aperitive, it cools the body by fixing the humours that are in too much motion, and drives them by urine. It is given in fevers, in gonorrhœas, and many other diseases; the dose is from ten grains to a drachm in broth, or some appropriate liquor.

REMARKS.

The first purification that is given to salt-petre is this: the stones and earths that contain it are grosly powdered: they are boiled in a great deal of water, to dissolve the salt-petre: the dissolution is filtrated, and then poured upon ashes, to make a lixivium; after it hath been poured upon the ashes several times, it is evaporated and crystallized.

If instead of pouring the dissolution of salt-petre upon ashes, one is content to let it evaporate upon the fire in a cauldron or other vessel, 'till it adheres to the skimmer, which must be soaked in it, and 'till it appears in the consistence of oil of a yellowish or brown colour, it will be a greasy and thick liquor, which the artists call mother of salt-petre, or water of the sea.

The salt of the ashes which mixes with the salt-petre augments it's fixed part, for notwithstanding the salt is alkali, yet it changes nature, because it's pores have been filled by the acid of the salt petre. This nitre salt, drawn by this first purification, is called common salt-petre; the last salt taken thence must not be mixed with the first, because it is almost fixed, and not so good: if one distils the same in the manner as salt, an acid spirit will be drawn thence, which is a species of aqua regia, or a dissolvent of gold.

The earth from whence one has drawn the salt-petre being exposed to the air, and stirred from time to time, impregnates again with the same species of salt.

The long crystals which we see in salt-petre come from it's volatile part, for that which crystallizes itself last, is fixed like sea-salt, and retains the figure thereof.

The salt-petre, though never so well refined, always contains a salt like to mineral salt, or sea salt, but in less quantity.

When salt-petre is boiled a long time in water, and over a great fire, some part of the spirit evaporates, and there remains at last nothing but a salt like unto sea salt, or sal gemme, which serves to prove that salt-petre is only a sal gemme, fuller of spirits than the other.

When you would crystallize a salt, you must dissolve it in a convenient proportion of water; for if there should be too much, the salt would be weakened too much, and not able to coagulate; and if, on the contrary, there should be too little, the crystals would be confused. Therefore, to make them fair, you must take your vessel off the fire, when you perceive a little skin upon the liquor, which is a mark to shew, that there remains a little less liquor than is convenient to keep all the salt dissolved, and thus when it comes to be set in a cool place, it will not fail to fix.

Acid salts, and among them the volatile, do crystallize in much less time than others.

In purifying a great quantity of salt-petre, put it into one or more great and tinned cauldrons, and pour upon it a necessary quantity of common water to dissolve it, put fire underneath, and when the salt is melted and the liquor begins to boil, take off with a skimmer the first scum, which is called the dirt of salt-petre; continue to boil this liquor softly, 'till it has acquired more consistence; afterwards put in a little white vitriol or allum in powder to clarify it, and there will appear at the superficies a black scum, which will thicken; this must be separated by little and little with a skimmer, as exactly as possible: when the liquor is cleared of this scum, pour it boiling with great ladles or otherwise, into another high and strait vessel, which is to be covered with a piece of cloth, to preserve it's heat for some time, and hinder it's cooling too soon; and it must not be stirred in an hour and half or two hours; during which time it precipitates to the bottom of the vessel yellow dregs like lees, and the liquor becomes clear and good; which is afterwards separated from these dregs, whilst it is yet somewhat warm, pouring the same by inclination into earthen bowls or basons. These vessels are to be covered with a cloth, and the liquor is not to be stirred in a day or two, 'till the salt-petre is congealed in great, fine,

clear, white, and tranſparent cryſtals, which are ordinarily of a ſix angular form; afterwards theſe cryſtals are taken out of the bowls, and are put into a tub pierced at the bottom, where they are drained: this is the refined ſalt-petre.

Let the remaining liquor evaporate upon the fire about one half, and then let it cool, and there will be formed cryſtals not quite ſo fine as the firſt; the ſame proceeding is continued 'till all the ſalt-petre is taken away, but the laſt cryſtals, which are in a little quantity, muſt be ſet apart, becauſe they contain much fixed ſalts.

The ſame refined ſalt-petre is purified a ſecond time, not only to ſeparate from it ſome ſmall portion of filth, which, perhaps, ſticks there, but alſo to clear it of it's fixed part, then it will not ſo eaſily be ſubject to run with moiſture.

The ſalt petre muſt be choſen well refined, in long, neat, and tranſparent cryſtals, cooling the tongue when applied to it, and much flaming when thrown upon burning coals.

Salt-petre cools the body, by reaſon that being an acid it depreſſes the humours, which by their too great motion did hurt the body, and ſo precipitates them by urine; for the volatile ſalts and ſulphurs that all bodies are full of, are eaſily fixed and quieted by acids.

Of the ſpirit of nitre.

Spirit of nitre is a liquor very acid and corroſive, drawn from ſalt-petre.

Powder and mix well together two pounds of fine ſalt-petre, and ſix pounds of potter's-earth dried; put this mixture into a large retort, either of earth or glaſs luted, ſet it in a cloſe reverberatory furnace; ſet to it a great capacious baſon, or receiver, and give a very little fire to it for four or five hours, to make all the phlegm come forth, which will diſtil out drop by drop. When you perceive there will diſtil no more, throw the phlegm away that is found in the receiver, and having refitted it, lute the junctures, and increaſing the fire by little and little to the ſecond degree, there will come forth ſpirits, which will fill the receiver with white clouds; then keep the fire two hours in the ſame degree, after that increaſe it to the greateſt violence you can give it, and ſo the vapours will come red; continue the greateſt fire 'till there come no more, the operation will be ended in about fourteen hours. When the veſſels are cold, unlute the junctures, and pour your ſpirit of nitre into an earthen bottle, which you muſt ſtop with wax.

Spirit of nitre is uſed for the diſſolution of metals, it is a good aqua fortis [ſee AQUA FORTIS]; and the corroſive virtue of other waters of this nature, doth chiefly proceed from the nitre that enters into their compoſition.

REMARKS.

You might, as ſome do, mix four parts of potter's-earth with one part of nitre, when you would draw it's ſpirit; but you will ſucceed better, and with leſs difficulty, by obſerving the preceding directions; for the earth does here ſerve only as an intermedium to ſeparate the parts of this ſalt, to the end that the fire operating more eaſily upon it, may draw it's ſpirits; and therefore it is a very needleſs buſineſs, to uſe more of the earth than is neceſſary towards this effect. Beſides, this over great quantity of earth may ſerve to weaken the ſpirits, and by taking up too much room, may hinder the drawing ſuch quantity, as otherwiſe you would with the ſame retort.

The phlegm is thrown away, becauſe it only ſerves to weaken the ſpirit. The white vapours proceed from the volatile part of the ſalt-petre, and are a weaker ſort of ſpirit; but the red ones proceed from the fixed part, and are the ſtrongeſt ſpirit: for which reaſon, the fire is made ſo very violent towards the latter end. Of all ſalts, nitre is the only one that yields red vapours.

When you uſe here the beſt ſalt-petre, there remains nothing in the retort but only earth.

On boiling ſeveral times in water a good while the earth that remained after the diſtillation of the ſpirit of nitre, and after evaporating of the filtrated decoction, you will find no ſalt at bottom. But ſometimes a little vitriol, in the ſame manner as in ſeveral claycy grounds.

It has likewiſe been obſerved, that out of two pounds of purified nitre, a pound and fourteen ounces of liquor, in phlegm and ſpirit, may be drawn.

A third part of the retort, wherein the operation is performed muſt remain empty, and the receiver muſt be very large; for otherwiſe theſe ſpirits coming haſtily forth, would break all to-pieces for room to move in.

NIVERNOIS, or NEVERS, a province in France, bounded on the eaſt by Burgundy; on the ſouth by Bourbonnois; on the weſt by Berry; on the north by Gâtinois. It is pretty fertile in wine, corn, and fruit: there are alſo many woods, and mines of iron. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, three of which are navigable, namely the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne. It's extent is about 17 leagues, from north to ſouth, and about 12 from eaſt to weſt. The only place where there is any conſiderable trade is at

NEVERS, the capital city, ſituate on the river Loire, near it's confluence with the Allier and the rivulet of Nierre. This city is famous on account of the great quantities of glaſs white iron, and fine earthen ware manufactured here.

NORFOLK, in England, has Suffolk on the ſouth; Cambridgeſhire on the weſt; is waſhed by the German Ocean on the eaſt and north, and is in circumference about 140 miles. The air is of various temperatures in the ſeveral parts of it, and has a greater variety of ſoil than is, perhaps, in any other county; but even it's worſt, namely the fens, marſhlands, and ſandy heaths, are exceeding profitable.

The chief rivers of this county are the Yare, Thyrn, Waveney, Ouſe, and Bure, all abounding with fiſh, the laſt of which is noted for excellent perch. There is a great herring-fiſhery on the coaſt, which begins in September, and brings great trade and treaſure to Yarmouth: mackarel are alſo caught here in the ſpring in vaſt quantities; ſo that here are every year two great markets for herrings and mackarel.

Woollen and worſted ſtuffs, with ſtockings, are their chief manufacture; and they are in moſt places ſo diligent in nouriſhing and increaſing their ſtocks of bees, that honey in theſe parts is very plentiful. Jet and ambergreaſe are ſometimes found on it's coaſt.

NORWICH city ſtands near the conflux of the Winſher and Yare, which is navigable from hence to Yarmouth, 30 miles by water. The inhabitants are wealthy, and the city populous, having a great trade itſelf, and adds not a little to that of Yarmouth, by the vaſt cargoes of coal, wine, fiſh, oil, and all other heavy goods, which it has from thence by the Yare. It's manufactures are, generally ſpeaking, ſent to London, though they export conſiderable quantities alſo to Holland, Germany, Sweden, Norway, and other parts of the Baltic and Northern Seas. They conſiſt in great variety of worſted ſtuffs, as ſays, bays, ſerges, ſhalloons, &c. in which they carry on a vaſt trade; and are lately come to weave druggets, crapes, and other curious ſtuffs: of all which it is ſaid, this city vends to the value of no leſs than 100,000l. a year. All hands are daily employed, and even children earn their bread in this manufacture. Eight wardens of the worſted-weavers, four out of the city, and four out of the neighbouring country, are annually choſe, and ſworn to take care that there be no frauds in ſpinning, weaving, or dyeing the ſaid ſtuffs. Here is another company of woollen manufacturers, called the Ruſſia company. The weavers here employ all the country round in ſpinning yarn for them, of which they uſe many thouſand packs from other counties, even as far as Yorkſhire and Weſtmoreland. A calculation was lately made, from the number of looms then at work in this city only, that there were not leſs than 120,000 people employed, in and about the town, thoſe who ſpin the yarn included. There is a ſtocking manufacture alſo here, which has been computed at 60,000l. a year.

GREAT YARMOUTH is a large, well-built, populous town, much increaſed of late years in buildings, ſhipping, and people, and greatly ſuperior to Norwich in ſituation, traffic, and wealth; it's great commerce to France, Holland, and the North and Eaſt Seas, and, above all, it's herring-fiſhery, make it the greateſt town of trade on all the eaſt coaſt of England, except Hull; for, beſides all it's other trade, it has the whole herring fiſhery, where, including the little town of Leoſtoff, 50,000 barrels, which ſome magnify to 40,000 laſts, containing no leſs than 40,000,000 of red herrings, are generally cured in a year. Theſe are moſtly exported by the merchants of Yarmouth, the reſt by thoſe of London, to Italy, Spain, and Portugal. During the fiſhing-ſeaſon, all veſſels that come for that purpoſe from any part of England, as great numbers do from the coaſts of Kent and Suſſex, Scarborough, Whitby, &c. are allowed to catch, bring in, and ſell their fiſh, free of all toll or tax, as the freemen of Yarmouth are.

They have alſo a fiſhing-trade to the North Seas, for white-fiſh, called the North Sea cod, and a conſiderable trade to Norway and the Baltic, for deals, oak, pitch, tar, hemp, flax, canvaſs, ſail-cloth, and all manner of naval ſtores, which they conſume, for the moſt part, in their own port, where they build a great number of ſhips every year.

LYNN is ſeated at the mouth of the Ouſe, where it falls into the ſea, little after it has received ſeveral leſſer rivers, which gives it a navigation for trade into the very heart of the kingdom, almoſt as high as Northampton; by which means it commands the trade of ſeveral inland counties, which it ſupplies, eſpecially with coals and wine, this being the greateſt port of importation for thoſe articles of any place on all the eaſtern coaſt of England, from London to Berwick. In return for this, Lynn receives back all the corn which thoſe counties produce, and therefore is, next to Hull, the greateſt port for the exportation of that commodity. The merchants of Lynn have the fame of a great correſpondence, and of carrying on a conſiderable foreign trade, eſpecially to Holland, Norway, and the Baltic, and alſo to Portugal and Spain. The harbour is ſafe when ſhips are entered into it, but difficult to come at, by reaſon of the many flats and ſhoals in the paſſage.

CROMER, on the coaſt, is a pretty large town, chiefly inhabited and frequented by fiſhermen, eſpecially for lobſters, which are caught here in great quantities, and carried to Norwich, and ſometimes alſo to London.

WORSTED is remarkable for the invention and twiſting of that ſort of woollen-yarn and thread which is from this place ſo called, as cambrics and callicoes take their names from the towns where they were firſt made. Here is alſo a manufacture of worſted ſtuffs and ſtockings, both knit and wove.

ST FAITH's, a village between Norwich and Cromer, is noted for a fair of lean cattle, ſcarce to be equalled in the kingdom, they being brought hither in great droves out of the north of England and Scotland, and ſold to the Norfolk graziers.

CLAY has a harbour for ſhips, on the ſame coaſt as Cromer, and large ſalt-works, where very good ſalt is made, and ſent all over the country, and ſometimes to Holland and the Baltic.

MARHAM and WELLS are two towns on the ſame coaſt, in each of which there is a very conſiderable trade carried on with Holland for corn, which this part of the county is very full of, beſides the great trade drove hither from Holland in return.

WIMONDHAM, or WINDHAM, is a little town, whoſe inhabitants, both old and young, are generally employed in making ſpiggots and faucets, ſpindles, ſpoons, and the like ſort of wooden ware.

Peculiar laws relating to Norwich and Norwich ſtuffs.

By 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 5. in Norwich, and the county of Norfolk, there muſt be 12 wardens and 30 aſſiſtants choſe, who, within 14 days after notice thereof, muſt take an oath before the mayor faithfully to diſcharge their office. If they refuſe, or die within the year, the maſter weavers may chooſe others. Raym. 192.

Half of the wardens are to be choſen on Whitſun-Monday, by the greater part of the maſter-weavers in the city: half of the aſſiſtants on the ſame day, by the greater part of the weavers of the county.

Seven of the wardens and aſſiſtants may meet when they pleaſe, or as often as deſired by the aſſiſtants. Fourteen days before they intend to meet, the wardens of the city muſt give notice to thoſe in the county when they intend to meet, by ſetting ſuch notice upon the door of their ſealing-hall.

Two of them may ſearch in the public places for ſale, and ſeize defective yarns, and, within 20 days afterwards, bring them to a trial by jury, who may impoſe fines on the yarn not exceeding half the value, to the uſe of the poor of the trade. By laws being made and confirmed by the mayor and two juſtices of the city, and three of the county (quorum unus) muſt be publiſhed four times in a year, at four aſſemblies for trade, and may impoſe fines not exceeding 10 s. for every offence.

Any one diſturbing them, convicted by oath of one witneſs, or by his own confeſſion, before the mayor, or a juſtice of peace of the city or county, forfeits 40 s.

At their four aſſemblies for trade, they are to account before the mayor and one juſtice of the city, and two of the county, for what fines and forfeitures they have received, and what they have expended about the trade, and what remains, by the ſaid mayor and juſtices to be divided as they ſhall direct, between the poor of the trade of the city and county.

The jury muſt conſiſt of 12 artificers, half of the city, and half of the county, and muſt be empannelled by precept from the mayor or deputy; and, if any being ſummoned, refuſe to appear, forfeits 5 s. to the poor of the trade.

All ſtuffs in which there is wool, muſt be under the regulation of wardens and aſſiſtants, and muſt be brought to Weavers-Hall in Norwich, before they are expoſed to ſale; and, if found good, then ſealed; if defective, they muſt be tried by a jury, &c. who may ſet fines not exceeding half the value of the ſtuffs, for the uſe of the poor of the trade, and detain them 'till paid, and ſell them, if not paid within 40 days after trial.

They in whoſe poſſeſſion unſealed ſtuffs ſhall be found, forfeit 40 s. per piece, and the maker or ſeller 4 s. for ſelling them unſealed, to the uſe of the poor of the trade.

If wardens ſeal ſtuffs which ſhall be found defective by jury, ſuch jury may ſet fines on the wardens of 40 s. for every ſtuff, but wardens ſhall have double damages for unjuſt vexation.

Perſons convicted before the mayor, or a juſtice of the city or county, by confeſſion, or oath of two witneſſes, of counterfeiting the ſeal, or ſealing therewith, or removing the ſeal from one piece to another, forfeit 20 l. Every one muſt have his proper mark upon every piece made by him, or forfeit 3 s. per piece to the poor of the trade.

The forfeitures are to be levied by diſtreſs, &c. by warrant from the mayor or juſtice, or by action of debt, indictment, or information. All yarns and worſted muſt be reeled on a reel of a yard about, and every reel-ſtuff muſt have fourteen lees.

By ſtat. 9 Geo. I. cap. 9. it is enacted, That all manufacturers, or makers of ſtuffs made of wool, or in which there is any mixture of wool, and all makers of worſted into yarn, who are not journeymen or ſervants for hire, maſter-weavers and maſter woolcombers, and all perſons dealing or employing ſervants and journeymen in any ſuch manufactures, or having any intereſt, ſhare, or partnerſhip therein, living in Norwich, ſhall be made free, and admitted freemen of that city, on their requeſt to be made at any aſſembly of the corporation of the ſaid city, paying not exceeding 5 l. for ſuch admiſſion and freedom; and all perſons to be made free ſhall take the uſual oaths, or, being Quakers, ſhall take the ſolemn affirmation.

If any perſon (except ſervants and apprentices during their ſervice) who is any ſuch manufacturer or dealer, &c. preſume to exerciſe any of the ſaid manufactures, or be otherwiſe intereſted therein, not being made free, and being convicted thereof on a proſecution commenced within ſix months after the fact committed, he ſhall forfeit 10 l. for every calendar month he ſhall exerciſe any of the ſaid manufactures, or be concerned therein, next after the third quarterly aſſembly of the ſaid corporation, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. brought by the chamberlain, for the uſe of the mayor, ſheriffs, citizens, and commonalty of the city, in any court of record at Weſtminſter.

NORMANDY, in France. This province, or duchy, is bounded on the north by the Britiſh Channel; on the weſt by part of the ſame, and by Britanny; on the ſouth by Maine, Perche, and Beauce; and on the eaſt by the Iſle of France and Picardy: it's whole circuit being of about 240 leagues, the greateſt part of which is on the ſea-coaſt. This country abounds in paſtures, and is extremely fruitful in corn, flax, and ſeveral kinds of fruit; and has alſo mines of iron, and ſome of copper, and other metals. They have a conſiderable trade in corn, timber, coals, hay, cattle, and herbs proper for dyeing, as madder, woad, &c.

ROUEN, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the north bank of the river Seine, in which the tide flows ſo high, that ſhips of above 200 tons can come to the key here. The trade carried on in the city and diſtrict is very conſiderable and extenſive: it conſiſts in woollen and linen cloths, leather, hats, paper, and a great many other merchandizes. The woollen manufactures, which employ many thouſand workmen, are very advantageous to the province; but, as they are here chiefly ſold within the kingdom, are only ſo far profitable to the nation in general as they prevent the money being ſent abroad. But the linen manufactures of many ſorts, which are exported into Spain, are extremely ſo, becauſe the returns are generally made in caſh.

ELBEUF, a large and populous borough on the river Seine, famous for the manufactory of cloths ſet up here in 1667.

DIEPPE is a noted ſea-port on the ſhore of the Britiſh Sea, at the mouth of the river Betune. The town is reaſonably large, and inhabited by ſeafaring men, reckoned ſkilful in their profeſſion; mechanics that make curious works in ivory; and merchants who drive a conſiderable trade to foreign parts, eſpecially Newfoundland in America. The chief trade here conſiſts in herrings, with which they ſupply Paris, and the province of Normandy: they alſo fiſh for whitings, mackarel, and oyſters. There is alſo a manufactory where they make tobacco rolls, which employs daily ſome hundreds of hands.

HAVRE DE GRACE is a ſtrong ſea-port, at the mouth of the Seine, and a place of good trade, ſeveral merchants inhabiting here who trade to Newfoundland, and other places.

CAUDEBEC is a pretty well peopled town. A ſmall river runs through it, divided into ſeveral canals, on which ſtand divers mills of great uſe to the tanners and leather-dreſſers here: among other manufactures, they make here a kind of hats, which are very much eſteemed on account of their reſiſting the rain.

FESCAMP is ſituated on a little river, eight leagues from Havre, and 12 from Dieppe. Their trade conſiſts in woollen cloths, ſerges, linens, laces, hats, and tanned leather. They alſo ſend ſome ſhips to Newfoundland, and a few barks to the herring-fiſhery.

EU, on the banks of the river Breſle, has a pretty good trade, by means of their manufactures of ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs, linens, and laces.

ST. VALERY is a large ſea-port town, on the coaſt of the Britiſh Channel. They make here alſo linens and woollen ſtuffs, and ſend ſome veſſels to the herring and cod-fiſheries.

AUMALE is ſeated near the river Breſle. The ſerges made here are very much eſteemed: they make alſo a coarſe ſort of woollen ſtuff, called frocks, for the uſe of the common people.

LISIEUX is a fair and large city. Several manufactures of linnen and woollen ſtuffs afford the inhabitants a competent livelihood.

HONFLEUR, at the mouth of the Seine, has above 60 ſhips belonging to it that trade to Newfoundland and the French colonies in America. They make here alſo a great many laces.

BAYEUX is an ancient city, on the river Aure. They had ſet up here manufactures of cloths, ſerges, and ſtockings, which ſucceeded extremely well; but the high taxes the merchants were forced to pay, obliged them not only to abandon theſe manufactures, but alſo to leave the city, and to ſettle elſewhere.

CAEN is a large and well-built city, and a place of good trade, veſſels of burthen coming up to the bridge.

VIER is a neat city, on a river of the ſame name, with a conſiderable trade, conſiſting chiefly in drapery goods manufactured here: they have alſo paper-mills.

COUTANCES is a pretty large and populous city. There is here a large ſuburb, inhabited by a great number of tradeſmen, particularly tanners and dyers.

The chief trade of GRANVILLE, a good ſea port town, conſiſts in ſalt-cod, which they fiſh and cure on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and oyſters and other fiſh, which they catch on the neighbouring coaſt.

CARENTAN has ſome trade, becauſe veſſels of a pretty large ſize can come up here at high water.

CHERBURG is a ſmall port, but pretty good, admitting veſſels of 300 tons: they build here ſome merchant ſhips.

ALENÇON, on the river Sarte, in a fruitful plain, is a fair and large city, and chief place of a generality *, which is not leſs conſiderable than the two others of the ſame province, with regard both to the variety and importance of it's trade.

* Beſides the geographical diviſion of France into provinces, there is, for the better adminiſtration of the king's finances, another diviſion of the kingdom into what they call generalities, of which there are 24, according to Monſ. Furetiere, in each of which there is an office of the treaſuries of France, with a receiver-general of the finances, and an intendant of juſtice, or commiſſary.

The manufactory of the linens which are called cloth of Alençon, becauſe they are wove in that city and in it's neighbourhood, is ſtill conſiderable, though the flouriſhing condition in which it was formerly, has ſuffered great alterations by the long wars, and the want of hemp, which was either bought up for the ſea-ſervice, or which the huſbandmen ceaſe to ſow their lands with, to put corn in it's ſtead.

The brionnes, another ſort of linen very much eſteemed, though ſomewhat dear, are made at Bernay, at Liſieux, and at Brionne, from which laſt place they have got their name.

In the whole election, or diſtrict, of this laſt town, as alſo at Ponteau de Mer and Bernay, they make a great many linens of flax, which are ſold under the name of blancards.

The linens of which the warp is of hemp, and the woof of flax, and which they call cretonnes, are manufactured at Liſieux.

At Domfront, Vienentiers, and in their neighbourhood, they make none but coarſe linens, which they ſell before they are blanched; they are ſometimes called canvaſs, but improperly, the true canvaſs being much coarſer and more ordinary.

Of all thoſe linens, the fineſt, ſtrongeſt, and whiteſt are ſent to Paris; the cleareſt are deſigned for Rouen, whence they are exported to Cadiz, to be ſent from thence into Spaniſh America; and the coarſeſt are kept for the uſe of the country.

The manufactory of French point, which, in the generality of Alençon, they call velom (velin), becauſe of the velom or parchment on which it is wrought, have alſo been affected by the long wars of the reign of Lewis XIV; it is, however, ſtill kept up with ſome reputation at Alençon, and in it's neighbourhood, the magnificence, or the luxury, of the French being ſufficient to ſupport it, even in time of war; but it flouriſhes chiefly in time of peace, by the great quantity of thoſe points that is exported into foreign countries.

There is alſo a great deal of drapery and woollen ſtuffs manufactured in the generality of Alençon, as the reader will ſee in the ſeveral articles of the moſt conſiderable towns within this diviſion.

The woollen ſtuffs called a frock by the French, which ſerve for dreſſing the common people, are made at Liſieux, Bernay, Orbee, and in the villages of Fervaques and Tardonet, whence they are ſent into the provinces of Perche, Maine, and Poictou.

Beſides the wool of the country which is uſed in thoſe ſeveral manufactories, the weavers get a great deal alſo from the neighbouring provinces. They make in this generality, one year with another, 50 or 52,000 pieces of woollen ſtuffs, of which there above 15,000 marked or ſtamped every year at the fair of Guibray only.

The pins made at Laigle and at Conches, the iron, ſteel, copper, and braſs wares made in the laſt-mentioned town, the tanneries of Argenton, Vomontiers, Conches, and Verneuil, the manufactory of wooden ſhoes, the large timber, boards, and ſmall timber, conveyed to the ſea by the rivers Drac and Tonques; the fattening of fowl, of which they ſend vaſt quantities to Paris, as alſo of butter and eggs, and the ſalt-petre of the election of Argenton, are pretty conſiderable branches of the trade which is carried on in the generality of Alençon. But there are two other branches of commerce which procure greater profits ſtill to this part of Normandy; theſe are the manufactories of glaſs, and the iron-forges.

As for the manufacturing of glaſs, it is eſteemed a noble profeſſion, none but gentlemen having the liberty to keep glaſs-houſes: they may be intereſted in this manufacture without derogating from their nobility.

The chief glaſs-houſes in this generality are, that of Nonant, in the foreſt of Exmes, that of Fortiſſambert, in the foreſt of Montpinſon, and the two which have been ſet up in the little diſtrict of Thimerais.

In the two former of theſe glaſs-houſes they make cryſtal glaſs, with the ſtone called by them chambourin, and fern-glaſs: in the two laſt they make hardly any but fern-glaſs, and a few cryſtal works.

As for the forges, the moſt conſiderable are at Chanſegray, Varennes, Carouges, Rannes, Conches, and Bonneville; this laſt, though it has been ſet up only ſince the beginning of the eighteenth century, equals, if it does not ſurpaſs the old ones, with regard to the good quality of it's iron, and of the works made there.

The neighbourhood of Domfront, and the little country of Houlme, are the places where the mines abound moſt, and from which they take the greateſt quantity of mineral matter for the keeping up of thoſe forges.

We ought alſo to reckon as a pretty conſiderable branch of the commerce of this generality, the great number of horſes which they feed in the paſtures of the country of Auge, and which are ſold at the fairs of Caen and Guibray: nor ought we to omit the fattening of cattle, which is afterwards ſent to Paris, or to the markets of Seaux, Roan, Neubourg, and the other chief cities of Normandy. We ſpeak of the horſes of this province in other places.

The manufactories of the city of Alençon, are of ſtrong ſerges, $\frac{2}{3}$ of a French ell wide, of ſtamines $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell wide, of crapes of the ſame breadth; but they make not much above 100 pieces of all theſe ſtuffs together per annum. They have nevertheleſs a pretty conſiderable trade in ſmall woollen ſtuffs, as druggets, tiretaines, and ſtamines of ſeveral ſtuffs: but theſe are wove in other places, and there are marked or ſtamped above 800 of them, one year with another, at the hall or office of Alençon.

We have already mentioned the manufactory of French point; we ſhall only add here, that moſt of the women in this city work at it, beſides a great many more, who are diſperſed in the neighbouring villages: ſo that above 800 perſons are employed in that manufactory, which affords a trade of above 50,000 livres per annum. Moſt of this point is ſold at Paris, whence they ſend part of it to the chief cities of the kingdom, and into foreign countries.

The manufactory of linens, which from this city are called linens of Alençon, is ſtill pretty conſiderable there, though much leſs than it was before the Proteſtants of France were forced to leave their native country; there being a great many of them among the weavers, and among the merchants who dealt in thoſe linens. They reckon, however, that the produce of this trade amounts ſtill to above 60,000 livres yearly, and this manufactory employs above 400 workmen in the city only, beſides thoſe of the country pariſhes. Moſt of theſe linens are ſent to Paris.

The tanneries of Alençon are pretty much eſteemed; they are of the number of thoſe, whoſe leather, according to the regulations, is to be ſent to Paris.

There are three conſiderable fairs kept at Alençon: the one on Candlemas day, the ſecond the firſt Monday in Lent, and the third at Midlent. The markets are kept three times a week, namely, every Monday, Thurſday, and Saturday.

TALAISE is a ſmall town, ſituate on the little river Ante. They make here and in the adjacent villages, light woollen ſtuffs, fine linen cloths, laces, and other works, for which they have a pretty good trade, and the neighbouring lands produce plenty of corn.

ARGENTON is ſituate on the banks of the river Orne. The trade of this city conſiſts chiefly in corn, linen cloths, hats, and tanned leather.

EVREUX is ſeated in a very fruitful plain near the river Eure. It is a very ancient city. The inhabitants trade in cloth, ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs; they alſo make here linen cloth, and ſell a great deal of corn.

BEAUMONT LE ROGER, is a borough where they make woollen ſtuffs and linen cloth. This town is ſeparated only by a ſtone bridge over the Rille, from a large borough called Vielle, in which they bleach a vaſt quantity of linen.

VERNEUIL on the river Aure, trades chiefly in drapery wares, buttons, and corn.

VERNON, on the Seine, is a place of trade, which conſiſts chiefly in corn, wine, linen cloths, and woollen blankets.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE is an inland county, ſituate in the centre of the kingdom of England, and bounded on the ſouth by Buckinghamſhire, on the weſt by Warwickſhire and Oxfordſhire, on the north by Leiceſter, Rutland, and Lincolnſhire, and on the eaſt by the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, and Cambridge; and is in circumference about 120 miles.

The air is exceeding pleaſant and wholſome, and the ſoil very fruitful, both in tillage and paſturage, and abounds with ſheep and other cattle, wool, pigeons, and ſalt-petre. It's manufactures are ſerges, tammies, ſhalloons, boots, and ſhoes.

PETERBOROUGH, reckoned the leaſt city in the kingdom, ſtands on the river Nen, which is navigable to it by barges, in which they import coals, corn, &c. and export to the amount of 6000 quarters of malt in ſome years, beſides many other goods; but eſpecially of the woollen manufacture, either of cloth or ſtockings, in which the poor are conſtantly employed.

NORTHAMPTON, the county-town, ſtands at the conflux of the Nen, and another rivulet. The horſe-market here is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England, being reckoned the center of all in the kingdom, both for ſaddle and harneſs. It's moſt famous manufacture is ſhoes, of which great quantities are ſent beyond ſea; and next to that ſtockings. It is the deareſt town in England for fuel, where, 'till the river Nen be made navigable, which is now undertaken to Peterborough, no coals can come by water, and little wood grows on the land.

WELLINGBOROUGH, on the ſame river, is a large populous trading town; the greateſt trade it carries on is in corn, for which it's market is riſen on the decay of that of Higham-Ferrers. Nevertheleſs, here is alſo a manufacture of lace, ſo conſiderable, that it is ſaid to return 50 l. a week into the town, one with another, and therefore may be reckoned the ſecond town in the county.

TOWCESTER is a handſome populous town. The inhabitants here, of all ages, are employed in lace, and a manufacture of ſilk.

KETTERING is alſo a handſome town of good trade, pleaſantly ſituate by the river that runs into the Nen. Near 2000 hands are ſaid to be employed here in the manufacture of ſerges, ſhalloons, and tammies, eſpecially ſhalloons.

NORTH CAROLINA. Under the article BRITISH AMERICA, we have given a ſuccinct account of the commerce of the colonies in America belonging to theſe kingdoms; and have, among the reſt, taken notice of North Carolina; but it ſeems, from the information I have ſince received from ſome honourable perſons, well acquainted with that province, that the account I have given thereof, is imperfect, and therefore I have here taken the firſt natural opportunity that has offered, to ſupply that deficiency from the authentic materials which I have had the honour to receive for that purpoſe through the hands of the ATTORNEY GENERAL of that province.

This province, ſays my intelligence, is divided into 21 counties, all of them being large and extenſive; and they are ſettling very faſt by the outſellers of the other colonies, whoſe vicinity to the Indians in the French intereſt, rendered their ſituation very precarious and dangerous. By an accurate computation made in the year 1751, the white inhabitants then amounted to 35,000 at leaſt; but the negroes did not exceed 5000.

There are ſix principal thriving towns in it, which are rightly named and placed in our map of North America. See the MAP at the end of the firſt volume. In the northern and ſouthern parts of the province, the ſoil is different, the former being a rich mould, and the latter moſtly ſandy; which makes their produce different likewiſe. The commerce of the ſouthern diſtrict conſiſts chiefly in pitch, tar, turpentine, and lumber; and lately they have attempted to make indigo, and raiſe rice with good ſucceſs.

Their only port is Cape Fear, which is a very ſafe and ſhort navigation; and will eaſily admit veſſels of 500 tons. Upon this river are the two towns of Brunſwick and Wilmington ſituated; the firſt containing about 50, and the other about 100 houſes. In both theſe are very good wharfs, and ſafe lying for ſhipping.

Nearly in the center of the province is Newbern, the metropolis, ſituated on Neuſe river; which, being lately made the ſeat of government, is a very proſperous place, and conſiſts of 200 houſes at leaſt; their commodities are the ſame as at Cape Fear; but their navigation is not near ſo good: to remedy which, there is a propoſal now in agitation for cutting a canal, between 2 and 3 miles, in order to make a water communication with Port Beaufort, which will not only admit veſſels of very large burthen, but is ſituated ſo near to the ocean, that, in an hour's time, veſſels of any burthen may be cleared out to ſea.

The commerce of the northern diſtrict conſiſts chiefly of tobacco, beef, and pork, which they ſalt and ſend to the Weſt-Indies; alſo Indian corn, very good Engliſh grain, ſome lumber, and naval ſtores; and here likewiſe are raiſed hemp and flax, which will ſoon become a conſiderable article of their trade.

Their port, though at a good diſtance, is an excellent one, called Ocacock; but between this and them there is ſhallow water, where there are always lying convenient veſſels for lightening ſuch ſhips as draw too great a depth of water. This port ſerves for the three towns of Newbern, Bath Town, and Edenton. Bath is ſituated on Pantico river, and the neareſt to the ocean of the three; has an agreeable aſpect from the river, and has ſome good houſes in it. But the moſt beautiful ſituation of all, is that of Edenton, or Albemarle Sound. In this town the general aſſembly of the province, and courts of juſtice were formerly held; and at this time it is the great rendezvous of the Virginia merchants, who find their account in carrying on a very large trade with the northern parts of this province.

The trade of this diſtrict to England, is chiefly in the hands of ſome Liverpool merchants, who ſupply them with negroes and European goods, in exchange for their commodities. The timber is ſo plentiful and good, and there are ſo many convenient ſtreams, that the building of veſſels muſt turn to good account, and doubtleſs will be attempted by and by. Some ſamples of excellent ſilk have been ſent home from this place; but for this, as well as other profitable articles, there is wanting a public purſe, or fund, to enable particular perſons to ſupport the expence and hazards of their firſt eſſays; without which, it will be the work of after-ages to make it a particular branch of their trade.

The government of this province is conſtituted after the true model of that of England, and conſiſts of his majeſty's governor, the council, and the repreſentatives of the ſeveral counties and towns. The chief juſtice, attorney general, ſecretary, and other officers are appointed from home, and have their reſpective ſalaries out of his majeſty's royal revenue of quit-rents.

By the following liſt, we ſhall perceive how conſiderable a place of trade this is at preſent; and, from the particular kinds of produce, may be judged what it muſt ſoon be. As few years ago, it was almoſt ſcandalous to be known to be of this country. It was the jeſt and ſcorn of the other colonies, but is now a growing rival, and become an object of their envy and jealouſy.

An account of the number of ſhips and veſſels entering inwards, and clearing outwards in the ſeveral ports of North Carolina, for the years 1750 and 1751.

	1750. Inward.	1750. Outw.	1751. Inward	1751. Outw.
Brunſwick,	82	88	97	98
Beaufort, including Newbern,	65	67	76	76
Bath,	33	19	30	35
Roanoke, or Edenton,	74	79	58	77
Currituck,	2	2	2	2
	256	255	263	288

A true liſt. Ben. WHEATLEY, Naval-Officer.

REMARKS before the laſt WAR.

The attentive reader will obſerve, that, throughout the courſe of this work, after the repreſentation of the ſtate of trade, we have ſhewed the danger our colonies on the continent of America are in, from the near neighbourhood of the French, and from their encroachments upon the Britiſh rights there, and the American Indians in alliance with them: we have likewiſe ſhewed the inſecure and precarious ſtate of our iſland colonies, provided the pretenſions of the French upon St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Tobago, ſhould be complied with by the crown of Great-Britain. What we have urged upon theſe important and intereſting points, may be found under the following articles, viz. BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA or NEW FRANCE, COLONIES, FRENCH AMERICA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, PLANTATIONS. And ſtill further to evince the real political ſyſtem, that the court of France has ſteadily purſued, from the time of Monſ. Colbert to the preſent day, ſee the articles FRANCE, FLANDERS, NAVAL AFFAIRS, and alſo the article MAP.

And whether the preſent ſyſtem of the court of Spain, towards that of Great-Britain in particular, does not perfectly coincide with that of France in theſe reſpects, whereof we have treated under the ſeveral preceding heads, may be judged by conſulting the following articles, BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FLORIDA, LOGWOOD, MEXICO, MEDITERRANEAN, SPAIN, SOUTH SEA COMPANY, WEST-INDIES. And if it ſhall be found, upon due attention given to our plain and faithful repreſentations, that theſe two courts ſeem, at leaſt, to act in concert, in order to DISTRESS AND RUIN, IF IT BE IN THEIR POWER, THE WHOLE BRITISH COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION IN AMERICA, it is certainly needful that we ſhould be upon our guard, and take the alarm. Some miſtaken people may, perhaps, ſuſpect me of a deſign to plead for a war, under pretence of aſſerting the BRITISH RIGHTS. But I moſt ſolemnly proteſt a thought of that nature is ſo contrary to my intentions, and ſo foreign to my inclinations, that I heartily and ſincerely wiſh, if conſiſtent with our honour, intereſt, and ſafety, we may ever avoid one. Nor can any one, who has done me the honour (as numbers of the greateſt perſonages in this, and other kingdoms have done) to peruſe, with candour and impartiality, what I have humbly ſubmitted to the public conſideration, have the leaſt reaſon to entertain any ſuch ſuſpicion of my intentions: on the contrary, we might ſhew, not only from a variety of palpable inſtances, but from the general tenor of the work, that nothing more remote ever entered into our thoughts. We have endeavoured to ſhew the folly and infatuation of going to war, 'till every other meaſure in our power is tried to avoid one. We have ſhewed that we have never yet got any thing by wars, but a LOAD OF DEBTS AND TAXES; for the honourable

nourable redemption of which we have ever pleaded; but this cannot be done in a time of war.—It is true we have diſplayed the policy of France, in relation to their acquiſitions, and the foundation laid for the increaſe of their commerce and maritime power, in a light wherein they never before appeared in this nation. Can any one uncandidly judge this to be done with a view to quarrel with that kingdom? We have laid open their commercial policy, with intent to point out what therein may deſerve our imitation; as well as to put the nation upon it's GUARD AGAINST THE CONSEQUENCES, which muſt inevitably attend ſuch wiſe and profound meaſures as that kingdom has taken for the proſperity of their trade, and the riſe of ſuch a NAVAL POWER, as may one day make this nation tremble.

In this light the policy of the French appears to me, from entering very minutely, as occaſion offered, into their conduct, in regard to theſe capital points: and, indeed, to talk about that, or any other ſtate in general, as we have hitherto always been wont to do, is to deceive ourſelves; and, therefore, the more particular and diſtinct our knowledge is of the COMMERCIAL POLICY OF OTHER NATIONS, the leſs ſhall we be ever liable to be miſled and impoſed on in our public conduct towards them. But nothing of this kind, perhaps, could have been ſo effectually done, as in a work of this nature, and that conducted upon the plan whereupon I have endeavoured to execute it; becauſe one part of the work explains, illuſtrates, and confirms the truth of the other, though conſidered in various and different lights; than which, nothing of this kind can admit of a greater degree of probability, if not of certainty.

That we have no intention to embroil the nation, either with France or Spain, &c. the reader is deſired to turn to our articles DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, LOGWOOD, and MEXICO, and he will meet with an expedient, under the article LOGWOOD, humbly ſubmitted to conſideration, to reconcile thoſe miſunderſtandings amicably, that we have ſo many years had with the court of Spain; and time will ſhew, whether our ſuſpicions are ill-grounded. In relation alſo to France, we have only ſpoken plain truths, with great decency and moderation, and as often with great honour to the wiſdom of that kingdom, as with contempt of their inſincere conduct towards Great-Britain and other nations on certain occaſions. See our article PLANTATIONS, relative to the perfidy of France, for above this century paſt.

We have judged neceſſary to mention theſe things here, leſt what we are about further to urge againſt the conduct of the French in North America, ſhould be miſconſtrued. For what we have foreſeen for ſome years ſince, in regard to the inſecurity of our colonies on the continent of America, ſeems to draw towards the fulfilment; which appears from the following authentic ſpeech of the honourable Robert Dinwiddie, Eſq; his majeſty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of the colony of Virginia, to the general aſſembly of the ſaid colony, on the 14th of February, 1754. And, as North Carolina is a near neighbourhood to Virginia, and this is a very recent occurrence, and confirms our ſuſpicions, with reſpect to the candour and uprightneſs of French meaſures, we judge it uſeful to introduce the ſame under this head; and we ſhall give the ſpeech at large, as it has been tranſmitted to England from Virginia.

Gentlemen of the council, Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the houſe of burgeſſes.

'Nothing leſs than a very important concern, could have induced me to call you together again, after ſo ſhort a receſs; but the dignity of the crown of Great-Britain, the welfare of all the colonies on this continent, and more eſpecially of this dominion, engage me to have your advice and aſſiſtance, in an affair of the greateſt conſequence.

Major Waſhington, who was ſent by me to the commandant of the French forces on the river Ohio, being returned, informs me he found that officer at a fort they had erected on a creek running into the Ohio, and that they were then preparing all neceſſaries for building another fort on that river; that they had two hundred and twenty canoes made, and many more rough hewed to be made, in order to tranſport, early this ſpring, a great number of regular forces, not leſs than fifteen hundred men, with their Indians in friendſhip with them, down the river Ohio, in order to build many more fortreſſes on it; and that they propoſed Loggs town to be the chief place of their rendezvous.

Major Waſhington further reports, that he aſked why they had ſeized the goods of the traders, and ſent their perſons priſoners to Canada; to which the commandant anſwered, "that his orders from their general, the governor of Canada, were, not to permit any Engliſh ſubjects to trade on the waters of the Ohio, but to ſeize their goods and ſend them priſoners to Quebec." He alſo aſked the reaſon of taking Mr. Frazier's houſe from him, which he had built and lived in upwards of twelve years? He ſaid, "that man was lucky that he had made his eſcape, or he would have ſent him priſoner to Canada."

Theſe tranſactions are entirely inconſiſtent with the treaties, ſubſiſting between the two crowns, and contrary to my inſtructions from his majeſty, whereby I am directed to prevent any foreign power, ſettling or building any fortreſſes on his majeſty's lands.

Add to the aforeſaid unjuſtifiable inſults of the French, the cruel and barbarous murder, in cool blood, of a whole family in this dominion, man, wife, and five children, no longer ago than laſt month; and very lately a poor man on the ſouth branch of Patowmack, robbed of his ſon. Theſe depredations were ſaid to be done by the French Indians; but if I be rightly informed, ſome of the French ſubjects always go with the Indians on theſe incurſions, and are both privy to, and inſtigators of, their robberies and murders.

How compaſſionable muſt then be the diſtreſsful ſituation of that poor unhappy family; ſurrounded by a crowd of miſcreants, dreadfully running on to perpetrate the moſt ſavage barbarities, inexorable to the parent's intreaties, inſenſible to the cries of the tender infant, baſely determined to deſtroy, without provocation, thoſe who could not reſiſt their violence. Think you ſee the infant torn from the unavailing ſtruggles of the diſtracted mother, the daughters raviſhed before the eyes of their wretched parents; and then, with cruelty and inſult, butchered and ſcalped. Suppoſe the horrid ſcene compleated, and the whole family, man, wife, and children (as they were) murdered and ſcalped by theſe relentleſs ſavages, and then torn in pieces, and in part devoured by wild beaſts, for whom they were left a prey by their more brutal enemies.

But how muſt your indignation riſe when you extend your view to the abettors of theſe villainies! Such are the people whoſe neighbourhood you muſt now prevent, or with the moſt probable expectation think to ſee, in the boſom of your country, theſe evils, that you as yet have only the melancholy tidings of from your frontiers.

Conſider the bloody villains, thieviſhly lurking about a man's plantation, and where they dare not attack like men, baſely, like vermin, ſtealing and carrying away the helpleſs infant, that happened to wander, though but a little diſtance from his father's threſhold.

I aſſure you, gentlemen, theſe inſults on our ſovereign's protection, and barbarities on our fellow-ſubjects, make deep impreſſions upon my heart; and I doubt not, as you muſt hear them with horror and reſentment, but you will enable me, by a full and ſufficient ſupply, to exert the moſt vigorous efforts to ſecure the rights and aſſert the honour and dignity of our ſovereign; to drive away theſe cruel and treacherous invaders of your properties, and deſtroyers of your families, and thereby to gratify my warmeſt wiſhes in eſtabliſhing the ſecurity and proſperity of Virginia, on the moſt ſolid and permanent foundation.

I muſt earneſtly recommend to you his majeſty's commands, for a proper ſupply, the immediate neceſſity whereof, at this time, I deſire you will ſeriouſly conſider, and by a ready and effectual compliance, recommend yourſelves and the country to his royal favour.

This is your part, gentlemen.—What I could, before your meeting, I have done, for the public; and by the advice of the council I have arrayed ſome part of the militia, which I have ordered up to the Ohio with all poſſible expedition, to build a fort there, at the forks of Monongahela. And as his majeſty's gracious preſent of thirty pieces of cannon, eighty barrels of powder, and other ordnance ſtores ſuitable are arrived, I have ſent ten of the cannon, and a proportion of ammunition to Alexandria, to be from thence tranſported as ſoon as poſſible to the Ohio.

I have wrote to the neighbouring colonies for their aid and aſſiſtance, which I have good reaſon to expect; but I muſt obſerve to you, that their eyes are fixed on your proceedings, and I hope you will engage them, by a laudable example, to contribute ſufficiently for the common cauſe.

The late occaſion having ſuggeſted to me ſome defect in the "act for making proviſion againſt invaſions and inſurrections," I think proper to obſerve to you, that the pay is very unequally proportioned, being too high for the ſoldier, and too low for the officer; and there is no proviſion made for a doctor, a commiſſary of ſtores, and ſeveral other requiſites.—I think it would be better to pay the militia in money than tobacco, by which there may be a ſaving to the country, and the men better ſatisfied.

Gentlemen of the council, and gentlemen of the houſe of burgeſſes.

I look upon the ſafety and welfare of Virginia to depend on your counſels and determinations, at this critical juncture, which, therefore, ought to be uninterrupted by any avocations from prejudice, or unſeaſonable diviſions, at all times the bane of public conſultations, but which, at preſent, would be particularly fatal; and I doubt not, when you ſeriouſly conſider the importance of what is laid before you, you will find duty, honour, and your own preſervations, all united, to engage you to exert your efforts equal to the occaſion.

The ſeaſon for entering upon action being ſo near at hand, your ſeſſion can be but ſhort; and I deſire to conclude with an earneſt exhortation to concord and expedition, leſt if we be divided, or ſlow in deliberation, our enemies may ſeize the time we loſe, and render any future efforts ineffectual.

And

And in all meaſures for his majeſty's ſervice, and the good of this colony, you will have my ready and zealous concurrence.'

February 16, 1754.

To the honourable Robert Dinwiddie, Eſq; his majeſty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of the colony of Virginia.

The humble addreſs of the council.

SIR,

'We his majeſty's faithful and loyal ſubjects, the council of Virginia, now met in general aſſembly, beg leave to return your honour our hearty thanks, for your kind ſpeech at the opening of this ſeſſion.

We cannot forbear to expreſs our juſt indignation at the unwarrantable encroachments, and hoſtile proceedings, of the French; and, at the ſame time, to teſtify our approbation of the prudent ſteps already taken by your honour, for the defence and ſecurity of the colony.

Our ardent zeal for the ſupport of his majeſty's crown and dignity, and our tender regard for the welfare and proſperity of our country, will incline us, by a chearful concurrence with the houſe of burgeſſes, to exert our moſt vigorous efforts to ſupport and effectuate your honour's proceedings, in what we agree to be the common cauſe of all the Britiſh colonies upon the continent, and more eſpecially of this dominion: and we aſſure your honour, that in all our conſultations, we will proceed with that harmony and diſpatch that the importance of the ſubject, and advanced ſeaſon require.

We cannot conclude without our earneſt prayers, that your honour's conſtant labours may be crowned with their deſerved ſucceſs; and our warmeſt wiſhes, that our country may long continue to flouriſh under your honour's adminiſtration; from whence we may with reaſon hope to ſee her ſecurity and proſperity eſtabliſhed, on the moſt ſolid and permanent foundation.'

To which his honour was pleaſed to return the following anſwer:

Gentlemen of the council,

'I return you my ſincere thanks for your kind addreſs, and do aſſure you it gives me great pleaſure, that the ſteps I have taken in the preſent ſituation of our affairs meet with your approbation.

Your ardent zeal for his majeſty's crown and dignity, and your regard for the proſperity and welfare of our country, with your intentions of concurring with the houſe of burgeſſes, to exert the moſt vigorous efforts for ſupporting me in my proceedings againſt the enemy, call for my moſt unfeigned thanks.

And I have not the leaſt doubt of your proceeding with harmony, diſpatch, and reſolution, on the preſent emergency.—I am much obliged for your prayers for ſucceſs to my endeavours, which I aſſure you ſhall always be with a view for the welfare and proſperity of this dominion; and I hope, by our conduct, that our enemies will ſee we are not diſunited, but cloſely connected in defence of our rights and liberties.'

Virginia, ſſ.

By the Hon. Robert Dinwiddie, Eſq; his majeſty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of this dominion.

A proclamation for encouraging men to enliſt in his majeſty's ſervice, for the defence and ſecurity of this colony.

Whereas it is determined that a fort be immediately built on the river Ohio, at the fork of Monongahela, to oppoſe any further encroachments or hoſtile attempts of the French, and the Indians in their intereſt, and for the ſecurity and protection of his majeſty's ſubjects in this colony: and, as it is abſolutely neceſſary that a ſufficient force ſhould be raiſed to erect and ſupport the ſame, for an encouragement to all who ſhall voluntarily enter into the ſaid ſervice, I do hereby notify and promiſe, by and with the advice and conſent of his majeſty's council of this colony, that over and above their pay, two hundred thouſand acres of his majeſty the king of Great-Britain's lands, on the eaſt ſide of the river Ohio, within this dominion (one hundred thouſand acres whereof to be contiguous to the ſaid fort, and the other hundred thouſand acres to be on or near the river Ohio) ſhall be laid off and granted to ſuch perſons, who by their voluntary engagement, and good behaviour in the ſaid ſervice, ſhall deſerve the ſame. And I further promiſe, that the ſaid lands ſhall be divided amongſt them, immediately after the performance of the ſaid ſervice, in a proportion due to their reſpective merit, as ſhall be repreſented to me by the officers, and held and enjoyed by them, without paying any rights, and alſo free from the payment of quit rents, for the term of fifteen years. And I do appoint this proclamation to be read and publiſhed at the court houſes, churches, and chapels, in each county within this colony, and that the ſheriffs take care the ſame be done accordingly.

Given at the council chamber in Williamſburg, on the 19th day of February, in the 27th year of his majeſty's reign, anno dom. 1754.

ROBERT DINWIDDIE.

GOD ſave the KING.

That we may judge of the intended meaſures of the French in relation to our North American colonies, it is confidently ſaid, that by letters lately received from Virginia, brought over by the ſhip Seahorſe, Capt. Jump, we are informed, that the French have erected FIVE FORTS, and garriſoned them with 1500 regular troops, on the part of the Britiſh territory at the back of Virginia, which is neareſt to Quebec, contrary to treaties. It is imagined that this breach of faith will be attended with very ſerious conſequences.

REMARKS on NORTH CAROLINA ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

This work was firſt began ſoon after thet reaty of AIX LA CHAPELLE; and having pretty vigilantly attended to the conduct of the court of France from that time, towards GREAT-BRITAIN, we thought it our duty to give a faithful repreſentation thereof, from time to time, as we proceeded herein, to the end, that where our COMMERCIAL INTEREST was likely to be concerned, the nation might be duly apprized and alarmed, when that intereſt was in imminent danger. Our conduct in this reſpect, was regarded by many, and commended as becomingly zealous; others put a leſs favourable conſtruction upon it, and declared our apprehenſions of a freſh war with France, ſo ſoon as we did, after the peace in 1748, were chimerical and viſionary, and that our labours were rather of the incendiary kind than otherwiſe: all which have proved miſtakes on our cenſurers ſides; yet we have not a little ſuffered in our private affairs by our honeſt declaration of bold truths, all which the event has proved to be true, ſo far as they related to the injurious intentions of France towards our North American colonies.

I had alſo, ſo far as the ſame regarded our commercial ſpeculations for the benefit and advantage of theſe kingdoms, attended to the conduct of the court of Spain, and from thence likewiſe prejudged, that court would join France ſooner or later, after the commencement of the French war; which was condemned by ſome as a premature ſuggeſtion, though verified by the event: nay, ſo minutely had we obſerved the conduct of the Spaniſh court, that we apprehended they would revive the claim of the Guipuſcoans to a ſhare in the Newfoundland fiſheries, which came to paſs accordingly, and by the xviiith article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, his Catholic majeſty deſiſts, as well for himſelf as his ſucceſſors, from all pretenſions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guipuſcoans, and other his ſubjects, to the right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of the ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Theſe things are not intimated, to induce our readers to entertain any extraordinary opinion of our foreſight: they are noticed only to excuſe ourſelves in the eye of thoſe, who judged once unfavourably of our occaſional obſervations; and who, on that very account, have done us unſpeakable perſonal injury, for which they can never make us a compenſation were they diſpoſed ſo to do: but this we never expect. We ſtill live, and perhaps, we may preſage ſome other things, that may not be leſs diſagreeable to thoſe who regard their own intereſt, and their own ambition in preference to that of the public good and proſperity: and if events ſhould hereafter happen to turn out as we apprehend they will, we can only attribute it to our honeſt impartiality in repreſenting things as they appear to us, from the evidence of FACTS and EXPERIENCE. See our article MEXICO, FLORIDA, INDIAN AFFAIRS, and others to which from thence we refer.

NORTHUMBERLAND in England, is a maritime county bounded on the ſouth by the biſhoprick of Durham, on the north by Scotland, on the weſt by Cumberland, and part of Scotland, and on the eaſt ſide it is waſhed by the German Ocean, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The air is in general pleaſant and healthy; as for the ſoil it is various, being very fruitful on the ſea-coaſt if well manured and cultivated. The weſt parts are indeed mountainous, but afford good paſture for ſheep.

It abounds more with coal, eſpecially about Newcaſtle, than any other county in England. It is almoſt impoſſible to expreſs the vaſt trade brought into this county by the exportation of coals to all parts, inſomuch that London alone, before there was half the number of brewers and diſtillers that there is now, was ſaid to conſume 600,000 chaldrons in a year.

It's chief rivers are the Tyne and Tweed, which laſt ſo abounds with ſalmon, that the fiſhermen often take great numbers of them at one draught.

NEWCASTLE, the county town, ſtands on the north bank of the river Tyne.

By the ſale of it's coal to other parts of England, and other merchandize, it is become the great emporium of the north parts

parts of England, and a good part of Scotland, and is the faireſt and largeſt town of the north next to York. Ships of any reaſonable burthen load and unload at it's key. But the coal-ſhips generally load below, between the town and Shields, or at Shields, which is ſeven miles diſtant, the coals being carried to them in large lighters called keels, of which ſo many are employed, that the keelmen are reckoned above 6000. The town is extremely populous and very wealthy, and is ſaid to have the greateſt public revenue in it's own right, as a corporation, of any town in England, it being computed at no leſs than 8000 l. a year.

This place is famous for grind-ſtones, much better than thoſe that uſed to come from Spain, which are of too ſoft a grit, and therefore not ſo uſeful for many purpoſes. There is ſuch a demand for them, that ſcarce a ſhip ſtirs from this port without them. Beſides many glaſs-houſes, a conſiderable manufacture has been lately ſet up here, of hard ware and wrought iron, after the manner of that at Sheffield.

MORPETH, on the river Wentſbeck, has a good market on Saturday for corn, cattle, and all neceſſary proviſions; but that on Wedneſdays is the greateſt in England for live cattle, except Smithfield.

BERWICK, at the mouth of the Tweed, is the laſt town in the north of England, a county and town of itſelf, and though ſituate on the north ſide of the river, is included in Northumberland. It is a large well built populous town. Here is a noble ſalmon-fiſhery as fine as any in Britain, they being the fiſh that are carried by land on horſes to Shields, to be cured, pickled, and ſent to London, where they are cried for Newcaſtle ſalmon. Here is alſo a conſiderable manufacture of fine ſtockings. The harbour is but mean, neither is there any good riding in the offing near the bar, for the ſhore is ſteep and rocky.

NORTH SHIELDS, is a populous town at the mouth of the Tyne, chiefly inhabited by ſailors and maſters of ſhips, as ſuch port-towns generally are. The river here forms a little bay, which is a deep ſafe road for the colliers, of which 400 ſail are ſometimes lying here laden.

NORWAY, is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called Schager-Rack, or Categate, on the weſt and north by the Northern Ocean, and on the eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; but they are commonly by hiſtorians ſtiled the Dofrine Mountains.

This country lies between the 5th and 31ſt degrees of longitude eaſt of London, and between the 57th and 71 30 of north latitude, ſo that it extends about 5 degrees and a half beyond the polar circle: and the longeſt day in the moſt northern parts, is above two months. It's length, all along the coaſt, from Wardhus in the north-eaſt, to the Naze in the mouth of the Baltic, is about 1080 miles; but it's breadth is unequal, being about 180 miles in ſome places, and not near ſo much in others. It's ſituation, chiefly in the moſt northern part of the temperate zone, and partly in the frigid zone, renders the air extremely cold, and the ſoil barren. It produces little or no corn, which is imported thither from other countries to Berghen, the only town which has the privilege to diſtribute it into the reſt of the kingdom.

The moſt ſouthern parts, indeed, produce ſome wheat; but the reſt of the country is ſandy and gravelly, and has nothing but rocks, woods, and mountains; ſo that it's wealth conſiſts chiefly in the vaſt foreſts and mighty fir-trees, whoſe uſefulneſs in building, makes the merchants of England, Holland, and other nations, flock thither to purchaſe them. The earth has mines of iron, copper, and ſome ſilver, which, with pitch, tar, and fiſh, whereof great quantities are taken on the coaſt, are the commodities of this country. In the vallies they have a good breed of black cattle, and of ſmall horſes, very ſwift, and capable of fatigue.

Norway is divided into four governments, or preſectorſhips, which are thoſe of Aggerus, Berghen, Drontheim, and Wardhus; beſides that of Bahus, which is ſubject to Sweden, and the ſeveral iſlands depending on Norway.

The province of AGGERUS is the ſouth-eaſt part of Norway, and is ſituated between the province of Berghen on the weſt, from which it is ſeparated by vaſt mountains, Dalcarlia and Bahus which belong to Sweden on the eaſt, the mouth of the Baltic, called the Categate on the ſouth, and the province of Drontheim on the north. It's extent from ſouth to north is about 300 miles, and from eaſt to weſt in the ſouth part about 120; but it grows narrower northward, 'till it ends in a point. The land is mountainous and woody, but the vallies are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which paſs through the country, and fall into the Baltic: it is divided into ſix particular governments, viz. Agdeſinden, Hallingdal, Hammer, Hannemark, Rommerritkir, and Tellemack. There are ſeveral ſea-ports, particularly Fleckeſen, where the fiſhing-trade affords a pretty conſiderable income.

CHRISTIANA, the chief city of this province, ſeated at the bottom of a narrow bay, and is 30 miles diſtant from the Baltic, and about 110 from Schagen cape in Jutland, to the north. This is a place of good trade for fir-timber, pitch, &c. Great quantity of mackarel is caught here, and much pearl; of which Henricus Arnoldi, a Dane, gives the following account. Their ſhells are like thoſe of muſcles, but larger, and the fiſh like an oyſter, which produces a great cluſter of eggs, like thoſe of cray-fiſh, ſome white and ſome black. Theſe eggs when ripe are caſt out, and grow like the ſhell, from whence they came: but ſometimes it happens, that one or two of thoſe eggs ſtick faſt to the ſide of the matrix, and are voided with the reſt; which being fed by the fiſh, in time they grow into pearls of different ſizes, and imprint a mark, both in the fiſh and in the ſhell, of the ſame figure with themſelves.

FREDERICKSHALL ſtands on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Glammen, which Mr. Voltaire calls Liſtendall, which riſes in the Dofrine mountains, in the province of Drontheim, and having paſſed through that of Aggerus, falls here into the ſea, and by the conveniency thereof affords this city a pretty good trade. It is about 50 miles diſtant from the town of Aggerus towards the ſouth-eaſt, and is very well fortified and of ſuch importance, that it is reckoned the key of this kingdom.

SALTZBERG is a ſmall town on the river Drammon, which falls into the bay of Chriſtiana, from which city it is about 15 miles diſtant to the north. It has a pretty conſiderable trade from the neighbouring copper and iron mines.

SKEEN, or SCHEEN, a few miles from Tonſberg, ſtands on the Categate; both theſe towns are places of good trade, by means of the above-mentioned mines. A ſilver one was diſcovered in the neighbourhood under the reign of Chriſtian IV. but it appears it is no rich one, ſince it is not worked at preſent.

BERGHEN province, takes up the moſt ſoutherly, and almoſt the whole weſterly part of Norway, and is ſurrounded by the ſea on the ſouth, ſouth-weſt, weſt, and north.

The chief towns of trade here are as follow:

1. BERGHEN, an ancient and famous ſea-port, ſtands on a crooked bay called Jelleſiord, into which veſſels enter by a narrow ſtraight named Carmeſundt, which is bordered on each ſide with high rocks for ſeveral miles together. This town is 137 miles diſtant from Chriſtiana, to the north-weſt. The bay here is ſo deep, that veſſels of above four hundred tons can enter it, and come to load and unload before the merchants warehouſes.

The inhabitants are partly natives of this country, and partly Germans and Danes, whom the conveniency of this town for trade has drawn thither, this being the principal mart and magazine for ſeveral merchandizes; divers ſorts of fine furrs, vaſt quantities of hides, tallow, fir timber, &c. being brought hither from the neighbouring provinces, and ſhipped off to foreign parts. The inhabitants drive alſo a conſiderable trade in ſtock fiſh, which are taken on theſe coaſts and in the lakes in January, and dried in the open air.

The privileges granted by the king of Denmark to ſtrangers make them flock to this town, and import thither thoſe neceſſaries of life which the country does not produce; as wheat, rye, biſcuits, beer, wine, brandy, &c. which they exchange for the merchandizes above-mentioned. There is at Berghen a factory called the cloiſter, in which a community of merchants live, who are ſtiled monks, though they wear no particular habit, and have nothing in common with monks, except that they are not married.

STANANGER, the chief town of the diſtrict of the ſame name, ſtands in the bay called Buckenfiord, which is very ſpacious, and full of ſmall iſlands, and is 180 miles diſtant from Berghen to the ſouth, and 100 from Chriſtiana to the weſt. The harbour is very large and ſafe, and it would have a greater trade than it has, were it not for the neighbourhood of Berghen.

DRONTHEIM is the largeſt government of Norway, it lies along the coaſt of the North Sea, being about 500 miles in length, from ſouth to north. It has the North Sea on the weſt, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Berghen on the ſouth, and on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the 61ſt to the 69th degree of latitude: it's greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt, is not above 120 miles, and in many places it is much leſs. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; ſo that though it be large, the towns are not very conſiderable. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but along the ſea ſhore, 'till within 25 or 30 miles from it.

The moſt conſiderable towns here are as follow:

DRONTHEIM, formerly the capital of Norway, is ſeated on the coaſt of the Northern Ocean, on a little gulph at the mouth of the river Nidar, from whence it was anciently called Nideoſia. It is about 220 miles diſtant from Berghen to the north-eaſt. It has a harbour pretty well frequented by ſmall veſſels, though very incommodious for large ones, the enterance being obſtructed by rocks. This town has a pretty conſiderable trade, conſiſting in ſmall maſts and fir deals. They alſo ſhip off here a large quantity of copper, the mines of which are eighteen or twenty miles diſtant from this town, near the village of Steckby. At the diſtance of ſix miles from thoſe mines, there is a ſilver one belonging to the king. The other merchandizes exported from thence are, iron, tar,

furrs, aſhes, goat-ſkins, &c. and they import in exchange, ſpices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheeſe, tobacco, coarſe cloths, and a great many old rixdollars. The country round about is very barren; and even wood is ſo ſcarce, that a little beyond the town, the people are obliged to uſe fiſh-bones for fuel, and for ſeveral utenſils.

LEERSTRAND is about 10 miles diſtant from Drontheim to the ſouth.

STRONDEN lies on the river Nider, 40 miles above Drontheim towards the ſouth-eaſt.

SCOERDALE is about 20 miles diſtant from Drontheim to the north-weſt, on the other ſide of the ſame bay.

OPDAL lies at the bottom of a narrow bay, 40 miles from the ocean, and about 65 from Drontheim to the ſouth.

ROMSDAEL, or ROMSDALEN, ſtands on the bottom of another bay, 40 miles from Opdal to the weſt, and 70 from Drontheim to the ſouth-weſt.

SOLENDAEL ſtands on another bay, about 30 miles from Romſdael to the ſouth-weſt.

Theſe are all places of ſome trade.

Between the iſlands of Sallere and Vero, is the famous gulph or whirlpool called MAELSTROM, in lat. about 68 degrees, ſaid to be 40,000 geometrical paces in circumference. Seamen call it the Navel of the ſea, Umbilicus maris. Several authors give the following deſcription of it: it is, ſay they, fatal to ſhips that come too nigh in the time of flood, when the ſea, for two leagues round, forms ſuch a terrible vortex, that it ſwallows up every thing that comes near it; and during the ſix hours of ebb, it throws out the water with ſuch violence, that the heavieſt bodies cannot ſink if thrown into it, but are caſt back again by the impetuous ſtreams. Veſſels ſwallowed up by this whirlpool are caſt up again ſhattered to-pieces, being daſhed againſt the rocks within it. Between the ebb and the flood there is an interval, during which ſhips can ſafely ſail over it, the water being then ſtill, but, during the ebb and flood the water makes, they ſay, a prodigious noiſe. Francis Neri, an Italian, who travelled into Norway, obſerves, that there is no whirlpool here, but only a rapid current, which makes a great noiſe during the ſix hours of flood, which noiſe is occaſioned by the water's daſhing againſt ſeveral ſmall iſlands, or rocks, which repel the ſtreams now to the ſouth and then to the north, ſo that they ſeem to whirl about. During the ebb the water is ſo ſtill, that ſmall boats can croſs from one iſland to another without any danger. This account is more rational, and more agreeable to truth, than the poetical relations given us by ſeveral travellers, and particularly by the German author of the Curioſus Antiquarius, who give us a moſt frightful deſcription of this pretended whirlpool.

WARDHUS is bounded on the north and weſt by the ocean, on the eaſt by Muſcovite Lapland, and on the ſouth-weſt by the government of Drontheim. It's extent from eaſt to weſt is about 310 miles, and 200 from ſouth to north, that is to ſay, to the north cape, including the iſlands. It is divided into two parts: the weſtern and maritime is called Finmark, and the eaſt and ſouthern Norvegian, or Daniſh Lapland. It being the moſt northern part of Norway, we cannot expect here much produce of the earth, or plenty of people, and conſequently no cities or conſiderable towns that make any figure in hiſtory.

WARDHUS, ſituated in an iſland called Ward, from whence this province has it's name. It is the ſeat of the governor, and is, properly, nothing but a caſtle, with a ſtreet or ſmall town of cottages, inhabited by fiſhermen. The iſland lies on the north-eaſt point of Norway, near the borders of Muſcovite Lapland, and is ſmall, being but 14 or 15 miles in circumference. It is about 3 or 4 miles diſtant from the continent. The caſtle is ſo old that it falls to ruin, and has no manner of fortifications, though it was built to protect the fiſhermens huts, of which there are great numbers along the coaſt. The inhabitants of this and the neighbouring iſlands, live upon dried ſtock-fiſh, and have neither bread nor beer but what is brought them from other parts by the Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, that come this way for fiſh.

BAHUS, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roſchild, is yet reckoned a part of Norway, for which reaſon we think it proper to give an account of it in this place. It is the moſt ſouthern province of Norway, and is a narrow track of land, lying on the coaſt of the Schager-Rack, or Categate, about 90 miles in length from ſouth to north. It has Weſt Gothland on the ſouth, Dalia on the eaſt, the government of Aggerus on the north, and the Categate on the weſt. It's breadth is not proportionable to it's length, being in ſome parts but ten miles broad, and in none above 25. The country is fruitful enough, but a great part of it is taken up by large lakes. It is divided into two parts, Iſland and Wickliden.

The chief places are,

MAELSTRAND, or MARSTRAND, the capital of Wickſiden, is a ſtrong town built on a rock, is a kind of peninſula, about 10 miles below Bahus; it is a place of great trade for herrings, and other ſea fiſh.

There are a great number of iſlands beſides thoſe we have already mentioned, along the coaſt of Norway, but they are not conſiderable enough to deſerve a particular account. See DENMARK.

Trade between ENGLAND, NORWAY, and DENMARK.

Norway and Denmark take from England guineas, crown pieces, and bullion, a little tobacco, and a few coarſe woollens of ſmall value.

England imports from Norway, &c. vaſt quantities of deal-boards, timber, ſpars, and iron. We pay them a very great balance, and their rebuilding great ſhips of burthen, deſtroyed in the war between them and Sweden, has again pretty well re-eſtabliſhed them in the navigation and freight of their timber, and greatly increaſed their balance upon this nation. See NAVAL STORES, and DENMARK.

REMARKS before the laſt WAR.

Frederic IV. king of Denmark, was always inclined to promote the welfare and trade of his ſubjects, and took care of every thing that might contribute to their benefit; but, towards the end of his life, it was thought he liſtened too much to projectors, who induced him to enter upon ſchemes which were not always attended with the conſequences he expected from them. He died, however, at the age of 60, greatly regretted, on the 2d of October, 1730.

His ſon, the late king Chriſtian VI. aſcended the throne of his anceſtors with univerſal reputation. He had, in his father's life-time, been very attentive to the concerns of the Eaſt-India company, and had been, in a great meaſure, the ſupport of it, which induced the people to hope that a particular regard for trade would be the principal view of his reign; and ſo indeed it proved.

At his acceſſion to the government he made many changes, but all of them in ſuch a manner as to give great ſatisfaction to his ſubjects, who were particularly pleaſed with his aboliſhing a farm that had been eſtabliſhed in his father's time, for vending wine, brandy, ſalt, and tobacco, which was very burthenſome to the ſubject, however advantageous to the prince. Such as were intereſted in the farm offered to advance larger ſums if it might be continued; but the king anſwered, It brought in but TOO MUCH, ſince his ſubjects complained of the EXACTIONS which it occaſioned.

He ſoon after erected a COUNCIL OF TRADE, whoſe buſineſs is to examine all propoſals that are made for extending it, in order to give ſuch encouragement as may be neceſſary for carrying them into execution. He likewiſe ſent for workmen out of Holland, and other countries, at his own expence, to eſtabliſh manufactures in Denmark, and took every other ſtep for their encouragement that his people could either deſire or expect. Amongſt others, he erected a ROYAL BANK, which has been attended with many advantageous conſequences; was always careful to keep his fleet and army in a proper condition to render him reſpected by his neighbours; and, to prevent the expence occaſioned thereby from becoming burthenſome to his people, he from time to time alſo made treaties of ſubſidy with foreign powers, which brought in large ſums, without expoſing him to the neceſſity of taking any ſhare in the quarrels either in the North or Germany.

His ſon, Frederic V. the preſent poſſeſſor of the throne, ſucceeded to it July 26, 1746, in the 23d year of his age; he eſpouſed, about three years before, the princeſs Louiſa of Great-Britain, by whom he has an heir apparent, born January 18, 1749. Upon his firſt taking the reins of government into his hands, he thought fit to make a few alterations, very judicious in themſelves, and acceptable to his ſubjects. He has ſteadily purſued his father's maxims, in maintaining peace, improving the trade, and encouraging the induſtry of his ſubjects. His application to buſineſs, joined to a conſtant and well-regulated œconomy, has enabled him not only to live within the bounds of his revenue, but to make very conſiderable ſavings. In this, however, he has conducted himſelf as a wiſe and good prince, or rather in ſuch a manner as to become a model to thoſe of his own rank, who generally aſpire to ſo ſublime a character; for he has demonſtrated that this did not ariſe from avarice, or a natural nearneſs of temper, but from a noble and true royal principle of doing whatever might contribute to the public good: for in thoſe provinces of his dominions that have ſuffered by inevitable calamities, ſuch as the mortality among their cattle, and the inclemency of ſeaſons, he has remitted even his juſt rights. He has expended very conſiderable ſums for encouraging and promoting NEW MANUFACTURES, and he has diſcharged a large debt due from the crown.

This, though in itſelf very extraordinary, conſidering the ſum, and the ſhort time he has reigned, has been attended with a circumſtance too ſingular to be omitted. The creditors of the crown, as ſoon as they were informed of his majeſty's deſign, endeavoured to prevent it, by humbly repreſenting, that, if he was diſpleaſed at the largeneſs of their intereſt, they were content to accept of 4, inſtead of 5 per cent. which had been hitherto paid them; but his Daniſh majeſty anſwered, That having the money in his coffers, where it could be of no ſervice to the public, he

choſe to diſcharge their obligations; but that he would take it as a favour done to himſelf if they would lend the money he now paid them, at a low intereſt, to his ſubjects, which might enable them to extend their COMMERCE, and improve the NEW MANUFACTURES.

It is incredible to what a degree his own and his father's peaceable and prudent adminiſtrations, have contributed to the benefit of the countries belonging to the crown of Denmark, and how much the face of affairs is changed within ſo ſhort a time. NEW PORTS have been opened, which has been owing to the opening NEW CHANNELS OF TRADE; the ſhipping of the Danes has been more than doubled, and the revenues of the crown have increaſed in the ſame proportion within that ſmall ſpace. The court is ſplendid without profuſion, the king rich without oppreſſion, the miniſters attentive to the duties of their reſpective ſtations, not only from the example of their maſter, but from the ſenſe they have that a contrary behaviour would infalliibly draw upon them immediate diſgrace. Adored at home, and reſpected abroad, the king is only attentive to preſerve and promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, in which he places his own.

The laws of this country have been deſervedly in reputation, as lying within a very narrow compaſs, a moderate quarto containing them all; and the adminiſtration of juſtice is ſo well looked after, that ſuits of law in this country are but few, and thoſe very ſpeedily determined. The king makes and repeals laws, as to him appears neceſſary for the good of his ſubjects; but the crown has always uſed this power with much moderation and diſcretion: ſo that, as Denmark may be truly ſaid to be the only legal abſolute government in Europe, perhaps in the world, the people have had leſs reaſon to regret the change made by themſelves than could well have been expected; and, if their monarchs copy after the example of their preſent king, the Danes will feel fewer evils from the want of liberty, than in other nations are produced by the abuſe of it.

The kingdom of Norway, which remains united to that of Denmark, is of great conſequence; and, under the laſt and preſent reign, there have been great improvements made in it's trade, and the inhabitants have been uſed with more indulgence than formerly. The ſame thing may be ſaid in regard to Iceland, and other iſlands belonging to the crown of Denmark, which have been of late years put in all reſpects into a much better condition than they were; ſo that their commodities come to a better market, their manufactures are in a much better flouriſhing condition, and the number of their inhabitants, towns, and ſhipping, is continually increaſing; whereby, in the ſpace of another century, if no wars break out, or unforeſeen confuſions happen, the Danes will become quite another people, and their monarchs make a greater figure than they have for ſome ages paſt *.

* We have in this month of October 1764, an account from Copenhagen, that upwards of 1400 perſons were daily employed in the Daniſh royal woollen manufactory; that they produced laſt year 66 pieces of good cloth; and in other woollen fabrics there are, in the whole, about 4000 men at work. There are likewiſe 16 ſilk fabrics, where 938 perſons are at work; of the ſaid 16 the royal is the largeſt, there being 105 looms, which employ 335 perſons.

REMARKS on NORWAY ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

The balance of trade between England, Norway, and Denmark, being reckoned at leaſt to the diſfavour of this nation 300,000 l. per ann. it is to be hoped now, that no meaſures will be left unpractiſed to furniſh ourſelves from North America, with every ſpecies of TIMBER that continent will produce, either requiſite for HOUSE-BUILDING in England, or for SHIP BUILDING; and thereby ſave that balance, we have ſo long paid to Denmark for Norway timber. Moſt certainly we may; and the building of large bulky ſhips for that purpoſe, will prove an additional valuable nurſery for our ſeamen, and enable us the better to keep and preſerve, and make proper advantage of our new acquiſitions on the American continent.

It is allowed by thoſe that knew the plantations, that the moſt proper places in the colonies for ſupplying the royal Britiſh navy, are the provinces of Main, New Hampſhire, and the Maſſachuſets in New-England. Therefore, if thoſe three provinces were entirely appropriated to that uſe, the other parts of our extended colonies would ſufficiently ſupply not only Great-Britain and Ireland, but even Portugal and Spain, with the ſame quantities that they now uſe, or may uſe, perhaps, to the end of time, provided we admit and encourage young trees to grow, after we have cut down the old; which will take us up centuries to do.

It may be obſerved, that the little quantity of land that is acceſſible in that mountainous rocky country of Norway, has ſupplied not only Great-Britain and Ireland, Spain, Portugal, France, and Flanders, with timber, but even Holland itſelf with piles for their dykes, ſea-walls, and foundations for houſes, which are thought to be more than are growing upon all the acceſſible ground of Norway. The greateſt part of Europe is ſupplied with pipe, hogſhead and barrel ſtaves from Germany, and the Dutch with oak timber for building their ſhips, and manufacturing into clapboard and wainſcot by their ſaw-mills, with which they not only ſupply this nation, but ſeveral other parts of Europe; and yet the Germans are ſo far from apprehending any danger of not being ſupplied with the increaſing growth of their oak timber, that they would eſteem it a particular happineſs to have their people employed in cutting it down, and hauling it to places of navigation. The foreſt of mount Libanus, which is but a ſmall tract of land, the wooded part of it not ſo big as Yorkſhire, has ſupplied amazing quantities of timber. Solomon, in his time, employed a great number of hewers of wood for building the temple. The Tyrians, Sidonians, and all that coaſt, were ſupplied with timber from thence for their BUILDINGS and SHIPPING; and hiſtory tells us, that Alexander the Great was ſupplied with timber from thence, for carrying on his bank from the main land to the iſland of Tyre; and all ſucceeding ages have been conſtantly cutting down the timber, and yet, it is ſaid, there is as good there as ever.

If thoſe places have furniſhed Europe and Aſia with ſuch vaſt quantities for ſo many ages, and the timber cut down conſtantly ſupplied with a growth of new, what may not be expected from ſo large, ſo immenſely large a tract of ground, ſo well repleniſhed with trees and navigable rivers as our plantations are? Theſe inſtances are given to obviate the miſtakes ſome gentlemen are under, who think our foreſts in America can be hurt by cutting down our timber.

Some have made it a doubt, whether it is prudent in us to let Portugal, Spain, or the Streights, have boards and timber from our plantations; alledging, that if they are ſupplied, they may build merchantmen and ſhips of war, and may, in time, interrupt our trade and navigation; forgetting, we muſt ſuppoſe, that the Dutch will ſupply them with as much German oak as they want.

The Spaniards themſelves have great quantities of extraordinary oak, and fine large pine-trees fit for maſts, eſpecially in Arragon and Catalonia, near the Ebro and Segra; but ſuch is their indolent temper, that if they can purchaſe what they want with money, they care not to ſtretch out a hand to help themſelves; and it might not be good policy in us, to ſtir them up to a neceſſity of becoming induſtrious.

The value of timber among ourſelves has given gentlemen that notion, becauſe it fetches a great price in this iſland, it muſt conſequently be valuable all over the world. But if they were in America, and there beheld the great labour of the planters to clear the ground of the wood, and the vaſt number of fine timber trees that are hauled together and burnt, before it can be fit for any uſe, they would certainly think it abundance of prudence to have it cut up into boards and other uſes, and tranſport to Portugal and Spain what we could not diſpenſe with amongſt ourſelves in Great-Britain, and the money remitted to England; for there is no merchandize more profitable to the nation than timber, being the moſt bulky, and conſequently employing the greateſt number of SHIPS and SAILORS, with a very ſmall part of the NATIONAL STOCK, which is ſufficient to give it all imaginable encouragement.

This merchandize is what has bred the king of Denmark ſo many ſailors, and enabled him to fit out a ROYAL NAVY, and his ſubjects of NORWAY to build ſo great a number of BULKY SHIPS, by which they have enriched themſelves to a much greater degree than the farmers of the fertile country of Poland have done by their corn. If this TIMBER TRADE has been ſo advantageous to them, why may it not be rendered ſo likewiſe to England, by means of her vaſt colonies now on the American continent? We have for the moſt part the ſame markets; we ſhall thereby have opportunities exceedingly to enlarge and extend our navigation; and the wages of a ſailor very much exceed thoſe of a ploughman, labourer, or manufacturer; their food and cloathing are from ourſelves; and if they carry a loading of timber from the plantations to Spain, Portugal, or the Streights, &c. and RETURN TO ENGLAND, not only the merchant's profit, but the profit of the owners of the ſhip, and the ſailors wages, would be all brought home, and ſpent here.

The advantage a TIMBER TRADE would be to us between our plantations and the Streights, &c. would be conſiderable. We cannot ſee but a thouſand acres of TIMBER GROUND in America, may be made more beneficial to England than a thouſand acres of CORN LAND within ourſelves. Let us ſuppoſe a thouſand acres of corn land may produce thirty crops of corn in fifty years; and that every crop may yield in Holland, being our moſt certain market for corn, 4000 l for every year of the ſaid thirty years, which is 120,000 l.

We will ſuppoſe, that twenty acres of WOOD-LAND in America may afford timber enough to load four ſhips of five hundred tons each, and their cargoes carried to Spain or Portugal, &c. and each ſold for 900 l. each. Theſe thirty-ſix hundred pounds are all produced by the manufacture and labour of our own poor, and national ſtock in this ſhipping

Theſe

Theſe 1000 acres, ſuppoſe it would take fifty years in cutting, and fifty crops, at three thouſand ſix hundred pounds per crop, is one hundred and eighty thouſand pounds.—We have allowed double the quantity of land neceſſary to produce four ſhips loading of timber. It is very well known there is ſuch a propenſity in the land of America to run into wood, that when it has been tilled ſo long, that it would bear nothing, yet it has, within the ſpace of thirty years, been loaded with a vaſt number of trees, many of them above a yard and a half in girt, ſix feet from the ground. Timber grows there ſo very quick, as we are informed, that they are at their full growth in a few years. The clearing the lands in America, in places the moſt advantageous to navigation, would not only be thoroughly beneficial to theſe kingdoms, &c. and ſave us the balance which we now pay to Denmark, but would bring us in a very conſiderable one in our favour: and not only ſo, it would tend to lay the country open in time, and put the Indians more in our power, there appearing an abſolutely neceſſity to do this to bring them into ſubjection, if no amicable means will avail to that purpoſe. This, with our navigation on the river St. Lawrence, the Ohio, the Miſſiſſippi, and in the bay of Mexico, will enable us to collect vaſt quantities of timber, and produce us the like of pitch and tar, and the under-wood make charcoal for our iron furnaces there. All which together muſt be of no inconſiderable emolument to Great-Britain, and will prove inſtrumental with the raiſing other materials for manufactures in England, to give conſtant employment to all the inhabitants we can people our new and old acquiſitions with, and thereby keep and preſerve them in a due and reaſonable ſtate of dependence and ſubſerviency to their mother kingdom.

NOTARY PUBLIC, is a perſon, uſually a ſcrivener, who takes notes, or makes a ſhort draught of contracts, obligations, or other writings and inſtruments. Stat. 27 Ed. III. cap. 1. At preſent we call him a notary public who publicly atteſts deeds or writings, to make them authentic in another country, but principally in buſineſs relating to merchants: they make proteſts of foreign bills of exchange, &c. [ſee BILLS of EXCHANGE;] and noting a bill, is the notary's going as a witneſs, to take notice of a merchant's refuſal to accept or pay the ſame.

REMARKS.

The learned civilian Domat obſerves, That a diſtinction between a voluntary and a contentious juriſdiction, obliges us to take notice of a particular kind of officers, whoſe functions are of a very great and very frequent uſe, and who have a kind of voluntary juriſdiction, without any ſhare of the contentious juriſdiction, which are the public notaries: for the function of notaries imply two characters of a voluntary juriſdiction: the firſt conſiſts in this, that their preſence and their ſignature ſerves as a proof of the truth of the acts which are ſped in their preſence; and that whereas in the writings, which are called private, that is to ſay, which are ſigned only by the parties, their ſignatures being unknown in courts of juſtice, it is neceſſary to verify them, if they are called in queſtion; the ſignatures of notaries, who are public officers, carry along with them the proof of the truth of the acts which they ſign; and the ſecond of theſe characters conſiſts in this, that the acts which contain ſome obligation of one party towards another, being ſigned by a notary public, give a right of mortgage on the eſtate of the perſon who is bound, which a private bond or obligation, ſigned only by the party, would not give: and ſince it is in France the authority of juſtice that gives the mortgage, it is by virtue of a kind of juriſdiction that notaries have this function, that a mortgage is acquired by the means of their ſignature; and it is becauſe of this voluntary juriſdiction, that, in ſome of the provinces of France, it is uſual for the notaries to inſert in the acts ſped in their preſence, that thoſe who are parties to them have duly ſubmitted themſelves, and are condemned to perform what they promiſe: by which words they intend to ſignify this voluntary juriſdiction, to which the contracting parties ſubmit themſelves *.

* The function of notaries, in France, implies this kind of juriſdiction, which is ſignified by the royal ſeal, of which they are the depoſitaries for ſealing the acts: and this ſeal is preſuppoſed in the acts which are not ſealed.

Il n'eſt rien de plus beau qu'n Notaire honnête homme,
Mais dans ce corps on a vû de tout tems
Se gliſſer des fripons parmi d'honnêtes gens.
Bour. Eſope. Richelet.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE in England, has Lincolnſhire on the eaſt, Leiceſterſhire on the ſouth, Derbyſhire on the weſt, and Yorkſhire on the north; and is in compaſs 110 miles. It enjoys as healthy, mild, and pleaſant an air, as any part of England. It is well watered with rivers, the chief of which are the Trent and the Idle. The ſoil is various, the eaſt ſide being very fruitful both in corn and paſture; but the weſt is generally woody, in ſome places producing nothing but coal, and ſome lead. The chief commodities are cattle, corn, malt, wool, coal, wood, liquorice, cheeſe, butter, leather, and tallow. The chief manufactures are ſtockings, glaſs, and earthen wares; and it is noted for ſtrong ale.

NOTTINGHAM, which gives name to the ſhire, and a town and county of itſelf, is reckoned one of the neateſt in England, and has as good a trade as moſt inland towns. It ſtands on the river Trent, which has at a great expence been made navigable to it by barges. Glaſs and earthen wares are made here; but it's chief manufacture is weaving frame-ſtockings: the beſt malt is made here of any town in theſe parts.

EAST RETFORD is an ancient borough, in the midſt of a large plantation of hops, in which, and in barley, it drives a great trade, though not ſo conſiderable as formerly, becauſe Worksop has got much of it away.

NEWARK UPON TRENT is a handſome well-built town, of pretty good trade in corn, cattle, wool, &c.

MANSFIELD is a large populous town, in the foreſt of Sherwood, which drives a great trade in malt, and has a market well ſtocked with corn, cattle, and other marketable goods.

WORKSOP is a ſmall town, near the head of the river Ryton, with a market noted for plenty of liquorice and malt.

NOVA ZEMBLA, or NEW LAND, which the Dutch call the iſland of VEYGATS, is ſituated in the North or Frozen Ocean, between 50 and 80 deg. of eaſt long. and near the north pole; ſeparated from the province of Samoieda, in Ruſſia, by a narrow ſtreight called the Streights of Veygats. Whether it be an iſland, or part of ſome great continent, is uncertain, no ſhips having ever paſſed to the northward of it, though many attempts have been made to find out a north-eaſt paſſage to China that way. The Dutch, indeed, paſſed the Streights of Veygats, ſouth of Nova Zembla, and wintered on the eaſt ſide of it, anno 1596, but did not find it practicable to ſail further, for the fields of ice they met with. There are no conſtant inhabitants here; but the Samoieds and Oſtiacs climb over the mountains of ice in the ſtreights, when they are frozen over, and hunt elks and rein-deer here, at proper ſeaſons.

NOVOGOROD, in Ruſſia. This duchy is ſituate on the eaſt of Pleſkow, and the lake of Ladoga on the north; on the eaſt the duchy of Belozeca, and Twere; and the province of Rzeva on the ſouth.

It is called Novogorod Veliki, or Superior, to diſtinguiſh it from the Inferior, or Nizi Novogorod. It's extent from eaſt to weſt, on the ſouthern part, is computed to extend near 250 miles, but grows more and more narrow towards the north. It's chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a conſiderable traffic, when it was governed by it's own princes, though, even then, it was very often obſtructed by it's wars with Muſcovy; but, ſince it is become under it's ſubjection, it is much decayed of it's flouriſhing condition.

The city of NOVOGOROD VELIKI, capital of this province, called by the French NEUGARD, and by the Dutch NEW GARTEN, ſtands on the Wolohova, and is a large and conſiderable place, very populous, and well fortified.

NOYONNOIS, a province in France, was formerly a part of Picardy, but under the government of the Iſle of France, and is bounded on the north by Vermandois, part of which belongs to the election of Noyon; on the eaſt by Laconois; on the ſouth by Soiſſonnois; and on the weſt by the bailiwick of Roye in Picardy. There are here but two cities of any note, viz.

NOYON, ſituate on the declivity of a hill, of an eaſy deſcent, on the rivulet Vorſe, which, at a quarter of a league's diſtance, falls into the Oiſe. It is ſeven leagues diſtant from Soiſſons to the north-weſt, five from Laon to the weſt, and 16 from Paris to the north. It is a pretty large city, containing about 4500 inhabitants, and is well ſituated for inland trade, which conſiſts here in wheat and oats, which they ſend to Paris; they have alſo manufactories of linen cloths, lawns, and tanned leather.

CHAUNY is ſituated on the river Oiſe, near the borders of the Iſle of France, three leagues diſtant from Noyon to the eaſt, and ſomething leſs from La Fere to the ſouth. It is a royal city, and the ſeat of a caſtleward.

NUBIA, the kingdom of, in Africa, is bounded on the north by Upper Egypt; on the eaſt by the Red Sea; on the ſouth by Ethiopia, from which it is ſeparated partly by the Nile, and partly by a long ridge of mountains, and the deſert of Gorham; and on the weſt it is bounded by the kingdom of Goaga.

This country, though under ſo hot a climate, being wholly within the torrid zone, is yet in many places, eſpecially on each ſide of the Nile, very fruitful, the inhabitants being much given to agriculture, and producing ſome fine fruits, plenty of corn, and ſugar-canes; but of this laſt they ſeem not to know the uſe rightly, ſo that it bears little or no value, either among the natives or foreigners.

The chief commodities this country affords, are gold in great quantity, and very fine muſk, ivory, ſanders, and other medicinal woods.

DONGALA, the metropolis of the kingdom, is ſaid to be very populous, and to contain about 10,000 houſes, but moſt of them meanly built, of wood and mud only. The inhabitants, however, are rich, and drive a conſiderable commerce with

their own commodities, more eſpecially ſanders and muſk, for arms, linen cloth, and other wares.

SENNAR, another large city, ſaid to contain 100,000 ſouls, ſtands on the weſtern bank of the Nile, about 250 miles ſouth of Dongala. They trade in gold, muſk, elephants teeth, and other commodities, for which they receive in exchange ſpices, ſilks, cottons, and other merchandizes from India; for they make no uſe of money in all their commerce, though they have variety of coins among them. See AFRICA.

NUTMEG. The nutmeg is an aromatic nut, the kernel of a fruit, of the ſize of a green walnut.

The nutmeg is of two ſorts, the male, or long nutmeg, and the female, or common nutmeg.

The tree that bears the nutmeg is of the bigneſs of the peach-tree, and the leaves have a very near reſemblance to thoſe of the ſame tree, except that they are ſhorter and narrower; after which comes the fruit.

This tree, according to Mr. Tavernier, is not planted, but grows by means of certain birds, or fowls, which ſwallow the nutmegs whole, and throw them out again, without having digeſted them; and the nutmeg being then covered with a viſcous and gluey matter, and being caſt upon the ground, takes root, and produces a tree, which it would not have done if ſet in the manner of others.

The nutmeg is likewiſe a commodity which none but the Dutch are maſters of, becauſe it grows no where but in the iſles of Nero, Lentour, Poulcay, Roſgain, Poleron, Granaping, and Dame iſland, in the great iſland of Banda in Aſia.

It is remarkable, that ſo little a quantity of land ſhould furniſh all the world with nutmegs; but it is not hard to be believed, when one conſiders that theſe iſles are ſo ſtocked with nutmeg-trees that it is almoſt incredible; and beſides, they lie in ſo good a climate, that the trees are always loaden with flowers and fruit, and they have three crops a year, viz. in April, Auguſt, and December; but that of April is much more valued than thoſe which are got in Auguſt or December; and the climate is ſo temperate, that the men live to a hundred and twenty years of age, and have nothing to do but eat, drink, and ſleep, and walk about, while the women employ themſelves in ſeparating the outer fruit from the nutmeg, drying the mace, and breaking the ſhells wherein is the nutmeg, being the chief commodity of the country, and almoſt all they live by.

The nutmegs we ſell are nothing but the kernels of the fruit, which are covered with a hard, thin, and blackiſh ſhell; without this ſhell there is found a covering, which is thin and reddiſh, of a ſweet ſmell, and aromatic taſte, and is what we call mace, but vulgarly, and improperly, the nutmeg flower. After the mace, there is a green pulpy fruit, that is of no uſe. From this it is to be obſerved, that the nutmeg has three wrappings, or coverings, viz. the ſhell, the mace, and the pulpy fruit, and not barely two, as a late author has obſerved; and the thing is ſo evident, that, if any perſon will give himſelf the trouble to cut a preſerved nutmeg in two, he will find the three parts which I have been ſpeaking of above.

The trees which bare the female, or common nutmegs, grow not but in cultivated, or improved lands; but thoſe which produce the long nutmegs grow in woods and foreſts, which makes the Dutch call them wild nutmegs; but they are little uſed, becauſe they are almoſt without taſte or ſmell, and void of any virtue; and for this reaſon they are ſeldom brought hither.

As to the common nutmegs, we ought to chuſe ſuch as are heavy, firm, hard, and of a full plumpneſs, of a light grey, whoſe inſide is finely marbled, and reddiſh, and ſuch as are of a fat oily body, which are the ſigns of their newneſs, and which, being grated, afford a ſweet flavour, and, put into the mouth, yield a warm, piquant, aromatic taſte. As to the little hole that is met with ſo very common in nutmegs, it is a vulgar error to believe that that makes them loſe their virtue, for there is no nutmeg without it, as may be ſeen when the thin rind is raiſed.

The uſe of the nutmeg is ſo well known, it would be needleſs to ſay any thing of it; we ſhall only add, that it is valued in medicine, and being beat up with ſugar, there is a powder made of it, which is admirable, taken in warm white wine, for curing of catarrhs and rheums, that proceed from cold cauſes; and this is called the Duke's Powder. The uſual quantity is to put two ounces of nutmegs to a pound of ſugar, and ſome add cinnamon.

The inhabitants of the iſle of Banda make a confection of the green nutmegs, which is brought to us by the way of Holland, ſometimes with ſyrup, and ſometimes without. Theſe are one of the beſt preſerves we have, being very proper to ſtrengthen and invigorate the ſtomach, and to reſtore a natural heat to age; but their chief uſe is to carry to ſea, particularly by the inhabitants of the northern parts, where they are much eſteemed, the people there being great lovers of theſe ſorts of warm ſweet-meats.

As to the oil of nutmegs by expreſſion, that which is brought us frequently from Holland is no better than freſh butter; for which reaſon the apothecaries ought to make it themſelves, rather than buy it at ſuch a cheap rate, when it is good for nothing. The true oil of nutmegs ought to be of a thick conſiſtence, of a golden yellow, a ſweet aromatic ſmell, and a warm poignant taſte.

The manner of making this oil is ſo eaſy, and hath been ſo long know to every artiſt, that it would be ſuperfluous, at this time of day, to pretend to teach it; only this may be obſerved, that, when it is expreſſed, it will be liquid and clear; but, when cold, it coagulates, and becomes yellowiſh, of a ſolid conſiſtency, and that it will yield a double quantity of oil this way, from the ſame weight of any other ſpice, fruit, or ſeed whatever.

There is likewiſe another oil, made by diſtillation, which is a white clear oil, very fragrant, and has double the ſtrength and virtue of the former; and whatever the nutmeg has ſingly in itſelf, is hereby highly exalted; ſo that four or five drops is a doſe, in any proper vehicle, wherein it becomes cephalic, neurotic, ſtomachic, cordial, hepatic, uterine, and alexipharmic; it is good againſt all cold diſeaſes of the head, nerves, womb, &c. expels wind, and cures griping of the guts.

The mace that grows round the nutmeg has all the ſame virtues; diſperſes wind, helps concoction, cures ſtinking breaths, ſtrengthens the child in the womb, ſtops fluxes and vomiting: it is of thinner parts than the nutmeg, and, therefore, more piercing. The oils by expreſſion and diſtillation are made the ſame way as thoſe of nutmegs. Chuſe ſuch as have the largeſt blades, the higheſt and freſheſt colour, and the cleaneſt you can get.

As to the bark of the trunk, and the branches of the nutmeg-tree, it is ſo little uſed, that it is not worth ſpeaking of, and is ſeldom brought hither, by reaſon of it's great likeneſs to the white coſtus, both in figure and taſte. Some ſell coſtus for the nutmeg-bark, but of this beware.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued.

With regard to NATURALIZATION.

NATURALIZATION by act of parliament—Proviſion muſt be expreſly made in the bill exhibited for that purpoſe, that the perſons therein mentioned, ſhall not be thereby enabled to be of the privy-council, or members of either houſe of parliament, or to take any offices or places of truſt, or to have any grants of lands, tenements, or hereditaments from the crown. 1 Geo. I. c. 4. § 2.

Aliens, or perſons not born within his majeſty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, may not be merchants or factors in the plantations, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattles; $\frac{1}{3}$ to the king, $\frac{1}{3}$ to the governor, and $\frac{1}{3}$ to the informer. 12 Car. II. cap. 15. § 2.

With regard to NAVAL STORES.

NAVAL STORES imported from the Britiſh plantations and Scotland, for the premium and regulations, ſee NAVAL STORES.

NAVAL STORES if afterwards exported, the ſaid premium muſt be repaid,

———Imported from Ruſſia—A true account thereof to be laid before both houſes of parliament every ſeſſion, by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, under their hands. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 6. § 4.

With regard to the NEWFOUNDLAND TRADE.

NEWFOUNDLAND TRADE, free to all his Britiſh ſubjects. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 25. § 1.

———Maſters of ſhips bound thither, to carry at leaſt one freſh man in five; of by-boats, to carry at leaſt two freſh man in ſix; that is, one that has made no more than one voyage, and one that never has been at ſea before; and are to make oath accordingly before the collector of the port, who is to give them a certificate thereof. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 25. § 9, 10.

O.

OAK

OAK

OAK. The oak is a tree, known to all the world, as well becauſe of it's durableneſs, as for the different uſes made of it. This tree is the emblem of virtue, ſtrength, firmneſs, and duration, and was therefore, by the Ancients, dedicated to Jupiter. Some pretend that this tree is a mortal enemy to the olive and the walnut-tree; ſo that neither of them can live near it.

The firſt thing, and the moſt conſiderable we have from the oak, is the miſſeltoe, which is an excreſcence that is found growing to the ſaid tree: this production appears extraordinary, in that the oaks do not produce the miſſeltoe in all places: there are few that I know of, in this reſpect, like thoſe that are met with betwixt Rome and Loretto; eſpecially near a little village named Foligni, about the midway. This excreſcence reſembles the branch of trees, and is of a ſolid, heavy ſubſtance, of a greeniſh brown outwardly, and of a yellowiſh white within.

The branches are hard and compact, and bear ſeveral little ſprigs which intermingle with each other, and from whence ariſe a great many longiſh, thick leaves, that are ſemicircular, of a pale green; the berries are white, reſembling our little white currants; and theſe berries contain a viſcous humour, which the Ancients uſed to make glue with. The miſſeltoe continues always green, during the time it remains upon the tree; chuſe the largeſt, heavieſt, and beſt fed; you may know, if it be true, by the deep colour within, but the ſureſt way is to ſee that ſome part of the oak hangs to it. They attribute a great many virtues to the miſſeltoe of the oak, and the Ancients revered it, and held it ſacred, as well as the tree itſelf. Julius Cæſar and Pliny ſay, that the Druids aſſembled themſelves under theſe trees to perform their devotion; theſe Druids inhabited the countries we now call Villa de Dreux, near Chartres, whence it is evident, that there have been oaks which bore miſſeltoe in France.

This miſſeltoe, taken inwardly, is eſteemed an excellent remedy againſt the palſy, apoplexy, falling ſickneſs, and worms: it is alſo an ingredient, in many compoſitions, for external uſes, as ointments, plaſters, &c. as a reſolvent. The berries are acrid and bitter, and their juice is good to ripen abſceſſes, and haſten their ſuppuration.

Miſſeltoe is alſo the baſis of the pulvis ad guttetam.

It is found growing upon many other trees, as well as the oak; but it's virtues are ſuppoſed not to be ſo great when it is taken from any other tree.

All the parts of the oak contain a great deal of oil and eſſential ſalt; the bark and leaves are aſtringent and reſolvent, good in the gout, ſciatica and rheumatiſms, uſed in fomentations, and taken inwardly in decoctions to ſtop diarrhœas and hæmorrhages.

The ſecond thing we have from the oak, is a little plant we call polypody of the oak, which is like what we have from walls: this ſort of plant grows from places where the branches of the oak are forked, by means of ſome ſmall earth that lights there, and the water which drops upon it: it grows likewiſe upon the ſtump of the ſaid tree. We rarely uſe this polypody, becauſe it is not ſo proper, ſince that is much better which grows upon old walls; which is the ſort that is ſold about Paris. Chuſe the root ſuch as is new, plump, dry, brittle, of a reddiſh tawny colour on the outſide, and greeniſh within, ſweet and ſugar-like, inclining ſomething to a liquoriſh taſte.

Quercus vulgaris, the common oak, is a thick, ſtrait, durable tree, ſpreading it's branches wide; the trunk is covered with a thick ruggid bark; the leaves are large, longiſh, and broad, deep flaſhed or indented, hanging upon ſhort ſtalks; the flowers are in long ſhells or huſks, compoſed of little threads hanging upon one another by a fine fiber or ſtring; theſe huſks leave no fruit behind them, the fruit growing in other parts, which are the acorns, that are about the ſize of the olive, of an oval, or cylindrical figure, contained in a hard grey cup, called in Latin, cupula ſeu calix; this acorn is covered with a hard rind, that is ſmooth and ſhining; green at firſt, but yellowiſh as it grows riper: within this rind we meet with a ſort of kernel, or hard fleſhy ſeed, compoſed of two lobes. The acorns hang upon the tree by long or ſhort ſlender ſtalks, and their taſte is aſtringent.

All the parts in the oak contain in them a good deal of oil and eſſential ſalt: the acorn, called in Latin, glans quercina, is likewiſe employed in medicine. Chuſe ſuch as are large and plump, ſeparated from the rind, and dried gently; but take care of worms, to which they are ſubject; let them be reduced to powder before uſing: they are aſtringent, and proper to appeaſe wind cholicks, and the fluxes of women newly delivered.

Polypodium, or common polypody, hath a root, taking a very ſlight and ſuperficial hold of the earth; it is pithy and brittle, about the third part of an inch thick; within it is of a pale green colour, but outwardly a little reddiſh, and covered over with fine thin ſcales, when it is freſh and green; but being dry, it becomes of a more red colour: it is knotty, or full of round knobs, and adorned with ſeveral ſmall filaments like hairs: it's pith is ſweetiſh, with ſomewhat of a ſharp, auſtere, or ſtyptic taſte. The leaves ſpring out of the knots, or hollow knobs of the roots; they are ſingle, about nine inches in length, and parted into ſeveral jaggs or ſcallops, cut cloſe into the ribs; they are ſharp pointed, of a light green colour; it bears no flowers, but there ariſe ſeveral ſmall knobs, like bliſters, upon the lower or under part of the uppermoſt jaggs of the leaves, ranked in a double order; they are round, and about the ſixth part of an inch thick, conſiſting of a fine duſt, that is firſt a little yellowiſh, and turns of a bright golden colour; every grain of this duſt is a ſort of ſmall ſeed-veſſel, being of a round figure, and membranous, which, when ripe, breaks into two equal parts, and pours forth ſeveral ſeeds, ſo ſmall that they can ſcarcely be deſcerned by the naked eye.

Polypody grows upon rocks, old walls, and ancient decayed trees; but that which grows upon old oaks is reckoned the beſt; upon which account, polypody of the oak is commonly preſcribed, and is ranked among the purging medicines: yet Dodonæus denies it's cathartic quality; neither ought we to diſſemble the matter, for the decoction of it ſcarcely moves the belly, but the powder of it does ſomething, being given from one dram to two drams.

This root contains a great deal of oil, and no ſmall quantity of an acid phlegm; but this is, as it were, ſuffocated by the oil, which is the cauſe that it produces no alteration of colour on blue paper, when it is dipped in the infuſion of it. There is likewiſe a large quantity of earth extracted from polypody, by a chemical reſolution. It is from the earth that it's ſtyptic and brackiſh taſte proceeds. The roots are very properly adminiſtred in all diſtempers proceeding from a ſaltiſh diſpoſition of the blood: ſuch as the ſcurvy, rickets, and hypochondriac paſſions; they alſo help to abate an inveterate cough, when it is attended with a ſaltiſh ſpittle. They are preſcribed in potions and apozems.

Take of polypody of the oak, two ounces; ſalt of prunella, one dram; infuſe them in a quart of warm water; ſtrain it: to be taken by cupfuls or ſpoonfuls, as an apozem. Or take polypody of the oak, one ounce and a half; elecampane-roots, three ounces; infuſe them all night in a quart of warm water: in the ſtrained liquor add two ounces of Calabrian manna; mix and make a ptiſan to be drank. Take of the decoction of polypody-roots, ſix ounces, in which infuſe two drams of ſena leaves; in the ſtrained liquor diſſolve the electuary of diacarthanum, three drams; mix and make a purging potion. Polypody-roots are uſed in the catholic-electuary, the lenitive-electuary, the confection of hamech, the panchymagog extract of Hartman, Quercetan's pills of tartar, and in the hiera of coloquintinda.

The oak, whoſe bark, &c. are uſed in medicine, is the quercus vulgaris, Ger. 1156. Quercus latifolia, Park. 1086. The miſſeltoe is the viſcus quercus & aliarum arborum, J. B. 1. 89. Viſcum vulgare, Park. 1392.

And the polypody is the polypodium vulgare, C. B. Park. &c.

It is to be obſerved, that both theſe are much more frequently found on other trees, than on the oak.

The other ſpecies of the oak, mentioned in the catalogues of officinal trees, are,

1. The phagus, ſive eſculus, Park. 1387. J. B. 1, 2, 74, the eſculent, or ſweet oak, the acorn of which is eatable, not being ſo bitter as thoſe of the reſt.

2. The Cerrus Aldrov. Dendr. 253. Cerris majore glande, Ger. 1162. Quercus calyce echinato, glande majore, C. B. Pin. 420. The bitter oak. And,

3. The robur tertia Cluſii, J. B. 1, 2, 76. Robur ſive galla major altera, Ger. Em. 1314. The gall oak.

The common oak grows naturally in many kingdoms; the eſculus is found in Greece and Dalmatia, the cerrus in Italy, and the laſt in Smyrna and other places. Pomet.

REMARKS.

There are five ſorts of oak in England; but we ſhall only recommend two kinds of them to be planted for timber. The beſt is the upright-oak, which grows more erect than any other; the other is the large ſpreading oak. We have many inſtances of theſe kinds, that have attained to ſuch prodigious greatneſs of ſtature, that the timber alone of one tree has been ſold for upwards of 50l. The oak doth not only afford us the utmoſt ſerviceable timber for naval architecture, but alſo for other building. It's bark is uſeful to tanners, and the oak is therefore cut down about April, when it's bark will peel. The acorns are excellent food for hogs. This tree delights in moiſt ground of a good deph, and will proſper in the coldeſt clay, and, as Mr Evelyn ſays, in gravel alſo.

Some oaks having been ſown in hedge-rows, have, in the ſpace of 30 years, borne a ſtem of a foot diameter. There have been ſome ſeedling oaks, of 20 years growth, of near that ſubſtance, which have never been removed from the place where they were ſown; and every plantation of oaks ſhould be ſet with acorns, on the very ſpot where they are to remain, and we ſhould be careful to chuſe our acorns from thriving, vigorous trees. The diſtance between them ought to be about 33 feet, and the ſpace between the oaks ſhould be interſown for underwood.

The oak is an eſtimable tree or plant, in a proper ſituation, for the benefit of poſterity. There is no part in huſbandry which men commonly more fail in, neglect and have cauſe to repent of, than that they did not begin planting betimes. And indeed, ſuch perſons who have been deaf to demonſtration at the firſt poſſeſſion of their eſtates, and are afterwards convinced of the vaſt advantages to be reaped by an early plantation, either from the experience of their neighbours or themſelves, muſt have a pungent retroſpect upon this occaſion.

Every man is naturally willing to enjoy the profits of the works, as we may ſay, of his own hands; and he, therefore, who begins at 50 to be ſenſible that he has loſt many a fair thouſand, by neglect of improving his eſtate between 20 and that age, is to himſelf indeed a loſer, but a warning to others to avoid that folly. See the articles EARTH, HUSBANDRY, MANURE, NORWAY, BRITISH AMERICA, MISSISSIPPI, INDIAN AFFAIRS.

OATHS. [CUSTOM-HOUSE OATHS, AND OTHER REVENUE OATHS.]

I. Of the Oaths taken by the Officers of the Cuſtoms.

The COMPTROLLER.

* Who, as well as the cuſtomers, were to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men, and not to be made for affection or reward, or upon any ſollicitation, but upon deſert; and were to ſit with the cuſtomers, and in all things to cheque and imitate their tranſactions: and, as the cuſtomers were wont to write their accounts in rolls, the comptrollers were to keep counter-rolls; which counter-rolls, or accounts, they were to deliver into the exchequer yearly, upon oath. And now there are collectors appointed, to receive and account for the king's duties; they are likewiſe to cheque all their tranſactions, by examining and ſigning all accounts, diſpatches, &c. and by keeping the like books of accounts: and they are to be privy to all orders of the commiſſioners, and to be conſulted with, in the whole management and buſineſs of their reſpective poſts, and to join with the collectors in all their proceedings.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, theſe comptrollers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye ſhall ſwear, That well and truly ye ſhall ſerve the king, in the office of comptroller of the king's cuſtoms and ſubſidies, in the place of cuſtomer; and truly ye ſhall enter all the goods and things cuſtomable, the which ſhall come to the ſaid port, or ſhall paſs from the ſame: and that ye ſhall no gift take for to do your office, nor for any thing that may fall in diſadvantage of the king; nor any merchandize, nor any other thing cuſtomable, ye ſhall not ſuffer to paſs out of the ſaid port, without cuſtom due be paid: and ye ſhall do the office yourſelf, and dwell thereupon in your proper perſon, without making any ſubſtitute or deputy under you: and ye ſhall write the rolls with your own hands; and the king's profit ye ſhall wait and do, inaſmuch as ye may, after your knowledge and power: as God you help and his ſaints.'

Some rules, in regard to Oaths in particular, that are to be obſerved by the officers of the cuſtoms in general.

1. * That no perſons are to be employed in the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, 'till they had given ſecurity, and have taken their corporal oaths in the following form, viz.

Deputation dated the ——, ſurities, D. E. —— of —— E. F. —— of —— penalty——l. juravit apud —— die —— corum nobis. B. C.—Collector. C. D.—Comptroller.

'I, A. B. (his employment) do ſwear to be true and faithful in the execution and diſcharge (to the beſt of my knowlege and power) of the truſt committed to my charge and inſpection, in the ſervice of his majeſty's cuſtoms; and that I will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, directly or indirectly, other than my ſalary, or what is or ſhall be allowed me from the crown, or the regular fees eſtabliſhed by law, for any ſervice done, or to be done, in the execution of my employment, upon any account whatſoever. So help me God.'

A. B.

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2 § 33. 4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 5. § 25. But note, this act does not direct who ſhall adminiſter this oath.

Which oath is to be adminiſtered by the principal officers of every out-port, or any two of them, and to be entered or regiſtered in a book to be kept in the cuſtom-houſe for that purpoſe: and if the ſecurity be given at the port, the bond muſt be returned to the commiſſioners, and the ſufficiency of the ſureties, with their places of abode, certified to the examiner of ſecurities.

2. * That all perſons employed in the cuſtoms, in any out-port, muſt, at their admiſſions, likewiſe take the aforeſaid oath, before two juſtices of the peace, in the county, town, or place where their employments ſhall be, upon forfeiture of their employments, for refuſal or neglect: and the ſaid juſtices muſt certify the taking of this oath, to the next general quarter-ſeſſions.

* 6 and 7 W. and M. cap. 1. § 5, 6.

And when any officer, having taken theſe oaths, is thereupon to be admitted, the collector and comptroller are to deliver him his deputation or commiſſion, taking a receipt for the ſame, in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, and alſo at the foot of the copy of his inſtructions annexed to his bond, which are to be tranſmitted together to the commiſſioners.

The CUSTOMERS.

* Who were to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men to be found, to the lord treaſurer's eſtimation, and not for affection or reward, nor upon any ſollicitation, but upon deſert: and by the king's letters patent, under the great ſeal of England, were appointed collectors of the great and petty cuſtoms, as alſo of the ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage: which office they were not to have † for life, or term of years, but only during the king's pleaſure; and if their patents were made to the contrary, they were to be void.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.
† 14 Rich. II. cap. 10. § 1. 17 Rich. II. cap. 5. § 1.
1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1. 31 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.

And for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, theſe cuſtomers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye ſhall ſwear, That ye ſhall make continual abiding in the port ——, and ſhall overſee the charge of wool, leather, and wool-fells, and all other merchandizes and things cuſtomable, and the number of ſacks in the ſaid port; and, in asmuch as in you is, ye ſhall not ſuffer that the king have hurt or loſs there; and that true account thereof ye ſhall yield; and of the iſſues of the ſaid cuſtoms, truly ye ſhall anſwer, without fauxim or fraud, to be done in any point: as God you help, and his ſaints.'

* They were, upon ten days notice given them in writing, by the king, or ſix of his privy-counſellers, to declare what money due to the king, was in their hands, and to make ready and full payments, upon forfeiture of office; and † they were to ſwear to their accounts in the exchequer.

* 7 Edw. VI. cap. 1. § 13.
† 4 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1.

But now there are particular officers appointed, by the name of collectors, who receive the king's cuſtoms, ſubſidies, &c. and account for them to the comptroller-general; ſo that

cuſtomers

cuſtomers have only the accounts to keep, which they ſtill deliver into the Exchequer, yearly upon oath.

II. The SEARCHERS or FINDERS.

* Who were to be choſen as the cuſtomers were, and were appointed for their aſſiſtance in the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, without doors, to ſee that no goods were imported or exported without due payment of duty; and not being allowed any ſalary, were to take the moiety of all forfeitures and ſeizures for their pains: and they were to keep entries of all cockets, &c. paſſed to them from the cuſtomers, and likewiſe of their own ſeizures, and were to account yearly for the truth of their tranſactions.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, theſe ſearchers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye ſhall ſwear, that ye ſhall ſerve the king well and truly in the office of the ſearchership in the port of ————, and do the king's profits in all things that belongeth to you to do, by way of your office: and well and truly ye ſhall make due ſearch of all the ſhips and veſſels coming in or paſſing out of the ſaid port, and truly anſwer the king of all that ſhall belong unto him in your ſaid office, without fraud or maligne, after your wit and power: as God help you, and his ſaints.'

REMARKS.

Under the article AFFIDAVIT, we have conſidered the ill conſequences which, is greatly to be feared, may attend the multiplicity of oaths that are required to be taken in this nation by traders, in relation to the public revenue. If the conſtitution of the public revenue was ſuch, that no oaths need be required to be taken but by the officers concerned in the collection, it might prove far leſs injurious to the public, by removing the motive to perjury; which is grown to ſuch a pitch among us, that all wiſe and good men lament it as one of the greateſt evils that can attend the community.

This conſideration alone is inducement ſufficient, methinks, to point out the neceſſity of ſo CHANGING THE SYSTEM OF THE PUCLIC REVENUE, that there might be no occaſion for any oath to be taken in regard thereunto, except by the officers concerned in it, and not even by them. How this might be happily effectuated may be eaſily inferred from what has been urged relative to the revenue throughout this work. In the interim, we ſhall only make ſome ſhort obſervations on oaths in general, while the revenue continues in it's preſent ſtate and conſtitution.

As the impoſition of an oath was always eſteemed to be the greateſt tie and obligation that could be contrived, for the diſcovery of the truth of any fact; and the uſual confirmation of all oaths, being in the moſt ſolemn manner to call upon, and appeal to, the almighty God, who knows the ſecrets of all hearts, to judge of, and be a witneſs to, the truth thereof, and to beg his help, upon no other terms, than that what is there aſſerted be true, and in teſtimony thereof kiſſing his holy goſpel: I ſhould think that none but the moſt profligate, or the moſt ignorant of mankind, would be ſo hardy as to diſhonour God's name, by thus taking it in vain, which muſt either ſuppoſe that he knows not whether we ſpeak true or falſe, or elſe, that he will countenance our ſolemn lies and perjuries.

And, with reſpect to the perſons thus affirming the truth of any fact or thing upon oath, it muſt be conſidered, that if he knows that there is not perfect truth in that he ſwears, he is guilty of wilful and downright perjury; as he alſo is, if he ſwears to the poſitive truth of that whereof he is wholly ignorant, nay, or only doubtful; for, though the ſame ſhould be true, yet ſuch ſwearing is but at a venture, to what might as well be falſe. And, as all perſons making oath to the truth of any thing, are ſuppoſed to perfectly know the whole affair, and to have carefully informed and ſatisfied themſelves in every particular circumſtance, which may occaſion the leaſt doubt; it is not only very ſilly, but very wicked, to ſooth themſelves with the poor evaſion, that the fact or caſe might be ſo for OUGHT THEY KNOW, becauſe they KNOW NOTHING OF THE MATTER. And of this abominable nature, is that ſhameful excuſe for thoſe perjuries, which it is to be feared, are but too frequently committed at the cuſtom-houſe, viz. That it is but a CUSTOM-HOUSE OATH; as if God, who is omnipreſent, did not ſee, and was not equally offended at profaning his name there, as at any other place whatſoever: but let theſe offenders remember the puniſhment, which is denounced againſt them in the third commandment. Since, therefore, oaths are of ſuch a ſacred and ſolemn nature, they ought to be adminiſtered with all imaginable reverence, and not ſlightly and with indifference; but, after having interrogated the perſon concerning every particular circumſtance, and being ſatisfied that he underſtands the nature of an oath, and does not offer to ſwear ignorantly or raſhly, and not having any reaſon to doubt his ſincerity, the whole oath ſhould be maturely, deliberately, diſtinctly, and reverently rehearſed to him.

And, as the multipjicity of oaths in the buſineſs of the revenue, particularly in the cuſtoms, does, it is to be feared, in a great meaſure, leſſen that awe and juſt regard that ought to be paid to ſuch ſolemn and ſacred ties; it is much to be wiſhed, that fewer oaths were neceſſary; and therefore we would recommend, that any ſuperfluous oaths ſhould not by any means be exacted; but only ſuch as are either expreſsly enjoined by the letter of the law, or are abſolutely neceſſary for the diſcovering or aſcertaining any thing for the ſervice of the revenue, which cannot be obtained by any other means.

As to the perſons to which the oaths are to be adminiſtered, it muſt be carefully obſerved, that they who offer to ſwear, are the proper perſonsin the eye of the law; and where the laws have not particularly directed, that they be ſuch perſons as are the moſt proper, according to the nature of the caſe, as being either principally concerned, or the moſt knowing in the whole affair; provided they are not boys, or ſuch ignorant perſons as are not capable of underſtanding the nature and conſequence of an oath.

Beſides the oaths before-mentioned, there are likewiſe promiſſory or obligatory oaths, particularly in the report of a ſhip outwards, concerning the not relanding of goods intitled to a drawback, bounty, &c. the breach of which is not leſs criminal, than of any other oath; and, if the maſter at the time of making ſuch oath, has no real intention to make it good, or whether he then has or not, if he afterwards breaks the ſame, he certainly muſt be deemed guilty of perjury.

And laſtly, as to the oaths in general, it muſt be remembered, that they are always to be taken according to the common and ufual interpretation of the words, and in the ſame ſenſe that they are known to be deſigned, and not with any private reſerve or evaſion. See OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS.

OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS. The officers principally employed in the management of the cuſtoms in an out-port, were originally no more than three, viz. a cuſtomer, a ſearcher, a comptroller.

I. The CUSTOMERS,

* Who were to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men to be found, to the lord treaſurer's eſtimation, and not for affection or reward, nor upon any ſollicitation, but upon DESERT: and, by the king's letters patent under the great ſeal of England, were appointed collectors of the great and petty cuſtoms, as alſo of the ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

Which office they were not to have *for life, or term of years, but only during the king's pleaſure; and, if their patents were made to the contrary, they were to be void.

* 14 Rich. II. cap. 10. § 1. 17 Rich. II. cap. 5. § 1.
1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1. 31 Hen. VI. cap 5. § 1.

And, for the due and faithful execution of their duties, theſe cuſtomers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye ſhall ſwear, That ye ſhall make continual abiding in the port of ————, and ſhall overſee the charge of wool, leather, and wool-fells, and all other merchandizes and things cuſtomable, and the number of ſacks in the ſaid port; and in as much as in you is, ye ſhall not ſuffer that the king have hurt or loſs there; and that true account thereof ye ſhall yield; and of the iſſues of the ſaid cuſtoms, truly ye ſhall anſwer, without fauxim or fraud, to be done in any point: as God you help, and his ſaints.'

* They were upon ten days notice given them in writing, by the king, or ſix of his privy-counſellors, to declare what money due to the king was in their hands, and to make ready and full payment, upon forfeiture of office; and †they were to ſwear to their accounts in the Exchequer.

* 7 Edw. VI. cap. 1. § 13. † 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.

But now there are particular officers appointed, by the name of collectors, who receive the king's cuſtoms, ſubſidies, &c. and account for them to the comptroller-general; ſo that cuſtomers have only the accounts to keep, which they ſtill deliver into the Exchequer yearly upon oath.

And theſe cuſtomers * were to be reſident upon their office, without making deputies, and to be ſworn to do the ſame, and not to be abſent by three weeks at the moſt, unleſs otherwiſe in the king's ſervice of record, upon loſs of office, impriſonment, and forfeiture of 100l. to the king: but now † the cuſtomers of every head-port, muſt have one able and ſufficient deputy or ſervant at the leaſt, to reſide at all members and creeks, appointed by commiſſions out of the court of Exchequer, for the entering, clearing, paſſing, &c. of ſhips and merchandizes.

* 1 Hen. IV. cap 13. § 1. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.
13 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.
† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II cap. 11. § 14.

In

In ſome of the out-ports, there is a cuſtomer inwards and another outwards, but in moſt ports the ſame perſon is cuſtomer both inwards and outwards; and theſe cuſtomers are ſcarce ever known to act themſelves, unleſs where they are collectors likewiſe; but in the ſmaller ports do uſually appoint the collectors to be their deputies, and in the larger ports they have diſtinct deputies; to whom they are obliged to allow at leaſt 20 l. per ann. or elſe to relinquiſh to them the whole fees.

For the principal other regulations concerning cuſtomers, ſee the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe in general throughout the work.

II. The Searchers or Finders,

* Were originally to be choſen in the manner of the cuſtomers, and were appointed for their aſſiſtance in the buſineſs of the cuſtoms without doors, to ſee that no goods were imported or exported without payment of duty; and not being allowed any ſalary, were to take the moiety of all forfeitures and ſeizures for their pains: they were alſo to keep entries of all cockets, &c. paſſed to them from the cuſtomers, and likewiſe of their own ſeizures, and were to account yearly for the truth of their tranſactions.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the faithful execution of their duty, theſe ſearchers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath:

'Ye ſhall ſwear, that ye ſhall ſerve the king well and truly in the office of the ſearcherſhip in the port of ————, and do the king's profits in all things that belongeth to you to do, by way of your office; and well and truly ye ſhall make due ſearch of all the ſhips and veſſels coming in or paſſing out of the ſaid port; and truly anſwer the king of all that ſhall belong unto him in your ſaid office, without fraud or maligne, after your wit and power: as God help you, and his ſaints.'

* They were to be ſworn not to let their offices to farm, nor to appoint deputies, but to be reſident thereon themſelves, and not be abſent by three weeks at the moſt, unleſs otherwiſe in the king's ſervice of record, upon loſs of office, impriſonment, and forfeiture of 100 l. But now † the ſearchers of every head port, muſt have one able and ſufficient deputy or ſervant at the leaſt, to reſide at all members and creeks, appointed by commiſſions out of the court of Exchequer, for the paſſing, ſhipping, clearing, &c. of ſhips and merchandizes: and it is the practice for the ſearchers likewiſe to appoint deputies at the principal ports, ſcarce any of them acting themſelves; and theſe deputies in the ſmaller ports are often the ſame perſons that are appointed land-waiters, but in the larger ports it is uſual to have diſtinct deputies to whom they are obliged to allow at leaſt 20 l. or elſe to relinquiſh to them the whole fees.

* 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 21. § 1. 13 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.
† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 14.

Though the buſineſs of a ſearcher ſeems originally to have been not only to attend at the ſhipping of goods deſigned to be exported to foreign parts, but likewiſe at the landing of goods imported from foreign parts, and alſo at the ſhipping and landing of goods coaſtwiſe; yet now there being particular officers appointed by the names of land-waiters for the landing, examining, and delivering of all foreign goods imported, and coaſt-waiters for the examining, landing, and ſhipping of goods, brought and carried coaſtwiſe; the ſearchers are only concerned in the examining and ſhipping of goods deſigned to be exported to foreign parts, and even in that part of the buſineſs, the land-waiters are moſtly joined with them.

For other regulations relating to this officer, ſee the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe throughout the whole work.

III. The Comptrollers,

* Were originally, as well as the cuſtomers, to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men, and not to be made for affection or reward, or upon any ſollicitation, but upon Desert; and were to ſit with the cuſtomers, and in all things to cheque and imitate their tranſactions: and, as the cuſtomers were wont to write their accounts in rolls, the comptrollers were to keep counter-rolls; which counter-rolls or accounts, they were to deliver into the Exchequer yearly, upon oath. And now there are collectors appointed to receive an account for the king's duties, they are likewiſe to cheque all their tranſactions, by examining and ſigning all accounts, diſpatches, &c. and by keeping the like books of accounts: and they are to be privy to all orders of the commiſſioners, and to be conſulted with, in the whole management and buſineſs of their reſpective ports, and to join with the collectors in all their proceedings.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the faithful execution of their duty, theſe comptrollers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye ſhall ſwear, that well and truly ye ſhall ſerve the king in the office of comptroller of the king's cuſtoms and ſubſidies, in the place of cuſtomer; and truly ye ſhall enter all the goods and things cuſtomable, the which ſhall come to the ſaid port, or ſhall paſs from the ſame: and that ye ſhall no gift take for to do your office, nor for any thing that may fall in diſadvantage to the king; nor any merchandize, nor any other thing cuſtomable, ye ſhall not ſuffer to paſs out of the ſaid port, without cuſtom due be paid: and ye ſhall do the office yourſelf, and dwell thereupon in your proper perſon, without making any ſubſtitute or deputy under you: and ye ſhall write the rolls with your own hands; and the king's profit ye ſhall wait and do, inaſmuch as ye may, after your knowledge and power: as God you help, and his ſaints.'

* They were to be ſworn as above, to be continually reſident upon their offices, without making deputies, and not to be abſent by three weeks at the moſt, unleſs otherwiſe in the king's ſervice of record, upon loſs of office, impriſonment, and forfeiture of 100 l. to the king: but now the † comptrollers of every head-port muſt have one able and ſufficient deputy or ſervant at the leaſt, to reſide at all members and creeks, appointed by commiſſions out of the court of Exchequer, for the entering, paſſing, clearing, &c. of ſhips and merchandize: and it is the practice of the comptrollers likewiſe, to appoint deputies at the principal ports, ſcarce any of them acting themſelves; and theſe deputies in the ſmaller ports, are often the collector's clerks, but in the larger ports it is uſual to appoint diſtinct deputies; to whom they are obliged to allow at leaſt 20 l. per ann. or elſe to relinquiſh to them the whole fees.

* 1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1. 13 Hen IV. cap. 5. § 1.
† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 14.

And the perſons who officiate as comptrollers are, by the honourable the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, appointed comptrollers of the duties on coals, culm, and cinders, brought coaſtwiſe, for which they are allowed poundage.

For other regulations relating to this officer, ſee the general buſineſs of the cuſtoms throughout this work.

Having thus given a ſhort account of the officers, which, by the old laws, ſeem to have been originally entruſted with the management of the cuſtoms, I ſhall now proceed to treat of the ſeveral officers, which, by the great increaſe of buſineſs, have ſince been found neceſſary to be added, and are now actually employed in that revenue: the principal whereof are,

I. The Collectors.

Though the cuſtomers were originally the collectors of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, &c. and are ſtill ſo ſtiled in their patents, yet of later years, there have been new and diſtinct officers appointed for that purpoſe, by the titles of Collectors, who are entitled the officers of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; by whoſe deputation they act, and under whom they have, at their reſpective ports, the whole management and direction of levying and collecting his Majeſty's cuſtoms, and other duties on goods and merchandizes imported and exported, and of the duties on coals, culm, and cinders, brought coaſtwiſe; and alſo the direction of all the other officers employed in that revenue, deputed by the ſaid commiſſioners: and are alſo, by the ſame authority, impowered to inſpect the behaviour of the patent-officers, or their deputies, that in caſe of any miſbehaviour, they may repreſent the ſame to the ſaid commiſſioners.

II. The Surveyors,

Are a kind of inſpectors and ſupervifors of the whole buſineſs of the cuſtoms without doors, as well by land as by water; though in the larger ports there are ſeparate officers appointed by the names of Tide-ſurveyors, to execute that duty by water: but in all ports they are to attend, at the ſhipping and landing of goods, as well to and from foreign parts, as coaſtwiſe, to ſee that the proper officers regularly diſcharge their reſpective duties, and to adjuſt the tares of goods, &c. and they are likewiſe to examine and jerque the land-waiter's books [ſee the article Jerque]: and though they are not required to ſend up quarterly accounts of the imports and exports, as the collectors, cuſtomers, and comptrollers do; yet they are to compare the original warrants granted for the landing of all goods imported, and copies of all cockets granted for the ſhipping of all goods exported, with the collector's quarter-books which they ſend up, and to atteſt under their hands, that the true qualities and quantities of all the goods, landed and ſhipped off during that quarter, are truly entered therein.

III. The Land-Waiters,

Are to attend at the landing of all goods imported from foreign parts, and take an account thereof, in order that his Majeſty's full duties may be paid for the ſame: and in ſome ports they alſo execute the office of a coaſt-waiter.

They are likewiſe ſtiled Searchers, and are to attend with the patent-ſearchers, in the execution of all cockets for the ſhipping

ſhipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts: and in all caſes where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid on the exportation of any goods, they as well as the patent-ſearchers, are to certify to the ſhipping thereof on the DEBENTURES. See the article DEBENTURES.

For inſtructions in the method of examining and delivering of foreign goods imported, ſee the buſineſs of the cuſtoms throughout this work.

IV. The COAST-WAITERS,

At their reſpective ports, are to attend at the landing and ſhipping of all goods coming from, or going to any other port within Great-Britain, to take an account thereof, and ſee that they exactly agree in quality and quantity, with the ſufferances granted for the landing or ſhipping; ſo that under the colour of bringing or ſending one ſort of goods coaſtwiſe, any other ſorts may not be fraudulently imported or exported, to the prejudice of his Majeſty's revenue.

V. The TIDE-SURVEYORS,

Are at all times, when his Majeſty's ſervice requires it, to attend the ſame by water, to viſit all ſhips from foreign parts, upon their arrival into port, in order to put tide-waiters on board, and to rummage for prohibited goods, or goods concealed, and are frequently to call upon the ſaid ſhips, to ſee that the tide-waiters are on board, and do keep their watch; and when it is ſignified to them that the ſhip is wholly diſcharged, they are to go on board and rummage the ſame, and if they do not find any goods on board, they are to take off the tide-waiters.

They are likewiſe to place tide-waiters on board outward-bound ſhips, whereon there have been laden any goods intitled to a drawback or bounty, to prevent the ſame from being relanded; and are frequently to viſit the ſaid ſhips, to ſee that the officers on board do their duty: and, when the ſaid ſhips have been regularly cleared in the cuſtom-houſe by the collector, &c. and are ready to ſail, they are to diſcharge the tide-waiters.

VI. The TIDE-WAITERS, or TIDESMEN,

Are to be placed by the tide-ſurveyors on board all ſhips laden with goods from foreign parts, to prevent the fraudulent landing or conveying of them away without payment of his Majeſty's duties, which is to be ſignified to them by a note under the land-waiter's hands: and, when they have received ſuch note, order, or warrant, from the land-waiters, for permitting any goods to be unladen, they are to take an account of the marks, numbers, and outward package, in a book to be given them for that purpoſe: but they may ſend all ſmall parcels of goods liable to be run, to the king's warehouſe, for ſecurity of the duties, without any order, having firſt entered them in the ſaid books. And during the time that they are on board, they are to prevent wines from being filled up, or the package of any goods opened, and endeavour to diſcover all goods concealed, as likewiſe any bulk tobacco, or any other prohibited goods, and to ſeize the ſame.

They are likewiſe to be placed on board outward-bound ſhips, whereon there have been laden any goods intitled to a drawback or bounty upon exportation, to prevent the fraudulent relanding: and during the time they continue on board, they are to take care that the packages of any goods be not altered.

VII. The BOATMEN or WATERMEN,

In ſome ports, are appointed only to row and give their attendance in the tide-ſurveyor's boats; but in moſt ports they likewiſe, when occaſion requires, officiate as tide-waiters, by watching on board ſhips, &c.

VIII. The COAL-METERS,

Are to attend at the delivery of all ſhips coming coaſtwiſe with coals, culm, or cinders, to mete, meaſure, or weigh the ſame, and to take account of the full quantities delivered, in order that his Majeſty's duties may be fully paid.

IX. The RIDING OFFICERS,

Are appointed to reſide at, or near ſome particular places on the ſea-coaſts, and have certain diſtricts allotted them; ſome part whereof they are to viſit daily, in order to diſcover any veſſels hovering on the coaſts, with a deſign to land or take on board any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, which they muſt by all means endeavour to prevent; and in caſe of the fraudulent landing or ſhipping of any goods, to ſeize the ſame, with the veſſels, boats, &c.

They are to enter each day's tranſactions and proceedings, with their motions from place to place, in a proper book to be kept for that purpoſe; from whence at the end of each month, two journals are to be tranſcribed, and ſent or delivered to the collector; one whereof to be preſerved in the office, and the other to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners, in order to be examined by the perſons appointed for that purpoſe.

But, before theſe journals are thus tranſmitted, the collector is, on the back thereof, to make his obſervations how far the officers have performed their duty. And, as there will be no neceſſity to mention theſe officers hereafter but occaſionally, we ſhall here add the forms of their books and journals, which muſt be as follow:

Port of Southampton. | Diſtrict. From A—— to B—— | Journal of B. C. officer at D———, for the month of

Day of the month.	When travelling.			When attending.		Wind and weather.	Tranſactions and obſervations, viz.
	Place from whence, and hour of the day when ſet out.	Places arrived at, and hour when.	Diſtance of the place.	Place where attended.	From and to what time attended, and when returned.		What officers met, and where; what informations of goods run, or intended to be run, and what methods taken to prevent the ſame, what ſeizures made; what ſhips obſerved on the coaſt, and which way they ſail, and what notice of ſuch ſhips given to the next officer; what ſignals obſerved from the commander of the ſmack; and alſo whatever happens in the day, evening, or night, that may be fit for the commiſſioners knowlege.

X. The SURVEYORS, WAITERS, and SEARCHERS,

Are appointed to reſide at creeks, to execute the offices of ſurveyors, tide-ſurveyors, land-waiters, coaſt-waiters, and ſearchers, in the ſame manner as thoſe diſtinct officers are to execute the ſame at the principal and member-ports: and they are likewiſe to perform the duties of riding officers, and to keep journals of their daily actions and proceedings, with their motions from place to place; to be delivered to the collectors, in order to be by them tranſmitted to the commiſſioners.

XI. The MASTERS of SMACKS,

Are appointed to command veſſels to cruize on the coaſts of Great-Britain, and are diligently to attend on board, and to keep their veſſels in conſtant motion within their reſpective diſtricts, or ſtations, unleſs in caſes of neceſſity, or purſuit of ſuſpected veſſels: and, in cruizing, they are to ſpeak with all ſhips or veſſels which they ſhall meet at ſea; and, if they have any reaſon to ſuſpect they have goods on board deſigned to be ſmuggled, they are diligently to watch their motions, and keep them company 'till they are clear of the coaſt within their reſpective diſtricts, in order to prevent the fraudulent landing any ſuch goods.

And they are likewiſe to endeavour to prevent the exportation of ſuch goods as are prohibited to be exported out of this kingdom; and, in caſe they diſcover any ſuch goods to have been ſhipped, or ſhipping for foreign parts, they are to ſeize the ſame, with the veſſels, &c. For the due navigation of each of theſe veſſels, there are likewiſe appointed a mate, and a ſufficient number of mariners, who are to be under the direction of the ſaid maſters.

And, for the victualling of theſe veſſels, the commanders are allowed nine-pence per diem for themſelves and each mariner; whereof notice is to be affixed on the maſt, that, if good and ſufficient proviſions are not provided by the commanders, the mariners may complain to the collector and comptroller.

Theſe maſters and their mates, are to keep journals of their daily tranſactions, with their motions from place to place, to be delivered monthly to the collectors of their reſpective ports, in order to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners.

And, by way of diſtinction, all ſmacks, yachts, or veſſels employed in the ſervice of the cuſtoms, are to wear a jack and enſign, with the ſeal of office thereon, the mark in the enſign being twice as large as that in the jack; but not to wear a pendant.

The aforementioned officers are thoſe which are chiefly concerned in the execution of the cuſtom laws, &c. in an outport; for as to the more inferior, ſuch as weighers, watchmen, &c. their very titles beſpeak their employments, ſo that they need no definition; and though, in ſome ports, they are executed by diſtinct perſons, yet in many, eſpecially the ſmaller, the tide-waiters and boatmen officiate.

REMARKS.

The foregoing is only a ſhort general account of the nature of the employments of the ſeveral officers of the cuſtoms; but, for the methods of executing their reſpective employments, we muſt refer to the ſeveral branches of the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, where they are occaſionally treated of. And as what has been ſaid relates only to the reſpective employments of the officers, we ſhall next give an account of what other regulations they are ſubject to; the which are likewiſe to be obſerved by all other officers of the cuſtoms in general.

RULES to be obſerved by the OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS in general.

I. * That no perſons are to be employed in the buſineſs of the cuſtoms till they have given ſecurity, and have taken their corporal oaths in the following form, viz,

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 33. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. § 25. But note, this act does not direct who ſhall adminiſter this oath.

Deputation dated the ---------
Sureties,
D. E. ----- of -----
E. F. ----- of -----
Penalty -----l.
Juravit apud -------
die ----- coram nobis
B. C.----Collector,
C. D.---Comptroller.

'I A. B. [his employment] do ſwear to be true and faithful in the execution and diſcharge (to the beſt of my knowlege and power) of the truſt committed to my charge and inſpection, in the ſervice of his Majeſty's cuſtoms; and that I will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, directly or indirectly, other than my ſalary, or what is or ſhall be allowed me from the crown, or the regular fees eſtabliſhed by law, for any ſervice done, or to be done, in the execution of my employment, upon any account whatſoever. So help me God.'

A. B.

Which oath is adminiſtered by the principal officers of every out-port, or any two of them, and entered or regiſtered in a book to be kept in the cuſtom-houſe for that purpoſe: and, if the ſecurity be given at the port, the bond muſt be returned to the commiſſioners, and the ſufficiency of the ſureties, with their places of abode, certified to the examiner of ſecurities.

II. * That all perſons employed in the cuſtoms in any outport, muſt, at their admiſſion, likewiſe take the aforeſaid oath, before two juſtices of the peace in the county, town, or place where their employment ſhall be, upon forfeiture of their employments, for refuſal or neglect; and the ſaid juſtices muſt certify the taking of this oath, to the next general quarter-ſeſſions.

* 6 and 7 Will. and Mar. cap. 1. § 5, 6.

And when any officer, having taken theſe oaths, is thereupon to be admitted, the collector and comptroller are to deliver him his deputation, or commiſſion, taking a receipt for the ſame, in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, and alſo at the foot thereof the copy of his inſtructions, annexed to his bond, which are to be tranſmitted together to the commiſſioners.

III. That his Majeſty's revenue may not ſuffer by the officers abſenting themſelves from their reſpective duties, it muſt be obſerved, that they may not preſume ſo to do without particular leave: and, therefore, when any officer's private affairs, &c. require their abſence, the collector may, upon their application, give them leave for any time not exceeding a week; and, if that is not ſufficient, the commiſſioners muſt be applied to for longer time. But, notwithſtanding ſuch leave to be abſent for longer time than a week, two-third parts of their ſalaries muſt be deducted, and applied to the fund for paying penſions to ſuperannuated officers: and if any officers are abſent for longer time than for what they had leave, they are to forfeit two days pay for each day ſo abſent, to be applied to the ſaid ſuperannuation fund; upon refuſal or neglect whereof, their ſalaries to be ſtopped.

And if an eſtabliſhed officer officiates for any other eſtabliſhed officer abſent by leave, the officer ſo officiating is not to have an additional allowance, unleſs put to any extraordinary charges: but, if an extraordinary man officiates, he is to be paid by incidents.

For the due regulations of ſuch eſtabliſhed officer's abſence, a book muſt be kept after the following manner:

Leave to be abſent from duty, requeſted by eſtabliſhed officers.

5th of January.

I deſire leave to be abſent from my duty for ſix days, for the recovery of my health - - - - -

Granted—B. C. Collector,
A. B. Surveyor.

8th of January.

I deſire leave to be abſent from my duty for ſix days, on my own private affairs - - - - -

Granted—B. C. Collector,
C. D. Landwaiter.

Leave further continued for ten days, by commiſſioners letter of the 13th of January.

An Account of the abſence of eſtabliſhed officers in the month of———

Officers names.	Titles of office.	When abſented.	When returned.	Time of abſence.	Occaſion of abſence.
A. B.	Surveyor	5th Jan.	11 Jan.	6 days	Recovery of health
C. D.	Land-waiter	8th Jan.	24 Jan.	16 days	Private affairs

And from this ſide of the book is to be tranſcribed an account in the ſame form, in order to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, the next poſt after the end of each month, with the monthly abſtracts.

And, with regard to mariners employed on board any veſſels in the ſervice of the cuſtoms, it muſt be obſerved, that they may not be abſent above three days, except in caſe of ſickneſs; and that, in all caſes of abſence, the commanders and mates are to give a certificate of the occaſion, to the collector and comptroller.

IV. That a proviſion may be made for the maintenance of ſuch officers of the cuſtoms as have behaved well, and through age or infirmities are become ſuperannuated, or by ſome accident rendered incapable of the ſervice, a deduction of ſixpence in the pound muſt be made quarterly, out of the ſalaries and day's pay of all ſuch eſtabliſhed officers of the outports, whoſe ſalaries do not exceed 60l. per annum, and whoſe taxes are repaid by the crown, except collectors and their clerks, and patent officers, or their deputies, who have no ſalaries on the eſtabliſhment: but no officer is to be intitled to this allowance who has any other means of ſubſiſtence from the government, or otherwiſe, or is capable of getting ſubſiſtence any other way.

And to the ſame uſe is likewiſe to be applied the two-third parts of the ſalaries of the abſent officers, and the money deducted out of the officers ſalaries, by way of mulct for miſdemeanors: upon neglect or refuſal of the payment whereof, their ſalaries are to be ſtopped.

Which deductions are to be made by the collector, upon payment of the reſpective officers ſalaries, and to be preſerved in the king's cheſt, under the joint care of the collector and comptroller, and accounted for in each month's abſtract: and the collector is to keep a ſeparate account of the money collected on the ſuperannuation-fund, and remit the ſame immediately after the end of each quarter, to Mr -------, the preſent receiver; of which remittance the comptroller is to ſend a duplicate to -------, Eſq; the comptroller-general, in order that he may cheque the ſaid ------, and comptrol the accounts. The form of the account of the collector of this fund muſt be as follows:

An account of the deduction of ſix-pence in the pound, out of the ſalaries and day-pay of the eſtabliſhed officers, and mulcts on all officers of this port, for the quarter ending at Lady-Day, being towards the maintenance of ſuperannuated officers.

	Salaries. Eſtabliſhed. l.	s.	d.	Incidents. l.	s.	d.	Deductions and mulcts. l.	s.	d.
A. B. ſurveyor	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	6
B. C. land-waiter	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—
C. D. waiter and ſearcher	11	5	—	—	—	—	—	5	7½
D. E. riding ſurveyor	12	10	—	—	—	—	—	6	3
E. F. commander of the ſmack	7	10	—	2	10	—	—	5	—
F. G. coaſt-waiter	7	10	—	2	10	—	—	5	—
G. H. tideſman and boatman	7	10	—	1	5	—	—	4	4½
H. I. boatman	6	5	—	2	10	—	—	4	4½
B. C. land-waiter, abſent 10 days by leave; the two-thirds of his ſalary for the ſaid time amounts to	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	10
F. G. coaſt-waiter, abſent 7 days beyond his leave; the forfeiture of double his ſalary for the ſaid time amounts to	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	11	1
A. B. ſurveyor, a mulct for neglect of duty, deducted from his ſalary by order of the commiſſioners, dated the 18th of January	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	—
							9	9	—½

Dr — — — A. B. Collector — — — Ct

To the receipt of this quarter, l. 9 : 9 : 0½, by remittance to Mr ———, receiver - - l. 9 : 9 : 0½

From which book muſt be tranſcribed a quarterly account, in the ſame form, and ſigned by the collector and comptroller, in order to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners.

And if any of the ſuperannuated officers deſire to be paid at any particular port on notice thereof to Mr ----------, and ſending a printed certificate (according to the following form) of the perſon's being alive, with his receipt for the money, the ſaid ---------- is to give the collector credit for the ſum ſo paid.

A certificate of a ſuperannuated officer's being alive.

The 25th of March.

Theſe are to certify the honourable the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, that A. B. late a boatman in the port of C-----, and now dwelling in the ------ of D-----, was living on the 24th day of this preſent March.

E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller,
G. H. Miniſter,
H. I. } Church-wardens.
I. K. }

V. That his Majeſty's revenue may not ſuffer through the incapacities and diſabilities of the officers, there muſt yearly, at Chriſtmas, be tranſmitted to the honourable the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, a true ſtate of the ſeveral ſettled officers belonging to each port, after the following manner, the ſame having been firſt entered in a proper book to be kept for that purpoſe.

An account of the ages, capacities, and abilities, of the ſeveral officers of this port, at Chriſtmas --------

Officers names.	Title of office.	Age.	Capacities and abilities.
	On the eſtabliſhment.		
A. B. - -	Surveyor - - - -	29	Expert in the practical part of caſk-gauging, and otherwiſe qualified for duty.
B. C. - -	Land-waiter - - - -	42	Expert in the practical part of caſk-guaging, and otherwiſe qualified and able for duty.
C. D. - -	Waiter and ſearcher - - -	51	Capable and able for duty.
D. E. - -	Riding-ſurveyor - - -	39	
E. F. - -	Commander of the ſmack - -	46	
F. G. - -	Coaſt-waiter - - - -	25	
G. H. - -	Tideſman and boatman - -	39	
H. I. - -	Boatman - - - -	35	
	By incidents.		
I. K. - -	Tide-ſurveyor - - -	28	Well experienced, and able for duty.
K. L. - -	Tideſman - - - -	49	Capable and able for duty.

L. M. Collector.
M. N. Comptroller.

OIL.

Of the nature and quality of OIL in general.

What the chemiſts call oil, or ſulphur, is not a ſimple ſubſtance, but a body compounded of fire, water, earth, and ſalt; but we chuſe to ſay ſomething of it here, as it is moſt commonly ſeparated intire in the operations of chemiſtry, and is with ſome difficulty reſolvible into it's component principles.

It may be defined to be a fluid, viſcid, inflammable, tranſparent body, without taſte or ſmell (though by mixing it differently with ſalts, theſe ſenſible qualities are produced) compounded of fire, water, earth, and ſalt, and it may be conceived to conſiſt of many flakes, or flocculi, each of which is again made up of very ſmall flexible filaments, formed of the four principles beforementioned, by fermentation, as well in the bowels of the earth, as in the bodies of vegetables and animals: thus an aromatic plant growing in water, will, by diſtillation, yield an oil, which could never have been obtained from the water in which it ſtood; and all oils may by art be reſolved into water, earth, and ſalt. From theſe filaments, variouſly concerted, ariſe the flakes already mentioned, which are of different thickneſſes, and in the pores thereof is lodged the element of fire, which alſo runs in rivulets thro' their interſtices.

Upon theſe depend the ſpecific levity, inflammability, and fluidity of oil; but as, notwithſtanding the inteſtine motion cauſed by the element of fire, the flocculi ſtill adhere, in ſome meaſure, together, this fluid muſt be more viſcid than any other.

From what has been ſaid concerning the nature of alkaline ſalts, and the figure and ſtructure of the oily flocculi, it is eaſy to conceive why all alkilies diſſolve ſulphurs; for, ſince the alkaline particles are ſpherical and prickly, they cannot enter the interſtices of the flocculi without carrying away ſome of them from the reſt, and thus by degrees thoroughly diſſolving them.

But the denſe, rigid, and pointed moleculæ of acids being forced into theſe interſtices, increaſe the denſity, and ſtrengthen the texture of the flocculi; and, from the diverſity of theſe, and of the acid ſpicula mixed with them, ariſe the different kinds of ſulphurs. Sulphurs formed in the earth

of

of fire, acid ſalt, water, and a very fine earth, are termed bitumens.

Thus bitumens diſſolved in a large quantity of water, form the mineral oils, or petrolea.

But, if they are mixed with earth and ſalt, the ſolid bitumens are produced, differing from one another in degrees of purity, according to the quantity or groſſneſs of the earth, or different degrees of mixture. Thus foſſile coals, jet, amber, and the common bitumenous, and bitumeno earths are produced.

If there be but a ſmall quantity of earth, and much acid ſalt, the common mineral ſulphur, or brimſtone, is formed.

If the mineral original bitumen is joined to a fuſible earth, capable of vitrification, it communicates to it a metallic form, that is, the ſound, brightneſs, ſoftneſs, ductility, malleability, and all the other ſenſible qualities of metals.

This origin of mineral bitumens may be confirmed by many experiments. If a mixture of equal parts of oil of vitriol and oil of turpentine be digeſted together for a conſiderable time in a very gentle heat, and afterwards diſtilled in a retort, there will come over firſt a yellowiſh liquor, reſembling petroleum both in ſmell and conſiſtence.

What remains in the retort is at firſt a ſoft bitumen, and afterwards turns into a hard black maſs, eaſily inflammable, and, when burnt, ſmelling exactly like foſſile coal. But, if the diſtillation be continued, a white acid liquor will next be obtained, which, by ſtanding, lets fall a grey powder, which is true common brimſtone, a yellow ſubſtance of the like nature adhering likewiſe to the neck of the retort; what is left behind being a black, ſhining, light ſubſtance, diſpoſed in thin diſgregated ſtrata, like talc, in which, by the help of the load-ſtone, iron may be diſcovered.

Thus, therefore, all thoſe bitumens may be artificially produced; and the analyſis of the natural ones further confirm the manner of their formation.

Thus the chemiſts have ſhewn that metals are nothing but bitumenous ſubſtances, which have undergone a long digeſtion; for, by depriving them of their ſulphur, they are reduced to aſhes, and then to glaſs.

This is eaſily ſeen in the imperfect metals.

For, if any of them be expoſed to a long heat, and eſpecially to the rays of the ſun collected by a large burning glaſs, the ſulphureous principle flies off, and only a calx, or aſhes, will be left behind, which in a more vehement degree of fire, are preſently vitrified; and, by reſtoring the ſulphur, this glaſs may again be reduced to metal.

The inflammable ſubſtances in animals and vegetables conſiſt of a different combination of the principle of ſulphur and acid ſalt; for the oil or ſulphur in theſe is formed by a ſmall portion of earth, joined to the elementary fire, acid ſalt and water; this oil, when joined to an acid ſalt, produces gums; when joined to a fine acid, and a new acceſſion of fiery particles, it produces eſſential oils and inflammable ſpirits; but, if the acids are more groſs, by reaſon of a large quantity of earth joined to them, it forms reſins, as we learn from the artificial compoſition of all theſe ſubſtances: by mixing ſpirit of wine with volatile ſpirit of urine, we obtain a mucilaginous concretion, or thin gum. Oil of olives, and ſalt of tartar, melted together, make a kind of ſoap, or thick gum; and, if ſpirit of wine be digeſted for a long time, with oil of vitriol, and then diſtilled, an inflammable oil is obtained, reſembling, in ſmell and other qualities, the eſſential oils of plants, a true reſin being left behind in the retort.

In animals, the ſame oleaginous principle forms the fat, and other glutinous or gelatenous ſubſtances, theſe laſt being compoſed of an acid volatile ſalt and oil, as appears from their analyſis; but fat is made of the ſame oil and acid ſalt; for, if oil of olives and ſpirit of nitre be mixed together and digeſted, a ſubſtance will be formed, in every thing reſembling the fat of animals.

Sulphurous ſubſtances found in bodies are either fixed or volatile.

The fixed ſulphurs are either ſolid, ſuch as fat, reſin, or the bitumens; or fluid, as oils.

Volatile ſulphurs are ſuch as fly off with a ſmall degree of fire, and have an appearance compounded of that of oil and water. Such are inflammable ſpirits, obtained from the flowers and fruits of plants.

OIL, [OLIVE OIL,] in general, is an unctuous inflammable matter, extracted from natural bodies. It is ſometimes applied to the juices which naturally exudate from plants and trees, as balm, &c. but is more ſtrictly applied to thoſe juices drawn by expreſſion * from fruits, grain, or ſeeds, as olive-oil, nut-oil, &c. There are no little variety of oils, whoſe properties, and manner of expreſſion, are different. Oil of olives being the moſt univerſal, and that chiefly uſed in medicine, food, and manufactures, we ſhall give an account of the method of preparation of the olives.—There are inferior, which are uſed in manufacture, not food and operations; ſorts, that are prepared in the ſecond and third medicine.

* Expreſſed oils are ſuch as are procured by bodies only by preſſing; as olive, almond oils, and the like.

REMARKS.

Quere. As we are under the neceſſity of taking large quantities of olive-oil from other countries, may it not be worth while to endeavour to produce the olive in ſome of our own plantations? Does not this deſerve to be ſeriouſly thought of?

According to Columella, the beginning of December, for the moſt part, is the middle ſeaſon for gathering of olives, and making oil; for, before this time, the bitter oil, which is called ſummer oil, is made; and, about this month, they preſs the green oil; then afterwards the ripe oil: but it is not for the intereſt of a maſter of a family to make bitter oil, becauſe the olives yield but very little of it, except the berry fall to the ground by tempeſtuous weather, and it be neceſſary to gather it up, leſt it be eaten up and deſtroyed by tame cattle or wild beaſts. But it is of very great advantage to him to make of the green ſort, becauſe the olives both yield enough of it, and by it's price it almoſt doubles the income of the owner: but, if the olive-yards are very large, it is neceſſary that ſome part of them be reſerved for ripe fruit.

A loft to carry the olives into is very neceſſary.

Nevertheleſs, becauſe ſometimes the immoderate multitude of berries overcomes the labour of them that attend the preſs, and are more than they can manage, there muſt be a ſtore-room in the upper part of the houſe, where the fruits may be put: and this loft ought to be like a granary, and to have as many ſmall binns, or diſtinct partitions, as the quantity of olives ſhall require, that ſo the gathering of each day may be but apart, and laid up by itſelf.

The floor, or bottom of theſe ſmall partitions, muſt be paved with ſtones, or tiles, and made ſo ſloping, that all the moiſture may run quickly out of them, by gutters or pipes; for the lees are very hurtful to the oil, which, if they remain in the berry, corrupt and ſpoil the taſte of the oil. Therefore, when you have built the partitions with judgement, place upon the floor ſmall boards, half a foot diſtant from each other, and lay reeds upon them, that are carefully and cloſely woven, ſo that they may not let ſo much as a berry paſs through, and be able to ſupport the weight of the olives. But hard by all theſe ſmall partitions, in that part where the lees run out of them, under the very pipes, the floor muſt be concave, after the manner of little trenches; or there muſt be a hollow ſtone, wherein may ſtand whatever liquor ſhall flow out of them, and from whence it may be drawn.

Moreover, you muſt have fats, or barrels, ready prepared within doors, which may receive the lees of every kind of olives apart by themſelves, whether they be ſuch as flow from the olives pure, without any mixture, or ſuch alſo as have received ſalt; for both of them are fit for many uſes.

But mills are more uſeful than the preſs, for the making of oil; and the preſs than the canalis, and the ſolea *. The mills are very eaſily managed; for, according to the bigneſs of the berries, the mill ſtones may be either lowered or raiſed, that ſo the kernel, which ſpoils the taſte of the oil, may not be broken: moreover, the preſs diſpatches more work, and more eaſily, than the ſolea and canalis. There is alſo a machine, like an erect threſhing inſtrument, which is called a beetle; and that does the work not incommodiouſly, except that it is frequently ſpoiled, and out of order; and, if you throw a little too many berries into it, you ſtop it. Nevertheleſs, the aforeſaid machines are made uſe of according to the ſtate and condition, and cuſtom of the countries: but that of mills, as alſo of the turning-preſs, is the beſt. I thought it neceſſary to premiſe theſe things, before I diſcourſed of making the oil.

* Columella mentions ſeveral machines, wherewith the oil was ſqueezed ont of the olive-berries; but gives no particular deſcription of any of them, ſo that it is not eaſy to form any diſtinct idea of them. Cato, indeed, in his 22d chapter, gives a particular diſcription of the trapetum; but it is not very intelligible, perhaps becauſe of the incorrectneſs of the text; and learned men differ in their opinions about it. Varro ſays, that the trapeta were oil-mills made of hard rough ſtones; and Columella ſeems to make the mola and the trapetum two diſtinct things: perhaps by the laſt he means a preſs for ſqueezing the olives, which had it's name from the turning of the ſcrews. We have no account at all, that I can find, of the canalis and ſolea: nor is it any great ſatisfaction to be told by antiquarians, that they were certain machines, uſed by the Antients for making oil, ſince they give us no account of their ſtructure.

Now we muſt come to the thing itſelf, although we have omitted many things; which, as before the vintage, ſo, before the gathering of the olives, and making the oil, muſt be all ready prepared; ſuch as plenty of wood, which muſt be brought home a long time before, that ſo, when the thing is wanted, the labourers may not be called away from their buſineſs: ladders alſo, ſmall baſkets, and ſowers baſkets of ten modii and three modii each, wherein the berries, which are gathered off the trees, are received; frails, hempen and Spaniſh

niſh-broom ropes, iron ladles, wherewith the oil is emptied from one veſſel to another; covers or lids, wherewith the oil-veſſels are covered; ſponges, greater and ſmaller; pitchers, in which the oil is carried out; cane or reed mats, into which the olives are gathered. All theſe ought to be in great number, becauſe they periſh with the uſing, and become fewer; of which, if any one thing be wanting when there is occaſion to uſe it, the work is at a ſtand.

As ſoon as the berries ſhall begin to be of different colours, and ſome of them are already black, yet more of them white, the olive muſt be gathered by hand, when the weather is fair, and ſifted and cleanſed upon mats or reeds ſpread under them: then, after they are cleanſed, they muſt be preſently carried to the place where the preſſes ſtand, and ſhut up intire in new frails, and put under the preſſes, that they may be ſqueezed as little a while as may be. Afterwards, when their thin rinds are opened, they ought to be ſoftened, by adding two ſextarii of whole ſalt to each modius of olives; and the maſs of bruiſed olives ought to be ſqueezed out, either in oblong ſquare boards, if it be the cuſtom of the country, or in new frails at leaſt: then that which ſhall firſt flow from the preſs into a round fat (for that is better than a ſquare leaden veſſel, or a receiver made of ſtone or brick with two diviſions in it) let the leader empty it preſently, and pour it into great earthen pans prepared for this uſe.

But, in the oil-cellar, let there be three rows of pans, that one of them may receive the oil of the firſt note, that is, of the firſt preſſing; the ſecond, that of the ſecond; and the third row, that of the third: for it is of great importance not to mix that of the ſecond, much leſs that of the third preſſing, with that of the firſt; becauſe that is of a much better taſte which flows from the olives with leaſt force of the preſs, as if it dropped from them of it's own accord. When, therefore, the oil has ſtood a little in the firſt pans, the lader ought to ſtrain and empty it into the ſecond, and then into the next, 'till he comes to the laſt; for the oftener it is ventilated, and worked, as it were, by emptying it from one veſſel into another, the clearer it becomes, and the more it is freed from it's dregs. But it will be ſufficient to place thirty large pans in each row, except the olive-yards be very large, and require a greater number.

But if, with the colds, the oil ſhall be congealed with the lees, you muſt, in that caſe, certainly uſe a little more toaſted ſalt; that thing reſolves and looſens the oil, and ſeparates it from every thing that may hurt or corrupt it. Nor is there any reaſon to fear, that the oil will become ſalt or brackiſh; for whatever quantity of ſalt you ſhall put to it, yet the oil does not receive the taſte of it. But even thus, the oil uſually does not diſſolve, when greater colds than ordinary come on ſuddenly; therefore they toaſt nitre, and bruiſe it, and ſprinkle it upon the oil, and mix it with it: this liquifies the lees. There are ſome, though very careful oilmen, who do not put the berry under the preſs whole, without breaking it, becauſe they think that ſome part of the oil is loſt by ſo doing; for, when the berry receives the weight of the preſs, the lees alone are not preſſed out of it, but they attract ſomething of the fatneſs of the oil with themſelves.

But I have this direction to give upon the whole, that neither ſmoak nor ſoot be admitted into the place where the oil preſs ſtands, or into the oil-cellar, as long as the green oil is making there; for both theſe are very prejudicial to this affair, and the ſkilfulleſt oilmen ſcarcely ſuffer their work to be done at the light of one ſingle lamp: wherefore, both the place where the oil-preſs ſtands, and the oil-cellar, muſt be ſituated towards that quarter of the heavens which is moſt ſheltered from cold winds, becauſe the heat of the fire is not at all required. Moreover, the barrels and jars, into which the oil is put, muſt not only be carefully cleanſed, and put in order, at the time when the neceſſity of beſtowing the fruit forces to do it; but, when they are emptied by the merchant, care ought to be taken, that if any dregs or lees have fallen to the bottom of the veſſels, they be immediately cleaned out, and waſhed with a lee of aſhes, not very hot, leſt the veſſels throw off and loſe their wax; and let it be done once and again: then let them be gently rubbed with the hand, with lukewarm water, and often rinſed, and ſo let all the moiſture be dried up with a ſponge.

There are ſome who diſſolve porters clay in water, like liquid dregs, and, after they have waſhed the veſſels, daub them on the inſide with this ſort of gruel, as you may call it, and ſuffer it to dry upon them: afterwards, when they have occaſion to uſe them, they rinſe them with pure water. Some waſh the veſſels thoroughly all over with lees of oil firſt; then they waſh them with water, and dry them: afterwards they examine whether the barrels want new wax; for the Antients ſaid, that it was neceſſary to wax them almoſt every ſixth year, at the time of making the oil, which I do not underſtand how it can be done: for, as new veſſels, if they be heated, eaſily receive the melted wax, ſo I cannot believe, that ſuch as are old will bear waxing, becauſe of the juice of the oil; which very waxing, nevertheleſs, the huſbandmen of our times, have wholly laid aſide, and have been of opinion, that it was better to waſh the new barrels all over with liquid gum, and to ſuffumigate them with white wax when they are dried, that they may not loſe their good colour, and tarniſh: and they judge that this fumigation ought to be done, as often as either the new or old veſſels are cured and ſeaſoned, and prepared for the new oil. Many, when they have daubed their new barrels or jars with groſs fat gum, are ſatisfied with one gumming for ever: and, indeed, a veſſel which has once imbibed the oil, does not admit of a ſecond gumming; for the fatneſs of the oil refuſes any ſuch matter as that of gum is.

After the month of December, about the beginning of January, the olive-berry muſt be gathered in the ſame manner as above, and the oil preſently preſſed out of it; for if it be laid up in a loft, it quickly grows hot; for, with the water-rains, it breeds a greater quantity of lees, which are very hurtful to oil. Therefore you muſt beware of making oil for eating of this kind of berry, which may, by this one way, be avoided; if, as ſoon as the berry is brought out of the field, it be ground, and put into the preſs, and the oil preſſed out of it, and managed as we have ſaid above. All huſbandmen, for the moſt part have believed, that if the berry be laid up within the houſe, the oil will grow in the loft; which is as falſe, as that corn of any ſort grows in the threſhing-floor: and this falſhood that antient author, Porcius Cato, refutes thus; for he ſays, that the olive grows wrinkled in the loft, and becomes ſmaller: for which reaſon, when the huſbandman has laid up ſuch a quantity in the houſe, as is ſufficient for one making; and, after many days, has a mind to grind it, having forgotten the firſt quantity that he had brought in, he ſupplies out of another heap, which he had in like manner placed apart by itſelf, as much as is wanting to each quantity; and by this one making, the berry that has reſted for ſome time, ſeems to yield more oil than that which is freſh and newly gathered, whereas he has taken a greater quantity of olives to it. Yet, ſuppoſe that were exceeding true, nevertheleſs there is more money raiſed by the price of green freſh oil, than by the great quantity of that which is bad: which thing Cato alſo ſaid. And thus, indeed, whatever addition of weight or meaſure is made to the oil, if you would compute the quantity of berries, added to that which you reckon to one making, you would think it not an increaſe and advantage, but a real loſs: wherefore we ought not to heſitate to grind the olives, and put them under the preſs, as ſoon as poſſible after we have gathered them.

Nor am I ignorant that a ſecondary oil, for common eating, muſt alſo be made; for when the olive, which is gnawed by the little worms, falls off the tree; or has, by ſtorms and rains fallen into the dirt, they have recourſe to warm water for a remedy; and the caldron ought to be made hot, that the dirty berries may be waſhed. But this muſt not be done with exceeding hot water, but with that which is moderately warm, that the taſte of the oil may become the more agreeable; for if the agreeable taſte be boiled out of it, it attracts the taſte of the little worms, and of any other ſorts of naſtineſs whatſoever: but when the olive has been thoroughly waſhed, the other things ought to be done as directed above. But the pureſt and beſt oil, and that of the ſecondary ſort for common uſe, muſt not be preſſed in the ſame frails; for old frails ought to be ſet a-part for ſuch olives as fall off the trees of their own accord; and thoſe that are new, for the oil of the firſt note; and when they have ſerved for preſſing out the oil of every particular making, they ought always to be preſently waſhed, twice or thrice, in exceeding hot water: then, if there be any brook, or running water, they muſt be ſunk in it, by having ſtones put into them, that they may be preſſed down and detained by the weight thereof; or, if there be no river, they ought to be ſoaked in a lake or pond, of the pureſt water you can find, and afterwards beaten with rods, that the dirt and dregs may fall off them, and then they muſt be waſhed a ſecond time and dried.

OIL OF SWEET ALMONDS, drawn without fire, is prepared various ways. Some peel them before pounding, others pound without peeling. Some ſteep them in lukewarm water, others in balneo mariæ; ſome only bruiſe them, others beat them to a paſte. There are a great variety of different ways to prepare this oil.

The beſt method is eſteemed this: pound your almonds dry and new in mortars, paſs them through a coarſe ſieve, lay them in a hair-cloth, and put them under the preſs between two plates of ſteel; preſs them gently, and when all the unctuous part is expreſſed, you will have a ſweet oil without ſediment, which is ſcarce avoidable by any of the other methods.

TRAIN OIL, is that generally procured from the blubber of the whale, by boiling. There is ſome alſo drawn off the livers of the cod at Newfoundland, which livers are thrown up in heaps when the cod is cured; and from thence is drawn all the oil which comes from that part of America.

GALLIPOLI OIL, is that ſort which we import from Naples, in large quantities for the uſe of our woollen manufactories.

OLDENBURG, a county of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia; bounded by the German ſea on the north, by the duchy of Bremen on the eaſt, by Oſnabrug on the ſouth, and by Embden, or Eaſt Frieſland, on the weſt; being 50 miles long and 20 broad, conſiſting chiefly of bogs and marſhes,

marſhes, where they breed a ſmall ſort of cattle leſs than the Welſh. The inhabitants are wretched poor, living in dirt houſes, and ſubject to Denmark.

OLERON, weſt longitude 1. 20, latitude 46, an iſland of France, near the coaſt of Poitou, and territories of Aunis, ſituated 14 miles ſouth-weſt of Rochelle, being about 15 miles long and 6 broad, and containing 10,000 people. The ancient inhabitants of this iſland, had ſuch a reputation for their ſkill in navigation, that their rules became a model for other maritime powers to make their laws by, in relation to ſea affairs; and theſe were called the laws of Oleron.

The ſoil of this iſland produces plenty of corn and wine, and they make a great deal of ſalt of the ſea-water. There is a light-houſe on this iſland, for direction of ſhips.

OLERON LAWS, of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE.

An abſtract of the naval laws of Oleron, inſtituted by Richard I. king of England, in his return from the Holy Land, in the end of the eleventh century, for the better regulation of merchants, owners and maſters of ſhips and mariners, and all ſeafaring perſons in maritime affairs. To which is added, ſome obſervations upon them, taken from ſeveral authors.

ARTICLE I.

When ſeveral joint owners make a man maſter of a ſhip or veſſel, and the ſhip or veſſel departing from her own port, arrives at Bourdeaux, Rouen, or any other ſuch place, and is there freighted to ſail for Scotland, or ſome other foreign country; the maſter, in ſuch caſe, may not ſell or diſpoſe of that ſhip or veſſel, without a ſpecial procuration from the owners: but, in caſe he wants money for the victualling, or other neceſſary proviſions of the ſaid veſſel, he may, for that end, with the advice of his mariners, pawn or pledge part of the tackle or furniture of a ſhip. [See HYPOTHECATION.]

OBSERVATION.

The title of maſter is ſo honourable, and the command of a ſhip of ſuch importance, that great care has been taken by all maritime nations, that none may be employed but honeſt and experienced men. By an ordinance of the admiralty in France, A. D. 1584, every maſter of a ſhip, before he took upon him that truſt, was to be examined, whether he was fit for it. The Spaniſh naval laws require the ſame thing; el maeſtre de la nave, para ſerlo, ha de ſer marinero y examinado. Cidula real del anno 1576. Impreſſa con las de India quarto toms. The ordinances and regulations of the Hans Towns do not only demand experience and capacity, but honeſty and good manners. And none was to be admitted into the ſervice of any citizen aboard his ſhip, without a certificate of his qualifications, as to his honeſty and capacity. See their book of ordinances, book 6. art. 1.

Although the government of the ſhip is intruſted, he cannot ſell the ſhip itſelf, nor any of her tackle or furniture, without the order or conſent of the owners. However, in caſe of neceſſity, when he is in a far country, he may pawn or pledge her tackle for proviſions; and if that will not do, he may borrow money on the ſhip's bottom, though not without the conſent of his officers and ſeamen. According to the ordinances of Wiſbuy, art. 13 and 15, and Philip II. king of Spain's ordinances in the year 1563, art. 12. Thoſe of the Hans Towns forbid a maſter of a ſhip, notwithſtanding he is part owner, not only to ſell, but to do any thing, even to buy tackle or victuals, without acquainting the other owners of it, unleſs it be in a ſtrange country, and in a caſe of neceſſity, well and lawfully atteſted, art. 3, 4, 5, & ſeq.

By the ordinances and cuſtoms of the ſea it appears, that formerly it was not thought ſafe to intruſt a maſter of a ſhip with the veſſel and cargo, unleſs he was a freeman of that city, and part owner of the ſhip; and if he was part owner, when he had betrayed or abuſed his truſt, the other owners might turn him out of the ſhip, paying him what his part of her came to, at the ſame price he gave for it, according to the ordinances of the Hans Towns, art. 14. And if he pretended he had ſold his part to another perſon, for more than it was worth, the other owners might have it appraiſed, and take it to themſelves, paying him what it was valued at by ſuch appraiſement, art. 53.

The maſter commonly took care of every thing belonging to the ſhip, from the poop to the main-maſt: he was obliged to underſtand the art of piloting and navigation, that he might know how to controul the pilot, and mind how he ſteers the ſhip, y ſi el maeſtre no fuere piloto es obligado a uevar un marinere dieſtro en la navigacion, 'tel que, pueda regir la nave a falla de piloto, according to the ordinances of Spain. The mate's command reached from the ſtern to the mizen-maſt, the latter included. It will not be thought improper by the curious to mention here the ſeveral officers of a ſhip, either men of war or merchantmen, as they were diſtinguiſhed abroad, a century ago.

In royal navies, the firſt officer was the admiral; then the vice-admiral; then the captain-major, or chief of a ſquadron. In every man of war, the firſt officer was the captain, the ſecond the pilot, who enjoyed that place in honour of the ſcience he profeſſed and practiſed; next to him was the maſter, who had the charge of the tackle and furniture, and then the captain and lieutenant of the ſoldiers. In a merchant-man, the firſt officer was the maſter, the ſecond the pilot, the third the mate, the fourth the factor or ſupercargo; then his aſſiſtant, accomptants, the ſurgeons, the ſteward, four corporals, the cook, the gunner, the cockſwain; the gunner and cockſwain uſed to work before the maſt, as well as the reſt of the ſhip's crew, but their wages were more.

There is a great deal of difference between the order of precedency on board of ſhips now, and what was formerly: for the captain and lieutenant of the ſoldiers would think it very hard to give place to the pilot and maſter of a ſhip; and the factor or ſupercargo will as difficultly be perſuaded to own the maſter of a veſſel's ſuperiority, except in what relates to the navigating the ſhip.

ARTICLE II.

If a ſhip or other veſſel be in port, waiting for weather and a wind to depart, the maſter ought, when that comes, before his departure, to conſult his company, and ſay to them; gentlemen, what think you of this wind? If any of them ſee that it is not ſettled, and adviſe him to ſtay 'till it is; and others, on the contrary, would have him make uſe of it as fair; he ought to follow the major part: If he does otherwiſe, and the veſſel happens to miſcarry, he ſhall be obliged to make good the ſame, according to the value upon a juſt appraiſement.

OBSERVATION.

It is a maxim, or a general ſea-law, that a maſter of a ſhip ſhall never ſail out of a port, never weigh or drop anchor, cut maſts or cable, or, indeed, do any thing of conſequence, let him be in whatever danger may happen, without the advice of the major part of his company, and the merchants, if there are any aboard: he muſt call all together to conſult. Wiſbuy, art. 14. See WISBUY LAWS.

ARTICLE III.

If any veſſel, through misfortune, happens to be caſt away, in whatſoever place it be, the mariners ſhall be obliged to uſe their beſt endeavours for ſaving as much of the ſhip and lading as poſſibly they can: and if they preſerve part thereof, the maſter ſhall allow them a reaſonable conſideration to carry them home to their own country; and in caſe they ſave enough to enable the maſter to do this, he may lawfully pledge, to ſome honeſt perſons, ſuch part thereof, as may be ſufficient for that occaſion. But if they have not endeavoured to ſave as aforeſaid, then the maſter ſhall not be bound to provide for them in any thing, but ought to keep them in ſafe cuſtody, until he knows the pleaſure of the owners; in which he may act as becomes a prudent maſter; for if he does otherwiſe, he ſhall be obliged to make ſatisfaction.

OBSERVATION.

The ſhip's crew are obliged to do all that lies in their power to ſave things from ſhipwreck, and gather up what they ſave, on pain of loſing their wages; and thoſe that hinder or diſſuade them from it, ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed. This law is very well explained by an ordinance of king Philip II. of Spain, in the year 1563. By which it is ordained, that the ſeamen ſhall be bound to ſave as much as they can from ſhipwreck; and, in ſuch caſe, the maſter is bound to pay them their wages, and to give them a further reward for their labour out of the goods: but if the ſeamen refuſe to do their endeavour to ſave the goods, they ſhall neither have pay nor reward. Hans Towns, ord. art. 44. Wiſbuy, art. 15.

ARTICLE IV.

If a veſſel departing with her lading from Bourdeaux, or any other place, happens in the courſe of her voyage to be rendered unfit to proceed therein, and the mariners ſave as much of the lading as poſſibly they can; if the merchants require the goods of the maſter, he may deliver them if he pleaſes, they paying the freight in proportion to the part of the voyage that is performed, and the coſts of the ſalvage: but if the maſter can readily repair his veſſel, he may do it; or, if he pleaſes, he may freight another ſhip to perform his voyage. And if he has promiſed the people who helped him to ſave the ſhip, the third, or the half part of the goods ſaved, for the danger they ran, the judicatures of the country ſhould conſider the pains and trouble they have been at, and reward them accordingly, without any regard to the promiſes made them by the parties concerned in the time of their diſtreſs.

OBSERVATION.

This law does not relate to an entire loſs, but only to ſalvage, or rather not to ſhipwreck, but to the diſabling of a ſhip, ſo that ſhe cannot proceed in her voyage without refitting. In which caſe, the merchants may have their goods again, paying the freight, in proportion to the way the ſhip made. If the merchant has not money to pay the freight, and the maſter will not credit, the latter may take his goods in payment at the market price. Wiſbuy, art. 33. The emperor Charles the fifth's ordinance, art. 40.

If the maſter can, in a little time, refit his veſſel, and render her fit to continue her voyage; that is, if he can do it in three days time at the moſt, according to the Hans Town laws; or if he will himſelf take freight for the merchandize

aboard

aboard another ſhip bound for the ſame port to which he was bound, he may do it; and, if the accident did not happen by any fault of his, the freight ſhall be paid him, by the Rhodian laws. Numb. 42. ſecundo & ultimo tomo juris Græco-Romani in fine. Wiſbuy, art. 16, 37, and 55. King Philip II. of Spain's ordinance, under the head of averages, art. 30.

As for the charges of ſalvage, there are very great allowances made to the ſalvers, Lege Rhod. Secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 45 & 47. Harmenopolus in promptuario juris, lib. 2. tit. 6. By this law there was adjudged to the divers and ſalvers, the half, the third, or the tenth of the things ſaved, and that according to the depth of the water out of which they were fiſhed, fifteen, eight, or one fathom; as alſo a tenth part for ſalvage on the coaſt, and the fifth to him that ſaving himſelf, carries and ſaves ſomething with him. The promiſes that are extorted in danger upon this account, ought always to be regulated according to juſtice, with reaſon and proportion, without keeping to the expreſſions of ſuch promiſes; for this there are ſeveral laws in France, and an inſtance of it is thus recorded. A gentleman named La Mothe, embarked at St Machaire with two horſes in a boat, going for Bourdeaux; as they were in their paſſage, one of the horſes grew furious and leaped overboard. La Mothe held him by the bridle, the horſe ſplaſhed the water up in his face, and the gentleman pulling his handkerchief out of his pocket to wipe it off, at the ſame time pulled out a purſe that had thirty piſtoles in it, which fell into the water. The boatmen came, and La Mothe deſired them to take notice of the place, by obſerving the trees and buildings that were near it, and when the tide was out, to ſeek after the purſe; promiſing if they found it, to give them a piſtole for their pains. The boatmen excuſed themſelves; nevertheleſs, when they had put La Mothe and his horſes aſhore, they went to look for the piſtoles when it was low water, and one of them found them where they were dropped. His companions demanded their ſhare of them, but he who had the good fortune to find the purſe would not let them have any of the gold, and there was a law-ſuit about dividing it, before the judge of St Machaire. Monſ. La Mothe hearing of it, came thither, and put in his claim to the purſe and piſtoles, but the judge gave it againſt him. He then appealed to the ſeneſchal of Guyenne's court, but with no better ſucceſs; at laſt he appealed to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and that court decreed, he ſhould have his piſtoles, but ſhould pay 60 livres to the boatmen for their pains and trouble.

ARTICLE V.

If a veſſel departing from one port, laden or empty, arrives at another, the mariners ſhall not leave the ſhip without the maſter's conſent: if they do, and by that means ſhe happens to be loſt or damnified, they ſhall be anſwerable for the damage; but if the veſſel be moored, and lying at anchor, with a ſufficient number of men aboard to keep the decks and lading, they may go without the maſter's conſent, if they come back in good time, otherwiſe they ſhall be liable to make ſatisfaction, if they have wherewithal.

OBSERVATION.

In regard to this article relating to ſeamen, it will not be unacceptable to the reader to obſerve, what other cuſtoms and ordinances we have met with concerning them.

Mariners are obliged to look carefully after every thing that relates to the preſervation of the ſhip and goods, Wiſbuy art. 47. For which reaſon, they ought not to go aſhore and leave the veſſel, without the maſter's or mate's permiſſion: if they do, they are bound to anſwer to all the damages that happen to the ſhip or merchandize in their abſence. Wiſbuy, art. 17. The emperor Charles the Vths ordinance in the year 1552, art. 9 and 10. Conformable to the Rhodian law, ſecundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 20. The regulations of the Hanſe-Towns, art. 40, ordain, That if any ſeaman goes aſhore without licence, and if in his abſence the ſhip happens to be loſt for want of hands, the ſeaman thus abſent ſhall be apprehended, and kept a year in priſon on bread and water; and, if any one ſhould be killed or drowned in his abſence, and that be the cauſe of it, he ſhall be corporally puniſhed. The ſame ordinances condemn thoſe mariners that lie out of their ſhip all night, to pay all the damage that ſhall happen while they are abſent. Thoſe of the Hanſe-Towns, art. 22 and 23. add impriſonment. Some laws forbid them to undreſs themſelves, and the Hanſe-Towns, art. 32. to lie with their wives aboard. The reaſon is, that they may always be ready to aſſiſt their fellows in the diſcharge of their duty, in the preſervation of the ſhip and goods. The obligation of the mariner to the maſter, begins as ſoon as he is hired and terms are agreed, and ends when the voyage is finiſhed and they are returned. The obligation of the mariner to the merchant is from the beginning of his charge, and the mariner is obliged to ſtow and unſtow the goods according as the place they are in is commodious or not, to keep them from damnifying, and promote or hinder the ſhip's trimming; and if by their refuſing to do ſo, the merchandize is damnified or ſpoiled, they are bound to make the damage good. Wiſbuy, art. 48. Philip II. art. 19. By the laws of Wiſbuy, they are alſo bound to unlade ſome goods with the ſhovel, and ſome to hand aſhore, for which they are to have no extraordinary allowance; but for letting things up or down, they are by the ſame laws to be allowed ſomething extraordinary, that is, above their wages. The laws are very ſevere againſt thoſe ſeamen, that run away from ſhips after they are hired. In men of war deſertion is puniſhed with death: in merchantmen, by the Hanſeatique laws, or thoſe of the Hanſe-Towns, they are to be marked in the face with a red-hot iron, that they may be known, and be infamous as long as they live. If the mariner runs away before the voyage, when he is taken he ought to refund half as much as the maſter was to have paid him for the whole voyage. If he hires himſelf to two maſters, the firſt may demand him; and by the Hanſeatiques, art. 1. is not bound to pay him any wages. Proviſion is made for ſuch ſeamen as run away, only becauſe the maſter has uſed him ill. By the ſame laws, if any maſter entices away a mariner hired before by another, the laſt maſter ſhall forfeit to the firſt 25 livres, and the mariner half the wages he was to have had of the maſter that ſo enticed him.

That maſter who knowingly hires a mariner who was hired before, ſhall pay double the wages he was to pay the mariner, and the latter be bound to follow and ſerve the firſt maſter. However, a mariner may demand, and ought to have his diſcharge, either before or during the voyage, for theſe four reaſons; in caſe he is made maſter or mate of another ſhip; if he marries, and then he is obliged to refund what he has received; if he made any proviſo in his bargain for quitting the ſhip; if the voyage is finiſhed, the ſhip diſarmed, unloaded and light, the ſails, tackle, and furniture, taken away and ſecured. See the laws of Wiſbuy, art. 54 and 63. If the maſter gives a mariner his diſcharge, without any lawful cauſe, and for his pleaſure only; in caſe he does it before the voyage, and while the ſhip is in port, he ought to pay half as much as he was to give him for the whole voyage; but if he diſcharges him after the ſhip is ſailed, he ought to pay him all his wages. Wiſbuy, art. 3.

By the Hanſeatiques, the maſter is to pay a third of the wages only, and not to bring it to his owner's account. He is obliged alſo to pay him not only all his wages, if he diſcharges him in his voyage, but to defray the charges of his return. If after a bargain is made between the maſter and mariner, if the voyage happens to be hindered by war or pirates, or any other lawful account, the mariner, according to king Philip's laws, art. 9. ſhall have a quarter part of the wages that were promiſed him for the voyage, and the maſter by a French law ſhall have half the freight.

A maſter may turn off a mariner if he finds he is ignorant in maritime affairs, and incapable to perform the voyage, particularly a pilot, to whom in ſuch caſes, he is not bound to pay any wages, and at his return may have him puniſhed for his raſhneſs, according to king Philip's and the Hanſeatique laws.

If it happens, that the maſter finds out the pilot or mariner's ignorance when he cannot diſcharge them, they ſhall be obliged at their return to refund all the money he had advanced to them, and pay the maſter beſides, half what he had promiſed: but if the pilot declares at firſt he is dubious, and cannot depend on his knowlege, that he is out of the way, and does not very well underſtand his buſineſs; if it is when he is outward-bound, he ſhall be paid half what was promiſed him, if homeward-bound, all.

If the maſter finds that any officer or ſeaman aboard his ſhip has any infectious diſtemper that is dangerous, he may put him aſhore at the firſt place he comes to, without paying him any thing, but then he muſt prove it by two or three witneſſes. He may alſo turn away any thieving mariner, or any quarrelſome or factious fellow; but as to the latter, he ſhould have a little patience, to ſee if he can be brought to reaſon. By the Hanſeatiques, art. 29. and the laws of Wiſbuy, art. 25.

ARTICLE VI.

If any of the mariners hired by the maſter of any veſſel, go out of the ſhip without his leave, and get themſelves drunk, and thereby there happens contempt to their maſter, debates, or fighting and quarrelling among themſelves, whereby ſome happen to be wounded: in this caſe, the maſter ſhall not be obliged to get them cured, or in any thing to provide for them, but may turn them and their accomplices out of the ſhip; and if they make words of it, they are bound to pay the maſter beſides: but if by the maſter's orders and commands, any of the ſhip's company be in the ſervice of the ſhip, and thereby happen to be wounded or otherwiſe hurt, in that caſe they ſhall be cured and provided for at the coſts and charges of the ſaid ſhip.

OBSERVATION.

By the laws of Wiſbuy, art. 18. Thoſe mariners that are mutinous and quarrelſome, are obliged to refund all they have received, and pay beſides what the maſter is forced to give to others whom he hires in their places above the wages he was to give them.

The laws of Charles V. art. 28. & ſeq. ordain certain puniſhments, according to the heinouſneſs of the offences and crimes committed by ſeamen. If the mariners are wounded,

or

or any wife hurt in ſerving the maſter of the ſhip, they ſhall be cured, taken care of, and indemnified at the charge of the ſhip. Wiſbuy, art. 18. Hanſeatiques, art. 39. Charles V, art. 27 and 28. Philip II. art. 16. If the mariners are taken by corſairs in his and his ſhip's ſervice, the maſter is bound to redeem them, and beſides that, to pay them their wages during their captivity, as much as if they had all that time been in his ſervice. This law is in the Conſulat. chap. 182. If in defending himſelf, or fighting againſt an enemy or corſairs, a mariner is maimed or diſabled, to ſerve on board a ſhip for the reſt of his life, beſides the charge of his cure, he ſhall be maintained as long as he lives at the coſt of the ſhip and cargo, according to the Hanſeatiques, art. 35. An inſtance of this follows:

In the year 1621, Giles Eſteben, a citizen and merchant of Bourdeaux, loaded a veſſel of 36 tons with wine for Calais, and gave the charge of the cargo to one Fiton his ſervant. The veſſel ſet ſail, and when ſhe was at ſea met with a Turkiſh rover. The corſair came up with her and took her, but did not meddle with the veſſel or the wine, either becauſe the alcoran forbids the Mahometans to drink or deal in wine, or becauſe he held intelligence with the maſter of the veſſel, who was a Scotchman; for he did him nor his crew any manner of hurt, but took away Finton, and ſold him in Barbary for a ſlave. He remained there four years and a half in great miſery and poverty; at laſt he was redeemed by alms in the year 1625, and paid for his ranſom 780 livres.

Fiton returning to Bourdeaux, found that his maſter Eſteben was dead; however, he entered an action in an inferior court againſt the widow for his wages, as well for the time he was detained in ſlavery, as for that before his captivity, as alſo for the reimburſement of his ranſom money, his loſſes and intereſt. The widow removed the ſuit to the higher courts, and from thence it came before the parliament, who decreed, that the widow ſhould pay Fenton 1000 livres in full for his wages, redemption, expences, loſs and intereſt.

ARTICLE VII.

If it happens that ſickneſs ſeizes on any one of the mariners while in the ſervice of the ſhip, the maſter ought to ſet him on ſhore, to provide lodging and candle-light for him, and alſo to ſpare him one of the ſhip's-boys, or hire a woman to attend him, and likewiſe to afford him ſuch diet as is uſual in the ſhip; that is to ſay, ſo much as he had on ſhip-board in his health, and nothing more, unleſs it pleaſe the maſter to allow it him, if he will have better diet, the maſter ſhall not be bound to provide it for him, unleſs it be at the mariner's own coſt and charges; and if the veſſel be ready for her departure, ſhe ought not to ſtay for the ſaid ſick party: but if he recover, he ought to have his full wages, deducting only ſuch charges as the maſter has been at for him. And if he dies, his wife or next a-kin ſhall have them.

OBSERVATION.

The 19th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, the 45th of the Hanſeatiques, the 27th of Charles V. and the 16th of Philip II. which he compiled for the Low-Countries, were all founded upon this law of Oleron, in what relates to a ſick mariner, and agree exactly with it, both if he recovers his health, or dies in the voyage. The Spaniards have another cuſtom in the Weſt-India voyages: for in caſe a mariner falls ſick, he muſt ſubſtitute another in his place, otherwiſe he loſes all his wages for the time in which he could not work. By the Hanſeatiques, art. 45.

If a mariner is detained aſhore by ſickneſs, the voyage ought not to be retarded on his account. By Charles the Vth's ordinances, if the mariner dies as he is outward-bound, his wife and heirs ſhall receive half his pay: if, as he is homeward-bound, they ſhall have all, deducting the charge of his funeral if there has been any.

In ſhips of war, the cuſtom in ſome places has been more favourable to ſailors; for we find in a treatiſe written by Francis Pyrard de Laval, intitled, Avis pour aller aux Indies Orientales, That if a man died the firſt day of the voyage, his heirs were to be paid as much as if he had compleated it.

ARTICLE VIII.

If a veſſel be laden to ſail from Bourdeaux to Caen, or any other place, and it happens that a ſtorm overtakes her at ſea, ſo violent, that ſhe cannot eſcape without caſting ſome of the cargo overboard for lighting the veſſel, and preſerving the reſt of the lading, as well as the veſſel itſelf, then the maſter ought to ſay, Gentlemen, we muſt throw part of the goods overboard; and if there are no merchants to anſwer him, or if thoſe that are there approve of what he ſays by their ſilence, then the maſter may do as he thinks fit; and if the merchants are not pleaſed with his throwing over any part of the merchandize and forbid him, yet the maſter ought not to forbear caſting out ſo many of the goods as he ſhall ſee to be for the common good and ſafety; he and the third part of his mariners making oath on the holy evangeliſts, when they arrive at their port of diſcharge, that he did it only for the preſervation of the veſſel, and the reſt of the lading that remains yet in her. And the wines, or other goods, that were caſt overboard, ought to be valued, according to the juſt value of the other goods that arrive in ſafety: and when theſe ſhall be ſold, the price or value thereof ought to be divided livre à livre among the merchants.

The maſter may compute the damage his veſſel has ſuſtained, or reckon the freight of the goods thrown overboard at his own choice. If the maſter does not make it appear that he and his men did the part of able ſeamen, then neither he nor they ſhall have any thing. The mariners alſo ought to have one ton free, and another divided by caſt of the dice, according as it ſhall happen, and the merchants in this caſe may lawfully put the maſter to his oath.

OBSERVATION.

Of two evils, to chuſe the leaſt is the law of nature as well as of nations; and when a ſhip is in danger of periſhing, the lives of the ſeamen, and the ſafety of the reſt of the cargo, make the throwing part of it overboard the leaſt evil: but that the maſter's ignorance or fear might not hurry him to do any thing to the detriment of the merchant, without good grounds for it, he muſt conſult the merchants, paſſengers, or mariners aboard his ſhip, and, according as the neceſſity of it appears to them, to throw the goods overboard. This he is warranted to do by the Rhodian law. Secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 9. and by 20th, 21ſt, and 38th articles of that of Wiſbuy. The 20th and 38th articles provide alſo, That if the merchants alone are againſt the propoſition of throwing the merchandize overboard, and the reſt, who have their lives and goods alſo to loſe conſent to it, the maſter and third part of the ſeamen purging themſelves as ſoon as they come aſhore by oath, that neceſſity forced them to do it, and that otherwiſe they could not have been ſaved, may do it, and ſhall then be juſtified for what they did.

The maſter is not obliged, when he comes to this extremity, to throw his own goods overboard firſt. The cuſtom of the Levant is, the paſſenger or merchant firſt flings out ſomething of his own. Philip the IId's ordinances, under the title of Averages, require, That the ſhip's utenſils ſhould be firſt thrown overboard; ſuch as old cables, fire-wood, anchors, and guns, which weigh heavy, and are not of the greateſt ſervice; then the cheſts belonging to the ſhip's crew, as being of the leaſt value. All thoſe things which are thrown overboard come into an average, except thoſe that belong to the ſovereign. See AVERAGE.

By the 38th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, the clerk of the ſhip ought to regiſter all the goods that are thrown overboard; and if there is no clerk aboard, it is convenient for the mariners to make atteſtation of them at the firſt port they come to.

By the Rhodian laws, the goods that are damaged by the ſtorm come into an Average. By the ſame laws, if the maſter by overloading his ſhip, is the occaſion of the goods being thrown overboard, he ſhall make good the damage. The laws of Wiſbuy, art. 46. except in this caſe thoſe goods, which were ſo laden with the conſent of the merchant. See RHODIAN LAWS, and WISBUY LAWS.

If the maſter has let out more freight than he has ſtowage for, he muſt not therefore overload his own ſhip, but by the Conſulate is bound to find freight for them in another. If the merchants, paſſengers, or mariners, have any plate or other precious goods in their cheſts or cabinets, they ought to inform the maſter and clerk of it, otherwiſe their cheſts will not be liable to any average, for any thing more than what is known to be within them.

Perſons never are reckoned in an average, but all ſorts of goods whatſoever. Victuals belonging to the ſhip are exempted from the laws for throwing goods overboard, and privileged from paying contributions in averages. Seamens wages are not liable to averages. By the Hanſeatiques, art. 28. theſe wages ought to be paid by three payments, a third part before the ſhip goes out of the port, a third part when ſhe's unladen, and a third part at her return.

By the Rhodian law, the ſailors ought to have a ton freight free from contributions in average, when goods are thrown overboard. To explain this it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that ſailors were uſed to hire themſelves out for a voyage for ſeveral conſiderations: ſome had a certain ſum of money for the whole voyage, or ſo much a month, or ſo much a day; others hired themſelves for ſuch a proportion of the freight, or a liberty to load ſo much goods aboard, or let out ſo much freight to others: but the moſt common way, and the beſt of hiring themſelves, was for part in wages, and part in freight, either for themſelves or to let out. Thoſe ſeamen who had wages only, contributed nothing to the average for goods thrown overboard. Thoſe who had goods contributed, unleſs thoſe goods were bought with their wages, and they had only one ton exempted. The merchants who hired their freight of them, had the ſame privilege by it as themſelves.

Having had occaſion to make mention of livre à livre, an explanation of it will not be unacceptable to the reader. The civilians conſidered every thing as an whole; as for example, an inheritance compoſed of ſeveral parts, makes together one whole or maſs, of whatever importance it may be, great or ſmall, as if the whole of this inheritance made one livre, one pound, as hereditatis. This pound divided into twelve equal parts, is named ounces. The merchants and maſters of ſhips, in caſe of averages for goods thrown overboard or damnified

damnified in ſtorms, have the ſame view; that is, they conſider the ſhip and cargo together as one pound, and the goods loſt or damnified as another; ſo that he who had a tenth in the pound of the cargo, a fifteenth or any other ſhare, muſt carry a tenth, a fifteenth or any other ſhare to the pound of the avarage; and this proportion of one pound to another, is what is called by the French naval laws, livre à livre, pound to pound.

ARTICLE IX.

If it happen, that by reaſon of much foul weather the maſter is like to be conſtrained to cut his maſts, he ought firſt to call the merchants, if there be any aboard the ſhip, and ſuch as have goods and merchandize in the veſſel, and to conſult them, ſaying, Sirs, It is requiſite to cut down the maſts to ſave the ſhip and lading, it being in this caſe my duty. And frequently they alſo cut their mooring cables, leaving behind them their cables and anchors to ſave the ſhip and her lading. All which things are reckoned and computed livre by livre, as the goods are that were caſt overboard. And when the veſſel arrives in ſafety at her port of diſcharge, the merchants ought to pay the maſter their ſhares or proportions without delay, or ſell or pawn the goods, and employ the money he raiſes to ſatisfy by it the ſame, before the ſaid goods be unladen out of the ſaid ſhip: but if he lets them go, and there happens controverſies and debates touching the premiſes, if the maſter obſerves colluſion therein, he ought not to ſuffer, but is to have his complete freight, as well for what goods were thrown overboard, as for what he brought home.

OBSERVATION.

No merchant is obliged to pay average for goods thrown overboard, unleſs the maſter can prove he did it for the ſafety of his own and his mens lives, and the preſervation of the ſhip and the reſt of her cargo. What loſs happens by accidents, breaking the maſts, or burning the ſails, or pirates taking part of the goods, ſhall not come into the common average. By the Rhodian laws, every merchant ſhall bear his own loſs, and the maſter ſhall do the ſame. See alſo the 12th article of the laws of Wiſbuy. Averages are by that to be paid for damages done within the ſhip, and not for thoſe without; therefore the maſter and mariners are obliged to purge themſelves by oath, how the damage came, in the firſt court of admiralty they come to, and that it was done in very great neceſſity.

Indeed, if pirates take the ſhip and cargo entire, and both are redeemed for a ſum of money, the average for that ſhall be common, and all the concerned ſhall pay contribution. If the merchants and paſſengers aboard the ſhip, deſire the maſter to put into any port out of his way for fear of pirates, and in going out of that port he loſes anchors or cables, thoſe who deſired him to put in there ſhall pay for them, and the ſhip ought not to pay any thing towards that loſs.

After a general ſhipwreck, there is no average or common contribution, but ſave who ſave can, as is vulgarly ſaid on this occaſion. If any goods that were thrown overboard in a ſtorm, to lighten the ſhip, happen to be recovered, the owner of them ought to reſtore what he had recovered for damages by average to thoſe that paid him, deducting for the loſs he may be at by his merchandizes being damnified. The Rhodian law enjoins this.

ARTICLE X.

The maſter of a ſhip, when he lets her out to freight to the merchants, ought to ſhew them his cordage, ropes and ſlings, with which the goods are to be hoiſted aboard or aſhore: and if they find they need mending, he ought to mend them; for if a pipe, hogſhead, or other veſſel, ſhould happen, by default of ſuch cordage, or ſlings, to be ſpoiled or loſt, the maſter and mariners ought to make ſatisfaction for the ſame to the merchants. So alſo if the ropes or ſlings break, the maſter not ſhewing them before-hand to the merchants, he is obliged to make good the damage: but if the merchants ſay the cordage, ropes, or ſlings, are good and ſufficient, and notwithſtanding it happens that they break, in caſe that they ought to divide the damage between them; that is to ſay, the merchant to whom ſuch goods belong, and the ſaid maſter with his mariners.

OBSERVATION.

By the 12th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, and the 7th of king Philip's, The maſter when he lets his ſhip out to freight, is bound to ſhew her to the merchant or their agents. The conſulate requires the ſame, and that the maſter ſhould let the merchants viſit not only the ropes, but all the ſhip above decks and below, that they may ſee what is wanting, and have it mended; and if it is not mended, and the merchandize is damnified, the maſter ſhall make good the loſs. The 49th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, enjoins the mariners to give the maſter notice of the faults and defects in the cordage; otherwiſe they ſhall be reſponſible for all accidents that may happen: and if after ſuch notice given, the maſter does not take care to have them mended, he ſhall anſwer the damage out of his own pocket.

The Rhodian laws, ſecundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 11. wills and ordains, That the merchant who loads a ſhip, ſhall inform himſelf exactly of every thing, diligenter interrogare debent mercatores qui prius in ea navi navigaverunt. The law ſays, he ſhould enquire of thoſe that have ſailed in her before; but that is of little uſe, except as to her ſailing, for ſhips grow daily more and more out of repair, and ſhould be always viewed by the perſon that is going to be concerned in them, without truſting to the information of others.

ARTICLE XI.

If a veſſel being laden at Bourdeaux with wines, or other goods, hoiſts ſail to carry them to ſome other port, and the maſter does not do his duty as he ought, nor the mariners handle their ſails, and it happens that ill weather overtakes them at ſea, ſo that the main-yard ſhakes or ſtrikes out the head of one of the pipes or hogſheads of wine, this veſſel being ſafely arrived at her port of diſcharge, if the merchant alledges, that by reaſon of the main-yard his wine was loſt, and the maſter denies it, in this caſe the maſter and his mariners ought to make oath (whether it be four or ſix of them, ſuch as the merchant hath no exception againſt) that the wine periſhed not by the main-yard, nor through any default of theirs, as the merchants charge them, they ought then to be acquitted thereof; but if they refuſe to make oath to the effect aforeſaid, they ſhall be obliged to make ſatisfaction for the ſame, becauſe they ought to have ordered their ſails aright before they departed from the port, where they took in their lading.

OBSERVATION.

This article is explained by the 23d of the laws of Wiſbuy, which ordains, That if the cargo is ill ſtowed and the ſhip ill trimmed, and the mariners do not manage their ſails rightly, and any damage happens by it to the ſhip or goods, they ſhall be reſponſible for the damages as far as they have wherewithal to do it. There were formerly in ſeveral ports of Guyenne certain officers called arrameurs, or ſtowers, who were maſter carpenters by profeſſion, and were paid by the merchants, who loaded the ſhip. Their buſineſs was to diſpoſe right and ſtow cloſely all goods in caſks, bales, boxes, bundles, or otherwiſe; to ballance both ſides, to fill up the vacant ſpaces, and manage every thing to the beſt advantage.

It was not but that the greateſt part of the ſhip's crew underſtood this as well as theſe ſtowers, but they would not meddle with it, nor undertake it, to avoid falling under the merchant's diſpleaſure, or being accountable for any ill accident that might happen by that means. There were alſo ſacquiers, who were very ancient officers, as may be ſeen in the 14th book of the Theodoſian Code, Unica de ſaccariis portus Romæ, lib. 14. Their buſineſs was to load and unload veſſels laden with ſalt, corn, or fiſh, to prevent the ſhip's crew defrauding the merchant by falſe tale, or cheating him of his merchandize otherwiſe.

ARTICLE XII.

A maſter having hired his mariners, ought to keep the peace betwixt them, and to be as their judge at ſea; ſo that if there be any any of them that give another the lie, whilſt they have wine and bread on the table, he ought to pay four deniers; and if the maſter himſelf gives any the lie, he ought to pay eight deniers; and if any of the mariners impudently contradict the maſter, he alſo ought to pay eight deniers; and if the maſter ſtrikes any of the mariners, he ought to bear with the ſtroke, be it with the fiſt or open hand; but if the maſter ſtrikes him more than one blow, the mariner may defend himſelf: and if the ſaid mariner doth firſt aſſault the maſter, he ought to pay five ſols, or loſe his hand.

OBSERVATION.

This law reſtrains the correction of the maſter to one blow with his fiſt, which the mariner ought to bear, and no more. The Conſulate, chap. 16. explains how far the mariner is bound to ſuffer the maſter's aſſaulting him, in theſe terms; the mariner is obliged to obey the maſter, though he ſhould call him ill names, and is enraged againſt him, he ought to keep out of his ſight, or hide himſelf in the prow of the ſhip; if the maſter follows him he ought to fly to ſome other place from him; and if he ſtill follows him, then the mariner may ſtand upon his defence, demanding witneſſes how he was purſued by the maſter, for the maſter ought not to paſs into the prow after him.

The 24th article of the laws of Wiſbuy puniſhes the giving the lie. The ſame article is very ſevere againſt the mariner that ſtrikes the maſter. The mariner that ſtrikes, or lifts up arms againſt his maſter, was to loſe half his hand in a very painful way. If the mariner has committed a crime too great for the maſter's authority to puniſh, then the maſter and his officers ought to ſeize the criminal, put him in irons, and bring him to juſtice at his return.

ARTICLE XIII.

If a difference happens between the maſter of a ſhip and one of his mariners, the maſter ought to deny him his meſs thrice,

before he turn him out of the ſhip, or diſcharge him thereof; but if the ſaid mariner offer in the preſence of the reſt of the mariners to make the maſter ſatisfaction, and the maſter be reſolved to accept of no ſatisfaction from him, but to put him out of the ſhip, in ſuch caſe the ſaid mariner may follow the ſaid veſſel to her port of diſcharge, and ought to have as good hire or wages, as if he had come in the ſhip, or as if he had made ſatisfaction for his fault in the ſight and preſence of the ſhip's company; and if the maſter take not another mariner into the ſhip in his ſtead, as able as the other, and the ſhip or lading happens thereby to be through any miſfortune damnified, the maſter ſhall be obliged to make good the ſame if he hath wherewithal.

OBSERVATION.

To deny him his meſs is in the original, Oſtar la touaille, an old Gaſcon phraſe, which ſignifies to deny him the table-cloths or victuals for three meals, by which is underſtood a day and a half. The Wiſbuy law, art. 25. provides for the maſter's making ſatisfaction for the damages that may happen through the want of the mariner he turns off. And the Hanſeatiques, art. 27, require the maſter not to give the ſeamen any cauſe to mutiny; not to provoke them, call them names, wrong them, nor keep any thing from them that is theirs, but to uſe them well, and pay them honeſtly what is their due. Some French laws ordain, That no mariner ſhould be admitted under 18 years, nor above 50. The choice of the crew is entirely in the maſter; the reaſon is, that he ought to be himſelf very well aſſured of his ſeamens ability, and not to take it upon truſt by report of others.

ARTICLE XIV.

If a veſſel being moored lying at anchor, be ſtruck or grappled with another veſſel under ſail that is not very well ſteered, whereby the veſſel at anchor is prejudiced, as alſo wines, or other merchandize in each of the ſaid ſhips damnified. In this caſe the whole damage ſhall be in common, and be equally divided and apprized half by half; and the maſter and mariners of the veſſel that ſtruck or grappled with the other, ſhall be bound to ſwear on the holy evangeliſts, that they did it not willingly or wilfully. The reaſon why this judgment was firſt given, being that an old decayed veſſel might not purpoſely be put in the way of a better, which will the rather be prevented when they know that the damage muſt be divided.

OBSERVATION.

This law agrees exactly with the 26th, 50th, 67th, and 70th, articles of the ordinances of Wiſbuy. The dividing the loſs in halves is, to prevent any cheat; for an old veſſel that is worth little or nothing, might elſe be put in a new one's way: and if ſhe runs againſt her, more damage be pretended than the old ſhip might fairly be valued at.

ARTICLE XV.

Suppoſe two or more veſſels in a harbour where there is but little water, ſo that the anchor of one of the veſſels lies dry, the maſter of the other veſſel ought in that caſe, to ſay unto him whoſe anchor lies dry, Maſter, take up your anchor, for it is too nigh us, and may do us a prejudice: if neither the ſaid maſter nor his mariners will take up the ſaid anchor accordingly, then may that other maſter and his mariners (who might be otherwiſe thereby damnified) take up the ſaid anchor and let it down at a further diſtance from them; and if the others oppoſe or withſtand the taking up of their anchor, and there afterwards happens damage thereby, they ſhall be bound to give full ſatisfaction for the ſame; but if they put out a buoy or anchor-mark, and the anchor does any damage, the maſter and mariners to whom it belongs are not bound to make it good; if they do not, they are; for all maſters and mariners ought to faſten ſuch buoys or anchor-mark, and ſuch cables to their anchors, as may plainly appear and be ſeen at full ſea.

OBSERVATION.

The 28th and 51ſt articles of the ordinances of Wiſbuy, require maſters to put out buoys, to warn others where their anchors lie, on pain of making ſatisfaction for whatever damage may happen for want of them: for anchors hid under water may do a great deal of miſchief at ebb and low water. If any maſter ſpies them, and they lie near him, he may remove them, and prevent any damage coming to his ſhip. Harmenopolus in promptuario titulo de rebus nauticis, licet in diſcrimen adductis, qui ſe aliter explicare non poſſunt, altrius navis anchoras ſalutis ſuæ cauſa præcidere. The buoys that are made uſe of, are either empty barrels, or pieces of the trunk of a tree, or any other light wood, with baſkets that ſwim on the top of the water, and ſhew where the anchors lie.

ARTICLE XVI.

When a ſhip arrives with her lading at Bourdeaux or elſewhere, the maſter is bound to ſay to his company, when ſhe is ready to load again, Gentlemen, will you freight your own ſhare yourſelves, or be allowed for it in proportion with the ſhip's general freight: the mariners are bound to anſwer one or the other. If they take as the freight of the ſhip ſhall happen, they ſhall have proportionably as the ſhip hath; and, if they will freight by themſelves, they ought to freight ſo as the ſhip be not impeded or hindered thereby: and, if it ſo happen, that they cannot let out their freight, or get goods themſelves, when he has tendered them their ſhare and ſtowage, the maſter is blameleſs; and if they will there lade a ton of water, inſtead of ſo much wine, they may: and, in caſe there ſhould happen at ſea an ejection, or caſting of goods overboard, the caſe ſhall be the ſame for a ton of water as for a ton of wine, or other goods, livre by livre. If they let out their proportion of freight to merchants, what freedom and immunity the ſaid mariners have, the ſaid merchants ſhall alſo have.

OBSERVATION.

This article has ſome relation to the 8th, which treats of mariners wages, and their freight aboard. The 30th article of the laws of Wiſbuy is founded upon it. By the ſeamens immunity is meant, the privilege of being the laſt to be thrown overboard in a ſtorm, and having a ton free from all average. The mariners freight ſhould be firſt full, for the maſter is not obliged to ſtay for them when his cargo is all aboard.

The reaſons given by our author, why, in caſe of throwing overboard, the mariners ton of water ſhall come in equally in the average, livre à livre, for a ton of wine, are, a mariner may make what uſe he pleaſes of his ſtowage, becauſe he takes it as part of his pay: beſides, in ſuch caſe, the water he has aboard lightens the ſhip as much as if it was wine; and the mariner, by throwing over his water, which by his privilege he may refuſe to do, not only helps to ſave the ſhip and cargo, but to ſave the latter the more entire: for, if any thing the merchant had aboard of more value than wine, ſtood before his ton of water, it muſt have gone firſt, and his throwing his water overboard being ſo much for the common intereſt of the ſhip and cargo, he is allowed to come in upon an average, as if it had been a ton of wine. How far this law of Oleron prevails in our maritime courts now, the civilians muſt determine; but, by the common law of England, a ton of water would never be rated livre à livre, pound by pound, with a ton of wine.

ARTICLE XVII.

The mariners of Britany ought to have but one meal a day from the kitchen, becauſe they have beverage going and coming; but thoſe of Normandy are to have two meals a day, becauſe they have only water at the ſhip's allowance; and, when the ſhip arrives in a wine country, there the maſter ſhall procure them wine to drink.

OBSERVATION.

The cuſtom of giving every man a certain allowance is very ancient; and, to prevent jealouſies, complaints, and diſorders, that allowance is ſettled at ſo much a head, and exactly delivered out to all alike. As to the allowance of wine and meals by this article, the 29th of the ordinances of Wiſbuy agrees with it. In thoſe voyages where wine is to be had, the maſter is bound to provide it for the mariners, and then they ſhall have but one meal a day: but, when they drink water only, they ſhall have two meals, Charles V. and Philip IId's laws ordain, That the maſter ſhall order the mariners to have three certain meals a day; and, if they would have more meat, they ſhall only have what was laſt at their meals, unleſs upon extraordinary occaſions. By the 52d article of the Hanſeatiques, the maſter of German ſhips bound for France and Spain are not to provide victuals for their mariners when they are outward bound; but, when they are homeward bound, if the ſhip is let out to freight and loaden, the maſters are obliged to maintain their mariners; if they return light and empty, they are not obliged. The Portugueze, in their Eaſt-India voyages, maintain both mariners and ſoldiers outward-bound, and allow each a pound and a half of biſcuit, three pints of wine, and three pints of water a day, and 31 pounds of ſalt fiſh a month, ſome dry fiſh, garlick and onions: but, in their homeward-bound voyages, they have only biſcuits and water to the Cape of Good Hope, and, after that, they live every man on his own proviſion.

Facilis deſcenſus ad Indos:
Sed revocare gradum, veteremque evadere ad orbem,
Hoc opus, hic labor eſt.

In caſes of neceſſity, when proviſions fall ſhort, thoſe that have victuals aboard ought to communicate to thoſe that have not, by the Rhodian law.

ARTICLE XVIII.

When a veſſel is unladen, and the mariners demand their freight, ſome of them having neither bed, cheſt, nor trunk aboard, the maſter may lawfully retain part of their wages, 'till they have brought back the ſhip to the port from whence ſhe came, unleſs they give good ſecurity to ſerve out the whole voyage.

OBSERVATION.

The 31ſt article of the ordinances of Wiſbuy agrees exactly with this. The ſeamens wages are not regularly due, 'till after their work is intirely done, or the time they hired themſelves for expired, except there are any private agreements to the contrary. The 28th article of the Hanſeatiques ordains, that their wages ſhould be paid at three ſeveral payments; one third when they ſet ſail upon a voyage, one third when they arrive at their port of diſcharge, and the other third when the ſhip is returned home.

ARTICLE XIX.

If the maſter hires the mariners in the town to which the veſſel belongs, either for ſo much a day, week, or month, or for ſuch ſhare of the freight, and it happens that the ſhip cannot procure freight in thoſe parts where ſhe is arrived, but muſt ſail further to obtain it: in ſuch caſe, thoſe that were hired for a ſhare of the freight ought to follow the maſter, and ſuch as are at wages ought to have their wages advanced courſe by courſe, that is, in proportion to the length of the voyage, in what it was longer than they agreed for, becauſe he hired them to one certain place; and, if they go not ſo far as that place for which the contract was made, yet they ought to have the whole promiſed hire, as if they had gone thither; but they ought likewiſe to bring back the veſſel to the place from whence ſhe at firſt departed.

OBSERVATION.

This article is explained by the 8th and 16th, and what is ſaid upon them. The 32d of the laws of Wiſbuy, the 12th and 13th of Charles V, and the 24th of the Hanſeatiques, are to the ſame purpoſe. By the 9th article of Philip IId's laws, if the voyage is broken off by wars, pirates, or the command of the ſovereign, the ſeamen ought to have a quarter part of the wages they agreed to have if they had compleated it. In the year 1626, about October, all the Engliſh ſhips that were then in the river of Bourdeaux were ſtopped, by order of Monſieur de Luxemburgh, governor of Blaye. Several of theſe ſhips were laden with wine, and ſome with other merchandize. They were forced to return to Bourdeaux and unload; after which the maſters demanded the whole freight of the merchants who had freighted them, by virtue of the law Colonus §. novem conduxit. D. locati, inaſmuch as it was not their faults that they did not make their voyage, and carry the goods to their intended port: the freight was then 15 or 16 livres a ton: the admiralty-court adjudged them a quarter part of it: they appealed to the ſovereign court, who, after two hearings, ſet aſide their appeal.

ARTICLE XX.

When a veſſel arrives at Bourdeaux, or any other place, two of the mariners at a time may go a-ſhore, and take with them one meal of ſuch victuals as are in the ſhip therein cut and provided, as alſo bread proportionably, as much as they eat at once, but no drink: and they ought very ſpeedily, and in ſeaſon, to return to their veſſel, that thereby the maſter may not loſe his tide; for if ſo, and damage comes thereby, they are bound to make ſatisfaction; or, if any of their company be hurt for want of their help, they ate to be at ſuch charge for his recovery as one of his fellow mariners, or the maſter, with thoſe of his table, ſhall judge convenient.

OBSERVATION.

The reaſon of this law ceaſes now for Bourdeaux, for which place it was originally intended: for the river is ſo full of eating houſes and taverns on both ſides, that it is not likely ſailors will carry any of their ſalt proviſions on ſhore, when they can get freſh.

ARTICLE XXI.

If a maſter freight his ſhip to a merchant, and ſet him a certain time within which he ſhall lade his veſſel, that ſhe may be ready to depart at the time appointed, and he lade it not within the time, but keep the maſter and mariners for the ſpace of eight days, or a fortnight, or more, beyond the time agreed on, whereby the maſter loſes the opportunity of a fair wind to depart: the ſaid merchant, in this caſe, ſhall be obliged to make the maſter ſatisfaction for ſuch delay, the fourth part whereof is to go among the mariners, and the other three-fourths to the maſter, becauſe he finds them their proviſion.

OBSERVATION.

The 34th article of the ordinances of Wiſbuy, and the 39th of the emperor Charles V, are intirely agreeable to this law. By the laws of the Hanſeatiques, and Philip IId's, the merchant is obliged to pay the whole freight, if he does not load the ſhip in 15 days after the time agreed upon; and, by the Theodoſian Code de Navicullariis, when a veſſel arrives in a port loaden, the merchant to whom the cargo belongs muſt unload in 10 days; but in our times, on account of holy-days and Sundays, the common time for unloading a ſhip is 15 days; but that ſhould not hinder the paying the freight, which ought to be cleared in eight days, whether the ſhip be diſcharged or not. The maſter for his pay cannot detain the merchandize aboard; but, when they are in the boat or lighter, he may ſtop them 'till he is ſatisfied.

ARTICLE XXII.

When a merchant freights a veſſel at his own charge, and ſets her to ſea, and the ſaid veſſel enters into an harbour, where ſhe is wind-bound, ſo that ſhe ſtays 'till her monies be all ſpent, the maſter, in that caſe, ought ſpeedily to write home to his own country for money, but ought not to loſe his voyage on that account; for, if ſo, he ſhall be obliged to make good to the merchant all damages that ſhall enſue.
But the maſter may take part of the wines, or other merchants goods, and diſpoſe thereof for his preſent neceſſities: and, when the ſaid veſſel ſhall be arrived at her port of diſcharge, the ſaid wines that the maſter hath ſo diſpoſed of, ought to be valued and appraiſed at the ſame rate as the other wines ſhall be commonly ſold for, and accordingly be accounted for to the merchant: and the maſter ought to have the freight of ſuch wines as he hath ſo taken and diſpoſed of for the uſe and reaſon aforeſaid.

OBSERVATION.

The 35th and 69th articles of the laws of Wiſbuy are to the ſame purport as this; but, by the 68th article of thoſe laws, if the ſhip happens afterwards to be caſt away, the maſter ſhall pay the merchant for the wines, or other goods he ſold in a caſe of neceſſity, without pretending to deduct any thing for the freight. The Hanſeatiques forbid any maſter to borrow any money on any other ſecurity but the ſhip's bottom, that, if ſhe ſhould be loſt, the debt might be paid; nor do they allow him, when he is at home, to borrow any thing on her bottom, or otherwiſe, without acquainting the owners with it. By the 45th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, the ſhip is bound to the merchant whoſe goods the maſter has ſold in this manner, to make him ſatisfaction, though ſhe ſhould be herſelf ſold, and have other owners.

ARTICLE XXIII.

If a pilot undertakes the conduct of a veſſel, to bring her to St Malo, or any other port, and fail of his duty therein, ſo as the veſſel miſcarry by reaſon of his ignoronce in what he undertook, and the merchants ſuſtain damage thereby, he ſhall be obliged to make full ſatisfaction for the ſame, if he hath wherewithal; and, if not, loſe his head.

ARTICLE XXIV.

And if the maſter, or any of his mariners, or any one of the merchants, cut off his head, they ſhall not be bound to anſwer for it; but, before they do it, they muſt be ſure he had not wherewith to make ſatisfaction.

OBSERVATIONS on the two foregoing articles.

The original calls theſe pilots lockmen; for, when thoſe laws were written, there were officers aboard all ſhips, called pilots, who went the whole voyage, whereas the lockmen were like our pilots, mariners hired at every river, to guide the ſhip; for, dwelling on the place, the lockman was ſuppoſed to know the ſhore better than the ſhip's pilot, who perhaps was never there before; for which reaſon he commonly required the maſter to have a lockman, to avoid rocks, ſhelves, ſhoals, and ſands, which he muſt be well acquainted with by long uſing the river. That of Roan is very dangerous on this account, and there are ſworn pilots every two leagues, to guide ſhips up the Seine: they are very neceſſary all over Britany. The 44th and 59th articles of the ordinances of Wiſbuy oblige the maſter to take a new pilot, if his own and the ſhip's crew demand one of him. The maſter finds him maintenance, and the merchant pays him, by the 60th article of the ordinances of Wiſbuy. The loſs of the pilot's head,

head, if through his ignorance or negligence the ſhip is loſt, is taken from the Conſulate, chap. 250, and anſwers to that known maxim in the law, Qui non habet in ære, luet in corpore.

ARTICLE XXV.

If a ſhip, or other veſſel, arriving at any place, and making in towards a port or harbour, ſet out her flag, or give any other ſign to have a pilot come aboard, or a boat to tow her into harbour, the wind or tide being contrary, and contract be made for piloting the ſaid veſſel into the ſaid harbour accordingly, but, becauſe of an unreaſonable and accurſed cuſtom in ſome places, that the third or fourth part of the ſhips that are loſt ſhall accrue to the lord of the place where ſuch ſad caſualties happen, as alſo the like proportion to the ſalvers, and only the remainder to the maſter, merchant, and mariners: the perſons contracting for the pilotage of the ſaid veſſel, in order to ingratiate themſelves with their lords, and to gain to themſelves a part of the ſhip and lading, do, like faithleſs and treacherous villains, ſometimes even willingly, and out of deſign to ruin ſhips and goods, guide and bring her upon the rocks, and then feigning to aid, help, and aſſiſt the now-diſtreſſed mariners, are the firſt in diſmembering and pulling the ſhip to pieces, purloining and carrying away the lading thereof, contrary to all reaſon and good conſcience: and afterwards, that they may be the more welcome to their lord, do with all ſpeed poſt to his houſe with the ſad narrative of this unhappy diſaſter; whereupon the ſaid lord, with his retinue, appearing at the place, takes his ſhare; the ſalvers theirs; and what remains the merchants and mariners may have. But ſeeing this is contrary to the law of God, our edict and determination is, that, notwithſtanding any law or cuſtom to the contrary, it is ſaid and ordained, The ſaid lord of that place, ſalvers, and all others that take away any of the ſaid goods, ſhall be accurſed and excommunicated, and puniſhed as robbers and thieves, as formerly hath been declared: but all falſe and treacherous pilots ſhall be condemned to ſuffer a moſt rigorous and unmerciful death, and high gibbets ſhall be erected for them in the ſame place, or as nigh as conveniently may be, where they ſo guided and brought any ſhip or veſſel to ruin as aforeſaid, and thereon theſe accurſed pilots are with ignominy and much ſhame to end their days: which ſaid gibbets are to abide and remain to ſucceeding ages on that place, as a viſible caution to other ſhips that ſhall afterwards ſail thereby.

ARTICLE XXVI.

If the lord of any place be ſo barbarous as not only to permit ſuch inhuman people, but alſo to maintain and aſſiſt them in ſuch villanies, that he may have a ſhare in ſuch wrecks, the ſaid lord ſhall be apprehended, and all his goods confiſcated and ſold, in order to make reſtitution to ſuch as of right it appertaineth, and himſelf to be faſtened to a poſt, or ſtake, in the midſt of his own manſion houſe, which being fired at the four corners, all ſhall be burned together, the walls thereof ſhall be demoliſhed, the ſtones pulled down, and the place converted into a market-place for the ſale only of hogs and ſwine to all poſterity.

Observations on the two foregoing articles.

Theſe two laws were made upon account of that inhuman droit de bris ſur les naufrages, the right of lords of coaſts to ſhipwrecks; by which thoſe miſerable wretches who were caſt away, their very perſons, and the goods that were ſaved, were confiſcated for the prince who was lord of the coaſt. In the barbarous times men uſed to put this law in practice, eſpecially the Gauls, who took all ſtrangers for their enemies, and not only robbed them of their goods, but of their lives, ſacrificing them to their falſe gods. From which bloody cuſtom Hercules brought them off, according to Diodorus Siculus, lib. v. Hiſt. cap. 2. Pomponius Mela, lib. iii. de ſitu orbis, cap. 2. The Romans, though they were covetous to exceſs, and greedy after other mens goods, never approved of this cruelty, but condemned and abrogated the uſe of it to the utmoſt of their power, toto titulo de incendio, ruina & naufragio. Et de naufragiis, libro undecimo. Codicis, leg. 1. & leg. 9. But the empire degenerating in it's decadency, when ſo many barbarous nations poured in upon it out of Scythia and Scandinavia, and tore it to pieces, this wicked droit de bris ſur les naufrages was renewed, particularly on the coaſts of Gaul, called Littus Saxonicum, on account of the frequent invaſions of the Saxons there. Sidonius Appollinaris, lib. viii. epiſt. 6. & carmine ſeptimo. Afterwards the Normans being by chance thrown upon that coaſt, were immediately diſpatched by the inhabitants; and, in courſe of time, this pretended right inſinuated itſelf, and prevailed not only againſt enemies and invaders, but againſt any perſons that were ſhipwrecked. Quicquid evadebat ex naufragiis totum ſibi fiſcus lege patriæ vindicabat, paſſoſque naufragium miſerabilius violentia principis ſpoliabat quam procella, as ſays Hildebertus Turonenſis archiepiſc. epiſt. 32 & 65.

At laſt the counts and dukes of Armoreck, Bretagne, and Gaul, were obliged by civility, and the requeſt of the neighbouring people of Bourdeaux and Rochelle, to change this barbarous cuſtom of ſlavery and confiſcation into a tax for all ſuch as procured licences from them; of which licences there were three ſorts, bref de ſauvette, bref de conduite, and bref de victualle: the two firſt were to ſave them, in caſe of ſhipwreck, from the old forfeitures to the lord, and exempt them from the cruel droit de bris. The third was for liberty to buy proviſions in Bretagne. The dukes of Bretagne eſtabliſhed an office and officers for giving out theſe licences, as at Rochelle and other places. The droit de bris was alſo practiſed in Guienne, Saintonge, Artois, and Poictou, but much more civilly and humanely than it was uſed in Bretagne; for the lords of the coaſts took only a third or a quarter part, according to the ſeveral cuſtoms; the ſalvers as much, and the reſt was reſtored to the poor wretches that were ſhipwrecked, and their perſons were free.

This barbarity is aboliſhed in England, Italy, Germany, Spain, and France, unleſs it be practiſed againſt the enemies of the ſtate, infidels, or pirates: but the Spaniards obſerve this cuſtom beyond the Line againſt all but natural Spaniards. This droit de bris, which was not, however, ſo cruelly executed in Guienne as in Bretagne, was ſolemnly abrogated by Henry III. king of England, and duke of Aquitaine and Guienne: his edict to this purpoſe is regiſtered and preſerved among the rolls at Bourdeaux.

As to that part of theſe laws requiring traiterous pilots ro be hanged on the ſhore, in ſome eminent place, to be a warning to all mariners, Andronicus, emperor of Greece, who reigned about the year 1150, ordered the ſame, or the like puniſhment, for ſuch as made ſpoil of wrecks, as Nicetas reports, in the ſecond book of his Annals. The lord Verulam, in his Hiſtory of Henry VII. writes, that it was heretofore the cuſtom in England to leave the dead bodies of pirates on gibbets near the water-ſide, for a warning to ſeafaring men.

The hanging ſuch as are condemned for crimes committed at ſea by the water-ſide, and ſome of the moſt criminal in chains, has been practiſed ſince in this kingdom. Thoſe malicious fiſhermen who in the night make fires in dangerous places, to attract mariners thither, to the loſs of their ſhips, by making them believe they are near ports and inhabited places, deſerve the ſame puniſhment.

The word in the French which is rendered caution in Engliſh, is beliſe, properly a beacon; but in this place it is uſed metaphorically: for a gibbet would be an odd ſort of beacon in our language. There are ſeveral ſorts of theſe beliſes, or beacons at ſea, ſet up to direct mariners to the right courſe they ought to take to avoid danger. Theſe are very neceſſary in thoſe parts where there are bars, that is entrances, where there muſt be high tides to carry ſhips over them. Sometimes buoys are made uſe of for beliſes, and ſometimes trees, light-houſes, and other things.

The burning the criminals houſes mentioned in theſe two articles, and all that is in it, ſhews what an opinion the legiſlature had of the heinouſneſs of the crime. Coiners were in France burned in old times, and their falſe money with them; their buildings were levelled with the ground, their woods felled and rooted up, and the places that belonged to them condemned and ſtrewed with ſalt, as was the town of Poictiers in the reign of king Dagobert.

ARTICLE XXVII.

A veſſel being arrived at her port of diſcharge, and halled up there into dry ground, ſo as the mariners, deeming her to be in good ſafety, do take down her ſails, and ſo fit the veſſels aloof and aft, the maſter then ought to conſider an increaſe of their wages, kenning by kenning; and if in hoiſting up of wines, it happens that they leave open any of the pipes, or other veſſels, or that they faſten not the ropes well at the ends of the veſſel, by reaſon whereof it ſlips and falls, and ſo is loſt, and falling on another both are loſt, in theſe caſes the maſter and mariners ſhall be bound to make them good to the merchants, and the merchants muſt pay the freight of the ſaid damnified or loſt wines, becauſe they are to receive for them from the maſter and mariners, according to the value that the reſt of the wines are ſold for; and the owners of the ſhip ought not to ſuffer hereby, becauſe the damage happened by default of the maſter and mariners, in not making faſt the veſſels or pipes of wine.

OBSERVATION.

Kenning by kenning, veu par veu, is a phraſe uſed by mariners, as is alſo courſe by courſe, in the 19th article of theſe laws. Theſe phraſes are very ancient, and kenning was particularly uſed when navigation was performed by views, and by obſervation on the land from one proſpect to another, Plin. lib. vi. cap. 13. which was before the invention or knowlege of the uſe of the compaſs. It ſignifies what the logicians, or metaphyſicians, called agreement, the arithmeticians and geometricians proportion, and others expreſs otherwiſe.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

If two veſſels go on a fiſhing deſign in partnerſhip, as for mackrel, herrings, or the like, and do ſet their nets, or lay their lines, at Olonne, St Gilles, Survie, or elſewhere, the one of the veſſels ought to employ as many fiſhing-engines as the other, and ſo ſhall go in equal ſhares as to the gain, according to the agreement between them made. And if it happens that one of the ſaid veſſels, with her fiſhing inſtruments, engines, and crew, periſh, and the other eſcaping, arrives in ſafety: if the ſurviving friends of thoſe that periſhed, require of the other to have their part of the gain, as alſo of their fiſh, fiſhing-inſtruments, and boat, they are to have, upon the oaths of thoſe that eſcape, their part of the fiſh and fiſhing inſtruments; but they ſhall not have any part or ſhare in the veſſel itſelf.

ARTICLE XXIX.

If any ſhip, or other veſſel ſailing to and fro, and coaſting the ſeas, as well in the way of merchandizing as upon the fiſhing account, happen by ſome misfortune, through the violence of the weather, to ſtrike herſelf againſt the rocks, whereby ſhe becomes ſo bruiſed and broken that there ſhe periſhes, upon what coaſts, country, or dominion ſoever, and the maſter, mariners, merchant, or merchants, or any one of theſe eſcape, and come ſafe to land; in this caſe, the lord of that place or country where ſuch misfortune ſhall happen, ought not to let, hinder, or oppoſe ſuch as have ſo eſcaped, or ſuch to whom the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, and her lading belong, in uſing their utmoſt endeavours for the preſervation of as much thereof as may poſſibly be ſaved; but, on the contrary, the lord of that place or country, by his own intereſt, and by thoſe under his power and juriſdiction, ought to be aiding and aſſiſting to the ſaid diſtreſſed merchants or mariners, in ſaving their ſhipwrecked goods, and that without the leaſt embezzlement, or taking any part thereof from the right owners.

But, however, there may be a renunciation, or conſideration, for ſalvage to ſuch as take pains therein, according to right reaſon, a good conſcience, and as juſtice ſhall appoint; notwithſtanding what promiſes may in that caſe have been made to the ſalvers, by ſuch diſtreſſed merchants and mariners, as is declared in the 4th article of theſe laws: and, in caſe any ſhall act contrary hereunto, or take any part of the ſaid goods from the ſaid poor, diſtreſſed, ruined, undone, ſhipwrecked perſons, againſt their wills, and without their conſent, they ſhall be declared to be excommunicated by the church, and ought to receive the puniſhment of thieves, except ſpeedy reſtitution be made by them: nor is there any cuſtom or ſtatute whatſoever that can protect them againſt the aforeſaid penalties, as is ſaid in the 26th article of theſe laws.

Observation on the two foregoing articles.

The civil law almoſt every where allows all ſhipwrecked perſons a right to gather up their ſhipwrecked goods. The Codex and the Rhodian laws are particular in this matter, ſo is king Henry IIId's charter beforementioned.

ARTICLE XXX.

If a ſhip, or other veſſel entering into harbour, happens by misfortune to be broken and periſh, and the maſter, mariners, and merchants which were on board her, be all drowned, and if the goods thereof be driven aſhore, or remain floating on the ſea, without being ſought after by thoſe to whom they belong, they being ignorant of this ſad diſaſter, and knowing nothing thereof: in this moſt lamentable caſe, the lord of that place or country ought to ſend perſons to ſave the ſaid goods, which he ought to ſecure and to put into ſafe cuſtody, and give the relations of the deceaſed perſons who were drowned notice of it, and to ſatisfy for the ſalvage thereof, not out of his own purſe, but of the goods ſaved, according to the hazards run, and the pains taken therein; and what remains muſt be kept in ſafe cuſtody for one year or more; and if, in that time, they to whom the ſaid goods appertain do not appear and claim the ſame, and the ſaid year be fully expired, he may publickly ſell and diſpoſe thereof, to ſuch as will give moſt, and with the monies proceeding from the ſale thereof he ought to give among the poor, and for portions to poor maids, and other charitable uſes, according to reaſon and good conſcience. But if he aſſumes the ſaid goods, either in whole or in part unto himſelf, he ſhall incur the curſe and malediction of our mother the holy church, with the aforeſaid pains and penalties, without ever obtaining remiſſion, unleſs he make ſatisfaction.

OBSERVATION.

The keeping ſuch goods a year is in the civil law, 1, 2 Cod. Naufragiis: but the parliament of Paris, in the year 1584, pretended to reduce the time to two months, which time was to commence from the day of proclaiming ſuch goods in public market, and fixing a placart of it on the doors of the pariſh-church. The conſulate provides for the ſalvers more largely, allowing them half of the goods ſaved, and the lord and the poor the other half, cap. 252. By ſome laws in France, as long as the goods are in being and unalienated, the merchant to whom they belong has a claim to them, paying the charge of ſalvage: but if, after a lawful time, they are ſold, and become another's property, he has no claim to them. The caſuiſts are of opinion, That, if he who finds them is rich, he ought to give all to pious uſes; if poor, to keep all himſelf, Hoſtienſis in ſumma de pœnitentia; and the 36th article of the laws of Oleron agrees with the judgment of the caſuiſts.

ARTICLE. XXXI.

If a ſhip, or other veſſel, happens to be loſt by ſtriking on ſome ſhoar, and the mariners, thinking to ſave their lives, reach the ſhoar, in hope of help, and inſtead thereof it happens, as it often does, that in many places they meet with people more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman than mad dogs, who, to gain their monies, apparel, and other goods, do ſometimes murder and deſtroy theſe poor diſtreſſed ſeamen; in this caſe, the lord of that country ought to execute juſtice on ſuch wretches, to puniſh them as well corporally as pecuniarily, to plunge them in the ſea 'till they be half dead, and then to have them drawn forth out of the ſea, and ſtoned to death.

OBSERVATION.

To plunge them in the ſea, plonger en la mer, is what the French now call bailler la cale, and we keel-hauling.

The Goths heretofore uſed to practiſe it as a ſport or exerciſe, Olaus Magnus Hiſtoriæ Septentrionalis, lib. 5. and lib. 10. cap. 16. And one may conceive an idea of the barbarity of the northern nations, when that was a divertion to them, which was a puniſhment to others; as it was of old among the Celtes and Franks, and is now among the modern navigators.

Lazy and ſcandalous perſons had ſome ſuch ſort of puniſhment, by the cuſtoms or laws of the old Germans, Tacitus de Morbus Germanorum, num. 5. Turnus Herdonius was puniſhed thus to death, for abuſing and railing at the king. Tarquinius Superbus, T. Livius, lib. primo decadis primæ. Bawds and whores are ſerved ſo at Bourdeaux; and ſcolds ſomething like it in England, when they are put into the ducking-ſtool.

ARTICLE XXXII.

If by reaſon of tempeſtuous weather, it be thought expedient, for the lighting of any ſhip or veſſel at ſea, or riding at anchor in any road, to caſt part of the lading overboard, and it be done accordingly for the common ſafety, though the ſaid goods ſo ejected and caſt overboard, do become his that can firſt poſſeſs himſelf thereof, and carry them away: nevertheleſs, it is here to be further underſtood, that this holds true only in ſuch caſes, as when the maſter, merchants, and mariners have ſo ejected or caſt out the ſaid goods, as that they give over all hope or deſire of ever recovering them again, and to leave them as things utterly loſt, and given over by them, without ever making any enquiry or purſuit after them: in which caſe only, the firſt occupant becomes the lawful proprietor thereof.

OBSERVATION.

The property of things thrown overboard remains in the merchants, and the finder has no right to them, unleſs they were thrown out with an intention to leave them there and look no more after them, c. 2. in fine, l. qui lavandæ D. Lege Rhodia, l. quod ex naufragio, D. acquirenda vel amittenda poſſeſſione Neptunus ſaſtidioſus ædilis eſt. Si quæ ſunt improbæ merces jactat omnes; as Plautus ſays in Stichot. The ſea drives all things to land: maris hæc eſt natura, ut omne immundum, ſtercoroſumque in littoribus impingat. Seneca naturalium quæſt. lib. 3. cap. 26. On this aſſurance, every one that flings his goods overboard in time of danger, hopes and deſires to recover them again after ſeeking for them, and thoſe things non ſunt in derelicto, ſed in deperdito, l. ſi quis Merces, D. pro derelicto. It is true, what is abandoned through contempt or careleſſneſs, belongs to the firſt occupiers; quod dominus ea mente abjecit, ut in numerum rerum ſuarum eſſe nolit, qui primus occupaverit ſtatim dominus ſit jure naturali. Inſtit. de rerum diviſione 5. qua ratione, & lege 1. D. pro derelicto.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

If a ſhip, or any other veſſel, hath caſt overboard ſeveral goods or merchandizes, which are in cheſts well locked and made faſt; or books well claſped and ſhut cloſe, that they may not be damnified by ſalt water: in ſuch caſes it is to be preſumed, that they who did caſt ſuch goods overboard, do

ſtill retain an intention, hope, and deſire of recovering the ſame. For which reaſon, thoſe who ſhall happen to find ſuch things, are obliged to make inſtitution thereof to him who ſhall make a due enquiry after them, or put them to pious uſes, according to his conſcience, and the advice of ſome prudent neighbour.

OBSERVATION.

Well claſped; this is conformable to the gloſs on the laſt law. D. Lege Rhodia.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

If any man happens to find any thing in the ſea, or in the ſand on the ſhore, in floods or in rivers, if it be precious ſtones, fiſhes, or any treaſure of the ſea, which never belonged to any man in point of property, it belongs to the firſt finder.

ARTICLE XXXV.

If any ſearches the ſea-coaſts to fiſh, or find gold or ſilver, and he finds it, he ought to reſtore it all without any diminution.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

If any going along the ſea-ſhore to fiſh, or otherwiſe happens to find gold or ſilver, he ſhall be bound to make reſtitution thereof, deducting for his own pains; or, if he be poor he may keep it to himſelf; that is, if he knows not to whom to reſtore it; yet he ſhall give notice of the place where he found it, to the neighbourhood and parts next adjacent, and adviſe with his ſuperiors, who ought to weigh, and take into conſideration the indigence and poverty of the finder, and then to give him ſuch adviſe as is conſonant to good conſcience.

OBSERVATION on the three preceeding articles.

There are three ſorts of goods, which the ſea naturally drives to land: as entire wrecks; for which the cruel droit de bris was in old times eſtabliſhed by pernicious and barbarous cuſtom: but humanity, licences, and paſſports have aboliſhed it in ours. The ſecond is what is flung overboard, for the preſervation of mens lives, the ſhip and cargo. Neither of theſe, by law nor the cuſtom of the ſea, change their proprietors; but may be claimed and recovered by them, within the lawful time appointed by ordinances and cuſtoms to claim, even while the goods are in being and unſold, as appears by what has been ſaid in and upon the 30th art.

The third ſort comprehends the two firſt, which are not owned and demanded by the proprietor; and beſides that, includes all the treaſures of the ſea, which come out of it's bowels, and it naturally drives aſhore; as aromatic amber, on the coaſt of Guienne; amber ſuccinum, in the German ocean; red, black, and white coral, on the coaſt of Barbary; precious ſtones, fiſh-ſhells, and other riches, which the ſea produces, and which, in the 34th article of theſe laws, are called herpes marines, in Engliſh, treaſures of the ſea, for it cannot be otherwiſe ſo fully expreſſed. The word herpes was taken from an old Gauliſh term herpir, which ſignifies to take, and it's contrary, voerpir, is to leave.

Nor is he who firſt lays his hand on them, obliged to give thoſe that are there with him a ſhare of what he has found, unleſs he pleaſes to do it out of courteſy, notwithſtanding the conſtitution of the emperor Leo, which is contrary to it. This is the law of nature; but princes and lords of the coaſt have uſurped this privilege, and laid claim to all the treaſures of the ſea, that it throws on their royalties. The lords of the coaſts, that is, of the manors or lands on the coaſts of France, were notorious uſurpers in this, 'till the reign of Lewis XIII. when cardinal Richlieu, by an order of the council, bearing date the 13th of December, 1629, took away the pretended rights of ſeveral lords, or very much abridged them; but he did not reſtore the law of nature in this caſe: he only enlarged his own and his ſucceſſor's privileges and authority, he being great maſter, and ſuperintendant-general of the navigation and commerce of France, This regulation of council occaſioned great diſorders, and the count de Olonne was particularly ſo enraged at it, that his officers by main force drove away thoſe of the admiralty, who came upon his royalty. But the French kings were now maſters of their ſubjects lives and fortunes, and it would have been in vain for ſuch counts to have diſputed the king's edict with theſe words in it, car tel eſt nôtre plaiſir, the ſtanding reaſon of the French laws at this time.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

Touching great fiſh, that are taken or found dead on the ſea-ſhore, regard muſt be had to the cuſtom of that country, where ſuch great fiſh are taken or found. For, by the cuſtom, the lord of that country ought to have his ſhare; and with good reaſon, ſince the ſubject owes obedience and tribute to his ſovereign.

OBSERVATION.

This law declares, that by the antient cuſtoms of countries, as well ſovereigns, as all particular lords of royalties, to whom duties and tributes were due, had both heretofore certain rights to the eſpaves de mer, ſtrays of the ſea. The couſtomier de Normandie, under the article of Varech, ſpecifies what belongs to the one, and what belongs to the other; and particularly that whales and other oil-fiſh belong to the particular lord of the royalty where they were found; that is, off whoſe land they are taken on the ſhore: in the original it is, a la rive de la mer; and how far that is to be underſtood to belong to the lord of that royalty, may be found in the above-mentioned couſtoumier, where the varech underſtands as far as a man on horſeback can reach with his launce: for if the fiſh is found farther off the ſhore, the lord has no right to it, though it be brought or driven a-ſhore afterwards.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

The lord ought to have his ſhare of oil-fiſh, and no other, according to the laudable cuſtom of the country where they are found; and he that finds them is no further obliged than to ſave them, by bringing them without the reach of the ſea, and preſently to make it known to the ſaid lord of the place, that he may come and demand what is his right.

OBSERVATION.

The couſtoumier de Normandie mentions two ſorts of fiſh; the royal fiſh, which are the dolphin, the ſturgeon, the ſalmon, the turbot, the ſea-dragon, the ſea-barbel, and, in general, all fiſh fit for a king's table: and oil-fiſh, as whales, porpuſſes, ſea-calves, and the like, of which oil may be made: all other fiſh are the property of thoſe that take them in the ſea, near the ſhore, or afar off. The duke of Eſpernon, which is the capital of a little territory called de Buch, had a right to the eighth penny of all the fiſh ſold in the market at Bourdeaux, that were taken within his precinct of de Buch, the fiſhermen having been heretofore vaſſals to the lords de Buch. And further, whatever part of the province of Guienne the duke was in, thoſe fiſhermen were on all faſt-days bound to ſupply his table with fiſh for himſelf and his family; but then the duke muſt pay a reaſonable price for them, and allow them ſomething for their trouble. This right is called bian, and was, 50 years ago, in uſe.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

If the lord of the place pleaſes, and it be the cuſtom of the country where the fiſh is found, he may cauſe the ſame to be brought, by him that found it, to the public and open market-place, but no where elſe; and there the ſaid fiſh ſhall be appraiſed by the ſaid lord, or his deputy, according to cuſtom. And the price being ſet, the other party that made not the price, ſhall have his choice, either to take or leave it at that price; and if either of them, whether per fas or nefas, be an occaſion of loſs or damage to the other, though but to the value of a denier, he ſhall be obliged to make him reſtitution.

ARTICLE XL.

If the coſt and charges of carrying the ſaid fiſh to the ſaid market-place would amount to a greater ſum than the fiſh itſelf may be worth, then the ſaid lord ſhall be bound to take his ſhare at the place where ſuch fiſh was found.

ARTICLE XLI.

The ſaid lord ought likewiſe to pay his part of the aforeſaid coſts and charges, becauſe he ought not, by another's damage, to enrich himſelf.

ARTICLE XLII.

If, by ſome chance or misfortune, the ſaid fiſh happens to be ſtolen away, or otherwiſe loſt from the place where it was found, after or before the ſaid lord has viſited it; in this caſe, he that firſt found it ſhall not any ways be obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XLIII.

In all other things found by the ſea-ſide, which have formerly been in the poſſeſſion of ſome or other, as wines, oil, and other merchandize, although they have been caſt overboard, and left by the merchants, and ſo ought to appertain to him that firſt finds the ſame; yet herein alſo the cuſtom of the country is to be obſerved, as well as in the caſe of fiſh. But

if

if there be a preſumption that theſe were the goods of ſome ſhip that periſhed, then neither the ſaid lord, nor finder thereof, ſhall take any or convert any part of it to their own uſe; but, as has been ſaid, diſtribute the money it produces amongſt the poor and needy.

ARTICLE XLIV.

If any ſhip, or other veſſel at ſea, happens to find an oil-fiſh, it ſhall be wholly theirs that found it, in caſe no due purſuit be made after it; and no lord of any place ought to demand any part thereof, though they bring it to his ground.

ARTICLE XLV.

If a veſſel, by ſtreſs of weather, be conſtrained to cut her cables or ropes by the end, and ſo to quit and leave behind her both cables and anchors, and put to ſea at the mercy of the wind and weather; in this caſe, the ſaid cables and anchors ought not to be loſt to the ſaid veſſel, if there were any buoy at them; and ſuch as fiſh for them ſhall be bound to reſtore them, if they know to whom they belong: but they ought to be paid for their pains, according to juſtice. And if they know not to whom to reſtore them, the lords of the place ſhall have their ſhares, as well as the ſalvers; but, for preventing further inconveniencies, every maſter of a ſhip ſhall cauſe to be engraven, or ſet upon the buoys thereof, his own name, or the name of his ſhip, or of the port or haven to which ſhe belongs: and ſuch as detain them from him ſhall be reputed thieves and robbers.

ARTICLE XLVI.

If any ſhip, or other veſſel, by any caſualty or misfortune, happens to be wrecked and periſh; in that caſe the pieces of the bulk of the veſſel, as well as the lading thereof, ought to be reſerved and kept in ſafety for them to whom it belonged, before ſuch diſaſter happened, notwithſtanding any cuſtom to the contrary. And all takers, partakers, or conſenters, of or to the ſaid wreck, if they be biſhops, prelates, or clerks, they ſhall be depoſed, and deprived of their benefices reſpectively; and if they be laymen, they ſhall incur the penalties aforeſaid.

ARTICLE XLVII.

This is to be underſtood only, when the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſo wrecked, did not exerciſe the trade of pillaging, and when the mariners thereof were not pirates, ſea-rovers, or enemies to popery; but if they are found to be either the one or the other, every man may then deal with ſuch as with rogues, and diſpoil them of their goods, without any puniſhment for ſo doing.

OBSERVATION on the three foregoing articles.

Every one has a droit de bris againſt pirates. Piratæ communes generis humani hoſtes ſunt, quos idcirco omnibus rationibus perſequi incumbit, ſays the lord Verulam de Bello Sacro. For which reaſon, according to the Civilians, ſunt ipſo jure diffidiati, cum quibus publice bellum habemus. Strachia in tertia parte de nautis; and again, it is cruelty to have any mercy towards pirates, ſolum pietatis genus eſt in hac re eſſe crudelem. There is no right of action amongſt them, and they have none to bring againſt one who attacks them or robs them. Quia in omnium furum perſona conſtitutum eſt, ne ejus rei nomine furti agere poſſint, cujus ipſi fures ſunt. Lege cum qui § quarto. lege qui re ſibi § primo. Lege qui res. § Si ego. De furtis, &c. They have no action among themſelves. Communi dividendo lege communi §. Inter præliones. D. communi dividendo. On the contrary, for one pirate to take from another is very lawful, and will bear no action. Lege ſed ipſi nautæ, &c.

The teſt of theſe laws in this copy is,

'Witneſs the ſeal of the iſle of Oleron, eſtabliſhed for all contracts in the ſaid iſle, the Tueſday after the feaſt of St Andrew, in the year one thouſand, two hundred, ſixty ſix.'

REMARKS.

This date of 1266, is too modern, and does not agree with the time when this piece was put forth, as the learned and curious Selden, libro ſecundo, capite 24, de dominio maris, very well obſerves: ſo that it is thought, that this date of the time of the delivery of the copy, from whence the edition printed at Rouen was taken, as the teſt, and the ſeal eſtabliſhed for contracts in the iſle of Oleron, denotes, that it was a copy taken out by a notary from the original.

ORCADES, or the Iſlands of Orkney in Scotland, are divided on the ſouth, from that part of the main land called Caithneſs, Pentland or Pictland Firth; which is twenty-four miles long, and from twelve to ſixteen in breadth. They have the Caledonian ſea on the weſt, the German on the eaſt, and the ſea that parts them from Shetland on the north. They are reckoned about thirty in number, and contain, according to Mr Templeman, an area of ſix hundred ſquare miles, but they are not all inhabited; the reſt, which are called Holmes, being uſed only for paſturage for ſheep and goats. The longeſt day amongſt them exceeds eighteen hours by ſome minutes. Their winters are not ſo ſubject to ſnow as to rain, which falls ſometimes in violent ſpouts, and the wind is often boiſterous. As theſe iſlands are larger, and have more inhabitants than thoſe of Shetland, the ſoil is better and more improveable; and as they are ſo much nearer to Scotland, there is more commerce, and much more converſation; for here are ſeveral gentlemen, of good families, who have good manſion-houſes on the iſland where their eſtates lie.

The principal iſlands of the Orcades, are South Ronaldſha, Swinna, Hoy, Burra, Lambholm, Flotta, Faira, Cava, Gramſay, Main-land, or the Chief Iſland, Copinſha, Strapinſha, Damſey, Inhallo, Stronſa, Papa-Stronſa, Sanda, North Ronaldſha, Eda, Rouſa, Wire, Garſa, Egleſha, North Faira, Weſtra, Papa-Weſtra.

The chief difference betwixt theſe iſlands, is in their ſituation, or their being more or leſs mountainous. The ſoil in ſome places is extremely dry and ſandy, in others wet and marſhy. They produce corn in abundance, but the chief of it is oats for bread, and barley or beer corn; for they have no wheat, rye, or pulſe, except in the gentlemens gardens. They have, however, all ſorts of wild fowl, partridges, moor fowl, plover, duck, teal, widgeon, rabbets, &c. and they want neither fiſh nor veniſon: ſo that the inhabitants have every thing to make life comfortable, except better bread, and warmer weather.

It is a very pleaſing proſpect to ſtand on the ſhore and behold the ſea in calm weather, in the narrow ſounds and paſſages between the iſlands; how the different tides run as from a ſluice, as well one way as the other, and to ſee a boat fly upon them, like an arrow out of a bow, it being as impoſſible to row againſt them, as to ſhoot London-bridge againſt a ſteep fall.

In the Pentland firth, behind the iſland Swinna, are two great whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna, which are ſure to ſwallow up any veſſels that come within the draught; and the paſſage of the firth is of itſelf very dangerous, becauſe of the many ſtrong tides, which are not leſs than twenty-four, and make the ſea go very high upon the leaſt contrary wind. Theſe whirlpools are moſt dangerous in a calm, for if there be any wind, and the boat under ſail, they are paſſed without danger. If the mariners, who carry paſſengers between the main land and the iſles, happen to be drove near them by the tides, they throw a barrel, a bundle of ſtraw, or ſome other bulky thing into the whirlpools, which make them ſmooth enough, 'till the veſſel has paſſed them; and what is thus caſt in, is generally found floating a mile or two off. Mean time the natives on both ſides, who know the proper ſeaſons, paſs this firth every day very ſafe, except when the weather is tempeſtuous.

The trade of the Orkneys differs from that of Shetland, only in not depending upon the reſort of ſtrangers, but on their own produce. They export annually a very great quantity of corn, black cattle, ſwine, and ſheep, as alſo of butter, tallow, and white ſalt, together with ſeal-ſkins, otter-ſkins, lamb and rabbet-ſkins, &c. Alſo ſtuffs and great quantities of very good down, feathers, writing-quills and pens, hams and wool.

Their corn in particular is ſold as far as Edinburgh, from whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. But the chief of their commerce conſiſts in their fiſhing for herrings, and white fiſh, and in their corn and cattle. Hving NOT MERCHANTS TO EXPORT THEIR FISH WHEN TAKEN, THEY FISH FOR THE DUTCH, AND THE MERCHANTS OF INVERNESS, &c. And though upon this account, they ſometimes go far from home, yet as they are an adventurous hardy people, and good ſailors, they make no difficulty of fiſhing in the darkeſt nights, though at a great diſtance from the iſland; and yet their boats are none of the beſt.

Their white fiſhing trade lies chiefly on the weſt ſide of the iſlands, towards thoſe which we call the weſtern iſlands.

There have been ſeveral attempts, by the merchants both of England and Scotland, to eſtabliſh a fiſhery both in the Orkneys and the weſtern iſlands; but the extraordinary expence of building warehouſes, fiſhing veſſels, &c. always rendered it fruitleſs 'till lately; beſides that, the taking of the herrings in thoſe ſeas, does not turn to ſo good an account as thoſe taken on the eaſt ſide of Scotland, the markets being more remote. Indeed, the Glaſgow fiſhing-boats generally come up as far north as the Leuze, and fiſh for herring, as do likewiſe the fiſhermen from Londonderry, Belfaſt, and other ports of Ireland, by whom the people of the iſlands are ſupplied with many neceſſaries, eſpecially tobacco, wine, brandy, and other liquors, and ſome manufactures alſo for cloathing; but they meet with few or no returns, except fiſh and ſome oil, which the iſlanders make by killing porpoiſes, ſeals, and ſuch creatures.

ORDNANCE, ſee ARTILLERY.

ORES. Experience daily teaches us, that metals and minerals for the moſt part, ſuperabound with ſulphur and arſenic, which

which are ſeparated from them in the ſmelting furnace, and that the body does not become truly metallic, 'till after this ſeparation. In reverſing this operation by chemical experiments, we find, that if ſulphur and arſenic be added to a metal, a mixture is produced, which no longer reſembles metal, but rather an ore or mineral maſs. By theſe ſort of experiments, metal is brought back to the form of a mineral, therefore the operation is called mineralizing, and this name of mineralization is given to the action of the ſulphur and arſenic upon the metal.

True it is, we cannot always produce a matter that ſhall reſemble natural minerals, for the chemical production will often retain but a very ſmall appearance of them: from ſulphur and lead the true lead ore is produced: and from ſulphur and ſilver a real ore, known in our mines by the appellation of glaſs ore.

Sulphur and regulus of antimony will re-produce antimony; ſulphur and mercury will make cinnabar, which is the ore of quickſilver; and iron and arſenic will compoſe a mixture of different colours. Of orpiment, filings of iron and ſulphurated copper, may be made a kind of pyrites. But, from ſulphur and iron, ſulphur and copper, ſulphur and pewter, no true ore is produced.

The two firſt mixtures produce nothing but a kind of mineral gravel, and the laſt makes a ſort of pewter ore which is not natural. The celebrated Mr Henckel has already obſerved, that there was no occaſion to employ ſulphur in it's ſeparated form for mineralizatiou, as antimony, cinnabar, and pyrites, may be uſed for the ſame purpoſe. If that great man had puſhed his reſearches ſtill farther, and applied the ſame reaſoning to the arſenic, he might have been, perhaps, more happy in counterfeiting the mineral which he ſought (I know not for what reaſon) with ſuch eagerneſs.

Thus it hath been concluded from experience and obſervation, that ſulphur and arſenic are the two ſubſtances which reduce metals to the ſtate of ore, and preſerve them in that form. Yet we think, 'that ſulphur and arſenic are the only two ſub-'ſtances by which metals are found in the ſtate of ore.' On the contrary, are there not certain kinds of earth, without any appearance of ſulphur and arſenic, which nevertheleſs are capable of preſerving metals in the form of ore, and of mineralizing them by chemical operations?

If the true and natural mineralization of the metallic particles does not abſolutely depend upon the force of the acid, but rather is mechanically performed, as in all probability it is, a certain earth may inſinuate itſelf between the metallic leaves and particles, and keep them ſeparate as well as ſulphur and arſenic. Now, if this earth is neither fluid nor ſhining, the ore will not be looked upon as a mineral, and very little metal will be extracted from it in the aſſay. If, on the contrary, this earth is tinctured by the metal which it contains, and appears brown, red, yellow, green, or blue, then the colour teſtifies that it is impregnated with metal. From theſe ſorts of earth the aſſay-makers produce gold, ſilver, copper, &c. and it cannot be denied that theſe metals are mineralized in theſe earths, although they contain no ſenſible portion of ſulphur or arſenic; for theſe two matters ſoon manifeſt themſelves where they really are, by the fumes and ſcent which they exhale upon the fire.

It will, perhaps, be alledged, that theſe earths are formed of ore which has been altered by time, which hath expelled the ſulphur and arſenic by which they were formerly mineralized; but to this allegation it may be anſwered, that at leaſt ſomething vitriolic ſhould remain from the ſulphur, and that the arſenic ſhould leave a kind of ruſt which is found in other minerals, though no ſuch thing is found in theſe earths: beſides, theſe earths are extremely compact, ſo that we cannot preſume they have been altered by time, which generally renders them altogether porous and juicy: and they are moreover properly and naturally ſituated in forms of beds and layers, a circumſtance that is not to be obſerved in earth, which has been altered by time and air.

To theſe natural indications, let us add the operations of art, which repreſent ſomething of the ſame appearance. A mineralization of metals, reſembling that which we have mentioned, is made between pewter and lead. Pewter reduces lead to a kind of earth or aſhes: zink mineralizes gold, though in a different manner: but we ſhall here confine ourſelves to pewter and lead. Pewter being very earthy, partaking very little of the nature of glaſs, and having beſides very large pores, it's phlogiſton eaſily evaporates in the fire: when mixed with lead, it likewiſe deprives that metal of it's phlogiſton, which it allows to evaporate.

This example will explain what is properly underſtood, by the mineralization of metals, by means of earths; but, if we would examine this matter to the bottom, let us conſider how the crocus of Mars, when mixed in a metal, not by the art of man, but by accident, hinders it from being refined in the fuſion.

A ſulphur abounds with vitriolic acid, and arſenic is a violent corroſive, which likewiſe exerciſes it's acid by corroſion, it is plain that theſe two matters mineralize metals in quality of acids. This may be granted, without contradicting what has been advanced above: for, when a metal is melted, or very compact and ſolid in it's texture, certain it is all earth cannot penetrate this mechanic texture, and inſinuate itſelf into it's pores, which can only admit a ſubtle, fluid, acrimonious earth: now, this ſubtile, fluid, acrimonious earth, is no other than an acid; conſequently an acid, as ſuch, mineralizes metals. Whence may we not enquire, whether ſea ſalt, which likewiſe contains an acid, many not mineralize metals?

This ſalt reduces lead and regulus of antimony to aſhes in the fire; but, as every body will not allow that this change into earth is a mineralization, we will quote other examples to be ſeen in the ſame manner, in theſe three matters, namely, in a mineral, in a metal mineralized, and in a metal ſtrictly allied with the acid of kitchen ſalt.

This laſt is a Luna cornua, or again, a Saturnus cornuus, which after theſe metals are diſſolved in aqua fortis, have been precipitated by kitchen ſalt or it's acid. With regard to the two firſt of theſe matters, we may chuſe, for example, a mineral, or metal mineralized, and make the trial upon either, and we may be certain that the experiment will not fail, if properly conducted.

The effects of the mineralization by nature and art, are theſe. (1.) Part of the metal is volatilized in the fire. (2.) The minerals will not amalgamate with mercury. (3.) They will not be diſſolved by mercury. And (4.) part of the metal enters the ſcoria. Lead and ſilver which reſemble the cornua, produce the ſame effects, the fourth of which is likewiſe produced by ſalt upon copper and iron.

Indeed the poſſibility and imitation of mineralizing metals by the acid of kitchen ſalt, is manifeſted by the preceding experiments: but it is not enough to know theſe effects, for the principal point is to learn, if nature acts in this manner of herſelf; conſequently we muſt change the queſtion, and endeavour to know, whether there are not actually in nature, metallic ores which have been mineralized by the acid of kitchen ſalt?

We ſhall firſt ſpeak of iron ore, which in ſome ſhape ought to be divided into two kinds; for, when diſſolved, it becomes a reddiſh or yellow earth. We mean it's natural, rather than artificial ſolution. Every body knows, that when iron ore continues long expoſed to the viciſſitudes of dry and wet weather, it in time degenerates and diſſolves into a kind of earth and clay.

In this condition it is frequently found in the earth, where we ſee it ſome times degenerated through and through, or at leaſt externally, and changed into a red or yellow earth, which ought to be conſidered as a crocus martis naturally formed, and the colour ought to aſcertain the ſaline quality with which it is mixed. Now, we know from chemiſtry, that iron treated with ſulphur or vitriol, yields a red crocus. The colcothar, or caput mortuum of vitriol, is no other than ſuch an earth of iron, &c. Chemiſtry likewiſe teaches us, that iron diſſolved in the acid of kitchen ſalt, appears yellow in the ſolution, and that in drying or precipitating it exhibits a yellow earth or clay. Theſe experiments ſhould ſeem to demonſtrate the cauſes of the red and yellow iron ore; the firſt ſeems allied with the acid of ſulphur, and the yellow with the acid of kitchen ſalt; whence it reſults, that kitchen ſalt preſerves mineralized metals even in their natural ſtate.

It will perhaps be objected, that we have quoted the only example that is to be found in nature: but, provided the truth of this example is granted, it ought to ſerve in the ſame manner, with regard to a great many other minerals, ſince we find abundance that contain ſuch a yellow iron earth in their texture; conſequently, where-ever it is found, we may preſume there is an acid of kitchen ſalt. We ſhall, therefore, proceed no farther in minerology, otherwiſe we might deduce the ſame proofs from the blue, and bluiſh minerals of the copper.

Almoſt all the minerals of lead would confirm the proof; for it preciſely reſembles what is called lead ore, and of conſequence can be no other than the mineral of lead corroded by an acid. Nor is it more difficult to determine what that acid is, which thus corrodes it's mineral through it's whole extent; for the ſmall pieces of pyrites found ſtill in their natural ſtate within the mineral, prove that the acid, which formed this natural lead mine, muſt not have been of the ſtrongeſt kind, ſince it could not diſſolve the pyrites. But as all we propoſe in this place is by way of queſtion, we do not pretend to decide upon any thing.

I ſhall, however, anſwer another objection, which may be made even by thoſe people who are moſt converſant with minerology: they may alledge, that the vitriolic acid and arſenic, each ſimply conſidered as an acid, are not capable of effecting a mineralization; but, both being combined with an inflammable earth, they derive principally from thence, the power of producing the form of a mineral; but, they will add, where ſhall we find the acid of common ſalt combined with an inflammable earth, ſo as to produce the ſame effect? To this queſtion it may be replied, that art combines the acid of kitchen ſalt with a phlogiſton, when the phoſphorus is made; and this inſtance will ſerve, when they would puſh the propoſition ſtill farther, and confirm it by experiment. 'But in the earth (ſay they) no phoſphorus is either

'made

'made or found.' True, but in lieu of it, we find in ſea-coal, the acid of kitchen ſalt abundantly charged with phlogiſton: a convincing proof, that it is alſo naturally found in a condition not at all improper for naturalization.

In fine, ſome perſon may aſk what purpoſe can be ſerved by theſe theoretical queſtions, and ſubtile enquiries? It would be eaſy to aſſign a very good reaſon, if the queſtions we have propoſed were anſwered. But, that no body may think they are thrown away, without having any view to manifeſt utility, either in theory or practice; we ſhall obſerve, that perhaps, by a preciſe ſolution of theſe queſtions, minerology might be reduced to better order, and carried to much greater perfection. Minerals are commonly divided into certain claſſes, according to the metals and demi-metals; but as each claſs includes a good many kinds, there is a neceſſity for inventing a great number of ſub-diviſions. Would not the beſt way be to divide the mineral of each metal according to its mineralizing ſubſtance? For example, the minerals of ſilver are mineralized ſometimes by ſulphur, ſometimes by arſenic, and ſometimes by the acid of kitchen ſalt, &c.

Thus we ſpeak more conformably to nature, and this order may be obſerved in ranging them afterwards, according to the kind of rock, the limits of the mine, the layers of the earth, &c. Now as hitherto, nothing has been written or ſaid of any matter or mineralizing ſubſtance, except ſulphur and arſenic, and as we here give ſome conciſe inſtruction touching a third mineralizing acid, which is kitchen ſalt, it is eaſy to conclude that minerology by this means, gains an increaſe of one third; and that in the ſequel, we may diſcover a number of other minerals of this new diviſion, which are not now known to be ſo, or at leaſt, cannot be ranged in any claſs. By this likewiſe we give the key to an infinity of minerals, about which diſputes have been hitherto maintained, to know if they are true minerals or only crude productions of mountains: we mean, all kinds of volatile minerals, or ſuch as cannot be put in fuſion or ſeparated, and thoſe which appear in veins, as well as others in the mine, but are taken out in form of grains, &c. in which it is agreed that there is gold, ſilver, copper, &c. Theſe are looked upon as unripe, as well as the pyrites found at a diſtance from gold and ſilver, the minerals of talc, &c.

In regard to inſtances of this nature, the reader may remember what has been ſaid above, concerning the mixrure of common ſalt with the phlogiſton, and of the ſea-coal thence formed; and add to this, after the lights with which we are furniſhed by natural hiſtory, that agat is (if I may be allowed the expreſſion) the nobleſt kind of pit-coal; hence we perceive, that the ſame acid may repreſent a mineral either in form of coal, or as a blackſtone that ſhines like ice.

We know, that all theſe obſervations will appear to ſome as ſo many dreams of the imagination, and may be received as ſuch by our ordinary miners: thoſe eſpecially who boaſt of the productions of mountains, as of mineral metals, neither ſay nor prove any thing of their natural ſtate, mineralization, ſeparation, &c. The greateſt part of them, repeat only what they have heard from othet people, and utter what they have been told, without having made any reflections or reſearches of their own: thus a good cauſe is often very illy defended. On the other hand, thoſe who decry the ſame minerals, pretend to have made unſucceſsful trials of them, and think they have a right to diſpute on the ſtrength of their experiments, which are for the moſt part unſkilfully made. But if we would not overthrow all hiſtorical certainty, ſince proofs are to be found even at this day, the places from which the minerals have been taken, the minerals themſelves, and the deſcriptions which ſeveral people have given of them, in the courſe of ſo many ages, which agree perfectly well together, we ought at leaſt to ſuſpend our judgment in this reſpect. We are willing they ſhould compare paſt times to a dream, provided they will endeavour to ſhew that they themſelves are now thoroughly awake.

We ought likewiſe to ſay ſomething of the practical utility of theſe theoretical reſearches. According as minerology is divided, ſo the forges ought to be diſpoſed: we ought carefully to attend to this point, which is of great conſequence for a good theory and ſyſtem in the ſcience. At firſt, people were obliged to divide the forges according to the metals and ſemi-metals, and even according to the ſalt-pits; it is of no conſequence, though ſilver, copper, and lead, be worked in the ſame forge: this they are obliged to do in thoſe places where theſe metals are found together, but where each metal is alone, it is wrought by itſelf, and then there is a natural proceſs of the font for each.

Now, as the minerals of each metal are divided according to their different mineralizing principles, ſo the proceſſes of the font ought to be different, according to the mineralizing principle which is mixed in each. There is a particular kind of font for thoſe minerals which contain ſulphur, and this is what is called working rough or plumb. The arſenical minerals are of this number, but they muſt firſt paſs through the fire, and then they can no longer be properly reckoned among the arſenical minerals. But, a method of fuſion quite diſferent is required for metals, which are entirely arſenical, without any mixture of ſulphur: and a different method of fuſion muſt likewiſe be obſerved with antimonial minerals. Conſequently, a particular method muſt be uſed with minerals that are mineralized by the acid of kitchen ſalt.

We ſhall not expatiate upon this, for it is eaſy to conceive with what eye certain workmen of forges will regard us, if we undertake to introduce what they have never thought of. That, therefore, is not our intention. We ſhall content ourſelves with having ſhewn by example, how much theory might influence practice, and to have explained, in a few words, that by improving the ſcience of mines, the revenues of theſe works might be conſiderably augmented. Some may ſlight theſe ſuggeſtions to their loſs. While in working a mine, every thing remains upon the old footing, and people are ſatisfied with finding from time to time, ſome little new advantage; certain it is, the profit can never become very conſiderable: but, if we could diſcover new kinds of minerals, and invent proper methods for melting and ſeparating them, ſuch diſcoveries would become very important, and furniſh freſh matter for more uſeful ſpeculation. I will not preſume to ſay that we are capable of making ſuch diſcoveries, but think that it would be no difficult matter to attain to ſuch improvement, by a more careful cultivation of the ſcience of ores, minerals, and mining, than that which is at preſent practiſed.

It is with this view, that we endeavour to put the ſentiments of the moſt judicious in their proper light, in order to lay the foundation for ſuch improvement, in form of queſtions and problems: and with ſome reaſon for believing, that theſe principles may be found true by undoubted experience. We leave the ſolution of them to thoſe who are our ſuperiors in point of knowlege. After all, practice alone muſt decide the matter. It is ſhe who confirms all arguments, and rectifies all ſyſtems; and we know nothing poſitively, until it hath been ſanctioned by her. But we ought to acknowlege at the ſame time, that ſhe muſt be preceded by rational theories, which are the lights that conduct her reſearches into the ſecrets of nature. Without their aſſiſtance ſhe gropes along, blindly following a beaten track; and whatever progreſs ſhe makes, muſt be owing to chance, from which ſhe ought to claim no merit.

For what further relates to the whole buſineſs of ores and metals, ſee the following articles, viz. AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, ASSAY, BULLION, COPPER MINES, LEAD, TIN, IRON, MERCURY, SILVER, and GOLD; alſo FLUX, METALS, METALLURGY, MINES, MINING, MINERALS, MINEROLOGY, SMELTING.

ORIENTAL TRADE. Under the article LEVANT TRADE, we have ſhewn, from the principal authentic royal arrets, edicts, and ordonnances, iſſued by authority in France from time to time, from the year 1665 to the year 1749, what meaſures the French have taken for the regulation of the Levant trade of that kingdom; whereby it appears from FACTS, to what cauſes the preſent flouriſhing ſtate and condition of that commerce in France may be attributed, and by what ſteps this rival nation has ſupplanted the Engliſh in this branch of traffic. We have likewiſe under the ſame article, repreſented the genuine regulations of the Dutch, in relation to their Turkey trade. The policy of other nations being fairly laid before us, and compared with our own, we may be enabled to make a right judgment, whether the meaſures taken by our competitors, are preferable or otherwiſe to our own, and wherein our defects may be ſo ſupplied, as, at leaſt, to empower us to carry on this commerce in the Ottoman empire, upon a footing not leſs advantageous than that of other ſtates. And, without our taking theſe things into due conſideration, this kingdom can never be capable of regulating her commerce in any branch to the beſt advantage, or to an advantage equal to that of other countries. People may declaim and controvert to eternity, concerning the neceſſity of this or the other meaſure being requiſite to be taken by the legiſlature, but without having the polity of rival ſtates fairly laid before them, they will be ever liable to be miſled and deceived in matters of the laſt importance to the intereſt of trade. And yet it is to be feared, that as well in the ſolemn deliberation of the great council of the nation, as in our diſputes without doors, theſe matters are, in the general, too little enquired into, notwithſtanding they are the eſſentials whereby to ſteer and direct the public judgment.

As under the article of LEVANT TRADE, we had not room to ſtate our own caſe in regard to this branch of trade, we have referred to the articles ORIENTAL TRADE and TURKEY TRADE, that all facts and materials neceſſary may be exhibited before the public, whereon to bottom their judgment with reſpect to the means requiſite to be taken by this nation. Wherefore,

Here we ſhall give an hiſtorical view of the conduct and proceedings of our own Turkey company.

An HISTORICAL VIEW of the CONDUCT and PROCEEDINGS of the TURKEY COMPANY.

The company trading to the Levant Seas having ſubſiſted, as an excluſive ſociety, one hundred and forty-ſeven years, the moſt impartial and certain method of attaining to a clear-

and perfect knowlege of the advantages, either of continuing the excluſion, or opening the trade, is to take an hiſtorical view of their conduct and proceedings, from their firſt eſtabliſhment to the preſent time. For, though arguments may be controverted, and reaſonings oppoſed, yet plain facts are unanſwerable, and will ſpeak for themſelves: therefore, it was thought proper to lay before the world in this public manner, eſpecially before the honourable members of both houſes of parliament, the true ſtate of the caſe, as drawn from the books of the company themſelves, and from other authentic evidences, for the uſe of the committee of the honourable houſe of commons, in the year 1743-4. This committee was appointed the 16th of February, in conſequence of ſeveral petitions ſent up to parliament, from divers parts of the kingdom, complaining of the great decay of the Engliſh trade to Turkey, and the increaſe of the French on the ruin of ours; and aſcribing both theſe national evils to the monopolizing view of a few individuals, who checked and reſtrained the natural courſe of trade, by means of their excluſive powers.

The company likewiſe preſented a petition in their own behalf, ſetting forth the nature of their charter, their excluſive privileges, manner of trade, and the like: but as theſe things will occur in the courſe of the ſubſequent narration, it will be needleſs to inſert them here. The narration proceeds as follows:

This company now exiſts, by virtue of letters patent granted by king James Iſt, bearing date the 14th day of December, in the third year of his reign, 1606.

And of king Charles the IId, bearing date the 2d of April, in the thirteenth year of his reign, 1661.

King James, by his letters patent, did (among other things) grant to ſeveral perſons therein named, and to their ſons, and ſuch others as ſhould then after be admitted, or made free, that they ſhould be one fellowſhip, and one body corporate and politic, by the name of the Governor and Company of Merchants of England trading to the Levant Seas, and ſhould have perpetual ſucceſſion: and did direct, That all perſons, ſubjects of this realm, being then mere merchants, which then were, or after the date of the ſaid letters patent ſhould happen to be, under the age of 26 years, or not out of his or their apprenticeſhip, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, if he or they ſhould demand the ſame, within one year next after he or they ſhould attain the age of 26 years, or within one year after the end of his or their apprenticeſhip; and ſhould pay to the ſaid governor and company, for his or their admittance, the ſum of 25l. And did further direct, That all perſons ſubjects of this realm of England, being mere merchants, above the age of 26 years, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, upon paying a fine of 50l. And did alſo direct, That all and every the ſons of ſuch as were or ſhould be free of the ſaid company, and alſo all their apprentices employed in that trade, for the ſpace of three years or upwards, within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, ſhould, after the end of their apprenticeſhips, be admitted into the freedom of their ſaid company, on payment of the ſum of 20s. only. Company's books, viz. Letters patent, p. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9.

And, as the petition of the ſaid company ſets forth, ſeveral other privileges were granted by the ſaid letters patent, to the ſaid company.

Amongſt which, all perſons who traded to the ſaid Levant Seas, and were not free of the ſaid company, were obliged to pay to the ſaid company 20 per cent. upon the value of the goods, Page 22.

And they had power, at a general court, of making by-laws, for the good rule and government of the ſaid governor and company, &c. and a power of revoking the ſame, as occaſion ſhould require; which were to be performed and kept, under the pains and penalties therein mentioned, ſo as the ſame were not contrary or repugnant to the laws and ſtatutes of this realm, or derogatory to any treaties or leagues made, or to be made, with any other prince or potentate, nor tending to the hindrance of the trade or traffic of any of the ſaid company, behaving him or themſelves duly and orderly, as becometh good merchants of the ſaid company, without any fraudulent or diſordered attempts or practices. Page 16.

King Charles, by his letters patent, did ratify and confirm the ſaid letters patent of king James; and did further direct, That no perſon reſiding within 20 miles of the city of London, ſhould be admitted into the ſaid company, or have any benefit of the privileges thereof, unleſs he was made free of the ſaid city. Page 36.

Now, under pretence of making by-laws for the good rule and government of the members of this fellowſhip, the ſaid company (or rather the greater part of them) have frequently exerciſed a power of reſtraint upon their own members (tending to the hinderance of trade and traffic), by making orders to lay a broke [penalty] of 20 per cent. upon their goods, if they ſent them to Turkey at any other times, or in any other ſhips, than thoſe appointed by the company, which are called joint or general ſhips; ſo that if any merchant (though a member of the company) had never ſo large a quantity of cloth by him, and the want of cloth in Turkey was never ſo great, he could not ſend it, but at ſuch times, and in ſuch ſhips, as the ſaid company appointed, by reaſon 20 per cent. is equal to a prohibition.

Some remarkable inſtances of which, as well in early as late times, will appear, by copies of orders of general courts, which are hereafter ſtated, as alſo the method in which the trade has, from time to time, been carried on.

There was an order of general court, That no manufactures or commodities of this kingdom ſhould be ſent from hence, or from Leghorn or Meſſina, or any other parts of the Straights, to Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Scio, or Scandaroon, but in joint ſhips appointed by the company, under the penalty of a broke of 20 per cent. upon the value of all ſuch manufactures or commodities, to be levied where any ſuch goods were landed; but foreign commodities, as ſpices, pepper, &c. were excepted, and allowed to be carried in what ſhipping any man pleaſes. In 1625, 6 April (Company's books, page 127.)

It was ordered, according to an order of the laſt court, That no ſhip go from hence for any of the ports of Turkey, before the going of the joint ſhipping, which is appointed to be at Michaelmas next. In 1627, 2 Aug. (Page 172.)

☞ And for that there were then great quantities of cloth to be ſent thither, it was conceived fit, that a reſtraint for a certain time ſhould be made for all other ſhipping, that ſo the markets might not be overcharged with commodities, to the undue valuing thereof in the ſale: it was reſolved, upon the queſtion, by erection of hands, That no ſhip ſhould depart for any of the ports of Turkey, laden with Engliſh commodities (tin excepted), after the departure of the next general ſhipping, without the conſent of the company, at a general court, until Michaelmas come twelve months, under the penalty of a broke of 20 per cent.

And that no private ſhip do go from Leghorn to the Levant with money, &c. to engroſs the commodities, and to prevent the company's market, upon the aboveſaid penalties.

It was the opinion of the court (i. e. the court of aſſiſtants), That, both for the keeping up the price, and maintaining the cloth, and other Engliſh commodities, in good eſteem in Turkey, and ſo advance the ſales thereof there, and the returns at home, &c. the trade to Turkey ſhould be reſtrained to joint ſhipping; and it was ordered (if the next general court ſhould confirm the ſame) That no particular ſhip ſhould be freighted by any member of the company, and no Engliſh commodities laden (tin excepted) to any part in Turkey (Petras excepted), but upon joint ſhips, as the company ſhould at their general court appoint, under the broke of 20 per cent. In 1630, 2 March (page 231.)

This order was confirmed by a general court, 9 March, page 232.

☞ But ſee the effects of theſe reſtraints; for by a letter of the 13th of June 1631, from the conſul at Aleppo, it appears, that there was but a ſmall quantity of cloth in the factors hands at that place; and that it was probable, all would be ſold before any ſupply could get there

This letter being read in a general court, it became their conſideration, Whether they ſhould diſſolve the act of reſtraint, and to give liberty to ſend ſhips to all the parts of Turkey? But they only ordered one general ſhip for Aleppo, to depart from Gravefend before Chriſtmas-day. In 1631, 5 Octob. page 243.

The ſaid order was taken into conſideration, and a further order made to ſend a ſhip to Conſtantinople, to depart by the laſt of March; and it was ordered, that at Chriſtmas come twelve months, That a ſhip ſhall go to Conſtantinople, and another to Aleppo; and ſo conſtantly, from and after that time yearly, unleſs the company ſhould, upon weighty reaſons, think fit to order otherwiſe. 20 Octob. page 244.

The bad effects of theſe reſtraints ſtill continuing;

The court fell into diſcourſe, among other things, of the inconveniencies likely to enſue by the long forbearance of ſending ſhips and goods into the ſeveral parts of Turkey; whereby the French, and other ſtrangers, have the advantage, and take occaſion to ſupply thoſe places with commodities; which will redound to the great prejudice of this company and their trade, if ſome ſpeedy courſe be not thought of for preventing thereof: and hereupon it was moved, That there might be a yearly ſhipping reſolved on; or, in regard there is like to go very great quantities of goods upon the next ſhips, that another ſhipping might be appointed to go away at Michaelmas come twelve months, and yearly from that time, &c. but nothing was then determined, but left to the next general court. In 1633, 9 Jan. page 104.

The proceedings of the general court, among other things of the 9th inſtant, were read, approved, and confirmed. 14 Jan. page 105.

☞ This laſt proceeding of the general court is mentioned to ſhew, That even in theſe early times, when the French

French or other foreigners had little or no ſhare in this trade, the members of the company, who had the public good at heart as well as their own welfare, foreſaw the bad conſequences that would enſue from theſe reſtraints; and would have remedied the ſame, if the private gain of the reſt of their fellowſhip had not overballanced the general good of the trade.

However, from this time to the 10th of May 1649 (ſee the orders 12 Jan. 1635, 17 Febr. 1637, and 27 Octob. 1645) the trade was carried on by general annual ſhipping; and then it was reſolved, That the trade ſhould be open for every member of the company to lade when, and in what ſhips he pleaſed, under ſuch reſtrictions as the company ſhould ſee fitting. 1635, 12 Jan. page 209. 1637, 17 Feb. page 296. 1645, 27 Oct. page 192, 1649, 10 May, page 31.

From this time to the 6th of Auguſt, 1655, it was carried on by general annual ſhips (ſee the orders of the 25th of Auguſt, 7th of December, and 25th of January, 1654) when general ſhips, to depart at ſuch times as the company ſhould appoint, were reſolved on. 1654, 25 Aug. page 216. 7 Dec. page 232. 25th January, page 235. 1655, 6 Aug. page 256.

But this reſtraint was thought too great; and there being two private ſhips laden for Smyrna, it was reſolved, on the 3d of September, 1656, That liberty be given to any of the company to ſhip when he pleaſed. 1656, 3 Sept. page 289.

From this time to the 30th of November, 1660, the trade was carried on by private ſhips; and then it was confined to general ſhips under the uſual penalty of 20 per cent. on all goods, and ſo continued 'till the 4th of October, 1664, when it was reſolved, That the company would adhere to their former order for annual ſhipping. 1660, 30 Nov. page 7. 1663, 11 Sept. page 156. 1664, 4 Oct. page 229.

From this time to 1683, the trade was carried on by annual and general ſhips: and, from 1683 to 1713, ſometimes by private ſhips, and ſometimes by general ſhips.

From the 5th of June, 1713, in the 12th of queen Anne, ſince the concluſion of the then war, to the latter end of the year 1717, the trade was carried on by what is uſually called an open trade; that is, by ſuch ſhips as the reſpective members did appoint to carry away their cloth, and the cloth or ſuch other members as might be pleaſed to load upon them, to depart at ſuch ſeaſons of the year as was found to be moſt convenient, which was uſually in autumn, or by Chriſtmas; and the cloth ſhip, in 1717, departed about that time.

And many members of the company, expecting the trade would continue to be carried on in the ſame manner, went on in buying and finiſhing of cloth, as uſual, for the year 1718:

But, on the 26th of March, 1718, it being under the conſideration of the general court, whether the trade ſhould be carried on by general ſhipping, it was reſolved in the affirmative, and the further conſideration thereof adjourned to another general court to be held on that day month, being the 23d of April next. 1718, 26 March, page 213.

N. B. General ſhips, you will pleaſe to obſerve, by the aforeſaid orders, are always choſen by the company as a body collective, and do depart at ſuch ſeaſons as they think proper to appoint.

The ſaid reſolution was conſidered and confirmed; and it was alſo reſolved, That the ſaid order ſhould not be revoked withot the previous notice of a month given to the members of the company. 1718, 23 April, page 215, and 216.

☞ Then it is recited, 'Whereas the trade from hence 'to Turkey hath been carried on, for ſome years paſt. 'to a very great extent, in cloth and other woollen 'manufactures, and in money, in far greater quantity 'and value than that country hath uſually taken off, 'whereby the markets there are over-ſtocked, and our 'commodities depreciated, and the price of raw ſilk, 'and other returns, very much advanced there, and 'fallen here, to the great detriment of this trade in 'general, and of this company in particular; and to 'the end that a proper time may be given to our factors, 'to diſpoſe of our eſtates in Turkey to advantage, and 'for reducing the prices of goods uſually ſent for returns, it was reſolved, That, if any member of the 'company ſhould import into Turkey from hence, or 'from any part in Chriſtendom, any cloth, or any gold 'or ſilver, in coin or bullion, by other than general 'ſhips, to be appointed by the company, ſhall be liable 'to a broke of 20 per cent. upon the full value thereof, 'to be levied into Turkey.'

Uppn this Sir John Eyles informed the court, 'That he had 'bought up 500 cloths, and deſired that, notwithſtanding 'the reſolutions now agreed on, the company will pleaſe to 'give him leave to ſend the ſame to Turkey: and a motion 'was thereupon made, that the queſtion be put, Whether 'leave be given to ſuch members of this company as have 'provided cloth for Turkey, upon their affirming, upon the 'oath they have taken to the company, That they had 'bought the ſame before they had any intimation of the ſaid 'reſolution? And, a debate ariſing thereupon, the previous 'queſtion was put, Whether the queſtion be now put? and 'it paſſed in the negative: and it was reſolved, That the 'company would, on the 23d of October next, and not before, conſider at what time it may be moſt proper to take 'ſhips into the company's ſervice.'

This order was confirmed. 1718, 30 April, page 217.

The 23d of October elapſes; and, on the 6th of November, 1718, the court was called to conſider what time would be moſt proper to take ſhips into the company's ſervice; and it was reſolved to defer it until ſome time longer. 1718, 6 Nov. page 232.

Then a motion was made to affix the time to which this conſideration ſhould be deferred; and one week, one month, two months, and three months being propoſed, the queſtion was put for each time mentioned; and it was reſolved to be deferred for two months longer.

☞ Upon this further delay, a repreſentation was made to the then miniſtry, who were ſo ſenſible of this extraordinary proceeding, and the prejudice it muſt be to the common good, that Mr Secretary Craggs ſent for the company, and informed them, That he had received ſuch a complaint, and recommended it to the company to come to ſuch reſolutions as would prevent the conſequences which might attend the ſaid complaint, ſhould it come before his Majeſty and his council, or before the parliament.

This matter came under the conſideration of a general court, held on the 4th of December, and they reſolved, That, on the 8th, they would proceed on the election of general ſhips for Turkey. 1718. 4 Dec. page 237.

And, at the ſame time, a committee was appointed to wait on Mr Secretary Craggs, to return him thanks for the reſpect he had ſhewn the company.

Inſtead of appointing ſhips, it was reſolved only to receive propoſals for ſhips; and a committee was appointed to view them, and make a report on Thurſday the 22d. 1718, 8 Jan. page 247.

It was reſolved, That the company would adhere to their order for their driving the trade by general ſhips. 1718, 22 Jan.

Then it was propoſed, That a ſufficient number of ſhips be taken up to carry the cloth, that was then ready, to all parts of Turkey, by the firſt opportunity of convoy to the Mediterranean; and it paſſed in the negative: and it was reſolved That the company would very ſuddenly chuſe general ſhips to all parts of Turkey, to be ready to depart by the 1ſt of July next.

N. B. The 1ſt of July was then generally underſtood to mean winter, as the ſhips uſually had departed at that time, which would have compleated two years prohibition.

This being the caſe, ſeveral members of the company, who had provided large quantities of woollen cloth, and other goods, for Turkey, applied to the houſe of commons; and, on the 24th of January, 1718, a committee was appointed to conſider of the ſtate of the woollen manufacture of this kingdom, and particularly in relation to the exportation of woollen cloth.

This committee ſat, in purſuance of their appointment; and, on the 3d of February, the complainants attended, and delivered to the committee a repreſentation, ſetting forth the then ſtate of that trade, and the inconveniences ariſing from the delay of ſhipping; which is ſigned by P. Delmé, John Lock, Ro. Radcliffe, Edward Radcliffe, James Lock, John Hanger, and Joſeph Eyles, who were ſome of the moſt conſiderable merchants in the Turkey trade at that time; which paper has been in the cuſtody of Mr Kenn ever ſince, who attended the ſaid committee as clerk; no report being made, the complainants being made eaſy by the governing part of the company, at the interceſſion of Mr Secretary Craggs.

This application occaſioned a general court to be held, on the 6th of February; and then it was reſolved, That the trade ſhould be carried on by a general annual ſhipping. 1718, 6 Feb. page 254.

And a general court was held; and, at the deſire of the complainants, two general ſhips were choſen, and appointed for Smyrna and Conſtantinople, to depart from Graveſend the 15th of March, 1715; which makes the prohibition two years and a quarter. 1718, 12 Feb.

The laſt order is recited; and alſo that it was intended, that other general ſhips be in like manner choſen and appointed for Scanderoon, and for Smyrna and Conſtantinople, if deſired by any member of the company to depart the 1ſt of July. 1718, 24 Feb. page 271.

And it was reſolved, That from and after the departure of the aforeſaid general ſhips, no other general ſhips ſhould be appointed until Midſummer, 1720.

It

It is recited, That the trade was carried on to greater advantage by general than by private ſhips, if annually appointed: to the end, therefore, that the ſaid trade may again revive,
It is reſolved, That, for the future, general ſhips ſhall be annually choſen, and the time of their departure to be about Michaelmas:
And that, if the company ſhall not appoint ſuch ſhips, it ſhall be lawful for any member of the company to ſend cloth, or other woollen manufactures, by any ſhip, to depart from Graveſend on or before the laſt day of October; provided ſuch ſhips be not leſs than 200 tons, Britiſh-built, &c.
The ſame orders continued: 1722, 8 June.
And the trade was carried on by annual general ſhips, 'till the 2d of June, 1731, when the choice of general ſhips was ſuſpended for twelve months longer. 1731, 2 June, page 226.
From that time, to the 14th of May, 1734, it was carried on by annual general ſhips; but, on the 25th of October, 1733, it was ordered, that the ſhip ſent out this year to Scanderoon ☞ ſhould not be allowed to bring home any ſilk, or mohair yarn. 1733, 25 Oct. page 219.
And on the ſaid 14th of May, 1734, it was reſolved, That the trade ſhould be carried on by general ſhips. 1734, 14 May, page 7.
And the order of the 21ſt of October, 1724, for the general court to chuſe ſhips, was repealed; as alſo the article for the time of the ſhips departure:
And the 10th article for allowing private ſhips, when no annual general ſhips were appointed:
And it was reſolved, That the company will, at a proper time, agree when they will take up ſhips for the ſervice of the year.
From this time to 1735, the trade has been carried on by general ſhips:
And, from the 17th of June, 1735, to 1743, by general annual ſhips; with a proviſo, that, if the ſeveral ſhips were not provided to depart at the ſtated times, it ſhould be lawful to ſend cloths, or woollen manufactures, by any other ſhips, provided ſuch ſhips be not leſs than 200 tons, Britiſh-built, and to carry 15 men for every 100 tons they are in burden. 1735, 17 June, page 48.

N. B. Theſe are called act ſhips (vide the 14th of king Charles II.)

So that the trade to Turkey, from 1718 to 1743, has been reſtrained to annual general ſhips, to be appointed at ſtated times; or general ſhips, to be appointed when the company ſhould think fit; notwithſtanding the ſtrong reaſons given againſt carrying on the trade under ſuch reſtraints, in the repreſentations delivered to the committee of the houſe of commons in 1718; which repreſentation is as follows:
The complainants do admit, That the company have, time out of mind, carried on their trade to Turkey ſometimes by private ſhips, ſometimes by general ſhips: they deſire only to remind the honourable committee, that, by the whole tenor of thoſe old records by the company produced, it does appear, that they themſelves have frequently thought the delay of ſhipping of ſo dangerous a conſequence, that, if they departed not annually, liberty was then given to each and every member, to export his own goods in ſuch manner, and by ſuch ways, as he ſhould think proper:
And the complainants think it unneceſſary to enter into the conſideration what trade was, or how driven, 50 or 100 years ago, in it's infancy; or whether the Dutch or the French had any or no trade in thoſe days:
They deſire to come to the preſent times; and to conſider in what methods of trade the company have been, ſince the concluſion of the laſt war, and the alterations they have lately made: and it appears to have been carried on by what is uſually called an open trade, that is, by ſuch ſhips as the reſpective members did appoint to carry away their reſpective cloth, and the cloth of ſuch other members as might pleaſe to load upon them, to depart at ſuch ſeaſons of the year as were found to be moſt convenient, which was uſually in autumn, or by Chriſtmas.
Accordingly, the laſt cloth ſhips did depart about that ſeaſon of the year, anno 1717; and many members of the company expecting the trade would continue to be carried on in the ſame manner, went on in buying and finiſhing cloth, as uſual, for the year 1718:
But, on the 26th of March, 1718, the company in a court reſolved (as they themſelves have related it) that their members, for the future, ſhould trade only by general ſhips; which was underſtood to be, by ſhips choſen by themſelves, as a body collective, and to depart at ſuch ſeaſon as they ſhould think proper to appoint:
And, on the 23d of April, 1718, they reſolved, That if any members ſhould, in any other manner, ſend cloth to Turkey they would levy 20 per cent. on ſuch members cloth in Turkey; and added, that they would conſider of general ſhips on the 23d of October following, and not before:
And in their own preamble (as it was here read) they give this remarkable reaſon for their alteration, That it was in order to raiſe the value of Engliſh manufactures abroad, and ſilk at home; hereby evidently demonſtrating their private advantage, that of the nation, doubtleſs, lying more in a large conſume than in a large price, as the one may beat our neighbours out of the trade, whilſt the other muſt neceſſarily give them a ſhare in it. Now, although many members thought all this a great hardſhip, yet did they acquieſce, in full expectation that, at that time, they ſhould be permitted to export their cloth (at leaſt) in the company's own way:
But, on the 6th of November. they reſolved to adjourn the further conſideration of ſhipping for two months longer; and this made that evident, which was before ſuſpected, that they really intended no ſhipping at all:
Whereupon, a repreſentation of this grievance was made to the miniſtry, who became ſo ſenſible of this their extraordinary way of proceeding, and it's ſo highly interfering with the common good, that Mr Secretary Craggs ſent for the company (as they themſelves have obſerved) and deſired them to reconſider this matter:
Which the company did, in a general court on purpoſe aſſembled, on the 4th of December; when they reſolved, that they would chuſe ſhips for the immediate exportation of cloth, on the 8th of January following, and appointed a committee to attend Mr Secretary with this their reſolution:
But, when the 8th of January came, they, by a majority of one vote only, inſtead of chuſing ſhips, ordered a ſurvey of ſhips, and a report to be made on the 22d of January.
When the report was made, on the 22d of January, they then reſolved, That they would, in proper time, chuſe ſhips, but not to depart before the firſt of July next: now that 1ſt of July was then generally underſtood (before this application) to mean winter; and, in that caſe, it would have compleated two years prohibition of trade.
Now this irregular and uncertain proceeding of the company, was the cauſe that your complainants, thought the interpoſition of the honourable houſe of commons, in this caſe moſt proper, in order to their relief, in the exportation of that great quantity of cloth which has been ſo long prevented, to their own, and, as they conceive, to the nation's prejudice:
And they humbly offer the following reaſons for it:
That the company's charter does not warrant them in ſuch a prohibition, or reſtraint of trade; the clauſes particularly relating thereto are ſubmitted to the judgment of this committee, and will be ſpoken to by ſome of them.
Nor will Weſtminſter-Hall (it is conceived) warrant their levying 20 in the 100 upon their members eſtates; ☞ and therefore they always exerciſe this power in Turkey:
Nor can ſuch reſtraint be for the common good of the woollen manufacture of this kingdom, but evidently the contrary, as it neceſſarily encourages the French and Dutch trade to Turkey; and it is ſo adviſed at this very time, and letters are ready to be produced in proof of it:
Nevertheleſs it is granted, that there may be other letters, approving of this reſtraint, and adviſing that there was cloth remaining unſold, and particularly at Aleppo; but there is very good reaſon to believe that it may, by this time, be all ſold; and had moſt of it been long ſince ſold, had there not been an underſtanding between the managers here and there, in order, as the company's preamble ſets forth, to raiſe the price of cloth abroad, and the price of ſilk at home.

☞ This reſtraint may be alſo a great cauſe why ſo much wool, at this time, is ſent to France; becauſe they have a vent to Turkey, and we have none.

And the hindering the exportation of woollen goods to Turkey at this critical conjuncture, when none can go either to Old or New Spain, may deſerve conſideration.
And the complainants do hope, that it will be found by this committee, that ſuch members of the company as are willing to trade, ought to trade, and have a right to trade, even by the charter itſelf.
It has been objected, That the trade has been over-driven; and be it ſo: will not that, in the nature of the thing, reduce the exportation as far as may be needful, without a forcible reſtraint? And doth it not appear very odd, that a majority of the company, ſome of whom are unconcerned in the trade, and others but little, ſhould have more regard to the welfare of their largeſt trading members than they have for themſelves?
Our legiſlature never thought the over-driving the trade to Portugal, Spain, or Italy, a ſufficient reaſon to intruſt thoſe traders with a power of reſtraining it at their pleaſure.
It muſt be allowed, that the preſent ſituation of affairs has made great alterations in almoſt every thing.
Low intereſt raiſes land, enlarges trade, and reduces profit: but this is the evil; and, therefore, the remedy propoſed by theſe reſtraints ſteps in, viz. that cloth may be bought the cheaper at home, and ſell the dearer abroad:
That ſilk may be bought the cheaper abroad, and ſell the dearer at home.
But, all this while, the French and Dutch are encouraged to ſupply the woollen trade abroad; and to ſupply (in a larger degree) the ſilk manufactures at home:
And our own manufacturers, in the mean time, both in wool

and ſilk, ſo far deprived of their employments.—But ſhould the merchant loſe, yet the nation muſt gain.

It has been further objected, That, by a delay, more cloth will be exported; and ſo, probably, there may, ſhould the ſhips be yet detained twelve months longer.—But then the company ſhould take care to prohibit the French and Dutch, and the Turks too, who, at this very time, are carrying on a cloth manufacture of their own:

But there can be no doubt but the ſpeedy ſending abroad what is now provided, will be a greater encouragement to the buying more cloth than the detaining it can be; in that moſt of this muſt be ſold before another ſupply can follow it.

But were it otherwiſe, it is preſumed that thoſe who induſtriouſly have laid out their eſtates in cloth, ought not to be detained for the ſake of thoſe who have neglected it; and it is believed, it may be granted, that the complainants are as likely to buy more cloth as any other members whatever.

Although the company have frequently practiſed this way of trading by general ſhips, yet it has occaſioned frequent miſunderſtandings between the members themſelves, and alſo the manufacturers. Two inſtances hereof may be offered, one, upon a like occaſion with this: ſome members made application to king Charles in council; the company were heard, and pretended many difficulties: the king himſelf aſked the queſtion, Whether there might be any members that, notwithſtanding, were willing to trade? It was anſwered, There might: Then, ſaid the king, they ſhall; and ordered trade to be opened.

The other was a complaint of the manufacturers to the houſe of commons, upon a delay of ſhipping; when an annual ſhipping for Turkey, in ſummer for Aleppo, in winter for Smyrna and Conſtantinople, had probably been enacted, had not the company, by large promiſes of doing the thing, prevented it.

Now whether this pretended power to ſtop trade be warrantable, or whether it has been exerciſed for the common good, is humbly ſubmitted to this honourable committee.

P. DELME,
JOHN LOCK,
RO. RADCLIFFE,
EDWARD RADCLIFFE,
JAMES LOCK,
JOHN HANGER,
JOSEPH EYLES.

The CASE of the GOVERNOR and COMPANY of MERCHANTS of ENGLAND trading to the LEVANT SEAS, as laid before the PARLIAMENT by the TURKEY COMPANY, in the year 1743, in order to prevent the trade being laid abſolutely open, as was then aimed at.

If the Levant company ſaw reaſon to hope the bill, as now framed, which is depending, could anſwer the ends propoſed, of inlarging as well as regulating the Trade to Turkey, they ſhould think themſelves guilty of breaking the truſt repoſed in them, if they did not uſe their beſt endeavours to further it's being paſſed into a law: but they owe to the public the ſetting their charter in a true light, and the bearing teſtimony againſt attempts, how ſpecious ſoever, which threaten the nation with the loſs of the remains of this valuable trade.

The charter cannot be ſaid to eſtabliſh a monopoly, or excluſive trade: the company is already open to all manner of perſons not below the degree of mere merchants: it is expreſsly declared, That the trade ſhall not be confined to one port; and it is certain that none of the petitioners for the bill ever applied for their freedom of the company and were refuſed: all merchants, of what place or port ſoever, have a right to be admitted to their freedom, every perſon above 26 years of age paying a fine (for the uſe of the company) of 50 l. and every one under that age, 25 l. all ſons and apprentices of freemen are admitted upon paying 20 s. only.

There is, indeed, a condition required by a ſecond charter of king Charles II, of thoſe merchants dwelling in London, or within 20 miles of it, that they ſhall be free of the city: but this extends to them only, and does not, nor can be pretended, to affect perſons dwelling at a greater diſtance.

The fine taken upon admiſſion, with regard to the company, is not worth mentioning, further than obſerving, that the ſum cannot be deemed onerous to any one in a condition of engaging in a trade, which from it's diſtance, and other circumſtances, is of a very tedious circulation, and requires a large ſtock: it is ſmall with regard to the ſhare it admits to of the fruits of paſt very great expences, and is rather an advance made to the company than a fine; for, as it goes to the public ſtock, he who pays this fine, or advance, has his ſhare of it, by a proportionable leſs duty levied on his trade, and alſo of all other fines levied after his admiſſion.

The limitation to mere merchants is expreſſed, by the charter, to be for preventing the diſorders and inconveniences which had then been found by experience, and muſt ariſe from the too great reſort of low mean people, to places where the cuſtoms and laws are ſo intirely different from their own; where they muſt themſelves be expoſed to a variety of hazards and dangers, and by any fraudulent attempts, or even by their irregularities and follies, may offend the Grand Signior, and involve themſelves and others in troubles and dangers. When irregularities happen, if they are carried before a magiſtrate, expence muſt be the inevitable conſequence; and, no doubt, theſe irregularities would multiply upon a greater reſort of low people: and particular inſtances have fallen out, with regard to every nation eſtabliſhed in the Levant, where the lives and eſtates of the ſubjects of each nation, then reſident in Turkey, have been in danger, from the abſurdity or villainy of one man.

The quarrel between Sir Kenelm Digby and the Venetian admiral, in the bay of Scanderoon, coſt the Turkey company above 20,000 l. A diſpute with Sir Sackville Crew coſt above 80,000 l. A pretence that a quantity of pieces of eight were not of the true alloy, coſt 7 or 8000 l. A detention of the capitulations by a vizir, and other little diſputes about the ſame time, coſt as much: the roguery of a captain, who had taken a freight at Alexandria, coſt the Engliſh at Cairo a great deal of money, and had like to have occaſioned the murder of them all: and the indiſcretion of a young man, under Dutch protection at Aleppo, within theſe few years, cauſed an inſurrection in that city, which threatened the lives and eſtates of all the foreigners there: and, laſtly, the company have been obliged to pay the Turks, as an indemnification for captures made on them by Britiſh privateers, during the laſt war, no leſs a ſum than 12,000 l. Theſe are a very few of the many inſtances that are to be met with.

The trade to Turkey is carried on under the protection of the capitulations, or treaty of friendſhip and commerce between his Majeſty and the Sultan; which was procured, and has been ſince upheld and renewed, at great expences to the company.—By this treaty, the Britiſh ſubjects are put upon a much better foot, in point of trade, than even any of the Sultan's own ſubjects, by paying leſs cuſtoms, as well as in other reſpects.—Theſe exemptions muſt, no doubt, give uneaſineſs to the farmers of the cuſtoms, and the Sultan's ſubjects that are traders; ſo that it requires a very even and ſteady conduct to avoid giving occaſions of offence, which ſeldom eſcape animadverſion; and often ſlight ones are taken, or feigned ones urged, to extort money; and the greateſt care is taken by the company to ſupport the credit of this nation through the Grand Signior's dominions, by the moſt exact punctuality in all their dealings with the people of the country; and, more particularly, they have always guarded, in the moſt effectual manner, againſt all attempts to run cuſtoms, or to cover ſubjects or other ſtrangers goods: but if room is left for every one to become adventurers in this trade, to carry it on as they themſelves ſhall pleaſe, bad and perverſe people, free of all reſtraint, will break in upon all order, endanger the quiet and ſecurity of every body, and every thing, and endanger the total loſs of this ſtill valuable branch of the Britiſh commerce.

As the company ſtands at preſent, it cannot be properly called any thing more than a body eſtabliſhed for the well and orderly management of the trade into the Levant, and providing for the ſupport of the neceſſary expences attending it; which are, the maintenance of the king's ambaſſador at the Porte, the conſuls, and other neceſſary officers and ſervants, at the places of trade, and the obtaining and ſupporting the capitulations granted by the Porte at different times to the king's ſubjects; [ſee LEVANT TRADE] and the company have, at great expence, obtained very valuable privileges for the king's ſubjects from the Ottoman emperors, and hitherto ſupported them through many ſtruggles.—They have eſtabliſhed proper ſettlements for the management of their affairs; they have, for many years, carried on a conſiderable trade, greatly advantageous to the nation, in exporting it's manufactures and produce, and importing unmanufactured goods, though often under difficulties and diſcouragements to themſelves; and have at this time great dependencies abroad.

If it be true, as the petitioners for the bill ſet forth, that the trade of this company is decayed, it is an unwarrantable concluſion that the management under the preſent charter is the cauſe of it: but ſtill the Turkey company is ready to own, and deſirous it ſhould be known, that their trade is leſſened, and under difficulties, and the French trade increaſed; and they have made heretofore proper repreſentations of it, but the remedy is far out of the reach of any thing attempted by this bill, as the laying the trade between England and Turkey more open will not be the means to increaſe it, but probably quite the reverſe; which may be fairly inferred from the caſe of our neighbours the Dutch, where the trade to Turkey is open and free, and yet very inconſiderable, ſcarce any at all: and that the French trade does not owe it's increaſe to it's being more open or more free than the Engliſh, is plain from it's being under much more ſtrict regulations: [ſee LEVANT TRADE] a chamber of commerce has the ſuperintendency of this branch of commerce in France.—The cloth is exported only from one port there, viz. Marſeilles: no Frenchman goes to Turkey but with a licence; nor is permitted by the French government to ſettle in Turkey, without firſt giving ſecurity in France for his good behaviour in the Grand Signior's dominions: The number of houſes for the ſale of their cloth in Turkey is limited; the prices of their cloths are fixed in France, from

which they cannot depart ; and they are not at liberty to underſel one another in Turkey ; and when one houſe has ſold it's quantity allotted, that houſe can ſell no more 'till the other houſes have ſold theirs : ſo ſtrict are their regulations.

The French cloth-trade has gained ground by the encouragement and aſſiſtance it receives from the public : that manufacture was eſtabliſhed in Languedoc, by Mr Colbert, on purpoſe for the Turkey trade ; and at ſo vaſt an expence, that he expoſed himſelf to great cenſure by that meaſure, though the event has ſhewn the wiſdom of his views. Theſe cloths are chiefly made of Spaniſh wool : there is a premium allowed by the public on every piece of this cloth ; and, beſides, there are ſeveral eſtabliſhments (which are called royal manufactures) made at the expence of the public, or the province where there are conveniences for making a piece of cloth from the wool, to it's being packed to put aboard the ſhip ; and a clothier is put into one of thoſe rent-free, on the ſole condition of making a certain number of pieces of this cloth in a year. This is the moſt viſible reaſon why they can ſell cloth, made of thoſe fine materials, at a lower rate than we can ſell our cloth ; and however the French cloth may want the ſubſtance of ours, it has a preferable appearance, takes a beautiful colour, and is lighter than ours, and ſerves ſeveral of their purpoſes ; and though many repeated attempts have been made to imitate it in England, they have proved ineffectual. See the article MANUFACTURERS.

The next principal article of the Turkey trade, and the great branch of returns from thence, is ſilk : one half of that commodity uſed to come from Perſia through Turkey ; but the continual wars that have raged in Perſia, for many years paſt, have cut off all ſupplies of ſilk from thence ; and if things ſhould return to their former quiet ſtate in Perſia, and the ſilk provinces to the flouriſhing condition they were once in, it is uncertain whether this branch of trade would return to the Levant company, ſince it has been thought expedient to open another channel for it ; and the returns of ſilk from the Levant are, at this time, confined to the raw ſilk of the produce of Turkey, of which the company buy almoſt the whole that comes to market in Turkey for exportation ; and that the company purchaſe with Engliſh cloth, and other products, bartered in exchange : and if they were to ſend money (which they many years ago made a by-law to prohibit, out of a regard to the public good) they would not get more ſilk, would ſell little or no cloth, and the French would get that money in exchange for their cloth.

As to mohair-yarn, which is another conſiderable article of return, the company buy conſtantly as much as hath always been a full ſupply for this market ; and there is a conſiderable decreaſe (ariſing from the alteration of faſhions) in the conſumption of that commodity at home : and, to ſhew the company's readineſs of embracing every opportunity that offers of increaſing their trade, they have, in the article of cottons, which they found a demand for in England, and a ſupply in Turkey, increaſed their imports of that commodity from 400 bales to 5,000, within theſe few years ; which may ſerve to compenſate for ſome of the articles their trade is decreaſed in.

The latitude given by the bill, in exporting and importing, renders impracticable the reſtraints that may be neceſſary to obviate dangers of infection ; and the liberty given to import goods to all manner of perſons in the Levant, is putting all ſorts of ſtrangers upon the ſame foot as natural-born ſubjects ; and is, at leaſt, giving away the advantage of commiſſion : it alſo may raiſe dangerous diſputes about capitulations, and endanger the loſs of them.—Nay, by this latitude, the French factors may find means to ſend hither goods bought abroad with their manufactures.

But if the wiſdom of the legiſlature ſhall think fit to attempt the enlarging or retrieving the Levant trade, ſome more probable methods may be found out, and not liable to the ſame objections with thoſe in this bill ; ſuch as a proper encouragement, in whatever ſhape may be thought fit, for making ſuch ſorts of cloth as the French ſend ; or the aſſiſting the company in the burden of their expences, which run high upon the trade, as the ſame, or a greater ſum, is to be raiſed upon the remains of it, than when it was in it's moſt flouriſhing condition : but as to the means propoſed by the bill, ſome of them could not have any effect at all, and others may have very fatal conſequences. All which is humbly ſubmitted to the conſideration of the legiſlature.

An abſtract of what has been argumentatively urged, in oppoſition to the Turkey company, in order to lay that branch of trade quite open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, by a very ingenious gentleman *.

* Reflections on the Expediency of opening the Trade to Turkey, &c. Printed for T. Trye, near Gray's-Inn Gate, in Holborn, London, 1753.

I. All the powers in Europe are endeavouring to extend their commerce ; and if Great-Britain cannot extend her's in proportion, ſhe will be no longer able to preſerve that figure ſhe has hitherto preſerved †.

† This is a true maxim, but that laying the Turkey trade abſolutely open, is a meaſure conducive to that end, has been denied by many, and particularly by another very judicious gentleman, Mr. Hanway, in his travels, and his anſwer to the appendix of a pamphlet, entitled Reflections upon Naturalizations, Corporations, and Companies, &c. as this ſubject is occaſionally mentioned in Hanway's travels.—By the author of theſe travels. Printed for Dodſley and Millar.

II. Many of theſe countries, Spain in particular, which uſed to admit great quantities of Engliſh merchandize, are now ſetting up manufactures of their own, and laying burdens on ours, to prevent their introduction : ſo that it is become more expedient than ever, to ſeek out as many new markets as we can *.

* That this is matter of fact, is ſhewn throughout divers parts of our dictionary. See the articles BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN, SPAIN, SPANISH-AMERICA.

The Turkey company are not able, were they willing, to ſell the Engliſh manufactures ſo cheap as they might be rendered by a free trade : For,

(1). If no ſhips are allowed to be employed, but the general ſhips of the company appointed by the managers, a private member has no choice, but muſt ſubmit to all the expences and diſcouragements which the managers will lay upon him.

(2). The carriage of the goods up to London, the gains of factors, warehouſe-keepers, &c. are taxes heavy enough on the manufacture, to turn the ballance in favour of the French.

(3). The expence of package, porterage, hallage, loading and unloading, &c. are more exorbitant in London, than in any part of the kingdom.

(4). The dearneſs of victualling and manning of ſhips in the port of London, is another material article ; whereas many ports are not only cheaper, but more commodiouſly ſituated, as being nearer the places where the goods are manufactured.

IV. The gains of an excluſive company can never coincide with the welfare of the public ; inaſmuch as monopoliſts, eſtabliſhed by law, are thereby ſecured from rivals; ſo that their particular intereſt conſiſts in ſelling as dear as they can : whereas the intereſt of private adventurers is to ſell as cheap as poſſible, in order to get cuſtom by rivaling each other. Thus the public is benefited by emulation, as it promotes the circulation of labour and univerſal plenty ; but is hurt by monopoliſts, who are a check to induſtry, to the circulation of labour at home, and it's exportation abroad; and whoſe only view is to ſacrifice the general intereſt to that of a few.

V. The Turkey company is a monopoly in every ſenſe, as no private member is allowed to fit out a ſhip when he pleaſes, to export and import what quantities of goods he would chuſe.—As the trade is confined to the expenſive part of London.—As the freedom of the company is limited to merchants by profeſſion, and has been obſtructed under frivolous pretence.—As the members themſelves are fettered with by-laws.

VI. This excluſive ſociety not only exports a much leſs quantity of Engliſh labour than would be, were the Engliſh trade free, but alſo imports the leſs of raw materials, ſo neceſſary for ſeveral manufactures, and the employment of the poor.—That important article, raw ſilk in particular, which ſhould always be brought to market at the loweſt price poſſible, has by monopolies, been raiſed ſo high, as greatly to injure the ſilk manufacture. And this ariſes from two cauſes :

(1). The Turks will deal with thoſe that ſupply them with goods on the cheapeſt terms ; conſequently not with the Engliſh ; and ſell to thoſe, who give the higheſt price, [i. e. the greateſt quantity of labour in exchange] which an excluſive ſociety will not do : therefore our Engliſh company neither will, nor can make great returns in Turkiſh goods.

(2). After the goods are brought to England, the company keep up the price of their ſales as high as poſſible, in order to get immenſe profits on ſmall imports. And this they do with ſafety, becauſe there are none to rival them.

VII. Our woollen manufacturers are ready to make it appear, from the ſpecimens they have ſeen of the cloth of Languedoc deſigned for the Levant, that they are able to out-rival the French, provided this commerce has a free courſe, and every adventurer is permitted to ſhip off from what port he pleaſes.

VIII. Were ſuch liberty obtained, they have reaſon to conclude, that they could render their goods ſtill cheaper.

(1). Becauſe thoſe drugs for dyeing, which now paſs through the hands of a company, would be ſold at a more reaſonable rate.

(2). Becauſe the oils and aſhes for making Caſtille ſoap could be purchaſed on ſuch advantageous terms, as would induce the Engliſh to ſet up that branch of manufacture : which ſoap is made at preſent chiefly at Marſeilles, thence ſent to Leghorn, and from Leghorn imported into England ; by which means the Engliſh manufacturer is burdened with an heavy

heavy additional expence.—Nor is this the only evil; for our colonies in America are now wholly fupplied with French foap from Martinico, and the other iflands belonging to that crown, and even from France itfelf (the prefent Engliſh ſoap made of tallow not being fit for their climates): by which means ſeveral other ſpecies of French manufactures are introduced into our ſugar iſlands and northern colonies, to the great detriment of the commerce, revenue, and navigation of Great-Britain: But,

(3.) Another reaſon why the woollen cloths, deſigned for the Levant, might be vended cheaper, is, becauſe a conſiderable ſaving is to be made in the expence of dyeing. For were this trade to have a free courſe, the manufacturer might dye his own cloth at ſuch a ſeaſon as would not interfere with his other buſineſs, and contrive every thing to the beſt advantage: whereas, at preſent, the cloth is ſent up white to London, and dyed there in haſte, and at an exorbitant charge, both as living and wages are dearer, and as thoſe journeymen, who have not conſtant buſineſs, muſt have the higher wages while they are employed.

IX. All other parts of a cargo for the Turkiſh dominions, as well as woollens, might be rendered much cheaper, as the expence of carriage, ſhipping, &c. would be conſiderably leſs.—Moreover, there is the ſtrongeſt probability, that great demands would ariſe from the manufactures of iron, ſteel, braſs, and copper, for cutlery and Birmingham ware; for the produce of the looms of Mancheſter, Coventry, and Norwich; for printed linens, paper-hangings, and ſuch kinds of ornaments; as moſt of theſe articles might be exported from ſeveral places, at leſs charges than from London.—And as the Engliſh are known to excel other nations, both in fabric and cheapneſs: ſo that, were the trade free, the port of Marſeilles would labour under ſuch difficulties from thoſe circumſtances, as the advantage of it's ſituation could by no means compenſate.

X. Add to this, that the freight, and inſurance, and navigation of ſhips are much dearer, in proportion, at Marſeilles, than in England. The intereſt of money is alſo 6 per cent. and the price of tin and lead, and ſhot, muſt neceſſarily be much higher, ſo that the prodigious increaſe of their Levant trade, cannot poſſibly be aſcribed to any other cauſe, than to the monopolies and excluſions of the Engliſh againſt their own countrymen, in favour of the French. And therefore it ſhould be duly conſidered by every true patriot, and lover of his country, that the chief competition, in this ſtruggle for the liberty of commerce, is not between one Engliſh merchant and another,—but between Great-Britain and France.

XI. Were the trade laid open, the Turks, Greeks, and all the nations of thoſe vaſt territories would find a greater demand for their reſpective commodoties, and then they could afford to buy greater quantities of ours:—whereas, at preſent, they neither are able to purchaſe much, nor, if they were, are they inclined to do it, on account of the exceſſive dearneſs of the Engliſh merchandize.

XII. An increaſe of the exportation of our own manufactures muſt create an increaſe in the excife, and all inland duties; for the government is infallibly a gainer by every ſcheme that finds employment for the people, encourages labour, and promotes wealth, as theſe things neceſſarily occaſion the greater conſumption of all commodities that pay duties:—on the other hand, an increaſe of the importation of ſuch foreign materials, as excite the induſtry of the natives, is doubly advantageous, both by the cuſtoms they pay at firſt landing, and the hands they employ afterwards. Therefore, the increaſe of ſuch a trade is deſirable in every light, both to the government, and to the people.

XIII. If any of the merchants, belonging to the out-ports, ſhould happen to bring in ſuch raw materials as are not wanted on the ſpot, the advantages they receive in other reſpects would enable them to pay the expence of carriage to a proper market. And, indeed, the carriage of raw ſilk, camels hair, cotton, wool, &c. from Briſtol to Coventry, from Liverpool to Mancheſter and Derby, from Yarmouth to Norwich, &c. would not be ſo dear, as it is now from London to thoſe places. Beſides, it is natural to ſuppoſe, that as the trade increaſed, other towns in the north and weſt, and middle of England, and in Scotland alſo, would ſet up manufactures. So that every part of the united kingdom ought to conſider itſelf as intereſted in opening this monopoly.

XIV. Whatever regulations are judged neceſſary, under the inſpection of proper perſons, either at home or abroad, for the good government of a free trade, or the preſervation of health, and ſecurity from the plague, they will be gladly received, and thankfully ſubmitted to. And an open trade might be very eaſily put under much ſtricter examinations, not only as to the goodneſs of the manufactures exported, but alſo in relation to bills of health, and performing quarantine, [ſee QUARANTINE] than what the company have been ſubject to for many years paſt.—Though a plague in London would have been much more fatal, than in any other part of the kingdom.

XV. Were the trade to Spain or Portugal now in the hands of a company, and an attempt made to render it free, great pains would be taken, as there are now in the preſent caſe, to ſet forth the danger of permitting ſhopkeepers and low tradeſmen to go over to Spain or Portugal.

'They will raiſe the jealouſy of the populace, by interfering with their trades,—or inflame the zeal of bigots againſt countenancing hereticks:—low and indiſcreet people will import prohibited books, and ſo draw down the power and vengeance of the Inquiſition,—will give offence, by their behaviour, while the hoſt is paſſing by,—perhaps ridicule ſome of their religious proceſſions, and ſo cauſe tumults and inſurrections:—or, in general, they will not fail to excite an univerſal odium, by the diverſity of their dreſs and cuſtoms, and great licentiouſneſs of manners.—Therefore, by attempting to throw the trade open, we ſhall infallibly loſe it all.'

Thus it appears, that objections much more plauſible might be raiſed againſt opening the trade to Spain and Portugal, were it now in the hands of a company, than againſt the revocation of any excluſive grant now ſubſiſting. But, indeed, we muſt conſider all theſe kinds of objections as the mere dialect of monopoliſts, who uſe it, mutatis mutandis, againſt opening any trade, in order to carry their own private intereſt, under an appearance of public good.

But common ſenſe and daily experience are continually expoſing the falſity of ſuch ſuggeſtions. And were the trade opened to Turkey, there is no degrees of probability, that ſhopkeepers and low people would be fond of going there:—and if they did go, they certainly would agree with the natives, as well as the Engliſh failors do now.

XVI. If the trade to Turkey had a free courſe, what reaſon is there to imagine, that it would be engroſſed by the Jews? And why muſt it be ſuppoſed, that the Engliſh in particular would ſuffer in this reſpect, more than the French, Dutch, or Italians? Beſides, as the Jews might inſiſt upon the freedom of the company, as well as others, provided they are merchants by profeſſion; and as they reſide chiefly in London, and are a rich united body of merchants, this very objection might be urged with greater force againſt the confining ſuch a trade to a company, than againſt laying it open;—eſpecially as the Engliſh Jews, by means of their connection with their brethren in Turkey, who are the only brokers in that country, might be the better able to form a combination to ingroſs the whole trade themſelves, and execute it with ſucceſs. But, in fact, this objection betrays it's own weakneſs, and would never have been brought, if a ſtronger could be found; and it is the firſt time that the Jews were accuſed of being injurious to the intereſts of a trading nation.

XVII. It is equally incredible, that the government and people of Turkey ſhould be diſpleaſed at the diſſolution of the preſent monopoly. And what grounds are there for ſuch a ſuppoſition? For, in an open trade, Engliſh manufactures would be imported in greater quantity and variety, and on cheaper terms,—more Turkiſh goods be taken in barter, and a larger revenue would ariſe to the government. But, in a confined trade, fewer manufactures are imported, more exorbitant in price, demanding fewer goods in exchange, and paying leſs to the cuſtoms. And can we imagine, that the Turks would once heſitate, to which ſide the preference is due? Or have we ever found, that any of thoſe other nations, to whom we once traded by excluſive companies, have complained at the diſſolution of theſe deſtructive monopolies, and deſired their reſtoration?

To confirm this, we have a remarkable ſpeech recorded in Camden's Annals of one of the Czars of Muſcovy, when that country was thought to be over-ſpread with ignorance and barbariſm; which is mentioned by the reverend and ingenious Mr Smith, in his Memoirs of Wool, vol. i. p. 114, viz.

Theodore Joannides ſucceeding to the empire, granted to all merchants, of what nation ſoever, free acceſs into Ruſſia. And being oftentimes ſolicited by the queen [Elizabeth] to confirm the privileges granted by his father to the Muſcovy company of Engliſh merchants, to wit, that only Engliſhmen of that company ſhould come into, or trade into the north parts of Ruſſia, and that cuſtom free, in regard they were the firſt that diſcovered the paſſage thither by ſea: he thereupon deſired her to give liberty to all the Engliſh to trade into Ruſſia; for, to permit ſome, and deny others, was an injuſtice. Princes, ſays he, muſt carry an indifferent hand between their ſubjects, and not convert trade (which by the law of nations ought to be common to all) into a monopoly, to the private gain of a few. As for his cuſtoms, he promiſed to exact leſs by one half of that company than the reſt, becauſe they firſt diſcovered the paſſage thither by ſea. In other matters he confirmed their former privileges, and added ſome few more, out of his reſpect to the queen, and not for any deſert, as he ſaid, of the company, many of whom he found had dealt falſly with his ſubjects.

XVIII. But when an excluſive grant is once obtained, it muſt be defended by ſome kind of arguments, however weak and inconcluſive. Now the Turkey company was firſt erected, and afterwards eſtabliſhed in ſuch times, when the principles

of

of trade, and the nature of the landed and commercial intereſts of a kingdom were not underſtood;—or, if underſtood, not ſufficiently regarded:—in ſuch times when monopolies and excluſions carried all before them. Of the truth of which aſſertion, we need only conſult Rymer's Fœdera, and the common hiſtorians for the reigns of queen Elizabeth, king James I. and king Charles I. to find ſufficient evidence; many of which monopolies were again renewed by king Charles II. — And, at the time of the Revolution, were grown too powerful to be attacked with ſafety.

For, as to foreign trade, there was an excluſive company to Hamburgh and the Baltic,—to Muſcovy and Greenland,—to Germany and Flanders,—to France,—to Spain, and Portugal,—to Italy,—and to Africa.

Special licences were alſo to be purchaſed for the importation, or ſale of madder, logwood, deal-boards, wine, and tobacco:—likewiſe, for the exportation of corn, leather, and butter.

And, 2dly, As to our domeſtic commerce, there were pre-exemptions, or monopolies for tin, ſalt, and coals: excluſive patents for ſea-weed, kelp, and glaſs,—ſalt-petre and gunpowder, — ſoap and ſtarch, — gold and ſilver lace, — beaver hats, and demi-caſtors,—dyeing and dreſſing of cloth,—making of allum,—and even for gathering of rags.

Special licences were alſo neceſſary to be obtained for making iron, and cutting down wood for charcoal,—making of butter caſks,—uſing of wine caſks for ale and beer;—alſo for making of malt,—and brewing of ale for public vent.

Moreover, the gardeners, for ſix miles round London, were incorporated into an excluſive company, as were alſo the traders and artificers within the diſtrict of three miles.

Now all monopolies and excluſions (and many more might be enumerated) ſet out with pompous titles, and great profeſſions of zeal for the public welfare. They were all eſtabliſhed, either for the increaſe and good government of trade, —or to keep up the credit of the Engliſh manufactures in foreign markets,—or for preventing the ignorant and unwary from being impoſed upon at home. —But the true reaſon of their eſtabliſhment remains yet to be told, viz. JOBB and MONOPOLY.

This was the æra in which the Turkey company had it's birth and education. And all the others, while in being, had juſt the ſame pretentions of public good to alledge in their favour: but time has ſhewn, that we are much happier without them.

XIX. As London is the capital of the Britiſh empire, and the centre of the body politic, every acceſſion of wealth, trade, manufacture, navigation, and numbers of inhabitants, to other parts of the kingdom, muſt redound to the advantage of the metropolis. For the centre in the body politic, is like the heart in the natural body, which receives benefit itſelf, by the briſk and regular circulation of blood in the extremeties. But if any one ſhould doubt of this parallel, let experience and matter of fact determine. For when almoſt the whole trade of the kingdom was circumſcribed by excluſive grants, and thoſe monopolies confined to the ſingle city and port of London, this city made a very mean and inconſiderable appearance, to what it doth at preſent: but, in proportion, as the inland countries, and the out-ports began to ſhake off ſome of their fetters, and extend their commerce; in the ſame proportion did the metropolis increaſe in wealth and grandeur, number of inhabitants, and extent of buildings. In ſhort, if there was an acceſſion of wealth to the fartheſt iſles of Scotland, it would, ſooner or later, find it's way to London. [See our article MIDDLESEX.]

XX. Upon the whole, therefore, the continuation of this excluſive company, is no other in effect, than the payment of a very large tribute annually to France;—together with this mortifying reflection, that this is a tribute we are not forced to pay, but do it voluntarily; though we know, that ſome of her beſt provinces are ſupported by it, ſome hundreds of ſhips employed in the navigation, and the government enabled to turn the wealth and ſtrength, acquired by our indolence and miſmanagement, to our own deſtruction.

XXI. The landed gentlemen, in their reſpective counties, are more particularly concerned to exert themſelves on this intereſting occaſion; becauſe of the rents of lands and houſes will be higher, and the demand for the produce of eſtates, corn, wool, ſheep, cattle, butter, cheeſe, wood, coal, &c. &c. will be greater, in proportion as the inhabitants of any country do increaſe in numbers, riches, and manufactures. The poor alſo would be leſs numerous, as there is more employment, the weight of taxes will be lighter, when more perſons ſhare in the burthen,—and the tenants, by having better markets, will be better able to pay their rents: but theſe advantages cannot be obtained, while the preſent difficulties, which prevent induſtry, and ſtop the circulation of labour, are ſuffered to remain.—☞ In one word, all monopolies are ſo many combinations againſt the landed intereſt. And the more violently they are contended for, the more clearly may the gentlemen of landed property diſcern, whoſe intereſt is promoted, and whoſe is ſacrificed.

The principal points to be proved at the bar of both houſes, are the following:

1. That the Engliſh manufacturers can rival the French Turkey cloth.
2. That the port of London is the deareſt in the kingdom, both for exporting and importing of goods.
3. That not only woollens, but almoſt all other parts of a cargo to the Levant, can be purchaſed on cheaper terms in England, than at Marſeilles.
4. That freight and inſurance are very high at Marſeilles, as is alſo the intereſt of money.
5. That the excluſive powers of the Turkey company, by reſtraining and leſſening the exports of Engliſh manufactures, leſſen the labour, and of courſe, the wealth, power, and navigation of Great-Britain.—And, by leſſening the imports of foreign raw materials, greatly obſtruct the manufactures of thoſe materials.

REMARKS.

This is the ſubſtance of what has been urged to lay the Turkey trade abſolutely open.—But what may be ſaid, on the other ſide of the queſtion, we have not room to conſider here; we ſhall defer that to the article TURKEY TRADE, where we ſhall alſo conſider the late act of parliament, made in relation to this commerce, and conclude the ſubject, from an impartial review of what has been repreſented, as well under the article LEVANT TRADE, and this, as what ſhall be further ſaid under the article TURKEY TRADE.

And, in relation to the EAST-INDIA trade in general, as alſo our EAST-INDIA COMPANY in particular, ſee the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, and EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY. But as it is rumoured, that people of weight and diſtinction will exert themſelves to lay the EAST-INDIA TRADE open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, and to annihilate abſolutely our Eaſt-India Company, as an excluſive trading corporation, we ſhall lay all the evidence impartially together, that we have been able to accumulate, on both ſides of the queſtion, that a right judgement may be made, whether ſuch a meaſure would or would not be expedient, and tend to the public intereſt or not. Wherefore, beſides the peculiar heads to which we have before referred, we ſhall alſo, in order to give this matter due conſideration, refer our readers to the article OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY alſo in it's place.

ORLEANOIS, in France. In this government are the ſeven following diſtinct provinces, viz.

I. ORLEANOIS, properly ſo called, bounded on the north by Upper Beauce, on the eaſt by Gaſtinois, on the ſouth by Sologne, and on the weſt by Dunois and Vendomois.

ORLEANS, the capital city of this province, and one of the moſt conſiderable in France, is ſituated on the river Loire, by means of which, the trade it carries on is very conſiderable; it conſiſts in all ſorts of corn, wine, brandy, ſugar, ſilks, woollen-ſtuffs, oil, iron, ſteel, freſh and ſalt fiſh, fruit, timber, broads, and a great many other merchandizes. They have alſo ſome manufactories, viz. of ſtockings, both knit and wove, of prepared leather, of refining and baking ſugar, &c.

BEAUGENCI, on the ſame river, has a manufactory of ſerges and other woollen ſtuffs.

II. SOLOGNE. The limits of this province are not diſtinctly ſet down.

RAMORENTIN, on the little river Sauldre, has a conſiderable manufactory of ſerges and woollen cloth, which ſerves to clothe the army, ſo that they have a very good trade of it.

III. BEAUCE, lies between Orleanois, Blaiſois, Porche, and the iſle of France.

CHARTRES, the capital of this province, is ſituated on the banks of the river Eure. The chief trade here is that of corn. They have alſo ſome manufactures, for which the water of the Eure is reckoned very proper.

PLUVIERS, a ſmall town on the rivulet Oeuf. The neighbouring fields produce corn, of which they drive here a conſiderable trade. The ſoil produces alſo wine and ſaffron.

IV. DUNOIS. This little province has Orleanois on the eaſt, Blaiſois on the ſouth, Vendomois on the weſt, and Leſſer Perche on the north.

CHATEAU-DUN, ſtands on a hill near the river Loire. They make cyder here; and, in ſome pariſhes of this diſtrict, are manufactories of woollen ſtuffs, which they ſell at Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

V. VENDOMOIS, is bounded on the north by Perche, on the eaſt by Dunois, on the ſouth by Turrenne, and on the weſt by Maine.

They have in this duchy manufactories of woollen cloth, and gloves. There are alſo embroiderers and tanners; but the trade of gloves is by far the moſt conſiderable. Vendome, the capital, is ſituated on the Loire.

MONTOIRE, on the ſame river, is famous for the vaſt quantity of linen cloth made here.

VI. BLAISOIS, has Beauce on the north, Orleanois on the eaſt, Berry on the ſouth, and Touraini on the weſt.

BLOIS, on the Loire, is it's capital. The chief trade here conſiſts in wine and brandy, which they ſend to Orleans, Paris,

Tours,

Tours, Angers, Laval, and into Holland. It is alſo noted for the beſt watches in the kingdom.

VII. GASTINOIS is bounded on the north by Beauce, on the eaſt by Senonois, on the ſouth by Auxerrois, and on the weſt by Hurepois. Part of it belongs to the government of Orleanois, and the reſt to that of the Iſle of France. There are abundance of vineyards in this province, and a great many walnut-trees, of the fruit of which they make oil; the ſoil produces alſo a great deal of ſaffron.

CHATEAU-REGNARD, has a manufactory of woollen-cloth, proper to cloath Soldiers. They have alſo a trade of coarſe linen cloths, made in the neighbourhood of Montargis, Coſne, and St Fargeau. The Germans uſed formerly to trade hither for ſaffron.

OSTEND, eaſt longitude 2, 45, lat. 51, 15, a city and port town of the Auſtrian Netherlands in the province of Flanders, ſituate 12 miles from Bruges. See AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The late emperor Charles VI. attempted to eſtabliſh an Eaſt-India company at Oſtend in the year 1718, but was compelled to deſiſt from the deſign by the Engliſh and Dutch. See AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

In order to give poſterity a juſt idea of this company, and how jealous the Dutch and the Engliſh were at this time of the eſtabliſhment of a new maritime power in Europe, to interfere with their Oriental commerce, it will be neceſſary to lay before our readers,

A MEMORIAL preſented by M. Peſters, reſident at the court of Bruſſels on the part of their high-mightineſſes the States-General of the United Provinces, to his excellency the lord marquis de Prie, grandee of Spain, knight of the order of the Anunciada, privy counſellor of ſtate to his imperial and catholic majeſty, and miniſter plenipotentiary for the government of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

To his excellency,

The undernamed their high-mightineſſes reſident, is commanded to have the honour to communicate to your excellency the remonſtrances, which the directors of the privileged Eaſt-India company, as alſo thoſe of the Weſt-India company eſtabliſhed in Holland, have lately renewed, about the navigation and trade which thoſe of the Auſtrian Netherlands, particularly thoſe of the town of Oſtend, ſtill carry on in the Indies, to the great prejudice of the ſaid companies, and of their grants, confirmed and made prohibitory by the treaty of Munſter, as well for the ſubjects of Spain, as for thoſe of the Republic, who out of the ſaid companies, are not allowed to navigate, or carry on any trade within the diſtricts of their grants.

It is upon theſe freſh remonſtrances of the ſaid directors, that their high-mightineſſes have charged their envoy extraordinary to his imperial and catholic majeſty, to repreſent to him anew, That having the honour to live in good correſpondence and amity with his imperial majeſty, and having nothing more at heart than the preſervation and continuance of the ſame good correſpondence and harmony, which at all times have ſubſiſted between the ſubjects on both parts, cannot behold, without grief, that the inhabitants of thoſe countries, ſubjects to his imperial and catholic majeſty, are undertaking matters that may diſturb and ruffle that good correſpondence, tending to the greateſt prejudice with the Republic can ſuffer, and contrary to the treaties ſubſiſting between his imperial and catholic majeſty and their high-mightineſſes, ſo that they have ſtrong and juſt reaſons to complain of the ſame; the rather, becauſe all the inſtances made on their part for redreſs, have proved ineffectual; and that on the contrary, the ſaid inhabitants extend daily their enterprizes, in which they ſeem the more encouraged by the grant, which according to the public news, they have obtained of his imperial and catholic majeſty, freely to navigate and trade to the Indies.

Their high-mightineſſes foreſeeing the unavoidable troubles that muſt attend this affair, if, on the one hand, his imperial and catholic majeſty, contrary to all expectation aad equity, ſhould permit his ſubjects to proceed in their undertakings with reſpect to their new navigation and trade to the Indies, againſt the expreſs tenor of treaties; and if, on the other hand, their high-mightineſſes making uſe of their right acquired by the ſaid treaties, ſhould oppoſe the ſame; and deſiring nothing more than that ſuch inconveniencies and troubles may be prevented, their high-mightineſſes could not avoid repreſenting afreſh to his imperial and catholic majeſty, That by the treaty concluded in 1648 at Munſter, between his majeſty the king of Spain then reigning and his ſucceſſors, on the one part, and their high-mightineſſes on the other part, the navigation and commerce to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies were regulated and limited, with regard to the ſubjects of Spain, on the foot they then exerciſed and enjoyed their navigation and commerce to the Eaſt-Indies, without power of extending the ſame further; and with regard to the ſubjects of the Republic; it was agreed that they ſhould refrain from the places poſſeſſed by Spain. That theſe articles have always been religiouſly obſerved, and the inhabitants of the Spaniſh Netherlands have never been permitted to trade to the Indies: that the ſaid Netherlands being at preſent under the dominion of his imperial and catholic majeſty, have not in that reſpect, acquired more right or privileges than they had before; nor can it ever be imagined, that their high-mightineſſes after having made ſo great efforts, and contributed ſo much to the recovery of the ſaid Netherlands, and other parts of the monarchy of Spain, in favour of his imperial and catholic majeſty, purſuant to the engagements entered in on that behalf, could poſſibly depart from the charters they had granted, and from the right they have for ever acquired by the ſaid treaty of Munſter, to maintain the ſaid charters; or that his imperial and catholic majeſty had any intention in recovering the ſaid Netherlands, to make any alterations there, much leſs deſign, contrary to the ſtipulations therein ſo plainly expreſſed, to cauſe ſo great a prejudice to the ſtate, in a point ſo eſſential and important to the Republic, and which was ſo ſtrongly inſiſted upon in the negociations at Munſter, that had it not been obtained, the treaty would never have been concluded: to which it muſt be added, that by the 26th article of the barrier treaty it is expreſsly ſtipulated, That commerce, and all that depends on it, in the whole and in part, ſhall remain upon the foot eſtabliſhed, and the manner appointed by the articles of the ſaid treaty of Munſter, inſomuch that the treaty was confirmed by that of the barrier, under the guarantee of the king of Great-Britain, even at the time his imperial and catholic majeſty was already in poſſeſſion of the Netherlands. [See NETHERLANDS.]

And that the right of the States in this particular, being ſo manifeſt, their high-mightineſſes can but expect, both from the amity, and from the great equity and juſtice of his imperial and catholic majeſty, that he will not any ways infringe it, and therefore earneſtly deſiring and requiring that the patent which is ſaid to have by him been granted for the eſtabliſhment of the navigation and commerce of theſe countries to the Indies may not be publiſhed, but rather revoked, or at leaſt rendered ineffectual; and that ſuch orders may be iſſued out by his imperial and catholic majeſty, that ſuch kind of navigation and commerce, with or without patents, may not be carried on any longer, and that the treaties made on that behalf be executed.

This, Sir, is the ſubſtance and purport of the orders tranſmitted by their high-mightineſſes to their envoy extraordinary to his imperial and catholic majeſty, and thoſe received by the under-named reſident direct him, to import the ſame to your excellency, together with the remonſtrances of the directors of the ſaid two companies of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, which he has the honour to lay before your excellency, with a tranſlation of the ſame in French, being moreover charged to uſe the moſt earneſt endeavours to incline your excellency, by your good offices with his imperial and catholic majeſty, to ſecond the good and juſt intentions of their high-mightineſſes on the behalf above-mentioned, and to take care that things may not be carried to any extremity, 'till his majeſty's further reſolution. Done at Bruſſels this 5th of April 1723. Signed E. Peſters.

REMONSTRANCE II.

Of the directors of the Eaſt-India company of the United Provinces, to their high mightineſſes the lords the States-General of the United Provinces.

With all due reſpect, the directors of the privileged Eaſt-India company of this country ſhew, That in the years 1720, and 1721, they had the honour to inform your high-mightineſſes by ſeveral memorials ond repreſentations, of the great loſs the company had already ſuffered, and ſhould ſtill ſuſtain, by the eſtabliſhment of the new navigation and commerce of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and particularly of the town of Oſtend, in the Indies, ſince the ſaid Netherlands were ſeparated from the crown of Spain, and reſtored to his imperial and catholic majeſty, directly contrary to what was ſtipulated by the treaty of peace, concluded at Munſter 1648, between the king of Spain of glorious memory, and this ſtate; the principal object and view of which treaty then was, conformably to the inſtructions of your high-mightineſſes miniſters plenipotentiary (in the manner they were given, according to the remarks on the ſame, found in the books of Acitzema, in the year 1645, which agree with the report of the ſaid miniſters plenipotentiary) above all things, to ſecure the commerce and navigation of the ſaid company in the Eaſt-Indies, and to cauſe the charters granted by your high mightineſſes to be maintained and obſerved even in Spain; and that each of the contracting parties, that is, both the Caſtillians and the ſubjects of this ſtate, ſhould freely enjoy the limits or diſtricts of their commerce, with all the towns, forts, lodges, and fortreſſes therein ſituate, and that it ſhould not be permitted to the one to trade or traffic in the diſtrict of the other, not only in ſuch places the property whereof belonged reſpectively to either, but not even in thoſe, which being poſſeſſed by neither in property, and remaining their

own maſters, might grant liberty of trading to other nations: which laſt point was, indeed, looked upon by Spain as unreaſonable, as may be ſeen by the report of M. de Meynderſwyk, inſerted in that of the negociations of Munſter, dated February 7, 1647, ſince the miniſters of Spain alledged at that time, that it was not reaſonable to pretend to hinder the king from making conqueſts in Braſil and in the Indies upon the Portugueze, his rebellious ſubjects, and to extend his dominions in other parts of the ſaid Indies, whoſe inhabitants are their own maſters, and may give liberty of trade; but which, however, was obtained, and very expreſsly ſtipulated on the part of this ſtate, upon the preſſing inſtances of it's miniſters plenipotentiary, as is contained in the 5th and 6th articles of the treaty of Munſter, viz.

That the navigation and commerce to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies ſhall be maintained, purſuant and conformably to the charters already granted, or afterwards to be granted, and that the preſent treaty of peace, and the ratifications that ſhall be given thereupon on both ſides, ſhall ſerve as ſecurity thereof; that purſuant thereto, the Spaniards ſhall reſerve and retain their navigation, in the manner they had it then in the Eaſt-Indies, without power of extending themſelves further, and that the inhabitants of the United Provinces ſhall likewiſe refrain from frequenting the Caſtillian places in the Eaſt-Indies. The petitioners, by their firſt memorial preſented to your high-mightineſſes in 1720, have ſhewn, that the three principal points agreed on in the ſaid articles, to wit, 1ſt, The peaceable poſſeſſion of the towns, caſtles, forts, fortreſſes, and rights of ſovereignity, that were yielded to them, and which the ſubjects of this ſtate have acquired in the Eaſt-Indies. 2dly, The regulation of the limits of navigation and trade in each diſtrict, according to the partition that was made, together with the ſolemn promiſe of maintaining the grant of the Eaſt-India company. 3dly And laſtly, The prohibition made to the ſubjects on both ſides, not to attempt any thing to the prejudice of the ſaid convention in their reſpective diſtricts, nor to ſet up any new trade, or make any ſettlement there by new fortreſſes and lodges, all which is comprehended in the words, not to extend themſelves further, have ſubſiſted and been ſo well obſerved, that ſince the concluſion of the ſaid treaty of peace, nothing has been done or attempted, either on the part of Spain, or on the part of the Eaſt-India company, from which any conſequence may be drawn to the prejudice, or the invalidating of the ſaid convention; but that, on the contrary, the Spaniards have kept to their navigation, as they exerciſed it at the time of the ſaid treaty of peace, and continued it from Europe by the ſtraights of Magellan in America, and from thence to the Philippine Iſlands, or Manilles, in the Eaſt-Indies, without either extending themſelves further, or frequenting or carrying on any trade in the towns, forts, or lodges ſituate within the limits of the grant of the ſaid Eaſt-India company, much leſs did they erect there any new ſettlements, fortreſſes, or factories, not even in the places the inhabitants whereof being their own maſters, may permit others to trade, ſuch as Bengal, Siam, &c. as on the part of the ſaid company, navigation and trade have ſtill been carried on towards the eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope, to Batavia and Java, the Red Sea, the coaſts of Aſia and the Indies, as alſo in the ſeas, rivers, and iſlands, ſituate between the Manilles and the iſle of Java, as far as Japan and the Moluccas incluſively, without extending to the Manilles, or any other places where the Spaniards trade.

Matters between Spain and this ſtate, or the Eaſt-India company, would, in all probability, have ſtood on the ſame footing without any occaſion of complaint, had not the Spaniſh Netherlands been reſtored to his imperial and catholic majeſty, which has given a handle to many ſubjects of the ſaid Netherlands very erroneouſly to maintain, that the emperor is not bound by the treaty made with the king of Spain, his imperial and catholic majeſty's predeceſſor, and that upon that foundation, they had acquired a new right and liberty of trade, which they never had before, viz. to traffic in the Indies, territories, ports, and harbours, which the king of Spain, with reſpect to navigation and commerce, ever held, out of the limits of Europe; that is to ſay, out of the common liberty of commerce, as it is expreſſed in the 4th article of the treaty of truce of the year 1609, becauſe the Caſtillians, and the king's ſubjects naturalized, who were reputed Caſtillians, had ſolely a right to traffic there, excluſive not only of the other nations, but alſo of all the other ſubjects of Spain, as is explained more at large by the Spaniſh civilian, John Evia de Bolano, in Curia Philippica, lib. 1. De Commerc. Terr. cap. 1. where he ſays, Ningun eſtrangero del reino puede tractar en las Indias. No aliens, who are not ſubjects of the kingdom, can trade in the Indies; naming afterwards the king's other ſubjects; for inſtance, the Aragoneſe, Neapolitans, Sicilians, eſtrangeros de las Indias, that is to ſay, ſuch as not being Caſtillians, have no right to trade in the Indies; which is alſo confirmed by the ſaid report of the negociation of peace, dated December 14, 1646, wherein it is ſaid, on the part of the miniſters of Spain, That the trade to the Indies was by no treaty granted to any foreign nation; the rather, becauſe it was not ſo much as permitted to the ſubjects of England, Denmark, and to the Portugueze, while they were under the king's obedience, nor to France before the war, nor to thoſe of Arragon, Naples, nor even to the inhabitants of the Spaniſh Netherlands, to carry on any commerce in the Eaſt-Indies, inferring from thence, that this Republic could not be allowed to enjoy what was denied to the king's own ſubjects.

This difference between the king's ſubjects, particularly with reſpect to the Flanderkins and thoſe of Brabant, has been obſerved, and was in very ſtrong terms expreſſed, in the deed of ceſſion made in favour of this infanta Clara Iſabella Eugenia, the 6th of May 1598, whereby the king yields and makes over to her the Spaniſh Netherlands upon certain conditions, and no otherwiſe, as may be ſeen in the 8th article of the ſaid deed, viz. That neither the infanta nor her conſort, nor any of her ſucceſſors, to whom the ſaid countries ſhould devolve, ſhall carry on any manner of commerce or trade in the Eaſt or Weſt-Indies, nor ſhall ſend into thoſe countries any ſort of ſhipping, under what title, name, or pretence ſoever, upon pain, in caſe of contravention, of forfeiture of the ſaid countries. And if any of the ſubjects of the ſaid Netherlands ſhall, contrary to this prohibition, tranſport themſelves to the Indies, that the ſovereigns of the ſaid Netherlands ſhall be obliged to puniſh them for it, by confiſcation of their eſtates, and greater penalties, even by death. An inſtance of the efficacy of this article is to be found in the hiſtory of Emanual de Metteren, among the occurrences of the year 1641, where he ſays, that thoſe of Antwerp being by the king ſuſpected of trading indirectly to the Indies, a commiſſioner from court was ſent into that city to inſpect the merchants books, and to proſecute thoſe who ſhould be found guilty of ſuch a contravention, 'till at laſt, to prevent many difficulties and proſecutions that would have enſued, the ſum of 600,000 ducats was to be paid, to buy off the king's diſpleaſure. Which therefore clearly ſhews, that the ſubjects of the Spaniſh Netherlands never had a right to trade in the Indies, as will be further evinced anon; that although they changed maſters at the time of the laſt barrier treaty, they cannot be deemed to have changed, or bettered their condition; and that the ſuppoſition, that his imperial and catholic majeſty is not bound by the treaty of Munſter, or that being a ſovereign, he may grant to the ſubjects of the ſaid countries ſuch a new right, to the prejudice of the ſaid treaty, ought to be looked upon as erroneous and illuſory, for the following reaſons:

Firſt, Becauſe the king of Spain, by the deed of ceſſion in favour of the ſaid infanta, and by the treaty of Munſter, not only bound himſelf and his heirs, but alſo in general, all his and their ſucceſſors, in what right ſoever the ſucceſſion may fall, not to permit, or ſuffer them to carry on that trade. Secondly, Becauſe all the motives which, at that time induced the king of Great-Britain as well as this ſtate, to enter into an alliance with the emperor againſt France and Spain, had no other foundation, and that the ſaid aliance was made and concluded with no other view, than to recover the crown of Spain for his imperial majeſty, as having a right to it, in the whole or in part, with the ſame obligations and engagements which the ſaid crown had contracted with Great-Britain and this ſtate, and which ſubſiſted at the time of the demiſe of the late catholic king of glorious memory, and in the ſame manner the ſaid monarcy was then conſtituted; which is a conſequence both by the ſaid engagement of the king of Spain for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, according to the treaty of Munſter, and, according to law, from the nature of the thing itſelf; to wit, That he who by right of ſucceſſion inherits and takes the place of the deceaſed, ſtands bound and engaged to obſerve and perform all the treaties and engagements which the deceaſed had contracted with others.

And the rather, becauſe his imperial and catholic majeſty was to engage himſelf thereto, in a ſpecial manner, by the 26th article of the barrier treaty, in receiving the Spaniſh Netherlands only upon this expreſs condition, viz.

That trade and all that depends upon it, either in the whole or in part, ſhall remain on the foot eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Munſter, and in the manner appointed by the articles of the ſaid treaty.

Which articles were, in the year 1715, confirmed between his imperial and catholic majeſty and this ſtate in ſuch manner, that no alteration having been made in them, the ſaid Netherlands cannot be conſidered or deemed, both with reſpect to the ſaid prior engagements, and to the privileges they enjoyed, but as belonging ſtill to the ſaid ſovereign, and as if they never have been ſevered from the crown of Spain.

Which your high-mightineſſes (with due ſubmiſſion be it ſaid) may the rather urge, becauſe having ſpent ſo much blood and treaſure to recover the Spaniſh Netherlands to the obedience of his imperial and catholic majeſty, you ought not to undergo ſo great a hardſhip, as that the ſaid Netherlands or their inhabitants, ſhould at preſent be allowed to undertake, to the detriment of your high-mightineſſes, what they were not permitted to do before, and what they were forbid to do by a ſolemn treaty.

It may even be maintained, That his imperial and catholic majeſty in his great equity and juſtice, underſtood and meant

it

it ſo, as has been obſerved in former memorials; ſince in the patents or paſſes which his Majeſty has granted to thoſe of Brabant and Flanders, there is a clauſe, whereby they are prohibited to trade on the coaſts of Africa, &c. in ſuch places where, according to treaties, his imperial and catholic Majeſty's ſubjects are not permitted to trade.

Which or other like clauſe, cannot always refer to any other treaties, but that of Munſter and to the barrier treaty, ſince there are no other treaties that any body knows of, concerning the navigation to the Indies, that regard either his imperial Majeſty or his ſubjects.

It may alſo be aſſerted, that the treaty of Munſter had never been concluded, nor peace made at that time, between Spain and this ſtate, had it not been for the preſervation and maintenance of the India Trade, in favour of the ſubjects of this ſtate.

All which evinces, that the ſubjects of the Spaniſh Netherlands, not having had before the liberty of trading to the Indies, were left in the ſame ſtate and condition they were put in, both by the prohibition of that commerce, and by the excluſive treaty made on that behalf with this ſtate, as alſo afterwards by the right of ſucceſſion of his imperial and catholic Majeſty, and by the barrier treaty concluded on the ſame foot; and that, conſequently, it would be the greateſt abſurdity to maintain, that at the time of the barrier treaty, a point ſo very important as the trade to the Eaſt-Indies, and the maintenance of the grant made to the company, ſhould have been omitted or given up by this ſtate, ſince the confirmation of the ſaid trade, was the principal and greateſt object of the treaty at Munſter, as was obſerved before, and as appears beſides, by what the miniſters plenipotentiary of France wrote to their king, the 21ſt of December, 1646, as is related in the book intitled Memoirs and ſecret Negociations of the court of France, touching the peace of Munſter, &c. in theſe words:

'Another thing that puzzles us, is the Spaniards yielding about the Indies, which undoubtedly is one of the moſt conſiderable articles of the treaty, in which the Hollanders find an advantage they had not expected, and which could not be granted them but upon ſome extraordinary motive. The king of Spain conſents to abridge himſelf of the power of extending his limits in the Eaſt-Indies, and to reſtrain them to what he poſſeſſes there at preſent.

It is very remarkable, that the miniſters plenipotentiary have, in their relation, made uſe of the words of *extending his limits*, without determining or reſtraining them to certain countries, towns, or fortreſſes: which proves that the diſtrict given up by Spain to the ſaid Eaſt-India company, does not only conſiſt of certain countries or places, whoſe property the company had acquired, but in a diſtrict of trade, or extent of limits, under which are alſo comprehended ſuch countries where the inhabitants are their own maſters, and may permit others to trade, as was ſhewn before.

The petitioners have alſo evinced, by their former memorials, that both reaſon, and the law of nations, as it is obſerved now a-days, dictate and juſtify, that navigation and commerce, which antiently were common, open, and free, are, at preſent, looked upon as limited, proper, and diviſible, inſomuch that trading nations ought reciprocally to refrain from trafficking in the diſtricts of others.

It was with this view that the charters granted to the Eaſt and Weſt-India companies, and all the treaties of peace made with the Crown of Spain, from the firſt treaty of truce, have been couched in ſuch terms, as plainly ſhew that the prohibition of trade and navigation was not ſolely reſtrained to the diſtrict or neighbourhood of ſome towns, lodges, or fortreſſes, with the adjacent lands, as one may ſay, as far as one's eyes can reach, or within cannon-ſhot; but, on the contrary, ſuch words and expreſſions have been uſed, as ſhew the reaſon and neceſſity both of the treaties and of the thing itſelf, which do not admit that they who are at the charge and expence of fortifications, maintenance of garriſons, and keeping up factories, be obliged to ſhare them with others, which would, however, come to paſs if the ſubjects of the Auſtrian Netherlands had, as they claim by the antient law of nations, the liberty of navigating and trading within the diſtrict of the Eaſt-India company of the United Provinces, even in all places where the Caſtillians were not permitted to trade, and whither they neither navigated or trafficked, from the treaty of Munſter to this preſent time.

So that, according to their opinion, the ſubjects of this ſtate ſhould be and remain bound, with reſpect to the Caſtillians, to reſrain from their diſtricts in the Indies, and they, on the contrary, (although ſubjects of Spain, and comprehended both in the treaty of Munſter, and in the barrier treaty) ſhould have acquired a new right of navigating and trading every where within the diſtrict of the company of the United Provinces, as they actually do, not only in China, but alſo at Surat, Bengal, Coromondel, Malabar, the Red-Sea, and elſewhere, deſigning and endeavouring to erect factories in any of thoſe places, and to do all that may enervate or vacate the grant of the ſaid Eaſt-India company, by enticing the ſubjects to become ſharers in this new trade, and employing on board their ſhips ſeamen that have been in the ſervice of the ſaid company; labouring to gain it's officers in the Indies, to engage them, againſt their oaths and duty, to aid and abet their enterprizes; and, in a word, to ſupplant the company; a thing which the Spaniards would never have thought of; ſince the late king of Spain ever did maintain the company's grant, in all it's parts, according to the treaty of Munſter, both with reſpect to the partition of the limits of commerce, and to the rights of ſubjects on both ſides, not ſuffering that the Caſtillians, or any of his ſubjects, ſhould attempt or undertake what was by treaties forbid to the ſubjects of this ſtate, within the diſtrict of the Spaniſh Indies, but that they ſhould abide by what had been ſtipulated, for greater and further ſecurity, by the 15th article of the treaty of navigation made with Spain in the year 1650, viz. That the ſubjects of either of the powers ſhould not be allowed a larger licence than the other for their navigation and trade, but that in this, and in all things, there ſhould be a reciprocation and equality on both ſides.

And it is moſt certain, that this reciprocation and equality could not abſolutely have their effect, according to the ſaid article, if either of the parties were obliged exactly to conform itſelf, and the other ſhould let it alone, upon pretence either of having changed maſters, or becauſe the antient law of nations (according to which navigation and commerce were free every where, and to every one) ſtill actually ſubſiſts, although nothing is more notorious, as was hinted before, than that pretended law of nations was changed by the general conſent, and unanimous practice of the moſt civilized nations of Europe; and that, even in relation to the preſent caſe, there is a ſpecial treaty contrary thereto, and whereby the king of Spain has promiſed not to extend himſelf that way, or not to ſuffer that diſtrict to be frequented for any trade, upon an expreſs renunciation and derogation to all laws, cuſtoms, and all other things thereunto contrary, binding and engaging, for the ſecurity and execution of the treaty, all his ſubjects, inhabitants, kingdoms, and dominions, both in and out of Europe.

Which being thus ſettled by treaty, and the Spaniſh Netherlands, with their inhabitants, being found to perform the ſame, by the ſovereign, as duke of Brabant and earl of Flanders, as the ſubjects of this ſtate are likewiſe bound and obliged to all that has been promiſed to the Caſtillians, viz. not to navigate or trade within the diſtricts of their commerce in the Indies: it would be the greateſt hardſhip in the world for the Eaſt-India company to ſtand bound and engaged towards the Caſtillians, whilſt, on the other hand, thoſe of the Auſtrian Netherlands ſhould be diſengaged from all ties and obligations, and ſhould do the company more hurt and prejudice than the Caſtillians themſelves could, in caſe they would break the engagements of the treaty of Munſter, and extend themſelves further in the Indies than they are allowed to do; for beſides that, in ſuch a caſe, the Eaſt-India company might do the like, and extend it's commerce within the diſtricts of the Caſtillians; the Spaniards have not, by much, the ſame occaſion with thoſe of the ſaid Netherlands, by reaſon of their ſituation and neighbourhood, to allure and draw the ſubjects of this ſtate to their intereſt, to the prejudice of the company's grant.

Moreover, if the pretenſions of the ſubjects of the ſaid Netherlands ſhould take place, the Eaſt-India company, by the recovery of the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands for his imperial Majeſty, ſhould not only loſe all the efficacy of the treaty of Munſter, which was obtained with ſo much trouble, but would be in a worſe condition than if that treaty had never been concluded with Spain.

And as the petitioners are daily more and more ſenſible of their loſſes, by the fall of the price of their goods, occaſioned by the great quantities of the ſame imported into Europe, and by the great number of competitors; and foreſee that, in time, little more may be left to the Eaſt-India company than the charge of maintaining and keeping up their forts, garriſons, and factories, and the grief to ſee the profits carried off by others, even by thoſe who, according to the treaties and charters, have no manner of right to this trade, eſpecially if it be true (what public and private news poſitively affirm) that his imperial and catholic Majeſty has already granted a patent for the ſettlement of an Eaſt and Weſt-India company in the Auſtrian Netherlands, and that notwithſtanding the repreſentations made and repeated on the part of your high-mightineſſes, in order to maintain the right of the company of the United Provinces againſt the ſaid commerce; his imperial and catholic Majeſty does nevertheleſs endeavour, by his power and authority, to countenance and confirm a navigation and trade which, at all times, were prohibited to thoſe of the ſaid Netherlands, and from which they were ſo carefully excluded.

Therefore the petitioners again preſume to remonſtrate the whole matter to your high-mightineſſes, and to juſtify more at large what they have already offered in their former memorials, moſt humbly praying, That, in conſideration of the great prejudice which the licenſed Eaſt-India company has already ſuffered, and will ſuffer more and more, by the grant of the ſaid new patent, and by the notorious incroachment on their right to the Eaſt-India trade, your high-mighti-

neſſes

neſſes may pleaſe to cauſe your miniſters at the courts of Vienna and at Bruſſels, to continue and repeat the moſt earneſt and moſt effectual inſtances to engage his imperial and catholic Majeſty, in his great equity and juſtice, to put a ſtop to the navigation from the Auſtrian Netherlands to the Eaſt-Indies, not to put in execution the ſaid patent, and not to grant any new commiſſion or patent for their trading thither; and that your high-mightineſſes may pleaſe to uſe both this method, and all further means, which in your great wiſdom, and more extended lights, you ſhall judge more convenient and effectual to oppoſe this unlicenſed trade, and prevent it's progreſs, that the petitioners may quietly enjoy the effect and benefit of their charter: and the petitioners, &c.

REMONSTRANCE III.

Or petition of the directors of the Eaſt-India company, to their high-mightineſſes the lords States-General of the United Provinces.

The directors of the licenſed Eaſt-India company of this country, in all duty ſhew, That it is with great regret they have found themſelves obliged to apply ſeveral times to your high-mightineſſes, and from time to time to complain of the endeavours uſed in Brabant and in Flanders towards eſtabliſhing a new navigation and trade both to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies; that your high-mightineſſes may remember, that the ſame has occaſioned the taking and confiſcating of ſome veſſels on both ſides; and, of late, of the taking of the ſhip called the Conmany, by the Oſtend privateers, for which loſs a due recompence has hitherto, againſt all reaſon, been denied; but that the petitioners have, at leaſt, had this ſatisfaction, that, ſince the taking of thoſe prizes, a ſtop has been put to the ſending out ſhips to the Weſt-Indies and Africa, apparently becauſe it has been acknowledged, by the repreſentations made on that ſubject, that the ſaid navigation is notoriouſly contrary to the 5th and 6th articles of the treaty of Munſter; that the petitioners thought they might hope, that, although they ſhould ſtill be denied amends for the ſaid loſs, they ſhould not, at leaſt, have freſh matter of complaint given them: but, inſtead of that, it appears by the public news, that there is a deſign to begin again, and to carry on with more vigour than before, the ſaid navigation and commerce to the Weſt-Indies and Africa, and that in order thereto a patent has already been obtained of his imperial and catholic Majeſty.

That this undertaking is ſo prejudicial to the general Weſt-India company eſtabliſhed in this country, and ſo directly contrary to the ſaid treaty of Munſter, that the petitioners, without any further repreſentation of the right to them belonging, by virtue of the ſaid treaty, and of the engagements entered into by his imperial and catholic Majeſty, as ſucceſſor of king Charles II. of glorious memory (mentioned ſeveral times before, and ſufficiently known) cannot forbear applying again to your high-mightineſſes, moſt humbly to pray your powerful protection, towards the putting a ſtop to the ſaid new navigation to the Weſt-Indies and Africa, and that the ſaid patent of his imperial and catholic Majeſty, may not have it's effect; and that his ſaid Majeſty be deſired not to grant, for the future, any new commiſſions or paſſes; as alſo that your high-mightineſſes be pleaſed to take ſuch further meaſures as your high-mightineſſes may think moſt effectual to obtain the ſame of the Emperor, moſt dutifully referring themſelves to what your high-mightineſſes ſhall find proper to do therein. Done at Amſterdam, the 22d of March, 1723, by order of the aboveſaid directors, and ſigned

JOHN DE LA BASSECOUR.

REMARKS.

By the ſteady reſolution of the States-General, in concert with the crown of Great-Britain, the abolition of this Oſtend Eaſt-India company was effectuated: but ſo great is the change in the ſyſtem of Europe ſince this time, that neither the States-General nor England ſeem to concern themſelves much about the eſtabliſhment of new Eaſt-India companies with, as encouraging privileges and immunities as England formerly granted to her trading corporations. And is not this very natural to be attempted by other nations, they knowing, from the experience of England, France, and Holland, that this meaſure has been attended with ſo great ſucceſs and proſperity to the commerce and navigation of thoſe reſpective potentates? Quere, therefore, Whether it may not require the moſt mature and deliberate conſideration, before we abſolutely aboliſh our own Eaſt-India company, while other ſtates are eſtabliſhing and vigorouſly ſupporting the like kind of companies?

If it was really for the advantage of England and Holland to ſuppreſs the late Oſtend Eaſt-India company, by reaſon only that it proved manifeſtly detrimental to both, can it be believed, from the ſame principle of reaſoning, that the total annihilation of our Eaſt-India company could tend to the trading advantage of the nation? Would not France, and perhaps Holland, and ſome other potentates, rejoice as much at the deſtruction of our Eaſt-India company, as the Dutch and Engliſh, and even the French, did at that of the Oſtend company?

We have, from the beſt of our judgment, ſtated the caſe of our Eaſt-India company, with all impartiality [ſee the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE and EAST-INDIA COMPANY]: and ſo far have we been from pleading in favour of this company, and attempting to juſtify them for not tradjng to all places within their charter, where it can be done with benefit to the nation, and without injury to themſelves; I have urged every thing argumentative that has been ſaid againſt them in this reſpect, and ſhewed the reaſonableneſs of private traders being admitted to traffic in thoſe parts of the Eaſt-Indies where the company do not: for the company have been roundly charged with cramping, inſtead of extending, their commerce within their charter.

As I have occaſionally introduced what matter has been ſtarted in oppoſition to the conduct of the company in this reſpect, ſo it is a duty on the impartial man to repreſent fairly what reply has been made to a charge of this nature, that the public may be able to make a right judgment of the matter before them.

'The firſt charge againſt the Eaſt-India company, ſays Mr Rammell, is their not attempting to trade on the weſt ſide of the Red Sea, which is ſaid to be inhabited by Chriſtians: to which I reply, continues that gentleman, that, as I lived ſix years in the company's factory at Mocha, it cannot be ſuppoſed but that I have ſome ſhare of knowlege of the trade in the Red Sea, and the ports frequented by the merchants on both the ſhores.

The firſt place where I know of any trade in the Abyſſine country, is at Zelah, a ſmall port a little without the Baabs; it is under the juriſdiction of the Mocha governor; there is a ſmall fort, and garriſon of Arabs: at proper ſeaſons of the year boats go from Mocha with an ordinary cargo of piece goods, and, in return, bring back hides, ſheep, and clarified butter; there is ſome ſmall places within the Baabs on that coaſt, which the Banians of Mocha trade to in boats, but they employ Abyſſiners for their factors, of whom there is a great number always at Mocha; the boats crew are of the ſame country as the factors, for the Arabs are not fond of putting themſelves in the power of ſo uncivilized a people: there is no port, I believe, on what is called the Abyſſine country, within the Baabs, large enough for a trade to be carried on there by ſhipping; but on the Ethiopian coaſt there is, but they are poſſeſſed by the Turks, the Chriſtians living all inland, and I believe the country they poſſeſs is ſtiled the interior Ethiopia, and the neareſt ſea-port to their territories is, if I miſtake not, called Muſſoah, and, as I obſerved before, is in the poſſeſſion of the Turks, ſo I leave the world to judge, if there is any manner of proſpect of the European Chriſtians carrying on a trade with the Chriſtians in Ethiopia by ſea, whilſt the Turk keeps poſſeſſion of the avenues to the country. I have known a ſmall Mahometan ſhip from Surat make a voyage to that port with piece goods, &c. and have brought back elephants-teeth, ſome civet, and a ſmall quantity of gold duſt. During the time of my reſidence at Mocha, the chief of the French factory ſent a ſmall veſſel thither, with Mahometan ſailros in her, and a Greek for the ſupercargo, who had lived many years amongſt the Turks and Arabs, (and I believe had been circumciſed) but the voyage turned to ſo indifferent an account, that I have not heard of any veſſel belonging to the Chriſtians going thither ſince. The Mahometan governments in the Red Sea are much prejudiced againſt the Chriſtians, on account of their religion (which may be owing to the vicinity of their prophet's tomb) and frequently treat them ill, without the leaſt occaſion, as I have often experienced. One of the governors of Mocha, in my time, iſſued out his orders that the centinels at the town gates ſhould knock down any of the French, Dutch, or Engliſh companies ſervants that ſhould preſume to ride in or out of them, though, at the ſame time, they were free for all others to paſs unmoleſted: this order was in force ſeveral months. The governor of Mocha always inſiſted on having the company's lead at his own price (and I believe the iron likewiſe) which was very low, ſo that it uſed to be ſent from thence to Bombay or Surat: the myrrh and drugs that are the product of Abyſſine and Ethiopia, are brought to Mocha in ſmall boats; but their aloes are no better than thoſe which grow on the Arabian ſhore, which are in little eſteem in Europe; thoſe that uſed to be purchaſed on the company's account were brought from the iſland of Socatra.

The next article is, that the company doth not trade to Siam, a rich and great kingdom, nor to Pegu, a country that produces rubies, gum-lacque, gum-dragon, and all materials of fine India varniſh, the Indians being induſtrious, a great trade might be carried on there. The objectors then go on, and mention Tonquin, Cochin-China, the kingdoms of Japan and Corea: I ſhall give for anſwer to the foregoing, that I think the reaſon is very obvious, which is, that the managers thereof are well ſatisfied that it would not anſwer their purpoſe, and therefore it would be injuring the proprietors to carry on a loſing trade.

As

As to the trade of Siam, I ſhall not paſs it over without ſaying ſomething relating thereto: I remember that about ſix or ſeven-and-thirty years ago, I was concerned in an adventure ſhipped on board the Morning Star, Capt. Alexander Hamilton commander, bound from the ports of Surat and Bombay to Siam, at which port he met with a ſhip from Fort St George; the commander of whom, or ſome other perſon belonging to the ſhip, inſtigated the government of Siam againſt the ſaid Capt. Hamilton in ſuch a manner, that they were the cauſe of his being arraigned for his life (for no other reaſon but to overſet his voyage) and though Capt. Hamilton eſcaped the executioner's hands, it anſwered the others purpoſe as well as if he had been hanged, for he was not permitted to do any buſineſs there; ſo that he ſailed down the river with his ſhip, and anchored off the port, where he continued ſeveral days, with a full reſolution of taking a prize, in order to reimburſe the owners for what they were like to be ſufferers by his not being permitted to diſpoſe of his cargo in the port; (the particulars of this affair may be read in the ſaid Hamilton's Voyages, printed about 23 years ago) but at laſt was obliged to quit his ſtation without any booty, on account of the changes of the ſeaſons, or want of proviſion, I can't tell which. Now, for argument's ſake, I will ſuppoſe he had taken a Siam veſſel, or the ſhip from Fort St George (which I am almoſt poſitive I have heard him declare he would have attempted, had ſhe ſailed out whilſt he lay before the river's mouth) with Siam, or other India merchants freighters on board: had, I ſay, this been the caſe, the ſaid merchants would, in all probability, have received ſome ſatisfaction for the outrage committed againſt them by the ſaid Capt. Hamilton; but had there been no Engliſh Eaſt-India company ſubſiſting, and he had been on his return to England inſtead of Bombay, I don't ſee that it would have been in the power of all the king's governors abroad to have done juſtice to the poor injured Siamers; but ſuppoſe it was, 'tis moſt likely that the king of Siam would have gone a much ſhorter and ſurer way to work, than to complain to them about the affair, by making reprizals on the next Engliſh ſhip that put into his port: for the trade in Aſia, and it's policy, is not of a piece with that of Europe, where, if the ſubject of one nation is ill treated in another prince's dominions, the miniſter or conſul of the nation he belongs to, will, on a proper application being made to him, endeavour to get him redreſſed: but, as I have obſerved, it is otherwiſe in the Eaſt-Indies; ſo that it is very probable, if the trade thither was laid open, the Engliſh would ſoon be involved in diſputes and broils with ſeveral potentates in India (where the king of Great-Britain had no garriſons) whilſt the French, and other nations from Europe, would carry on their trade uninterrupted, and the Engliſh would be looked upon no better than pirates, through the indiſcretion and hot-headedneſs of ſome of the Engliſh commanders; which there is no danger of whilſt things are on the preſent footing, by reaſon that, if any of the preſent commanders employed in that trade ſhould commit a raſh or an unjuſt action, whilſt trading from port to port in the Eaſt-Indies, on his return from the port he ſet out from, or to the port where he is to take in his loading for England, the affair would come to light, and all the Engliſh ſettlements apprized thereof, as ſoon as conveniently they could, that they might take their meaſures accordingly. It was rivalſhip in trade that gave riſe to Hamilton and Quarrel, the ſhips belonging to different employers: and the ſame cauſe will always exiſt, if the Eaſt-India company is laid aſide, and no doubt will frequently be attended with the like conſequences.

As for the port of Pegu, the India company uſed to have a reſident in that king's dominions, but, by reaſon of troubles in the country, I believe there has not been one for ſome years paſt; but I have of late heard talk that their governor at Fort St George had inſtructions from the company about ſettling that place again: though Pegu, and ſome other countries, may produce commodities proper for an Europe market, yet the ſending one of their ſhips for them would ſo enhance the price of the goods, that, in the end, they would ſtand them in more than they could expect to ſell them for. The Tonquiners may be an induſtrious people, but I have been told that they are ſo very poor, that they never have a ſtock of goods by them; and thoſe that expect to meet with a cargo there, or indeed, any quantity of goods fit for the Europe markets, ſhould go with a reſolution of ſtaying a conſiderable time at that port. I remember that a little ſhip called the Fame, Capt. Gregory commander, ſailed from Bombay to that port, where he and both the ſupercargoes were murdered in their houſe on ſhore; the ſhip got ſafe back again to Bombay; and, though I continued 14 years in India after this affair happened, I can't call to mind that the gentlemen at Bombey ſent any other ſhip thither.—The trade to Cochin-China is in a manner prohibited to all Europeans; and although I have been acquainted with India affairs for 40 years paſt, I don't remember to have heard but of one ſhip belonging to Europeans making a voyage thither, and that was commanded by one Capt. Pearce, or ſome ſuch name, and was fitted out either from Madras or Bengal; but the voyage did not anſwer: the year before that he intended his voyage, he by ſome means or other (the particulars, though he told them me, I can't recollect) procured the king's grant, or permiſſion, to come to his country: it was wrote, or ſtampt, I believe on a piece of ſolid gold, of about five or ſix inches long, and about two inches broad, whereon was inſerted the captain's name, and the number of men and guns his ſhip carried.—As for a trade to Japan and Corea, I am well ſatisfied that, if any of the Engliſh governors, or free merchants abroad, had thought it worth their attempting, they would not have admitted it (and I can't call to mind of any experiment being made in my time); for whatever the gentlemen in England may think of the matter, I am well ſatisfied, that, amongſt the company's ſervants and free merchants abroad, there is not wanting men of abilities, fortunes, or inclinations, to trade to every creek or port in India, where there is but any proſpect of ſucceſs; which is to be done for leſs than half the expences by what is called country ſhips, than can be performed by ſhips from England. And, as an undeniable proof of the flouriſhing condition the private trade was in when I lived at Surat (and may be ſo ſtill for any thing I know to the contrary) I declare on my own certain knowlege, that, at that port only, it amounted to about 250,000 l. per annum. This I infert to ſhew what a ſpirit of trade reigns amongſt the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies. The author of the paragraphs in ſome public papers, on which I have made the foregoing remarks, deſires the candidates at the approaching general election to enquire into the matter, and to uſe their endeavours for laying the trade to the Eaſt-Indies open; and concludes the paragraph by ſaying, That, in a little time, the pariſhes might be diſcharged from the poor's tax: to which I reply, That I ſuppoſe the company at preſent employs as many ſhips to the Eaſt-Indies as is conſiſtent with prudence, and they all go out with their full loading of Europe cloth, &c. It is not at all unlikely, but that if the trade was open, there would for the firſt year or two be a greater quantity of woollen goods carried thither than what the company at preſent export; but, if the returns back did not anſwer, it cannot be expected that the profits on cloth out would bear any proportion to the expence of ſending a ſhip to the Eaſt-Indies: the difficulties of procuring cargoes for the return of the ſhips to England, is an article perhaps not much conſidered, or known properly to thoſe gentlemen who are not concerned in the trade to India; for, notwithſtanding that the company ſend orders to their governors, &c. abroad, a year at leaſt beforehand, of the tonnage they may expect out, and that the proper cargoes may be got ready againſt the ſhips expected in India arrive, yet it ſometimes happens that ſome of their ſhips are obliged to be employed a year or two in India, for want of a loading. When the company's orders reach India, their governors, &c. ſend for the black merchants, and contract with them to make the inveſtment, and generally advance a good part of what it will amount to for the carrying it on. In the pepper ſettlements, likewiſe, they frequently are under a neceſſity of advancing part of the money before the crop is gathered. If the king's governors were to be put in poſſeſſion of the company's garriſons and factories, the trade could not be ſupported or carried on, but by perſons on the ſpot having very conſiderable ſums of money by them, to buy up the pepper, as well as to advance money for the cloth inveſtment, otherwiſe the black merchants would quit the Engliſh bounds, and ſettle elſewhere. In ſuch caſe, I deſire to know what benefit our fortifications, &c. would be of?—As I have ſhewn the improbability of the India trade being carried on with ſucceſs without very great ſums being left there yearly, it next falls under conſideration who is to advance it; no private perſon is capable of doing it; and if it is to be the concern of ſeveral merchants in conjunction, pray what is that but a little new company, of which I doubt not but ſeveral would by degrees ſpring up, out of the ruins of the old, who would ſoon be at variance with each other, and prove each other's ruin: for the more bidders there are at any market, the greater price muſt they be obliged to give for the commodity they want: and when they diſpoſe of their Europe cloth, &c. they will be under as great a diſadvantage; for, when the India merchants have ſeveral warehouſes to go to at the ſame place, they will not be wanting to beat down the price, and our people muſt be content, eſpecially the moſt needy ones, to ſell their goods for the moſt the market will afford them, whether they get any thing by the ſale or not. It is well known, that, during the time the old and new Eaſt-India companies had each their factory at Surat, the price of the goods they wanted at that market roſe conſiderably, and that they frequently incenſed the country government againſt each other, of which they took advantage, and fleeced both in their turns.

I am now come to the laſt paragraph, wherein is recommended the incorporating the black merchants with the white, which has already been done by his Majeſty's moſt gracious charter; and thoſe that now live on the iſland of Bombay, or within the company's bounds at Bengal or Fort St George, are intitled to the ſame privileges and immunities, and governed by the ſame laws, as the Engliſh. If the ſcheme takes place, of the trade to India being laid open, ſome people

take upon them to advance, that the Engliſh reſiding in India will not only be able to defray their own charges (as if they had not done it hitherto) but give aſſiſtance towards paying off the national debt. This laſt is a noble thought, and breathes the true air of patriotiſm; but, to make the ſucceſs more certain, I beg leave to recommend the ſending out with the king's governors and officers, one million of the nation's caſh, to provide cargoes for the ſhips they may expect from England, and for trading from port to port in the Eaſt Indies; for there is no doubt but they will prove moſt excellent merchants. I have now finiſhed my remarks on what was publiſhed in regard to the Eaſt India company's not trading to Ethiopia, &c. and have likewiſe ſet forth ſome of the evils that I apprehend will accrue to this nation in caſe the company ſhould be aboliſhed; my deſign herein being an honeſt endeavour to undeceive the deceived.

Jeruſalem Coffee-Houſe. THO. RAMMELL.'

OVERISILL, in the United Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north-weſt by Frieſland, and part of the Zuyder Sea; on the weſt by that part of Guelderland called the Veluwe; on the ſouth by the county of Zutphen; on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Munſter; and on the north by the province of Groningen. The ſoil in many places is barren, being full of ſands, heaths, and marſhes; but, in ſome parts, they have good corn and paſture: it is the worſt peopled of any of the provinces, partly on account of it's barrenneſs, and becauſe their ſituation is not convenient for trade.

ZWOL ſtands on the river Aa, which falls here into the Vecht, and runs into the Zuyder ſea, making a channel, into which the tide flows, which advances the trade of the town: it conſiſts chiefly in timber, cattle fattened in the neighbouring paſtures, Bentheim ſtones, wool, corn, butter, and cheeſe.

CAMPEN ſtands on the Iſſel, a little above where it falls into the Zuyder Sea. It's trade is decayed of late, the harbour being ſo choaked up with ſand, that it does not admit large veſſels. It has two ſuburbs, inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen, there being plenty of fiſh in it's neighbourhood.

VOLLENHOVEN, on the Zuyder Sea, has a great market for corn from the Baltic.

BLOCKZYL, on the ſame ſea, at the mouth of the river Aa, is a place of conſiderable trade, and very populous: it's harbour will hold above 200 veſſels.

OXFORDSHIRE, an inland county of England, bounded with Buckinghamſhire on the eaſt; with Glouceſterſhire on the weſt; on the north, where it terminates in form of a cone, it has Northamptonſhire on one ſide, and Warwickſhire on the other; and, on the ſouth, it is ſeparated from Berkſhire; and is about 130 miles in circumference.

Fuel here is ſcarce, that it is commonly ſold by weight in the city of Oxford, and other towns in the north part of the ſhire. Though many parts of the country bear corn very well, it abounds moſt with meadows and paſtures.

The city of OXFORD ſtands at the conflux of the Charwel and Iſis, in a plentiful country: it's chief trade is in ſending malt by barges to London.

WOODSTOCK has a manufacture of fine ſteel chains for watches, and other things of poliſhed ſteel.

HENLEY UPON THAMES is a town of good wealth and building: it's chief trade is in malt, of which, and of other corn, it is thought above 300 carts are ſold here on ſome market-days; the inhabitants being generally mealmen, maltſters, and bargemen, who live by carrying corn and wood to London.

WHITNEY has a trade in ſpinning for the neighbouring clothiers; but it's greateſt manufacture is rugs and blankets, which laſt are commonly from 10 to 12 quarters wide, and ſo preferred before all others for their whiteneſs, that they have in a manner engroſſed the whole trade of the nation for that commodity. They have 150 looms almoſt continually employed in it, with above 3000 people, from eight years old and upwards; and it is ſaid 100 packs of wool are ſpent in it every week. They ſcour them in the river Windruſh, whoſe waters, ſome think, have a more abſterſive nitrous quality than others. They alſo make duffels here, which are a yard and ¼ wide, and exported to Virginia and New England, for cloathing the Indians. Cuts for hammocks, and tilt-cloths for bargemen, are likewiſe made here; and there is a great number of fellmongers in the town, who having dreſſed and ſtained their ſheep-ſkins, make them into jackets, breeches, &c.

BAMPTON lies on a river navigable by boats; and it's market is noted for the great quantity of ſellmonger's wares, as leather jackets, gloves, breeches, ſtockings, &c. brought hither from Whitney, and ſold here into Berkſhire, Wiltſhire, and Dorſetſhire, no town in England having ſuch a trade for theſe wares.

OYSTERS.

The hiſtory, the generation, and ordering of GREEN OYSTERS, commonly called COLCHESTER OYSTERS.

In the Month of May the oyſters caſt their ſpawn (which the dredgers call their ſpat) it is like to a drop of candle, and about the bigneſs of an half-penny.

The ſpat cleaves to ſtones, old oyſter-ſhells, pieces of wood, and ſuch-like things, at the bottom of the ſea, which they call cultch.

It is probably conjectured, that the ſpat in 24 hours begins to have a ſhell.

In the month of May the dredgers (by the law of the admiralty court) have liberty to catch all manner of oyſters, of what ſize ſoever.

When they have taken them, with a knife they gently raiſe the ſmall brood from the cultch, and then they throw the cultch in again, to preſerve the ground for the future, unleſs they be ſo newy ſpat that they cannot be ſafely ſevered from the cultch, in that caſe they are permitted to take the ſtone or ſhell, &c. that the ſpat is upon, one ſhell having many times 20 ſpats.

After the month of May, it is felony to carry away the cultch, and puniſhable to take any other oyſters, unleſs it be thoſe of ſize, that is to ſay, about the bigneſs of an half-crown piece, or when the two ſhells, being ſhut, a ſair ſhilling will rattle between them.

The places where theſe oyſters are chiefly catched, are called the Pont, Burnham, Malden, and Colne waters, the latter taking it's name from the river of Colne, which paſſeth by Colne-Cheſter, gives the name to that town, and runs into a creek of the ſea at a place called the Hythe, being the ſuburbs of the town.

This brood, and other oyſters, they carry to creeks of the ſea at Brickle Sea, Merſey, Langs, Fringrego, Wivenho, Toleſbury, and Salt-Coaſt, and there throw them into the channel, which they call their beds, or layers, where they grow and ſatten, and, in two or three years, the ſmalleſt brood will be oyſters of the ſize aforeſaid.

Thoſe oyſters which they would have green, they put into pits about three feet deep, in the ſalt marſhes, which are overflowed only at ſpring tides, to which they have ſluices, and let out the ſalt water until it is about a foot and a half deep.

Theſe pits, from ſome quality in the ſoil co-operating with the heat of the ſun, will become green, and communicate their colour to the oyſters that are put into them, in four or five days, though they commonly let them continue there ſix weeks or two months, in which time they will be of a dark green.

To prove that the ſun operates in the greening, Toleſbury pits will green only in ſummer; but that the earth hath the greater power, Brickle Sea pits green both winter and ſummer: and, for a further proof, a pit within a foot of a greening pit will not green; and thoſe that did green very well, will in time loſe their quality.

The oyſters, when the tide comes in, lie with their hollow ſhell downwards, and, when it goes out, they turn on the other ſide; they remove not from their place unleſs in cold weather, to cover themſelves in the ouſe.

The reaſon of the ſcarcity of oyſters, and conſequently of their dearneſs, is, becauſe they are, of late years, bought up by the Dutch.

There are great penalties, by the admiralty court, laid upon thoſe that fiſh out of thoſe grounds which the court appoints, or that deſtroy the cultch, or that take any oyſters that are not of ſize, or that do not tread under their feet, or throw upon the ſhore, a fiſh which they call a five fingers, reſembling a ſpur-rowel, becauſe that fiſh gets into the oyſters when they gape, and ſucks them out.

The reaſon why ſuch a penalty is ſet upon any that ſhall deſtroy the cultch, is becauſe they find that, if that be taken away, the ouſe will increaſe, and then muſcles and cockles will breed there, and deſtroy the oyſters, they having not whereon to ſtick their ſpat.

The oyſters are ſick after they have ſpat; but in June and July they begin to mend, and in Auguſt they are perfectly well. The male oyſter is black-ſick, having a black ſubſtance in the fin: the female white-ſick (as they term it) having a milky ſubſtance in the fin. They are ſalt in the pits, ſalter in the layers, but ſalteſt at ſea.

There are various other ſpecies of oyſters, which are ſo well known, that it is needleſs to enlarge upon this article.

The LAWS of ENGLAND in regard to OYSTERS.

I. Stat. 10 Geo. II. cap. 30. § 2. All oyſters imported from France ſhall be rated at 7d. per buſhel ſtrike-meaſure, according to the Wincheſter corn-buſhel, and ſhall pay the old ſubſidy according to that rate, and not according to the values affirmed by the importers.

II. Sect. 3. Where the ſaid oyſters are ſubject to the further ſubſidy, the one-third ſubſidy, the two-thirds ſubſidy, the additional impoſt, or the duty payable upon goods imported from France, according to the values ſet thereon for the old ſubſidy, the ſame ſhall be paid according to the values ſet thereon for the old ſubſidy aforeſaid, and not according to the oath of the importer.

III. Sect. 4. Upon exportation of the ſaid oyſters, the duties ſhall not be drawn back or allowed.

IV. Sect. 5. The ſeveral duties upon the ſaid oyſters ſhall be paid, or ſecured, by ſuch ways, and under ſuch penalties, &c. as are mentioned in the ſeveral acts of parliament which granted or continued the ſame.

THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS CONTINUED FROM LETTER N, WITH REGARD TO OFFENCES AGAINST THE STATUTES.

OFFENCES againſt penal ſtatutes may be proſecuted, tried, &c. by way of action, &c. before juſtices of aſſize, niſi prius, goal-delivery, oyer and terminer, or juſtices of peace for the county, &c. where committed. 21 Jac. I. c. 4. § 1.

———Informer or plaintiff not proving the offence by evidence to the jury, the defendant to be found not guilty. 21 Jac. I. c. 4. § 2.

WITH REGARD TO OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.—Not to obtain their offices for gift, favour or affection, but for deſert, as being of the beſt and moſt lawful men, and ſufficient to their eſtimation and knowledge. 12 Rich. II. c. 2. § 1.

———Not to have their offices for life on term of years, but during the ſovereign's pleaſure only; and the ſaid officers to remain in his hands, under the government of the treaſury: And,

———LETTERS PATENTS, charters, or grants, made otherwiſe are void. 14 Rich. II. § 1. and 17. Rich. II. c. 5. § 1. and 1 Hen. IV. c. 13. § 1. and 20 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 0. and 31 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 1.

———To reſide by themſelves, or their ſufficient deputies, at the ſeveral head ports, members and creeks, on penalty of 100l. loſs of office, and impriſonment. 1 Hen. IV. c. 13. § 1. and 14 Hen. IV. c. 20. § 1. and 13 Hen. IV. c. 5. § 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. § 8. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 14.

———No perſon may bargain or ſell any office, or the deputation thereof, or any part thereof, nor receive any money, fee, or reward, or any promiſe, agreement, or aſſurance for any office in the cuſtoms, upon penalty of forfeiting the place by the ſeller, and buyer to be adjudged incapable to enjoy the ſame, and the bargain, ſale, &c. to be void. 5 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 16. § 2, 3.

———Or their deputies or clerks, not to have any ſhips of their own, nor to freight any ſhips, nor to buy or ſell any merchandize, nor to have any wharfs or keys, nor hold any common hoſteries, or taverns, nor to be factors for any merchant, denizen or alien, or hoſt to any merchant alien, on forfeiture of 40l. 14 Rich. II. c. 10. § 1. and 4 Hen. IV. c. 21. § 1. and 11 Hen. IV. c. 2. § 1. and 20 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 1.

———No perſon to be cuſtomer, comptroller, or ſearcher in any port, where he is common officer, or deputy to ſuch common officer, upon forfeiture of 40 l. for every half year he executes both offices. 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. § 1.

———Two of the commiſſioners firſt named in the commiſſion are, before the chancellor, or chief baron of the Exchequer, or maſter of the Rolls; and every other of the commiſſioners, patent-officers, their deputies, clerks, or ſervants, and all other officers of the cuſtoms in the port of London, are, before any two of the ſaid commiſſioners, upon their admiſſion, to take their corporal oaths for the true and faithful execution of their truſts and employments, to the beſt of their knowledge and power, and that they will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, except their ſalaries, and what is allowed them from the crown, or their regular fees eſtabliſhed by law. 6 and 7 W. and M. c. 1. § 5, 6.

———Officers in the OUT-PORTS at their admiſſion to take the like oath before two juſtices of the peace.

———Refuſal or neglect of taking ſuch oath, is forfeiture of office.

———The taking of ſuch oath to be certified to the next general quarter ſeſſions. 6 and 7 W. and M. c. 1. § 5, 6.

———Deputies, clerks, and ſervants before employed in the cuſtoms, are to take their corporal oaths before the commiſſioners and principal officers in the port of London, or the principal officers in the out-ports, or any two of them, for the true and faithful execution and diſcharge of their truſt and employments, to the beſt of their knowledge and power, which oaths are to be entered and regiſtered in the cuſtom-houſes of the reſpective ports where the perſons are employed. 13 and 14 Car. 2. c. 11. § 33.

——— In England.---To receive the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper, according to the uſage of the church of England, in ſome public church, upon a Lord's day, within three months after admiſſion, under the penalties, forfeitures, and diſabilities as in article 16. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 24.

———A certificate thereof, under the hands of the miniſter and churchwardens, muſt be produced in the court where the oaths mentioned in the following article are directed to be taken; and there confirmed by the oaths of two creditable witneſſes at the leaſt. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 3.

———At any time before the end of the next term, or general quarter-ſeſſions, after admiſſion, are to take and ſubſcribe the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy and abjuration (in the words preſcribed by 1 Geo. I. cap. 13.) if they reſide within London or Weſtminſter, or within 30 miles thereof, in the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common-Pleas, or Exchequer, or elſe at the general quarter-ſeſſion of the county, &c. where they reſide, between the hours of nine and twelve in the forenoon, upon forfeiture of office, unleſs it be in inheritance, and a deputy be appointed, who qualifies himſelf, and is approved by his majeſty under his privy-ſignet. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2, 4, 5. and 1 Ann. c. 22. § 5. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 3, 9, 10, 20, 29. and 2 Geo. II. c. 31. § 3, 4.

———Executing their office after the expiration of the time, without compliance, are diſabled to ſue in courſe of law, or to be guardian to any child, or executor, or adminiſtrator to any perſon, and rendered incapable of any legacy, or deed of gift, or of enjoying any office, or of voting for members of parliament, and to forfeit 500l. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2, 4, 5. and 1 Ann, c. 22. § 5. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 3, 9, 10, 20, 29. and 2 Geo. II. c. 31. § 3, 4.

———But upon compliance, after forfeiture, may be capable of a new grant either of the ſaid office, or any other, if not granted to, or enjoyed by another perſon. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 14. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 16, 27.

———Perſons not bred up in Popiſh religion, and profeſſing themſelves to be Popiſh recuſants, ſuffering their children to be educated in the ſaid religion, are incapable of any office. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 8, 9.

———Such children likewiſe incapable, 'till they are converted to the church of England, and have taken the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy, and ſubſcribed a declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, before the juſtices of the peace, at the quarter-ſeſſions, and have received the ſacrament after the uſage of the church of England, and obtained a certificate thereof under the hands of two or more of the ſaid juſtices. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 8, 9.

WITH REGARD TO SCOTLAND.

———IN SCOTLAND.—To take and ſubſcribe the oaths of allegiance and abjuration, and ſubſcribe the aſſurance, in the court of ſeſſion, juſticiary, exchequer, or quarter-ſeſſions, within three months after admiſſion, under the ſame penalties, forfeitures, and diſabilities, as the officers in England. 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 4, 5, 9, 10, 16, 20, 29.

———The deputations or authorities granted to collectors, ſurveyors, or other inferior officers of the cuſtoms, not void by the death or removal of the commiſſioners who granted them. 12 Ann, c. 8. § 13.

———Taking a bribe, or conniving at a falſe entry of any goods, to the prejudice of his majeſty, or ſuffering prohibited goods to paſs, are incapable of any office for the future, and to forfeit 100 l. and the perſon giving the bribe, or offering any bribe, whether it is accepted or not, to forfeit 50l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 19. and 9 Geo. II. c. 35. § 24.

———But the offenders revealing their offences within two months, to the treaſurer of England, the chancellor, under-treaſurer, or barons of the Exchequer, are to be acquitted. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 20.

———Illegally detaining goods, or neglecting or refuſing to make repayments and allowances, or after notice given, not giving out and executing their warrant, liable to double coſts and damages. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 34.

———Or their deputies, may go on board any ſhips, and there remain 'till all the goods be diſcharged. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 4.

———Upon oath made before the lord treaſurer, or any of the barons of the Exchequer, or the chief magiſtrate of the place, that goods liable to duties have been landed or conveyed away without due entry, they may iſſue out a warrant to enable any officers of the cuſtoms, with the aſſiſtance of a ſheriff, juſtice of the peace, or conſtable (within one month after offence committed) to enter into any houſe in the day time; and in caſe of reſiſtance, to break them open, and to ſeize the ſaid goods. 12 Car. II. c. 19. § 12.

———The information upon ſuch houſe falſe, the party injured may recover full coſts and damages againſt the informer. 12 Car. II. c. 19. § 4.

Authorized by writ of aſſiſtant out of the court of exchequer, may in the day-time (at any time after the offence) with a conſtable, &c. enter any houſe, ſhop, &c. and in caſe of reſiſtance, break open doors, cheſts, &c. in order to ſeize and bring away prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, and ſecure them in his majeſty's ſtorehouſe of the port. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 5.

———Forcibly hindered, affronted, abuſed, beaten, or wounded in the due execution of their office, the next juſtice of the peace, or other magiſtrate, may commit the offender to priſon, till the next quarter-ſeſſions; when the juſtices may puniſh him by fine, not exceeding 100 l. and the ſaid offender is to remain in priſon 'till diſcharged of the fine and impriſonment by the court of exchequer, or he diſcovers the perſon that ſet him on work. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 6.

———Eight or more armed perſons, tumultuouſly aſſembled, ſo offending, to be tranſported to the Britiſh plantations for any term not exceeding ſeven years. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 34.

OYS

———Such offenders returning into Great-Britain, or Ireland, before the expiration of the ſaid term, to ſuffer as felons. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 35.

———Offenders diſcovering two or more of their accomplices to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, within two months, are to be acquitted, and to receive 40 l. for each, to be paid by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, upon a certificate of their conviction, under the hand of the judge or juſtice of the court. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 36, 38.

———The like, beſides other rewards and advantages, for other perſons diſcovering within three months. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 37.

———A member of the houſe of commons may not, by himſelf or deputy, or any other perſon in truſt for him, enjoy or execute any office relating to the cuſtoms, upon penalty of being incapable of ſitting or voting in the ſaid houſe. 12 and 13 W. III. c. 10. § 87, 88. and 6 Ann, c. 7. § 25.

———May not in any manner endeavour to perſuade or diſſuade any elector in his vote for the choice of a member to ſerve in parliament, upon the penalty of 100l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh, and incapacity to hold any office under his majeſty. 12 and 13 W. III. c. 10. § 89.

———Cuſtomer and comptrollers to take bonds from, and give oaths to gentlemen or officers in the army, going over ſea to ſerve foreign princes, that they will not turn papiſts, nor enter into conſpiracies againſt his majeſty; receiving for every bond 6 d. and to return a regiſter thereof yearly into the exchequer, upon forfeiture of 5 l. for every bond, and 20 s. for every oath not certified. 3 Jac. I. c. 4. § 19, 20, 21.

———Granting a warrant for, or ſuffering any of the enumerated goods from the plantations, to be carried to any other country, until firſt landed in Great-Britain, forfeit their places, and the value of the goods. 15 Car. II. c. 7. § 9.

———Or other razing, counterfeiting, or falſifying any cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, certificate, or other cuſtom-houſe, forfeit 100l. and ſuch diſpatch to be void. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 8.

———Granting a falſe coaſt-certificate, forfeit their office, and 50 l. to be impriſoned a year without bail, and to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the cuſtoms. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. § 5. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 8.

———Viz. Cuſtomers, not mentioning the colour, length, content, weight, and value of foreign goods in coaſt-certificates, are to forfeit their office, and to be fined at the king's pleaſure. 3 Hen. VII. c. 3. § 1.

———Viz. Cuſtomers and collectors of the cuſtoms, within ten days notice from the king, or ſix of his privy-council, are to declare what money due to the king is in their hands, and to pay the ſame when commanded, upon forfeiture of office. 7 Edw. VI. c. 1. § 13.

———Viz. Cuſtomers, upon yielding their accounts in the exchequer, to be ſworn thereto. 5 Hen. IV. c. 20. § 1.

———Viz. Cuſtomers, collectors, and comptrollers, concealing the cuſtoms duly entered and paid, forfeit treble the value of the goods, and are to make fine and ranſom. 4 Hen. VI. c. 3. § 1. and 18 Eliz. c. 9. § 5.

———Viz. Collectors detaining public money, are to pay intereſt for the ſame, after the rate of 12 l. per cent. per annum, with treble damages to the perſon grieved, and to be diſmiſſed. 20 Car. II. c. 2. § 1.

———Viz. Collectors, diverting or miſapplying the money received on the branches therein appropriated, are to be diſmiſſed, rendered incapable to ſerve his majeſty, and to forfeit double the ſum diverted or miſapplied, and 12 per cent. intereſt. 9 Ann. c. 21. § 14.

———Appointed for managing, collecting, &c. the reſpective branches, refuſing or neglecting to pay the monies into the Exchequer, or diverting or miſapplying any part thereof, are to forfeit their offices, aud to be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty in any place of profit and truſt, and to forfeit double the value of the ſum diverted or miſapplied.

———Collectors detaining any monies received for any of the ſaid duties, are to be diſmiſſed, and to be charged with intereſt at 12 l. per cent. per annum, and be liable to treble damages. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. § 42. and 4 Ann. c. 6. § 10. 5.---c. 19. § 12 and 5.---c. 19. § 12 and 6.---c. 11 § 7 and 8.---c. 4. § 12. and 8.---c. 7. § 37. and 9.---c. 6. § 20. and 9.---c. 11. § 48 and 9.---c. 12. § 29. and 10.---c. 19. § 122. and 10.---c. 26. § 76. and 12.---c. 9. § 32. and 6. Geo. I. c. 11. § 22. and 10. Geo. I. c. 10. § 45.

———Viz. Cuſtomers, collectors, receivers, &c.---All lands, tenements, profits, commodities, and hereditaments, which any officer, whoſe whole receipt from the beginning, or yearly receipt, exceeds 300 l. hath or ſhall have, whilſt he remains accountable, ſhall be liable to the payment of his arrearages or debts, and may be put in execution for the ſame, by way of extent. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 1, 10.

———If arrearages are not paid within ſix months after the account be finiſhed, or debt known, the king may, by letters patent, make ſale of ſo much of the lands, &c. as will ſatisfy the debt. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 2, 3.

———Such ſale may be made, though the officer be dead, if the account be ſtated, or debt known within eight years after his death; unleſs ſuch officer had a quietus eſt, or a diſcharge in his life-time. 27 Eliz. c. 3. § 2, 3.

———Lands, &c. purchaſed after the perſon became an officer, if for his own uſe, though in the name of another perſon, yet to be liable to the crown's debts, 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 5.

———The crown's debts being fully, or in part ſatisfied, by ſale of the lands, &c. the officers ſureties are to be diſcharged accordingly. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 15. and 27 Eliz. c. 3. § 5.

———Who ſit above ſtairs in the cuſtom-houſe, their time of attendance,

———To diſpatch merchants in their turns.---Rule 13th at the end of letter A.

———Below ſtairs, their attendance.

———Embezzling any lodged in any warehouſe in their cuſtody, are to forfeit double the value, and full coſts. 8 Ann, c. 13. § 27.

———May not exact unlawful fees.---Vide FEES.

———But may take ſuch recompence for extraordinary ſervice and attendance at times and places not required by law, as the commiſſioners in the port of London, and the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller of the out-ports, or any two of them, ſhall determine. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. § 15.

———of the Exciſe.---Attempting to corrupt them, the penalty is 500 l. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. § 40.

———Or their aſſiſtants, being reſiſted or moleſted in the execution of their duty, by perſons paſſing armed with prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, may oppoſe force to force in defence of themſelves, and execution of their duty; and if apprehended for beating, maiming, or killing any perſon ſo reſiſting them, are to be admitted to bail. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. § 35.

———Either by patent, grant, or otherwiſe, are not void by the demiſe or death of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, but are to continue in force for the ſpace of ſix months after, unleſs ſooner ſuperſeded, or made void by the ſucceſſor: but the officers not required to take any oaths, de novo, in reſpect of being continued for ſuch ſix months only. 1 Ann. c. 8. § 2. and 4. and 5 Ann, c. 8. § 0. and 6 Ann. c. 7. § 8, 18. 1 Geo. II. c. 5. § 2. and c. 23. § 7.

———Of the cuſtoms, exciſe, and ſtamp duties, ſeverally continued for ever; with a proper number of commiſſioners, and a comptroller, in each of them. 9 Ann. c. 21. § 12.

———Of profit, and all other payments from the crown, are liable to a deduction not exceeding 6 d. in the pound, which his majeſty may, by warrant under the great ſeal of Great-Britain, privy-ſeal, or royal ſign manuel, cauſe to be made, out of all ſalaries, fees, wages, and other payments, or any arrearages thereof from the crown, for the uſe of his majeſty's civil liſt. 7 Geo. I. c. 27. § 19. and 11 Geo. I. c. 17. § 19. and 12 Geo. I. c. 2. § 26.

P.

PACKERS. This is eſteemed a very reputable trade, though they are really what their title expreſſes, packers as well as preſſers of all ſorts of bale-goods (intended for exportation) for the great trading companies and merchants, for which they are anſwerable, if they ſhould happen to receive any damage through bad package: beſides this, ſeveral of them are conſiderable dealers.

PAINTERS. There are four ſorts of painting, which are properly called trades.

1. Houſe-painting, which is moſtly plain work within and without.

2. Ship-painting, which is alſo for the moſt part plain, but with a great deal of carved-work, and gilding ſometimes.

3. Sign-painting, which is moſtly rough figure-work: there are alſo ſhop-keepers, who are alſo a ſort of carvers and joiners, and make and ſell all ſorts of wooden ſigns; but there are ſome alſo of pewter, which is the pewterer's work to caſt, and the ſign-painter's to draw.

4. Coach-painting, which is partly plain, and partly in figures, and ſome of it very curious: there are alſo arms-painters, which are much uſed on coaches, &c. Houſe and ſhip-painter's work is by far the moſt populous, but the heavieſt and moſt unwholſome.

PAINTING.

Of Picture-Painting.

Whoever would apply himſelf to painting, ſays that celebrated Italian painter Leonardo da Vinci, muſt, in the firſt place, learn perſpective*: this will enable him to diſpoſe things in their proper places, and to give the due dimenſions to each: having done this, he muſt learn to deſing; chuſing for that purpoſe ſome able maſter, who, at the ſame time, may give him an inſight into the colours of figures: he ought then to conſult nature, to confirm himſelf in what he has already learnt; and, laſtly, let him apply himſelf to the ſtudy and imitation of the greateſt maſters, in order to get a habit of reducing what he has learnt into practice.

* That perſpective is an eſſential requiſite in a good painter, is atteſted by all our moſt eminent artiſts, and is moreover confirmed by almoſt every author, who has wrote with judgment upon painting; nay, the very term painting implies perſpective. For, to draw a good picture, is to draw the repreſentation of nature, as it appears to the eye; and to draw the perſpective repreſentation of any object, is to draw the repreſentation of that object, as it appears to the eye: therefore, the terms painting and perſpective ſeem to be ſynonimous, though I know there is a critical difference between the words. Yet this will ſerve, at leaſt, to ſhew the near alliance between painting and perſpective; that if the one doth not comprehend the other, perſpective, however, may be ſaid to be the baſis upon which painting is built; and therefore, he who attempts to paint a picture, without having a general knowlege of it, will always wander in the mazes of uncertainty, be ſubject to the greateſt errors, and his works, like thoſe of Boticello, will be the leſs regarded. And what is ſaid of the uſefulneſs of perſpective to painters in particular, may be applied to artiſts in general; ſuch as engravers, architects, ſtatuaries, chaſers, carvers, &c.

To deſign well, and to diſpoſe the lights and ſhadows of figures ſuitably to their ſituations, being the moſt conſiderable parts of this art, and thoſe on which the greateſt ſtreſs depends; it is in theſe that a painter, who would make any great proficiency, ought principally to exerciſe himſelf.

Of all animal operations, we plainly perceive ſight to be the moſt quick: it moves with incredible velocity, and diſcovers a thouſand objects in an inſtant. But then it ſees them very confuſedly, and, in effect, does not diſcern above one at a time. For inſtance, if you glance your eye over a page of this book, you will immediately perceive it full of different characters; but what theſe characters are, or what is intended by them, will be ſtill a ſecret: inſomuch, that to gain any determinate knowlege of what you have ſeen, you muſt conſider them by piece-meal, forming the letters into words, and thoſe again into periods; ſo a man who would mount to the top of a building, is content to go up ſtep by ſtep, as knowing it impoſſible otherwiſe to reach it: in the ſame manner, a perſon who would attain to ſkill in painting, muſt begin with the parts of objects, before he can proceed to repreſent them entire; and muſt take them in order, never advancing to a ſecond, before he has got a good habit of doing the firſt: for, otherwiſe, his time will be thrown away, or at leaſt, his advances rendered extremely ſlow and imperceptible. He muſt further inure himſelf to work with patience and ſteadineſs, always remembering, that a ſlow diligence will out-ſtrip a haſty negligence.

Some people have a fancy for painting, who yet want the neceſſary diſpoſitions tqereto: this is eaſily diſcoverable in children, who amuſe themſelves with drawing imperfect ſketches, never troubling themſelves to ſhadow any thing they undertake.

A painter deſerves but a ſmall ſhare of reputation, who only ſucceeds in ſome one branch of his art; as for inſtance, in painting a nudity, a head, drapery, animals, landſkips, &c. ſince the heavieſt genius, by inceſſant plodding on the ſame thing, cannot fail, at length, of performing it well.

A painter muſt therefore be univerſal, and apply himſelf to the ſtudy and conſideration of all objects; but ſo as to attend in a particular manner to thoſe parts of each, which are the moſt beautiful and perfect: by this means his imagination will become like a mirrour, repreſenting every thing laid before it, in it's proper character and colour.

But further, a painter, who is not equally pleaſed with all parts of his art, will never become univerſal. Boticello, for inſtance, had a peculiar pique againſt landſkips, and thought them much beneath his application; the effect of which was, that being a very ſorry landſkip painter, his merit, in other matters, was the leſs regarded. It was a ſaying of his, that a palet full of colours being thrown againſt the wall, would leave a ſtain behind it properly enough repreſenting a landſkip. It is true, indeed, that by help of a ſtrong fancy, one may ſpy heads, battles, rocks, ſeas, clouds, woods, &c. in a wall ſo ſmeared; it being here, as in the ringing of bells, where every body is at liberty to make them ſay what he pleaſes.

But then, though ſuch a fortuitous mixture of colours may ſtart a hint, or give riſe to a new invention, yet it will not furniſh the leaſt aſſiſtance towards the execution, or finiſhing any thing that is occaſioned.

A painter who would appear univerſal, and pleaſe people of different taſtes, muſt ſet off ſeveral figures in the ſame piece, both with very deep and very ſoft ſhadows; taking care by the way, to make the reaſon of ſuch diverſity apparent.

A painter ought to have his mind continually at work, and to make remarks on every object, worthy of notice, that he meets. He ought even to ſtand ſtill, in order to view them with the greater attention; and afterwards to form rules on what he has obſerved, with regard to lights, ſhadows, place, and other circumſtances. Let him make himſelf a maſter of the theory, before he meddles with the practice, and be very curious in comparing the limbs and junctures of different animals with one another; taking minutes of every thing he learns, the better to fix them in his memory.

A painter who has no doubts in his ſtudies, makes but a ſmall progreſs in his art; it being an infallible ſign, where all this appears eaſy, that the workman is inſufficient, and the work above his pitch. But when once a painter has got a juſt ſenſe of the whole difficulties of his work, every new reflection he makes, will give him new ſtrength to ſurmount them; inſomuch, that if he perſeveres in it, every day will contribute ſomething towards his improvement and perfection.

Let a novice in the firſt place exerciſe his hand, in copying the deſigns of ſome able maſter; after he has got a habit of doing this, he may proceed to relievos, deſigning after them with proper application.

The firſt ſketch of a hiſtory piece muſt be very ſlight, and the figures very imperfectly formed, your principal regard being to the juſtneſs of their ſituation: having adjuſted the

ordonnance * of the piece, you may finiſh the members at your leiſure.

* Ordonnance is the placing regularly the figures, in reſpect of the whole compoſure; or the particular diſpoſition of figures, as to the different groupes, maſſes, contraſts, decorum, aſpect, and ſituation.

Whenever either your own reflection, or the information of your friends, points out any fault in your work, correct it immediately; leſt in expoſing the piece to the world, you expoſe your own weakneſs: nor flatter yourſelf, that what reputation you loſe by letting it eſcape, may be retrieved in your next performance. It is not with painting as with muſic, which dies in the breath that gives it birth: painting is of a more durable nature, and whatever over-ſights of this kind you make public, will be ſtanding reproaches to you ever afterwards.

Nothing deceives us more than the judgment we form of our own works, nor are the opinions of our friends much more to be relied upon: a friend is, in effect, a ſecond ſelf, and therefore to be held in the ſame degree of ſuſpicion. It is the critic of our enemies, that we ought to form ourſelves by: this is uſually ſincere, which is more than I can ſay, either for myſelf or my friend.

Among other things, I ſhall not ſcruple to deliver a new method of aſſiſting the invention; which, though trifling in appearance, may yet be of conſiderable ſervice in opening the mind, and putting it upon the ſcent of new thoughts; and it is this; if you look at ſome old wall covered with dirt, or the odd appearance of ſome ſtreaked ſtones, you may diſcover ſeveral things like landſkips, battles, clouds, uncommon * attitudes, humourous faces, draperies, &c. out of this confuſed map of objects, the mind will be furniſhed with abundance of deſigns and ſubjects perfectly new.

* Attitude implies little more than action and poſture; though it is ſometimes uſed, where neither of theſe would be proper: for inſtance, action is not applicable to a dead corpſe: nor do we ſay, that ſuch a figure is in a handſome poſture, but in a graceful attitude or diſpoſition,

I have often found it for uſe to recollect the ideas of what I had conſidered in the day, after I was retired to bed, and incompaſſed with the ſilence and obſcurity of the night. For by thus repeating the contours, and other parts of figures which require a cloſer attention, their images are ſtrongly impreſſed on the memory, and familiarized to the mind.

If you intend to become a proficient, be ſure never to deſign any thing ſlightly, or in haſte; but take time to conſider, with regard to lights, which parts receive the ſtrongeſt, and, in ſhadows, which are the deepeſt; obſerve how theſe mingle together, and in what quantity, ſtill comparing the one with the other. As to the contours, conſider towards what part they are to be directed, what quantity of light and ſhadow meet within the lines, where they are more or leſs ſtrong, larger or ſmaller; and, laſtly, take care that your lights and ſhadows do not terminate abruptly, but that they fall ſoftly into one another, and at laſt loſe themſelves inſenſibly, like ſmoke. After you have once habituated yourſelf to be thus punctual and exact in your deſigns, expedition and diſpatch will come a-pace.

While a painter is employed either in deſigning or painting, he ought to liſten with attention to the different ſentiments which different people entertain of his performance: there being no body, how ignorant in painting ſoever, but who underſtands the ſhape of a man, and can readily tell whether he be hump-back'd, crooked-legg'd, have any thing monſtrous in his hand, or any the like blemiſh: why may not a perſon then, who can ſo well diſtinguiſh the defects of nature, be allowed to judge of thoſe of arts?

It is ridiculous in a painter to confide ſo far in his memory, as think it capable of retaining all he has ſeen and obſerved in nature: the memory is a faculty too weak, as well as too narrow for that purpoſe; and the only ſure way is to copy, as much as poſſible, from nature herſelf.

A painter loſes a great deal of his dignity, by confining his genius, and never venturing out of his ordinary courſe: there are ſome, for inſtance, who apply themſelves to the painting of nudities; but ſo as ſtill ſtrictly to obſerve the ſame proportions, and never introducing the leaſt variety. Whereas, they ſhould conſider, that a man may be well proportioned, whether he be thick or ſlender, ſhort or tall. By diſregarding this diverſity of proportions, a painter ſeems to caſt all his figures in the ſame mould, which is an error of the firſt magnitude.

A painter well acquainted with the theory of his art, may, without any great difficulty, render himſelf univerſal. For all terreſtial animals have this in common with each other, that their members are compoſed of muſcles, nerves, and bones; the only difference between them lying in their different lengths and thickneſſes, as is demonſtrated by the anatomiſts. As to aquatic animals, in which indeed there is a great variety, I think a painter who is well adviſed, will not trouble himſelf about them.

Thoſe who venture on the practice, without firſt qualifying themſelves in the theory, are like mariners putting out to ſea without either helm or compaſs, ignorant what courſe to take. The practice ought always to be built on a rational theory, of which perſpective is both the guide and the gate, and without which, it is impoſſible to ſucceed, either in deſigning, or in any of the arts depending thereon.

A painter ſhould never tie himſelf to imitate the * manner of any other; his buſineſs being not to repreſent the works of men, but thoſe of nature; who at the ſame time is ſo abundant in her productions, that it is ridiculous to have recourſe to her ſervants, who have nothing but what they borrowed from her, when the miſtreſs herſelf is ſo ready to entertain them.

* Manner is the habitude that painters have acquired, not only in the management of the pencil, but alſo in the three principal parts of painting, viz. invention, deſign, and colouring: it is by the manner in painting that we judge this piece to be Titian's, Tintoret's, or Vinci's hand; as by the ſtile in writing, we gueſs this book to be this or that author's.

To deſign after nature, or the life, you muſt be removed from the object, three times it's magnitude; taking care, as you draw each ſtroke, to obſerve what parts of your * model meet under the principal, or perpendicular line.

* The model is generally taken for any natural object that preſents itſelf to be drawn; in particular, it ſignifies a ſtatue, nudity, or the like, ſet up in the academies, to be copied by the novices in painting.

To judge of the goodneſs of a picture, drawing, or print, ſays Mr Richardſon, it is neceſſary to eſtabliſh to ourſelves a ſyſtem of rules, to be applied occaſionally: theſe are no other than thoſe which he that is to give ſuch judgment, would have been directed by, had he been to have made, what now he is to judge of.

And theſe rules muſt be our own; whether as being the reſult of our own ſtudy and obſervation, or by others examined and approved by ourſelves.

To aſſiſt the judgment herein, the following rules have been laid down.

I. The ſubject muſt be finely imagined, and, if poſſible, improved in the painter's hands; he muſt think well as an hiſtorian, poet, philoſopher, or divine, and moreover as a painter, in making a wiſe uſe of all the advantages of his art, and finding expedients to ſupply it's defects.

II. The expreſſion muſt be proper to the ſubject, and the characters of the perſons. It muſt be ſtrong, ſo that the dumb-ſhew may be perfectly well, and readily underſtood. Every part of the picture muſt contribute to this end; colours, animals, draperies, and eſpecially the actions of the figures, and above all the airs of the heads.

III. There muſt be one principal light, and this, and all the ſubordinate ones, with the ſhadows and repoſes, muſt make one intire harmonious maſs; the ſeveral parts muſt be well connected and contraſted, ſo as the tout-enſemble muſt be grateful to the eye, as a good piece of muſick is to the ear. By this means the picture is not only more delightful, but better ſeen and comprehended.

IV. The drawing muſt be juſt; nothing muſt be flat, lame, or ill-proportioned, and theſe proportions ſhould vary according to the characters of the perſons drawn.

V. The colouring, whether gay or ſolid, muſt be natural, beautiful, and clean, and what the eye is delighted with, in ſhadows, as well as lights and middle tints.

VI. And whether the colours are laid on thick, or finely wrought, they muſt appear to be done by a light, and accurate hand.

Laſtly, nature muſt be the foundation that muſt be ſeen at the bottom; but nature muſt be raiſed and improved, not only from what is commonly ſeen, to what is but rarely, but even yet higher, from a judicious and beautiful idea in the painter's mind, ſo that grace and greatneſs may ſhine throughout; more or leſs, however, as the ſubject may happen to be. And herein conſiſts the principal excellency of a picture or drawing.

Theſe few plain rules being thoroughly comprehended and remembered, which may be done with a tolerable meaſure of good ſenſe, a little trouble in reading, and a good deal of obſervation on nature and pictures, and drawings of good maſters, may greatly contribute to enable a perſon to be a tolerable judge in theſe matters, as being derived from, and founded upon, reaſon; and though not deſtitute of abundant authority, yet neither borrowed from thence, or at all truſting to that for their ſupport.

For, whatever authorities there are for any propoſition, their value conſiſts in their being derived from reaſon, and they weigh with men of ſenſe in proportion only as they ſee they do ſo; they then become our own, and we have no occaſion to produce the author but the reaſon: or, (if that be obvious) leave it to be obſerved by the reader.

The matter would terminate here, though we had a book of rules for painting, ſaid to be written by Appelles himſelf, and it were allowed that what Appelles ſaid were infallibly true; for then, inſtead of ſaying, are theſe rules good, are they founded upon reaſon? the queſtion would only be, are they really of him? Their authority then will reſt, not upon the credit of Apelles, but upon the teſtimony of thoſe that ſay they are his. Which we ſhall not want, if we find the rules to be good, and if we do not, it will be inſufficient; and all this without the leaſt prejudice to the profound reſpect we have for Appelles, nay it is a neceſſary conſequence of it.

To judge of the degrees of goodneſs of a picture or drawing, it is neceſſary that the connoiſſeur ſhould be thoroughly acquainted, and perpetually converſant with the beſt. For how perfectly foever he may be maſter of the rules of the art, he will know that thoſe are like what divines call precepts of perfection; that is, they are given as what we ſhould endeavour to go by, as far as we are able. The beſt things we know will be the ſtandard by which we ſhall judge of thoſe, and all the reſt. Carlo Maratti and Guiſſeppe Chiari, will be a Raphael and Giulio Romano, to him who has never ſeen better; and then an inferior maſter will make a good Carlo. We have been ſurprized to obſerve what pleaſure ſome connoiſſeurs have taken, in what another looked upon with little, if not with contempt, 'till we have conſidered one was not ſo well acquainted with the works of the beſt maſters as the other, and that accounts for it ſufficiently.

All the different degrees of goodneſs in painting may be reduced to theſe three general claſſes. The mediocre, or indifferently good, the excellent, and the ſublime. The firſt is of a large extent, the ſecond much narrower, and the laſt ſtill more ſo. I believe moſt people have a pretty clear and juſt idea of the two former, the other is not ſo well underſtood; which we take to conſiſt of ſome few of the higheſt degrees of excellence in thoſe kinds, and parts of painting, which are excellent: the ſublime therefore muſt be marvellous and ſurprizing; it muſt ſtrike the mind powerfully, and captivate it irreſiſtably.

The ſublime may be confined to hiſtory and portrait-painting; and theſe muſt excel in grace and greatneſs, invention, or expreſſion. Michael Angelo's great ſtile intitles him to the ſublime, not his drawing; it is that greatneſs, and a competent degree of grace, and not his colouring, that makes Titian capable of it: as Corregio's grace, with a ſufficient mixture of greatneſs, gives this noble quality to his works. Vandyke's colouring nor pencil, though perfectly fine, would ever introduce him to the ſublime; it is his expreſſion, and that grace and greatneſs he poſſeſſed (the utmoſt that portrait-painting is capable of), that ſets ſome of his works in that exalted claſs; in which, on that account, he may, perhaps, take place of Raphael himſelf in that kind of painting, if that great man's fine and noble ideas carried him as much above nature then, as they did in hiſtory, where the utmoſt that can be done is commendable, a due ſubordination of characters being preſerved; and thus Vandyke's colouring and pencil, may be judged equal to that of Corregio, or any other maſter.

Remarks.

The management of the pencil, and the mixture of colours, with the knowlege of perſpective, and a habit of deſigning, wherewith moſt painters ſeem to content themſelves, make but a part of the art, according to the ſentiments of the moſt celebrated artiſts. To theſe the aſſiſtance of other arts muſt be called in; anatomy, optics, meterology, mechanics, &c. ſearching attentively into the power of nature, in order to form an art that may imitate her; and, from the depths of philoſophy, drawing means for the improvement of painting. It is not in painting alone, but in philoſophy likewiſe, that the moſt eminent have excelled their brethren of the pencil; nor does it appear improbable, but that it was from uncommon ſkill in the latter, to which, in great meaſure, they have owed their ſucceſs in the former. Theſe are two faculties that may be nearer a-kin, than every one, perhaps, is aware of; nor would there be any thing daring in the aſſertion, ſhould it be affirmed, that philoſophy is abſolutely neceſſary, by way of preliminary to painting.

To paint, it is allowed, is to imitate nature; but is not the knowlege of nature requiſite to the imitation of her beauties? Muſt it not be pleaſant to ſee men about to repreſent natural objects, who are unacquainted with the nature and properties of the objects to be repreſented? Quacks, indeed, there may be in painting, as well as in other profeſſions; but to become a regular painter, it is indiſpenſably neceſſary, that a man ſerve an apprenticeſhip to philoſophy.

We have people who pretend to cure diſeaſes, without knowing any thing of the animal œconomy, or of the powers of medicines; we have others, who would be thought to paint by the mere mechaniſm of a hand, and the motion of the pencil: but, as the college will never allow the former to be phyſicians, ſo there is no reaſon why the latter ſhould be complimented with the title of painters.

That this art requires ſuitable inſtitutions for it's advadcement and encouragement in this nation, may be naturally urged, if we conſider it only in the commercial light. For there may be great pecuniary advantages accrue therefrom, ſuch as ought to engage the attention of the mere merchant. If we had more regular artiſts, and in greater number, not only much money, which is now ſent to France and Italy, might be ſaved, but a very profitable exportation might be made of thoſe works that were not purchaſed by our own connoiſſeurs. If we conſider the great number of foreign ſtatues, paintings, and prints, that are brought into this kingdom, the prodigious price that is given for ſome, and the more than equitable price that is given for all; muſt not the conſideration ſuggeſt to us, that this article is highly diſadvantageous to the nation? We often hear of a ſum given for a ſingle piece, the work of an antient or foreign maſter, that equals the annual revenue of a gentleman's eſtate. And, ſometimes, the ignorance of the purchaſer, or the confident knavery of the ſeller, impoſes on us a copy of little value, inſtead of an original. And whatever is paid for one of theſe extravagant articles of luxury, more than it will ſell for again at a foreign market, is ſo much loſs to the common national ſtock, as well as to the private fortune of the immediate ſufferer.

That we have annually a great many of theſe loſing articles, will ſcarce be diſputed; and whatever one nation, by ſuch means, draws from another, muſt contribute proportionably to it's advantage. The ſmalleſt branch of trade, if carried on to our diſadvantage, muſt, in time, contribute to impoveriſh us, and enrich thoſe who deal with us on the beneficial ſide.

But, if the Britiſh artiſts became ſuperior to the French and Italian, and could raiſe a tribute on thoſe nations for any curious productions, we ſhould not only ſave all the balance againſt us on this account, but draw into the nation as much more to their diſadvantage. This would be adding continually to our wealth, and conſequently to our ſtrength and influence.

But what would this be, compared with the great influx of riches that would accompany perſons of diſtinction from foreign nations? Do we viſit Italy for the purity of it's religion, or ſuperiority of virtue and wiſdom? Or France for the freedom of it's government? An Italian or Frenchman will not ſay this, unleſs he be ignorant, and a bigot. Is it becauſe they are commercial nations, more than ourſelves? Neither can that be admitted. Why then is it, but becauſe the cities of Italy abound with temples and palaces, venerable and antient in themſelves, and enriched with all the profuſion of art by the greateſt maſters? But becauſe France is in the road to Italy, whom ſhe has robbed of many of her treaſures, and whom ſhe rivals in expenſive projects, though not in the beauty of execution. Had we as curious works of our own, in the ſame abundance, ſhould we be at ſo much expence, and, perhaps, loſs of time, to viſit thoſe of our neighbours? They who are loudeſt againſt the folly and abuſe of travel, can ſcarcely be of this opinion: there would be no pretence for the fops and fools, if the men of taſte and good ſenſe did not meet with ſome entertainment. Admitting, therefore, that the greateſt part of our travellers are of the former claſs, thoſe of the latter muſt, in this reſpect, always lead the faſhion. Travel will always be commendable in men of taſte and real curioſity, while neighbouring nations have theſe means of inſtruction or delight, which we are deficient in ourſelves: but could we only rival our neighbours in the elegant and polite arts (as we already confeſſedly do in literature) the ſame motive would not remain: the men of ſenſe would not waſte the time which they eſteem precious, and the grand tour of our petits maitres would not be juſtified by grave example.

The Lacedominians were certainly a brave, and hiſtory has called them a wiſe, people; yet they forbad travel to their youth, as it contributed, in their opinion, to ſoften and corrupt their manners. If we have not been already too much ſoftned and corrupted, the compariſons made betwixt former ages, and the preſent, are unjuſt. But do not all who make theſe compariſons, aſcribe the difference to the bad habits we have learned from foreigners, whom, in point of bravery, our anceſtors would have deſpiſed? Not only the cnlture of our lands, and the manufactures of our productions, but the arts of peace and war were known to thoſe anceſtors: what then do moſt of our young gentlemen learn? Are the dancing a minuet, and humming an Italian air, ſo great excellencies? Admitting they were, the care of the preſent age has provided maſters capable of teaching both, even at home. No body can ſay that we are not, in this and other reſpects, ſhameful to mention, ſufficiently Frenchified and Italianized. See the article Dancing Master.

All that we would aim at is, to ſpirit up our own country, as well to excel in the art of painting, as in all other the polite arts, which contribute either to the wealth, or to the delight or ornament of the nation; that we may at leaſt draw foreigners of merit and diſtinction into our own country, in the like proportion that they draw Britons of figure and worth into other countries. See the articles Design and Engraving.

PALATINATE of BAVARIA, or the UPPER PALATINATE, in the circle of Bavaria, in Germany, ſometimes

ſometimes called the Nortgow, from it's northern ſituation, in reſpect of the elector of Bavaria's other dominions. It is bounded by Voigtland in the circle of Upper Saxony on the north, by Bohemia and Auſtria on the eaſt, by the river Danube, which ſeparates it from the Danube of Bavaria on the ſouth, and by Swabia and part of Franconia on the weſt, being about 70 miles long and 40 broad; a mountainous, rocky country, but in ſome places their vallies produce good corn and paſture. They have alſo ſome vineyards, but their wine has a ſharp, unpleaſant taſte. In their hills are rich mines of copper, ſilver, and iron; and the forges and manufactories of iron, are very conſiderable in this country.

PALATINATE of the RHINE, ſituated in the circle of the Lower Rhine, in Germany, is bounded by the archbiſhoprics of Mentz and Triers on the north, by the circles of Franconia and Swabia on the eaſt, and by Alſatia and Lorrain on the ſouth and weſt, being upwards of 100 miles long, and from 50 to 70 broad. The Rhine, the Neckar, and other fine rivers running through it, contribute to render it one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt fruitful provinces of Germany; only unhappy in lying on the frontiers of France, whoſe princes have burnt and plundered this country, and demoliſhed it's fine towns ſeveral times during the wars. It is always obliged to ſubſiſt large armies of friends as well as enemies, whenever there happens a quarrel between France and the German princes. The revenues of the Palatinate ariſe by a toll on all veſſels going along the Rhine, Neckar, and other rivers; and from the duties on corn, wine, and other proviſions; the whole eſtimated at 300,000 l. per annum. That prince keeps up a body of 6 or 7000 men in time of peace, and in the late wars maintained 12,000 regular forces many years. There is a diſpute ſubſiſting between the elector Palatine and the elector of Hanover, about the titular office of arch-treaſurer of the empire.

PALM, a meaſure taken from the extent of the hand. The modern palm is different in different places where it obtains. —At Rome it contains 7 inches $\frac{1}{2}$: at Naples 8 inches: at Genoa 8 inches $\frac{4}{5}$: at Morocco and Fez, 7 inches $\frac{1}{3}$: in Languedoc and ſome other parts of France, 8 inches $\frac{1}{3}$.— The Engliſh palm is 3 inches. At Leghorn there are two kinds of palms, the one for woollen, the other for ſilks: the firſt one third ſhorter than the latter.

PALESTINE, a part of Aſiatic Turkey, is ſituated between 36 and 38 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 31 and 34 degrees of north latitude, bounded by mount Libanus, which divides it from Syria on the north, by mount Hermon, which ſeparates it from Arabia Deſerta on the eaſt, by the mountains of Sier and the deſerts of Arabia Petræa on the ſouth, and by the Mediterranean Sea on the weſt; ſo that it ſeems to have been extremely well ſecured againſt foreign invaſions. It was called Paleſtine, from the Philiſtines, who inhabited the ſea-coaſts. It was called alſo Judea, from Juda; and the Holy Land, from our Saviour's reſidence and ſufferings in it: and it is called Canaan, and the Promiſed Land, in the ſcriptures. It is 150 miles in length and upwards, and 80 in breadth; and, in the time of Solomon, it ſeems to have extended from the Mediterranean Sea to the river Euphrates. It is generally a fruitful country, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; and would be able to ſupply it's neighbours with corn and wine, as it did formerly, if the preſent inhabitants were as induſtrious. The country about Jeruſalem is the moſt mountainous and rocky; but theſe mountains feed great herds of cattle, abound in milk and honey, and produce excellent wine and olive-oil where they are cultivated, as the vallies between the mountains do good crops of corn.

PAPER, a thin flexible matter, uſually white to write upon, and other ſorts for divers other uſes.

Paper owes it's origin to the neceſſity that mankind were always under, to communicate their ſentiments when at a diſtance from one another, and to the deſire of tranſmitting their thoughts to poſterity. For this purpoſe they firſt thought of carving or painting upon the bark or leaves of trees, the characters which they uſed. The natives of America ſtill uſe the ſame expedients, and theſe may be looked upon as a living proof of what is recorded of the firſt men of the old world.

They found inconvenience in having books compoſed of ſmall bits of bark ſtrung upon twiſted leaves, or on one piece of bark or leaves rolled up, and endeavoured to find another matter which might be more commodiouſly uſed. The Egyptians, who firſt ſettled a well governed ſtate, were likewiſe the firſt who endeavoured to procure this advantage; nevertheleſs it was not (according to Pliny) 'till the time of Alexander's victories, that they made this diſcovery. They fell upon a method of making, from a kind of dog-graſs, a ſubſtance, which ſoon became a conſiderable and lucrative branch of trade, and this manufacture was the firſt thing that deſerved the name of paper.

Rome, as much as it was poſſible, furniſhed itſelf with this paper, and as often as the Gauls could procure it, they gave it the preference to the birch bark; but the difficulty of bringing it from ſuch a diſtant country as Egypt, weighing too equally againſt it's property of taking any deſired form, and of being folded together in ſheets, the Gauls, and other nations endeavoured, in like manner, to find the means of ſupplying it among themſelves. They accordingly found the method of making it with cotton: and according to Montfaucon, in his Eſſay upon the Egyptian paper, inſerted among thoſe of the academy of the Belles Lettres, at the end of the ninth century, this deſtroyed the Egyptian paper manufacture through all the eaſt; and this diſcovery led to that of our paper, which is made of rags; the æra of which, as ſettled by Montfaucon, is in the twelfth century.

Yet long before that period, the Chineſe (according to P. du Halde) made it with cotton-rags. He ſays, in the article of Chineſe paper, that in the 95th year of the Chriſtian æra, a mandarine of the palace manufactured paper of the bark of different trees, old rags of ſilk and hemp that had been uſed. Be that as it will, as ſoon as the rag paper appeared, it ruined the Egyptian paper in the weſt, as the cotton paper had formerly ruined it in the eaſt. We muſt own, however, that the advantages of paper made of rags, ought not to have been ſo fatal to that of Egypt, but on the contrary engaged their manufacturers to bring it to perfection Every thing ſeemed to lead the way.

The different kinds of paper had always been made of plants: and although the birch bark and the prepared leaves, were, not properly ſpeaking, of that ſpecies, yet the facility of folding and rolling, ſhewed a flexibility in the fibres, capable of that preparation which is given to rags. It may be obſerved, that theſe very rags are no other than fibres of a plant, which had ſuffered a kind of decompoſition, which had not happened to thoſe that they made uſe of. It was therefore natural to think, that if they had undergone the ſame preparation, they would have produced ſuch a paper, or at leaſt a kind that would have reſembled our own.

Let us not ſeek for matter of reproach againſt the Ancients. Their occaſions for paper were not probably ſo preſſing as ours; ſince, notwithſtanding the quantity of rags which is collected, the price of it ſometimes riſes ſo high, that the manufacturers are deſirous of finding other materials for the ſame purpoſe, or compelled to have recourſe to expedients which are prohibited, in ſome countries, by the regulations touching paper-works, though they always find means to conceal them from the vigilance of the inſpectors.

When the rags that are proper for making white paper become ſcarce, they employ thoſe which at other times are uſed for the coarſe paper, and prepare them with chalk-water. By this preparation they conſume, and indeed deſtroy the foreign bodies which are in theſe coarſe materials, but at the ſame time diſcompoſe the fibres of the rags, ſo that there muſt certainly be a great waſte. If we ſhould do no more then, but find a method for preventing this waſte, and procure ſuch materials as the workmen at ſuch times deſire to have, ſhould we not gain a great advantage to the paper works? This new matter might be uſed for coarſe paper, and the other enter into the compoſition of white paper, and of conſequence the price of fine rags would fall, or at leaſt never become exceſſively dear. In my opinion, therefore, we ought to have been for a long time, employed in ſearch of a remedy for thoſe times of dearth, and in preventing the conſequences ſo naturally drawn from the manner in which we now manufacture our paper.

It is not from the workmen we are to draw ſuch conſequences. He himſelf who makes any diſcovery, very rarely perceives all it's conſequences: the novelty often blinds us, touching what is already diſcovered, and makes us deſpiſe it, inſtead of engaging us to bring it to perfection. It therefore requires men who, together with a diſcerning underſtanding, have a deſire to bring the arts to perfection, and to enable mankind to enjoy them at a ſmall expence.

M. de Reaumer, in an eſſay publiſhed in the year 1719, upon waſps, ſeems to perceive theſe conſequences. Waſps built habitations, the outward parts of which ſeem to be of paper or ſtrong paſteboard: in ſuch a manner do they prepare bits of rotten wood, as to make them aſſume that conſiſtence.

M. de Reaumer took a hint from this obſervation, touching the perfection of paper-works. He in his eſſay explains his own idea of that ſubſtance, and wiſhes thoſe who have an opportunity would examine, if it is ſuch as he has conceived it to be: and this ſubject he has renewed in the ſixth volume of his hiſtory of Inſects.

Seba likewiſe, in the firſt volume of his Natural Hiſtory, has invited the curious to proſecute the ſame project in theſe words. 'This country, ſays he, does not ſeem to want trees fit for making paper, if people would give themſelves the neceſſary trouble and expence. Alga marina, for example, which is compoſed of long, ſtrong, viſcous filaments, might it not be proper for this purpoſe, as well as the matts of Muſcovy, if they were prepared as the Japoneſe make their timber? The curious may at leaſt try the experiment.' Whether there are no people, as Seba demands, who have opportunities of proſecuting this work, or that every body is averſe to go to work, except upon his own plan, I know not one author who has communicated any thing upon this ſubject.

P. du Halde, in the firſt volume of his Hiſtory of China, pretends that the Chineſe make paper of the ſecond bark of bamboo,

bamboo, of the bark of different trees, particularly the mulberry, of ſtraw, rue, and hemp. Kœmpfer, in his voyage to Japan, and after him Seba, in the aforementioned book, report, that paper is made in that country of the inner bark of a kind of mulberry-tree.

M. de la Loubaire ſays, that the Siameſe make it of old cotton cloth, or the bark of a tree called toncoë. Flacourt deſcribes the manner in which the inhabitants of Madagaſcar make theirs of a kind of mallow, which they call avo. Finally, all the travellers to India as well as to America, recount with emphaſis, the advantages drawn from the palm-tree for making ſtuffs, of which, when they are worn, it would doubtleſs be eaſy to make paper. The opportunity which the paper-mills in the neighbourhood of Eſtampes, ſeemed to afford me, of fulfilling the wiſh of ſome, and verifying what hath been ſaid by others, touching our trees and plants that are analogous to thoſe mentioned by the authors above, has induced me to collect ſeveral of theſe plants. After having ſurmounted all the difficulties, which we always find among workmen, when any novelty is introduced among them relating to their occupation, I have at length ſucceeded ſo far as to have tried ſome experiments, and flatter myſelf which being able to continue thoſe which I have in view.

Hitherto I have only ſpoke, as if paper was made of nothing but vegetable ſubſtances, and that no materials could be taken from animal nature. Nevertheleſs, it is doubted whether in China, paper is not made of ſilk. Pere du Halde ſays, that they gather the refuſe cods, when they are unwound in the ſilk manufactures, and make paper of them; but, notwithſtanding the aſſertion of that author, the fact has been always conſidered as problematic.

I will relate an experiment which may help to explain this queſtion: but before I deſcribe my ſucceſs, I believe I had better diſtinguiſh the different plants I have mentioned above, and preſent them in a methodical manner. By theſe means the public will have a botanical hiſtory of paper, and ſee the plan of the work propoſed.

The materials for paper then may be divided into two general claſſes, namely vegetable ſubſtances, and thoſe that belong to the animal kingdom.

In the great number of plants uſed for making paper, or of which people ſuppoſe it might be made, a regular order may be found. People of different countries, have been conducted by a kind of natural analogy. They have not ſought to employ plants that were very different from thoſe already in uſe. They have taken them of different claſſes, in different kinds, but always in ſome of thoſe which had been before uſed, though probably they were ignorant of that circumſtance. In effect, the greateſt part of plants ſeems to be compoſed of long, longitudinal fibres, nearer or cloſer to one another, and covered with a ſubſtance which fills up the intervals: ſuch are the palmiferous, the gramineous, and the liliaceous.

The claſs of the palmiferi is one of thoſe, which have been of moſt ſervice to the Indians, Aſiatics, and Americans, in furniſhing them with cloathing, cordage, ſails and other utenſils; almoſt every part of theſe trees has ſerved ſome of thoſe uſes, though they do not indifferently take every part of the ſame tree. Theſe people have in the palm-tree, which they found among them, choſen what was moſt ſuſceptible of manufacture. In ſome they choſe the ſpatha, which invelops the regimen of fruits before they are ripe, or that which ſuſtains the young leaves: and in others they employed the down which ſurrounds the fruit. The young and tender leaves have been preferred to this wool or down, which was not conſiderable in other kinds; and when all theſe could not be compared to the bark for goodneſs and quantity, they made uſe of this laſt.

The down of the fruit of the cocoa-nut-tree, the ſpatha, the leaves and bark have been uſed, as ſeveral travellers relate. Rumphius, in his Hiſtory of the Plants of Amboyna, ſays as much of the calapa: the pinanga, the wild lonturus, the tetum, the hakum, the wanga, all different kinds of the palm-tree, furniſh in their leaves a thread more or leſs fine, of which thoſe people make ſtuffs.

They have even prepared the leaves of the hakum, and foribe, and uſed them inſtead of paper. The advantages which the Indians drawn from the palm-tree being already ſufficiently important, I ſhall not probably be blamed for not having inſerted what is mentioned by Ray after ſome authors: he reports, in his Hiſtory of Plants, that the cocoa-tree contains, in lieu of pith, a quire of paper of fifty or ſixty ſheets, on which people may write. This is like that which is found in the middle of a fruit of Peru, mentioned by M. Frezier, author of a Voyage to the South Sea. All this wonderful phænomenon, when reduced to it's juſt value, is in my opinion, no more than that the pith of the palm-tree and the pulp of that fruit, may be eaſily made into ſheets in the ſame manner as that of the Chineſe alder, which is made into thoſe fine artificial flowers that are brought from that country, or the books made of the roots of a kind of mallow, which requires no more than to be artfully dried and cut in leaves. The muſa or banana-tree, has been employed for ſuch-like purpoſes.

The claſs of the liliaceous includes the aloes, the yucca: from the aloes is obtained the thread of pitte, known by the uſe to which it is put.

Father du Tertre, in his Natural Hiſtory of the Antilles, deſcribes the manner in which that thread is got. Sir Hans Sloane, in his Catalogue of the Plants of Jamaica, likewiſe mentions theſe aloes. In the number of ſynonimous names which he recites, ſome of them are taken from the uſe that is made of thoſe plants, and which I cannot help, for that reaſon, repeating in this place.

The ſecond ſpecies of that author, is by Gaſpar Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 20. called the eleventh ſpecies of papyrus, employed for paper. Cluſius, in his treatiſe of Exotic Plants, p. 6. mentions a ball of thread made of the bark of a tree, which according to Sloane, is this aloes. John Bauhin, tom. i. p. 384. copies Cluſius, and ſays, this thread is very fine and extremely white. The third ſpecies of aloes, according to Sloane, which nevertheleſs is a true ſpecies of yucca, is known to Luet, p. 645. under the name of an excellent kind of hemp or flax, which even approaches very near to the fineneſs of ſilk.

Seba in the firſt volume of his work, has given the figure of two leaves of a plant, which he calls the aquatic bullruſh of Surinam, compoſed of innumerable threads or filaments. This bullruſh, ſays that author, ought to be examined with regard to it's utility.

It was from the gramineous claſs, as already ſaid, that they obtained materials for the firſt paper, which deſerves that name. Michilli, in his New Genera of Plants, has inſerted in the number of ruſhes, the plant called by Gaſpard Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 19. and in his Theatre of Plants, p. 333. the paper of Syria or Sicily. Is this the ſpecies formerly employed in Egypt? The figure and deſcription of it given by Proſper Alpinus, namely that of Veſlingius and the Antients, leave it doubtful, whether this laſt plant be a ruſh or not. Proſper Alpinus ſays, it is the paper called beid by the Egyptians.

M. de Juſſieu, at whoſe houſe people will always find lights in all doubts that can occur upon theſe ſubjects, and who finds pleaſure in communicating inſtruction, hath ſhewn an Egyptian plant that ſeems to be a true ruſh, and when compared with that of Michilli, exhibits no difference.

Dodo conſiders the flag as a plant proper for paper, and gives it the name of papyrus. We have obſerved above, that Pere du Halde ſays, the Chineſe made paper of ſtraw or the blades of rice. Bamboo is likewiſe employed in the ſame country for a kind of paper; and, according to the ſame author, is the reed-tree of Gaſpar Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 18.

The birch, which is of the claſs of cat's-tail flowers, was one of the firſt trees, upon the bark of which people wrote. As the word bark may be deemed equivocal, it will not be amiſs in this place to fix it's ſignification. Are we to underſtand by this word bark, that part of trees which covers externally the trunk and branches? Or, is not rather that interior layer, which ought to become woody, and is called liber? Without all doubt, it muſt be this inner covering which we are to underſtand by the bark of birch; it ſeems alſo, that in this ſenſe it ought to be underſtood in thoſe authors, who treat of the different kinds of paper uſed by different nations. Moſt of theſe writers ſay, it is the ſecond bark which is uſed. Others have only ſaid, that they uſed the bark; but the preparations which they deſcribe, plainly ſhew, that it was this inner part that was employed.

Rumphius deſcribes two trees with cat's-tail flowers, one of which he calls the domeſticum gnemon, and the other gnemon campeſtre. The inhabitants of Amboyna, according to that author, obtain a thread from the bark of the boughs, which they beat a little; and this thread is proper for making nets, which they boil in a certain infuſion, to make them ſtronger and leſs apt to rot in the water. This ought the more carefully to be examined, as the knowlege derived from ſuch enquiry, may ſerve to bring to perfection the cordage of ſhips, as well as that of which the fiſhers make their nets.

Here we ought to recal the idea which M. de Reaumur has produced upon the ſubject of rotten wood; an idea ſo much the more happy, as it furniſhes others upon abundance of ſubſtances eaſily got: the foreſt preſents but too many of them ſometimes. The ſhops of our carpenters ſupply us with cuttings, which, by their thinneſs, are in a condition to undergo, in a little time, the neceſſary degree of rottenneſs; for here, as in every other thing, there is a proper degree which muſt be laid hold on. When the wood is too rotten, it's fibres are too much divided, they have loſt that binding which connects their parts, they become too earthy, and I believe it would then be difficult, not to ſay impoſſible, to bind them together: therefore the waſps do not uſe indifferently all ſorts of rotten wood, but know how to diſtinguiſh that which is proper for their purpoſe.

The nettle, the mulberry, and the hemp, are ranked in a claſs which is called incomplete, becauſe theſe plants want the flower, or the calix, or the petala, or both theſe parts.

Kœmpfer, in his Catalogue of the Plants of Japan, mentions one which in the Japoneſe idiom is called white hemp, and to which that author has given the appellation of the great common nettle, which bears real flowers, and yields ſtrong

thread proper for linen and other works. The ſame author calls the mulberry, which is employed for paper, the papyrus, whoſe fruit reſembles that of the mulberry, and whoſe bark is made into paper. Seba has given it the name of the mulberry-tree, which affords paper, and is cultivated at Japan. Pere du Halde ſays, tom. ii. p. 212. that before the mulberry branches, with whoſe leaves the Chineſe feed their ſilk-worms, are deſtined to the fire, ſome people ſtrip off the thin bark from theſe branches, and make of it a kind of paper, which is ſtrong enough to cover their ordinary umbrellas, eſpecially when it is oiled and coloured. I do not here join the other plant which the Japoneſe employ, becauſe Kœmpfer leaves it uncertain under what claſs it ought to be ranged. He calls it the papyrus, which lies upon the ground, yields milk, has plated leaves, and a bark proper for making paper. For the ſame reaſon we likewiſe mention here a tree, which Sloane calls the tree with broad, long, jagged, ſmooth, ſhining leaves, like thoſe of the laurel, whoſe interior rind may be extended into a fine cloth like muſlin for ruffles; this tree is commonly called lagetto, tom. ii. tab. 168, 169. The people among whom this tree is found, make cloaths of it. It is needleſs to mention the uſe of hemp in making paper, every body knows we uſe it for that purpoſe; but hitherto no paper has been made of hemp, until it had paſſed through the ſtate of rags. Yet Peru du Halde reports, that at Nangha, paper is made of hemp beaten and mixed with lime-water, tom. iv. p. 373. And this confirms the notion I entertained, that the ſtalks, or what falls upon the form in dreſſing hemp or flax, might ſerve for the ſame purpoſe. We ſhall ſpeak of this below.

The malvaceous ſpecies diſpute the preference with all the other claſſes, for this kind of employment. All the kinds of the mahot, yield a ſort of thread proper for cordage. Sloane mentions two mallows, one of which he names the mallow-tree on the ſea-ſhore, with round, ſmall, prickly leaves, white below, which bears a yellow flower, and a bark that may be made into thread. Catalogue of the Jamacia Plants, p. 95. This is one of the mahots of father du Tertre. The other is mentioned by the name of the mallow-tree with round leaves, a very large flower of a fine red colour, like the fleur de lys, and a bark which yields thread. Ibid. This is another of du Tertre's mahots. It would be unneceſſary to mention the different kinds of cotton which are uſed in making paper. I have obſerved above, that cotton-paper was invented in the eaſt, and that in China, paper was made of cotton-rags; and, indeed, theſe are not neglected even in our manufactures. Although I have advanced, that people have never ſought after plants that were far removed from thoſe claſſes which had been formerly uſed, I think I ought to except the flax, the linden-tree, and the thiſtle.

Linen-rags have entered, and now enter, into the compoſition of paper: the workmen, in picking the rags, reject only thoſe which are produced from woollen ſtuffs and hides of animals: they pretend that theſe ſtuffs cannot be beaten, but this they ſay, perhaps, becauſe they are beaten with more difficulty than produced from the fibres of plants, the parts of which are more eaſily divided. They do not reject the others in thoſe paper works where coarſe grey paper is made; the buſineſs then is to have a very fine paſte, and the hair may be beaten ſufficiently, to incorporate with the fibres of other rags, although they may not be ſo well bruiſed.

Veſlingius, in his little treatiſe upon the Utility of cultivating Plants, pretends that the down of certain thiſtles has been uſed in making ſtuffs: ex acantii lanugine demptis ſpinis, veſtes effecerunt, ſays that author. By the word acantium we muſt underſtand a kind of thiſtle. The antients often employed the word in this ſignification. The linden-tree was and is uſed in making ropes, a circumſtance that denotes a flexibility in the fibres of that tree, capable of undergoing the neceſſary preparation for making paper.

What Veſlingius, whom we have mentioned, has writ concerning the luffa Arabum, which may be conſidered as a kind of cucumber, ought to induce us to examine ſeveral plants. He ſays, that the inſide of the fruits when the ſeeds are taken out, is no other than a little net that ſeems to be made of flax; whence he conjectures, it would yield a thread like that which the Ethiopians and Indians, according to Theophraſtus, made of their cotton-apples, and the Arabians, according to Pliny, of their gourds.

I know no author but Seba, who has ſuſpected that paper might be made of ſea-plants and alga marina. When I read that part, I recollected that I had been ſtruck with the whiteneſs which it will aſſume, bleached no doubt by the ſpray of the ſea-water, by the rains and dews, and loſing that glue with which all the marine plants are covered. Upon the ſea-coaſts, the fucus is uſed for dunging the vines and circumjacent lands; and I have obſerved that this, when tranſported to the grounds, likewiſe acquires a certain degree of whiteneſs, and, like the alga, preſerves its figure, together with a ſtrong conſiſtence, nothing is ſo common on the ſea-ſhore as the fucus, which in ſome places covers the coaſt, and nothing can be more eaſily collected.

There is another plant which is likewiſe found on the ſea-ſhore, but more commonly in ponds, and the baſons of gardens; it is the conferva of Pliny, and in ſome authors bears a name that ſeems to promiſe conſiderable utility. Imperatus calls it the ſea-flax. Lœſel, in his Catalogue of the Plants in Pruſſia, gives it the name of aquatic moſs, compoſed of very fine ſilky filaments. I can ſcarce doubt, that ſome people have attempted to ſpin this plant. When it is wet, it has a flexibility that deceives people, and the great quantity of it found in thoſe places that favour it's multiplication, and by which means the fibres are interwoven in ſuch a manner, as to produce a kind of ſtuff like coarſe camblet, muſt have more than once induced people to try to make the plant uſeful in the commercial arts. I know that a great princeſs, ſtruck with the quantity and fineneſs of this plant, was deſirous of having it ſpun; but it becomes too brittle when out of the water, to be ſuſceptible of this operation. I ſhall, in the ſequel, relate the ſucceſs I had in treating it, with a view to the paper manufacture.

I thought it neceſſary to enter into a circumſtantial detail of the plants which have been uſed in the compoſition of paper, and thoſe which may be uſed for that purpoſe, in order to give, as before obſerved, a botanical hiſtory of that manufacture; and by the different claſſes which I have deſcribed, the public ſees the plant which relate to it. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that ſome of theſe claſſes are not ſo rich here as in foreign countries. We are altogether ſtrangers to the claſs of the palmiferi: but by way of recompence, the gramineous claſs is in greater abundance. The courſe of ſome rivers is retarded by a kind of foreſt of reeds, ruſhes, and flags; and in ſome places nothing is ſo common as mallows: there is ſcarce a perſon among us, who is not ſometimes incommoded by the quantity of nettles and thiſtles. Cotton is nothing but a kind of down that ſurrounds the grain of that plant. I have therefore included in this deſign, the down of different plants, ſuch as that of willows and linagoſtris. The grounds planted with willows, are covered at one ſeaſon with the fall of the cat's tails of theſe trees; and ſome meadows, eſpecially thoſe that are barren, are full of the linagoſtris.

The ſtalks of hemp and flax are compoſed of two parts, the filamentous and that which partakes of the nature of pith. We cannot poſſibly doubt the utility of the firſt, which indeed compoſes our paper. Nevertheleſs, this thread is rejected as uſeleſs. It would therefore be a great advantage to render that part uſeful, even though the other never could ſerve any purpoſe. What prodigious quantities of materials would be acquired by theſe means! We know how much hemp is brought from Berry and Champaign in France. In the rope-works, and eſpecially thoſe of the arſenals belonging to the ſea-ports of that kingdom, great reſources would be found; they are now made into tow, which often mounts to ſuch a quantity, that they are obliged to throw it away, or make uſe of it as dung for the beds in their garden; in all the Lower Poictier, there is ſcarce a peaſant who does not reſerve a piece of ground for flax-ſeed.

It is not therefore for want of materials, that we do not endeavour to procure a paper which may vie in beauty with our white paper, or at leaſt furniſh us with a kind proper for covers and bundles. Perhaps I may be thought to have found too many plants ſuſceptible of this operation, and ſeem inclined to transform every thing into paper. Although what is related of foreign plants, may be a prejudice ſtrong enough to inſpire a notion of the utility we may reap from our own plants, I know at the ſame time, we may be impoſed upon by analogy, which is always deceitful. In other reſpects, the experiments which I wiſh we could attain, give reaſon to perfection to which I have made, although far from that hope, that one day we may acquire a certain degree of that perfection.

Thinking I ought firſt of all to examine the ſtalks of hemp as the moſt common materials, and thoſe from which I thought I had reaſon to expect ſome ſucceſs, I cauſed them to be ſteeped in water for a certain time, that they might acquire a degree of rottenneſs, which would facilitate their trituration. When they were ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently rotten they were beaten, but by a miſtake, which by the bye, I had endeavoured to avoid, theſe ſtalks were beaten with mallows and nettles, which I had ordered to be gathered and left to rot in a ſeparate place. Yet theſe different ſubſtances incorporated together: though it muſt be confeſſed, that their connection was not very ſtrong, but, on the contrary, produced a very imperfect tiſſue.

I look upon this eſſay, as ſcarce deſerving to be recounted: yet it ſhews, that the leaves of plants as well as the filaments, may unite and incorporate; and that, if thoſe different parts had been beaten ſeparately, and a proper degree of trituration beſtowed upon each, ſo as to form a well-binding paſte, ſomething better might have been produced. I will even venture to ſay, this doubtleſs would have been the caſe, having obſerved what happens in ponds and marſhes. Nature, more tranquil than art, frequently forms a very fine paper of plants that rot in thoſe watery places. I have found in ſome of the pools of water of the foreſt of Dourdon, when they have been entirely dried up, maſſes of a ſubſtance that altogether reſembles paper. They were compoſed of ſeveral lamina or

leaves,

leaves, eaſily ſeparated from one another; they tore like paper, and, though I could not then determine whether they were formed of rotten leaves, or only a kind of byſſus, it ſeemed to me that, if any of this laſt plant entered it's compoſition, there was likewiſe in it part of leaves, trees, and other plants. I have not fulfilled the aim which this obſervation inſpired me with; diverted by a variety of other occupations, I could not beſtow upon this work the time, attention, and neceſſary preciſion it required. It was more eaſy for me to repeat the experiment upon hemp alone: I therefore put in water to rot ſome very fine hemp, well cleaned from the parenchymatous part, or pith that falls from the inſtrument in dreſſing it: the paper which it produced was very ſtrong, and convinced me that it was very eaſy to make it of that part of the hemp which is thrown away in rope-works, or other workhouſes where it is dreſſed or employed.

The conviction I reaped from this experiment touching the hemp, neceſſarily influenced my notions concerning cotton, that down much ſofter and more flexible than hemp, muſt eaſily undergo the neceſſary preparation for making paper. I ought indeed, to regard the experiment I made upon cotton as ſuperfluous, after that which I had tried upon hemp; yet as authors, thoſe at leaſt whom I have read, do not ſay that cotton paper was made immediately of cotton, before it had paſſed through the ſtate of cloth, and Pere du Halde reports that the Chineſe make theirs with cotton rags, I thought proper to remove that doubt entirely, becauſe it ſeemed to me eſſential that no ſcruple ſhould remain with regard to that fact, and the ſucceſs ſeemed to influence all thoſe parts of plants to which we commonly give the name of down. Of this kind there are ſeveral, namely the linagoſtris, the cat's-tail of the willow, dog's-bane, and trumpet-wood; which, though not ſo eaſily ſpun as cotton, ſeem to me ſuſceptible of that conſiſtence which is neceſſary to the paſte or pulp of which paper is made: the cotton being therefore, beaten to a ſufficient degree, produced a ſmooth white paper, of a ſtrong texture, which promiſed to have all the advantages of our own.

I will not, however, pretend to propoſe it as an advantage to make paper of cotton: the hemp-rag is a material in our poſſeſſion, which would be altogether uſeleſs if we did not know how to employ it for this purpoſe; but by knowing, from this and other experiments, that it is poſſible to make paper with theſe different materials, even though they have not paſſed through an intermediate ſtate, we afford a ſuccedaneum to thoſe who are in want of ordinary rags, which are not ſo common as people may imagine, in countries remote from great cities.

In ſome places of our American colonies, cotton is more common than hemp-rag, which may be the means of making that trade more lucrative, and of greater conſequence; but perhaps this is giving views of utility which many other reaſons may render uſeleſs: beſides, to know whether or not it would be uſed to advantage, would require more delicate experiments, and a more minute enquiry touching the price which that paper would bring, and the profit which is acquired in the ordinary cotton-trade. I have neither made the calculations nor the experiments that are requiſite; all that I am in ſearch of, is the poſſibility of the thing, and not it's advantages or diſadvantages.

I proceeded then to try the other downs, though I have been able only to examine that of the dog's-bane, called wad, and of the two kinds that are obtained from thiſtles, that only with ſeeds of divers kinds, which are crowned, but not the rind which the antients obtained from the leaves that have been mentioned above. This experiment did not ſucceed ſo well as that which I made with cotton. The paſte formed of the down of theſe plants was not of ſuch a good conſiſtence or coherence as that of the pulp made with cotton; yet with much care and precaution, it was formed into ſheets of paper ſtrong enough to be hung upon cords to dry, but very eaſily torn; the parts did not adhere, they not being ſufficiently interwoven and bound together; and without this quality no paper can be good.

So great a difference between theſe kinds of down, may appear ſingular, but this difficulty will be explained by the following obſervation. That which is upon wad and thiſtle, is not, properly ſpeaking, a down, but formed of a ſort of hair, ſuſtained upon the ſeeds of theſe plants: theſe hairs are commonly called, by botaniſts, tufts and plumes, becauſe they form upon the ſeeds a kind of tufr, and many of them puſh out branches on the ſides, by which they reſemble real plumes, or feathers.

Cotton, on the contrary, is a down that ſurrounds the grain, without order or regularity, ſticking cloſely to it, without any conſtant figure. When this is pulled off, and the ſeed wiped clean, we can eaſily perceive that it iſſues from ſmall points, like ſo many holes. If this operation is performed while the fruit is young, the thread or hairs are found ſofter, and leſs dry, than when it is farther advanced; and it is difficult to refute the notion, particular as it is, that cotton is no other than a matter which tranſpires from the ſeed. When we know what forms the down of certain thiſtles which we before have mentioned, the ſingularity of this notion vaniſhes.

The leaves and ſtalks of thiſtles are roughened with a quantity of hairs, which are ſo many pipes giving iſſue to a clear limpid liquor, a little viſcious and glutinous, which dries in the air, and aſſumes a conſiſtence like that of cotton: nay it really is ſo to ſuch a degree, that when this down is collected, it is eaſy to form a thread of it between the fingers: ſuch an obſervation may, perhaps, appear very delicate to make, and thence doubtful and hazardous; yet it does not require ſo much attention as people may imagine; all that is neceſſary is, to procure a microſcope with a focus of ſome inches, to obſerve the threads, and the kind of wheel in which they are formed: and both theſe being diſtinguiſhed, you may perceive, by the naked eye, all that paſſes in this operation of nature.

That this may be ſeen the plainer, you may chuſe the carduus benedictus of the Pariſians, or that which has the round head, covered with down: theſe are, in my opinion, more proper than many others of the ſame claſs, for proving this obſervation: the interior part of the ſcales that form their head, is provided with an infinite number of glands, that filtrate a liquor like that which I have mentioned; and this liquor changes in the air to threads, which form the down that ſurrounds the heads of thoſe thiſtles. This will not admit of a moment's doubt, ſeeing this thread may be perceived forming under the very eye: if we will gradually and cautiouſly ſeparate the ſcales from one another, we then have the pleaſure to ſee this matter lengthen and extend like gum, roſin or wax, and in a moment change into white threads, reſembling thoſe of paper.

Now we perceive the ſimilitude there is between cotton and the wool of thiſtles, and the difference between both and the pretended down of thoſe laſt and of wad. The cotton iſſues from the ſeeds, which it ſurrounds like the wool of thiſtle-heads, and both ſweat from certain parts, which may be conſidered as a kind of glands. On the contrary, what is ſuppoſed to be down in the thiſtle, conſiſts of parts that are ſtiff and dry, conſequently brittle, eaſily grouped into little ſmooth maſſes, which are not compoſed of a quantity of ſmall fibres, that partly detaching themſelves from one another, form in the cotton and thiſtle-wool that ſoftneſs and flexibility, which makes what in theſe ſubſtances is commonly called the cottoneous part, a quality which renders them eaſy to mix together, when they are beaten or pounded, in order to form a paſte for paper. Muſt we, therefore, intirely reject theſe downs? No, ſurely; perhaps in the twinkling of an eye they may be rendered uſeful. I know it may be difficult to catch that point of view, than which nothing requires ſo much addreſs in improving the arts; but we ſhall endeavour, at the concluſion of this article, to give ſome hints on the ſubject; for it would be very advantageous to find the means of employing a kind of down which is in ſuch abundance, and coſts nothing but the trouble of gathering it.

We ſhall now proceed to another experiment, which, though unſucceſsful, ought to be related: it was tried upon the alga marina, which Seba exhorts us to examine. Under this name is comprehended not only that which is uſeful in packing glaſs-ware, and wrapping round the bottles of liquor which come from Montpelier, and from thence called the glaſs-makers weed; we ſay, not only this is regarded as an alga, but likewiſe the fucus, or varus, which has a better title to that name, ſince the glaſs-makers weed is not properly of that ſpecies, but of the claſs of dog's-graſs: however, we have always mentioned it as an alga, becauſe it is better known by that than the name of cyperus.

This plant having been treated like the others beforementioned, did not form the paſte that would cohere in any ſhape, for it's leaves has but few fibres: they are, in ſome ſort, compoſed of parenchymatous parts, which may be conſidered as a bundle of ſmall veſicles, the ſphericity of which is an obſtacle to that union that muſt obtain among the parts of paper. Two ſpheres can only touch one another in one point; this is a truth demonſtrated in geometry, as well as this other, that plain ſurfaces may be in contact through their whole ſurfaces; a property which facilitates the intertexture of the parts of cotton-hemp in the compoſition of paper, and to which the other is an obſtacle. To this I likewiſe attributed the little ſucceſs I had an experiment which I made with corralloides a kind of plant of the glaſs of alga, which abounds in all our woods, and in ſome places almoſt intirely covers the trees and rocks. Theſe plants are in ſome meaſure diſſolved by the trituration; and when they were ſpread in water, according to the practice of making ſheets of paper, they could not be re-united upon the form. The ſame thing happened to the conſerva of Pliny, which is alſo of the ſame tribe.

It may be conſidered as a loſs to the paper-manufacture, that we cannot give a body to theſe plants when they are triturated: the whiteneſs they acquire when drying, and their prodigious quantity, make us regret this circumſtance, eſpecially if they cannot be employed with ſucceſs in ſome other manufacture; and we can eaſily conceive what impreſſions the report of the commiſſioners of the academy muſt have made, upon the minds of thoſe who conſulted it about the advantage that might be reaped from a cottonous matter they had gathered in the pond of Petz, at the diſtance of a league

and

and a half from Metz, and was found to be no other than dried conferva, which did not deſerve the attention that had been beſtowed upon it; for they had already founded great hopes on the diſcovery, relating to the trade of the country.

A ſubſtance that might, perhaps, turn out to more advantage, is the cods of common catapillars, which, in ſome years, are in ſuch plenty as almoſt to cover the trees. Theſe cods, though not proper for ſpinning, may, nevertheleſs, enter into the compoſition of paper. The eſſay which was made gives room to hope for the ſucceſs. In effect, theſe cods, cleared of the leaves that ſtuck to them, being beaten, were eaſily reduced to a kind of pulp, which being ſpread in the water, was without difficulty collected on the form, and made into ſheets of paper that might be brought to a degree of perfection, which it muſt be owned they had not: nevertheleſs, though this paper ought rather to be ranked with the coarſe brown than with the white fine ſort, it gives room to believe, that it may in time acquire a certain degree of whiteneſs; ſome of the ſheets were whiter than others: nay, the ſame ſheets were ſometimes whiter in one part than another: and the buſineſs will be, to find a remedy for this inconvenience. One of the beſt (which, by the bye, I could not employ) is, without contradiction, to pound the cods in the ordinary mortars of the mills, or bray them under the cylinder: the quantity of cods gathered by my direction was not enough to fill the mill-mortar, ſo that the workman made uſe of an ordinary mortar, which was attended with two defects; the ſubſtance was not beaten uniformly, and the foreign bodies were not diſcharged: theſe evils are prevented in the mill: the peſtles are always moved equally, or at leaſt more equally than with the hand of a workman who uſes an ordinary mortar: ſo that the ſubſtance muſt be more effectually triturated in the mill. Beſides, the mortars of the machine are open on one ſide, near the bottom: this hole is covered with a hair-cloth, the interſtices of which are large enough to tranſmit what has undergone a ſufficient degree of trituration. Thus the paſte becomes whiter, an advantage we cannot obtain from any ordinary mortar, and which the ſilk paper I made could not have: for ſome of the ſheets were ſprinkled with ſeveral little black points, occaſioned by the excrement of the catapillars, which were interwoven with the ſilk of the cods; and the water which paſſes into the mortar of the mill would have carried off theſe excrements; nay, perhaps the ſilk loſes a part that ſerves no purpoſe but to render the paper of a greyer colour, when it continues mixed in the pulp. This part is more eaſily diſſolved and diſengaged from the paſte by the water that continually runs through the mortars. The ſmall fragments of leaves that may be left after the picking, will alſo be beaten with more difficulty in a common mortar, and the paper will be ſpoiled by them, as it happened to ſome ſheets of that which we made.

This inconvenience would be avoided by putting the cods in the mill mortars, where, at leaſt, the leaves would be more eaſily beaten, and this they might be, in the ſtate wherein they appear in the cods: for the catapillars have diveſted them of their parenchymatous parts, on which they feed, and nought remains but the fibres, which by the net-work they form, ſupported the parenchyma that filled up the interſtices. Though theſe fibres be like thoſe of a tree, they are, at the ſame time, more ſlender and fine, and have already by the work of the caterpillars, acquired an elaboration that wants only a little of our aſſiſtance. The beginning of rottenneſs might ſuffice. The preparation given to the rags before they are put under the peſtle, is one of the methods that may be the moſt uſeful on this occaſion. The rags being picked, are cut into ſmall pieces, and laid in heaps where they grow warm, and acquire a kind of fermentation, that gives them a degree of rottenneſs, which renders them the more fit for trituration. In the opinion of the workmen, this preparation is ſo indiſpenſibly neceſſary, that, when the rags are clean, and deſtitute of the greaſe which is then requiſite, they think themſelves obliged to ſupply this defect. The ſame method may be taken with cods mixed with leaves. Theſe leaves, aſſiſted with a little moiſture, will heat and rot to a certain degree, which it is our buſineſs to diſtinguiſh, that then they may be beaten as eaſily as the ſilk.

It were to be wiſhed that theſe leaves were not mixed with the ſilk, whereas the greateſt part of the cods are compoſed of them; yet there are ſome which conſiſt of pure ſilk, and are uſually found in the angle formed by the union of two branches. Theſe are no other than threads of ſilk ſtretched from one bough to another, in different ways. The others, conſiſting partly of leaves, are placed in the middle of leaves, which, after the caterpillars have partly conſumed, they bind and unite them together, thus forming larger or ſmaller bundles of pods, of the ends of little branches. There is no room to doubt that the ſilk of other caterpillars might likewiſe be employed: the cods of pure ſilk, and even thoſe that are partly formed of the hair which covers the caterpillars, are equally proper materials for paper: nor ſhould the cods belonging to the caterpillars of the pine-tree be rejected.

We ought, however, to be ſure that it is poſſible to make paper of ſilk; but is it made of that ſubſtance in China? Though it may appear unneceſſary to reſolve that queſtion, I will examine the reaſons that are advanced to prove that it is not made of ſilk. It is uſually ſaid, That if the Chineſe paper, which is pretended to be made of ſilk, was actually compoſed of that ſubſtance, it would in burning twiſt itſelf different ways, and be ſhrivelled up like parchment, which is made of prepared ſheep-ſkin; whereas that paper burns as equally as that made of the rags of hemp-cloth and linen. Theſe facts cannot be contradicted; but yet the ſilk paper which I made burned like ordinary paper, though the cods, which were the chief materials, ſhrunk up in burning, in the ſame manner as parchment. What, therefore, is the cauſe of this difference? I believe we muſt ſeek for the explanation in the tiſſue or texture, which is very different in the paper from what it was in the cod; there the threads are long, diſpoſed in different manners, ſo as that one ſingle thread often forms ſeveral folds.

The fibres of paper are very ſhort, and, though differently arranged and bound together, the connection is not ſo ſtrong: it is no longer one or ſeveral threads of a conſiderable length. It happens then, that when the cods are burned, their threads are drawn different ways; thoſe of one ſurface draw thoſe of another, and, therefore, they muſt twiſt and turn ſometimes to one ſide, and ſometimes to another; whereas the fibres of paper being ſo ſhort, and connected together only by juxtapoſition, they muſt act very little, if any thing at all, upon one another, conſequently will burn equally. What proves the juſtneſs of this application is, that, in paper, there is ſometimes one place where the ſilk has not been well beaten, and is ſtill too much interwoven, and that place always is ſhrivelled up in burning. This explanation is, perhaps, ſufficient to clear up the queſtion relating to ſilk paper; and howſoever the Chineſe paper may be made, I think we ought to be perſuaded that it is poſſible to make it of ſilk: neither ought we to entertain any doubt about the uſe to which we might put the ſtalks of hemp and flax; and I think we have reaſon to hope, that one day an advantageous uſe may be found for the different kinds of down, not only of the cotton, of which, it is, perhaps, very ſingular to have entertained any ſuſpicion, but alſo of the thiſtle, the trumpet-wood, and the wad, which more than any other would merit an happy ſucceſs, it's paper having a gloſs and ſilver brilliancy which might be of ſome uſe in many caſes.

All that remains, therefore, in order to fulfil our hope of this down, as well as of the others, is to find out ſome method, perhaps very eaſy and ſimple, and, for that very reaſon the more difficult to invent. If, for example, when the materials are ready to be beaten, inſtead of ſimple water, we ſhould ſubſtitute a gummy or mucilaginous water, like that in which have been boiled the parings of leather, roots of marſh-mallows, the great comfrey, or ſuch ſubſtances, the paſte by theſe means would be endued with a kind of glue, which might be an expedient by means whereof the parts would cohere more ſtrongly; perhaps it would be ſufficient to prepare in this matter the water of the tub in which the paſte is diluted when it comes from under the peſtle.

If, notwithſtanding this preparation, the paſte ſhould not have body enough, perhaps by ſubſtituting compreſſion in the room of immerſion, which is the ordinary method of forming the ſheets of paper, we ſhould be able to render the parts of the paſte more coherent; and I imagine this is the method which muſt be taken with that cottoneous ſubſtance that owes it's origin to the conferva of Pliny. The heaps formed by the reunion of the different feet of this plant, are already of a certain thickneſs, and not eaſily torn; ſo that, in extending the paſte made of this plant, we might give what thickneſs we would to every ſheet, and the compreſſion would afterwards do the reſt. It might be found impracticable to make ſheets as thin as thoſe of ordinary paper; but even if we could do no more than make paſteboard, it would be an advantage which we ought not to neglect, but, on the contrary, proſecute with care. An enquiry into the materials which may be uſed for making of paper, by Mr. Guettard, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, and phyſician to his ſerene highneſs the duke of Orleans.

Remarks.

The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, from this account of divers materials whereof paper may reaſonably be preſumed to be made, the great utility that a knowlege in natural hiſtory has to advance the manufactural arts; and, therefore, how beneficial it may prove to our artiſts and the nation, to have thoſe things duly propagated in a trading empire. Every artiſan and manufacturer will hence diſcern how importantly uſeful to their reſpective employments thoſe gentlemen are, who have ſtudied the productions of nature, and have ſuggeſted rational experiments thereon, in order to promote the trafficable arts. Princes, ſtateſmen, and landed gentlemen in general, muſt be convinced, from inſtances of this kind, how neceſſary it is to encourage and honour thoſe who apply themſelves to ſtudies that have ſo happy a tendency to inſpire a general induſtry and ingenuity, and to advance the arts. Thoſe who are wholly buſied in the active life, have rarely leiſure for reſearches of this nature, or a proper turn to make

experiments ſuitably adapted to the advancement of their ſeveral branches of buſineſs: but it well becomes thoſe who are engaged in the hurry of life, to devote ſome portion of their time to the peruſal of books wrote upon Natural Hiſtory, and for the improvement of the manufactural and mechanic arts. By this means our paper, as well as other manufactures, may arive at their ultimate perfection, and be made from ſuch materials as are little ſuſpected. See the articles MUSÆUM [REMARKS thereon], and ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

INCUMBUSTIBLE PAPER is made of the Aſbeſtos [ſee ASBESTOS] which will bear burning without injury; and if an ink could be made of the ſame permanent nature, it might be a great preſervative of writings of conſequence from that conſuming element, in caſes of accident.

Mr Lloyd, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 166. deſcribes the manner of making this paper. He pounded a quantity of the aſbeſtos in a ſtone mortar, 'till it became a downy ſubſtance, then ſifted it through a fine ſieve, and by this means purged it pretty well from it's earthy parts; ſo that what earthy or ſtony matter he could not ſeparate before, or in the pounding, being reduced to a powder, came through the ſearce. This done he brought it to the paper-mill, and putting it in water in a veſſel juſt big enouugh to make a ſheet with ſuch a quantity, he ſtirred it pretty much, and deſired the workmen to proceed with it in the uſual method, with their writing-paper mould, only to ſtir it about always before they put it in their moulds, conſidering it as a far more ponderous ſubſtance than what they uſed, and that, if not immediately taken up after it was agitated, it would ſubſide.

The paper made thereof proved but coarſe, and too apt to tear; but there is reaſon to believe it might be much improved, in caſe it was pounded in one of their mortars for the ſpace of 24 hours.

Paper is of various kinds.---With regard to colours, they are divided into white, brown, blue, &c. and to quality, into fine, ſecond, baſtard, ſuperfine, &c.---With reſpect alſo to uſe, into writing, printing, preſſing, cap, cartridge, copy, poſt, &c.---With regard to dimenſions, into demy, crown, fool's-cap, pot, royal, ſuper-royal, imperial, elephant, atlas, &c. There is alſo printed, raiſed, and imboſſed paper, wherewith to hang rooms, and wherein there is a large conſumption, and in whieh our artiſts have arrived to a great perfection.

MARBLED PAPER is a ſort variouſly ſtained with divers colours, made after the following manner:

Take clear white gum-tragant, put it into an earthen pan, pour freſh water to it, 'till it is two hands high over the gum; cover it, let it ſoak 24 hours, then ſtir it well together, add more water to it, keep it often ſtirring for a whole day, or longer, and it will ſwell according as you find your gum is freſh or ſtale, for the freſh will diſſolve ſooner than that which has lain by a long time. When you find it well diſſolved, pour it through a cullender into another pan, add to it more water, and, after it has ſtood a little and been ſtirred about, ſtrain it thtough a clean cloth into another clean pan; keep it well covered, to hinder the duſt, or any other thing from coming to it; this water, when you go to make uſe of it in marbling your paper or books, muſt be neither too thick nor too thin; you may try it with your comb, by drawing the ſame from one end of the trough to the other; if it ſwells the water before it, it is a ſign that it is too thick, and you muſt add in proportion a little more water.

Your trough muſt be of the bigneſs of your paper, or rather ſomething wider, and about four inches deep.

After you have filled your trough with the aforementioned water, and fitted every thing for the work, then (before you lay on your colours) take a clean ſheet, and draw the furface, which will be a thin ſort of film, off of it; then have your three colours, namely indico mixed with white-lead, yellow oker, and roſe-pink, ready prepared at hand, and for each colour have two galley-pots, in order to temper them, as you would have them in different ſhades.

All your colours muſt be ground very fine with brandy.

The blue is eaſily made deeper or lighter, by adding more or leſs white-lead.

The yellow uſed for that purpoſe is either yellow orpiment or Dutch pink.

For blue, grind indigo and white lead, each by itſelf, in order to mix that colour either lighter or darker.

For green, take the aforeſaid blue and white, and ſome yellow to it, and temper it darker or ligher, as you would have it.

For red, take either lake or roſe-pink.

Every one of theſe colours are, as we ſaid before, firſt ground very fine with brandy, and, when you are ready to go to work, add a little ox or fiſh-gall to them; but thls muſt be done with diſcretion, and you may try them by ſprinkling a few drops upon your gum-water; if you find the colour fly and ſpread too much about, it is a ſign of too much gall, which, to remedy, add more of the ſame colour that has none, but when you ſee the colour ſpread, and retract itſelf gently, it is right.

When thus you have your colours, and all things in good order, then take a pencil, or the end of a feather, and ſprinkle or put firſt your red colour, then the blue, yellow, green, &c. begin your red from No. 1, and go along your trough to No. 2; alſo the blue from No. 3, all along to No. 4; the yellow and green put here and there in the vacant places; then with a bodkin, or a ſmall ſkewer, draw a ſort of a ſerpentine figure through the colours, beginning from No. 1 to No. 2: when this is done, then take your comb and draw the ſame ſtraight along from No. 1. to No. 2. If you would have ſome turnings or ſnail-work on your paper, then with a bodkin give the colours what turns you pleaſe.

Thus far you are ready in order to lay on your paper, which muſt be moiſtened the day before, in the ſame manner as book-printers do their paper for printing; take a ſheet at a time, lay it gently upon your colours in the trough, preſs it ſlightly with your finger down in ſuch places where you find the paper lies hollow; this done, take hold at one end of the paper, and draw it up at the other end of the trough, hang it up to dry on a cord, when dry, glaze it, and it is done.

You may alſo embelliſh your paper with ſtreaks of gold, by applying muſcle gold or ſilver, tempered with gum-water, among the reſt of the colours.

To gild paper.

Take yellow oker, grind it with rain water, and lay a ground with it upon the paper all over; when dry, take the white of eggs, beat it clear with white ſugar-candy, and ſtrike it all over; then lay on the leaf gold, and when dry, poliſh it with a tooth.

Some take ſaffron, boil it in water, and diſſolve a little gum with it; then they ſtrike it over the paper, lay on the gold, and, when dry, they poliſh it.

To ſilver paper, after the Chineſe manner, without ſilver.

Take two ſcruples of clear glue, made of neats leather, one ſcruple of white allom, half a pint of clean water, ſimmer the whole over a ſlow fire, 'till the water is conſumed, or the ſteam ceaſes; then your ſheets of paper being laid on a ſmooth table, you dip a pretty large pencil into that glue, daub it over as even as you can, repeat this two or three times, then ſift the powder of talc through a fine ſieve, made of horſe-hair or gauſe, over it, and then hang it up to dry, and, when dry, rub off the ſuperfluous talc, which ſerves again for the ſame purpoſe. The talc you prepare in the following manner:

Take fine white tranſparent talc, that which comes from Muſcovy, boil it in clear water for four hours, then take it off the fire, and let it ſtand ſo for two days: then take it out, waſh it well, and put it into a linen rag, and beat it to pieces with a mallet: to 10 pounds of talc add three pounds of white allom, and grind them together in a little hand-mill, ſift it through a gauze ſieve, and being thus reduced to a powder, put it into water, and juſt boil it up: then let it ſink to the bottom, pour off the water from it, place the powder in the ſun to dry, and it will become a hard conſiſtence. This beat in a mortar to an impalpable powder, and keep it for the uſe abovementioned, free from duſt.

To make fine red paper.

Take a pan full of water, put ſome quick-lime into it, to make it into a lee, and let it ſtand over-night; then put Brazil chips into a clean pot, about half full, fill it with the lees, and boil it to half, and, when it is juſt hot, add to it a little allum; when you would uſe it, mix it with a little gum or ſize, and then with a pretty large pencil lay your colour on the paper with an even hand.

Of JAPAN PAPER.

The paper is made in Japan of the bark of the morus papyrifera ſativa, or true paper-tree, after the following manner: every year, when the leaves are fallen, or in the tenth Japaneſe month, which commonly anſwers to our December, the young ſhoots, which are very fat, are cut off into three feet long, or ſhorter ſticks, and put together in bundles, to be afterwards boiled with water and aſhes.

If they ſhould grow dry before they can be boiled, they muſt be firſt ſoaked in common water for about 24 hours, and then boiled. Theſe bundles or faggots, are tied cloſe together, and put upright into a large and ſpacious kettle, which muſt be well covered, and then they are boiled 'till the bark ſhrinks ſo far, as to let about half an inch of the wood appear naked at the top. When the ſticks have been all ſufficiently boiled, they are taken out of the water, and expoſed to the air 'till they grow cold; then they are ſlit open length ways, for the bark to be taken off, which being done, the wood is thrown away as uſeleſs, but the bark dried, and carefully preſerved, as being the ſubſtance out of which they are in time to make their paper, by letting it undergo a farther preparation, conſiſting in cleanſing it anew, and afterwards picking out the better from the worſe.

In order to this, it is ſoaked in water for three or four hours, and being grown ſoft, the blackiſh ſkin which covers it, is ſcraped off, together with the green ſurface of what remains, which is done with a knife, that they call Kaadſi Kiuſaggi,

that is, a Kaadſi Razor. At the ſame time alſo, the ſtronger bark, which is of full a year's growth, is ſeparated from the thinner, which covered the younger branches, the former yielding the beſt and whiteſt paper, the latter only a dark and indifferent ſort. If there is any bark, of more than a year's growth, mixed with the reſt, it is likewiſe picked out and laid aſide, as yielding a coarſe and worſe ſort of paper. All groſs knotty particles, and whatever alſo looks in the leaſt faulty and diſcoloured, is picked out at the ſame time, to be kept with the leaſt coarſe matters.

After the bark has been ſufficiently cleanſed and prepared, and ſorted according to it's differing degrees of goodneſs, it muſt be boiled in clear lye. As ſoon as it comes to boil, and all the while they keep it on the fire, they are perpetually ſtirring it with a ſtrong reed, pouring from time to time ſo much freſh lye in, as is neceſſary to quench the evaporation, and to ſupply what hath been already loſt by it. This boiling muſt be continued 'till the matter is grown ſo thin, that being but ſlightly touched with the finger, it will diſſolve and ſeparate into flocks and fibres.

Their lye is made of any ſort of aſhes in the following manner: two pieces of wood are laid a-croſs over a tub, and covered with ſtraw, on which they lay wet aſhes, and then pour boiling hot water upon it, which as it runs through the ſtraw into the tub underneath, is imbued with the ſame ſaline particles of the aſhes, and makes what they call lye.

After the boiling of the bark, as above deſcribed, follows the waſhing thereof. This is a buſineſs of no ſmall conſequence in paper-making, and muſt be managed with great judgment and attention.

If it hath not been waſhed long enough, the paper will be ſtrong indeed, and of a good body, but coarſe, and of little value. If, on the contrary, the waſhing hath been continued too long, it will afford, it is true, a whiter paper, but too greaſy, blotting, and unfit for writing. This part of paper-making, therefore, muſt be managed with great care and judgment, ſo as to keep to a middle degree, and to avoid either extreme. They waſh it in a river, putting the bark into a ſort of pan or ſieve, which will let the water run through, and ſtirring it continually with the hands and arms, 'till it comes to be diluted into a delicate ſoft wool or down. For the finer ſort of paper the waſhing muſt be repeated, but the bark put in a piece of linen inſtead of a ſieve, becauſe the longer the waſhing is continued, the more the bark is divided, and would come at laſt to be ſo thin and minute, that it would run out through the holes of the ſieve, and be loſt. At the ſame time alſo, what hard knots or flocks, and other heterogeneous uſeleſs particles remain, muſt be carefully picked out, and put up with a coarſer ſort of bark for worſe paper.

The bark having been ſufficiently and thoroughly waſhed, is put upon a thick ſmooth wooden table, in order to it's being beat with ſticks of the hard Kufnoki wood, which is commonly done by two or three people, until it is wrought fine enough, and becomes withal ſo thin, as to reſemble a pulp of ſoaked paper, which being put into water, will diſſolve and diſperſe like meal.

The bark being thus prepared, is put into a narrow tub, with the fat ſlimy infuſion of rice, and the infuſion of the oreni-root, which is likewiſe very ſlimy and mucous. Theſe three things being put together, muſt be ſtirred with a thin clean reed, 'till they are thoroughly mixed in an uniform liquid ſubſtance of a good conſiſtence.

This ſucceeds better in a narrow tub. But afterwards the mixture is put into a larger one, called in their language fine, which is not unlike thoſe made uſe of in our paper-mills. Out of this tub the leaves are taken off, one by one, and proper patterns, made of bulruſhes inſtead of braſs wire, and called miis. Nothing remains now but a proper management in drying them. In order to this, they are laid up in heaps upon a table, covered with a double mat, and a ſmall piece of reed (which they call kamacura, that is, a cuſhion) is put between every leaf, which ſtanding out a little way, ſerves in time to liſt them up conveniently, and take them off ſingly. Every heap is covered with a ſmall plank or board, of the ſame ſhape and ſize with the paper, on which are laid weights, firſt indeed ſmall ones, leſt the leaves, being then as yet very wet and tender, ſhould be preſſed together into one lump, but by degrees more and heavier, to preſs and ſqueeze out all the water. The next day the weights are taken off, the leaves lifted up one by one, by the help of the ſmall ſtick abovementioned, and with the palm of the hand clapped to long rough planks made for this purpoſe, which they will eaſily ſtick to, becauſe of the little humidity ſtill remaining. After this manner they are expoſed to the ſun, and when full dry, taken off, laid up in heaps, pared round, and ſo kept for uſe or ſale.

I took notice, ſays Kœmpfer, that the infuſion of rice, with a gentle friction, is neceſſary for this operation; becauſe of it's white colour, and a certain clammy fatneſs, which at once gives the paper a good conſiſtence, and pleaſing whiteneſs. The ſimple infuſion of rice-flour would not do it, becauſe it wants that clammineſs, which is a very neceſſary quality. The infuſion, I ſpeak of, is made in an unglazed earthen pot, wherein the rice grains are ſoaked in water, and the pot afterwards ſhaken, gently at firſt, but ſtronger by degrees. At laſt freſh cold water is poured upon it, and the whole percolated through a piece of linen. The remainder muſt undergo the ſame operation again, freſh water being put to it, and this is repeated ſo long as there is any clammineſs remaining in the rice. The Japaneſe rice is by much the beſt for this purpoſe, as being the whiteſt and fatteſt ſort growing in Aſia.

The infuſion of the oreni-root is made after the following manner. The root pounded or cut ſmall, is put into freſh water, which, in one night's time, turns mucilaginous, and becomes fit for uſe, after it hath been ſtrained through a piece of linen. The different ſeaſons of the year require a different quantity of this infuſion to be mixed with the reſt. They ſay, the whole art depends almoſt entirely upon this. In the ſummer, when the heat of the air diſſolves the jelly, and makes it more fluid, a greater quantity is required, and leſs in proportion in the winter, and in cold weather.

Too much of this infuſion mixed with the other ingredients, will make the paper thinner in proportion, too little, on the contrary, will make it thick and parched. Therefore a middle quantity is required to make a good paper, and of an equal thickneſs. However, upon taking out a few leaves, they can eaſily ſee, whether they have put too much or too little of it. Inſtead of the oreni-root, which ſometimes, chiefly at the beginning of the ſummer, grows very ſcarce, the paper-makers make uſe of a creeping ſhrub called ſane kadſura, the leaves whereof yield a mucilage in great plenty, though not altogether ſo good for this purpoſe, as the mucilage of the abovementioned oreni-root.

The juncus fativus is cultivated in Japan with great care and induſtry. It grows tall, thin, and ſtrong. The Japaneſe make ſails of it, and very fine mats to cover their floors.

It hath been obſerved, that the leaves when they are freſh taken off from their patterns, are laid up in heaps, on a table covered with two mats Theſe two mats muſt be of a different fabric; one, which lies lowermoſt, is coarſer, but the other, which lies uppermoſt, thinner, made of ſlender bulruſhes, which muſt not be twiſted too cloſe one to another, to let the water run through with eaſe, and very thin; and not to leave any impreſſions upon the paper.

A coarſer ſort of paper, proper to wrap up goods, and for ſeveral other uſes, is made of the bark of the kadſura ſhrub, after the method above deſcribed. The Japaneſe paper is very tight and ſtrong, and will bear being twiſted into ropes.

A thick ſtrong ſort of paper is ſold at Syriga (one of the greateſt towns in Japan, and the capital of the province of that name) which is very neatly painted, and folded up, ſo much in a piece as there is wanting for a ſuit. It looks ſo like ſilken or woollen ſtuffs, that it might be eaſily miſtook for them.

A thin neat ſort of paper, which hath a yellowiſh caſt, is made in China and Tonquin, of cotton and bambooe. The Siamites make their paper of the bark of the pliokkloika. They have two ſorts of it, one black, and another white, both very coarſe, rude and ſimple, as they themſelves are. They fold it up into books, much after the ſame manner as fans are folded, and white on both ſides, not indeed with a pencil, in imitation of thoſe more polite nations who live fartheſt eaſt, but with a rude ſtylus made of clay. Thus far the deſcription of the way of making paper in the eaſt, which the late learned Becmannus was ſo deſirous to know, and ſo earneſtly intreated travellers to enquire into, miſtaken however in that thought, and ſeemed to be perſuaded, that it was of cotton; whereas it evidently appears, by this accounr, that all the nations beyond the Ganges make it of barks of trees and ſhrubs. The other Aſiatic nations on this ſide the Ganges (the black inhabitants of the more ſouthern parts excepted) make their paper of old rags, of cotton ſtuff, and their method differs in nothing from ours in Europe, but that it is not altogether ſo intricate, and that the inſtruments they make uſe of are groſſer.

To compleat the account propoſed to be given of the paper-manufactures in Japan, we have here added the deſcription of the plants and trees whereof it is made.

The Paper Tree.

From a ſtrong, branched, lignous root, riſes a ſtraight, thick, equal trunk, very much branched out, covered with a ſat, firm, clammy, cheſnut-coloured bark, rough without, and ſmooth on the inſide, where it adheres to the wood, which is looſe and brittle, with a large moiſt pith. The branches and twigs are very fat, covered with a ſmall down or wool, green, inclining to a dark purple. They are channelled 'till the pith grows, and quickly decay when broke off. The twigs are irregularly beſet with leaves, at two or three inches diſtance, or more, ſtanding on ſlender, hairy, two inch long foot-ſtalks, of a dark purple caſt, and the bigneſs of a ſtraw. The leaves differ much in ſhape and ſize, being ſometimes divided into three, ſometimes into five ſerrated, narrow, unequally deep, and unequally divided lobes, reſembling in ſubſtance, ſhape and ſize, the leaves of the urtica mortua, being flat

and

and thin, a little rough, dark green on one ſide, and of a lighter green, inclining to white, on the other.

They dry quickly, when broke off, as do all other parts of this tree. Strong ſingle fat nerves (leaving a remarkable hollow on the oppoſite ſide) run from the bottom of the leaves towards the top, and ſend out many tranſverſe ribs, almoſt parallel to one another, which ſend out others ſtill ſmaller, turned in towards the edges. In June and July come forth the fruits, upon the extremities of the twigs, ſtanding on ſhort footſtalks, round, ſomewhat larger than a pea, ſurrounded with long purple hairs, compoſed of acini, firſt of a greeniſh colour, which turns to a black purple when ripe: the fruit is full of a ſweetiſh juice. I did not obſerve, whether or no there are any juli that come before the fruit. The tree is cultivated for the uſe and improvement of the paper manufactures, on hills and mountains. The young, or two foot long twigs, are cut off and planted in the ground at moderate diſtances, about the tenth month, which ſoon take root, and the upper part, which ſtood out of the ground, quickly drying, they ſend forth many fine young ſhoots, which are fitteſt to be cut for uſe towards the latter end of the year, when they are come to be about a fathom and a half long, and about the thickneſs of an arm of a middle ſized man. There is alſo a wild ſort of kaadſi, or paper tree, growing on deſart and uncultivated mountains; but it is ſcarce, and otherwiſe not very proper for paper-making, and therefore never uſed.

1. Thoſe who would excel in the art of paper-making, ſhould be acquainted not only with the common methods of making the different kinds of paper, but enquire into every ſort of material wherewith the ſame may be made in the cheapeſt and the beſt manner.

2. This buſineſs ſhould be conſidered with a chemical view, in order to ſhorten and improve the proceſs.

3. The methods of making the whiteſt paper, and giving any kind of colour thereto, ſhould be well known.

4. Attempts ſhould be made to render paper more durable, and leſs apt to be gnawed or torn by domeſtic animals.

5. The ſtate of this art ſhould be well known, as practiſed in China, France, Holland, and England, in order to advance the manufacture for every uſe.

6. The ways of emboſſing and printing of paper for hangings, ſhould be advanced, the conſumption therein being great.

7. The application of this art to the Aſbeſtos [ſee ASBESTOS], ſo as to make incombuſtible paper, ſhould be ſtudied.

8. A method of diſcharging the printers ink out of paper ſhould be enquired into.

9. The beſt way of making filtring paper, for chemical uſes, ſhould be invented.

☞ In the journals of the houſe of commons of the kingdom of Ireland, that I have by me, from the 11th year of king James I. to the 25th year of the reign of his preſent majeſty king George II. incluſive; printed at Dublin, upon a good paper, and with a good letter, I was well pleaſed to find at the concluſion of them, the following, viz.

Theſe JOURNALS are printed on an Iriſh paper, manufactured by Mr Thomas Slator, at Temple-Onge; and the types caſt in Dublin, by Meſſieurs Daniel Malone and Robert Perry, letter-founders.

REMARKS ON PAPER, in another Light.

Before the Revolution, there was hardly any other paper made in England than brown; but the war enſuing, and duties being laid, from time to time, on foreign paper, it gave ſuch encouragement to our paper makers, that moſt of them began to make white paper, fit for writing and printing; and they have brought it, by degrees, to ſo great perfection, both for quantity and goodneſs, that they make now above ſeven eighths of what is conſumed in Great-Britain; and ſeveral of them make it as white and as well bearing as any that comes from abroad.

The neceſſity of having writing and printing paper is well known to every body; but it will not perhaps be amiſs to make it appear, how profitable and beneficial that manufacture is to Great-Britain.

Rags are the main ingredient paper is made of in theſe kingdoms, which were formerly caſt away and thrown to the dunghill, but are now gathered with great care by poor people, who get honeſtly their livelihood by it, and would otherwiſe beg their bread: this employs abundance of hands. When theſe rags are gathered, they are brought to the mill, and this ſtill employs more hands. After they are in the mill, they let them lie a while, 'till they are ſufficiently mellow or rotten, and then put them into the tubs under the hammers, to be beaten into a kind of jelly or white ſubſtance, looking like milk; and being thence carried into the fat, the chief workman, upon a pair of molds for that purpoſe, takes up the ſheets or water-leaves (of which he makes 4 or 5000 a day, more or leſs, according to the ſize of the paper).

Theſe water-leaves, after being well preſſed between two felts, and the water well drained out, are carried up into the drying rooms, and there hung upon a multitude of ropes to dry: and from thence being brought down again into the ſizing room, a liquor is there prepared for ſizing or gumming every ſheet; the paper which is for printing being but moderately ſized, but that which is for writing more nicely gummed, that it may bear ink.

This paper, after ſizing, is a ſecond time preſſed, and carried up into the garrets, and hung upon the ropes to dry once more; and then, with a great deal of care and hard labour, preſſed a third, a fourth, and a fifth time, to make it ſmoth and of a good grain; and then put up into quires and reams.

Now, conſidering how many hands every individual ſheet of paper paſſes through, before it is brought to perfection, it is plainly perceived that a great number of people is employed in each mill, then thoſe who gather the rags up and down in all the counties of England, and bring them to the mills: thoſe who make the felts, which takes up a good quantity of wool, being very thick, and for every ſheet of paper, a piece of felt of the ſame ſize, or a little larger; the rope-makers, the mold-makers, the carpenters, wheelwrights, timber-merchants, ſmiths, (for this work conſumes a great deal of iron, by the hammers beating perpetually upon the iron plates) and ſeveral other trades, who depend upon the building and keeping the mills in repair; thoſe who fell allum, copperas, cuttings and parings of gloves, parchment and leather; all which are uſed in ſizing or gumming of paper: theſe things conſidered, it cannot be denied, but a vaſt many people get their livelihood, or receive a benefit, by this uſeful and ingenious manufacture.

There is ſtill one farther uſe we would make of this information, and this is, to compute by it, the value of paper which was heretofore annually imported from the French nation.

Upon the interruption of our French commerce, in the late queen's wars, we increaſed our importation of paper from other countries, and the manufacture of this commodity in Great-Britain. Indeed the manufacture of white paper commenced in this kingdom, not long before that æra. At this time there were about one hundred and twenty fats within 60 miles of London for white paper; which, at 8 reams per day, muſt produce near 300,000 reams per annum: and if thoſe of Yorkſhire and Scotland, together with the increaſe of our importations from Italy and Holland, were then allowed to produce above 100,000 reams more for the conſumption of this kingdom, (as they certainly did, if the whole paper-manufacture of Britain was then, as computed, but two thirds of our conſumption) the whole quantity made in this kingdom, or imported from other countries inſtead of French paper, amounted to 400,000 reams per annum; then ſuch therefore muſt have been our annual importation from France, and the value of this, at 5 s. per ream muſt have amounted to 100,000 l. per annum.

The paper-manufacture hath, for many years, been eſtabliſhed in moſt countries; though France, Holland, and Genoa, are the places where it has beſt ſucceeded. The quality certainly depends upon the materials whereof it is made; and where it is done from linen rags, it depends much on the quality of the linen worn in the country where it is made: where that is fine or coarſe, or brown, the rags, and conſequently the paper made thereof, muſt be ſo too. Though the Engliſh manufacture of paper is not yet arrived to the perfection of ſome other nations; yet it is daily improving, and we doubt not but our artiſts will equal thoſe of any other nation, when they are wiſe enough to make ſmall trials upon all ſorts of materials which bid fair to make a more beautiful manufacture than what they have. The vegetable kingdom, we have ſeen, admits of an infinite variety of ſubjects, whereon to make experiments, at a very trifling expence: and whether many cheap foſſils, of a beatiful white, may not, by proper managements, be brought to a due coheſive conſiſtence for the purpoſe, may deſerve notice.

As this is a manufacture of ſuch general uſe, both for writing, printing, engraving, packing, &c. it cannot be made too good nor too cheap for the great variety of purpoſes wherein we find it ſubſervient to other arts.

Extract of two edicts of the French king, concerning the paper manufacture.

Arrêt of the king's council, prohibiting the exportation of old linen, old cloaths, rags, &c. 1697.

The king having been informed, That the exporting old linen, old cloaths, rags, &c. is a very conſiderable prejudice to the manufactures of paper and cards of this kingdom, had ordained, by a former arrêt of the 28th of January, 1697, That the ſaid goods ſhould pay 12 livres per hundred weight upon their exportation, inſtead of 6 livres per hundred weight, payable by the tariff of 1664; but his ſaid majeſty having ſince that been informed, That notwithſtanding double duty, divers particular merchants continue to export ſuch great quantities out of the kingdom, as would cauſe a ſcarcity thereof to the manufacturers in the provinces aforeſaid; for remedy whereof, his majeſty ordains, and hereby makes an expreſs prohibition to all perſons, of what rank or condition ſoever, to export out of the kingdom, without his permiſſion,

any

any old linen, old cloaths, or rags, from the day of the publication hereof, upon pain of confiſcation, and three thouſand livres fine, of which the third part to the informer.

Done at Verſailles, May 29, 1697. Signed, DU JARDIN.

Arrêt of the king's council, taking off the duties of exportation upon all cloth of gold and ſilver, and ſilks, and upon paper, paſte-board, and cards; and moderating the duties upon ſtuffs of wool, and thread linen-cloth, and other merchandizes, December 24, 1701.

Likewiſe his majeſty ordains, That for paper of all ſorts, white, brown, blue, and all other colours; books, printed, bound, and not bound; cards, paſte-boards, and cards to play with, going out of this kingdom into foreign parts, there ſhall not be paid any duties at all.

Done at Verſailles, Dec. 24, 1701. Signed, PHILIPEAUX.

By theſe two abſtracts of the French king's arrêts, it may be perceived, how careful he is of his manufactures in general, and of that of paper in particular.

There are ſeven provinces in France where the manufacture of paper is ſettled, viz. Champaigne, Normandy, Brittany, Angoumois, Perigord, Limouſin, and Auvergne; the three laſt provinces are full of large foreſts of cheſnut-trees, and abound ſo much in that kind of fruit, that the common people have no other food all the year round, and no other drink but water; ſo that they can afford their work very cheap, and do it for next to nothing, except ſome of the upper workmen, who earn a ſmall ſalary by the week. This is ſo true, that conſiderable parcels of paper were imported, ſome years ſince, from thence, although the duties paid here exceed one hundred per cent. on the firſt coſt; notwithſtanding which, the French merchants were long able to under-ſell us greatly.

Now if cheſnuts, and ſuch-like ſpontaneous productions of the earth, for which we are chiefly beholden to nature, very little to the labour of man, are the greateſt part of the ſubſiſtence of the people employed in the paper-manufacture of France, there can be little doubt of their living on leſs wages than our Engliſh labouring people: no one will aſſert, that a belly-full of cheſnuts, which grow without the labour of man, ſhall coſt as much as a belly-full of bread, which pays ſo much to the ploughman, the ſeedſman, the reaper, the threſher, the miller, the baker, and innumerable other labourers, who have beſtowed ſome work upon every loaf that was ever eaten. Our people therefore are ſubſiſted at a great charge, and the French manufacturers in this article, for almoſt nothing, in compariſon to what ours are.

Ought not every requiſite meaſure, therefore, to be taken by this kingdom, ſo to reduce the price of the common neceſſaries of life, that our manufacturers may be able to afford their labour ſo cheap, that our competitors may not in time run away with the whole trade? But how can this be ever effectuated, while the kingdom is incumbered with taxes neceſſary to pay intereſt-money for ſo enormous a national debt wherewith we are now loaded?

PAPER CREDIT. Under the articles BANKS and BANKING, CASH, CIRCULATION, CURRENCY, [PAPER CURRENCY], MONEY, the reader will find our ſentiments in relation to theſe points; which having an affinity with what we ſhall ſay, upon the preſent occaſion, may be neceſſary to be conſulted.

PAPER-CREDIT ſignifies, in the general, whatever property is circulated in a ſtate, or transferred from one perſon to another, by the means of any written paper-obligation, inſtead of hard money, or merchandizes, or lands; ſuch as exchequer bills, bank notes, bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, bonds, mortgages; and ſome include herein all transfers made by ſtocks, &c.

The term conſidered in this acceptation, including the conveyance of property of any kind whatever, from perſon to perſon, and from nation to nation, by the means of paper-authority only, comprehends a wonderful circulation of property over the whole trafficable world; without which, the concerns of commerce could not poſſibly be carried on with that extent and facility they are at preſent.

In order to render what we ſhall obſerve of uſe chiefly to our own country, we ſhall reſtrain our conſideration to the circulation of property of this ſort within ourſelves.

Eraſmus Phillipps, Eſq. computes in the year 1725, * the whole money-tranſactions of this nation at 126,199,328 l. which he does in the following manner, viz.

* See The State of the Nation, in reſpect to her commerce, Debts, and Money, p. 42, & ſeq.

'It is a ſtupendious thought, ſays this gentleman, to conſider the money-tranſaction of this kingdom; perhaps it may not be unacceptable to give ſome account of it. I believe I ſhall be allowed to compute the rents of this kingdom at - - -	l. 20,000,000
And upon the ſuppoſition that the lands of England are not taxed at half the value, this account may be near the truth.	
The duties on the cuſtoms produce per ann. about - - - - - -	1,600,000
Which, upon an average of 30 l. per cent. ad valorem, ſhews our imports to be for about - - - - - -	5,300,000
Beſides our re-export, which may be about	1,500,000
The reſt of the duties and funds - - -	2,199,328
If it is allowed me, that there are eight millions of people in this nation, I believe I ſhall not exceed, if I reckon the manufactures conſumed at home to amount to per annum - - - - -	16,000,000
I ſhall not mention the intereſt ariſing from mortgaged land, that being computed before in the rental; but I muſt take notice of the mortgages themſelves, becauſe they are often transferred, and may be reckoned money in circulation; and theſe have been computed at a fifteenth part of the land, which will come to about - - -	26,000,000 princ. money.
The next thing I ſhall mention is the great national debt;	
And this is about - - - - -	53,000,000
The malt produces more, about	600,000
So that the whole money-tranſaction of this nation ſeems to be for about - -	126,199,328
And all this is carried on with no more than of ſpecie.	15,000,000

And perhaps I may be particular in ſaying, the reaſon of this prodigious circulation is the debt itſelf; for the large and regular intereſt that has been paid on theſe ſtate-actions, have exhauſted all private hoards, and made theſe ſecurities become like a new ſpecies of money, current in every body's hands.'

REMARKS before the laſt War.

Since Mr Phillips wrote, not only the national debts, but the public revenue has greatly augmented, and conſequently our paper-circulation has increaſed in the like proportion; and yet it is to be feared that the quantity of ſpecie, at preſent, is much below 15,000,000 at which, when that gentleman wrote, he computed it. And to what degree the price of labour and our native commodities are affected by the weight of our national debts and taxes, or in conſequence of this paper-credit ſo greatly exceeding the quantity of real ſpecie, may be ſeen under the article DUTIES, LABOUR, to which we refer the reader. To corroborate what is there urged, ſee likewiſe the article BONDING, in regard to the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS.

And how detrimental to the kingdom, in other reſpects, this great increaſe of paper-credit is likely one day to prove, may be inferred from what follows, according to the ingenious Mr Hume*.

* See Hume's political Diſcourſes.

Firſt, It is certain, ſays that gentleman, that our national debts cauſe a mighty confluence of people and riches to the capital, by the great ſums which are levied in the counties to pay the intereſt of thoſe debts; and perhaps too, by the advantages in trade, which they give the merchants in the capital above the reſt of the kingdom.

Secondly, Public ſtocks, being a ſpecies of paper credit, have all the diſadvantages attending that ſpecies of money. They baniſh gold and ſilver, from the moſt conſiderable commerce of the ſtate, reduce them to common circulation, and by that means render all proviſions and labour dearer, than otherwiſe they would be.

Thirdly, The taxes which are levied to pay the intereſt of theſe debts, are a check upon induſtry, heighten the price of labour, and are an oppreſſion on the poorer ſort.

Fourthly, As foreigners poſſeſs a ſhare of our national funds, they render the public, in a manner tributary to them, and may, in time, occaſion the tranſport of our people and our induſtry.

Fifthly, The greateſt part of public ſtock being always in the hands of idle people, who live on their revenue, our funds give great encouragement to an uſeleſs and inactive life.

But though the injury that ariſes to commerce and induſtry from our public funds, will appear, upon ballancing the whole, very conſiderable, it is trivial in compariſon of the prejudice that reſults to the ſtate, conſidered as a body politic; which muſt ſupport itſelf in the ſociety of nations, and have various tranſactions with other ſtates, in wars and negociations. The ill there is pure and unmixed, without any favourable circumſtance to attone for it: and it is an ill too, of a nature the higheſt and moſt important.

We have, indeed, been told, that the public is no weaker upon account of it's debts, ſince they are moſtly due amongſt ourſelves, and bring as much property to one, as they take from another. It is like transferring money from the right-

hand

hand to the left, which leaves the perſon neither richer nor poorer than before. Such looſe reaſonings and ſpecious compariſons will always paſs, where we judge not upon principles. We aſk, is it poſſible, in the nature of things, to overburthen a nation with taxes, even where the ſovereign reſides among them? The very doubt ſeems extravagant; ſince it is requiſite in every commonwealth, that there be a certain proportion obſerved betwixt the laborious and the idle part of it. But if all our preſent taxes be mortgaged, muſt we not invent new ones? And may not this matter be carried to a length, that is ruinous and deſtructive?

In every nation, there are always ſome methods of levying money more eaſy than others, ſuitable to the way of living of the people, and the commodities they make uſe of. In Britain, the exciſes upon malt and beer afford a very large revenue, becauſe the operations of malting and brewing are tedious and impoſſible to be concealed; and at the ſame time, theſe commodities are not ſo abſolutely neceſſary to life, as that their price would very much affect the poorer ſort.

Duties upon conſumptions are more equal and eaſy, than thoſe upon poſſeſſions. What a loſs is it to the public, that the former are all exhauſted, and that we muſt have recourſe to the moſt grievous method of levying taxes!

Were all the proprietors of land only ſtewards to the public, muſt not neceſſity force them to practice all the arts of oppreſſion uſed by ſtewards, where the abſence and negligence of the proprietor render them ſecure againſt enquiry?

It will ſcarce be aſſerted, that no bounds ought ever to be ſet to national debts, and that the public would be no weaker, were 12 or 15s. in the pound land-tax mortgaged, along with all the preſent cuſtoms and exciſes. There is ſomething therefore in the caſe, beſides the mere transferring of property from one hand to another. In 500 years, the poſterity of thoſe now in the coaches, and of thoſe upon the boxes, will probably have changed places, without affecting the public by theſe revolutions.

It muſt be confeſſed, that there is a ſtrange ſupineneſs, from long cuſtoms, crept into all ranks of men, with regard to public debts, not unlike what divines ſo vehemently complain of with regard to their religious doctrines. We all own, that the moſt ſanguine imagination cannot hope, either that this or any future miniſtry, will be poſſeſſed of ſuch rigid and ſteady frugality, as to make any conſiderable progreſs in the payment of our debts; or that the ſituation of foreign affairs will, for any long time, allow them leiſure and tranquillity, ſufficient for ſuch an undertaking *. What then is to become of us? The events here will depend little upon the contingencies of battles, negotiations, intrigues, and factions. There ſeems to be a natural progreſs of things, which may guide our reaſoning.

* In times of peace and ſecurity, when alone it is poſſible to pay debts, the monied intereſt are averſe to receive partial payments, which they know not how to diſpoſe of to advantage, and the landed intereſt are averſe to continue the taxes requiſite for that purpoſe. Why therefore ſhould a miniſter perſevere in a meaſure ſo diſagreeable to all parties? For the ſake, I ſuppoſe, of a poſterity, which he will never ſee, or of a few reaſonable reflecting people, whoſe united intereſt, perhaps, will not be able to ſecure him the ſmalleſt borough in England. It is not likely we ſhall ever find any miniſter ſo bad a politician. With regard to theſe narrow deſtructive maxims of politics, all miniſters are expert enough,

As it would have required but a moderate ſhare of prudence, when we firſt began this practice of mortgaging, to have foretold, from the nature of men and of miniſters, that things would neceſſarily be carried to the length we ſee; ſo now that they have at laſt ſo happily reached it, it may not be difficult to gueſs at the conſequence. It muſt, indeed, be one of theſe two events; either the nation muſt deſtroy public credit, or public credit will deſtroy the nation. It is impoſſible they can both ſubſiſt, after the manner they have been hitherto managed, in this as well as in ſome other ſtates. See the article MONIED INTEREST.

There was, indeed, a ſcheme for the payment of our debts, which was propoſed by an excellent citizen, Mr Hutchinſon, above 30 years ago, and which was much approved of by ſome men of ſenſe, but never likely to take effect: he aſſerted, that there was a fallacy in imagining, that the public owed this debt; for that really every individual owed a proportional ſhare of it, and paid, in his taxes, a proportional ſhare of the intereſt, beſides the expenſes of levying theſe taxes. Had we not better, ſays he, make a proportional diſtribution of the debt among us, and each of us contribute a ſum ſuitable to his property, and by that means, diſcharge at once all our funds and public mortgages? He ſeems not to have conſidered, that the laborious poor pay a conſiderable part of the taxes by their annual conſumptions, though they could not advance at once, a proportional part of the ſum required. Not to mention, that property in money, and ſtock in trade, might eaſily be concealed or diſguiſed; and that viſible property in lands and houſes would really at laſt anſwer for the whole; an inequality and oppreſſion, which would never be ſubmitted to. But though this project is never likely to take place, it is not altogether improbable, that when the nation becomes heartily ſick of the debts, and cruelly oppreſſed by them, ſome daring projector may ariſe, with viſionary ſchemes for their diſcharge. And, as public credit will begin, by that time, to be a little frail, the leaſt touch will deſtroy it, as happened in France, and in this manner it will die of the doctor *. See the article MISSISSIPPI.

* Some neighbouring ſtates practiſe an eaſy expedient, by which they lighten their public debts. The French have a cuſtom (as the Romans formerly had) of augmenting their money; and this the nation has been ſo much familiarized to, that it hurts not public credit, though it be really cutting off at once, by an edict, ſo much of their debts. The Dutch diminiſh the intereſt without the conſent of their creditors; or, which is the ſame thing, they arbitrarily tax the funds as well as other property. Could we practiſe either of theſe methods, we need never be oppreſſed by the national debt; and it is not impoſſible but one of theſe, or ſome other method, may, at all adventures, be tried on the augmentation of our incnmbrances and difficulties. But people in this country are ſo good reaſoners upon whatever regards their intereſts, that ſuch a practice will deceive no body; and public credit will probably tumble at once, by ſo dangerous a trial.

But it is more probable, that the breach of national faith will be the neceſſary effect of wars, defeats, misfortunes, and public calamities, or even, perhaps, of victories and conqueſts. It muſt be confeſſed, when we ſee princes and ſtates fighting and quarrelling amidſt their funds, debts, and public mortgages, it always brings to my mind, a match of cudgel-playing fought in a China ſhop. How can it be expected, that ſovereigns will ſpare a ſpecies of property, which is pernicious to themſelves and to the public, when they have ſo little compaſſion on lives and properties, which are uſeful to both?

Let the time come (and ſurely it will come if we continue to increaſe our national debts) when the new funds, created for the exigencies of the year, are not ſubſcribed to, and raiſe not the money projected. Suppoſe either that the caſh of the nation is exhauſted, or that our faith, which hath been hitherto ſo ample, begins to fail us. Suppoſe that, in this diſtreſs, the nation is threatened with an invaſion, a rebellion is ſuſpected or broke out at home, a ſquadron cannot be equipped for want of pay, victuals, or repairs, or even a foreign ſubſidy cannot be advanced. What muſt a prince or miniſter do in ſuch an emergeney? The right of ſelf-preſervation is unalienable in every individual, much more in every community. And the folly of our ſtateſmen muſt then be greater than the ſolly of thoſe who at firſt contracted debts, or, what is more, than that of thoſe who truſted, or continue to truſt this ſecurity, if theſe ſtateſmen have the means of ſafety in their hands and do not employ it.

The funds created and mortgaged, will, by that time, bring in a large yearly revenue, ſufficient for the defence and ſecurity of the nation: money is perhaps lying in the Exchequer, ready for the diſcharge of the quarterly intereſt: neceſſity calls, fear urges, reaſon exhorts, compaſſion alone exclaims: the money will immediately be ſeized for the current ſervice, under the moſt ſolemn proteſtations, perhaps, of being immediately replaced. But no more is requiſite. The whole fabrick, already tottering, falls to the ground, and buries thouſands in it's ruin. And this may be called the natural death of public credit. For to this period it tends as naturally, as an animal body to it's diſſolution and deſtruction *.

* So great dupes are the generality of mankind, that notwithſtanding ſuch a violent ſhock to public credit, as a voluntary bankruptcy in England would occaſion, it would not probably be long, e'er credit ſhould again revive in as flouriſhing a condition as before. The preſent king of France, during the late war, borrowed money at lower intereſt than ever his great-grandfather did; and as low as the Britiſh parliament, comparing the natural rate of intereſt in both kingdoms. And though men are commonly more governed by what they have ſeen than what they foreſee, with whatever certainty; yet promiſes, proteſtations, fair appearances, with the allurements of preſent intereſt, have ſuch powerful influence as few are able to reſiſt. Mankind are, in all ages, caught by the ſame baits: the ſame tricks, played over and over again trepan them.

The heights of popularity and patriotiſm, are ſtill the beaten road to power and tyranny, flattery to treachery, ſtanding armies to arbitrary government, and the glory of God to the temporal intereſt of the clergy. The fear of an everlaſting deſtruction of credit, allowing it to be an evil, is a needleſs bugbear. A prudent man, in reality, would rather lend to the public immediately after they had taken a ſponge to their debts than at preſent, as much as an opulent knave, even though you could not force him to pay, is a preferable debtor to an honeſt bankrupt. For the former, in order to carry on buſineſs, may find it his intereſt to diſcharge his debts, where they are not exorbitant. The latter has it not in his power. The reaſoning of Tacitus, Hiſt. lib. 3. as it is eternally true, is very applicable to our preſent caſe. Sed vulgus ad magnitudidem beneficiorum aderat:

aderat: ſtultiſſimus quiſque pecuniis mercabatur: apud ſapientes caſſa habebantur, quæ neque dari neque accepi, ſalva republica poterant. The public is a debtor, whom no man can oblige to pay. The only check which the creditors have on it, is the intereſt of preſerving credit; an intereſt which may eaſily be overballanced, by a very great debt, and by a difficult and extraordinary emergence, even ſuppoſing that credit irrecoverable. Not to mention, that a preſent neceſſity often forces ſtates into meaſures, which are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, againſt their intereſt.

Theſe two events, ſuppoſed above, are calamitous, but not the moſt calamitous.

Thouſands are thereby ſacrificed to the ſafety of millions. But we are not without danger, that the contrary event may take place, and that millions may be ſacrificed for ever, to the temprory ſafety of thouſands*. Our popular government, perhaps, will render it difficult or dangerous for a miniſter to venture on ſo deſperate an expedient, as that of a voluntary bankruptcy. And though the houſe of lords be altogether compoſed of the proprietors of lands, and the houſe of commons chiefly, and conſequently neither of them can be ſuppoſed to have great property in the funds; yet the connections of the members may be ſo great with the proprietors, as to render them more tenacious of public faith, than prudence, policy, or even juſtice, ſtrictly ſpeaking, requires.

* I have heard it has been computed, that the whole creditors of the public, natives and foreigners, amount only to 17,000. Theſe make a figure at preſent on their income, but in caſe of a public bankruptcy, would, in an inſtant, become the loweſt, as well as the moſt wretched of the people, The dignity and authority of the landed gentry and nobility, are much better rooted, and would render the contention very unequal, if ever we come to that extremity. One would incline to aſſign to this event a very near period, ſuch as half a century, had not our fathers prophecies of this kind been already found fallacious, by the duration of our public credit, ſo much beyond all reaſonable expectation. When the aſtrologers in France were every year foretelling the death of Henry IV. theſe fellows, ſays he, muſt be right at laſt. We ſhall, therefore, be more cautious, than to aſſign any preciſe date, and ſhall content ourſelves with pointing out the event in general.

And, perhaps too, our foreign enemies, or rather enemy, (for we have but one to dread) may be ſo politic as to diſcover, that our ſafety lies in diſpair, and may not, therefore, ſhow the danger, open and barefaced, 'till it be inevitable. The balance of power in Europe, our grandfathers, our fathers, and we, have all juſtly eſteemed too unequal to be preſerved without our attention and aſſiſtance. But our children, weary with the ſtruggle, and fettered with incumbrances, may ſit down ſecure, and ſee their neighbours ſo oppreſſed and conquered; 'till at laſt, they themſelves and their creditors lie both at the mercy of the conqueror. And this may properly enough be denominated, the violent death of our public credit. See the articles MONEY, CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS.

Theſe ſeem to be the events, which are not very remote, and which reaſon foreſees as clearly almoſt as ſhe can do any thing, that lies in the womb of time.

And though the ancients maintained, that, in order to reach he gift of prophecy, a certain divine fury or madneſs was requiſite, one may ſafely affirm, that, in order to deliver ſuch prophecies as theſe, no more is neceſſary, than merely to be in one's ſenſes, free from the influence of popular madneſs and deluſion.

REMARKS on PAPER-CREDIT, ſince the laſt War, and the Peace of 1764.

Our public debts having near trebled ſince Mr Phipps wrote, the judicious reader will duly apply the ſame, in conjunction with what that gentleman has obſerved: certain it is, that the weight of our additional taxes has enhanced the prices of every thing taxed, in proportion thereto. See our Articles DUTIES and LABOUR, and BONDING AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

This increaſe of paper circulation, of which is before ſpoken, in a degree proportionate to the augmentation of our national debts and taxes, 'tis to be feared may occaſion ſuch an exorbitant riſe in the price of our Engliſh manufactures in general, that foreigners will not be in a condition to purchaſe them of us: and if we cannot ſell our wares, how ſhall we be able to purchaſe thoſe of foreigners? if once this proves to be our caſe, what will become of the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS? When we are unable to ſend our Engliſh manufactures, what will alſo become of the REVENUE OF EXCISE, when the greateſt part of our manufacturing people is rendered incapable to purchaſe EXCISEABLE COMMODITIES? Inſtead of theſe revenues producing any degree of a SINKING FUND for the gradual diſcharge of our PRINCIPAL MONEY PUBLIC DEBT, how ſhall we raiſe the intereſt? Flatter ourſelves as much as we will, there muſt aſſuredly be a NE PLUS ULTRA to our FUNDING AND BORROWING, or at length we muſt become a bankrupt nation, if we continue to increaſe our paper circulation more and more. Will not this at laſt enable our competitors in trade to beat us out of all the markets in the world; and then what chance ſhall we have to beat them with the ſword, when the national wealth is exhauſted, and we have not but paper to circulate, which we can never realize on the greateſt exigency?

PAR, in affairs of commerce, ſignifies any two things equal in value: and, in the exchange of money with foreign countries, the perſon to whom the bill is payable is ſuppoſed to receive the ſame value as was paid the drawer by the remitter; but this is not always the caſe with relation to the intrinſic value of the coins of different countries, which is owing to the fluctuation in the prices of exchange amongſt the ſeveral European countries and the great trading cities. In order to judge of the intrinſic par of foreign coins for mercantile uſes, ſee the articles COIN and EXCHANGE; for the uſe that may be made of this knowlege, alſo in a national light, ſee the article BALLANCE of TRADE.

Beſides the intrinſic par of exchange, there is another par, which, with no leſs propriety, we may diſtinguiſh by the extrinſic par of exchange. For the nature, uſes, and private advantages that may be made by this ſkill in the exchanges, ſee the articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGE, and alſo the capital trading cities of Europe, under the articles of their reſpective provinces, &c.

PARAGUAY, a province of South America, is bounded by the country of the Amazons on the north, by Brazil on the eaſt, by Patagonia on the ſouth, and by Peru and Chili on the weſt, lying between 12 and 37 degrees of ſouth latitude, and between 50 and 75 degrees of weſt longitude, being 1500 miles in length from north to ſouth, and almoſt as much in breadth. Some make it's extent far more conſiderable, but they are thought to exaggerate the matter. Some geographers make it to comprehend the ſeveral provinces or diſtricts following, 1. Paraguay, properly ſo called. 2. Chaco, or Tucuman. 3. Rio de la Plata. 4. Guayra, Parana, Urvaig, and, according to others, the captainric del Rey in Brazil.

If ſo, the extent is ſo conſiderable, that it muſt be ſuppoſed to have a variety of climates, ſoils, products, and inhabitants, the particulars whereof ſhall be given under the heads of each province above-mentioned.—To avoid needleſs repetitions, we ſhall firſt give a general account of the whole.

The land is, generally ſpeaking, very rich and fruitful, producing plenty of wheat, and other European grain, ſome vines, but chiefly abounds in ſugar-canes; and has whole woods of peaches, almonds, figs, &c. It is at preſent ſo well ſtocked with all ſorts of cattle, ſmall and large, that they run in a manner wild. The Portugueze in the Brazils kill them in great numbers only for their hides and ſuet, and let the fleſh rot on the ground. [See PORTUGUEZE AMERICA]. The natives eat their fleſh, but half raw. In ſome parts they are obliged to deſtroy their calves, to prevent their growing too numerous, through the richneſs of their paſture. They have alſo great plenty and variety of other beaſts, wild and tame horſes and mules in ſuch prodigious quantities, that the former run wild every where, and of the latter they ſupply Peru with 50,000 per ann. according to ſome, beſides what they ſend elſewhere, and keep for their own uſe.

Mines of iron and copper have been diſcovered in many parts of Paraguay, beſides ſome rich ones of gold and ſilver, and of the fineſt amethyſts.

PARAQUAY PROPER, ſo called, is the moſt northern of all, and neareſt to Brazil, being bounded by that on the north, on the eaſt by the province of Guayra, on the ſouth by thoſe of Rio de la Plata and Parana, and on the weſt by that of Chaco or Tucuman. But on the weſt and north, geographers do not ſeem to be acquainted with it's boundaries.

Paraguay Proper is divided into two equal parts almoſt, eaſtern and weſtern, by the river of it's name, which runs through the midſt of it from north to ſouth.

This river hath it's ſpring-head in the ſouthern part of the country of the Amazons, a little above the territories of the Xarayes, which lie from latitude 16 to 20 ſouth, and longitude weſt, ſpread themſelves from 50 to 55, and beyond, and are ſaid to abound with mines of gold and ſilver. In it's courſe from north to ſouth, it forms a large lake, called the Laguna de los Xarayes, from which it enters into the province of Paraguay Proper, where it waters the towns of Porto de la Candelaria, and the city of Aſſumption, the capital, whence it runs into the territory of Rio de la Plata. The chief rivers it receives are, Rio de los Payaguas, Botetes, Jacarii, Taraiti, Guacuri, Pilai, Tabati, Peribibus, Salado, Araguaig, Cunagba, Tibiquari, Japſur, Piſcomay, Parana, and Vermejo; and after having received theſe two laſt into it's ſtream, it then aſſumes the name of Rio de la Plata, near the town of Corrientes. (De Liſle.) According to the obſervations made by the jeſuits, anno 1702 and 1703, which are the lateſt and the beſt that ever were made; this river is found to ſpring from the mountains of Potoſi in Peru, of which we ſhall ſpeak in it's proper place. Father Techo reckons it one of the greateſt rivers in America, and gives it

a courſe

a courſe of 300 leagues before it falls into the Parana; and adds, that it is navigable about 200 when joined to it.

Father Jepp, who was there ann. 1691, ſays, that ſilver was then cheaper than iron, and that a common two penny knife would fetch a crown, a two ſhilling hat, ten or twelve crowns, a gun of ten or twelve ſhillings thirty crowns, and ſo of the reſt. As to the healthineſs of the climate, though we can ſay nothing to contradict it, yet moſt of our accounts tell us, the natives are far from enjoying the benefit of it; which is chiefly owing to their gorging themſelves with ſuch prodigious quantities of half raw fleſh, as fills them with worms and other crudities, that turn at length into dangerous diſeaſes.

The miſſionaries in thoſe parts where the natives are converted, take care to ſow great tracks of land with wheat, that they may have plenty of white bread, not only for themſelves, but to impart to the natives, who living moſtly on their Indian corn, are ſo fond of this, that they will give two or three horſes for a white loaf. They likewiſe take care to cultivate their vines, that they may not want wine to their muſic and good chear; and we are told, that they have ſo many of them, as yield 500 caſks of it in a year, if not ſpoiled by the piſmires, which are here very numerous, or by the waſps and birds, or blighted by the north-winds; for in this caſe it will make that liquor ſo dear, that a caſk will coſt twenty or thirty crowns, and after all cannot be preſerved from turning ſour, without a great mixture of lime. They have plenty of roots and herbs, and the only thing they want is oil to their ſallads, inſtead of which they are forced to uſe honey and ſugar. Silver is ſo plenty among them, that old ſhoes and hats are much more valued, and an ell of linnen hath fetched four or five crowns: whereas iron is ſo ſcarce that a horſeſhoe and a bitt for a bridle has been exchanged for ſeveral horſes.

The chief towns in Paraguay Proper and Chagua, lie in the following order:

1. Aſſumption. 2. Villa Rica. 3. Maracaju. 4. Arcacia. 5. Ypane. 6. Sant Ignatio. 7. Noſt. Sign. de la Fé. 8. Xeres, Conception Antiqua.

ASSUMPTION town, the metropolis of Paraguay, ſtands on the eaſtern banks of the river of it's name, a little above the place where the Picolmago falls into it, having Villa Rica on the north, and that of La Plata on the ſouth, and about ſeven or eight leagues from each. It was built by the Spaniards anno 1538 (De Laet, Rogers) and is famed for its healthy and advantageous ſituation, as well as for the number of it's inhabitants. The territory about it is exceeding rich and fruitful, produces plenty and variety of fruits, not only of thoſe which are natural to the country, but of thoſe which have been tranſplanted thither from Spain; and the air is there ſo temperate, that the trees are cloathed with a conſtant delightful verdure.

There are likewiſe very noble and rich paſtures, in it's neighbourhood around, on which are bred vaſt herds of cattle; ſo that there is ſuch an extraordinary plenty of all proviſions in the town, as makes the natives, blacks and others, ambitious of living in it.

VILLA RICA, or the RICH TOWN, ſtands near the ſame eaſtern banks of the Paraguay, about eight leagues (ſome ſay much farther) north of that of Aſſumption, on a ſmall river of no great note.

Thoſe called PUERTO DE LA CANDELARIA, and NOPA SENHORA DE FE, are the two moſt diſtant towns northward from the metropolis abovementioned, and have nothing worth notice except their fruitful territories.

II. The province of TUCUMAN, is bounded on the north partly by that called De los Chicas, in Peru, and partly by that of Chaco; and on the ſouth partly by that of Cayo, and partly by the territory of the Pampas; on the eaſt by Paraguay Proper, and Rio de la Plata; and on the weſt by the imperial biſhopric of St Jago in Chili, and by the ſouth end of the Chica's; extending itſelf from Rio Vermejo, which parts it from Chaco on the north, to that called Rio Quarto, which divides it from Cayo on the ſouth, almoſt 10 degrees, that is, from the 24th to the 34th of ſouth latitude; and from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt, that is, from the river Salado to the ridge De la Cordillera, which parts it from Chili, almoſt 7 degrees, that is, from 62 to 69 ½ of weſt longitude: ſo that it lies for the moſt part in a very temperate and healthy climate; and though it hath no mines diſcovered of either gold or ſilver, yet it's territory is both rich and well cultivated, eſpecially towards the government of Chili; but it hath ſome deſert cantons towards the Magellanic ſide. The climate is moderately hot, being all within the temperate zone, and their ſummer begins about the 10th of our September, and ends about the 9th of March.

The ſoil is of a ſandy nature, and almoſt without ſtones, which makes it very inconvenient for building; but the land is very well watered not only with ſome large rivers, but alſo with plenty of ſmall ones, brooks, and variety of ſprings and lakes; all which are commonly bordered with gardens, orchards, vines, and groves, which yield a noble proſpect, and delightful ſhade and verdure. The country between thoſe rivers produces plenty of cotton, wax, honey, paſtel, whichthey uſe for dyeing, beſides variety of fruits, roots, Indian wheat, &c. They likewiſe breed up vaſt quantities of cattle, large and ſmall, with great plenty of deer, and other game, fowl wild and tame, eſpecially partridges in great quantities, and a great variety of other fowl.

This country, which is commonly called Traplanda, and, by the inhabitants of the government of Chili, the province De la Sal, is computed to extend about 300 leagues in length, from north to ſouth, and abour 150 in breadth, where broadeſt, but varies as it runs more towards the ſouth, where it ends ſomewhat in the figure of a cone. It is inhabited chiefly by three ſavage nations, viz. the Tucumans, from whom the whole diſtrict is called, the Jurios, and Diaguites, the laſt of which employ themſelves in feeding of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, the wool of which is manufactured and dyed by them, and a great commerce is made of it through this whole province. Theſe ſheep are very large and ſtrong, though their wool is fine, and the inhabitants uſe them likewiſe for carriage, as we do here our horſes. The inhabitants are cloathed with their woollen and cotton manufactures, which they dye of ſeveral colours with their paſtel, and other ingredients.

The chief places in Tucuman are, 1. San Jago del Eſtero. 2. San Salvador, al Xuxui. 3. San Miguel. 4. Salta, or Lerma. 5. Londres. 6. Cordoua. 7. Eſteco, al N. S. de Talavera. 8. Rioja. 9. Putupas. 10. Soto la Punta. 11. Capo de San Luis. 12. De los Santos.

SAN JAGO DEL ESTERO, the metropolis of this province, and an epiſcopal ſee, is ſituated on the banks of the Dolce, or Sweet River, which is here pretty large and navigable, being able to carry large veſſels, and affords plenty and variety of fiſh: the town, however, is not very conſiderable, it conſiſting but of about 300 houſes, ſome ſay 500 families, and is without walls, ditch, or any other defence. The inhabitants are moſtly of the Maſticho and Mulatto kind, of dark yellow complexions, lazy, and ſickly, occaſioned by the heat of the climate, and more given to pleaſure than to any traffic or work. The country about it is rich, and produces plenty of wheat, rice, barley, fruits of all ſorts, particularly figs and raiſins.

SAN SALVADOR, or XUXUI, ſtands near the confines of Peru, at the foot of a high mountain, which forms part of the famed ridge called the Andes. It has a conſiderable river running by it, a little above the place where it falls into the Leon, from which both deſcend into the Rio Vermejo, or Red River. This town has about 300 houſes, and is the moſt northerly of all this province, and within a degree of the ſouthern tropic, about 83 leagues from Potoſi.

SAN MIGUEL, al ST MICHAEL, the firſt town the Spaniards founded in this country, is pleaſantly ſituated on a fertile plain, and near the banks of a ſmall river, which falls into the Rio Dolce, near San Jago, from which it is diſtant about 18 leagues to the north-weſt. Mr Baudrand, who calls it S. Michael de Eſtero, ſays it is the capital of Tucuman, and a biſhop's ſee, under the metropolitan of La Plata. The plain on which it ſtands is fertile, producing plenty of wheat, rye, barley, graſs, &c. ſo that it breeds great quantities of cattle, produces cotton, flax, ſome wine, and great abundance of wood for all uſes. The air is reckoned one of the ſweeteſt and healthieſt in all Paraguay, and the country well inhabited, and ſtored with all conveniencies of life.

SALTA ſtands on a ſmall river, which ſoon after falls into a neighbouring lake, and is at ſome ſmall diſtance ſouth-eaſt from San Salvador, and eaſt from the burning mountain of Capiapo, and about 15 leagues from Eſtero, and hath a bridge over the river. It is inhabited moſtly by Spaniards, to whom both it and the territory about it belongs, and hath about 400 houſes, and five or ſix churches or monaſteries. It hath neither walls, ditches, nor any other defence but it's inhabitants, who are about 500 men that bear arms, beſides their ſlaves, negroes, as well as Mulattoes, which may amount to about thrice that number. Salta is a place of great reſort, on account of the quantity of corn, meal, wine, cattle, ſalt meat, and ſuch other commodities, which are ſent hence into Peru, and other parts. Martiniere.

LONDRES, ſituate near a great marſh of it's name, cauſed by a ſmall river which comes down from the Andes, and falls into it, was built by Tarita, governor of this province, ann. 1555, in order to keep the natives in awe, and called it Londres, in compliment to our queen Mary, then married to king Philip of Spain. (Wood Rogers.) It ſtands near the frontiers of Chili, in latitude 29. 12 ſouth.

CORDOVA, ſituate about 100 leagues ſouth of San Jago del Eſtero, and 160 north-weſt-ward of Buenos-Ayres, is a conſiderable town in this province, but ſituate on a marſhy, though a rich and fertile ground, and bigger than Buenos-Ayres. It ſtands in latitude 31. 30. ſouth longitude, 63. 30. weſt, in a temperate climate and healthy, with equal winter and ſummer, and all the territory about it full of cattle, both great and ſmall, and abounding with excellent paſture. It all produces plenty of corn, fruits, and other neceſſaries, and hath ſeveral plentiful ſalt-pits; ſo that the town drives a conſiderable trade in thoſe commodities with Peru, it being ſituate on the road to Buenos Ayres. The inhabitants are Spaniards, and amount to about 300, who are moſtly employed in tilling the

the ground, and manufacturing of cotton cloth, which they ſend to Potoſi.

II. Rio De La Plata, ſo called from the famed river of that name, along whoſe banks it extends itſelf on each ſide about 200 leagues in length, from north to ſouth, and about 100 leagues, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt; is bounded on the north by the provinces of Chaco, Paraguay Proper, and Parana; on the eaſt by that of Urvaig; on the ſouth by the territory of Pampas; and on the weſt by Tucuman.

We muſt, however, remind our readers, that the limits of theſe provinces are far from certain or agreed on, eſpecially thoſe between this province and Tucuman, there being no boundaries fixed between them, becauſe the whole country is plain and champaign, without mountains or hills, or even ſo much as a tree, houſe, or hut, by which they might be terminated.

However, the climate is here moderate and healthy, and pretty far in the temperate zone, the country extending itſelf from the 32d, to almoſt the 37th degree of ſouth latitude. Their winter is in May, June, and July, when the nights are indeed very cold, but the days moderately warm; the froſt is neither violent or laſting, and the ſnows very inconſiderable.

The river De La Plata receives ſeveral conſiderable ones in it's courſe, ſo that it ſwells at ſome times to ſuch a degree, as to cover a great deal of land on each ſide, which, upon the abating of the water, is found to be much the fertiler by them. At ſuch ſeaſons, the natives betake themſelves to their canoes, wherein they put their families and goods 'till the inundation aſſuages, and then return to their old habitations. (Rogers.) The ſtream of it into the ſea is ſo ſtrong and rapid, that it ſweetens it for a great way. The water of it is ſaid to be very clear, and excellent for the lungs and wind, inſomuch that the people who live near it are ſaid to have very clear and melodious voices, and to be generally inclined to muſic. (Covaglie.) Our author adds, that it petrifies the branches of the trees that fall into it, and that veſſels are naturally formed of it's ſand, which are of various figures, look as if they were poliſhed by art, and keep the water cool. It likewiſe abounds with ſuch plenty and variety of fiſh, that the people catch it in great quantities, without any other inſtrument than their hands, and all along the banks are ſeen the moſt beautiful birds of all kinds. (Sepp.)

The plains about it are likewiſe affirmed to be ſo large and even, without any obſtruction to the ſight, that the ſun ſeems to riſe and ſet in them. It's courſe, from the confluence of thoſe two rivers that forms it, to it's mouth, is above 200 leagues: it runs moſtly to the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, and is navigable all the way by the largeſt veſſels, and full of delightful iſlands. Among the large rivers that fall into it on both ſides, thoſe called the Rio Vermejo, or Crimſon River, the Rio Dolce, or Salado, the Careaval, and ſome others, flow into it on the weſt, and the celebrated one of Urvaica, and ſome others on the eaſt ſide: ſo that, upon the whole, this famed river may, in all probability, be the greateſt in the world for breadth and continued depth, though perhaps that of the Amazons, Quebec, and ſome others, may equal or even excel it in length of courſe.

As the country on both ſides this river is very plain and extenſive, ſo their way of travelling is eaſy and pleaſant, viz. by high carts covered with hoops and ox-hides, and with conveniencies for travellers to ſleep in; which is ſo much the more convenient, becauſe they travel moſtly in the night, to avoid the exceſſive heat.

The product of this province is much the ſame with that of the others, that is, all ſorts of European and American fruits, both of wheat, cotton, ſugar, honey, &c. but the moſt wonderful increaſe in this country is that of the cattle of all kinds. For the plains here extending themſelves near, if not more, than 200 leagues, and abounding with ſuch an excellent paſture, the beaſts brought hither from Spain have multiplied to ſuch a degree, that they are all in common, no man claiming any property to them, but every man taking what he hath occaſion for.

The number of black cattle eſpecially, is here ſo prodigious, that they kill many thouſands of them merely for their hides, every time the ſhips go for Spain, and leave their carcaſes to be devoured by beaſts and birds of prey, which are here likewiſe very numerous: ſometimes, when they cannot vend their hides, they will kill them for their tongues, and thoſe that care not to be at the trouble of fetching them from the plains, may buy them for a ſhilling or two.

Thoſe likewiſe that make uſe of their milks, either for food or drink, may go into thoſe paſtures, and milk as many cows as they will, or carry off as many of their calves, and kill them for their food, they being all at the mercy of the firſt comer, and no man claiming more property to them than another. Horſes are no leſs numerous and cheap, and in common like the other cattle; ſo that they may be had likewiſe for fetching, in what quantities a man pleaſes; and of thoſe that are already broke, one may buy ſome of the beſt, and of the true Spaniſh breed, fit for ſervice, for a piece of eight per head; and it is confidently affirmed, if our author's accounts are not greatly exaggerated, that the Spaniards can bring 30,000 horſe into the field, all of Indians, well mounted, diſciplined, and accoutred. (Sepp.)

Game fowl is here in no leſs plenty; and the partridges, which are as large and tame as our hens, are in ſuch vaſt quantity, that one may kill them with a ſtick. Their wheat makes the fineſt and whiteſt of bread; and, in a word, they ſeem to want for nothing here, eſpecially the natives, but ſalt and fuel: the former the Spaniards have brought to them from other parts, and the latter they ſupply with planting of vaſt groves of almond, peach, and other trees, which require no other trouble than putting the kernels into the ground, and by the next year, we are told, they begin to bear fruit. The return for European goods is ſo prodigious, that it almoſt exceeds belief, inſomuch that an ordinary two-penny knife, or pair of ſciſſars, will fetch a crown, a gun of 10 or 12 ſhillings value, 20 or 30 crowns, and ſo of the reſt, down to old hats, ſhoes, needles, &c.

The chief towns in this province are, 1. Buenos-Ayres. 2. Santa Fé. 3. Corrientes. 4. Santa Luiſa; and 5. Chanas, beſides ſeveral others of leſs note.

The town of Buenos-ayres is ſo called from it's pleaſant and healthy ſituation, it being ſeated under the 34th degree of ſouth latitude, upon a riſing ground, at about 50 leagues from the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, and upon the ſouth ſide of it, that river being here 7 leagues in breadth, and navigable by any ſhip 60 leagues above the town, and no farther, by reaſon of a great cataract.

The territory about it, which is of a vaſt extent, is very fertile in fruits of all ſorts, and paſture grounds covered with vaſt quantities of cattle; and would be ſtill more ſo; if duly cultivated, eſpecially in corn, but the people there are lazy, and content themſelves with what nature produces, without labour. It bore formerly very excellent vineyards, from which they made ſome ſorts of exquiſite wines, beſides the vaſt quantity of grapes they dried for uſe: but they were deſtroyed by the piſmires, which chanced one year to appear in ſuch ſwarms, that they eat them all up, root and branch, ſo that they were forced to pluck them up.

Santa Fe' is the next Spaniſh eſtabliſhment in this province to that of Buenos Ayres, to which it is diſtant about 70 leagues to the north-weſt, in latitude 31. 40. ſouth: it ſtands on the mouth of a river, which falls into that of La Plata, and on the ſouth-weſt ſide of this latter. All the territory not only about it, but quite down to Buenos-Ayres, on each ſide of that river, is very rich in all productions, and vaſtly delightful. The town is built of brick, and encompaſſed with the ſmall river abovementioned, and was built by the Spaniards for the defence of both that of de la Plata, and of the rich gold and ſilver mines which are in the neighbonrhood of this ſettlement, though the Spaniards do not care to open them, leſt that ſhould encourage ſome of their enemies to come and take them from them. (Coreal, Rogers.)

Corrientes, or Corientes, is the next in courſe up the river, and ſtands about 80 leagues higher, being built by the Spaniards, on the confluence of the Parana and Paraquay, but is ſmall and inconſiderable, and no ways anſwering the dignity of it's ſituation between thoſe two famed rivers.

IV. The province of Parana, ſo called from the great river of it's name beforementioned, and which is it's boundary on the ſouth and eaſt, where it divides it from thoſe of Rio de la Plata, laſt deſcribed, and Urvaica; on the north it joins to that of Guayra, and the unknown iſlands of Brazil, and Paraguay Proper on the weſt. It's extent, as far as it is well known, that is, conquered and converted, is computed about 200 miles, all that is beyond being unknown to us as yet, and the breadth about 115 leagues, more or leſs according as it's limits wind more in or out.

The Parana hath it's ſpring-head in ſome of the unknown tracks of ſouthern Brazil, and holds it's courſe from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, in which it croſſes, and waters the provinces of Guayra and Urvaica, as well as this of Parana. It's longeſt courſe, excluſive of it't windings, is computed at 300 leagues, before it joins it's waves with thoſe of the Paraguay, near the town of Corientes, lately mentioned, on the moſt northern verge of Rio de la Plata, laſt deſcribed.

The towns belonging to this diſtrict did lie on the Parana, in the following order, San Ignatio, on the weſt ſide of it, about 30 leagues above the place where it joins with the Paraguay; Itapoa, or the Incarnation, about 16 leagues higher on the ſame ſide; Corpus, about 20 leagues higher on the eaſt ſide; Mondais, on a river of it's name, near its fall into the Parana on the weſt; Santa Maria d'Ignazu, on it's confluence with it on the eaſt, and now lying in ruins; Acarai, overagainſt it, on the weſt ſide; Jovara, on the river of it's name, where it falls into this on the weſt; and Paquiri, on another of it's name, overagainſt it. We know very little of theſe towns, except their ſituation, and much leſs of thoſe of Loretto and San Ignatio, on the Cucapa and Yuti, which lie more remote from the river, and of that of St Anne, on the lake of Apupan.

V. The Province of Guayra, is bounded on the north by the unknown tracks of Brazil, and the nations of the Tupiques; on the eaſt by the captainric of St Vincent, in the ſame

ſame country, and partly by the Northern Ocean; on the ſouth it hath the province of Urvaica, and part of that of Parana; and on the weſt the remainder of the ſame province, from which it is divided by the river of that name: it's extent, from eaſt to weſt, is computed about 150 leagues, and about 140 from north to ſouth; it's boundaries towards Brazil are uncertain.

The tropic of Capricorn cuts it almoſt into two equal parts, ſo that it's climate muſt of courſe be very hot, though moiſt, by reaſon of the vaſt dews and rains, ſo that it is very fruitful in proviſions, as well as diſeaſes; inſomuch that ſome repreſented it as a fitter habitation for wild beaſts than human creatures: and yet we are told that it was pretty well peopled at the firſt coming of the Spaniards.

It is watered by ſeveral rivers, which fall into the Parapana, which laſt deſcends from the ſouthern mountains of Brazil, and is of a conſiderable bigneſs before it falls into the Parana. The chief of thoſe that fall into the Parana, are the Tibaxiva, Pirapus, and Itangua, beſides ſome others of leſs note. Both ſides of thoſe rivers are covered with ſeveral ſorts of trees, the moſt valuable of which among the natives are the cedars, which are very numerous, and ſo tall and large, that they make veſſels of one ſingle trunk, which will carry 20 oars. Others produce excellent fruits, and ſome of them yield a good kind of balſam.

VI. The province of URVICA, commonly called URVAIG, and URVAIGA, is bounded by that of Guayra, laſt deſcribed, on the north; on the ſouth by the mouth of Rio de la Plata; on the eaſt by the captainric Del Rey; and on the weſt by the province of Parana, from which it is parted by the river of that name. It extends itſelf from 25 to 33. 20. of ſouth latitude; the length of it, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, being computed ſomewhat above 210 leagues, and the breadth of it, from eaſt to weſt, about 130 where broadeſt, but much narrower in other parts. It is divided into two parts, viz. eaſt and weſt, by the river of it's name, which riſes out of a ſmall ſpring in the country called Ibiturua, near the mountains of South Brazil, and runs quite through the midſt of it, from north to ſouth: ſome Geographers gave it the name of the river of the Miſſions, but it is very ſmall and inconſiderable during a courſe of ſeveral ſcore of miles, 'till it comes to receive divers others into it's ſtream, which ſwell it ſo far, that it becomes at length almoſt equal to that of Paraguay, and falls into the Rio de la Plata, almoſt overagainſt the town of Buenos-Ayres.

In it's courſe, upon leaving the mountains of Brazil, and through the territory of Ibiturua, it's ſtream runs moſtly ſouth-weſt, after which it winds more to the ſouth, and runs almoſt parallel with the Parana. It's ſtream runs near 200 leagues from it's ſource, with a prodigious noiſe, occaſioned by huge rocks and ſtones, which lie in it at certain diſtances, and make it incapable of carrying ſhips of burthen; but, in winter, the vaſt floods and ſtreams that pour down into it, make it look more like a ſea, and overflow a great deal of land on each ſide. After a courſe of about 200 leagues, it begins to enlarge it's ſtream, and flows more gently and ſmoothly about as many more, the whole courſe of it being computed about 400 leagues.

Captain Woods Rogers, who calls this large river Uruguay, adds, on the authority of Father Sepp, that it hath a prodigious cataract, which he looks upon as an obſtacle appointed by divine providence, to preſerve the poor natives from the avarice and cruelty of the Spaniards, who are thereby prevented from proceeding farther up, and ſettling themſelves in thoſe rich cantons. He obſerves, that theſe Indians are very harmleſs and ignorant, and not only fall into the vices of the Spaniards, but likewiſe under their heavy yoke; for it ſeems they make no difference between converts and idolaters, but uſe all with the like tyranny, and as if they were no better than brutes.

The plains formerly were full of oſtriches, lions, ſeveral ſorts of goats and deer, but at preſent all that vaſt extent of land on both ſides of the river Urvaig is turned into paſture grounds, covered with an infinite number of cattle, eſpecially cows and horſes, which run wild upon them.

CAPITANIA DEL REY, or the ROYAL CAPTAINRIC. This diſtrict is by ſome joined with the captainrics of Brazil, and by others made a province of Paraguay: it extends itſelf along the eaſtern coaſt of the latter, quite from the captainric of St Vincent, from which it is divided by the river of St Francis quite to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, that is, from 26 to 35 degrees of latitude, extending itſelf, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, the length of 10 degrees, and about four in breadth, where broadeſt. It has no places of any note, nor indeed any river worth deſcribing, except that of the Holy Ghoſt, and that called Rio de Martin de Souza; the former of theſe is alſo called Rio Grande, and it's mouth Barra de Rio Grande de Alagoa, and Puerto de San Pedro; it is formed by the two rivers of Tibiquari and Igat, both which have their courſe near the mountains of Ibiturua, but by a different courſe, the one directly ſouthward, of above 100 leagues, and the other ſouth-weſtward, of above 160; during which, each of them receives ſeveral others; they unite their ſtreams at laſt, in the territory called Terra dos Patos, and thence taking a turn ſouth-weſtward, and parallel to the ſea-coaſt, form a ſlip of land of about five leagues in breadth, and 50 in length, and empty themſelves into the Northern Ocean, at the barra abovementioned, and is is from the confluence of thoſe two rivers to this place that it hath the name of Santo Spiritu, or St Eſprit; the other, called Rio de Martin de Souza, ſprings from the mountains in the country of Tape, and runs directly ſouthward into the ſame ocean, about 60 leagues from the bar, or mouth, of the Holy Ghoſt.

The country is poorly inhabited, either by natives or Portugueze, the latter having formerly made ſuch havock of the former, that thoſe that were leſt were glad to retire farther into Paraguay, to avoid their cruelty.

REMARKS.

The Jeſuits of Paraguay having been ſo daring as to oppoſe, with an armed force, a new regulation of limits agreed upon in America, between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, as appears by late accounts from Madrid, it may ſeem ſurprizing how thoſe reverend fathers ſhould reſiſt the orders of ſuch good friends to them as the Spaniſh and Portugueze governments are, and much more ſo, that they ſhould be able to reſiſt them effectually: therefore, we doubt not but the following account, extracted from the beſt authors, will be acceptable to ſuch as are ſtrangers to the empire which the Jeſuits have founded in that country.

The ſettlement made by the Jeſuits upon the river Paraguay in America, is extremely remarkable. Theſe good fathers, every where indefatigable in improving their apoſtolical talents, and turning the ſouls of men into eccleſiaſtical traffic and power, began there by drawing together, into one fixed habitation, about 50 families of wandering Indians, whom they had perſuaded to take their word implicitly for whatever they told them: for this is what they call converſion, and is, indeed, the true art of making Papiſts, who have no other ground for their faith but the aſſertions of their prieſts.

From this beginning, and ſuch encouragement, theſe holy fathers ranging the country, and dazzling the ſtupid ſavages with their ſhining beads, charming them with their pious tales and grimaces, and their tuneful devotions, made ſuch a harveſt of converts, as to form a commonwealth, or rather an empire of ſouls: for every convert is a ſubject moſt blindly obedient.

The holy fathers, not 50 in number, are thus ſovereigns of a noble country, larger than ſome kingdoms, and better peopled. It is divided into ſeveral large diſtricts, each of them governed by a ſingle Jeſuit, who is, as it were, a provincial prince, but more powerful and revered, and better obeyed, than any European, or even any eaſtern monarch.

His word is not only a law, but even an oracle; his nod infers ſupreme command: he is abſolute lord of life, and death, and property, may inflict capital puniſhment for the lighteſt offence, and is more dreaded, and therefore more obeyed, than the Deity. His miniſters and officers, civil and military, are doomed by him to the meaneſt puniſhments, and whipped, not only like common ſlaves, but like common felons: nor is this all their puniſhment, at leaſt all their abaſement, which, to a man of ſpirit, is the worſt puniſhment: while they are yet marked and mangled with the laſh, they run (colonels and captains run) and kneel before their holy ſovereign, condemn themſelves for having incurred his pious diſpleaſure, and, humbly kiſſing his reverend ſleeve, thank him for the fatherly honour he has done them, in correcting them like dogs.

So much tameneſs and vaſſalage is part, and an important article, of their converſion: they pretend to be even pleaſed with their ſtate of bondage, and care not what they do and ſuffer here, for the mighty treaſures of joy and liberty which are inſured to them hereafter by the good father, who gives them all that he has to give in the next world, and, by way of barter and commands, takes all that they have in the preſent.

The poor Indians cultivate the ground, dig and plow, and reap and ſow; they make ſtuffs, and other manufactures; they rear fowls, they breed cattle, they carry burthens, and ſlaviſhly labour above-ground, as well as under it, where, in ſweat and darkneſs, and in peril of periſhing, they drudge in the mines: yet, with all this induſtry, they earn nothing for themſelves: all their earnings, all the profit and advantages appertain not to them, but ſolely to their Popiſh prieſts, their ſpiritual ſovereigns, who rewards them to the full with what coſt them nothing, bleſſings and maſſes, and diſtant proſpects, which they leave to God, while they tyrannize over them like devils upon earth. Their grain and manufactures are all carried into their prieſts warehouſes, their cattle and fowls into their yards, their gold and ſilver into their treaſury: they dare not wear a rag of their own ſpinning, nor taſte a grain of their own ſowing, nor a bit of meat of their own feeding, nor touch the metal of their own producing; no not ſo much as an egg from the hens they rear: they themſelves are fed and ſubſiſted from day to day, by a limited allowance, furniſhed them by the appointment, and at the mercy of their great lord, a worthleſs and imperious prieſt.

Yet, under all theſe diſcouragements, they are diligent and laborious to the laſt degree, and vie with one another for the high price and diſtinction beſtowed by the father upon ſuch

as excel moſt in their work and induſtry, even the bewitching honour of kiſſing his ſleeve. The ſecond commandment in their table of duties is, To fear the Jeſuit, and to obey him; as the two next are much akin to it, and of the like tendency, even to ſtudy humility, and to contemn all worldly goods, in order to inrich the prieſt. The precept of fearing God ſeems to be prefixed for form, and in policy only, ſince it is impoſſible there ſhould be any knowlege of God where the exerciſe of reaſon is not known nor permitted; nor can God be ſaid to be regarded by thoſe who uſe the images of God like beaſts.

All theſe ſtores and warehouſes, ſo much grain, ſo much gold and ſilver, ſo many commodities, from ſo fine, ſo large and ſo plentiful a country, abounding in mines, in rivers, and meadows full of horſes and ſheep and black cattle, of timber and fruit-trees, of flax and indico, hemp and cotton, ſugar, drugs, and medicinal herbs, as we have ſeen, muſt enable theſe good fathers, who have renounced all wealth, and the world itſelf, to carry on an infinite and moſt lucrative trade, in which, though they have vowed poverty, they are extremely active, and conſequently muſt make that Jeſuitical government a moſt powerful one.

It hath advantages which no other government ever had, an abſolute independency upon it's people and their purſes, the whole wealth of the country in their preſent poſſeſſion, the people abſolutely ſubmiſſive, and reſigned to their good pleaſure, and all it's calls; no factions; not a malecontent; an army of 60,000 men, all tame and tractable, devoted to blind obedience, commanded in chief by Jeſuits, and obſtinately averſe to be commanded by any other generals; a vaſt revenue of many millions; no trouble in taxing, nor any time loſt in collecting taxes, the people being moulded by their prieſts to throw all their property at their feet. Behold, Britons, and tremble at the ſhocking effects of Popery!

Such a government, whilſt it proceeds upon the ſame principle, is unchangeable. No wonder theſe jeſuits are extremely jealous and tender, not only in keeping the poor natives ſlaves to ignorance and bigotry, in order to keep them vaſſals to themſelves; but in concealing ſo much empire and wealth from all the world, eſpecially from Spain, from whence they were ſent, at the expence of that crown, to convert the Indians, and make them ſubject to the Spaniſh monarchy.

The good fathers are ſo far from meaning any ſuch thing, that they not only carefully avoid teaching them the Spaniſh tongue, but preſs it upon them, as a point of conſcience, not to converſe with the Spaniards. If any Spaniard happens to come amongſt them (a thing which the jeſuits are ſo far from encouraging, that they care not to ſee it) he is indeed civilly uſed, but carefully confined within the walls of their holy citadel, the preſbytery: or if, by earneſt intreaty, he obtains leave to walk through the town, he is cloſely guarded by a jeſuit at his ſide, and ſees not a native in the ſtreets; for they are ordered to ſhut themſelves up, and faſten their doors, upon any ſuch occaſion.

Beſides, theſe vigilant fathers keep five or ſix thouſand men, employed in ſeveral detachments (apoſtolic troops) to watch and ſcour the frontiers, in order to cut off all intercourſe with the neighbouring countries, not yet ſubjected to theſe pious fathers of the church. Towards one of their frontiers particularly, leſt the rich mines in it might invite a ſettlement from abroad, they have deſtroyed all the houſes, in order to diſcourage any ſuch ſettlement. For theſe ſelf-denying friars, who are ſworn to poverty, have an ardent zeal to ſecure all theſe wealthy mines to themſelves for religious purpoſes, as they impiouſly pretend.

Theſe poor-rich humble ſovereign miſſionaries, as they are maſters of ſuch immenſe wealth, all conſecrated to their own uſe, that is, to the uſe of religion, make a proper diſplay of it. The churches are ſpacious, magnificent in their ſtructure, and ſet off with all pomp and decorations, grand porticoes and colonnades, rich altars, adorned with baſſo relievo, pictures in frames of maſſy gold, and ſaints of ſolid ſilver, the foot and ſides covered with cloth of gold, and the pedeſtals with plates of gold; the tabernacle made of gold; the pyx, or box for the ſacrament, of gold, ſet round with emeralds and other coſtly jewels; the veſſels and candleſticks made of gold; the whole, when illuminated, making a ſhew almoſt beyond belief. A proper bait for the eyes of the poor deluded natives, who, by ſuch fine ſights, and the pious mountebankry attending them, are retained in due awe and wonder.

The princely perſons of the poor jeſuits are ſuitably lodged in a ſpacious palace, containing grand apartments, furniſhed with many pictures and images, with proper lodgings for their train of officers and domeſtics; the quadrangles and gardens all in proportion; the whole court making a ſquare of ſome miles. And the numerous opulent warehouſes, belonging to theſe holy diſintereſted men, are their property, ariſing out of the induſtry and labour of the poor people.

Such is the ſituation, ſuch the ſtate and inimitable authority of every jeſuit in Paraguay. There are but forty odd of theſe monks in all that great track of country, and in it they have above a million of ſouls, not only to obey them, but to worſhip them; nor do theſe, their ſightleſs and abject ſlaves, know any other god: for where the true God is ever ſo little known, no man will worſhip friars, who always paint him as like themſelves, as they themſelves are, in reality, unlike him.

REMARKS in another Light, before the laſt War, on our article PARAGUAY.

The climate and ſoil of Buenos-Ayres has been thought ſo inviting, that ſome have ſuggeſted extraordinary advantages would ariſe to Great-Britain by a ſettlement to be made here in time of war; and, indeed, as we have been ſo many years very roughly treated by the Spaniards, in our Weſt-India commerce, we ſhould caſt about in times of peace for every place, the taking of which in time of war, might prove beneficial to us, and injurious to the Spaniards, in order to bring them to reaſon by force, if we cannot do ſo by other meaſures.

Would it not be the higheſt act of benevolence, would it not be acting according to the pure and uncorrupt ſpirit of Chriſtianity, to relieve ſuch a country from the oppreſſion and tyranny of Popiſh prieſtcraft?

There runs a noble highway from Buenos-Ayres to the province of Los Charcos, in which and Potoſi, the moſt conſiderable mines are found; and as this province is the ſouthermoſt of the whole kingdom of Peru, ſo conſequently all South America may be ſupplyed with goods or merchandize of all kinds they want this way, infinitely cheaper than any other.

The reaſon why the Spaniards do not make uſe of it for this purpoſe, ſhall be given hereafter. But we think it not amiſs, to give our reader here an account how all South America has been ſupplied with European commodities.

In the firſt place, the goods that come from England are ſhipped at Cadiz aboard the galleons, which carry them to Porto Bello, where they are unloaded, and ſent over-land on mules backs to Panama, and there re-ſhipped on board ſhips in the South-Sea, and carried to Callao, and from thence diſperſed over-land again to the ſeveral provinces of that vaſt continent; from whence, it is plain, the charges of exportation exceed the prime coſt of the goods four or five times.

Whereas, by Buenos-Ayres the charges would be inconſiderable, in compariſon with the uſual way: for the journey from hence to Peru, is made with much eaſe in ſixty days; and for horſes or mules for the carriages, no country in the world is ſo plentifully ſtocked with them as this, for all Peru is ſupplied with theſe animals from hence: and throughout the whole journey they paſs not in the leaſt danger of any hoſtile Indians, for the province of Tucuman, through which they paſs, hath enjoyed a perfect tranquillity from the firſt planting of it by the Spaniards, excepting about Salta, which borders upon the valley of Calchaqui, from whence they uſed to be plagued by the Chileans; and for which reaſon the requas or caravan of mules, which uſe this trade, never come near it.

They meet likewiſe upon this road at every forty or fifty leagues with good towns, as Cordova, St Jago de Leſtro, St Michael de Tucuman, Effeco, Xuxio, Omagoaca, Soechoa, and others, and ſingle plantations diſperſed up and down the country, which make the way both pleaſant and commodious.

The intelligent reader will conſider the vaſt differences betwixt the way now in uſe, and that to ſupply this part of Spaniſh America by the way of Buenos-Ayres, by caſting his eyes upon the maps to help him to form a true judgment upon the matter: he ought, at the ſame time, to remember the inconveniences, as well as charge in entering all the goods at Cadiz in Spaniſh names, to prevent confiſcation, before they can be put on board the galleons, and the many hazards they are expoſed to in embarking and re-embarking ſo often; beſides the land-carriage very often of ſeveral hundred leagues before they come to their intended market, which makes them ſo exceſſive dear, that what coſts one hundred pounds at Cadiz, muſt of neceſſity be ſold for near a thouſand, to recompence the merchant, in any tolerable degree, for the charges and riſque he hath run, as well as the long time he muſt be out of his money.

Whereas, by this way of Buenos-Ayres, when the goods can be carried thither in Engliſh bottoms, if what coſt one hundred pounds in England, be only ſold at market for 250 l. the merchant will gain conſiderably more by it, and be able to have three returns in the time he made one the other way. And it is certain, upon ſo conſiderable a fall of thoſe goods they ſtand in ſo much need of, the conſumption of them will be much augmented; for our ſtuffs and cloths are ſo unreaſonably dear, for the reaſons already mentioned, that the poorer ſort, and even the trading people, make uſe of Quito cloth for their wearing apparel, and only the better ſort uſe Engliſh cloths and ſtuffs. But if we could ever be able to ſettle our trade effectually this way, we ſhould utterly ruin the manufacture at Quito in a few years.

Though much more might be ſaid on this head, yet for the ſake of brevity we omit it: we have ſaid enough to thoſe who are competent judges. This is an article of great importance to England. If we were once neſted here ſecurely

(which

(which if we can ever be perſuaded to undertake heartily, I do not in the leaſt doubt may be eaſily effected in time of war, and our poſſeſſions ſecurely maintained) we ſhould be able, in deſpite both of French and Spaniards, to enjoy a more lucrative trade than ever with South America. For,

Buenos-Ayres, and the country depending on it, afford ſeveral commodities that Peru cannot be without: in the firſt place, all the mules and horſes that are uſed in the preſidency of Los Charcos, where they have ſo great occaſion for them in carrying firſt the ore, and afterwards the ſilver, from place to place, come from hence; and they would have much to do to ſubſiſt at Potoſi, was it not for the great quantity of dried cow's fleſh that is brought from Buenos-Ayres hither, which the ordinary people ſubſiſt upon.

It is not to be imagined how dear proviſions of all kinds are at the mines; and it is worth taking notice of, that all countries in the world that afford gold or ſilver in any plenty, are deſtitute of all other conveniences, and very unhealthy, Chili only excepted.

But what is yet of more importance than all the before-mentioned commodities, is the herb of Paraguay, that is only to be found in the country adjacent, and depending upon the government of Buenos-Ayres; a thing of that mighty conſequence to Peru and Chili, that without it they would find it impoſſible to dig any ſilver ore out of the mines: for thoſe poor wretches, negroes and Indians, that are employed in working in them, are almoſt every hour ſuffocated with mineral vapours, which they meet with in thoſe vaſt ſubterranean caverns; and then nothing will recover them but a liquor, made by infuſing this herb in warm water, ſweetened with ſugar, and drank plentifully, which reſtores them to their former vigour.

Sometimes, when the caſe is very bad, and the ſlaves almoſt dead before they can be brought into the freſh air, they uſe it for an emetic, which is done by making the infuſion ſtronger, and leaving out the ſugar, which clears the ſtomach of the offenſive matter, and ſaves their lives, where every thing elſe is found ineffectual.

The inhabitants that live on the ſurface are likewiſe extremely plagued by theſe mineral exhalations, and their bodies dried, or rather parched up to that degree, that if it was not for this ſame remedy, or liquor, which they are all day ſipping, there would be no living near the mines. And with all the care they can take, without doubt their lives are ſhortened extremely; but what is not avarice capable of doing? In a word, without this herb the mines would be of little or no uſe, and the province of Los Charcos very thinly inhabited.

This herb is gathered in the country of Paraguay, near the city of Aſſumption, which is ſituated upon the river of Plate, about one hundred leagues above Buenos-Ayres, and there made into packs, and ſent down the river to Santa Fé, a ſmall village about eighty leagues above Buenos-Ayres, and depending upon that government; where the merchants from Chili and Peru come to buy it, and load it upon mules, and convey it to their reſpective cities.

This village of Santa Fé, is the only paſs by which it can go to Peru; for people muſt not imagine that one can pick and chuſe which way they will go in thoſe countries, as they can in Europe; it is very providential they have that one good road through ſo large a country, ſo ſparingly inhabited. But ſuppoſe they could do this, it would be to little purpoſe; for if ever we become poſſeſſed of Buenos-Ayres, we muſt likewiſe fortify Santa Fé, which at preſent contains not many houſes, without any great fortification, and take Aſſumption, and ſettle it with a colony of our own.

This city is ſaid to contain about 1000 families, but is no better defended than the other.

It was ſettled by people that had, by their lazineſs and ill management, out-run their fortunes in Peru; and, to this day, ſerves for a retreat to all ſuch people as can live no where elſe in the Indies.

The country round it affords every thing neceſſary for life, even in too great abundance, for which reaſon the inhabitants are exceeding lazy, and utterly neglect commerce, ſpending their time in feaſting and playing on the guitar.

They have very little money ſtirring amongſt them, bartering one thing for another like the Indians. This herb ſerves to procure them cloathing from Buenos-Ayres, as well as all other European goods they want: in ſhort, the country is much too good for it's worthleſs inhabitants, and it's much more worthleſs prieſts. We deſire our readers to obſerve, that all the places we have deſcribed, as Buenos-Ayres, Santa Fé, and Aſſumption, are ſituated upon the ſame river; and though the diſtance between them at firſt ſeems to be very conſiderable, yet their having a direct and eaſy communication by water, makes the paſſage more convenient than fifty miles by land would be.

It is very obvious, therefore, to every common eye, that if we can ever ſettle ourſelves at Buenos-Ayres, the Spaniards will be under an abſolute neceſſity to open a trade with us; nay, it is in our power to impoſe what terms we pleaſe upon them; but if we had no other way to obtain it, than the affording our goods as cheap again as they can furniſh themſelves with the other way, even that, with a little patience, would infallibly produce it. But without truſting to that, we ſhould have them in a manner at our mercy, by having the herb of Paraguay in our hands.

But we have ſtill another lure for the Spaniards, as powerful and as proper to produce the deſired effect, as any yet mentioned; which is, the ſupplying them with negroes in ſufficient number, and cheaper than formerly.

This is the great inconveniency, which the Spaniards have laboured under this laſt age; for having in a manner utterly deſtroyed the natural inhabitants, they are obliged now to perform the work by negroes, of which they could never get the number they wanted; and it is certain, if they were fully ſupplied, they would get yearly above twice the quantity of ſilver they now do.

It muſt be confeſſed they uſed all means imaginable to obtain them. The Genoeſe undertook to ſupply them at a concerted price betwixt them, for which end they formed a company called the Aſſiento, who had their factors at Jamaica, Curaſoa, and Brazil; and let it be conſidered what a prodigious tour they made before they got to the mines; firſt from Guinea to Jamaica, from thence to Porto Bello, and then to Panama, where they were re-ſhipped on board the fleet when returning to Callao; which is a voyage of four months at leaſt, for they have the wind in their teeth every league of this voyage. After ſtaying ſome little time at this laſt mentioned port, they were put on ſhip-board again, and ſent to Africa, which is a voyage of a month, or thereabouts; and when landed, they can't have leſs than 150 miles to the mines: from whence it is obvious, that not above one negroe in three arrived at Potoſi, or the adjacent mines, of thoſe that were originally bought by their factors for that end. Whereas, the negroes that might be ſent from Buenos-Ayres (as was done by the late Aſſiento contract, veſted in the South-Sea company) would be liable to none of the inconveniences that the other poor wretches ſuffered, as paſſing through ſo many different unhealty climates, and ſo many tedious voyages by ſea, enough to wear out bodies of ſteel, eſpecially conſidering how the miſerable creatures are accommodated all the time both with lodging and diet: but this way, they would have but one ſhort voyage by ſea; for, from the coaſt of Guinea to Buenos-Ayres, they would ſail four parts in five of the voyage before the wind; and when landed, paſs through one of the moſt plentiful and healthieſt countries in the world, even in a manner to the mine's mouth: ſo that one may venture to affirm, that with careful management, they would not loſe one in ten. This article alone is of prodigious conſequence, and capable to render our African trade infinitely more flouriſhing than it is at preſent; for a cargo, rightly ſorted for Guinea, conſiſts of fourſcore different commodities at leaſt, of which ſeventy are of the manufactures and produce of this country; and they return us gold, ſlaves, ivory, and wood for dyeing.

There is another capital article of commerce in Buenos-Ayres, which ſhould not be omitted; which is that of hides: though this article ſounds meanly, after ſo many great ones already mentioned; yet, when better examined, will be found of no ſmall conſequence. Monſieur Acarete du Biſcay, the Spaniſh hiſtorian, ſays, when he firſt arrived there, he found riding in the port twenty-two Dutch ſhips, who had on board, one with another, 14000 hides each; and he computes the hides to be worth, in Europe, no more than twenty-five ſhillings a-piece (which is far from the caſe at preſent): and he further ſays, that if there had been fifty ſhips, they might have had the like loading; this therefore is no deſpicable article. This happened when Oliver had declared war againſt Spain, which had put ſuch a ſtop to the trade betwixt Cadiz and America, that the inhabitants were obliged to trade with the Dutch, or want all ſorts of European goods; for, by the law of Spain, this was capital, and the governor, notwithſtanding the neceſſity, was ſome ſmall time after ſent, for this very thing, a priſoner to Spain, and all he had was ſeized for the king's uſe.

The court of Spain ſuffers but two ſhips to go yearly from Cadiz to this colony; and there is not a little ſtriving, who ſhall be the people concerned in them; for they gain above double what the merchants do that ſend their goods in the galleons, and have their returns in much leſs time.

The Spaniſh miniſters of ſtate have been very often ſtrongly ſollicited to bring home all the treaſures of Peru and Chili this way, and utterly forſake that of Porto Bello, as apparently more expoſed to all enemies, eſpecially ſince they have loſt Jamaica. The court was very much inclined to this advice, as being ſenſible of the truth of the allegations, by many ſorrowful experiences in the wars they have had both with the Dutch and us; but upon ſcanning this propoſal more deliberately, they rejected it, becauſe they plainly perceived, if they ſhould abandon the uſual way, a great many cities, and tracks of land, that were then in a flouriſhing condition, would, in a ſhort time, become deſolate, becauſe they abſolutely depend upon the paſſage of the ſilver, and other merchandizes of Peru and Chili, either through or near them; by which means the other nations of Europe, that have not ſuch choice of countries to ſettle, would ſeize upon them, and become

become nearer neighbours to the Spaniards than their true intereſt will allow of.

It muſt be confeſſed, that the Spaniards, upon this occaſion, made a true judgment upon the matter in debate. But if any nation in war with them, ſhould ſeize upon Porto Bello, and think that way to diſtreſs them by hindering them from bringing home the ſilver of Peru, they would find themſelves extremely deceived, and laughed at by the Spaniards, who would very readily change the courſe of it this way; and when the war was over, re-ſettle it again if they ſaw occaſion. I cannot help taking notice here, of a great many people, who, at the beginning of the late war, were full to the brim with the notion of taking Porto Bello and Panama, as if they thought to impriſon the ſilver in the mines; for, by their politics, the Spaniards were neither to have negroes to work them, or a paſſage to bring it to Europe. I have loſt too much time in mentioning ſuch a weak ineffectual project, if it was not in every body's mouth almoſt that pretends to ſpeak of this matter. Nor is this mentioned to depreciate the merit of the worthy, upright, and public-ſpirited admiral, who has always laboured to do his country all ſervices in his power.

If my countrymen have this at heart, as one would think there ſhould be little reaſon to doubt of, let them turn their thoughts upon Buenos-Ayres or Chili; but the firſt is by much to be preferred, for many reaſons: for a voyage to Chili and back again, cannot take up leſs time than twenty months, and a ſhip muſt paſs through as ſtormy and tempeſtuous a ſea as any in the world; whereas to the river of Plate will not take up half the time, and in all probability will meet with little or no bad weather in the whole voyage. Secondly, the viceroy of Peru will not be able to diſturb you at Buenos Ayres, before you probably will have received a ſecond ſupply or reinforcement, but not ſo with Chili. Thirdly, we are more certain of procuring a trade with Peru from hence than from Chili, becauſe of the ſeveral commodities that Buenos-Ayres, and the country adjacent afford, which Peru ſtands in abſolute need of, and can no way diſpenſe without them: there are yet many more reaſons, and, in my opinion, very cogent ones, which, for brevity's ſake, I omit.

When this acquiſition is once made, you need never fear procuring inhabitants, for there will be more occaſion for the bridle than the ſpur; the certain proſpect of being enriched, the plenty and healthineſs of the country, will be ſuch incitement to people impoveriſhed by want of trade and Popiſh ſlavery, that the country would infallibly abound with inhabitants on a ſudden.

But there ought to be better order obſerved in ſettling this country, than that we have hitherto practiſed in our other colonies in America; for it is the greateſt wonder in the world they ever arrived to any perfection: and, indeed, it was in a great meaſure owing to our civil wars, which made many wealthy people fly thither with their ſubſtance. This was the occaſion of the haſty growth of thoſe of Barbadoes and Virginia; indeed New England and Penſylvania, owe their riſe to the ſectaries.

It hath both angered and grieved me, to obſerve in our contiguous colonies upon the continent, this want of foreſight; for I am very ſure if one was attacked by an enemy, the governor of the next, though ever ſo well diſpoſed, would find it the hardeſt matter imaginable to get 500 men together to march to the relief of his neighbour, though they were ſure their own turn would be the next. This is but a ſmall inſtance to what I can give, if I thought it proper. But it is to be hoped, this will ſoon be effectually remedied by the authority of a Britiſh parliament; for we ſee at this time, what inſult the colony of Virginia has lately ſuffered by the French. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA and NORTH CAROLINA.

In the peopling Buenos-Ayres, if ever it ſhould become the Britiſh poſſeſſion, I adviſe my country to follow the Turkiſh policy, and make the people hold their land by the ſame tenure as their Timariote; only it ſhould deſcend to their heirs, upon keeping or obſerving the original contract: which is, to be ready to come completly armed to the appointed rendezvous, and ſerve wherever, and as long as the government requires. The number of acres that might be then allowed for every ſoldier, muſt be ſettled after ſome years obſervation. Another thing that muſt be remembered, is, never to grant too great a tract of land to one man; for this is the greateſt hindrance to the peopling a colony that can be, and is the very diſeaſe that ſome of our plantations are ſick of, as Carolina, New York, and the Jerſeys; neither is Virginia or Maryland free from this diſtemper, which is occaſioned by raſcals taking up the land, becauſe the free rent is little or nothing, and hardly ever paid, in hopes to ſell it dear to new comers; though in the mean time they neither ſtock the ground, or any other way make it uſeful to the public. This very thing hath done ſeveral of our plantations incredible damages, by forcing people away who came to ſettle in them. See the article BRITISH AMERICA, PLANTATIONS.

Buenos-Ayres will allow of theſe, and yet more reſtrictions, if it is found neceſſary; for here they enter upon the Spaniſh improvements without any of their labour, and will have ſo many other advantageous ways of growing rich, by the ſituation and proper commodities of the country, that it may juſtly be reckoned a favour to be permitted to ſettle here, and to have reaſonable tracks of land granted them upon equitable conditions.

This country will, in a very few years, have funds of it's own, without any ways oppreſſing the inhabitants, more than ſufficient to defray the charges of the government; as a ſmall duty upon negroes brought hither for the Spaniards, the like upon exported hides, and a very conſiderable one upon the herb of Paraguay, which will render it one of the leaſt chargeable, and yet one of the moſt important, colonies the crown of Great-Britain ever had.

That this place might have been as eaſily taken at the commencement of the laſt war, [in 1740] as Porto Bello, is little to be doubted; and it's conſequence to Great-Britain, had we poſſeſſed it no longer than during the continuance of the war, would have been of ſo great importance to our trade, as to have in a great meaſure re-imburſed the nation the expence of the war; for by this channel, we might have thrown immenſe quantities of the Britiſh manufactures into Peru: and if the circumſtances of affairs had obliged us to part with this place for the ſake of peace, ſhould we not have been able to have made far better terms with the Spaniards, than we did by giving up only the paltry iſland of Ratan? Before we had parted with Buenos-Ayres, might we not have compelled the court of Spain to have ratified and confirmed to us by treaty, our RIGHT TO THE LOGWOOD TRADE, AND TO A FREE AND UNINTERRUPTED NAVIGATION TO OUR OWN PLANTATIONS? If for the ſake of the Dutch and our Eaſt-India trade, the court of Great-Britain ſhould have judged it eligible to have given up CAPE BRETON, there would have been no reaſon to have parted with Buenos-Ayres, or any other important place we might have taken from Spain, 'till we had made our own terms with that court, and obtained at leaſt thoſe rights which engaged us in the war. See the articles WEST-INDIES and LOGWOOD.

REMARKS on our article PARAGUAY ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the treatment, it is not only rumoured, but really credited at the time of writing this, our Britiſh logwood cutters have met with in violation of the late treaty of peace, it looks as if the Spaniards had no ſincere intention to adhere to the terms and conditions of peace. Should this prove the caſe, and we ſhould be obliged to come to a freſh rupture with Spain, the fulneſs of time ſeems then to be come to compel us to put an end to the Spaniſh power in America: And as we are now very happily ſituated, by virtue of the laſt treaty, to deprive them of their MEXICON TREASURES, [ſee MEXICO] why not alſo of their PERUVIAN? And Buenos-Ayres, down the river La Plate, being the receptacle of a part of the treaſures from PERU, why ſhould this be unthought of longer? Why ſhould not at length a partition of the richeſt parts of SPANISH AMERICA take effect, either to preſer BRITISH ALLIES, and in that manner ſatisfy them for contributing after a ſucceſsful war, in conjunction with England, to humble Spain once for all?

Jeſuitiſm having met with a great blow lately in Europe, their great place of refuge will certainly be amongſt their fraternity in Paraguay. What they loſe in Europe, therefore, they may gain in Spaniſh America; and while their dominion ſhall encreaſe ſo near to a fountain of Spaniſh Peruvian riches, the more difficult it will be to extirpate them. But on a future Spaniſh war, 'tis to be hoped, England and her Proteſtant allies will be induced to get a footing as near to PERU, as Great-Britain is at preſent to MEXICO, and then we may laugh at the Spaniards for ever after, for any injury they will ever after be able to do to this kingdom or her allies. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, FLORIDA, MEXICO, PERU.

PARAYBA. The captainric of Parayba in Brazil, belonging to the king of Portugal, is ſo called from the river of it's name, lies between that of Rio Grande and that of Tamerac or Itamarika on the ſouth, having the ocean on the eaſt, and the Figuares on the weſt. It's extent from north to ſouth, that is, from Rio de San Juan de Stau to Capo Blanco, is about 35 leagues; that is, from 5 deg. 50 min. of latitude to 7 deg. 40 min. but as to it's depth into the inland parts we can affirm nothing.

The country is watered by two conſiderable rivers, viz. the Parayba abovementioned, and San Domingo al Monogoapa; the former of which lies under 6 deg. 24 min. ſouth latitude, four leagues from Capo Blanco, and diſcharges itſelf by two mouths into the ocean, being ſeparated by a large ſand-bank. This river, though very ſhallow in ſummer, doth ſwell ſo high in winter, that it overflows all the adjacent low lands, and often carries off numbers of men and cattle. The other which lies farther north, is ſaid to be larger towards it's ſource than at the mouth; between thoſe two lies the bay called

Ponto

Ponto de Lucena, between which and Cabo Ledo is a bay, which affords a ſafe ſtation to the largeſt ſhips.

This country did formerly belong to the French, who were diſpoſſeſſed of it by the Portugueze anno 1584, who built in it a large city of it's name, together with ſome other towns and villages, and made ſome conſiderable plantations of ſugar-canes, and erected a number of ſugar-mills on the rivers above-named.

The whole territory is fertile, not only in that commodity, but likewiſe abounds with the Brazil wood, cattle, hides, tobacco, cotton, the roots maniok, aypi, roucou, &c. and much uſed by the natives, who are called Pettiguares, and are at perpetual war with their next neighbours the Figuares.

The city of PARAŸBA, is ſituate at the mouth of the river of that name, and on the ſouth bank of it about three leagues from the main ocean. The river is navigable up to it, and a ſhip may carry without any danger, 6 or 700 barrels of ſugar. The country along the river is pretty low, plain, and rich, but at ſome diſtance from it, it begins to raiſe itſelf gradually into fertile hills and dales, which yield a delightful verdure and product; but the flat country being much the richer, is divided into various cantons under their ſeveral names, all which being fertilized by the overflowing of the river above-mentioned, produce plenty of barley, ſugar, Indian wheat, potatoes, ananas, cocoa-nuts, melons, citrons, oranges, bananas, pakanas, and other neceſſaries of life. The hills are no leſs fertile in good paſture, and the cattle that feed upon them, are in great numbers, inſomuch that their very hides amount to a conſiderable income.

PARCHMENT, in matters of traffic, is made of ſheep or goats-ſkin, prepared after a peculiar manner, which renders it proper for ſeveral uſes, particularly for writing on and covering of books, &c.

Parchment is begun by the ſkinner, and ended by the parchment-maker. It conſtitutes a very conſiderable article in commerce.

MANUFACTURE of PARCHMENT.

The ſkin having been ſtripped of it's wool, and paſſed the lime-pit after the manner of leather [ſee LEATHER], the ſkinner ſtretches it on a kind of frame, conſiſting of four pieces of wood, mortified into each other at the four angles, and perforated lengthways from diſtance to diſtance, which holes are furniſhed with wooden-pins that may be turned at pleaſure, like theſe of a violin.

To ſtretch the ſkin on this frame, they make little holes all around it, and through every two holes draw a little ſkewer; to this ſkewer they tie a piece of ſmall packthread, and tie that over the pins; ſo that, coming to turn the pins equally, the ſkin is ſtrained tight every way, like that of a drum.

The ſkin being thus ſufficiently ſtretched on the frame, the fleſh is pared off with a ſharp inſtrument for that purpoſe; this done, it is moiſtened with a rag, and a kind of white ſtone or chalk reduced to a fine duſt, ſtrewed over it; then with a large pumice ſtone, flat at bottom, much after the manner of a muller for grinding colours, they rub over the ſkin, as if about to grind the chalk, and thus ſcours off the remains of the fleſh. Then they go over it again with the iron inſtrument; again moiſten it as before, and again rub it with the pumice-ſtone, without any chalk underneath; this ſmoothens and ſoftens the fleſh-ſide very conſiderably. They drain it again, by paſſing it over the iron inſtrument as before. The fleſh-ſide thus drained, they paſs the iron on the wool or hair-ſide, then ſtretch it tight on the frame by means of the pins, and go over the fleſh-ſide again with the iron: this finiſhes it's draining; and the more the ſkin is drained, the whiter it ever becomes.

They now throw on more chalk, ſweeping it over with a piece of lamb-ſkin that has the wool on; this ſmoothens it ſtill further, and gives it a white down or nap. It is now left to dry, and when dried, taken off the frame, by cutting it all round.

The ſkin, thus far prepared by the ſkinner, is taken out of his hands by the parchment-maker; who firſt ſcrapes or pares it dry on the ſummer, with an iron inſtrument like that above-mentioned, only finer and ſharper; with this, worked with the arm from top to bottom of the ſkin, he takes away about one half of it's thickneſs. The ſkin thus equally pared on both ſides, they paſs the pumice-ſtone over them, to ſmoothen it. This laſt preparation is performed on a kind of form or bench covered with a ſack ſtuffed with flocks, and leaves the parchment in a condition for writing on.

The paring the ſkin dry on the ſummer, is the moſt difficult preparation in the proceſs; for which reaſon the ſkinners ſeldom dare meddle with it, but uſually leave it to thoſe more experienced in it: the ſummer whereon it is performed, is a calf-ſkin well ſtretched on a frame, ſerving as a ſupport to the ſkin, which is faſtened a-top of it with a wooden inſtrument that has a notch cut in it. Laſtly, that the iron-knife may paſs the eaſier between the ſummer and the ſkin to be pared, they put another ſkin, which they call the counter-ſummer. The parings thus taken off the leather, are uſed in making glue, ſize, &c. What is called vellum, is only parchment made of the ſkins of abortive calves, or at leaſt of ſucking calves; it is finer, whiter, and ſmoother, than the common parchment, but it is prepared in the ſame manner as that, abating that it is not paſſed through the lime-pit.

PARLIAMENT, a grand aſſembly of the three eſtates of the kingdom, viz. lords ſpiritual, lords temporal, and commons, ſummoned to meet the king, to conſult of matters relating to the common-weal, and to enact and repeal laws.

'Till the Conqueſt, the great council, conſiſting only of the great men of the kingdom, was called magnatum conventus, and prælatorum procerumque concilium. The Saxons called it Wittinagemote, or an aſſembly of wiſe men.

After the Conqueſt, about the beginning of the reign of king Edward I. ſome ſay in the time of Henry I. it was firſt called parlementum, from the French parler, to ſpeak; though it ſtill only conſiſted of the barons, or great men of the nation, 'till in the reign of Henry III. according to ſome, the commons were alſo called to ſit in parliament, the firſt writs ſent out to ſummon them, bearing date 49 Henry III. anno 1217, though Sir Walter Ralegh thinks, the commons were firſt called in the 17th of Henry I. and Dr Heylin fixes the time of their firſt admiſſion to the reign of Henry II.

Sir Edward Coke, Dodderide, Prynne, and others, have ſhewn, that the commons of England had ever a ſhare in the legiſlature, and a place in the great aſſemblies; though not on the preſent footing, as making a diſtinct houſe, and as compoſed of knights, citizens, and burgeſſes.

Parliaments are to be ſummoned, prorogued, and diſſolved by the king alone; nor can a parliament begin without the king's preſence, or his commiſſioners. At firſt new parliaments were called every year, by degrees their term grew longer. In the time of king Charles II. they were held a long time, with great interruptions between. Both which methods were found of ſo ill conſequences, that in the beginning of the reign of king William, an act was paſſed, whereby the term of all parliaments was reſtrained to three ſeſſions, or three years, hence called the triennial act. Since that, from other views, the period of parliaments is again, 3 Geo. I. lengthened to ſeven years.

A parliament is called by the king's writ or letter, directed to each lord, commanding them to appear; and by othet writs directed to the ſheriffs of each county, to ſummon the people to elect two knights for each county, and one or two burgeſſes for each borough, &c.

Anciently all the people had votes at the elections; 'till it was enacted by Henry VI. that none but freeholders reſiding in the county, and who had a yearly revenue of 40 s. ſhould be admitted to vote; nor were any to be elected that were under 21 years of age.

That the members might attend in parliament with more freedom, they and all their menial ſervants, were privileged from all arreſts, attachments, impriſonments, &c. for debts, treſpaſſes, &c. but not from arreſts for treaſon, ſelony, and breach of peace.

The place where the parliament meets, is wherever the king pleaſes; of late it has been in the palace of Weſtminſter; the lords and commons each in a diſtinct apartment. In the lords houſe, the princes of the blood are placed in diſtinct ſeats; the great officers of ſtate, dukes, &c. and biſhops on benches; and the viſcounts and barons on others acroſs the houſe, all according to their order of creation, place, &c.

The commons ſit promiſcuouſly, only the ſpeaker has a chair at the upper end, and the clerk and his aſſiſtants at a table near him. Before any matters be done, all the members of the houſe of commons take the oaths, and ſubſcribe their opinions againſt tranſubſtantiation, &c. which teſt, the lords too, though they do not take the oaths, are obliged to take.

The houſe of lords is the ſovereign court of juſtice of the realm, and the dernier reſort; the houſe of commons is the grand inqueſt, but no court of juſtice like the lords.

Any member may move to have a bill brought in for any thing; which, upon a queſtion put, being agreed to by the majority, that perſon, with others, are ordered to prepare and bring in the ſame. When ready, a time is appointed for reading: after reading it by the clerk, the ſpeaker reads the abſtract thereof, and puts the queſtion; Whether or no it ſhall have a ſecond reading? After a ſecond reading, the queſtion is, Whether or no it ſhall be committed? Which is either to a committee of the whole houſe, if it be of importance, or to a private committee?

The committee appointed, and a chairman choſen, the chairman reads the bill, paragraph by paragraph, puts every clauſe to the queſtion, fills up blanks, and makes amendments, according to the opinion of the majority. The bill thus gone through, the chairman makes his report at the ſide-bar of the houſe, reads all the additions and amendments, &c. and moves for leave to bring up the report to the table; which granted, he delivers it to the clerk, who reads the amendments, &c.

The ſpeaker then puts the queſtion, Whether they ſhall be read a ſecond time? and, if agreed to, reads them himſelf. To ſo many as the houſe acquieſces in, the queſtion is now put, Whether the bill thus amended, ſhall be engroſſed, the ſpeaker holds it in his hand, and aſks if it ſhall paſs? If the majority be for it, the clerk writes on it, ſoit baille aux

ſeigneurs. Or in the houſe of lords, ſoit baille aux communes.—If a bill be rejected, it cannot be any more propoſed during that ſeſſion.

Forty members conſtitute a houſe of commons, and eight a committee. A member of the commons, to ſpeak, ſtands up, uncovered, and directs his ſpeech to the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons only. In the lords houſe they vote, beginning at the puiſne or loweſt baron, and ſo up orderly to the higheſt, every one anſwering apart, content or not content. In the houſe of commons they vote by yea's and nay's; and, if it be dubious which is the greater number, the houſe divides. If the queſtion be about bringing any thing into the houſe, the ay's go out; if it be about any thing the houſe already has, the no's go out. In all diviſions the ſpeaker appoints four tellers, two of each opinion. In a committee of the whole houſe they divide by changing ſides, the ay's taking the right, the no's the left of the chair, and then there are but two tellers.

If a bill paſs one houſe, and the other demur to it, a conference is demanded in the Painted Chamber, where certain members are deputed from each houſe; and here the lords ſitting covered, the commons ſtanding bare, the caſe is debated. If they diſagree, the affair is null; if they agree, this, with the other bills that have paſſed both houſes, is brought down to the king, in the houſe of lords, who comes thither cloathed in the royal robes, and with the crown on; before whom the clerk of the parliament reads the title of each bill, and as he reads, the clerk of the crown pronounces the royal aſſent or diſſent.

The names of counties, cities, corporations, borough-towns, and ſtewarties, in Great-Britain, with the number of knights, commiſſioners of ſhires, citizens, and burgeſſes, choſen in each to ſerve in parliament.

ENGLAND.

Bedford	ſhire	2
	town	2 [4]
Berkſhire		2
New Windſor		2
Reading		2
Wallingford		2
Abington		1 [9]
Buckingham	ſhire	2
	town	2
Chipping Wicomb		2
Ayleſbury		2
Agmondeſham		2
Wendover		2
Great Marlow		2 [14]
Cambridge	ſhire	2
	univerſity	2
	town	2 [6]
Cheſter	ſhire	2
	city	2 [4]
Cornwall county		2
Launceſton		2
Leſkard		2
Leſtwithiel		2
Truro		2
Bodmin		2
Helſtin		2
Saltaſh		2
Camelford		2
Weſtlow		2
Grampound		2
Eaſtlow		2
Penryn		2
Tregony		2
Boſſiny		2
St Ives		2
Foway		2
St Germains		2
St Michael's		2
Newport		2
St Maws		2
Kellington		2 [44]
Cumberland county		2
Carliſle city		2
Cockermouth		2 [6]
Derby	ſhire	2
	town	2 [4]
Devonſhire		2
Exeter city		2
Totneſs		2
Plymouth		2
Oakehampton		2
Barnſtaple		2
Plympton		2
Honiton		2
Taviſtoke		2
Aſhburton		2
Dartmouth		2
Bercalſton		2
Tiverton		2 [26]
Dorſetſhire		2
Pool		2
Dorcheſter		2
King's Lyme		2
Weymouth		2
Melcomb		2
Bridport		2
Shaftſbury		2
Wareham		2
Corf-caſtle		2 [20]
Durham	biſhopric	2
	city	2 [4]
Eſſex county		2
Colcheſter		2
Malden		2
Harwich		2 [8]
Glouceſter	ſhire	2
	city	2
Tewkſbury		2
Cirenceſter		2 [8]
Hereford	ſhire	2
	city	2
Leominſter		2
Weobly		2 [8]
Hertford	ſhire	2
	town	2
St Albans		2 [6]
Huntington	ſhire	2
	town	2 [4]
Kent county		2
Canterbury city		2
Rocheſter city		2
Maidſtone		2
Queenborough		2 [10]
Lancaſter	ſhire	2
	town	2
Preſton		2
Newton		2
Wigan		2
Clithero		2
Liverpool		2 [14]
Leiceſter	ſhire	2
	town	2 [4]
Lincoln	ſhire	2
	city	2
Boſton		2
Great Grimſby		2
Stamford		2
Grantham		2 [12]
Middleſex county		2
London city		4
Weſtminſter city		2 [8]
Monmouth	ſhire	1
	town	2 [3]
Norfolk county		2
Norwich city		2
King's Lynn		2
Great Yarmouth		2
Thetford		2
Caſtle Riſing		2 [12]
Northamptonſhire		2
Northampton town		2
Peterborough city		2
Brackley		2
Higham Ferrers		1 [9]
Northumberland county		2
Newcaſtle upon Tyne		2
Morpeth		2
Berwick		2 [8]
Nottingham	ſhire	2
	town	2
Eaſt Retford		2
Newark		2 [8]
Oxford	ſhire	2
	univerſity	2
	city	2
New Woodſtock		2
Banbury		1 [9]
Rutland county		2
Shropſhire		2
Shrewſbury		2
Bridgnorth		2
Ludlow		2
Great Wenlock		2
Biſhop's-caſtle		2 [12]
Somerſetſhire		2
Briſtol city		2
Bath city		2
Wells city		2
Taunton		2
Bridgwater		2
Minehead		2
Ilcheſter		2
Milborn-port		2 [18]
Southampton	county	2
	town	2
Wincheſter city		2
Portſmouth		2
Yarmouth		2
Petersfield		2
Newport		2
Stockbridge		2
Newton		2
Chriſt-church		2
Whitchurch		2
Lymington		2
Andover		2 [26]
Stafford	ſhire	2
	town	2
Litchfield city		2
Newcaſtle under Line		2
Tamworth		2 [10]
Suffolk county		2
Ipſwich		2
Dunwich		2
Orford		2
Alborough		2
Sudbury		2
Eye		2
St Edmund's Bury		2 [16]
Surry county		2
Southwark		2
Blechingly		2
Ryegate		2
Guildford		2
Gatton		2
Haſlemere		2 [14]
Suſſex county		2
Chicheſter city		2
Horſham		2
Midhurſt		2
Lewes		2
New Shoreham		2
Bramber		2
Staining		2
Eaſt Grinſtead		2
Arundal		2 [20]
Warwick	ſhire	2
	town	2
Coventry city		2 [6]
Weſtmoreland county		2
Appleby		2 [4]
Wiltſhire		2
New Sarum city		2
Wilton		2
Downton		2
Hindon		2
Weſtbury		2
Hatſbury		2
Calne		2
Devizes		2
Chippenham		2
Malmeſbury		2
Cricklade		2
Great Bedwin		2
Luggerſhall		2
Old Sarum		2
Wootton Baſſet		2
Marlborough		2 [34]
Worceſter	ſhire	2
	town	2
Droitwitch		2
Eveſham		2
Bewdley		1 [9]
York	ſhire	2
	city	2
Kingſton upon Hull		2
Knareſborough		2
Scarborough		2
Richmond		2
Rippon		2
Heydon		2
Boroughbridge		2
Malton		2
Thirſk		2
Aldborough		2
Beverley		2
Northallerton		2
Pontefract		2 [30]

CINQUE PORTS.

Haſtings	2
Winchelſea	2
Rye	2
New Romney	2
Hythe	2
Dover	2
Sandwich	2
Seaford	2 [16]

WALES.

Angleſey iſland		1
Beaumaris		1
Brecon	ſhire	1
	town	1
Cardigan	ſhire	1
	town	1
Carmarthen	ſhire	1
	town	1
Carnarvon	ſhire	1
	town	1
Denbeigh	ſhire	1
	town	1
Flint	ſhire	1
	town	1
Glamorganſhire		1
Cardiff town		1
Merionethſhire		1
Montgomery	ſhire	1
	town	1
Pembroke	ſhire	1
	town	1
Haverfordweſt		1
Radnor	ſhire	1
	town	1 [24]

SCOTLAND.

Shire of Aberdeen	1
Shire of Air	1
Shire of Argyle	1
Shire of Bamff	1
Shire of Berwick	1
Shires of Bute Cathneſs	1
Shires of Nairn Cromarty	1
Shire of Dumbarton	1
Shire of Dumfries	1
Shire of Edinburgh	1
Shire of Eglin	1
Shire of Fife	1
Shire of Forfar	1
Shire of Haddington	1
Shire of Inverneſs	1
Shire of Kincardin	1
Shires of Kinroſe Clackmanan	1
Stewarty of Kirkcudbright	1
Shire of Lanerk	1
Shire of Linlithgow	1
Shires of Orkney Zetland	1
Shire of Peebles	1
Shire of Perth	1
Shire of Roſs	1
Shire of Renfrew	1
Shire of Roxburgh	1
Shire of Selkirk	1
Shire of Stirling	1

Shire of Sutherland	1
Shire of Wigtoun	1
City of Edinburgh	1
Burghs of Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, Taine	1
Burghs of Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairn, Forreſs	1
Burghs of Wigtoun, New Galway, Strathnaver, Whithorne	1
Burghs of Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, Kintore	1
Burghs of Aberdeen, Montroſe, Aberbrothwick, Brechin	1
Burghs of Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Coupar, St Andrew	1
Burghs of Cryelle, Kilrenny, Anſtruther E. Anſtruther W. Pittenween	1
Burghs of Deſart, Kirkcaldy, Kinghorn, Burnt Iſland	1
Burghs of Innerkeithen, Dumfermline, Queensferry, Culroſs, Sterling	1
Burghs of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Ruglen, Dumbarton	1
Burghs of Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, Jedburgh	1
Burghs of Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, Lanerk	1
Burghs of Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaber, Kirkcudbright	1
Burghs of Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbel Town, Inverary	1 [45]

A ſcheme of the proportions the ſeveral counties in England paid to the land-tax in 1693, and to the ſubſidies in 1697, compared with the number of members they ſend to parliament.

In this ſcheme the proportions are thus conſidered, viz. That as the whole kingdom ſend 513 members to parliament; ſo the whole of each tax is divided into 513 equal parts; and the firſt column ſhewing the name of the county, the ſecond ſhews how many of the 513 parts each county paid to the land-tax in 1693, the third how many of the 513 parts each county paid to the ſubſidies in 1697, and the fourth how many of the 513 members each county ſend to parliament.

Counties.	Parts of the land-tax.	Parts of the ſubſidy.	Parliament members.
Bedford	7	4	4
Berks	10	8	9
Bucks	12	7	14
Cambridge	9	6	6
Cheſter	7	5	4
Cornwall *	8	5	44
Cumberland *	1	1	6
Derby	6	4	4
Devon *	21	19	26
Dorſet *	9	6	20
Durham *	3	4	4
Eſſex	24	13	8
Glouceſter	12	8	8
Hereford	5	4	8
Hertford	11	8	6
Huntington	4	3	4
Kent	22	15	18
Lancaſter *	5	7	14
Leiceſter	9	7	4
Lincoln	19	11	12
Middleſex	80	185	8
Monmouth	3	2	3
Norfolk	22	20	12
Northampton	12	8	9
Northumberland *	4	3	8
Nottingham	7	4	8
Oxon	10	7	9
Rutland	2	1	2
Salop	7	6	12
Somerſet	19	15	18
Southampton *	14	11	26
Stafford	7	6	10
Suffolk	20	15	16
Surry	18	16	14
Suſſex	16	10	28
Warwick	20	8	6
Weſtmorland *	1	1	4
Wilts *	13	8	34
Worceſter	9	7	9
York *	24	23	30
Wales	11	12	4
All England and Wales	513	513	513

	Land.	Subſ.	Memb.
Note, That the proportions of the 6 northern and 5 weſtern counties marked thus * are	103	88	216
And that Middleſex and Eſſex are	104	198	16

Cities are included in their reſpective counties.

MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT, being, according to the conſtitution of our government, obliged to be poſſeſſed of a landed eſtate; and the proſperity of the landed intereſt depending on that of trade, we judge it may not be altogether uſeleſs or diſagreeable to many, to take due notice, in a work of this kind, of a perſonage of ſo high concernment in this kingdom, and upon whom, indeed, the riſe or decline of the national commerce ſo greatly depends.

It will hardly be diſallowed, that a member of parliament is a man of as much conſequence as any in the kingdom. He is placed in the higheſt ſtation, which his country has in it's diſpoſal, and inveſted with the greateſt truſt the people can beſtow upon him. He has the properties, the liberties, nay the lives of thoſe who chuſe him, in his hands; and what is more, he is accountable to no man for what he does. Thus inveſted with almoſt abſolute power, how circumſpect, how cautious ſhould he be of acting in any manner unworthy of this great truſt; a truſt, which is by much the more ſacred, becauſe thoſe who gave it, have diveſted themſelves of the power of calling him to account, for any neglect, or non-performance of his duty in it?

The accompliſhment of a perſon of this conſequence ſhould not be mean, nor his mind baſe and vitiated. There are two ſorts of men, whom we look upon as utterly unfit to preſide in the government of a Commonwealth. Of the firſt are they, who have only wet their lips and taſted of the firſt elements of reaſon and wiſdom, without going through the whole diſcipline and inſtitutions thereof; whereby the thirſt of our inordinate deſires, and the fire and violence of our paſſions are effectually allayed and extinguiſhed. Such men generally give into a way of life, oppoſite to all the precepts of virtue and public ſpirit, becauſe wiſdom and philoſophy have not taken deep root. Had it done ſo, it would have made them learned in the acquiſition of all thoſe virtues, which would have qualified them for ſo conſpicuous and momentous a ſtation.

There is another kind of men, quite different from the former; who, from their very infancy have made wiſdom and philoſophy their whole ſtudy and delight. Their ſpeculative notions, and contemplative way of life, having no regard to the common good of ſocieties, are therefore of no uſe to the public. However ſuch may be juſtly reckoned men of learning and ingenuity; yet, becauſe they are wrapped up in one ſingle ſyſtem of philoſophy, and never bring forth their learning for the public benefit, are therefore deſervedly looked on as unqualified in the affairs of a ſtate.

Plato is of opinion, that ſuch of thoſe recluſe philoſophers, who are in their nature civilized, and well turned for the buſineſs of the world, and capable of being brought to do their duty in a public character, to their own glory, and the advantage of their country, ſhould be compelled to leave their retirement, and to take ſome public truſt upon them. But in relation to thoſe who are of a quite different genius, he gives them up to the enjoyment of their ſolitudes, and leaves them and their philoſophy to grow old together. Wherefore, it has been the opinion of the wiſeſt men, that they who have only made little, or a very mean, progreſs in the exerciſe of the underſtanding, and given no teſtimony of their public virtues; nor they who are wholly immerſed in mere ſpeculation, ſhould never be admitted into a public ſtation in the concerns of government. Not the former, becauſe they have not yet obtained that honeſt and virtuous way of living, that wiſdom and juſtice preſcribe: nor the latter, becauſe they imagine they have attained to more happineſs, than what is to be met with in the civil and political life, and that ſolitude is the only ſtate of bliſs, and therefore they look on all high dignities with contempt and indignation.

Hence it is, that the public is under the neceſſity of ſeeking out a middle claſs of men, well qualified for the adminiſtration of public affairs: ſuch are they, who, in their conduct and ſtudies, have no other view but the acquiſition of ſuch accompliſhments, as are conducive to the happineſs of human ſociety, and the good government of the Commonwealth. This is that peculiar ſort of wiſdom, of which the Britiſh ſenator makes himſelf maſter: whereby he will become well inſtructed, how to bear rule in his own country, and approve himſelf a common friend and public bleſſing to mankind.

A good education, ſays Plato, is the ſource of all knowlege. Parents are now grown neglectful of this, and we ſee them ſhifting off the charge of beſtowing a virtuous and liberal education upon their own children, and giving it into the hands of ſtrangers: the heirs of a noble and generous family are delivered over to the cuſtody of a wretched pedant, or unſkilful

unſkilful pedagogue. The care of Cato, in the education of his ſon, is never to be enough commended. He would by no means ſuffer his own wife to waſh and bathe him, or to ſwathe and dreſs him, unleſs himſelf was preſent, to overſee and aſſiſt her. He had in his family one Chylo, a grammarian, a man well enough verſed in learning, as a domeſtic tutor to his ſon in that branch; yet he thought it an indignity to have a ſervant reproach and domineer over him, or give him correction when faulty.—When he was fit to be inſtructed in literature, and in the laws and cuſtoms of his country, the father himſelf would have the ſole care of him. None but he muſt teach him, even to fling the javelin, to go through the whole exerciſe at arms, to underſtand horſemanſhip, with the manner of fighting in cloſe combat, the art of ſwimming, and all other atchievements, by which youth are inured to the bearing the extremes of heat and cold.

It is alſo ſaid, that Cato wrote a hiſtory for the uſe of his ſon, to bring him acquainted with the exploits of his anceſtors, and with the art of preſiding with glory in the affairs of the ſtate. Whenever his ſon was preſent, the father would never ſuffer any obſcene converſation, or let ſlip any expreſſion, that ſavoured of raſhneſs and anger, or of vice or folly; being as cautious, as if a veſtal virgin was preſent. Such was the behaviour of the great Cato, and ſuch in the general the good conduct of all the Romans, in the education of their children! Among the ſeveral nations and republics of Greece, there was the ſame care uſed in the training up their youth. Theſe were the great maſters and teachers of that uſeful knowlege, which ſhews us the way how to live happily in a private ſtation, and in what manner communities of men are to be beſt governed. It is the general wiſh, that the governors of our literary inſtitutions would be more careful to inſtruct youth in the art of living well, than the art of controverſy, and inſtil into them only the grand branches of knowlege truly ſerviceable to the ſtate, inſtead of the jargon of wrangling, and the little friſkiſh arts of ſporting with words. Were this the caſe, we ſhould ſee their ſcholars become more uſeful repreſentatives of the people, and promoters of the welfare of the kingdom.

The old academies of Greece were the ſeminaries of their republics; out of which, as out of the Trojan horſe, came their beſt kings, and moſt renowned generals and governors. Alexander and Scipio, two of the greateſt commanders that ever lived, with others too numerous to be recounted, had their firſt riſe in glory from the Grecian inſtitutions for literature: and in the ſame way ſhould all thoſe be trained, who may be expected from their birth and fortune to be placed in any diſtinguiſhed ſtation, and more eſpecially the ſenatorial one. Hence it comes to be a national concern; and it is certainly the duty of every government to have public ſchools and colleges, ſo well ordered, that they may be as nurſeries, out of which the ſtate may be furniſhed with perſons endowed with all the virtues and good accompliſhments, that can adorn human nature.

In the progreſs towards the complete education of a perſon of this character, he ſhould from his youth be well inſtructed in the art of ſpeaking, both properly and gracefully; for without this talent, though he may think and judge ever ſo juſtly, yet if he is incapable of expreſſing himſelf with a becoming and maſterly elocution, that the aſſembly may thoroughly underſtand his ſentiments, the aſſembly cannot receive the benefit of his judgment, nor can ſuch a one have the ſatisfaction to obſerve that regard paid to his underſtanding which he merits. At his firſt ſetting out in his enquiry after truth, there are three arts requiſite to be acquired, grammar, logic, and rhetoric. For theſe are the portals to the palace, wherein true wiſdom reſides. From theſe are to be learned the rules of debating and converſing, which muſt be confirmed and improved by uſe and exerciſe, and by reading and imitating the works of the moſt intelligible and pureſt writers. When the ſtudent has made a proficiency thus far, let him not content himſelf with theſe trite and ordinary attainments; but let him graſp at higher improvements; let him enter into philoſophy, and take a view of the ſyſtem of the univerſe; and then let him look into the life, actions, and ways of men, to ſee how families are ordered, and in what manner cities and Commonwealths are eſtabliſhed and governed. In the former of theſe enquiries, Natural Philoſophy, Metaphyſics, and Mathematics are our chief guides: in the latter, Moral Philoſophy, Policy, and Œconomy. Both theſe ſorts of philoſophy have but one and the ſame end in view, by enabling us the better to exerciſe our intellectual faculties to the beſt purpoſes: they differ in this particular indeed; the one of them is conſiſtent with a life of eaſe and leiſure, whilſt the other is converſant with buſineſs, and always in a ſtate of activity. Hence it is that happineſs is either private or public. They who repoſe their happineſs in an active life, in the exerciſe of all the virtues, are always to be eſteemed the moſt beneficial members of the Commonwealth; for every good thing, by being communicated to many, gains ſo much greater addition to it's intrinſic worth; the felicity, which diffuſes itſelf to multitudes, is certainly preferable to that mere contracted happineſs, which centers within the individual. Yet a life of ſpeculation is firſt in order, and more honourable, that preceding practice, and giving life and dignity to the nobleſt actions.

But ſince the good ſenator's happineſs, and all his knowlege and wiſdom, are converſant with a life of activity and public buſineſs; and he ought to be one who knows how to meaſure his actions by the rule of integrity and right reaſon, who is qualified to manage affairs both private and public, and who underſtands how to govern a city by wiſe counſel, how to ſecure a conſtitution by wholeſome laws, and reform it by a due execution of juſtice; it follows, that he ought to make himſelf acquainted with that part of philoſophy which preſcribes the precepts of virtue, which are the limits of human actions, and contain the whole ſcience of behaving well in a national adminiſtration. How ſhall he be able to ſet a ſenate right, in the fundamental duties of juſtice, prudence, and fortitude? Or, how ſhall he appeaſe a multitude, or quell a ſedition, diſpenſe, or expound laws, who is ignorant of the principles of juſtice and prudence? Can ſuch a one be able, wiſely to give his advice about a war or a peace, a league or a treaty, who knows not when a war is juſt or otherwiſe, a peace honourable or the contrary, and a league dangerous or well made, and fit to be kept ſacred and inviolable? The ſubſtance of this knowlege is not to be obtained, but by ſtudying the moſt approved authors in moral philoſophy, policy, and œconomy. For out of theſe treaſures we may make a collection of all the virtues, and of all the arts of government.

There is another ſort of learning likewiſe, not leſs neceſſary to the accompliſhment of this character, by which we are brought acquainted with the moſt remarkable ſayings and exploits of the great and wiſe, who have lived before our times. Theſe are to be met with in the monuments of faithful annaliſts and hiſtorians. Theſe, according to Tully, are the witneſſes and evidences of paſt times, the torch-bearers and guides of truth, human nature's remembrancers, the leaders and conductors of our actions, and the meſſengers and envoys ſent to us by our forefathers.

To this ſtock of knowlege, many additions are to be made, before the Britiſh ſenator can be thoroughly qualified. He muſt be well acquainted with the cuſtoms of his own country, the manners of his countrymen, their way of living, their diſpoſition, and their ſentiments concerning the preſent poſture of affairs, and all the remarkable occurrences of public life. Beſides this, he muſt be ſure to make himſelf maſter of that truly uſeful and neceſſary knowlege, which completes the character of a wiſe ſtateſman. He muſt be well acquainted with the true nature of war and peace, what quarrels his people are engaged in, what leagues and treaties ſubſiſt between them and their neighbours, as alſo between other potentates; what taxes, duties, and cuſtoms are already impoſed, or may be neceſſary in future, and whether they are as wiſely regulated, as they ought to be, conſiſtent with the intereſt of commerce and the liberties of a free people: what the rights of the ſubject are, and what the proceedings of the miniſtry: in what manner the laws are executed; what are the diſcontents or differences among the people, and how they are to be allayed and pacified: what is the preſent ſtate of morality: how the youth of his country are educated and employed: what principles, cuſtoms, and rules of conformity are neceſſary to be introduced, in order to reform and moralize a people; and what is the preſent ſtate of religion.

Nor ſhould the good ſenator be ignorant of what paſſes omong the allies and confederates of his own country; what are their rights and demands: he muſt, in a word, be acquainted with all the reaſons and ends of government, underſtand the cuſtoms and uſages of his people, the proceedings of all courts of judicature, and all public aſſemblies. Nor ſhould he be a ſtranger to the examples and characters of all about him, and to the deſires and expectations of his fellow ſubjects. A good counſellor, ſays Anthony, is ſuch a one, who well underſtands, and always adhercs to, whatever may contribute to the eſtabliſhment and welfare of a ſtate, or increaſe it's happineſs. Such counſellors and ſenators were the Lentuli, the Gracchi, the Metelli, the Scipio's and the Lælii of Old Rome. But in theſe our times, ſuch examples are uncommon enough: we often ſee men crouding for honours and offices, and becoming candidates for the ſenatorial dignity, without the neceſſary qualifications of knowlege, wiſdom, and experience.

If, here and there, a candidate of an exalted character appears in public, yet, perhaps, his only recommendation is a ſingle campaign, or the ſervices of one year, or a little ſmattering of the law, or the greatneſs of his wealth, or the popular clamour of his dependants, and partizans; whilſt he has a very ſlender acquaintance with what have been intimated. The knowlege of men and things, is the riſe and foundation of all true wiſdom, which can never be attained, but by a knowlege of theſe arts, and that ſound policy which is the grand ſupport of the ſtate: without theſe, it is impoſſible for him to think, and ſpeak, and act well or wiſely.

For the perfecting of this character of wiſdom and prudence, it may be neceſſary to become acquainted with the laws and cuſtoms of foreign countries. This ſort of knowlege is attained by travel. The benefit to be made by which, ariſes from obſerving the manner and civilities of thoſe abroad,

and

and ſuch of their rights and cuſtoms as are worthy our imitation; and from remarking their predominant follies and vices, which we muſt avoid. The laws of foreign nations, their juriſdiction, liberties, way and manner of living, their civil and military diſcipline, with the management of their domeſtic affairs, the ſituation of their country, their clime and ſoil, their public buildings, their ornaments and fortifications, deſerve our notice. It may alſo be of uſe to know the real character of every prince, whoſe dominions we viſit; to enquire what opinion the people have of him, and how they are affected towards his government. If there is a ſenate or great council, how are they choſen, and what are the people's ſentiments of their conduct? In what manner is juſtice adminiſtered? What is the national genius of the country? What men they have eminent for their wiſdom and learning, and what great generals? Theſe are proper enquiries to be made by a judicious traveller: beſides theſe, he ſhould endeavour to make ſome uſeful and advantageous diſcoveries, in the commercial arts and found polity, and bring them home, for the ſervice of his own country upon emergencies. But great caution ought to be uſed not to introduce any ſtrange cuſtom into our country, leſt we infect the people with the itch of novelty, and corrupt their minds with effeminacy; whereby they will be brought to forget the rigid virtues and plain honeſty, with the good manners, wiſe laws and cuſtoms of their anceſtors. For the populace are changeable enough, and nothing is more fatal to a government, than extraordinary innovations.

If one who would qualify himſelf for this great office, has no opportunity of travelling, let him ſupply this defect by reading the moſt approved coſmographers, geographers, and hiſtorians: and let him be careful to ſtore up ſuch a ſtock of knowlege, as may preſerve him from that childiſh behaviour, which is the effect of ignorance. In that part of philoſophy, which treats of the more abſtruſe ſecrets of nature, he ſhould not be entirely unſkilful: but he may be very ſparing of this ſort of ſtudies; to run too far into them is not compatible with a character of this kind. Wiſdom has a boundleſs field to range in. The ſciences muſt be cantoned out, ſince no ſingle perſon can become maſter of them all. The compaſs of our knowledge may be comprehended under what is honeſt, pleaſant and profitable. What is honeſt and pleaſant, ſerves rather to make life agreeable, than to qualify us for the governor, court, the roſtrum, or the tribunal; it ſerves us to retire to, and gives new ſtrength and vigour to the underſtanding, by ſeaſonably indulging in lawful eaſe and delicacy. This ſort of philoſophy may poſſibly do the public ſervice, if it's followers delight more in a life of public buſineſs, than to immure themſelves in cells and ſolitude.

There is, however, a retired ſort of philoſophy, which is of great uſe to the public. For we are not to look upon them as the only philoſophers, who are qualified to direct the affairs of a ſtate; ſince, beſides thoſe, there are others, to whoſe written labours, and immortal works, we are indebted for the remains and monuments of true wiſdom and learning. And there is alſo a third ſort, whoſe buſineſs it is to inſtruct thoſe under their care in the rules of virtue, and in the art of government. Theſe men certainly deſerve well at our hands; becauſe, by their leiſure and retirement, we are inſtructed in buſineſs, and taught to come abroad with reputation and advantage. The Antients had many philoſophers of this order: ſuch were Theophraſtus, Heraclides of Pontus, Dicæarchus, Socrates, and Pythagoras: it is remarkable, that the book which Dicæarchus wrote upon government, was, by a decree of the Spartan commonwealth, ordered to be read publicly once a year, and that all the youth ſhould be aſſembled together to attend the lecture.

The great end of true philoſophy, is to cultivate the mind, to plant in it the ſeeds of virtue, and not to grate or tickle the ears with wrangle and contention. All contumelious and paſſionate language, all noiſy combats about words, ſeem unworthy of the name of true philoſophy. All arts and ſciences are not, properly ſpeaking, virtues; they are only the inſtruments and ornaments, by which virtue is attained and perfected. There are various ſects in philoſophy, but theſe differences ought not to diſtract the mind of the wiſe and good ſenator.

When he hath made himſelf maſter of what has been ſpoke of, the attainment he is poſſeſſed of, will become conſpicuous by eloquence, which is the ornament of wiſdom. Where this is wanting, all his other accompliſhments, let them be never ſo extenſive, will inſenſibly dwindle into obſcurity. The art of ſpeaking nervouſly and elegantly, will enable a gentleman in this capacity, not ouly to maintain his own dignity, but to defend the rights and liberties of private perſons, and the intereſt of the community. By this the minds of men, when raiſed to an undue ferment, are eaſily pacified: by this, where they are lulled and becalmed, they are eaſily put in agitation; and this has done more ſure and fatal execution, than the ſword or the ſpear. When the ſenator riſes to ſpeak, let him ſpeak with all the force of reaſon and wiſdom, and with all the graces and ornament of a chaſte and manly eloquence, neither too verboſe and diffuſive, nor too laconic. Let his ſpeech be well weighed, and yet ſeem to be extempore; let the dignity of pathetic action and geſture always accompany whatever he has to communicate.

Next to eloquence, let him endeavour to make himſelf a maſter of the civil law, the deſign of which, is to preſerve an exact equality in the diſtribution of all things. For, who is ſo well qualified to decide the controverſies of his countrymen, to ſuppreſs ſedition, well and wiſely to defend the laws of his own nation, or the rights of the people, as the man who is really a maſter of law and equity?

The houſe of a good and upright lawyer is the national oracle. But the lawyer who ſhould be excluded from the ſenate, is the notorious brawler and tongue-pad. For this ſort of creatures are of a low vulgar order, ſervile and mercenary, capable of being the miniſters of falſhood and injuſtice: wretches, who bring their tongues and their minds well armed and inſtructed, into a court of juſtice, and employ them in the defence of wrong and oppreſſion. It is hardly poſſible for that man to be a ſincere lover of truth and equity, who will proſtitute his eloquence, and let out his tongue to hire. On the other hand, it is part of the office and duty of the good ſenator, to preſerve the proceedings of judicature from all corruptions of fraud and deceit; to become a voluntary accuſer, and ſtrenuous adverſary of all wicked and traiterous ſubjects, and a no leſs zealous defender of the good and virtuous; being actuated by a juſt ſenſe of his own high dignity, a love of juſtice, and affection for his fellow-ſubjects; ſuch was the behaviour, and ſuch the principles, of the wiſeſt and moſt noble Romans, that ever ſat in their ſenate.

In the courſe and progreſs of all conſultations, particular care muſt be taken, that every ſubject brought into debate, may be well weighed and thoroughly examined, in as nice, accurate, and judicious a manner, as human prudence, or human wit, can preſcribe or deviſe. We may enumerate five different ſorts of things, which are the proper ſubjects of public debate and conſultation, viz. the raiſing of money by ſubſidies and taxations; the proclaiming of war, and the making of peace; the defence and ſafeguard of the realm; the ballance of the imports and exports of trade and commerce, and the enacting of good and ſalutary laws.

If a conſultation is to be held upon ways and means to raiſe money, a thorough enquiry muſt be made into the ſtate of the duties and cuſtoms, and every branch of taxation, of which the public revenue conſiſts; that if they are too ſmall, they may be augmented; and if too great, diminiſhed: for no new taxes ought to be impoſed but upon urgent occaſions; becauſe all extraordinary impoſitions are grievous to the ſubject, and occaſion civil diſorders. When the emperor Tiberius was perſuaded to lay a new tax upon the people, he readily anſwered, That a good ſhepherd had a right to the fleeces of his flock, but had none to ſlay and devour them.

A complete knowlege in the finances of this kingdom is no eaſy acquiſition; we do not mean a knowlege only of what money has been raiſed, and how it has been applied: all this is entering little into the heart of the matter; the ſpecific funds, which have produced the revenue, ſhould be enquired into as minutely as a gentleman of œconomy would enquire into every branch of his eſtate; and not only the nett produce of the whole ſhould be ſtated before the national financier, but the groſs produce, that he may be able to judge accurately of the public expence in the collection of ſuch revenue, what proportion that bears to the nett proceeds, and what incumbrance to the ſtate, officers, and tax-gatherers, and all concerned in the revenue, really are to the kingdom. By which means, the wiſe ſenator will be enabled to judge, whether ſuch annual revenue cannot be raiſed at a far leſs expence to the people, with leſs incumbrance to commerce and navigation, with greater advantage to the public credit, and with more glory and ſafegard to the king and the nation.

Nor ſhould the judicious ſenator ſtop here in his enquiries into the MONEY AFFAIRS of the kingdom: he ſhould ſtrictly ſcrutinize into the RATES laid upon all merchandizes imported, that he may be capaciated to enter into the primitive reaſon and foundation of theſe rates, and to know whether the ſame reaſons ſtill ſubſiſt, that gave riſe to them; and whether our connections with certain foreign countries, may not be ſo altered, ſince the time of ſuch rates being laid, as to make it requiſite to alter them likewiſe upon many ſpecies of goods. And to make a right judgment of this matter, it is neceſſary to be acquainted with every ſpecific ſort of merchandize imported, and to know to what uſes in every branch of trade and commerce ſuch ſort of commodities is applied, from their importation to their conſumption, or re-exportation, either in their firſt ſtate of importation, or in a manufactured one. Nor is it enough to know theſe things; the ſenator muſt be knowing in all the ſubſidies and impoſts laid upon ſuch merchandizes, the ſeveral diſcounts to which the merchant is juſtly intitled, and the computation of the nett duties and drawbacks thereupon; whereby he will become ſo minutely acquainted with every branch of the public revenue, as to judge rightly when any alteration may be neceſſary to be made in the rates, or in the ſubſidies and impoſts of any kind; and more eſpecially ſo, if he takes into his conſideration, to what degree the foreign nation, from whence ſuch

commodities are brought, they lay duties upon the Britiſh produce or manufactures of a ſimilar nature to thoſe we lay duties on, and whether they inviolably adhere to, or deviate from, thoſe treaties of commerce which ſubſiſt between our nation and theirs: for this is the criterion whereby to judge when this nation is treated in their merchandize as we ought to be, and upon an equal footing with thoſe nations that have no right by treaty to be upon more advantageous terms than our own.

'The proſperity of a trading kingdom depends on a wiſe regulation of it's revenues, ſays a a judicious Spaniſh author. When taxes are not levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of trade, a moth in a treaſury, the univerſal lamentation of a nation, and the intereſt and joy of foreigners. But a prudent diſpoſition of them is the ſoul of a ſtate, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and diſtreſs to foreigners, and a perpetual fountain of the richeſt bleſſings to human life.' See our articles DUTIES, TAXES, LABOUR, REVENUE, and the CONTENTS for the practical buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe.

Nothing can be of greater concernment to a trading nation than the wiſe regulation of it's duties and cuſtoms, and the moſt vigilant eye over it's exports and imports; for the grandeur of a kingdom depends ſolely upon ſelling much, and buying little, or upon ſelling more than is bought. He that is conſtantly buying more than he ſells, let him be a ſecond Crœſus in treaſure, muſt be at length reduced to the unhappy ſtate of a beggar, for his ſtock is diminiſhed in proportion to the overballance of goods brought in: but whoever is conſtantly ſelling more than he buys, let him be poor as Lazarus, muſt by ſuch a tranſaction acquire the happy circumſtances of the rich: for, as much as the ballance is in favour of the amount of ſales, juſt ſo much is added to his capital. It is upon this principle the wiſeſt nations diſcourage the importation of foreign goods into their country*, but leave their gates wide open to let their own manufactures go abroad and bring in riches from every quarter.

* When a great proportion of the public revenue of a nation ariſes from the money raiſed by the DUTIES paid by enhanſing the price of foreign imports, which exhauſt the nation's treaſure, the greater thoſe DUTIES and IMPORTS are, the more the nation is drained of it's ſolid wealth; and if the ſupport of the PUBLIC CREDIT depends, in a good meaſure, on the greatneſs of the ſum raiſed by ſuch duties of cuſtom, does not ſuch temporary ſupport of the public credit depend on the gradual ruin of the kingdom? Should not this induce the great repreſentative to think of ſuch a gradual change in the conſtitution of the revenue, that the proſperity of the ſtate may go hand in hand with the height of the revenue, and not riſe upon it's deſtruction? And in relation to the other branches of the public revenue, ſuch as EXCISES, &c. do not theſe demonſtrably tend ſo to raiſe the price of our produce and manufactures, as to enable our foreign competitors in commerce to underſell us at all foreign markets? Is it impoſſible to fall upon meaſures whereby theſe evils may be happily prevented? Is there any thing of this kind inſuperable to the wiſdom of a Britiſh ſenate? Every impartial man muſt readily grant, that it is infinitely more for the ſafeguard and proſperity of an empire, for the good plight and condition of it's finances, to conſiſt and harmonize with the proſperity of it's commerce, than for the one to counteract the other, and that the money we raiſe by virtue of our trade ſhould tend gradually to it's abſolute deſtruction!

Commerce and navigation are the great ſupports of our all: and every expedient to uphold the PUBLIC CREDIT that does not ariſe from the apparent proſperous ſtate and condition of our tratde, can be looked upon only as temporary political amuſements. The more money is raiſed both upon foreign and native comodities, the worſe is the ſtate of our commerce, the former ſhewing that we augment our IMPORTS, whilſt the latter renders us leſs able to increaſe our EXPORTS upon a par with nations which can afford itſelf cheaper than we. Theſe principles are obvious, and muſt, at length, terminate in what every man of diſcernment cannot avoid ſeeing. The good ſenator, therefore, will endeavour to bottom the ſyſtem of our funds upon principles that quadrate with our commercial intereſt; in which caſe the PUBLIC CREDIT will ſtand upon a rock, not to be ſhaken either by the nefarious arts of ſtock-jobbing and bubbles, neither by South-Sea nor Miſſiſſippi ſchemes, nor even by rebellions, or inſults from foreign courts; for, when other nations know the conſtitution of our finances to be ſo wiſely and happily framed, the crown of Great-Britain will have infinitely greater weight in Europe, than it can have whilſt the ſtate of the public revenue is founded upon principles diametrically oppoſite to theſe. Under ſuch circumſtances, we ſhould be as little intimidated to declare war againſt thoſe who offered any dignity to our king and country, as compelled to make a peace any way diſhonourable to the nation, or injurious to it's trade and navigation: and, 'till this comes to be our caſe, and we are enabled gradually to diſcharge our debts, or to leſſen them to ſuch a degree that we may eaſily ſupport them, it is greatly to be feared our miniſters will daily loſe their weight and influence in foreign courts, and, conſequently, be diſabled from treating with them but upon the moſt advantageous terms. See our articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, INTEREST of MONEY, MONIED INTEREST, DUTIES.

In deliberating on the two great affairs of war and peace, it is firſt neceſſary to know what is the preſent military and naval ſtate of our country, and how numerous it's forces are both by ſea and land, and how far our finances will admit of their augmentation; of what ſort the war is which we are entering upon, and with what enemy we engage. A ſtrict enquiry ought alſo to be made into the ſtrength of our enemy, and any confederacies againſt us; whether their forces are diſciplined in the ſame, or a different manner from our own, and whether they have better engineers, generals, and admirals, and whether they are a match for us, or inferior in number and ſtrength, that we may regulate our conduct accordingly, and make peace with thoſe who are too mighty for us, and war with thoſe who are unable to reſiſt us, if they attempt to encroachments upon rights, according to the laws of nations, and to ſubſiſting treaties; and the ſcheme of the war, when we are obliged to enter into one, and all it's operations, ought to be well ſettled, upon the beſt principles of prudential foreſight and conſideration. It may likewiſe be of uſe, on theſe occaſions, to look over the hiſtorical accounts of former wars, their riſe, progreſs, and event: for ſimilar and parallel inſtances always explain and illuſtrate each other.

The occaſion of every war, and the juſtice of it, muſt alſo be well weighed and thoroughly ſcrutinized into; and we muſt be well aſſured, after many trials, that the matters in difference cannot be honourably decided, but by the ſword: for, as the comedian obſerves, it is a wiſe way to try all expedients for an accommodation, before we come to blows: an honourable peace is always preferable to an unjuſt war.

And if the debate be upon trade and commerce, and the exports and imports of a country, it is in the firſt place requiſite to enquire, whether any neceſſaries of which the people are in want, do ever go out of the kingdom; whether any thing is exported to foreigners except ſuperfluities, or the reſidue or what is ſpent at home. We muſt alſo take care to make a juſt eſtimate and calculation of the price and value of all commodities, ſold to, or exchanged with, foreign countries, and to balance the difference between profit and loſs, that the public treaſure, or current coin of the commonwealth, may not be diminiſhed [ſee the articles BALANCE of TRADE, and EXCHANGE]. And we muſt likewiſe be ſtrict in prohibiting the importation of all ſuch conſumeables, as ſerve to introduce and encourage luxury and effeminacy.

That the knowlege of trade, both practical and political, is not a matter of a light and trivial nature, we are apt to believe will ſatisfactorily appear to the candid and judicious, who ſhall do us the honour to peruſe theſe our labours. The ſubject conſidered in theſe lights is, perhaps, not leſs extenſive than moſt, and requires no leſs application and ability to become well acquainted with it, than a knowledge of the belles lettres, or any branch of ſcience: it is, indeed, comprehenſive of many of the more lucrative arts, as well as ſciences. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE, and our INDEX.

Laſtly, the moſt conſummate prudence is always requiſite in the enacting of good laws, for therein conſiſts the very being, as well as happineſs of the public. On this occaſion, it is neceſſary we ſhould be well acquainted with the whole ſtate, condition, and circumſtances of a nation; the preſent ſituation of it's affairs, what laws it ſtands in need of, what will be well received by the people, or more effectually conducive to the preſerving and ſtrengthning of the conſtitution, and ſecuring and promoting the common felicity; for the commonwealth was not made for the law, but the law for the commonwealth. The better to inform ourſelves upon this ſubject of legiſlation, it will prove of no little uſe to enquire into the laws of other countries, as well as of our own: whereby we may know how to guard againſt the evils under which our neighbours labour, and take example by them, in ſuch inſtances of wiſdom for which they are remarkable. It will be of great advantage in all deliberations upon matters of the firſt conſequence, not to depend altogether on our own judgment, but to adviſe with others, becauſe it is impoſſible for an individual to have more wiſdom than many counſellors.

There are, as Cicero obſerves,—Three ſorts of public things upon which men deliberate, or give or take advice: theſe are things honeſt and profitable, and the differences that are between them whenever they are inconſiſtent with each other.—If in theſe three points the ſenator is fully knowing and experienced, he can never be at a loſs to make a good judgment on any affair of public life. And where two ſubjects of the ſame ſort are offered to conſideration, it is a characteriſtic of a ſound diſcernment to decide which of the two is preferable; which is the moſt honeſt or profitable to the ſtate.

Sometimes a gentleman in this ſituation is called upon to give extemporary advice, and is ſurprized into a neceſſity of delivering his opinion at the moment it is demanded: but, whenever

whenever this happens to be the caſe, we muſt never vary from the cardinal points of profit and honeſty; we muſt always chuſe the good, and reject the evil, and of two evils, where both are inevitable, muſt make choice of the leaſt. The beſt way of forming good and wholeſome counſels, is to keep a ſteady eye upon the firſt and greateſt good, and to have that always in view, whether we are deliberating on matters of public or private concerns, of what relates to our own or to our country's happineſs: for from this firſt principle all our thoughts and counſels ought to be directed. Unleſs the public happineſs be our chief aim, all our deliberations and advice are vain and fruitleſs. How can the mariner ſteer a right courſe, when he is ignorant of the port to which he is bound? In debating within ourſelves what advice is proper, the utmoſt prudence is required; in giving it to others, the utmoſt ſincerity. We muſt ever be cautious to leave as little room as poſſible for fortune to interpoſe, for chance ſeldom brings about events that bear the characteriſtics of wiſe and rational contrivance: let, therefore, all his counſels be the effects of prudence, goodneſs, fidelity, mature experience, thorough deliberation, impartiality, and freedom of thought; without the ſtain of criminal craft and cunning, of temerity, or ſecret ill-will to the public.

Subtle and artful, or daring undertakings, are extremely pleaſant and entertaining; they dazzle with a falſe luſtre, but it is hard to proſecute them aright, and they are often fatal in conſequence. It is of great uſe and ſervice to a commonwealth to obſerve this ſtanding rule, that the ſenate never enter upon any buſineſs within doors, but what has been before thoroughly canvaſſed without; it being a great folly to imagine, that the moſt important affairs can be preſently diſpatched, or require no more conſideration than that only of a ſhort hour, or a few tranſitory moments.

After conſultation regularly had and taken, nothing remains but the giving judgement, in any affair of ſtate under conſideration: ſuch a judgement is an open declaration of the thoughts and counſels of the mind. There is a judicial faculty implanted in mankind by nature: we often find ſome men, who have no character for learning or wiſdom, are yet greatly to be depended on for their judgement, and in time come to be maſters of good ſenſe, great cunning and ſagacity, by dint of uſe and experience. Men of more years than learning are, therefore, much to be relied on for a ſound judgment, becauſe age and experience have, in effect, ſupplied them with a third eye, whereby they take a ſurvey of paſt tranſactions and future events, as well as of the preſent, with ſo much the more accuracy.

We know nothing of a man 'till we have been witneſſes to his converſation; and, 'till a ſenator has delivered his ſentiments, there is no forming a juſt notion either of his wiſdom or prudence. Socrates one day meeting a youth whom he had never ſeen before, looked for ſome time earneſtly upon him, and at laſt ſaid to him, Speak, that I may know what you are. The ſame experiment muſt be tried, before we can approve the wiſdom and gravity of the candidate for this office, or pronounce him duly qualified for ſo high a ſtation: for ſpeech is the image and repreſentative of the mind, and by this muſt the ſenator give proofs of his judgement, and of the force and extent of his capacity.

There are ſome orators whoſe ſpeeches are all gloſs and falſe colouring, intended rather to pleaſe the ear, and touch the paſſion, than inform the judgement: their words are all tinſel and feather, and they have more regard to elegance and delicacy, than to plain and ſolid truth, and cloſe reaſoning. Were their ſpeeches taken to pieces, they would appear to be mere froth and emptineſs, void of weight and ſolidity, veracity or ſincerity. The ſenator's rhetoric muſt never be thus adulterated: he may diſplay his eloquence before the wiſe and eloquent, but he ſhould ſpeak truth even before fools.

There is another ſort of ſpeakers, who are ſwoln with pride, malice, and jealouſy, incenſed by private animoſity; and, whenever they have an opportunity of ſpeaking in public, lay about them with perſonal reflection and calumny. Theſe men are of no advantage to the public, and ſerve only to kindle a fire, infuſe jealouſies and miſunderſtandings, and to ruffle the peace of a country, by introducing parties and factions, diſcord and contention. If they were really good men, they would ſtifle their private animoſities and perſonal reſentments, and make it their choice, as well as think it their duty, not to trouble the commonwealth with them, under pretence of doing it ſervice.

There is a third ſort of members, who for want of capacity, for counſel, and abilities in ſpeaking, implicitly give into the ſentiments of others, and always tread in their ſteps. They who behave in this manner are really not to blame, unleſs they are obliged to it by ignorance and ſtupidity. It is of uſe and benefit to a ſtate to have the leſs able and ſkilful members of it's council readily complying with the ſentiments of their wiſe and more experienced leaders. Sometimes a ſenate is unanimous: on which occaſion it is much the wiſeſt way to concur in the general opinion, and not to give oppoſition only for the ſake of making a ſpeech, and ſpin out the time with tedious bombaſt and fulſome harangues.

Differences in opinion will unavoidably happen, and occaſion debates and altercations, whereby this great aſſembly may be ſplit into oppoſite parties. In all attempts to compoſe theſe differences, and bring ſuch debates to a happy concluſion, we muſt be careful to avoid indecent language, exceſs of paſſion, or perſonal obloquy, with whatever elſe may interrupt the courſe of a deliberate and wiſe conſultation, or ruffle the affections of brethren in the ſame truſt.

The opinions and reſolutions of a ſenate are to be valued by their weight, not by the tale or number of voices: and care muſt be taken that the beſt and wiſeſt member of the great council of the nation may not be borne down by the multitude or majority. Ariſtotle permits a counſellor, deliberating upon any affair of moment, to be twice in doubt; but if, after this, he could not come to any ſettled reſolution, he was for that time to loſe his right of giving any opinion at all. Caution ſhould be uſed not to protract the day, and ſpend too much time in debating a queſtion, without coming to any reſolution: we are guilty of a double fault when we tire both ourſelves and others with tedious harangues. A decent brevity is always to be obſerved in ſpeaking, as alſo an honeſt plainneſs, and an open ſincerity. We muſt not be over eager to ſpeak, or lay ſnares for others, by mingling low artifices or falicies with what we deliver. Every thing ſaid ſhould have real weight, and carry with it a ſerious and important meaning, and muſt be well ſeaſoned with ſimplicity and truth, and with plain but nervous language; for that takes deep root, and ſhews the man of buſineſs in oppoſition to the florid babbler, whoſe words are wind, and leave no impreſſion behind them.

The three rules laid down by Cicero in his laws ought to be duly obſerved by every member of parliament; (1.) That he conſtantly give his attendance in the aſſembly, becauſe a full houſe gives a greater weight to all it's decrees and reſolutions. (2.) That he ſpeak only in his proper turn, or when he is called upon. And (3.) That he ſpeak in ſuch a manner as always to keep cloſe to the ſubject in debate, without ſallying into boundleſs mazes of perplexity and impertinence. That ſenator who wilfully and careleſsly abſents himſelf from the public ſervice without a juſtifiable cauſe, ought (as the ſame author injoins) to be cenſured and puniſhed as a criminal.

Neither is it convenient that ſenators ſhould be permitted to leave the city in which ſuch aſſemblies are held, and to withdraw themſelves into foreign territories, unleſs they are ſent abroad by their ſovereign, to take upon them a command of conſequence, or to execute an embaſſy, &c. leſt, by thinning the ſenate, ſome detriment ſhould unhappily befal the commonwealth. The Romans took care to prevent the ill conſequence of ſuch a practice, by a law made for that purpoſe. After all, the fundamental principle which gives riſe to, and will ever maintain, the ſenatorial dignity, and crown the character of ſo diſtinguiſhed a perſonage, is his conformity in his words and actions, and in all the relative capacities and offices of life, to the rules of virtue, by approving himſelf a juſt, and good man, and adorning his private ſtation with a ſteady conduct, that will give a ſanction to all he ſays and does in public life. It is not enough that we are wiſe and prudent, unleſs we are upright in the whole of our conduct: for prudence without juſtice and goodneſs, dwindles into craft and cunning, and is looked upon rather as a vice than a virtue. Wiſe men are denominated from their wiſdom, but it is ſolid virtue that gives the juſt, the equitable, and the honeſt man his proper titles, and makes him in character what he is really called by name; and good men take their ſtile from their virtues, and not from their wiſdom. Who then is a truly good man, but ſuch a one as is deſcribed by Plato, who well underſtands what virtue is, who takes it into his boſom and cloſeſt embraces, and lives up to it's commands and dictates, and who chuſes to die for the ſake of his country, and to ſave her from any imminent danger, or from falling into an abject ſtate of ſervitude, or from being oppreſſed by the arbitrary dominion of tyrants and uſurpers, or of men remarkable only for their baſeneſs and infamy?—Such truly great and good patriots will endure every thing rather than ſee the ancient conſtitution of their native country overturned.

There are ſome men raiſed to high ſtations and dignities in the ſtate, who thruſt themſelves into public buſineſs by a prompt and eaſy fluency of ſpeaking, and by giving proofs of a lively wit, and more than ordinaray ſagacity, whilſt their hearts are full of deceit and ſubtilty. When ſuch men as theſe are engaged in ſupporting the laws, or in defending the liberties of their country, no orators deliver themſelves with a better grace, or with more beauty and elegance, but, when their ſpeeches are ſifted to the bottom, they are all ſediment and corruption; wrong and injuſtice are the lees of all their fluency and rhetoric; there is nothing truly great and noble in what they ſay, for all their pretences to public good are a vizor, and the tongue does not act in concert with the heart.

There is not a greater plague that can infect the body politic than a ſet of ſuch men, lurking within the bowels of a government, eſpecially if their power and authority are ſo ſituated as to be able to diſtreſs it. Amongſt this claſs are

comprehended

comprehended all thoſe who are of a debauched and licentious character, and ſet themſelves up for men of penetration, artifice and ſtratagem, by a readineſs to commit all manner of oppreſſion and injuſtice, by promoting tumults and ſeditions in a ſtate. Bad as theſe men are, in nothing is their villainy more conſpicuous, and at no time more ſucceſsful, than when they can ſeduce thair countrymen to believe they are really honeſt, upright, and faithful ſubjects: for as man in general, when raiſed to the moſt exalted dignity and higheſt attainments of his nature, is the beſt and nobleſt of animals; ſo when he degenerates as far beneath the ſtandard of law and juſtice, he is, of all the reſt of his own ſpecies, the moſt vile and dangerous.

And if public affairs ſhould ever happen to light into ſuch hands, and reduce the ſtate into great diſorder and confuſion, we muſt put our chief hopes in the king, at the head of a parliament. While that place contains men of courage and public ſpirit, matters cannot long proceed amiſs: whoever, therefore, undertakes that truſt, ſhould continually have before their eyes how much the common welfare depends upon their virtues; but, above all things, they ſhould have diſintereſted and ſelf-denying minds.

It can hardly be conceived, but by thoſe who have ſeen it, what reverence is paid, even by his enemies, to a man of ſteady principles, the tenor of whoſe words and actions are always tha ſame, who is neither to be bought nor frighted: he is admired and followed; all he ſays has it's due weight; his honeſt hoary head is dear to all mankind. Whereas, as Dr d'Avenant ſays, the whiffling prowlers after places, and little buſy intriguers, are contemptible to the very men of whom thay are the wretched inſtruments; and, let the ambitious think what they pleaſe, that man has moſt real power in this country, who is believed to be of the moſt unſhaken integrity towards the public; and he who has ſuch a character, enjoys more true greatneſs than all the vain pomp and honours a court can give.

The employments of England are yet but few, and their profits but inconſiderable, to what they are in ſeveral nations; however, ſmall as they ſeem to be, it is to be feared that ſome time or other they will be made the engines wherewith bad men will endeavour to ſubvert this conſtitution.

It is true, at preſent, we may be out of ſuch a danger, but if, in future times, we ſhould chance to ſee all employments reſerved for men in one certain ſtation; if the road to preferment ſhould lie but through one paſſage; when this happens, we ſhall have cauſe to be alarmed.

They who feel within themſelves abilities to ſerve the public, are by no means blameable in deſiring to be upon the ſtage of buſineſs; on the contrary, that ſour philoſophy which makes ſome perſons at all ſeaſons retire, and abandon the ſtate, is by no means to be commended. They do, according to Tacitus, but Nomine magnifico, ſeque otium velare: if the poſture of affairs will poſſibly admit of it, good men ſhould rather ſtrive to be in power, that the commonwealth may not be ingroſſed by corrupt and unſkilful hands.

A wiſe man can eaſily diſcern whether the miniſters are ſuch, that he may with honour and ſafety mix in councils with them. If the adminiſtration be ſound and right, or if he has but a face looking that way, it is a proper ſeaſon for men of probity, ſkill, and virtue, to produce their talents, and to puſh themſelves forward, in order more fully to mend things: and, at ſuch a time, they ſhould be ready to aſſiſt the ſtate to the utmoſt of their power, nor ſhould they lazily ſuffer the perfections of their minds to be uſeleſs and inactive. And if among theſe there be any very eminent, ſtrong in friends, verſed in affairs of ſtate, of a deep reach and foreſight, who have eloquence to ſway aſſemblies, and courage to reſiſt and overcome popular fury; ſuch ought not to deſpair of the public, but aſſiſt with their wiſdom, to redeem a people from their weak hands who ſhall get into power, when the nation, perhaps, has been in a high ferment, as in boiling liquors the ſcum will get uppermoſt; and there is ſuch a reverence paid to thoſe who have a truly great genius, and a good heart, that, when they offer themſelves to ſerve the commonwealth, the weight of the people will bear down all the upſtart pretenders, and force them to give way, and make room for merit ſo ſuperior.

But if it ſhould ever happen, that the adminiſtration ſhould be intirely bad and deſtructive in their meaſures, then ought good men to have no ſhare nor hand in it; they ſhould withdraw from any participation in the negligence or guilt; they ſhould quit what they cannot honourably hold; they ſhould concern themſelves no more in public buſineſs, leaving ſuch miniſters to govern by themſelves, who will not govern well, and be contented to ſerve their country by defending liberty in one poſt againſt any encroachments; they ſhould not make ſo ill a uſe of that affection the people may bear them, and of the intereſt they may have in the nation, as to be a ſhelter for the crimes or folly of others: nor ſhould they, as it were, lend their countenance, and be the ſcreen, behind which bad men may ſafely attempt to undermine the conſtitution.

If the times are good, ſilent merit will be ſought after; but, if they are bad, ill men will be lifted up to the offices and dignities of the ſtate, by the applauſe of their adherents, and the faction of their friends; but, at ſuch a ſeaſon, it is no ſhame not to be employed. Tacitus ſpeaking of Ælius Lanira ſays, Et non permiſſa provincia dignationem addiderat.

Great men are often liable to one unfortunate vanity: they believe their parts, dexterity, and wiſdom to be ſuch, that they can mend things, give them a new complexion, correct all errors, and at leaſt that they ſhall preſerve themſelves ſound, though every one elſe be tainted; and, upon theſe preſumptions, ſome of the men in beſt eſteem have heretofore engaged with a depraved miniſtry; but we could never ſee that they were able to make any converts: on the contrary, inſtead of changing the court, the court changed them. Courts are but ſlowly mended, and that not by the authority or example of any ſingle perſon, except it be of the prince himſelf, ſtrongly bent to ſet matters upon a right foot; and yet we have more inſtances of courts which have ſpoiled their prince, than of princes that have reformed their courts.

And if it be aſked, When is the moſt proper time for perſons of probity and virtue to undertake the management of affairs? it may be anſwered, It is then ſeaſonable, when things call loudly to be mended, when unſkilful pilots have run the ſhip a-ground, ſo that ſhe ſticks faſt, ready to ſplit at the next coming of the waves; when ignorant men are quite bewildered in their errors; when the whole people ſee and feel the effects of ill government; when the prince grows aſhamed of theſe, whom his ſubjects hate and fear; when the commonwealth cannot emerge out of it's debts and difficulties, without help from abler hands: then is the true time for the beſt and wiſeſt men to offer themſelves to the ſervice of their country. At ſuch a ſeaſon, honeſty will not ſtand alone, weak, defenceleſs, and out of countenance, at the ſight of proſperous vice. Nor can courts be ever ſafe 'till the circumſtance and neceſſity of the times bring thither a party of honeſt and able men, ſtrong enough to maintain itſelf againſt thoſe who are grown great by wicked arts, and conſpicuous ignorance in public buſineſs.

If Engliſhmen will be content in this ſingle point, all muſt of courſe go well; if they who have noble commands in the country will ſcorn meanly to depend in town; if they who have brave ſeats of their own, will deſpiſe the crowded antichambers of the great ones here; if they who have plentiful eſtates, will ſlight a troubleſome, dependent, and precarious employment, they are more happy than a court can make them: if our nobility and gentry would conſider how miſerable the noblemen of France are, with all their mighty places, they would at no time hereafter deſire to wear the livery of bondage. And if they are truly ſeaſoned with theſe notions, That their liberties are above all price, and (as Sir Benjamin Rudiard was wont to ſay) That there is nothing worth being a knave for; the head muſt be very ſkilful, and the heart very bold, that will undertake to invade our fundamental rights.

It is true, what has been here advanced, may ſeem needleſs at preſent, when all things are preſumed to go well; but theſe notions may be of uſe to after-ages.

The duty which private perſons owe to the public lies in a very narrow compaſs, and, when that is thoroughly performed, a country ſeldom fails to ſee a ſteady courſe of wiſdom and honeſty in ſuch as are truſted with the adminiſtration. This duty may chiefly conſiſt in the following particulars:

1ſt, That ſuch as repreſent the people be uncorrupt, unbiaſſed, and diſintereſted.

2dly, That they diligently attend the nation's ſervice.

3dly, That they carfully watch any innovation or incroachments upon the conſtitution.

4thly, That they make proviſion againſt future evils.

5thly, That they look narrowly into the income and expence of the kingdom, and examine which way immenſe debts have been contracted, and how that money has been diſpoſed of which the nation has already granted, and how theſe debts may be gradually leſſened and diſcharged.

6thly, That they hold a ſtrong hand over the men of buſineſs, calling thoſe to an account who, either through folly, or upon ſome wicked deſign, peruſe deſtructive meaſures.

1ſt. That ſuch as repreſent the people be uncorrupt, unbiaſſed, and diſintereſted. This point we have handled ſufficiently; and to what has been already ſaid upon that ſubject, we ſhall now only add, that Rome was once free, that France heretofore had the three eſtates, which were the guardians of it's liberty; that Spain had formerly many rights and privileges, of which nothing now but the ſhadow remains; That Denmark and Sweden had once conſtitutions ſomething like that of England; and that all theſe countries have been enſlaved by their own corruptions.

2dly, That they diligently attend the nation's ſervice; for otherwiſe they do not diſcharge that duty to which they are choſen. It has been formerly a matter of great wonder, that gentlemen ſhould even waſte their fortunes to be elected repreſentatives in parliament, and yet afterwards never mind that ſtation, which they ſeemed before ſo vehemently to court. Cato had many virtues too high for practice, but he may be eaſily imitated in one good quality he had, of never failing to

be

be preſent in the ſenate. Such ſhould give way to others, and make room for men of more leiſure, who can afford to employ their time in the ſervice of their country. But, above all others, they are to blame who can be drawn from their duty by luxury, lazineſs, and pleaſures. Liberty can be hardly wounded in a full houſe; the attempts made upon it in former reigns were made when ſuch as had no dependance upon the court were abſent about their country buſineſs: the ill miniſters of thoſe days took that opportunity to promote taxes, which would never paſs in a full aſſembly, to paſs dangerous laws, to ſet a-foot new-invented corporations, which may be fatal in their conſequences, and to form projects, either deſtructive to the nation in general, or ruinous to particular men. All the ill things that were done have been compaſſed when the negligence of ſome had made one ſide ſtrong, and the other weak.

And if, in after-ages, any of the men of buſineſs ſhould be ſo wicked as to proceed by the ſame councils, and to go by the like meaſures, they will promote their dark deſigns in ſome ſuch juncture, when the beſt patriots ſhall be gone away, quite tired out by ſeſſions artificially prolonged.

But it is the duty of all who love England, to defeat, by unwearied patience, ſuch a conſpiracy againſt the people; and to obviate ſuch a miſchief, if the ordinary rules cannot do it, extraordinary laws may be thought on to oblige the members to that attendance which they owe their country.

He who does not attend, injures the borough for which he ſerves; for it may ſo happen, that in his abſence a thing may paſs to their ruin who have ſent him, and which his preſence might have prevented; his electors, therefore, ſeem to have ſuch a right to his ſervice as in reaſon no others ought to diſpenſe with, without their conſent.

Deſerting in this manner the public is a growing evil, upon which account it ought to have a timely remedy. Perhaps it might not be amiſs, if a bill were brought in to make it highly penal for any member to be abſent from the houſe above 14 days, without expreſs leave firſt had under the ſeal of the borough for which he ſerves.

3dly, That they carefully watch any innovation or incroachments upon the conſtitution. There is nothing lulls a people aſleep more, than the reign of a good prince, reverenced for his wiſdom, feared for his high courage, beloved for his lenity, and admired for a number of other virtues; whereas, under a bad reign, the ſubjects are jealous and vigilant, though often to little purpoſe: however, it is agreed upon by all wiſe men, that the mild rule of Auguſtus contributed more to confirm the ſlavery of Rome, than all the ſeverity and cunning of Tiberius.

The beſt times likewiſe produced the worſt precedents; for, in good times, the people let many things ſlip, being then at their eaſe, not ſuſpicious, and, conſequently, not watchful over the government; but, where this ſupine temper prevails, mixed governments decline immediately into abſolute power. The frequent conteſts that were of old between the ſenate and the people of Rome, without doubt preſerved their freedom: for, where all are of one mind, ill uſe may be made of that unanimity, by ſome ſubtle, eloquent, and ambitious man, who may turn and rule it as he pleaſes: therefore to preſerve conſtitutions that have a mixture in them of popular government, it is neceſſary there ſhould be always ſome diviſion, juſt enough to keep the minds of men awake, that they may obſerve what advantages one part of the ſtate gets over the other.

Bad kings provoke many to look into their actions; but when the people have a good prince, they give a favourable interpretation to all he does.

And the beſt man that ever reigned may be ill ſerved. It is a maxim of our law, That the king can do no wrong, but if an ill be committed in matters of ſtate, the council muſt anſwer for it; if in matters of juſtice, the judges muſt anſwer for it. But though the laws exempt our kings from blame, they are not freed from the bad effects of ill conduct in their miniſters.

He, therefore, who repreſents his country, cannot do the nation nor his prince better ſervice, than to ſee thoſe who ſit at the helm do not run the ſhip upon dangerous rocks. Abſolute dominion is a bait with which the greateſt minds may be tempted; for they whoſe goodneſs is unlimited, may deſire that their power ſhould be ſo too; but no one man ought to think of being omnipotent, unleſs he could be omnifcient and omnipreſent. Beſides, though princes may deſire great power, that they may be able to do great good, ſuch as ſerve them rarely proceed upon this principle. They often deſire their maſters ſhould be arbitrary, in order to their own impunity, and to build a large fortune for themſelves; for which reaſon they ſhould be watched in all their windings, and followed in all their dark and ſubtle mazes.

It ſeldom happens that the liberties of a country are invaded all at once the ſteps of power are leiſurely and ſlow; miniſters who have it in their thoughts to change the nature of a government, go to work by degrees. At firſt they make uſe of the moſt popular hands they can poſſibly procure, ordering it ſo that the people may not perceive who it is that puts their fetters on; but theſe popular men they ſhove out, at the firſt convenient ſeaſon, that all may be of a piece. Their next buſineſs is to corrupt ſuch perſons as have the cleareſt fame, whom they diſcard when ſufficiently tainted, and this they do that the people may think all mankind alike, which naturally drives them to follow thoſe only who are in power, and who can do them ſervice. Afterwards, they get from the nation all the money they can, the collecting of which erects new employments, and creates them a number of dependants, who, in one certain place, ate their chief ſtrength and beſt ſupport: by the diſtribution of theſe ſums, they likewiſe make more friends. But being never out of fear of accounting for all at laſt, their principal aim is to procure their maſter ſuch a STANDING REVENUE, as may make him ſubſiſt without the peoples help, without the neceſſity of a parliement. If they find this impoſſible or difficult, then by accuſations, by exorbitant proceedings without any precedent, and by harraſſing private perſons, either in their fame or fortune, they endeavour to make all the different ranks of the people out of love with their ancient conſtitution.

It has been often obſerved of this nation, That we have loſt by TREATIES what we have gained by VALOUR; and indeed it is very evident, that we have been conſtantly out-witted in the pacts and ſtipulations we have made with foreign ſtates and princes, as well concerning intereſt as dominion: they who could never face us in the field have over-reached us in the cabinet, and all along we have ſeemed ſtronger in a battle than in council.

It is, perhaps, no wonder that our honeſt and plain anceſtors ſhould not have ſufficient ſkill to deal with the riper heads of warmer climates; but we may admire how it comes to paſs that our neighbours the Hollanders in all treaties, but chiefly ſuch as reſpect COMMERCE, have been ever too able for us, whom our vices have made crafty enough in other matters.

Their ſoil does not generally produce better underſtandings than that of England; learning flouriſhes with us as much as with them; our people have ſharper wits; we are more cunning in a court than they; and yet, when we come to treat with them, they are always too ſubtle for us.

But the reaſon of this is apparent to ſuch as examine into the buſineſs; for, as Sir Joſiah Child has excellently well obſerved, 'They have in their greateſt councils of ſtate and war TRADING MERCHANTS, that have lived abroad in moſt parts of the world, who have not only the THEORETICAL KNOWLEGE, but the PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE of TRADE, by whom laws and orders are contrived, and peaces with foreign princes projected, to the great advantage of their trade.

And the concerns of commerce being made among them a matter of ſtate (as it ſhould be in this nation particularly) they commit the care of it to the ableſt heads they have, by whoſe aſſiſtance and wiſdom they have all along got the better of us and other countries.

In the reign of king James I. they obtained that the buſineſs of Amboyna ſhould be ſlurred over; and ſo they have ſecured to themſelves a firm poſſeſſion of the Spice Iſlands.

The peace of Munſter was likewiſe very advantageous to the Dutch in all matters that had relation to their traffic, but eſpecially in the plate trade from Cadiz.

In the reign of king Charles II, by delays and artifice, they got the taking of Bantam paſſed over in ſilence, by which, in a manner, they have engroſſed to themſelves the rich commodity of pepper.

It is likewiſe ſaid, when the book of rates was compiled, that the French knew how to plant ſomewhere a great ſum very ſkilfully, by the help of which they procured that the CUSTOMS and DUTIES upon their product ſhould be light, and heavy upon that of Spain; though apparently we got by one country, and though we were thought to loſe by the other in the general ballance.

It will not, perhaps, be ſeaſonable to expect any redreſs as to paſt injuries, and peradventure ſome of our former errors are capable of little remedy for the preſent; but the wiſdom of the ſtate will undoubtedly provide, that England ſhall be better dealt with in future treaties.

Our LAND-WARS have plunged us in debt, and incumbered us with taxes unſpeakably injurious to our commerce. It is well known our proper buſineſs had been to have inſiſted only upon our STRENGTH AT SEA, for a large fleet would have always guarded and ſecured our traffic, and would have kept that money within the kingdom which has been ſent out to pay LAND-ARMIES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

But as in purſuing quite a contrary courſe, we more conſulted the direct and immediate concern and intereſt of others than our own; ſo, in reaſon and equity, the peaces which our money and arms have chiefly procured, ſhould have been as advantageous to this kingdom, as convenient to the reſt of Europe.

And yet we ſhall reap but little profit from all our expence of blood and treaſure, unleſs the traffic of England be thereby put upon a ſafe and equal foot with all it's neighbours.

The protection and care of trade will, therefore, very much conſiſt in the meaſures that ſhall be taken in this preſent juncture, to ſecure us againſt our neighbours.

Theſe memento's may poſſibly have their uſe, more eſpecially with the younger and leſs experienced members of that auguſt aſſembly, from whoſe wiſdom we expect every bleſſing.

An act of paaliament made in the third year of Geo. III. relating TO BANKRUPTS, BEING INTITLED TO THE PRIVELEGE OF PARLIAMENT, AND BECOMING INSOLVENT.

Whereas merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, ſcrivenors, and traders, within the deſcription of the ſtatutes, relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, are not compellable to pay their juſt dubts, or to become bankrupts, by reaſon of the freedom of their perſons from arreſts upon civil proceſs; and ſome doubts have alſo ariſen, whether in caſes of bankruptcy, a commiſſion can be ſued out during the continuance of ſuch privilege: To remedy which inconveniences, and to ſupport the honour and dignity of parliament, and good faith and credit in commercial dealings, which require that in ſuch caſes, the laws ſhould have their due courſe, and that no ſuch merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, ſcriveners, or traders, in caſe of actual inſolvency, ſhould by any privilege whatever, be exempted from doing equal juſtice to all their creditors; it is enacted, &c.

That from and after 12 May 1764, it ſhall be lawful for any ſingle creditor, or two or more croditors, being partners, whoſe debt or debts ſhall amount to 100 l. or upwards, and for any two creditors, whoſe debts ſhall amount to 150 l. or upwards, or any three or more creditors, whoſe debts ſhall amount to 200 l. or upwards, if any perſon or perſons deemed a merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader or traders, within the deſcription of the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, at any time, upon affidavit or affidavits being made and filed on record in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter, by ſuch creditor or creditors, that ſuch debt or debts is or are juſtly due to him or them reſpectively, and that every ſuch debtor, as he or they verily believe, is a merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader, within the deſcription of the ſtatutes relating to bankrupts, to ſue out of the ſame court ſummons, or an original bill or ſummons, againſt ſuch merchant, banker, &c. and ſerve him with a copy thereof; and if ſuch merchant, banker, &c. ſhall not within two months after perſonal ſervice of ſuch ſummons, (affidavits of the debt or debts having duly been made and filed as aforeſaid) pay, ſecure, or compound for, ſuch debt or debts, to the ſatisfaction of ſuch creditor or creditors, or enter into a bond in ſuch ſum, and with two ſuch ſufficient ſureties, as any of the judges of that court, out of which ſuch ſummons ſhall iſſue ſhall approve of, to pay ſuch ſum as ſhall be recovered in ſuch action or actions, together with ſuch coſts as ſhall be given in the ſame, he ſhall be accounted and adjudged a bankrupt from the time of the ſervice of ſuch ſummons; and any creditor or creditors may ſue out a commiſſion againſt any ſuch perſon, and proceed thereon in the like manner as againſt other bankrupts.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, that this act ſhall not extend, or be deemed or conſtrued to extend, to any ſuch debt or debts as aforeſaid contracted, before the eighth day of March 1763, any thing herein contained to the contrary thereof in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

And be it further enacted, That if any merchant, banker, &c. ſhall, after the laſt day of this ſeſſion of parliament, commit any act of bankruptcy, that then, and in ſuch caſe, any creditor or creditors as aforeſaid, may ſue out a commiſſion of bankrupt againſt ſuch merchant, banker, &c. and the commiſſioners in ſuch commiſſion, and other perſons may proceed thereon in like manner as againſt other bankrupts; any privilege of parliament to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided nevertheleſs, and be it enacted, That nothing in this act ſhall ſubject any perſon intitled to privilege of parliament to be arreſted, or impriſoned, during the time of ſuch privilege, except in caſes made felony by the acts relating to bankrupts, or any of them.

PARTNERSHIPS in trade, are where two or more perſons agree to engage in commerce, either in equal ſhares or otherwiſe.

With reſpect to domeſtic partnerſhips in trade in England, there are various adjudicated caſes, which ought not to be diſregarded by thoſe who enter into ſuch kind of agreements.

Where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill, drawn on both him and partner, it binds both if it concerns the trade; otherwiſe, if it concerns the acceptor only in a diſtinct intereſt and reſpect. 1 Salk. 126.

A. and B. were partners as woollen drapers, A. received money in the ſhop of S. S. and gave a note for it ſigned for himſelf and partner; A. and B. being both dead, and A. not leaving ſufficient aſſets, it was held on a bill brought by S. S. againſt the executors of both the partners, that this note being given by one of the partners, it ſhould bind them both; and that though at law it binds only the executor of the ſurviving partner, yet in equity the creditor may follow the eſtate of the other, though no proof was made that this money was brought into the ſtock, or uſed in trade. 2 Vern. 277.

The act of one partner ſhall be preſumed the act of the other, and ſhall bind him, unleſs he can ſhew a diſclaimer, and a refuſal to be concerned. 1 Salk. 292.

A. and B. are copartners, and a judgment is had againſt A. and the goods of both taken in execution; it was held by the court, that the ſheriff muſt ſeize all, becauſe the moieties are undivided; for if he ſeize but a moiety and ſell that, the other will have a right to a moiety of that moiety; therefore he muſt ſeize the whole, and ſell a moiety thereof undivided, and the vendee will be tenant in common with the other partner. 1 Salk. 392.

But though a moiety of a joint ſtock may be taken in execution on judgment againſt one partner; yet, if copartners become bankrupts, the joint eſtate is to diſcharge the joint debts in the firſt place, and the ſeparate eſtate to pay the ſeparate debts; and if there be no ſeparate eſtate, then the reſidue of the joint eſtate, after the joint creditors are ſatisfied, to be applied among the ſeparate cteditors, and ſo vice verſa; for the commiſſioners of bankrupts are intruſted both with a legal and equitable juriſdiction, and may therefore marſhal the different effects. and apply them in diſcharge of the different creditors according to equity and juſtice. 2 Vern. 293. 706. 2 Chon. Ca. 228.

The plaintiff's huſband (to whom ſhe is adminiſtratrix) and the defendant were copartners for many years in the trade of a druggiſt; the plaintiff brought her bill for a diſcovery of the eſtate, and her proportion and dividend thereof, &c. the defendant anſwered, and it appearing that many debts owing to the joint trade ſtood out, it was moved on behalf of the plaintiff, that an able attorney might be appointed to ſue for, and receive thoſe debts; it being alleged in the bill, that the defendant carrying on a diſtinct trade for himſelf, with the perſons that were debtors to the joint trade, to oblige them, he forbore to call in their debts; it was ordered accordingly, unleſs the defendant, within a week, would give ſecurity to the plaintiff, to anſwer her moiety of the debts that were ſtanding out. 1 Vern. 118.

For accounts as ſtated in partnerſhip, according to the moſt accurate methods of double entry. See our article MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANSHIP.

For other ſorts of PARTNERSHIPS in trade, ſee our article ANONYMOUS PARTNERSHIPS.

PARMA, a duchy in Italy, is bounded on the north by the Po, which divides it from the Milaneſe and Cremoneſe; on the ſouth it has part of the territory of Genoa, and duchy of Modena; on the eaſt, part of the duchy of Modena; and on the weſt, the Pavieſe.

The parts into which it is commonly divided are, the duchy of Parma ſtrictly ſo called, that of Placenza, the ſtate of Buffeto, and part of that of the valley of Taro, commonly called Val di Taro. Between Parma and Modena are the ſtates of Pallavicini and Londi, which are commonly diſtinguiſhed from thoſe duchies, becauſe they anciently formed two ſeparate ſtates from them. The firſt of them contains the marquiſate of Buffeto, and Borgo de ſan Domino, and wholly belongs to the duke of Parma; and that of Londi is divided between that prince, who hath in it the Val de Taro, and the prince of Doria, who hath that of Bandi.

The revenue of this dukedom is reckoned to amount to 400,000 crowns, and the ordinary forces of it to 5 or 6000 men. The country is very delightful and fertile, producing great plenty of corn of all ſorts, excellent wine and oil, and was famous formerly for it's fine cheeſe, which was in high requeſt all over Europe; but they are now much outdone by the city and territory of Lodi. Other manufactures, ſuch as ſilk, woollen, linen, &c. are likewiſe carried on here, as in other parts of Italy.

The chief places of this duchy are, Parma, the capital, Placenza, Borgo de Santo Domino, Borgo de Val de Taro, and Ferenzula or Florentiola.

Beſides theſe, there are reckoned above 30 other towns belonging to it, which, for the moſt part, are conſiderable for their largeneſs, or on ſome other accounts.

PARMA, the famed metropolis of this dukedom, is pleaſantly ſituate on the river of that name, but whether it gave it to, or received it ſtom it, is not eaſy to gueſs. It has three ſtately ſtone bridges over it, by which it keeps a convenient communication with it's ſuburb on the other ſide of it: and is about four miles in circumference, well-peopled, and ſeated in the midſt of a pleaſant fertile ſoil, which ſupplies it with plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing it wants for uſe or delight.

It ſtands about 10 miles from the Po, on the ſouth ſide of it, and in the middle way between Modena and Placenza, 35 miles eaſt of the firſt, and as many weſt of the other, 73 north-weſt from Florence, 77 ſouth-eaſt from Milan, and above 200 from Rome, lat. 44. 43. lon. 10. 55. eaſt.

PLACENZA, ſo called from it's moſt agreeable ſituation and exquiſite beauty, above all other cities of Italy, is ſeated in the midſt of a ſpacious fertile plain, about 100 yards diſtant

ſiom

from the Po and the Trebia, and watered with a number of ſmall brooks and canals, and ſheltered on all ſides with pleaſant hills, and both they and the plain producing great plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, &c. excellent each in their kind. It has likewiſe very good paſture-grounds, breeds great quantities of cattle, and is famed for making a fine ſort of cheeſe, not inferior to that of Parma and Lodi. Here are likewiſe in it's neighbourhood ſome ſalt ſprings, from which they make a fine ſalt, exceeding white, and in great requeſt. The hills about it have iron mines, plenty of wood, timber, warrens, and parks, all which are ſo inviting and commodious, that the city is always full of inhabitants, eſpecially merchants and tradeſmen, who carry on a very conſiderable commerce; inſomuch that one of their fairs, which begins on the 15th of April, laſts to the end of the month.

PASSPORT, SAFE-CONDUCTS, and PROTECTIONS.

A paſſport, or ſafe-conduct, is a ſecurity given by the king, under the great ſeal, to a ſtranger, for his ſafe coming into and paſſing out of the realm, and touching which there are ſeveral ſtatutes. A paſſport ſignifies a licence granted by any perſon in authority, for the ſafe paſſage of a man, or any ſhip, &c. from one place or country to another.

As to protections, there are two ſorts, a public protection, where a prince takes upon him the defence of another prince or ſtate, for his honour or profit, or a private protection of perſons or ſhips, which is, in effect, no more than a paſſport for ſuch purpoſe. By the law of protection, he that is protected owes all reſpect and honour to his protector, againſt whom he ought not to conſpire, or attempt any thing; and, on the other hand, the protector ought to ſuccour and defend the protected, and uſe him well, for otherwiſe he may withdraw himſelf from the protection, and ſeek another. The Genoeſe having put themſelves under the protection of the French king, revolted, whereupon he changed their conditions into privileges, to the end it might be in his will to deprive them of them when he ſhould think fit. Molloy, Jur. Marit. 84.

In protections of ſhips and perſons, there is generally great faith kept by the granters thereof; for at this day, if a ſhip hath the emperor of Barbary's protection, the pirates of that nation, if they ſeize any ſhip, will reſtore it; and if there be no protection, yet, if the ſhip be taken within ſight of their caſtles, the prize is not abſolute; but if reſiſtance is made, and there be a caption, ſhe then becomes the captor's for ever, as the price of blood.

The ſtatute of Magna Charta, 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. ordains, That all merchants ſtrangers ſhall have ſafe-conduct of coming into, going out of, and remaining in England, to buy and ſell, &c. if they are not openly prohibited, except in time of war, and they are of an enemy's country; and; by 27 Edw. III. cap. 2. ſafe-conduct is to be granted to merchants ſtrangers, not alien enemies, to come and dwell in this kingdom, and return at their pleaſure, as alſo to ſell their goods and commodities, without having them taken from them againſt their wills.

By the act 15 Hen. VI. cap. 3. it is recited, That whereas the lord the king hath granted his letters of ſafe-conduct to certain perſons to come in and go out of the realms of England and Ireland, with a certain number of ſhips charged with their merchandizes, and faith and credit ſhould as well be given to the copy called Vidimus, ſealed under the authentic ſeals, and approved, as to the original of the ſaid letters; and that one John de Guntier granted and delivered ſuch copy of the ſaid ſafe-conduct, to as many perſons as he pleaſed, ſealed with the ſeal of him that called himſelf king of France, under colour of which, a great navy of enemies was aſſembled, and took many ſhips, and the king's liege ſubjects and victuals to the towns and fortreſſes of the adverſaries carried, to the great damage of the king, and his realm of England, &c.

The ſaid lord the king, at the grievous complaint to him made thereof by the commons in parliament, conſidering the great inconveniences which might enſue by ſuch evil uſe of his letters of ſafe-conduct, doth will and ordain, and hath commanded by the authority aforeſaid, to the keepers of his great and privy ſeal, that they ſhall not ſuffer ſuch clauſe Vidimus to be put in any ſafe-conduct from henceforth to be granted, unleſs ſome great or notable cauſe move the ſame lord the king to grant the ſame in ſuch wiſe: and willeth alſo, that in all ſafe-conducts to be granted for the future to any perſon or perſons, the names of them, of the ſhips, and of the maſters, and the number of the mariners, with the portage of the ſhips, ſhall be expreſſed.

By the 18th of Hen. VI. cap. 8. it is ordained, That merchants aliens may at their pleaſure charge ſhips and veſſels of Spain, and other parts enemies of the king, if the maſters, owners, or merchants of ſuch veſſels and ſhips, have the king's letters patents of ſafe-conduct, ſurety, or ſafe-guard, for the ſaid ſhips and merchandizes, making mention of the names of the ſhips or veſſels, and of the maſters thereof, as the manner is. And if any ſuch ſhips charged or loaden with any merchandizes of ſuch merchants aforeſaid, be taken upon the ſea by the king's ſubjects, not having authentic ſafe-conducts for them, within the board of ſuch ſhips or veſſels, at the day of the taking, or not being enrolled in the chancery of record, then the takers and poſſeſſors of the goods and merchandizes ſo taken may enjoy and hold the ſame; and proclamation is to be made of this ſtatute on the ſea-coaſts, to the intent that the ſaid merchants aliens may have knowlege thereof.

The goods and merchandizes loaded in the ſaid ſhips and veſſels of Spain, and other parts, enemies aforeſaid, ſometimes by falſe witneſs, marks, and letters teſtimonials, contrived before the making of this act, were reſtored to the ſaid merchants aliens, together with damages and expences, on ſuit made before the king and his council, or before the chancellor of England, to the great loſs of the owners, maſters, and mariners, takers of the ſaid ſhips, &c. and diſcouragement of the king's liege people to take ſuch ſhips and veſſels, and alſo the hindrance of the navy of the realm: all which is ſet forth in the preamble of the ſaid ſtatute.

By 20 Hen. VI. cap. 1. All letters of ſafe-conduct granted to the king's enemies, or any other perſons, ſhall be enrolled in the chancery of the lord the king, of record, before ſuch letters ſhall be delivered to them to whom the ſame ſhall be granted, or ſhall be void and of no effect: and if, at any time hereafter, any goods or merchandizes are taken by Engliſh ſubjects upon the ſea, or the coaſts of the ſame, loaden in any ſhip or veſſel belonging to enemies, and not having ſufficient letters of ſafe-conduct, enrolled in form aforeſaid, they which ſhall ſo take the ſame goods ſhall enjoy them, without any reſtitution thereof to be made, to whatever perſons the ſaid goods or merchandizes, at the time of taking, or before, were belonging.

And the king's ſubjects taking ſuch ſhips laden with merchandize, not having or ſhewing letters of ſafe-conduct, and bringing them by force to a certain port within the realm, ſhall not receive damage in their perſons or goods for ſo doing, if they be ready to make full reſtitution of the ſame ſhips and merchandize, within a reaſonable time after they ſhall have knowlege of letters of ſafe-conduct enrolled in the ſaid chancery of record before the taking of them.

The ſtatute 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4 enacts, That if any ſubjects offend upon the high ſeas, or in any port within the kingdom, and do damage to any perſon or perſons being ſtrangers in amity, league, or truce with us, or having the king's ſafe conduct, and eſpecially in attacking any ſuch ſtrange perſon, and robbing and ſpoiling of him, his ſhip or goods, &c. the chancellor of England for the time being (as well for the deliverance of any ſuch perſon ſo attacked, as to make reſtitution to every perſon robbed or ſpoiled of ſhips or goods, of the value thereof) ſhall have authority, calling to his aſſiſtance one of the judges, upon a bill of complaint to him made in this behalf, to make ſuch proceſs out of the chancery againſt the offenders, to bring them in there, to anſwer to the parties grieved as aforeſaid, and againſt any other perſons to whoſe hands any perſon ſo attacked, ſhip or goods ſhall come, and alſo for delivery and reſtitution by them to be made of the ſame perſons, ſhips, and goods, as ſhall ſeem to the ſaid chancellor expedient and neceſſary.

And upon this proceſs made out, the chancellor ſhall further proceed, if the caſe ſo require, by advice of any ſuch judge, to make to the perſons ſtrangers that are grieved, full delivery and reſtitution of any perſon attacked, and of all ſuch ſhips and goods, and likewiſe all their coſts, expences, and loſſes diſburſed and ſuffered by them, and thereupon to award all manner of execution out of the chancery, as ſhall be neceſſary for ſuch delivery and reſtitution to be had and made as aforeſaid.

A late act, 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. recites, That treaties are ſubſiſting between the king and the ſeveral ſubjects of Barbary, by which it is ſtipulated, that all ſhips belonging to his Majeſty, or his ſubjects, may paſs the ſeas, and enter into the harbours of the ſaid governments, without any ſeizure or moleſtation, upon producing paſſes of a certain form, under the hand and ſeal of the commiſſioners for executing the office lord high-admiral, called Mediterranean paſſes. It is, therefore, enacted and ordained, That if any perſon ſhall, within his Majeſty's dominions, or without the ſame, falſly forge or counterfeit any paſs for any ſhip, commonly called a Mediterranean paſs, or ſhall utter or eraze any paſs made out by the commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office of lord admiral; or ſhall publiſh as true, any forged, altered, or erazed paſs, knowing the ſame to be forged, &c. every ſuch perſon being convicted in Great-Britain, Ireland, or his Majeſty's plantations where ſuch offence ſhall be committed, ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

And the ſaid offences, which ſhall be committed in any place out of Great-Britain, either within the dominions of his Majeſty or without, may be tried and adjudged in any county of England, by virtue of the king's commiſſion of oyer and terminer and goal delivery, or before any court of juſticiary in Scotland.

By the laws of France, no veſſel ſhall go out of any port of that kingdom to put to ſea, without a paſſport from the admiral, recorded at the admiralty-office, of the place from whence the maſter departs, and within twenty-four hours after

ter the maſter's arrival in any port, he ſhall preſent his paſſport, and declare the place and time of his departure, the burthen and lading of his ſhip, the courſe he has ſteered, the hazards he hath run, the diſorders happened in his ſhip, and all the conſiderable circumſtances of his voyage, &c.

And by a treaty marine, made by king Charles II. with the king of France [ſee MARINE TREATIES] in the year 1677, a form of paſſport (or ſea brief) is appointed, to be given by the lord high-admiral of England, or thoſe to whom the exerciſe of admiralty juriſdiction is ordinarily committed; or by the mayor or other chief magiſtrate, or the commiſſioners or other principal officers of the cuſtoms, in their reſpective ports, and places within the dominions of the king of Great-Britain, to ſhips and veſſels, which paſſport is as follows, viz.

An Engliſh paſſport for ſhipping.

To all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting, Thomas earl of P. lord high admiral of England, &c. or we A. B. C. D. E. F. &c. Eſqrs, lords commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high-admiral. Or we the commiſſioners, or principal officer of the cuſtoms in the city or port of, &c. do teſtify and make known, That G. H. maſter or commander of the ſhip called the Prince Frederic, hath appeared before us, and hath declared by ſolemn oath, That the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, containing about two hundred tons, of which he is at preſent maſter, as aforeſaid, doth belong to the inhabitants of &c. within the dominions of the king of England: and in regard that it would be more acceptable to us, that the ſaid maſter or commander be aſſiſted in his juſt and lawful affairs, and we hereby requeſt you, and every of you, whereſoever the ſaid maſter or commander ſhall arrive with his ſhip, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you will pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly; and admit him, upon paying the lawful and uſual cuſtoms, and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from, your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think fit, without any interruption; which we ſhall moſt willingly and readily acknowlege, upon all occaſions: in teſtimony and confirmation whereof, we have, with our hands, ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed them to be ſealed with our ſeal. Day the day of, &c. in the year, &c.

And the like form of paſſport (mutatis mutandis) ſhall be uſed by the moſt Chriſtian king of France.

The form of a Dutch paſſport or certificate, for ſhips that go from the United Provinces.

To the moſt ſerene, moſt illuſtrious, moſt mighty, moſt honourable, and prudent lords, emperors, kings, commonwealths, princes, dukes, counts, barons, lords, burgomaſters, ſheriffs, counſellors, judges, officers, juſtices, and regents of all cities and places, as well eccleſiaſtical as ſecular, who ſhall ſee or read theſe preſents. We burgo-maſters and governors, of the city of &c. do certify, that A. B. ſhip-maſter, appearing before us, hath declared by ſolemn oath, that the ſhip called, &c. containing about, &c. laſts, of which he is the preſent maſter, belongeth to inhabitants of the ſaid United Provinces, ſo help him God. And as we would willingly ſee the ſaid ſhip-maſter aſſiſted in his juſt affairs, we do requeſt you and every of you, where the above ſaid maſter ſhall arrive with his ſhip and goods, that you will pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly; admitting him upon paying the uſual dues, tolls, and other cuſtoms, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and territories, and there to trade, deal, and negociate in any port or place, in ſuch fort and manner as he ſhall deſire, which we ſhall moſt readily acknowlege on the like occaſion. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of our city to be hereunto put.

A general maritime paſſport for a Swediſh or other ſhip to paſs the Sound of Denmark.

The conſuls and ſenators of the town of, &c. certify, That the ſhip, &c. commanded by, &c. belongs to our ſaid town (or ſome other town) in Sweden, and is laden only with goods belonging to Swedes, and bound for the ocean, as the maſter and the owners thereof have declared before us in our court, deſiring this certificate as a proof of the ſame; the ſhip and goods being thereby to be exempted from all taxes and vexations in the paſſage of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms. In teſtimony whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of the town to be put to theſe preſents, which we have likewiſe cauſed to be ſigned by the clerk. Given, &c.

PATENTS. Letters patent are writings of the king, ſealed with the great ſeal of England, whereby a perſon is enabled to do or enjoy that, which otherwiſe he could not do; and ſo called, becauſe they are open with the ſeal affixed, and ready to be ſhewn for confirmation of the authority thereby given: and we read of letters patent to make denizens, &c.

The chief LAWS of ENGLAND relating to PATENTS.

A monopoly is an allowance of the king by his grant, commiſſion, or otherwiſe, to any perſon or perſons, for the ſole buying, ſelling, making, working, or uſing of any thing, by which other perſons are reſtrained of any freedom or liberty that they had before, or hindered in their lawful trade. Though a monopoly may be more truly defined to be, a kind of commerce in buying, ſelling, exchanging, or bartering, uſurped by a few, and ſometimes but by one perſon, and foreſtalled from all others, to his or their private gain, and to the hurt and detriment of other men; whereby of courſe, or by authority, the liberty of trade is reſtrained, and the monopoliſt enabled to ſet what price hepleaſes on commodities.

Theſe monopolies uſed in this kingdom, have been diſtinguiſhed into three parts: firſt, reaſonable, of things and trifles for pleaſure, ſuch as cards, luteſtrings, tobacco, or the like; ſecondly, unreaſonable, as of fleſh, fiſh, butter, cheeſe, or other needful things for the ſuſtenance of man, without which he can hardly live: thirdly, indifferent, as of velvets, ſilks, ſpices, and other delicacies and curioſities, which are indifferent to be uſed or not. But all monopolies are contrary to the ancient and fundamental laws of this realm, and are againſt the freedom of trade, &c. Upon this ground it hath been held, that the king's grant to any corporation of the ſole importation of any merchandize by our common law, is void.

Some men are ſatisfied, if a prohibition of a commodity be made by act of parliament, and they will not call it a monopoly, though it be ſo in effect; as when a ſociety of private merchants have a privilege to themſelves only, to ſell certain commodities, or to import them, and all other ſubjects are excluded, although they were neither the diſcoverers or firſt inventors thereof: but if it be done by the king's prerogative, then they take it to be a monopoly. There are others who would have all things at large in the courſe of traffic, and that there ſhould be no ſocieties or corporations of merchants for any places of trade: for by way of partnerſhip merchants might aſſociate themſelves, to make or enterprize any voyages, or in ſending any goods or merchandize abroad, without having regard to our companies for carrying on trade, ſome whereof are of great antiquity. And other perſons make a difference between companies or aſſociations, dealing in a joint-ſtock or a-part, affirming the management of a joint-ſtock to be within the compaſs of a monopoly; nevertheleſs, they would be contented to tolerate the ſame for the employment outward, but for returns homeward, they would have a particuiar diviſion of the commodities which they receive.

The learned judge Vaughan ſays, that if the exportation or importation of a commodity, or the exerciſe of a trade be prohibited generally by parliament, and no cauſe expreſſed of the prohibition, a licence may be granted by the king to one or more perſons without limitation to export or import, or to exerciſe the trade: for by ſuch general reſtraint, the end of the law is no more than to limit the over-numerous exporters, importers, or traders in that kind, by putting them to the difficulty of procuring licences, and therefore ſuch general licences ſhall not be accounted monopolies. In theſe caſes, the law implies that the king may licenſe, as well as if the prohibitory law had been, that no ſuch exportation, &c. ſhould be without the king's expreſs licence. Vaugh. Rep. 345.

Here we have given the various opinions of different men, concerning what is a monopoly, or not ſo; and now we ſhall take particular notice of the great caſe of monopolies in the reign of queen Elizabeth, as tranſmitted down to us by that excellent lawyer Sir Edward Coke. Queen Elizabeth intending that her ſubjects being able men fit for huſbandry, ſhould be exerciſed therein and not employ themſelves in making playing cards, which had not been any ancient manual occupation within this realm; and conſidering that by making a multitude of cards, card-playing was become more frequent, and eſpecially among ſervants and apprentices, and poor artificers; aud to the end her ſubjects might apply themſelves to more laudable and neceſſary trades, by her letters patents under the great ſeal, dated the 13th of June, in the thirtieth year of her reign, granted to R. R. Eſq; full power, licence, and authority, by himſelf, his ſervants, factors, and deputies, to provide and buy in any parts beyond the ſea, all ſuch playing cards as he thought good, and to import them into this kingdom, and to ſell them within the ſame; and that he, his ſervants, factors, and deputies, ſhould have and enjoy the whole trade, traffic, and merchandize, of all playing cards, to have and to hold for twelve years: and by the ſame letters patent, the queen charged and commanded, that no perſon or perſons beſide the ſaid R. R. &c. ſhould import or bring any cards into this realm, during the ſaid time, nor make buy, or ſell, any ſuch playing cards, &c. upon pain of the queen's higheſt diſpleaſure, and of ſuch fine and puniſhment as offenders deſerve in caſe of voluntary contempt.

On an action of the caſe brought by the patentee againſt one for importing and making cards contrary to theſe letters patent,

tent, notwithſtanding the glorious preamble and pretence thereof, it was reſolved that this grant was void: for it is a monopoly, and againſt the common law, and likewiſe divers acts of parliament; for all trades, as well mechanical as others, which prevent idleneſs (the bane of the commonwealth) and exerciſe men and youth, for the maintenance of themſelves and their families, and for increaſe of their ſubſtance, to ſerve the queen when occaſion ſhall require, are profitable to the realm. And the ſole trade of any mechanic art, or any other monopoly, is not only a damage and prejudice to thoſe who exercife the ſame trade, but alſo to all other ſubjects, for the end of theſe monopolies is for the private gain of the patentees: and there are three inſeparable incidents to every monopoly, againſt the commonwealth, i. e. the price of the ſame commodity will be raiſed; after the monopoly granted, the commodity is not ſo good and merchantable as it was before, and it tends to the impoveriſhment of divers artificers and others, who before, by the labour of their hands in their art or trade, had ſupported themſelves, but now will be idle and in beggary.

And it is evident by the act of 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4. that the importation of foreign cards was prohibited, at the grievous complaint of the poor artificers card-makers, who were not able to live at their trades, if ſuch cards ſhould be imported; and the ſaid act provides remedy for maintaining of the trade of making cards, forafmuch as it maintained many families by their labour and induſtry; and the like proviſion is made 1 Rich. III. cap. 12. and perſons may not be reſtrained from exerciſing any trade, but by parliament. Now when the wiſdom of the parliament has made a ſtatute to reſtrain, for the good of the public, the importation of foreign manufactures, to the intent that the ſubjects of the realm might be employed in making of the ſaid manufactures, &c. and thereby maintain themſelves and their families; to grant the ſole importation of them to one for private gain, or to divers without limitation, notwithſtanding the ſaid ſtatute, is a monopoly againſt the common law: and therefore the diſpenſation or licence to have the ſole importation and merchandizing of cards (without any limitation or ſtint) notwithſtanding the act 3 Edw. IV. is utterly againſt law. Adjudged Trin. 44. Eliz. 11 Co. Rep. 84, 85.

King Edward III. by his letters patents, granted to one John Peche, the ſole importation of ſweet wines into London, and at a parliament held 50 Edw. III. this grant was declared void. And queen Elizabeth having granted unto certain patentees, the ſole coinage and tranſportation of all the tin in Cornwall and Devonſhire for 21 years, under a large yearly rent to be paid at the Exchequer. Adjudged, that this patent was a monopoly, anno 13 Jac. I.

In an action the plantiff ſet forth, that in the reign of Hen. IV. there was a ſociety of merchant-adventures in England, and queen Elizabeth did incorporate them by that name, with privilege to trade to Holland, Brabant, Flanders, &c. prohibiting all others not free of that company from trading thither; and that the defendant not being free of that company, did trade there without their leave, and imported goods to their damage, &c. To which the defendant pleaded the ſtatute 15 Edw. III. That the ſeas ſhall be open to all merchants to paſs with their merchandize whither they pleaſe: the queſtion was here, whether the king had power to reſtrain his ſubjects from trading to particular places? This caſe was not determined; but the better opinion was, that ſuch a grant was void, it agreeing with lord Coke's definition of a monopoly: it is againſt the ſtatute of Edw. III. which gives liberty to merchants to buy and ſell without diſturbance; and it is expreſsly againſt the ſtatute 21 Jac. I. The caſe of the Eaſt-India compeny is not like this, becauſe that patent reſtrained the ſubject from trading with infidels, without leave; if it had been to reſtrain them from trading with Chriſtians, it had been void. 3 Mod. Rep. 126.

By the ſtat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 1. it is enacted and ordained, that all monopolies, commiſſions, grants, letters patents, and licences, for the ſole buying, ſelling, and making of goods and manufactures within the king's dominions; and all warrants, proclamations, and reſtraints, &c. for the erecting, ſtrengthening, or countenancing thereof, againſt the tenor of any law or ſtatute, ſhall be void: any perſons grieved by the putting them in uſe, ſhall recover in the courts at Weſtminſter treble damages and double coſts, by action on the ſtatute; and if any perſon ſhall cauſe ſuch action to be ſtayed or delayed before judgement, by any order, warrant, &c. except only of the court where it is depending; or ſhall, after judgment had, cauſe or procure the execution to be ſtayed by colour or means of any ſuch order, or warrant, power, or authority, ſave only by a writ of error or attaint, he or they ſo offending, ſhall incur a premunire.

But this act doth not extend to any grants allowed or confirmed by act of parliament, nor to any grant or charter to any corporation, company, or fellowſhip of any art, trade or myſtery, nor to any company or ſociety of merchants for enlargement of trade; nor to grants of new manufactures, made to the inventors thereof by patent for fourteen years, being not contrary to law, or prejudicial to the commonwealth; nor to any grant of privilege for printing, or making or compounding of ſalt-petre for gunpowder; or for caſting or making ordnance, &c. and certain patents granted to divers perſons, are excepted out of the ſtatute.

And letters patent and grants of privilege heretofore made for 21 years, or under, to the inventors of any new manufactures, where they are not contrary to law or miſchievous, by raiſing the price of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient, are ſaved; ſo alſo ſuch patents granted heretofore for more than 21 years from the date thereof, notwithſtanding this act.

All matters relating to monopolies, grants, licences, &c. ſhall be examined, heard, and determined, by and according to the common laws of this realm, and not otherwiſe; and the making uſe of or procuring any unlawful monopoly, is puniſhable by fine and impriſonment at common law. 3 Co. Inſt. 181.

It is held, that a new invention to do as much work in a day by an engine, as formerly uſed to employ many hands, is contrary to the ſtatute; by reaſon it is inconvenient, in turning ſo many men to idleneſs. And concerning inventors of new manufactures, &c. it hath been determined on this ſtatute, that the manufacture in ſuch caſe muſt be ſubſtantially new, and not barely an improvement of any old one, by any addition, &c. thereto, to be within the ſtatute: it muſt be ſuch, as no other perſons uſed at the time of granting the letters patent; and no old manufacture in uſe before can be prohibited in any grant for any new invention. 3 Inſt. 184.

A grant of a monopoly may be to the firſt inventor, by the 21ſt of Jac. I. and if the invention be new in England, a patent may be granted, though the thing was practiſed beyond ſea before; for the ſtatute mentions new inventions within the realm; ſo that if they be new here, it is within the act, which intended to incourage new devices uſeful to the kingdom; and it is the ſame thing, whether acquired by experience or travel abroad, and ſo brought hither, or by ſtudy at home. 2 Salk. 447.

A perſon had a grant by letters patent from king Charles II. for the ſole printing of blank writs and bonds, &c. for the term of 30 years; and one Dorrel a ſtationer having printed five hundred blank bonds, action of the caſe was thereupon brought againſt him; who pleaded, that the company of ſtationers for the ſpace of 40 years then laſt paſt, before the granting of theſe letters patents, had conſtantly printed blank bonds, and ſo made a general concluſion. It was here argued, that the king hath a prerogative in printing, and may grant it excluſive to others; and that ſuch grants have been made by the kings of England ever ſince printing was invented, of which ſeveral inſtances were given. Now the ſtatute againſt monopolies doth not reach to this caſe, becauſe of the proviſo therein to exempt all grants of ſole printing; and there being an inherent prerogative in the king, in theſe caſes, whenever he exerts it, all other perſons are bound up, who were at liberty before.

To this it was anſwered and confeſſed, that the kiug hath a prerogative to grant the ſole printing to a particular perſon; but then it muſt be in ſuch caſes, where no other perſons whatſoever can claim a property in it: on conſidering printing as an art excluſive from the thing printed, this patent is not ſo good; for if a man invents a new art, and another learns it before the inventor can obtain a patent, if afterwards granted it is void: and then if this be conſidered in relation to the blank bonds printed, it is not a new invention, which might have made the grant good, becauſe the ſtationers company have printed ſuch ſo long time; and for that reaſon this patent is void, for where the invention is not new, their trade ſhall not be reſtrained. And ſole printing is a manufacture, it is an art and ſkill, which the king cannot reſtrain; but when it is of publick concern, then the prerogative may interpoſe.

The court of King's-Bench made a difference in this caſe, between things of a public uſe, and thoſe which are public in their nature; and the court inclined, that the patent was not good. 3 Mod. 75. 76. 78. 2 Nelſ. Abr. 899.

It is agreeable to our common law, and the fundamental laws of all nations, to grant projectors or inventors of uſeful things, privileges for twenty-one, fourteen, eleven, or ſeven years; and as to the time granted, the thing itſelf ought to make the difference, upon good conſideration, and ſo as not to meaſure all things alike. But the general intention of all grants by letters patent for manufactures, hath or ought to have relation to ſet the people on work, to recompenſe the inventor of the art or ſcience, and that things may, in ſome reſpect, be better and cheaper to the ſubjects.

There may be letters patents granted to reward a projector and the ſame be not any monopoly, although the public liberty may ſeem thereby to be reſtrained; and it may be rather a common diſtribution than reſtraint, whenever it brings a general good to the nation. The ſtatutes of the kingdom, reſtraining from exerciſing divers crafts, all ſuch as have not ſerved an apprenticeſhip unto the art which they would exerciſe, do it to no other end but that thoſe arts might be

brought to better perfection, and the things be good and ſerviceable for theſe that buy and uſe them.

Remarks in another Light.

When private perſons improve an old art, or invent or introduce from abroad a new one, they generally lay claim to the aſſiſtance of the public, either by bounty or a patent. A diſtinction ſhould ever be made in the manner of encouraging a ſingle invention or improvement, and an art capable of being carried into an extenſive trade or manufacture. In the frequency of patents this has not always been attended to. No manufacture can be managed with ſecrecy. If one perſon only is at liberty to practiſe it publickly at home, ſome of the workmen or other perſon poſſeſſed of the ſecret, will find means to eſcape and carry it abroad, if it is a new invention. Whenever a new trade ariſes, the inventor or introducer deſerves the honour and reward ſuitable to his merit; his art ſhould be purchaſed by the public, and laid open, ſo that a number of rivals in the country where it is invented or introduced, may carry it expeditiouſly to a neceſſary height, and be ready to ſtock foreign markets as faſt as poſſible. This would prove more nationally advantageous, than any perſon making a temporary monopoly of his art, and ſecreting the ſame to himſelf. It would be a great injury to the public, that the new-invented cotton-ſhag, or any of the variety of the new articles daily produced in the weaving counties, ſhould be confined to the inventor; and yet where the Fabric is quite new, he certainly merits due regard from the public; for want of which, the growth of our manufactures was ever very ſlow, compared to that of France.

Whenever an ingenious art is introduced from foreign parts, and advances ſucceſsfully, no encouragement is ſo effectual as to check the importation of the ſame manufacture from abroad, not by high duties, which either promotes ſmuggling, or renders it more deſirable, becauſe the more dear and foreign, but by people of diſtinction, eſpecially thoſe in the legiſlative capacity, who ſhould effectually prohibit and damn it, by diſcountenancing the wear at once, and making it unfaſhionable amongſt us.—If this be done too ſoon, our own artiſts may not be obliged to exert their talents to excel, and the nation may leave the uſe of it from it's dearneſs; and if ſo, we ſhall ſtand no chance to come in for a ſhare of the ſupply of other nations: and if this be delayed too long, the patience and fortune of the ingenious undertakers may be exhauſted, and the deſign given over. Next to knowing the principles of a manufacture, certain compendious methods are neceſſary to perform it with expedition. It is not enough to execute one piece, as well or better than the imported one; the more important point is to execute them in quantities, and this requires length of time and practice; and 'till this can be brought to bear, ſome public encouragement ſhould not be refuſed to the firſt of our own undertakers.

Among ſingle inventions or ſecrets, the boaſted remedies of the faculties are commonly rewarded by patent. Whether this is for the public intereſts, ſee the article Quacks

However right it may be, that the inventors ſhould keep their ſecrets to themſelves, yet is there not an apparent abſurdity in ſolliciting an excluſive privilege for the ſole making of what they ſay no one can make but themſelves; is it not deſiring a permiſſion from the king to keep their own ſecret?

The common argument runs for the preventing counterfeits. And in this light, the general good requires they ſhould be indulged with a patent, that all ſimilar ways of injuring the health of his Majeſty's ſubjects ſhould be reſtrained to one, which is paid for.

Sometimes the diſcovery is adjudged to have real merit, and to be uſeful to the public health. In which caſe, the parliament, in lieu of a monopoly, has thought proper to honour the inventor with a bounty, and ſo make a preſent of the remedy to the public: as we have ſeen done with relation to Mrs Stephens's cure for the ſtone, the univerſal medicine of Dr Ward, and formerly to the inventor of a ſpecific for the gout.

Patents are frequent for books, which often promotes the pirating and printing them abroad, or in Scotland. In works of more expence than invention, and where the printer rather than the author applies to the public, perhaps this is the only practicable method of ſecuring his property. But when the author has done a work evidently uſeful to the public, and an honour to the nation, it were to be wiſhed he might at leaſt be conſidered as the inventor of a new manufacture, and that rewards for good books were as common as for medicines. Burnet was honoured with the thanks of both houſes of parliament for the Hiſtory of the Reformation, and Mr Locke with a bounty for his Treatiſe on Intereſt and Coin.

But nothing is more inſecure in this nation than literary property, which we have ſhewn in our Remarks under the article Book, and alſo in our Remaks under the article Book-Trade, and under the article Copies of Authors. Nor can any thing be a greater diſcouragement to men of genius and application, to devote themſelves this way to the pablic ſervice, nor does any thing call for greater attention from the legiſlature.

In relation to the laborious work wherein I am at preſent engaged, I have not applied for any patent, although I may preſume to ſay, it is a work new of it's kind in this nation, nor did any thing of that comprehenſive nature ever before appear in any other ſtate or country. My reaſons for it are, that I thought it my duty firſt to experience the judgment of the public; thinking it ſomething extraordinary, however common, for his Majeſty's name to be annexed to a book, before the public or any body elſe, had ever ſeen one ſingle ſheet of it. However meritorious ſome books may be that have been thus printed, I cannot but think, in the general, ſuch practices are highly impoſitious and deceitful upon the maſs of the people, who are weak enough to imagine, that a book with a patent to it has the ſanction and authority of his Majeſty, or thoſe officers of ſtate, who are delegated to grant ſuch powers and privileges; when the truth is, that neither the attorney or ſollicitor-general, any more than the ſecretaries of ſtate, or the public, have ever ſeen a ſingle ſheet of ſuch book; and the king knows no more of the merits thereof, than the emperor of China; nay, it is frequent, if I am rightly informed, to obtain patents for books, before any part of them has been begun to be written. And what is ſtill more extraordinary, there are numbers of books publiſhed in this nation, with theſe words annexed to them, Printed and Published according to Act of Parliament, or by the King's Authority: and numbers are made to believe, that the parliament have really made an act to encourage and propagate theſe works throughout the nation, which are generally in the greateſt contempt, and only in eſteem by the ignorant and deluded multitude. Do not abuſes of this kind require redreſs? Is the ſacred name of Majesty itſelf, and that of the Parliament of Great-Britain alſo, to be thus proſtituted, for the ſake of the fees of a common patent?

When a work is finiſhed and approved of in general by men of ſenſe, candour, and impartiality, as a performance of ſolid and permanent utility to the kingdom, the author has a right not only to a patent, but to ſome other reward and protection than that will give him, and may with a good grace properly apply for them. But to obtain a patent for a book before any one knows any thing of it's contents, and which turns out nothing but a barefaced piracy upon others of allowed merit, is raiſing a moſt impoſitious and arbitrary tax upon the public; and, what is ſtill more intolerable, under the ſanction and authority of the king and parliament, when neither of them know any thing of the matter.

The ingenious improvers of the engine for extinguiſhing fires, the ſolar and pocket microſcopes, the air-pump, the reflecting teleſcope, and of other machines of curious ſtructure, were properly indulged with patents. The contrivers of the fire-engine, the importer of the Italian throwing-mill, [ſee the Remarks on the article Derbyshire, and the infinite numbers daily inventing machines for ſhortening buſineſs, have generally been recompenſed with a patent; and ſome few, if the machine was highly curious and uſeful, with a bounty and honours alſo.

The public can ſuffer nothing from a temporary monopoly of ſuch machines, ſince one or two perſons may eaſily ſupply as many as the nation will require of each, and they are things in their own nature durable, and of uſe only in particular places. Perhaps there are not more than two or three throwing mills in the kingdom, nor above an hundred fire-engines, or a thouſand water-engines (for theſe are rare, except in towns) and in general the higher machines, like the moſt perfect animals, are feweſt in number; ſome of them, perhaps, for the ſame reaſon as beaſts of prey are obſerved to be ſo.

Manufactures of moderate expence and quick growth, may, in the general, ſafely be left to private adventurers, and run the common chance for ſuccefs; the finer arts will never flouriſh but under public protection and noble patronage; no encouragements in the hands of private perſons are adequate rewards to the man of genius, who ſtudies the univerſal promotion of theſe more uſeful commercial arts, which give daily bread to millions of the human ſpecies, ſupport the dignity of crowns, and the magnificence of the great and the wealthy. A noble profuſion of honours and bounty raiſed the Gobelines to it's preſent height; the united influence of theſe two being generally ſufficient to call forth whatever heman induſtry can attain to.

The houſe was the reſidence of two brothers, who firſt brought to Paris the ſecret of dyeing a curious ſcarlet, and failed in ſetting it on foot. The buildings went under the popular name of the folly of the Gobelines for many years, 'till the obloquy was taken off by a Royal Edict, and the name changed by public authority to the more honourable one of the Royal Mansion of the Gobelines. The ſcarlet colour was ordered to be called after the name of the inventors, and the little river Bievre, which runs by the building, receives the ſame diſtinction.

Theſe in appearance were trifling matters, but will be ſenſibly felt by the man of genius. The ſame year the houſe was purchaſed by the king, and intitled the Royal Manufacture of the Crown Furniture; and proviſion was made by a Royal Charter, to render the place a

Per-

PERPETUAL SCHOOL and SEMINARY of the curious arts. Here the famous Colbert collected together from all parts of the world, the moſt able maſters and deſigners, as well as inferior artiſts in the fine manufactures. Salaries were appointed for the directors, and penſions for life for the workmen; theſe were tapeſtry-weavers, engravers in etching and metzotintoes, goldſmiths, jewellers, carvers, and workers in ebony.

In this place was wrought all the magnificent furniture for fourteen ROYAL PALACES, which has ſince been deſervedly the admiration of the world. Particular care was taken that no part ſhould be furniſhed elſewhere, much leſs from abroad. All HONORARY PRESENTS to foreign princes and noblemen abroad, and to the ornament of TEMPLES and public buildings at home, were made in the beſt performances, inſtead of jewels or money. Many of the ſuperior artiſts invited from foreign countries were made noble, and all of them had various honorary PRIVILEGES and ROYAL PENSIONS: the whole number, ſuperior and inferior, were comprehended amongſt the natives of France, and made free of Paris, with full liberty to practiſe there reſpective trades where they pleaſed, after working for a certain term in the Gobelines. This indulgence extends to all who ſhall at any time hereafter practiſe the limited time in this foundation. The whole quarter of the Gobelines was exempted from TAXES and IMPORTS, and had a court of judicature peculiar to itſelf, under the title of the COURT OF THE ROYAL ARTISTS. See the articles FRANCE, ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS.

Beſides theſe, there are three other academies in Paris for the POLITE ARTS, with various privileges, honours, and penſions to the members, forming the governing part of each ſociety: as the academy of PAINTING and SCULPTURE, that of ARCHITECTURE and the MILITARY one, of late foundation. Precedents inviting our attention and imitation, if the latter may not be ſaid to command it. The two former and the academy of ſciences are copied in Spain, and are equally liberal endowments.

In England, the ſtream of public favour and liberality has turned wholly to the advance of ſciences; we have few or no inſtitutions in favour of ARTS, no place of reſidence but for ſpeculation. The ROYAL SOCIETY are indebted to the public only for their name. The academies for inſtructing youth in the rudiments of NAVIGATION and ENGINEERING, are mean in their endowments and trifling in their effects.

Amongſt the many noble inſtitutions of our times, it ſeems worthy of the glory of the nation, to make proviſion for the embelliſhment, ſplendor, and ornament of that country, for whoſe ſecurity, ſtrength, and grandeur, they have ſo amply provided. Whoever recollects the eſtabliſhment of NOVA SCOTIA, the HERRING FISHERY, the CAMBRIC ACT, the encouraging the manufacture of IRON in the PLANTATIONS, and the endowment of the FOUNDLING-HOSPITAL, may hope for any rational proviſion in this age.

An academy for the fine arts above-mentioned, under a ROYAL CHARTER, with diſtinguiſhing honours and privileges for the higher members, and ſmall penſions for the lower, might give us a proſpect of ſome perfection in the branches of TAPESTRY-WEAVING [ſee TAPESTRY-WEAVING], PAINTING [ſee PAINTING], SCULPTURE [ſee SCULPTURE], &c. and all the lower trades of elegance depending on fine deſign. Without ſome ſuch public inſtitution, they never yet were carried to an height in any country; no private fortune can ſtand out the time neceſſary to train up hands enough to extend the ART into TRADE: but when once a ſufficient number were made perfect in this ſeminary, private adventurers would be found ready enough to take up the buſineſs; for no people ever wanted a trade, that abounded with working hands well inſtructed therein, and who could ſell as cheap as other nations.

However uſeful upon particular occaſions the granting of patents may prove, in the promotion of commercial arts, yet this practice ſhould not abſolutely preclude all other meaſures that may be prudential in the public to take for the like great and wiſe purpoſe. What theſe are, may be gathered from what we have ſuggeſted under the articles ARTIFICER, MANUFACTURER, ROYAL SOCIETY.

PEARLS, are little ſtones almoſt round, oval, or ſhaped like pears, compact, hard, ſmooth, white, ſhining, and of different ſizes, which are formed in certain oyſters, whoſe ſhells are of different bigneſs: but there are ſome of them met with that are three or four times as big as Rouen oyſters. They fiſh for theſe pearl-oyſters in the Eaſtern and Weſtern Oceans, according to Tavernier. The ancients called theſe pearls uniones, becauſe they believed there never was but one in an oyſter; but they were deceived, for we ſometimes find ſeven in a ſhell. They are bred from a viſcous, or ſaline glutinous, humour, that is condenſed and petrified in ſeveral parts of the fiſh.

Inſtead of a particular part being aſſigned for the generation of pearl, they breed indifferently in all the parts of the oyſter, but are moſt commonly found in the largeſt and beſt ſhaped oyſters, rather than in others. Sometimes we meet with pearl in muſcles, and other ſhell-fiſh, as well as in oyſters. All pearl is eſteemed cordial, proper againſt infection, to recruit and reſtore loſt ſpirits; but it's chief virtue is to deſtroy acids, as other alkilies do, and likewiſe to correct the acrimony of the ſtomach. Pearl is likewiſe good againſt a canine appetite, a flux of the belly, the hemorrhage, &c. the doſe from ſix or ten grains to a drachm.

Some pearls are very white, ſome inclining to yellow, and others upon the black, which are as it were, of a leaden colour. As to theſe laſt, they are met with no where but in America, and their colour comes from the nature of the ſoil, which is fuller of mud than that of the eaſtern parts.

In the return of the cargo, ſays Pomet, which the Sieur du Jardin, the famous Jeweller, had in the Spaniſh galleons, there were ſix pearls, perfectly round, but as black as jet, and which, one with another, weighed twelve carats each. He gave me theſe, among other things, to carry to the Eaſt-Indies, and ſee if I could diſpoſe of them; but I brought them back again, and could meet with nobody that would look upon them. As for the pearls which are inclined to yellow, it proceeds from hence, that the fiſhermen ſelling the oyſters in heaps, and the merchants ſtaying ſometimes fourteen or fifteen days before they open to take out the pearl, ſome of theſe oyſters during this time loſe their liquor, which waſtes and ſtinks, and the pearl becomes yellow from the infection; which is ſo true, that in all the oyſters that keep their liquor or water in them, the pearls are always white; but they wait 'till the oyſters open of themſelves, becauſe if they ſhould open them by force, as we do ours here, they would endanger the damaging and ſplitting the pearl. The oyſters of the ſtraights of Manar, open naturally five or ſix days ſooner than thoſe of the gulph of Perſia; becauſe the heat is much greater there, which is in the tenth degree of northern latude, than in the iſle of Bahren, which is in the twenty-ſeventh; and therefore among the pearls that come from Manar, there are but few yellow ones. In ſhort, the people of all the eaſtern countries are much of our minds, in relation to whiteneſs; for I have always made it my obſervation, that they love the whiteſt pearl, the whiteſt diamonds, the whiteſt bread, and the faireſt women.

And though I have never been in America, yet as well for the reader's ſatisfaction, as that nothing may be omitted, I ſhall relate all the parts where the pearl-fiſhings are, beginning with thoſe of the eaſt. Firſt of all, there is pearl-fiſhing about the iſle of Bahren in the gulph of Perſia. This belongs to the king of Perſia, and therein is a good fortreſs that entertains a garriſon of three hundred men. The water which they drink in this iſland, and that of the coaſt of Perſia, is like ſalt water, and of an ill taſte, and what none but thoſe of the country are able to drink. As for ſtrangers, if they will have freſh water, they muſt pay for it; being only to be had a league or two off, by putting to ſea five or ſix perſons in a little veſſel, and drawing water with a bottle from the bottom of the ſea, where for about two or three feet at the bottom, the water is ſweet, and pleaſant to drink. When they that dive to the bottom of the ſea to draw up this water have filled the veſſel and ſtopped it cloſe, they give a pull to a ſmall cord, which is tied to one of thoſe in the boat, which is the ſignal to his comrades to pull him up.

During the time that the Portugueze were poſſeſſed of Ormus and Maſcati, every veſſel that went out to fiſh, was obliged to take from them a paſſport, that coſt fifteen abiſſis, and they kept always ſeveral brigantines to ſink ſuch as refuſed. But ſince that, the Arabs have retaken Maſcati, and the Portugueze have no forces upon the gulph, every man that fiſhes, pays only to the king of Perſia five abiſſis, whether he has ſucceſs in his fiſhery, or catches nothing at all. The merchant alſo gives ſome ſmall matter to the king out of every thouſand oyſters. See ABISSIS.

The ſecond fiſhery of pearls is oppoſite to Bahren, on the coaſt of Arabia Fœlix, near the city of Catiſa, which belongs to a prince of the Arabs, with all the country thereabouts. All the pearls taken in thoſe parts are moſtly ſold in the Indies, becauſe the Indians are not ſo difficult to be pleaſed as we, and will take the rough as well as the round.

They likewiſe carry ſome to Balſora. Thoſe that go into Perſia and Muſcovy are ſold at Bander Congo, two days journey from Ormus. In all the places I have named, and other places of Aſia, they admire the pearl that is upon the yellow water, more than the white; becauſe they ſay the pearl with that water, retains it's livelineſs, and will not fade: but that the white will not laſt above thirty years, without loſing it's lively colour; and not only the heat of the country, but the ſweat of the perſon that wears them, will diſcolour them with an ugly yellow.

Before we leave the gulph of Ormus, I muſt beg leave to give an account of that admirable pearl, which the prince of the Arabs had, who took Maſcati from the Portugueze, who took then the name of Imencet, prince of Maſcati, but was called before that, Auph Aen Ali, prince of Norenvaé. This prince had

had the fineſt pearl that was in the world, not for it's ſize, for it weighed not above twelve carats, or it's perfect roundneſs, but becauſe it was ſo clear and tranſparent, that you might almoſt ſee clearly through it.

The moſt perfect pearls have in all ages been allowed to have been brought from the Eaſt-Indies. It is true. they do not at this day fetch ſo high a price in Europe as they did formerly; but ſtill the Oriential pearls are of conſiderable value, and are like to continue ſo, inaſmuch as they have all all the properties that are requiſite to render them fit to be reckoned amongſt the moſt beautiful jewels that can be; neither is their any counterfeits, that at all approach them in their luſtre: though people have attained in that art to a degree of perfection, ſcarce to be expected.

The fiſh that produces the pearl is a kind of oyſter, but much larger than the common ſort, or indeed than any that are found in our ſeas; they are common on the coaſt of Perſia, near Ormus, about Cape Comorin, and on the coaſt of the iſlan of Ceylon *. The ſhell-fiſh which produces them, is called the mothher of pearl. The ancients have an opinion that thunder and ſtorms had ſome effect in producing them, for which we ſhall be able to give a tolerable account, without admitting of any thing wonderful in the fact. The fiſhing of pearl was a thing always attended with great hazard and danger, ſuch as were employed in it being often obliged to dive in places 30 fathom deep, where they were expoſed to many ravenous monſters, peculiarly thirſting after human blood. They were let down out of the veſſel to which they belonged with a weight of ſtone, fixed either to their ſide or to their feet, that they might deſcend the quicker and remain the more ſteady under water. In their right-hand they had a ſharp iron, which they uſed for removing the oyſters from their beds; and on their left arm hung a baſket, in which they put the fiſh when they were caught, and about this arm alſo a cord was tied, by which they gave notice to thoſe in the ſhip, when to pull them up by another cord that was about their middle †.

* Voyages des Indes, vol. v. p. 265. Par Monſ. Reaumur.
† Ælian. de Animal lib. x. cap. 13. lib. xv. cap. 8. Ammian. Marcel. lib. xxviii. cap. 12.

The largeſt ſort of fiſh were found far in the ſea, and if they were at any time driven upon the coaſt, it was by tempeſtuous weather. And hence the opinion aroſe, that great thunders and ſtorms contributed to ſwell and to increaſe the pearl. The fact therefore was true, that after tempeſts the largeſt pearls were found: but the opinion grounded upon this, that the thunder was the cauſe of the pearl's increaſe, ſeems to have no foundation in reaſon. So eaſy a thing it is to miſtake effects for cauſes, and to introduce errors in Natural Philoſophy, by reaſoning wrong upon facts. When the divers touched the oyſters, eſpecially thoſe of the largeſt ſize, they clung ſo ſtrongly to the rock, that, very often, there was no removing them, even with the help of their iron inſtrument. In the oyſters they brought up, when opened, the pearls appeared like little drops of fair water or dew, which hardened by being expoſed to the air, and were then carefully taken off the ſhell. In one oyſter there was commonly ten or twelve, in ſome more, in ſome leſs; but the more they were, the ſmaller; and if there was but one, it was generally of a very conſiderable ſize, and of greater value than many ſmall ones, ſo that theſe ſhells were eſteemed the richeſt of all *. The ſhell itſelf is alſo of ſome value, as having a prodigious luſtre, and being extremely fit for in-laying and other uſes.

* Plin. Nat. Hiſt. lib. ix. cap. 35.

Philoſtratus has a very curious paſſage in relation to this ſubject, if his accounts could be abſolutely depended upon; but whether they be or be not, what he relates is very remarkable, it deſerves at leaſt to be noticed, and then let the reader think for himſelf: the ſtory, as he tells it, is this: ſome of the Indian pearl-fiſhers have a method of obtaining that valuable commodity, without bringing up the oyſters at all. In order to this, the divers carry down with them a certain kind of rich perfume, which they hold before the mother of pearl; and while the fiſh ſucks it, which it will do very greedily, they gently open the ſhell, from whence a liquor diſtils drop by drop, that preſently harden into pearls *. It might be alledged, in ſupport of this ſtory, that both Athenæus and Pliny ſeem inclined to believe, that pearls are at firſt liquid; which is, indeed, agreeable enough to their form and to their luſtre †.

* Philoſt. in vit. Apollon. Tyan. lib. iii. cap. 57, Tom. IV. lib, ii. cap. 20, 21.
† Athen. Deipn. lib. iii. p, 93. Plin. lib. ix. cap. 35.

At this day, there are four conſiderable pearl-fiſheries in the eaſt. The firſt, as obſerved, is on the coaſt of the iſland of Bahren, in the Perſian Gulph, of which the Portugueze were formerly maſters, but now this fiſhery belongs to the Perſians. The ſecond is near Catiſa, on the coaſt of Arabia the Happy, over-againſt Bahren. The pearls taken at theſe fiſheries are moſt eſteemed in the Indies, though of a yellowiſh caſt. A great part of them are carried to Baſora, from whence they are diſtributed all over the Indies. They fiſh twice a year; firſt in the months of March and April, and again in the months of Auguſt and September. The depth wherein they fiſh, is from four to twelve fathoms; and the deeper the oyſter is found, the pearls are the brighter, becauſe the water is not ſo hot there, the ſun not being able to penetrate ſo deep.

The third fiſhery is on the coaſt of the iſland of Ceylon. The pearls found there are of a good water, but ſmall, and the greateſt do not ſurpaſs two carats; nay, it is ſeldom that they are found of that weight: but, in recompence of this, there is great quantity of ſeed-pearl fit to powder. The fourth and laſt fiſhing is at Japan; the pearls there are of a water white enough, and heavy, but ill ſhaped, moſt of which fall into the hands of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, becauſe the Japoneſe themſelves have no eſteem for jewels of any kind *. The poor people employed in theſe fiſheries live very meanly, and ſcarce get a ſubſiſtence by them; even thoſe who deal in pearls are far enough from being rich, through the oppreſſion of their princes on one ſide, and the art of the Dutch on the other; who finding that the bright pearls taken on the coaſt of Ceylon are moſt eſteemed, and go off on the greateſt rate in Europe, employ a brachman to buy them up as they are caught, which he does at a very low rate:

* Tavernier Voyages aux Indes.

The perſons concernd in this tradc, launching out into greater expencces than they can afford, and thereby ſubject themſelves to the dreadful neceſſity of parting with the fruits of their induſtry to ſuch as are poſſeſſed of money.

* This tempts ſome of them to a very baſe practice, which is throwing a poiſonous drug into the ſea, near the banks where the beſt fiſh lie; upon which they immediately remove to another coaſt, where ſuch as are in the ſecret, fiſh for them, and become rich before their roguery is found out †.

* Voyages de la Blun, p, 330.
† Voyage de Thevenot, Tom. III. liv. ii. cap. 11.

There are now ſeveral pearl-fiſheries eſtabliſhed in the Weſt-Indies, and in other parts of the world, as we ſhall ſhew in their proper places. But, as the value of thoſe pearls ariſe from their approaching in their colour and water to the Oriental pearl, this ſufficiently ſhews, that the excellence attributed to them by ancient writers, is not at all prejudiced by the diſcoveries made in later times, to which the policy of the Indian princes contributes not a little; for, by purchaſing the fineſt pearls at high rates, they keep up their price to the Europeans, ſo that there never came ſuch numbers into this part of the world as to ſink them much in their value: hence it is, that whatever becomes of the pearls of other countries, thoſe of the eaſt ſtill keep up their credit, and a pearl of the weight of four carats, is worth ten or twelve pounds, and of a larger ſize, and well-ſhaped, much more *.

* Tavernier, ubi ſup. Vide etiam Hiſt. Nat. des Indes de Joſeph Acoſta, lib. vi. Hiſt. Gem. des Indes de Lopez Gomara, lib. vi.

Of Artificial Pearls.

The Chineſe, according to Monſieur Lambet, pretend to have found the art of making pearls, which are in ſome ſenſe almoſt natural. The Chineſe ladies of quality ſet a great value upon true pearls, which they generally uſe, as ornaments in their dreſs. The rivers of the eaſtern Tartary furniſh them with pearls, which, however, are leſs beautiful than thoſe brought from the Indies, but the value of the artificial pearls bears a proportion to their reſemblance to ſuch as are natural.

The ſmall eſteem the Chineſe have for the counterfeit pearls of Europe, ſufficiently ſhews, that they think them inferior to ſuch as they themſelves make, and the advantage they find in this method is, that theſe pearls are formed, augmented, and perfected under their inſpection, and that they catch them in the boſom of the fiſh, where this ſubſtance is formed in the ſame manner as the true mother of pearl. The ſecret is as follows:

Take, ſay they, one of the largeſt oyſters you can find in pure water, put it into a baſon half full of limpid water; place this baſon in a retired place, in ſuch a manner however, as that it may eaſily receive the dew of heaven; take care that no woman approach it, nor let the barking of dogs, the crowing of cocks, nor the cackling of hens be heard in the place; (all which means only to take extraordinary care) then take ſome of the ſeed of pearls, called yotchus,

chus, uſed in medicine, and reduce it to an impalpable powder; then after gathering ſome of the leaves of the tree called che-ta-kong-las (a kind of holy oak) waſh them well, expreſs their juice, and with it unite the ſeed of the pearls.

Of this maſs, form ſmall balls, as large as a pea, which you muſt cover entirely with a fine powder of the ſhining pelliculæ, which is found in the inſide of the mother of pearl. In order to make theſe balls intirely round, roll them on a varniſhed plate, 'till there remain no more inequalities in them, and 'till they are dry enough not to ſtick to the fingers; after which, dry them altogether, in a moderate heat of the ſun.

When your matter is thus prepared, open the mouth of your oyſter, and put the new formed pearl into it, and feed the oyſter for an hundred days, in the manner I am about to deſcribe, but take care to give it it's food every day, at the ſame time preciſely, without varying even in a few minutes, and when the hundred days are expired, you will find a pearl of a beautiful water, which you may bore when you pleaſe.

The author does not forget to ſpecify the materials of which this food is compoſed, and particularizes the gin-ſeng, the China, or white eſquine, and the peki, which is a root more glutinous than the moth-glue, and the pecho, another medicinal root. We muſt, according to him, take of each of theſe, a drachm; and reduce them to a very fine powder, of which, with honey purified over the fire, we form long paſtils, and divide the whole into a hundred portions for the hundred days.

This receipt is not ſeemingly without difficulties, which require illuſtration from the author, if he could be conſulted; for how ſhall we open the oyſter without hurting it? or muſt we wait 'till the oyſter opens itſelf? How muſt we open the mouth of the oyſter to put the prepared pearl into it, or is it ſufficient to put it into the ſhell? In like manner, with reſpect to the diſtribution of the food, is it only to be put into the water, whence the oyſter will not fail to draw it into it's mouth? All theſe points ſeem to require illuſtration.

It is certain that in China, there are people employed in making theſe pearls, who certainly would not uſe the ſeed of pearls, ſo much eſteemed in medicine, if they were not certain to reap a conſiderable profit from it. Perhaps alſo, the Chineſe have found from experience, that by the nouriſhment they give the oyſter, there are ſeveral ſmall pearls formed, which indemnify them for the expences they have been at, in producing the principle one.

Be this as it will, it is certain that the Chineſe have had a good deal of knowledge of the origin of true pearls. The choice they make of the mother of pearl, of a retired place, diſtant from noiſe, and harſh peircing ſounds, accompanied with a pure air, and expoſed to the dew, they long time they require for the formation of the pearl, the aliments they furniſh, and whereby they ſuſtain the juices drawn from plants, which the rains, after having enlarged the rivers, carry into the pearl fiſheries, and which, as they aſſure us, render them all fertile, are circumſtances that evince, that the Chineſe have endeavoured to imitate nature in her operations.

To the ſecret of forming pearls, in ſome meaſure natural, the ſame author adds ſome other ſecrets for reſtoring their primitive beauty when loſt.

When pearls loſe their beauty, there is a method of removing the impurities adhering to them, and reſtoring them to their primitive ſplendor. For this purpoſe, let them ſteep a night in woman's milk, then take the herb y-mont-ſao, reduced to aſhes, make a lee of it, and receive the water which drops from it through a coarſe linen cloth; add a little fine wheat flour; put your pearls into a ſilken bag, tied at the mouth, and after having plunged the pearls into this liquor, rub them gently with your hand.

If pearls are tarniſhed, or ſpoiled with any unctuous matter, take geeſe and duck's dung, dried in the ſun, and reduced to aſhes; make a decoction of theſe, and when the water is ſettled, put the pearls in a ſilken bag, and waſh them in the manner above directed in this decoction.

The approach of the fire ſometimes renders pearls reddiſh: in this caſe, take the ſkin of the hoan-naw-tſe, (a foreign fruit of which the bonzes make their beads) boil it in water, into which put the pearls and waſh them; or beat turnips or radiſhes, and after having expreſſed the juice of them, put the pearls a whole night into it, and they will come out very white.

If the pearls become red of themſelves, waſh them in the juice expreſſed from the root of the Indian banana tree; leave them in that juice for a night, and the next morning they will have their firſt ſplendor and natural whiteneſs.

Pearls are ſometimes damaged when without reflection they are brought near a dead body. In this caſe, they are reſtored to their primitive luſtre, by waſhing and rubbing them in the lee of the plant y-mont-ſao, with which a little meal and lime are to be mixed.

The author alſo adviſes us not to leave pearls ſcented with muſk, by which means they are ſo tarniſhed, as to loſe a conſiderable part of their value.

Further obſervations on the methods ſuggeſted for the making artificial pearls.

The ancients, who wrote on the ſeveral ſorts of precious ſtones, ranged pearls among jewels of the firſt claſs.

The oriental pearls, as obſerved, are the fineſt, on account of their largeneſs, colour, and beauty, being of a ſilver white; whereas the occidental or weſtern pearls, ſeldom exceed the colour of milk.

To imitate fine orintal pearls.

Take of thrice diſtilled vinegar two pounds, Venice turpentine one pound; mix them together into a maſs, and put them into a cucurbit; fit a head and receiver to it, and after you have luted the joints, ſet it, when dry, on a ſand furnace, to diſtil the vinegar from it; don't give it too much heat, leſt the ſtuff ſwell up.

After this, put the vinegar into another glaſs cucurbit, in which there is a quantity of ſeed pearl, wrapped in a piece of thin ſilk, but ſo as not to touch the vinegar; put a cover or head upon the cucurbit, lute it well, and put it in bal. mariæ, where you may let it remain a fortnight. The heat of the balnæum will raiſe the fumes of the vinegar, and they will ſoften the pearls in the ſilk, and bring them to the conſiſtence of a paſte; which being done, take them out, and mould them to what bigneſs, form, and ſhape, you pleaſe.

Your mould muſt be of fine ſilver, the inſide gilt; you muſt alſo refrain from touching the paſte with your fingers, but uſe ſilver gilt utenſils, with which fill your moulds: when you have moulded them, bore them through with a hog's briſtle, or gold wire, and let them dry a little; then thread them again on gold wire, and put them into a glaſs; cloſe it up, and ſet them in the ſun to dry; after they are thoroughly dry, put them in a glaſs matraſs into a ſtream of running water, and leave them there 20 days; by that time they will contract the natural hardneſs and ſolidity of pearls. Then take them out of the matraſs and hand them in mercurial water *, where they will moiſten, ſwell, and aſſume their oriental beauty; after which ſhift them into a matraſs, hermetically cloſed up, to prevent any water coming to them, and let it down into a well, to continue there about eight days; then draw the matraſs up, and in opening it, you will find pearls exactly reſembling oriental ones.

This method is very excellent, and well worth the trouble, ſince by experimenting ſo fine a ſecret, one will have the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the performance anſwer the direction above expectation.

* Mercurial water is thus prepared. Take plate-tin of Cornwall, calcine it, and let the calx be pure and fine; then with one ounce of the calx, and two ounces of prepared mercury, make an amalgama; waſh it with fair water, 'till the water remains inſipid and clear; then dry the amalgama thoroughly, put it into a matraſs over the furnace, giving it ſuch a heat as is requiſite for ſublimation. When the matter is well ſublimated, take of the matraſs and let it cool. Take out that ſublimate, add one ounce of Venice ſublimate to it, and grind it together on a marble; put this into another matraſs, cloſe it well, and ſet it upſide-down in a pail of water, and the whole maſs will diſſolve itſelf in a little time into mercurial water: this done, filtre it into a glaſs receiver, ſet it on a gentle aſh fire to coagulate, and it will turn into a chriſtalline ſubſtance: this beat in a glaſs mortar, with a glaſs peſtle, to a fine powder, ſtrain it through a fine ſieve, and put it into a matraſs, ſtop it cloſe up, and place it in bal. mariæ; there let it remain, 'till it reſolves again into water; which is the mercurial water, fit for the abovementioned uſe.

To form large pearls out of ſmall ones, as directed by Korndorffer.

Take of mercurial-water 14 ounces; put two ounces of ſulphur ſolis into a low matraſs, pour the mercurial-water upon it, and let it diſſolve and extract. Then take of the whiteſt ſmall pearls 20 ounces, put them into a proper matraſs, and pour the ſaid water upon it. The pearls will by degrees diſſolve, and at laſt turn to a clear calx, much like diſſolved ſilver calx. Pour off the mercurial-water; boil the calx well out, and dry it; then put it into a clean crucible by itſelf, and caſt it into what form you pleaſe. When cold, poliſh it in the ſame manner as you do gems or cryſtals, and you will have your work of the conſiſtence and beauty of the fineſt and cleareſt oriental pearl.

To blanch and cleanſe pearls.

Firſt ſoak and cleanſe them in bran-water, then in milk-warm water, and laſt of all ſteep them in mercurial water; then ſtring and hang them in a glaſs; cloſe it well, and ſet them in the ſun to dry.

The bran-water is made thus: boil two good handfuls of wheaten bran in a quart of water, 'till all the ſtrength of the bran is drawn out, which uſe thus: take a new glazed earthen pan in which put your pearls on a ſtring, and pour the third part of the bran-water upon it; when they have ſoaked, and the water is juſt warm, rub your pearls gently with your hands, to clean them the better, and continue this 'till the water is cold; throw off that, and pour on another third part of the bran-water that is boiling; proceed with this as you did before, and when cold, throw it away, and pour on the remainder of the water, ſtill proceeding as before; after this, heat fair water, and pour it on your pearls, to refreſh them, and to waſh away the remains of the bran, by ſhifting them, and pouring on freſh warm water: this do thrice, without handling your pearls; then lay them on a ſheet of clean white paper, and dry them in a ſhade; after which, dip them into mercurial water, to bring them to perfection.

PEDLAR, a travelling foot-trader. See HAWKER.

REMARKS.

Almoſt all the commodities of Europe are diſtributed through Spaniſh America, by a ſort of pedlars, or merchants on foot, who come from Panama to Paita by ſea, and in their road from the laſt mentioned port, make Piura their firſt ſtage to Lima, diſpoſing of their goods, and leſſening their burthens, as they go along. Some take the Road through Caxamarca, others through Tauxillo, along ſhore from Lima: they take their paſſage back to Panama by ſea, and perhaps carry a little cargo of brandy with them: at Panama they again ſtock themſelves with European goods, returning by ſea to Paita, where they are put on ſhore; there they hire mules, and load them, the Indians going with them, in order to bring them back; and ſo theſe traders keep in a continual round, 'till they have got enough to live on.

Their travelling expences are next to nothing; for the Indians are brought under ſuch ſubjection, that they find lodging for them, and provender for their mules: this every white face may command, being an homage the poor Indians are long accuſtomed to pay; and ſome think they have an honour done into the bargain, except, out of generoſity, they now and then meet with a ſmall recompence. In the Britiſh and French nations, a pedlar is deſpiſed, and his employment looked upon as a mean ſhift to get a living; but it is otherwiſe here, where the quick return of money is a ſufficient excuſe for the manner of getting it; and there are many gentlemen in Old Spain, who, when their circumſtances in life are declining, ſend their ſons to the Indies to retrieve their fortune this way.

REMARKS on our article PEDLAR.

In Poland are very few or no manufactures among themſelves: their gentry, who are all called nobility, are infinitely above it, and the commonalty are far below it, the one too proud, the other too ſlothful. So that there is hardly a ſuit of cloaths made in the country; but all is either made abroad, or the materials brought from abroad; even the taylors are called merchants, for they travel from one nobleman's houſe to another to make their cloaths; and even the ladies buy their jewels of the pedlars, who carry them about.

The towns of Dantzic and Elbing, in Polond, being the only ſea ports belonging to the kingdom of Poland, that want of ſea coaſt, and the exceeding length of the kingdom of Poland ſouth, occaſions that the remoteſt parts of the kingdom are ſupplied with their fineſt goods, not by the warehouſe keepers and ſhop keepers vending their goods from hand to hand, and from the ports to the cities, and from the cities to the market towns, and from thoſe towns to the ſhopkeepers in the villages by wholeſale, and theſe again to the inhabitants by retail, as in England; but the whole trade is carried on by the travelling merchants, that is, in Engliſh, by pedlars and petty chapmen.

They travel from town to town, and from one gentleman's ſeat to another: and by theſe the ladies are ſupplied with fine linen, laces, ribbands, ſilks, and with all ſorts of haberdaſhery, mercery, and drapery goods; ſuch as come to Dantzic from England, Holland, France, and Italy.

The pedlars travel, ſome with a horſe, ſome without; ſome with three, four, or five Horſes, and 'tis ordinary with them, when they come to a nobleman or gentleman's houſe, to have a chamber or two aſſigned them, by the lord or lady of the houſe, and to ſtay there three or four days, 'till not only the family have fitted themſelves, and are furniſhed with all they want, but 'till they have ſent notice to ſuch of the gentry who live near them, who come, the ladies eſpecially, in their chairs and chariots, to ſee the wares, and pleaſe themſelves: all which time the pedlars, who are generally Scotſmen, are entertained freely, and both they and their horſes well taken care of, by command of the perſon whoſe houſe it is, and always fully paid for whatever they ſell, the Poliſh ladies making it a point of honour to pay immediately for what they buy; and as the Poles, both men and women, affect to be extremely gay in their cloaths, they lay out a great deal of money that way. This makes the trade of Dantzic and Elbing very conſiderable, the pedlars always having recourſe thither for their ſupply of goods, when they have ſold off their ſtocks. Theſe pedlars, who go with many horſes, are ſome of them men of conſiderable wealth, and carry with them goods to a great value; and yet that is the abſolute government of the nobility, and the common people are ſo entirely ſubjected to them, even for life, as well as ſervitude, that the pedlars trade with the utmoſt ſafety, never meeting with the leaſt injury from the common people: and if at any time they are apprehenſive of danger, the gentlemen will cauſe the country people to guard them from place to place, and forbid them taking any thing of them for it.

The number of theſe pedlars is ſo great in Poland, that if we may believe the ſtory of Sir John Denham and Mr Killigrew, who were ſent from England to take the number of them in the reign of king Charles II. there were then reckoned 53,000 of them; and thoſe gentlemen having the king's commiſſion, and the king of Poland's licence to tax them by the poll, brought home 10,000l. ſterling, beſides the expence of the journey, which muſt be very conſiderable.

There is a diſtinct ſort of theſe pedlars, who are called goldſmiths; they call themſelves ſo, and theſe generally travel with but one horſe; they carry all ſorts of ſmall goldſmith's wares, as gold rings, ſeals cut in gold and ſilver, and ſteel, ſnuff-boxes, and in a word, toys of all kinds, as well in ſilver and gold, as in ſteel, iron, and braſs, with all that we call cutlery-ware, knives, forks, buckles, buttons, &c. diamond buckles for the hat or cap, which the Poliſh nobility are never without, and value themſelves much upon; but counterfeit jewels too are very much uſed amongſt them.

Theſe chapmen or pedlars buy old plate, and exchange it for new: they buy alſo jewels and rings, and every thing of that kind, as occaſion preſents; and being pretty cunning in their trade, they generally gain more in proportion by buying than by ſelling.

PEGU, a kingdom ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Bengal, [ſee BENGAL] in the Eaſt-Indies, in Aſia, bounded by the kingdom of Ava [ſee AVA] on the north; by the mountains, which ſeparate it from Laos, on the eaſt; by the kingdom of Siam [ſee SIAM] and the bay of Bengal on the ſouth; and by another part of the bay of Bengal on the weſt.

Captain Hamilton ſays the country is very fruitful in corn, fruits, roots, and excellent pulſe of ſeveral ſorts, and produces timber for buildings, elephant's teeth, bees-wax, ſticklack, iron, ſaid to be of ſo hard a quality, that it is almoſt a natural ſteel; tin, oil of earth, wood-oil, the beſt rubies in the world, ſmall diamonds, ſapphires, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. They have abundance of ſalt-petre, but it is death to export it; and plenty of lead, which paſſes all over Pegu dominions for money. About 20 ſail of ſhips find their account in trade for the limited commodities, but the Armenians have got the monopoly of the rubies, which turns to a good account in their trade. Here is abundance of wild game, both quadrupedes and winged; and in September, and October, wild deer are ſo plentiful, that the captain ſays he bought one for a goat; but though they are very fleſhy, they are not fat. They have many ſorts of good fiſh and ſwine's fleſh, and plenty of good poultry.

They wear little of our European manufacture, except hats and ribbonds; ſo that the gentry will give extravagant prices for fine beaver hats and rich ribbands, flowered with ſilver and gold; and be the hats never ſo broad, they are ſtretched up the crown as far as poſſible, but without any ſort of cock.

Cotton-cloths from Bengal and Coromandel, with ſome ſtriped ſilks, are beſt for their market; and ſilver of any ſort is welcome to them. It pays the king 8 ½ per cent. cuſtom; but in lieu thereof, he indulges the merchants to melt it down, and put what alloy they pleaſe in it, and then to paſs it off in payments, as high as they can. Rupee ſilver, without alloy, will bear 28 per cent. of copper alloy, and keep the Pegu touch, which they call flowered ſilver; and if it flowers, it paſſes current. They make flowered ſilver thus: when the ſilver and copper are mixed and melted together, they put it, while liquid into a ſhallow mould, and blow on it through a ſmall wooden pipe, which makes the part blown upon appear with the figures of flowers or ſtars; but if there is too great a mixture of alloy, no figures will appear. The king generally adds 10 per cent. on all ſilver that comes into his treaſury, beſides what was put on at firſt; and though it be not flowered, it muſt go off in all his payments; but from any body elſe, it may be refuſed if it is not flowered.

The chief towns are Syram, or Syrian, whoſe bar is the only port now open for trade in all Pegu dominions. Some Geographers place it near the mouth of the river Acenam, or Liva; others near the mouth of the river Pegu, and the conflux of thoſe two rivers, almoſt over againſt Martaban. It drives a good trade with Armenians, Portugueze, Moors, Gentaws, and ſome Engliſh. Their import is ſeveral ſorts of Indian goods, as betellas, mulmuls, tanjebs, &c. European hats, and ſilver; and the cuſtoms here, which are about 82 per cent. amount, with other charges, to about 12 in the hundred. The Engliſh from fort St George, traffic pretty much with

with this country ; and, beſides furs and ſkins, import from thence rubies, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

As ſoon as foreign ſhips arrive here. the number of people on board, with their age and ſex, is ſent to the king, to acquaint him that ſo many of his ſlaves are arrived to partake of the glory and happineſs of his reign and ſavour.

PEGU city, Capt. Hamilton ſays, is about 40 miles to the eaſt of it; and that the ditches round it, which are now dry, and bear good corn, ſhew that few cities in the world formerly exceeded it in magnitude, but now is laid in duſt, not one twentieth part of it being inhabited, and that only by the lower claſs of people.—Moll ſays it lies 20 miles up the river of the ſame name, which divides it into two towns, the Old and the New. The latter was the ſeat of it's kings; the former is ſtill the reſidence of it's merchants and artificers.

REMARKS.

Under the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE, ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, we have ſo ſtated the nature of this commerce in it's ſeveral lights, that a good judgment may be made, upon the whole, in what manner this trade may be beſt preſerved, and improved to the general advantage of the kingdom; for the making of extraordinary innovations in the commerce of a nation, may poſſibly be attended with conſequences no leſs prejudicial to a ſtate, than innovations in it's fundemental conſtitution. The reader, who has candidly attended to what I have already ſaid in relation to this branch of ou r commerce, and others, will do me the juſtice to obſerve that I am no monopoliſt, though I have endeavoured to ſhew how extremely circumſpect we ought to be before the Eaſt-India company is abſolutely annihilated; which, it ſeems, is a a matter very ſanguinely talked of by ſome people.

Since we have treated of this ſubject, under the preceding heads, and others, that may be conſulted from the Index, there have appeared ſome objections againſt the company which well deſerve attention, in order to their being duly canvaſſed. And as this is the firſt article in the Eaſt-Indies that has given me a natural occaſion to touch upon this matter again, I might be judged wanting in impartiality to paſs it over in ſilence, for which I would by no means give the leaſt reaſon; and, therefore, I ſhall ſubmit to conſideration what the gentleman has ſaid in his own words; for if it ſhall appear to bear the teſt, it cannot be made too public; and, if it will not, a refutation will be expected.

'The charter of the Eaſt-India company, ſays our author *, obtained at firſt for miniſterial emoluments, cheriſhed and ſupported ever ſince, probably on little better motives, has ſurmounted and baffled all oppoſition, though many times attempted: nor has this enormous error in trading policy ever yet been canvaſſed ſo far as to have had one ſolemn hearing and debate, in that auguſt aſſembly; from whence this injured, this almoſt exhauſted, nation (of it's real wealth in ſpecie) can only hope for redreſs.

* Some Thoughts on the Preſent State of our trade to India. By a Merchant of London, p. 5, &. ſeq.

'To declaim on ſuch an intereſting ſubject, and to paſs ſuch ſevere reflections, without producing ſome probable facts in ſupport of them, would be preſuming too far on the candour of the reader; the greateſt meaſure of which, by making large allowances for inaccuracy of ſtyle and method, is here needful; nor without it can the author entertain the leaſt hope of being attended to.

'The plan, therefore, propoſed for the ſetting forth this truth, is to draw up a plain account, according to MERCANTILE RULES; and as arithmetical proofs are the moſt concluſive of all other incommercial affairs, ſo upon theſe, and only theſe, let the equitable deciſion of this queſtion ſtand or fall.

'In the courſe of the evidence you will find a ſet of managers buying conſiderable quantities of our woollen and other manufactures, hiring of private merchants ſeventeen ſail of fine capital ſhips, each of five hundred tons burden, and having thirty guns, and one hundred ſailors; employing thereby great numbers of tradeſmen of all ſorts, and, meeting once or twice a week, do, in their ſeveral committees, juſtly diſcharge their duty to their conſtituents; and whoſe characters, in point of integrity, are, and will remain, unimpeached.

'You will alſo find theſe gentlemen following, inadvertently, the blind rotation of public office, gradually working deſtruction to their country, by purchaſing immenſe quantities of gold and ſilver bullion, near treble the value of their exports in manufactures: all which together compoſe the cargoes of the ſeveral ſhips outward-bound to India.

'Theſe ſhips are, in this account, admitted and ſuppoſed to be arrived at the reſpective ports and places of their deſtination, and to return full freighted, with the commodities of that country, to their moorings in the river of Thames: which is done to evince the fair dealing of the accomptant. who will not take hold of the loſs of a ſhip or two, to throw an idea of diſadvantage on the trade; but then, whatever ſuch impartial conduct produces, he hopes will be looked upon as an equitable average, or a true picture of the real circumſtances of it, even for any length of time.

'Every one knows, that the commodities returned for this deſtructive export of uſeful products, and the yet more neceſſary ingredient of national ſafety, it's real and intrinſic wealth, bullion, conſiſts in the following; the cotton manufactures of India, the ſilks of China, with their tea, chinaware, and ſome drugs: whatever other European nations take of us, in the articles, may be reckoned as profitable, becauſe our ſhips and men were employed in the importation hither.

'On the other hand, whatever of theſe returns cannot be deemed uſeful materials of manufactures, &c. or are conſumed merely by ourſelves, colonies included, may undoubtedly be as juſtly accounted unprofitable; and, conſidering what is ſent out for it, to wit, the nerves of war, abſolutely worthy of ſtrict enquiry.

'The accountant in order to illuſtrate what follows, more fully to the candid and unprejudiced reader, thinks it not amiſs to lay before him his plan of operation, ſhewing from whence he draws his materials to work upon.

'It will be looked upon as an attempt extremely ridiculous, eſpecially among accountants, to pretend to form an account of profit and loſs on a branch of trade, ſtate a national account thereof, and, what is more, to give a ſhrewd gueſs at the identity of a large ſuppoſed capital ſtock, without ever having ſeen their books, or being in the leaſt matter aſſiſted by any of their clerks; the public judgment, however, may be ſuſpended, when this particular is remarked: the extracts of their books, that is to ſay, the ſeveral entries at the cuſtom-houſe, and amount of their cargoes, and declarations for ſales, are all printed and publiſhed; to collect from whence, though it be, and really has been, a very laborious and arduous taſk, yet it is done; and, according to my motto, the motive makes

Labor ipſe voluptas.

'Firſt, on the debit ſide of the account, he collects his ſeveral charges from the bills of entry, printed and publiſhed at the cuſtom-houſe London, which if erroneous, the fault cannot be imputed to him.

'He makes a valuation of the coſt of the ſeveral articles therein enumerated, ſuch as woollen goods, wrought iron, braſs, copper, &c. from the uſual market prices, as near as may be, and the articles of gold and ſilver are ſpecified to a ſingle ounce, and the ſilver caſt up under the preſent value near 4 per cent. and it muſt be obſerved, that nothing can prejudice the juſtneſs of this ballance, but an over-rating of the ſeveral chgrges on this ſide of the queſtion.

'So, on the contrary, nothing can prejudice the ſame on the credit ſide, but the under valuation of the returns made on the voyage here to be ſcrutinized.

'Secondly, On the credit, this accountant takes his ſeveral materials of diſcharge from the printed declarations of each ſhip's cargo, compared with their ſales; wherein he admits their whole amount, as put up and ſold at the candle, that the truth may not be diſputed by the non-arrival of one or more cargoes, due to the credit thereof.

'Thirdly, he is directed in the true prices of the ſeveral ſpecies of callicoes, prohibited goods, &c. from the printed accounts publiſhed by the moſt eminent brokers, who conſtantly attend the ſales; and for the weighable goods, from the ſale books, thrown into an average, of which the public are the beſt judges, whether right or not.

Invoice of the Exports to India.

Tons of iron.	Ordnance and wrought iron.	Tons of ſteel.	Tons of nails.	Tons of cordage.	Tons of lead.	Tons of ſtores.	Braſs, pewter, copper,	Tons of gun-powder.	Tons of quickſilver, &c.
1,442 at 15 l.	610 at 50l.	450 at 50 l.	180 at 25 l.	800 at 40l.	895 at 17 l.	550 valued at	260 at 100 l.	100 at 80l.	32 at 300l.
l. 21,630	30,500	22,500	4,500	32,000	15,215	305,000	26,000	8,000	9,600

Woollen cloths	Stuffs.	Perpets.	Hoſe.	Oz. of gold.	Oz. of ſilver.
18,175 at 110,000	23,220 at 50,000 l.	37,469 at 40,000 l.	3000 doz. at 3000 l.	11,076 at 3 l. 18s. per oz.	2,991,251 at 5s. 3d. per oz.
l. 110,000	50,000	40,000	3000	43,196 : 8	785,203 : 7 : 9

1,442	Tons of iron - - - -	l. 21,630	Among all theſe, the manufactures in woollens, and
610	ordnance, &c. - - -	30,540	braſs, copper, iron, pewter, and other materials,
450	ſteel - - - -	22,500	do not exceed the value of 300,000l.
180	nails - - - -	4,500	And further take notice, that only 14 ſhips cleared
895	lead - - - -	15,215	out for India, inſtead of the 17 here given.
800	cordage - - -	32,000	
550	ſtores - - -	305,000	
260	braſs, copper, and pewter - -	26,000	
100	gunpowder - - - -	8,000	
32	quickſilver - - - -	9,600	
5,324	Tons ſhipped on 17 ſhips, anno 1753.		
3,176	Ditto on bale goods, &c. at - -	203,000	
		674,945 — —	
		43,196 8 — Gold	
		785,203 7 9 Silver	
8,500	Tonnage on 17 ſhips, at 500 tons each; really on 14 ſhips only: total amount of cargoes outwards	l. 1,503,344 15 9	

Invoices of the Imports from India, and Sales thereof.

Wager, Prince of Wales, and Exeter, and ſold at - - - - -	l. 250,000
Scarborough - - - - - - - - - -	225,000
Houghton, excluſive of tea and ſilk - - - - - - - -	10,000
Admiral Vernon - - - - - - - - -	175,000
Edgcote, beſides tea - - - - - - - - - -	10,000
Drake and Rhoda, beſides weighable goods - - - - - -	15,000
Prince George and Streatham, ditto - - - - - - - -	9,000
Cheſterfield - - - - - - - - -	240,000
Pelham - - - - - - - - -	85,000
Bombay Caſtle, - - - - - - - - -	215,000
Oxford - - - - - - - - - -	195,000
Hector, beſides 500 tons of pepper - - - - - - -	50,000
Dorrington - - - - - - - - -	194,000
17 Ships, whoſe cargoes in piece-goods, ſold at - - - - -	l. 1,673,000

Theſe ſhips do alſo bring home.

3,253,900 lb. of tea, which at 4s. per lb. - - - -	l. 642,475	Groſs price at the ſales.
2,000,000 lb. of pepper, at 1 s. per lb. - - - - -	100,000	
1,141,000 lb. of coffee, at 1s. 6d. per lb. - - - - -	85,575	
203,850 lb. of raw ſilk, at 20s. per lb. - - - - -	203,850	
900 tons of ſalt-petre, at 70 l. per ton - - - -	63,000	
250 tons of red wood, at 30l. per ton - - - - -	7,500	
600 cheſts of China-ware and drugs - - - - -	99,600	
	1,202,000	
	l. 2,875,000	

Take off cuſtom, charges, and diſcount, viz.

Callicoes, value - -	l. 1,250,000	pay 38 ½ per cent. - -	l. 478,125	
Prohibited goods - -	400,000	2 - -	8,000	
Tea - - -	650,000	19 - - -	123,000	
Pepper - - -	100,000	4 - - -	4,000	
Silk, raw - -	200,000	12 ½ - - -	25,000	
Coffee - - -	85,000	22 ½ - - -	20,500	
Salt-petre - -	60,000	10 - - -	6000	
Red-wood, - - -	5,000	10 - - - -	500	
China-ware and drugs - - -	100,000	30 - - -	30,000	
Valuation	l. 2,850,000	Total of duties	695,625	
			l. 2,179,375	

Charges

Charges and Diſcount as follows.

Frieght on 8,500 tons of ſhipping, 10l. per ton	l. 85,000
Wages and proviſions for 1700 men at 5 l. per month per man	204,000
Intereſt on bonds, two years, at 3 per cent.	90,000
Directors, clerks, &c. at 10,000l. per annum	20,000
Warehouſes coſt 100,000 l. at 8 per cent	16,000
Shipping and landing of 8,500 tons	8,500
	423,500
Diſcount on 2,875,000l. at 6 ½ per cent	186,875
	£10,35
Nett proceeds do not exceed	l. 1,569,000

Note, That here are 17 ſhips allowed to be returned, whereas only 14 were really loaded outwards: all which is thrown into the credit of the account, and no aſſurance is here charged; ſo large a ſcope has the accountant in the ſupport of his ſentiment; beſides 5 per cent. allowed over the real prices at the candle, which amounts to the ſmall ſum of 140,000l. errors excepted. All theſe, he ſuppoſes, may ſerve to anſwer whatever may be alledged about the country trade in Indi- of private traders, &c. though they, in fact, have no relation to the company.

ACCOUNT of PROFIT and Loss on a VOYAGE to INDIA.

Dr

		l.	s.	d.
1753.	To the coſt of 17 cargoes bought in England, as per invoices	1,503,344	15	9
1754.	To profit and loſs for advance	65,655	4	3
		l. 1,569,000	—	—

Cr

		l.	s.	d.
1754	By nett proceeds of ſeventeen cargoes ſold in England, as per account of ſales	1,569,000	—	—
		l. 1,569,000	—	—

Dr to capital ſtock account.

	l.	s.	d.
To ſundry accounts, for two years dividends due on 3,200,000l. at 8 per cent per annum	512,000	—	—
	l. 512,000	—	—

Per contra

Cr

	l.	s.	d.
By voyage to india, gained thereby	65,655	4	3
By government ſecurities, for two years intereſt on 3,200,000l. lent them, at 3 per cent.	192,000	—	—
By profit and loſs, for loſs on capital	254,344	15	9
	l. 512,000	—	—

INDIAN GOODS ſold to, and paid for, by FOREIGNERS.

Utmoſt price on board

578,400 Callicoes, at 13s. 4d. (being one-third above the cuſtom-houſe valuation, which is 10s. only) l. 395,600 — —

Prohibited goods, vocat.

50	Allejars	2,650	Nillaes
3,800	Bandannoes	300	Niccanees
500	Brawls	50	Neganepants
550	Byrampants	1,500	Photaes
850	Blue long-cloth	100	Paduſoys
7,000	Chints	100	Poiſaes
2,400	Chellos	100	Palampores
1,400	Carridarries	41,000	Romalls
400	Chercoonnaes	10,500	Sooſeys
500	Coopees	1000	Taffaties
650	Chillaes	1,200	Staſtracundies
55	Callawapores	200	Sekterjoy romalls
200	Gorgoroons	And others	
900	Guinea ſtuffs	Valued at	72,750 — —

Weighable goods, &c.

1,850,000 lb. of pepper, at 1 s. per lb.	92,500 — —
700,000 lb. of coffee, at 1 s. 3d. per lb.	43,750 — —
All other goods, as cowries, arrangoes, ſhell-laque, turmeric, cardamums, &c. &c. at	45,400 — —
Total value, at price free on board	l. 650,000 — —

Note, The above goods are all bought by the Engliſh private merchants, paidfor in ready money before delivery, and by them only exported, and diſperſed throughout Europe, Africa, and America, thoſe to our plantations being included in this calculation alſo: the whole undoubtedly ovet-rated near 100,000 l.

NATIONAL ACCOUNT of a VOYAGE to INDIA.

Dr

	l.	s.	d.
To the export of woollen manufactures	200,000	—	—
To ditto of copper, braſs, and iron ditto	100,000	—	—
To ditto of lead, iron, and ſtores	374,945	—	—
To ditto of ſilver and gold bullion	828,399	15	9
To two years intereſt on 1,500,000l.	90,000	—	—
	l. 1,593,344	15	9

Cr

	l.	s.	d.
By commodities re-exported	650,000	—	—
By uſeful imports	283,344	15	9
By national loſs for bullion exported, without one valuable return	660,000	—	—
	l. 1,593,344	15	9

'I have thus ſtated, continues this gentleman, the ſeveral accounts: firſt, that of a given number of ſhips, fully laden, ſailing a long and hazardous voyage to India, arriving, however, in ſafety, diſpoſing of their cargoes, and returning home the ſame tedious paſſage, full freighted with the manufactures and worthleſs products of that country; ſhips ſhattered with frequent ſtorms, their crews one-third dead, many of them ſickly, all fatigued, and looking on one another with an evil, inſtead of a friendly, eye; weary of each other's company in ſo confined a ſituation, wiſhing, as the greateſt bleſſing, for that delightful proſpect from the maſt-head, their native land, and at length arriving at the deſired port in ſafety: their cargoes printed and publiſhed, the goods are landed, expoſed, by fair and juſt ſamples, to the inſpection of the ſeveral buyers, who afterwards meet, according to public notice given, and either by themſelves, or agents, the brokers, purchaſe what they have occaſion for, in the fair method of a public auction.

The whole being finiſhed, the goods are paid for before they are delivered to the owners, and theſe allowed a diſcount of 6½ per cent. for ſuch prompt payment; the ſeveral clerks become then employed in caſting up the full amount of theſe ſales, according to the groſs prices given at the candle, to which they are more immediately obliged, as the cuſtoms are calculated and paid thereon ad valorem.

This being compleated and ſettled, I mean the duties for

Nullum tempus aut cauſa occurret regi,

it is ſuppoſed they diſcharge the ſeveral freights agreed on for the hire of ſhips employed in their ſervice, to the reſpective owners of them, and all other incidental charges.

A careful and judicious merchant would then proceed to examine and form a ballance on the profit or loſs accruing from this adventure or voyage to and from India: this he is well enabled to do, by having his ſeveral books of account laid before him; and it would be impoſſible for any other, without the ſame guides, to have the leaſt idea of it: wherefore, in the ſeveral matters here before us, it is not alledged that they are drawn up with the accuracy which books could furniſh materials for; but that from thoſe which are, and muſt neceſſarily be made known in the carrying on this public truſt, the accountant has, with the utmoſt care, from theſe rambling papers, extracted an impartial and juſt ballance (equitably conſidered) of the real ſtate of this branch of trade, both in regard to the nation, their ſtock, and bond creditors; but yet not giving up the claim and right of mercantile accounts, that of errors being excepted always.

To detect wilful or malicious charges, or unintended errors, he has alſo the particularized articles; and although the account be at length reduced to one debit and one credit, yet each are anatomized in the pages (10 to 15) and their truth expoſed, to be allowed or diſallowed by the reader.

By this a profit appears of the ſum of 65,655 l. 4 s. 3 d. after paying intereſt for the money borrowed on bonds. Trade, the Hollanders call, a ſick bride, often out of order, but never dies; it will, in general, produce ſatisfaction, when attended by œconomy, and ſoothed by prudence: on the other hand, our expences being large, either through neceſſity or vanity, do in no wiſe contribute to the increaſe of the profits of trade; here our expences are dividends of 8 per cent. per annum; theſe muſt be paid; proprietors coming open-mouthed muſt be ſatisfied; indulged for years paſt with a plentiful income, they know not how to retrench: ergo, on 3,200,000 l. at 8 per cent. for two years, is 16 per cent.

	l.	s.	d.
Or the ſum for two years to be paid is	512,000	—	—
The aſſets are the profits on the voyage at - - - -	65,655	4	3
Three per cent. due from the government - - - -	192,000	—	—
	257,655	4	3
Deficient - - - -	l. 254,344	15	9

This deficiency muſt be either taken from former profits (which, I believe, were as fully employed as theſe) or from thoſe which are to come: a happy thought! But put 200 yoke of oxen to draw this load up the hill of gain, it will not avail; the carriage is weak, and the road almoſt impracticable.

In regard to the account of national gain or loſs, may this be attended to, may this be ſcrutinized, the reſult amazing, unthought-of, and unexpected! until evinced by this accidental enquiry. However erroneous the others may be, this will ſtand the teſt: no gloſs, no fallacious arguments of occult myſterious trading, imports of diamonds, gold, and what not? by private traders ſuppoſed effects in India (mines of Potoſi!) can be admitted, until confronted with more bullion carried out (manufactures none permitted) few or no diamonds on the company's account, no gold, but many ſuppoſed debts owing, at large intereſt in India, and many more on bonds at home.

O proceres, cenſore opus eſt, an haruſpice nobis?

The whole of the debit is formed from the ſame materials as the voyage-account; but, on the credit, may be ſeen the total amount of what is re-exported of theſe Indian commodities to other European nations, the true value of the raw ſilk, ſalt-petre, red-wood, and drugs imported; and, though moſt conſumed at home, yet are here called valuable returns, as being materials uſed in our manufactures.

The true and undoubted loſs to the nation of it's bullion, to the amount of 660,000 l. yearly, being hereby proved to demonſtration (a prodigious ſum in ſpecie!) well may we tremble at every flurry in our paper circulation, ſince the baſis, the rock, the ſtrongeſt foundation of it's credit, is thus ſapped, thus undermined, perhaps through inadvertency, yet equally fatal to our welfare and ſafety.

Tea, mean dirty drug, eſtabliſhed by luxury, is become a neceſſary of life. Ridiculed by the Chineſe, our hardy ſeamen brave all climates, difficulties, and hazards, to bring them gold and ſilver, to take in return a few dried herbs and baked earthen wares. Infatuation!

Arguments are vain, tea muſt be had; but ſurely not at this rate. Had this fair eſtate the Indies (more valuable than the reſt of our trade) never been granted in mortmain to this monaſtery of voluptuous ſecular prieſts, but the private Engliſh merchant preſerved in the rights of his birth, tobacco, or ſome other product of ours, would have been the ſole purchaſe of tea; weed for weed; not a dollar exported, but for gold in return: which was the trade at firſt; but the Chineſe now hold both for tea. Or, in caſe this trade be laid open, by compounding for their charter, the government taking the protection of the traders into rheir own hands, what a fund of wealth, what increaſe of revenue! equal to the whole of the preſent: what a new world for trade! The rich, the populous, the luxurious nations of Interior Aſia, all hiſtories tell us their extent from Turkey to Japan; theſe are now ſhut up from the Engliſh merchant, for the ſake of this monopoly, admitted by all to be bad, maintained by unjuſtly obliging a people to buy their goods at one houſe, and no where elſe, whereby the ſame tea is ſold at Gottenburg 100 per cent. cheaper than at home; alone is a ſufficient profit for the ſmugglers: nay, it is ſuppoſed that the revenue does not ſuffer a leſs ſum yearly by that article than 200,000 l.

Supported by inflicting oaths on their wretched agents, has this bane of our peace and ſafety reigned a long courſe of years, bringing poverty upon us by regular gradations: without ſkill, without induſtry, and without wealth, have they proceeded in the diſcouragement of the former, and diſſipation of the latter: nor, in 30 years trading, has one ſhip been added for the benefit of our navigation; no increaſe but of perjuries.

Hac fonte derivata clades
In patriam populumque fluxit.

But that others may diſcover clearer evidence of this pernicious trade, the injury done to our public credit already, and likely ſtill to do, by the carrying it on in the manner beforementioned (for no leſs than the value of 350,000 l. in gold and ſilver bullion, has been ſhipped for India ſince the 1ſt of January * laſt) and be convinced of the abſolute neceſſity of putting an immediate ſtop thereto; or that, at leaſt, it may be limited for a term of three years, and, after that, to be intirely prohibited, and the exportation confined to our manufactures and products only.

* From the 1ſt of January to the 25th of March 1754.

That theſe, under the judicious management of the regular-bred merchant, will undoubtedly procure us a conſtant and more reaſonable ſupply, to ſay at one half the preſent monopolized price, though more difficult now than at firſt, by the taſte the Chineſe have had of our wiſe policy.

To appeal to the underſtanding of the unprejudiced, whether, if the trade be made free and open, according to the juſt rights of Engliſh-born ſubjects, our private merchants, by whoſe hands alone is the profit now produced to the nation (or rather the loſs mitigated) by Indian commodities re-exported to European countries, could not very ſhortly employ from 2 to 300 fine capital ſhips, take off three millions yearly of woollen, linen, and other manufactures, give real buſineſs thereby to more than 200,000 families, now preying upon each other, doubling the revenue, or more; the fears of leſſening which laſt, at this neceſſitous juncture, are weakly urged, in defence of a manifeſt ſcourge of providence, almoſt evincing, that

Quos Deus vult perdere, prius dementat:

To ſhew that the great products and ingenious manufacturers we are bleſſed with, the extenſive credit now diffuſed throughout the whole kingdom, joined by the ſkill and induſtry of our merchants (confeſſedly ſuperior to all others) may be made ſubſervient to this great and good end: that every other European company, particularly the newly-elected ones, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Pruſſian, muſt (though now ſupported chiefly with Engliſh ſubſcriptions, yearly made) undoubtedly ſink by theſe means.'

Upon what has been ſaid by this gentleman, we ſhall make ſome remarks hereafter, as occaſion may offer.

PEMBROKESHIRE, in Wales, is more of a maritime county than any other there, it being encompaſſed with the Iriſh ſea, except on the eaſt, where it joins to Carmarthenſhire, and on the north-eaſt to Cardiganſhire. It is the extreme weſt part of Wales, and lies neareſt to Ireland of any of it's counties.

It is 33 miles in length, and 28 in breadth, according to Templeman, who gives it an area of 520 ſquare miles. Others compute the area at 420,000 acres; but make it no more than 26 miles in length, from Cardigan in the north, to St. Gowen's on the ſouth; 20 in breadth, from Lhanbeder Velfray in the eaſt, to St David's in the weſt, and but 93 in compaſs.

The air of this county is better than is common to parts that are ſo much expoſed to the ſea, and the ſoil is fruitful; it's few mountains, which are chiefly in the north-eaſt part, have indifferent good paſture for cattle and ſheep; but the parts

near

near the ſea abound with rich meadows, and good corn. It's other commodities are goats, fiſh, fowl, falcons particularly excellent, called peregrins, marle, pit-coal, and culm. It affords plenty of wheat, and is well ſerved with ſea-fiſh and foreign wines.

HAVERFORDWEST, ſtands on the ſide of a hill, but is a very neat, well-built, populous, and trading town, having a commodious key for ſhips of burthen and a cuſtom-houſe.

PEMBROKE, the county town, ſtands in the moſt pleaſant part of all Wales, at the innermoſt and eaſtern creek of Milford-haven.

ST DAVID'S, ſtands on the moſt weſtern promontory of all, which extends itſelf conſiderably into the Iriſh ſea, commonly called St. David's Head.

TENBY, on the ſouth coaſt of this ſhire, has a good key, which was formerly much frequented by fiſhermen; enjoyed a great trade, and it's inhabitants were wealthy: it's markets, at preſent, are well ſtored with corn, fiſh, and other proviſions; the road for ſhipping is very good. It has a great fiſhery for herrings in the ſeaſon, and a large colliery, from whence great quantities of coals are exported to Ireland.

PENSYLVANIA, a Britiſh colony in America. This province is bounded on the eaſt by Delaware bay and river, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the north and weſt by Canada, on the ſouth by Maryland. It extends from Cape Hinlopen, in latitude 39. 30. above 200 miles northwards, but it is very narrow in the ſouthern parts, up to the 40th degree of latitude, being ſo pent in on the eaſt by Delaware river, and on the weſt by the province of Maryland, that in thoſe parts it is not much above 15 miles broad, and in ſome places leſs ſtill; but beyond the latitude it is much broader, though we cannot aſcertain how far it ſtretches towards Canada.

As to the climate, Penſylvania is, by it's latitude, at a like diſtance from the ſun with Naples in Italy, and Montpellier in France; but it muſt be acknowleged that the climates on the continent of America differ much from thoſe of the ſame latitude in Europe: it muſt, however, be owned that the air of Penſylvania is ſweet and clear: the fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and laſts 'till the beginning of December, when the winter ſets in, which continues 'till March. Froſty weather, and extreme cold ſeaſons, are frequently known here; but as in moſt countries where there are ſuch ſeaſons, the air is then dry and healthy. From March to June the ſpring laſts, but the weather then is more inconſtant than in the other ſeaſons. The heats are extraordinary in the ſummer months, July, Auguſt, and September, but mitigated by cool breezes, which make them very tolerable. The wind is ſouth-weſt during the ſummer, but generally north-weſterly ſpring, fall, and winter, which blowing from the froſty and ſnowy mountains and lakes of Canada, is doubtleſs the main reaſon of the exceſſive cold here in winter.

The ſoil of this province is in ſome places a yellow or black ſand, in others a loamy gravel, in others a fat mould, like the vales in England, eſpecially by inland brooks and rivers, where the lands are moſtly three to one richer than thoſe that lie by navigable rivers. There is alſo found a black hazel mould on a ſtoney bottom. The earth is fruitful, fat, and eaſy to be cleared, becauſe the roots of the trees lie almoſt on the ſurface of the ground.

Here are trees of all ſorts; oak; red, white, and black aſh, beech, Spaniſh cheſnut, cypreſs; the moſt durable of all are poplar, gum wood, hickery, ſaſſafras; and, as for ſhrubs, ſnake-root, ſarſaparilla, ſalop, ſpruce, and cranberries.

Wheat, barley, oats, rye, peaſe, beans, water-melons, muſk-melons, apples, pears, cherries, apricots, quinces, carrots, turnips, onions, parſnips, cucumbers, &c. are here in great plenty, as alſo Indian corn, hemp, flax, &c. It is common for one buſhel of corn ſowed here to yield 40, often 50, and ſometimes 60 buſhels. Of living creatures, here are for food and trade, deer, the elk, as big as a ſmall ox, rabbets, racoons, beavers, plenty of oxen, cows, and ſheep; of the latter it is common for farmers to have 4 or 500 in a flock. They have alſo horſes, ſome very good, and handſome enough. Of birds, here are very fine buſtards, 40 or 50 pounds weight, pheaſants, heath-birds, ſwans, geeſe, braindes, duck, teal, and ſnipe. The fiſh here are ſturgeon, herrings, eels, ſmelts, perch, oyſters, crabs, cockles, and muſſels.

As to the trade of Penſylvania, with reſpect to Europe and America, the caſe ſtands thus: their merchandizes conſiſt of horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh, ſalted and barrelled up, ſkins and furs, all ſorts of grain, viz. wheat, rye, peaſe, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian peaſe and beans, pot-aſhes, wax, &c. and, in return for theſe, they import from the Caribbee Iſlands, and other places, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, ſilver, negroes, ſalt, and wine; and, from Great-Britain, houſhold goods, and cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, and toys.

They have alſo ſome rice, but no great quantities, and a little tobacco of the worſt ſort. Their trade with the Indians conſiſts but in few articles: they receive of the natives chiefly ſkins, and furs of their wild beaſts, for which they give them cloathing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirits, in return. This, as well as other northern colonies, are ſaid to have alſo a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniards upon the coaſts of Terra Firma, &c. furniſhing them with European goods and merchandizes, for which they receive chiefly dollars in return [ſee SPANISH AMERICA]; and they alſo trade to the bay of Honduras and Campeachy, for logwood [ſee the article LOGWOOD]. But after all, it muſt be admitted that Pedſylvania has no ſtaple commodity, nor have the inhabitants yet ſet up any capital manufacture of their own for exportation.

This province is divided into ſix counties, viz. Buckingham, Philadelphia, Cheſter, Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex.

There were here a few Engliſh, Dutch, and Swedes, before Mr Penn ſent over the firſt adventurers, under his patent, but they all ſubmitted to the governor he placed over them. Thoſe who went over from England were generally Diſſenters, and eſpecially Quakers, whoſe relioion * is eſtabliſhed by law in this country.

* Among many good things, in relation to the conſtitution, and good government of this province, Mr Penn eſtabliſhed courts of juſtice in every county, with proper officers; and, to prevent law-ſuits and contentions among his paſſive people, there were three PEACE-MAKERS choſen by every county-court, in the nature of common arbitrators, to hear and determine differences between man and man, In king William's reign, when there were no proſecutions in England, this province began to be ſettled with people, who came thither to mend their fortunes, and not to enjoy the liberty of conſcience, for the toleration gave them that at home. Theſe men being of the church of England, Preſbyterians, and Baptiſts, would have had a militia, but the Quakers, being the majority, were againſt it, their principles not allowing them the uſe of arms; but not long after Mt Penn's ſecond voyage, they readily fell in with an armed force: for a ſhip of theirs being taken by pirates, they hired men, and ſupplied them with ammunition and fire-arms, to recover her. And, in reſpect to the militia, ſuch as were of another opinion were allowed to train themſelves, and take ſuch military care for their defence as conſiſted with the peace of the country. However, they have yet had no great occaſion for a militia; for it is very remarkable, that this province, ever ſince it's firſt eſtabliſhment, never had any war with their neighbours, Chriſtians or Indians, but have always lived in peace and amity with them all; and how they behaved in the late rebellion is recent in every one's memory. Let who will laugh at their religion and polity, we find, from the apparent effects of them, as his grace the late duke of Argyle juſtly ſaid in the houſe of lords, upon a peculiar occaſion, that they beat all other ſects of people for ſound morals, œconomy, and human prudence: and, as I have had the ſatisfaction to converſe with many of the more ſenſible men among them, I can ſpeak from experience, that they are as little enthuſiaſts as the freeſt thinkers of the age, notwithſtanding the whimſies of ſome of their green-apron old women; and perhaps there are old women and fools, as well as knaves, of all ſectaries and perſuaſions, but fewer, I believe, among theſe people than among any other, on account of their religious principles; nor do any deſerve more protection under a free-conſtituted government: the reaſons of which are obvious to all who know any thing of their ſyſtem of polity among themſelves.

It has been above obſerved, that this province was divided into counties, of which there are ſix; three upper, and three lower: the former are Buckingham, Philadelphia, and Cheſter, and make the Penſylvania ſo called in king Charles's grant; the latter counties of Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex (called Eſſex in ſome maps) are taken out of Nova Belgia, or rather were thus called before the duke of York, afterwards king James II. granted them to Mr Penn.

I. BUCKINGHAM county, is the moſt northerly of all

BRISTOL is reckoned the chief town in this county; it ſtands 20 miles from Philadelphia, to the north, on the river Delaware, over-againſt Bridlington, in Weſt New Jerſey, and conſiſts of about 70 or 80 houſes: it is noted for it's mills of ſeveral ſorts.

II. PHILADELPHIA county; the firſt town in it is

FRANKFORT, as big as Briſtol before-mentioned, and as well built.

PHILADELPHIA, the capital city of this province, is eſteemed to be one of the beſt laid-out cities in the world; and were it full of houſes and inhabitants, according to the proprietor's plan, it would be a capital fit for a great empire. It is a large city conſidering it's late foundation, moſt commodiouſly ſituated between two navigable rivers, Delaware and Schuylkill, in north latitude 40. 10. and longitude 75. 8. weſt from London. Mr Penn deſigned the town in the form of an oblong ſquare, extending two miles in length, from one river to the other. The long ſtreets, eight in number and two miles in length, he cut at right angles, others a mile in length, and 16 in number, all ſtraight and ſpacious. He left proper ſpaces for markets, parades, keys, meeting-houſes, ſchools, hoſpitals, and other public buildings: and it increaſes every day in edifices of divers kinds, which are carried on according to the firſt plan.

The city has two fronts on the water, one on the eaſt ſide, facing the Schuylkill, and the other on the weſt, facing the Delaware, which is near two miles broad here. The eaſtern part is the moſt populous, on account of the Schuylkill,

Schuylkill, which is navigable 100 miles above Falls. We have obſerved, that each front of the ſtreet was to be two miles from river to river, as it was at firſt laid out, but we cannot ſuppoſe that it is yet finiſhed in that manner. The ſtreet that runs along the Schuylkill is three quarters of a mile in length; the houſes are ſtately, the wharfs and warehouſes numerous and convenient.

The city flouriſhed ſo much at firſt, that there were near 100 houſes great and ſmall in it, within leſs than a year's time; and it has made anſwerable progreſs ſince, the number of houſes at this time being above 2000, and, generally ſpeaking, better edifices than in the cities of England, a few excepted, and in thoſe only a few ſtreets. The houſes here have large orchards and gardens; the land on which the city ſtands is high and firm, and the convenicncy of docks, and ſprings, very much contribute to the commerce of this place, where many rich merchants now reſide; ſome of whom are ſo wealthy, that they keep their coaches.

Ships may ride here in ſix or ſeven fathom water, with very good anchorage. The land about it is a dry wholeſome level. All owners of 1000 acres and upwards, had their houſes in the two fronts facing the river, and in the High-ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 1000 acres had alſo about an acre in front, and the ſmaller purchaſers half an acre in the back ſtreets, by which means the leaſt had room enough for a houſe, garden, and ſmall orchard. High-ſtreet is one hundred feet broad; ſo is Broad-ſtreet, which is in the middle of the city, removing from north to ſouth. In the center is a ſquare of ten acres for the ſtate-houſe, market-houſe, and ſchool-houſe. Several houſes on the key are worth four and five thouſand pounds, and fifteen ſhips have been on the ſtocks at a time, and ſome hundreds have been built there. The cellars and warehouſes on the key are made towards the river three ſtories high. Here are two fairs a year, and two markets a week. The city ſends two members to the aſſembly.

The inhabitants being at firſt moſtly Quakers, as they ſtill continue, it was ſome time before there was a church after the manner of England; but as ſoon as one was built, it was called Chriſt Church. It had in a few years a very numerous congregation, and king William ordered an allowance of 50l. a year to the miniſter, which, with voluntary contributions, make a handſome proviſion for him. There are above twelve thouſand of the inhabitants that are of this congregation. Here are, beſides this, ſeveral meeting-houſes for the Quakers, who are properly the church as by law eſtabliſhed, being the original numerous ſettlers.

According to the plan, there is in each quaater of the city a ſquare of eight acres, intended for the ſame uſes as was Moorfields in London, walks and exerciſes for the citizens. The great dock is formed by an inlet of the river Delaware, at the ſouth corner of the front of the wharfs, and has a bridge over it at the entrance. Several creeks run into the city out of the two rivers; and there is no city in Holland that is more naturally accommodated with fine and commodious canals, than this might be very eaſily. The key is beautiful, above 200 feet ſquare, to which a ſhip of 500 tons may lay her broadſide. And, as theſe advantages have already rendered this one of the beſt trading towns in the Britiſh empire out of Europe, ſo, in all probability, it will continue to increaſe in commerce, riches, and buildings, 'till for number and magnificence it will have no equal in America. Here are almoſt all ſorts of traders and mechanics, as well as merchants and planters. Here the aſſemblies and courts of judicature are held, and the buſineſs of the province is chiefly managed, as in all capital cities.

At a little diſtance from Philadelphia, is a pleaſant hill, well wooded, on the banks of the Schuylkill, called Fair Mount. Wico, half a mile from the town, is a Swediſh ſettlement, where the people of that nation have a meeting for religion. They have another meeting-houſe at Tenecum.

ABINGTON and DUELIN are two pretty towns in Philadelphia county. But the moſt conſiderable, next to the city, is German Town, a corporation of High and Low Dutch: there are between two and three hundred houſes in it; peach-trees are planted all along before the doors. The town is very pleaſant, and well cleared from trees. Within land lies Radnor, finely ſituated, and well built, containing about fifty families. In this place is a congregation of church of England men. It was at firſt called Amſtel by the Dutch, who began building here, from the name of the river at Amſterdam.

There are ſeveral creeks in theſe two counties, as Derby creek, &c. Amerſland lies between that and another nameleſs creek, from whence paſſing by Redloyer, we come to

III. CHESTER county, ſo called, becauſe the people who firſt ſettled here came from Cheſhire. It lies to the ſouth of Philadelphia county.

NEWTON is the firſt town in it, conſiſting of between thirty and forty houſes.

CHESTER town, the capital of the county, is about 13 miles diſtant from Philadelphia towards the ſouth-weſt, in latitude 40, and longitude 75. 17. weſt from London. It contains about an hundred houſes, and here is a very good road for ſhipping, the Delaware, on which it ſtands, being here three miles over. This place was alſo called Upland, and has a church dedicated to St Paul, with a numerous congregation of church of England people.

There is another town called CHICHESTER, as is alſo the creek on which it ſtands, which is navigable. It has above an hundred houſes. The little town Concord has not ſo many. The other townſhips in this county are ſmall, but the land is well planted. Marcus Hook, four miles from Cheſter, is the boundary of the three upper counties, properly called Penſylvania. Cheſter county ſends ſix members to the aſſembly.

IV. NEWCASTLE county lies to the ſouth of it. In this county below Chicheſter, is a great creek, where there is room enough to lay up the whole navy royal of England, there being from four to eight fathom water. Below it is Chriſtiana creek, where the Swedes had a town and plantations. They inhabited this and the other ſide of Delaware river, called La Nouvelle Swede, or New Sweden, by Robbe the French Geographer. It included part of this province and part of Jerſey. The creek is large, but the village inconſiderable, though the Swedes had a church here not long ago. Between this and the next creek is Newcaſtle town, from whence this county takes it's name. It is inhabited by Engliſh and Dutch, and is the next place for bigneſs and trade to Philadelphia, containing now between five and ſix hundred houſes well built. Here live and thrive many merchants and tradeſmen. The church has a large congregation, moſtly Welſh. The Dutch alſo have a church here.

The lands hereabout are called the Welſh Track, and there are near forty thouſand acres planted and laid out by and for Welſhmen. It is thick of little towns, as Haverford-weſt, Merioneth, and others. It is populous, and the inhabitants are very induſtrious, by which means this part of the country is beſt cleared. They have many large plantations of corn, and abundance of cattle, ſo that they are looked upon to be in as thriving a condition as any in the province.

MOUNTJOY is a manor that belonged to a daughter of Mr Penn, and here the firſt lime-ſtone was dug, that was ever found in America. This whole county is remarkable for it's excellent gravel, very rare to be met with on the continent of America. Ten miles below Newcaſtle is St George, a pretty village, New Blackbird creek, and over-gainſt it is a little iſland called Rhode Iſland, in the Delaware, where there is ten fathom water. This county ſends ſix members to the aſſembly.

V. KENT county lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Newcaſtle county. Here are Cranebrook, Dover, Murden, and Miſpelliven creeks and plantations. Dover was formerly called St John's Town, and conſiſts now of about fifty families. It is looked upon as the capital of the county, which is ſettled like Virginia, not in townſhips, but ſcattered plantations. In this county is a church of England congregation. The land is good, and the county is repreſented by ſix member in the aſſembly.

VI. SUSSEX county lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Kent. The chief town is Lewes, on a creek ſo called: it is handſome and lorge, ſtanding on the beautiful banks of a river, between the town and the ſea, which makes the harbour. Theſe two laſt counties lie about Delaware-bay, which is there about ſeven leagues over. Before Lewes is Cape Hinlopen, otherwiſe called Cape William, and twenty miles below that is Cape James, the furthermoſt bound of the province of Penſylvania. Suſſex county, like Kent, is inhabited by planters, whoſe plantations lie ſcattering, as ſuited beſt to their conveniency.

REMARKS on PENSYLVANIA before the laſt war.

It is a point out of diſpute, that no country in the world is more proper than Penſylvania for producing hemp and flax; and with reſpect to theſe, we ought ſeriouſly to conſider, as we have occaſionally obſerved on other of our colonies, that there is nothing plainer than that hemp and flax are ſo uſeful in navigation and trade, that we cannot do without them; the firſt for cordage of all ſorts, the latter for making ſail-cloth, as well as for the linen manufactures carried on in this kingdom. The neceſſity we are under for theſe commodities, ought to put us upon all imaginable care how to provide them, that we may not fall under the ſame neceſſity for them that we did in the year 1703 for pitch and tar, [ſee the article NANAL STORES] when the government of Sweden abſolutely refuſed to let us have them for our ready money, otherwiſe than in their ſhipping, from their tar monopoly, at their own price, and only in ſuch quantities as they thought fit.

Upon that diſappointment, the government, by allowing a conſiderable encouragement for carrying on the manufactures of pitch and tar, had ſufficient quantities from our own plantations, and it is greatly to be wiſhed the like encouragement was given for raiſing hemp and flax; and as all ſorts of naval ſtores may be raiſed with ſo many advantages to this kingdom, it would be unaccountable to leave us dependent, and

at

at an uncertainty for them. It is very well known, that our land is too dear for hemp and flax, and what does grow here (though it is tough and makes ſtrong linen) neither dreſſes ſo kindly, nor whitens ſo well as that which grows in hotter climates. In Ruſſia, the beſt hemp and flax grow in the ſouthermoſt parts of the empire, where the ſummer is hot and the air clear, and yet the flax is not accounted ſo good as that which grows in Egypt or Italy. Egypt has always been eſteemed for it's linen, and even now ſupplies Leghorn with large quantities: and the coaſts of Syria, Aſia Minor, Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and other great cities, have a ſupply of hemp and flax from thence.

All our colonies (which run twelve or fourteen hundred miles in length in North America, all the way bordering upon the ſea) have very hot ſummers; the ſouthermoſt parts of them lie near the ſame latitude with Egypt, and the north part much about the ſame with Ancona or Bologna in Italy, where hemp and flax grow; therefore we have the greateſt proſpect to receive mighty ſupplies of hemp and flax from them.

Part of the land in the colonies is very rich, and of ſo ſmall value, there will be opportunity of breaking up freſh as often as there is occaſion to change the ground, which if laid down will recover itſelf again without the charge of manuring, as we do here, to the very great damage of our ploughing lands. Nothing impoveriſhes land more than hemp and flax; and though it is manured, that alone will not do ſo well, for the land ought to be changed after three or four crops, and generally the fineſt and fatteſt pieces are converted to that uſe. Thoſe great conveniences of having land ſo very cheap and ſo fine a climate, which we know produces excellent hemp and flax, ſo commodiouſly ſituated along the ſea-coaſts, with ſuch numbers of large rivers running up the country to the moſt inland ſettlements, where proviſions may be raiſed at ſo ſmall a charge, and where work may be done by the labour of ſlaves, almoſt as cheap in India, gives ground to hope, that we may manufacture linens here cheaper, than any part of Europe can import them upon us, and the colonies be as profitable to us, by raiſing rough materials to enable us to carry on the linen manufacture, as the Suſſex and other downs are, for ſupplying wool for that manufacture; the profits of which we have valued ourſelves ſo much upon, that we have ſet the reſt of Europe upon being our competitors therein.

And as the woollen manufacture, eſpecially the coarſe part, has ſpread itſelf of late into ſeveral parts of the kingdom, which has exceeded the demand, and cauſed great ſtocks to remain on hand, if thoſe rough materials of hemp and flax were prepared in our plantations, the people in North Britain, &c. would ſoon find the advantage of advancing in that manufacture; the laborious and coarſe part being performed abroad, the reſt would invite, not only the poor and neceſſitous, but people of better circumſtances to employ their time in it.

If theſe propoſitions are ſufficiently conſidered and heartily put in practice, we may hope, that by providing the aforeſaid rough materials, we ſhall have the delightful proſpect of ſeeing trade flouriſh; for as the ſilk and linen manufactures brought to perfection, are altogether as profitable to thoſe nations as the woollen is to us; and as we increaſe in our linen manufactures thoſe of Sileſia, and all the hereditary countries of the houſe of Auſtria, whence we take ſuch quantities, muſt abate of courſe; their people alſo will reſort to us, and help to carry them on; for it has always been obſerved, where new manufactures are ſet up, the manufacturers will likewiſe remove. This was the caſe with the Flemings, when queen Elizabeth gave ſuch great encouragement to have the woollen manufacture remove thither; and ours when we had that inundation of China and India wrought ſilks, for our weavers went away to Holland, Flanders, France, &c. ſo that ſeveral ſtreets in Spital-fields were left almoſt deſolate; but when theſe ſilks were prohibited, the manufacturers returned again.

It is ſuppoſed the Ruſſians export to England and all other parts, in hemp and flax, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be ſo valuable a product for merchandize with them, there ſeems to be a much greater proſpect of it's being ſo to ourſelves, by raiſing them in our plantations, becauſe they will not be ſubject to any land-carriage, but ſhipped immediately from the place of growth, becauſe land is much cheaper in our plantations, than in the ſouth parts of Ruſſia. The climate being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is ſuppoſed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

We have ſhewn, under other articles which we ſhall refer to at the concluſion of this, that in the caſes of ſugar and tobacco, every white man employs four at home; that is to ſay, finds them work to ſupply him with utenſils requiſite for his. If ſugar and tobacco employ ſuch a number of hands at home, certainly every perſon employed in the plantations, in raiſing and dreſſing hemp and flax, muſt by his labour there, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by ſugar and tobacco, for they are manufactured in the plantations: the refining the ſugar and cutting the tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled excepted. Whereas flax and hemp, are materials for employing all idle hands; and of conſequence the poors rate will ſoon be abated, and the nation will find in a little time what they ſave yearly thereby, will be more than ſufficient to encourage the people to purſue that employment with indefatigable vigour. And if once we come to be employed with hemp and flax by methods here ſuggeſted, every place will be filled with flax-dreſſers, and the overſeers of the poor of every pariſh where the wool ſpinning trade is not carried on, may very eaſily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; and the more diſtant the employment is, the better, for many inconveniences have attended one manufacture interfering with another; beſides, there will be an intercourſe of trade created, by one part of the kingdom ſupplying the other with their diſtinct manufactures. This will give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an univerſal chearfulneſs to every body: for the poor are never happier, nor their minds eaſier, than when they have full employment; and when they are employed, riches are diffuſed throughout the whole nation.

It is a common opinion, that we have above a million of people in the three nations deſtitute of work, but if thoſe rough materials (ſo often mentioned in this work) ſhould come to be raiſed in our plantations, there need not be one idle perſon: now ſuppoſe one million of people were put upon manufacturing thoſe rough materials, and each perſon earned but one penny a day, and allowing but three hundred working days in the year, it would amount to 1,250,000 l. A prodigious advantage to the nation, which is ſtill greatly heightened by conſidering, that theſe people would be then employed, at leaſt in part, and ſo far as they were employed, would be the better ſubjects.

That all this might be brought about with leſs trouble than has been given the nation by one Baltic or Mediterranean expedition, and the tenth part of the expence of a campaign in Flanders, is a thing will be acknowledged by all who are capable of judging of this ſubject; and therefore that it ought to be done, is a point that cannot be diſputed. We would not miſlead our readers by the compariſon, into a bad opinion of ſuch expeditions or campaigns that have heretofore been made, that is not our buſineſs or our intention; the juſtice of the compariſon turns upon this, that the motives to ſuch expeditions and campaigns have been, comparatively ſpeaking, near and at hand; whereas we are leſs acquainted, or at leaſt, leſs affected, by the connection between our intereſts and thoſe of the plantations: though, from what has been ſaid here, and throughout this work, we think it will plainly appear, that they concern us as much, and as nearly, as any intereſts can do without the limits of our own iſland.

That the reader may the more ſatisfactorily diſcern the neceſſity of encouraging our plantations, in the raiſing of ſuch rough materials as may reciprocally advance the trade of Great Britain, as well as that of the plantations, and keep the latter from interfering with the manufactures of their mother country, we refer him to the following articles, viz. COLONIES, FLAX, HEMP, LINEN, FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, SPANISH AMERICA.

REMARKS on this province in another light, before the laſt war.

The wiſe conduct of Mr Penn at the firſt eſtabliſhment of this province, had ſo good an effect upon the Indians, that they had him always in the higheſt veneration; and they ſtill retain the ſame to his memory, of which the reader will find an exemplary proof in the following ſpeech made to Sir William Keith, governor of this country in 1722; only it may not be amiſs to obſerve, that Onas ſignifies in the Indian language a pen; and therefore this is the name the Indians have given to our proprietor and all his ſucceſſors, or repreſentatives.

'Brother Onas, you told us how William Penn, that good man did, on the firſt ſettlement of the province of Penſylvania, make leagues of friendſhip with the Indians, and treated them like brethren; and that, like the ſame good man, he left it in charge to all his governors who ſhould ſucceed him, and to all the people in Penſylvania, that they ſhould always keep the covenant and treaties he had made with the five nations, and treat them with love and kindneſs. We acknowlege, that his governors and people have always kept the ſame honeſtly and truly to this day. So we, on our part, always have kept, and for ever ſhall keep, peace and frindſhip with a good heart, to all the people of Penſylvania. We thankfully receive and approve of all the articles in your propoſition to us, and acknowlege them to be good and full of love: we receive and approve of the ſame with our whole hearts; becauſe they are not only made one people by the covenant chain, but are alſo people united in one head, one body, and one heart, by the ſtrongeſt ties of love and friendſhip. Brother Onas, you deſire there may be a perpetual friendſhip between you and the five nations, and between your children and our children; and that the ſame may be kept as long as the mountains and rivers endure. All which we like well, and on our parts deſire, that the covenant and union made with a true and clean heart between you and us, may

laſt as long as the ſun and moon ſhall continue to give light. And we will deliver this in charge to our children, that it may be kept in remembrance with their children and childrens children, to the laſt ages: and we deſire, that the peace and tranquility that is now eſtabliſhed between us, may be as clear as the ſun ſhining in it's luſtre, without any cloud or darkneſs, and that the ſame may continue for ever.

Brother Onas, we have well conſidered all you have ſpoken, and like it well, becauſe it is only the renewing former leagues and treaties, made between the government of Penſylvania, and us of the five nations, which we always believed we were obliged to keep. And, as to the accident of one of our friends being killed by ſome of your people, which has happened by misfortune, and againſt our will; we ſay, that as we are all in peace, we think it hard that the perſon who killed our friend and brother ſhould ſuffer, and we do in the name of all the five nations forgive it; and that the man who did it may be releaſed from priſon, and ſet at liberty to go whither he pleaſes; and we ſhall eſteem that as a mark of regard and friendſhip for the five nations, and as a farther confirmation of this treaty.'

Upon theſe principles, which are more likely to be obſerved in this than in moſt of our colonies, the friendſhip of the Indians may be preſerved as long as they remain a people; which ſhews how poſſible it might have been to have maintained a like correſpondence with them in other places, which would not only have ſaved a great deal of bloodſhed, and have contributed to the quick growth of the colonies ſettled in the countries, inhabited by ſuch Indians, but would have been very uſeful in many other reſpects: ſince it is allowed, where the Indians are treated, as in Penſylvania, with ſtrict juſtice and humanity, they are as firm allies as any in the world; and in that quality more capable of doing ſervice, than if reduced to be either ſlaves or ſubjects; becauſe, living as they do, they preſerve their ſtrength and activity, and enjoy all the liberty they can deſire, and are very willing to fight for thoſe under whoſe protection they enjoy it.

That our readers may be made thoroughly ſenſible of the abſolute and indiſpenſable neceſſity, under which this nation labours to preſerve and maintain an inviolable friendſhip with the Indian nations in this part of America; he is deſired to turn to the following articles, viz. BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, FLORIDA, LOGWOOD, LOUISIANA, MAP, MEDAL, NAVAL STORES, PLANTATIONS, NORTH CAROLINA.

Philadelphia, May 2, 1754.

As the following extract of a letter, from a gentleman reſiding in one of the colonies to the northward, contains a more full and exact account of the armament ſent by the French laſt ſummer from Canada, and of the pernicious conſequences that may attend the French ſettling on Ohio, than any I have as yet ſeen publiſhed, it may be of uſe to be recorded in this work.

SIR,

—— 'I am extremnly ſorry to hear that the governments of Penſylvania, and Maryland, have not viewed the encroachments of the French in their proper light; or, if they have, that they won't exert themſelves at this time of imminent danger. Should the French once gain a ſettlement at Ohio, they will then have great advantages over the ſouthern colonies, as muſt be obvious to every perſon the leaſt acquainted with their ſituation. In time of peace between the two crowns, they will continually be ſpiriting on the Indians in their alliance, to murder and ſcalp the inhabitants of your back counties, in order to prevent the extenſion of your ſettlements; and, in time of war, how eaſy it will be for a number of troops, collected from their ſeveral forts, or perhaps ſent from Old France for that purpoſe, to make a deſcent upon ſome one or other of the colonies. What then muſt be the conſequence!—Unarmed, and diſunited as you are, will you be able to repel the invaders, or prevent their ravaging and laying waſte your country, or hinder them from committing their too well known barbarities on ſuch of your inhabitants as may fall within their power? The evil day may a while be put off, but ſooner or later it will ſurely come unleſs you rouſe from the lethargy you ſeem at preſent in, and make uſe of thoſe means to protect yourſelves which the Almighty has put in your power; the moſt proper way of doing which is, to obſtruct thoſe incendiaries, the French and their Indians, from ſettling on your frontiers. By a hearty union of the colonies, and proper management, we might, with little aſſiſtance from our mother-country, not only diſlodge the French from Ohio, but from Quebeck itſelf. But to ſend three or four hundred men againſt five times their number, can anſwer no other end, than to expoſe us to the contempt of our Indian allies, who will think themſelves obliged to quit the intereſt of thoſe that ſeem unable to protect them. You deſire me to acquaint you with what I hear that may be depended on, concerning the deſigns of the French, in ſending ſo large a number of troops from Canada as they did the laſt ſummer. In anſwer to which I can inform you, that I have lately ſeen Mr B——r, who was at Oſwego at the time their forces paſſed by that fort; who ſays, he learnt by ſundry deſerters, and others, that Monſieur Duquiſne, the new governor general of Canada, a young gentleman formerly a captain of a man of war, declares he will have a French fort on each of the waters that empty themſelves into St Lawrence, or Miſſiſſippi; that he believes the late governors of Canada have been all aſleep, but that he will make every officer under him know his duty, and do it.—The four or five detachments were, during the laſt ſummer, ſent from Canada to the Ohio, making in the whole about 2000, beſides Indians, under the command of Monſieur Morin (or Morang, as ſome call him) whoſe knowlege of the Indians recommended him to the new governor for that office. The detachment that accompanied Morin, conſiſted of about 40 or 50 large battoes and canoes, many of them ſuppoſed to carry more than 30 men; they ſailed within muſquet-ſhot of Oſwego, without ever ſtriking their colours, and had their trumpets blowing, drums beating, &c. This was in ſight of many of the ſix nations, and foreign Indians, who could not ſufficiently expreſs their ſurprize at ſuch an armament, and aſked whether the Engliſh and French were not at peace.—Some of theſe troops returned to Canada to quarters during the winter, but great part of them were left, as is ſuppoſed, at the forts on and near the lakes, to be ready to go down the Ohio early in the ſpring: thoſe that returned had with them the Penſylvania Indian traders, ſo often mentioned to be taken by the French on Ohio; thoſe poor wretches were in irons, and lodged a night within a few miles of Oſwego. One of the famous chiefs of the Cahuga nation propoſed to ſome of the traders to attack the French, and recover the priſoners, but they could not muſter a ſufficient party to do this.—Monſieur Morin built two or three forts, but many diſputes ariſing between him and his officers, together with a ſevere fit of the gout, made him deſire to quit his command; for which purpoſe, an expreſs was laſt September ſent to Canada, and I ſuppoſe the gentleman who writes to governor Dinwiddie was made his ſucceſſor, who, if he exceeds Morin as much in humanity as he does in politeneſs and good ſenſe, may be of ſervice to thoſe who have the misfortune of being priſoners in that country.—I ſaw Morin and his ſon ſome years ago in Canada; they have all the vain airs of the French, joined with the ſavageneſs of the Indians, without the leaſt of the politeneſs of the former, or native ſimplicity and grandeur of the latter. The father commanded when the brave Donahew, captain of one of the Boſton ſloops, was decoyed aſhore and killed; the ſon was one of his party: as trophies of their victory, the old man ſhewed me a tobacco-pouch, which he, and the young brute, let me know was made of the ſkin of poor Donahew's arm: the father had alſo Donahew's ring, which the ſon acquainted me he cut the finger off to get, as it would not come off eaſily. After this, I ſaw ſome of Donahew's men who were priſoners, they not only confirmed the above, but aſſured me the brutiſh father did himſelf cut off ſeveral pieces of their dead captain's fleſh, and threw them into the fire, and encouraged the Indians to do the like; and when they were roaſted, the cannibal ſon, and ſundry Indians, tore them with their teeth.—This may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the neighbours you are like to have.

Your's, &c.'

Further REMARKS before the laſt War.

Thus we find that the French are determined to raiſe their intereſt in America to the higheſt pitch of power, upon the ruins of that of Great-Britain.—This is a freſh confirmation, of what we have urged in this work, under the preceeding, and various other heads, to which we have referred, in relation to the meaſures taken by France to aggrandize their power in the new world.

Our accounts alſo from Philadelphia, July 2, 1754, ſay, 'That the French have taken the Block-houſe and Truck-houſe, erected by the Viginians; cut off all our traders but two, and have taken in goods, furs, and ſkins, to the amount of 20,000l. at leaſt. A ſad ſtroke to many here: this from the river Ohio, at a place called Log's-Town, about 190 miles from hence due weſt. How they will be diſlodged, time will ſhew; but the ſkin-trade is intirely put a ſtop to, by this enterprize of the French. This account you may rely on, as ſtrictly matter of fact.'

And alſo our accounts from New-York, of May 16, laſt, ſay, that 'We hear from Auguſtine, by the way of South Carolina, that a veſſel of war, belonging to his catholic Majeſty, was arrived there from the Havannah, the captain of which reported, the ſeveral armed veſſels, with men, ammunition, &c. were ſailed from thence for Campeachy, to join a fleet that was fitting out there, with a deſign to attack the Muſquetto ſhore. The above news may be depended upon, as we have it from good authority.'.

☞ Theſe things we have foreſeen and foretold, for near theſe three years paſt, throughout the courſe of this work; and this any man of plain common ſenſe might eaſily do, without any pretenſions to the gift of prophecy, if he attended

tended to thoſe facts, which we have laid before him in various parts of this performance.

REMARKS on PENSYLVANIA, ſince the laſt War, and DEFINTIVE TREATY, of 1763.

On peruſal of what we have obſerved under this article of Penſylvania, before the laſt war, the reader will perceive from thence, as well as the whole tenour and ſpirit of this work, interſperſed in variety of proper places throughout, that all that we prejudged relative to the laſt war with France and Spain has come to paſs: and as the aſſembly of this province, upon a diſpute with Mr Penn, their preſent governor, on the 24th of laſt March, came to twenty-ſix reſolutions, the laſt whereof is as follows:

'Reſolved, that this houſe will adjoin, in order to conſult their conſtituents, whether an humble addreſs ſhould be drawn up, and tranſmitted to his majeſty, praying that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to take the people of this province under his immediate protection and government, by compleating the agreement heretofore made with the firſt proprietor for the ſtate of the government to the crown, or otherwiſe to his wiſdom and goodneſs ſhall ſeem meet': and as it is further ſaid and believed, that now at this time of writing, all public buſineſs is at a ſtand, and neither men nor money are raiſed for the protection of their frontiers, ſtill miſerably harraſed by the Indians—See our article INDIANS, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI.

The foregoing being the preſent ſtate of this province, the following obſervations may not be unacceptable, reſpecting what is urged by thoſe who are for obtaining a ROYAL GOVERNMENT in exchange for this of the proprietaries.

'Tis unneceſſary for us to enter into the merits of the diſputes between the proprietaries and the people: 'tis our buſineſs only to obſerve, that in the preſent conjuncture a perfect union and harmony is abſolutely needful as well in this province, as among the whole of our NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES, for the mutual protection of their common trade and ſafety againſt the Indians; who, we experience, at preſent, give us no leſs uneaſineſs here, than the junction of France and Spain in the laſt war.

At preſent, Penſylvania is in a wretched ſituation. The government that ought to preſerve all in order, is itſelf weak, and has ſcarce authority enough to keep the common-peace. Mobs aſſemble and kill numbers of innocent people in cold blood, who were under the protection of the government. Proclamations are iſſued to bring the rioters to juſtice. Thoſe proclamations are treated with the utmoſt indignation and contempt. Not a magiſtrate dares ſtir towards diſcovering or apprehending the delinquents. They aſſemble again, and with arms in their hands, approach the capital.—The government truckles, condeſcends to cajole them, and drops all proſecutions of their crimes; whilſt honeſt citizens, threatned in their lives and fortunes, fly the province, as having no confidence in the public protection. They are daily threatned with more of theſe tumults; and the government, which in it's diſtreſs called aloud on the ſober inhabitants to come with arms to it's aſſiſtance, ſees thoſe who afforded that aſſiſtance daily libelled, and menaced by its partizans for doing ſo; whence it has little reaſon to expect ſuch aſſiſtance on another occaſion.

If the charge thought of may have the happy effect ſo indiſpenſably requiſite at this time, the ſooner it takes place, the better. It does not appear that a change of government can poſſibly hurt the province; and there may many advantages ariſe from it. It is only a change of governor, that is, inſtead of ſelf-intereſted proprietaries, a gracious king! His majeſty, who has no views but the good of his people, will thenceforth appoint governors, who, unſhackled with proprietory inſtructions, will be at liberty to join with the aſſembly in enacting wholſome laws. At preſent, when the king requires ſupplies of his faithful ſubjects, and they are willing and deſirous to grant them, the proprietaries intervene and ſay, 'unleſs our private intereſt on certain particulars are ſerved, nothing ſhall be done'. This inſolent tribunal VETO, has long, too long incumbered all public affairs, and been porductive of many miſchiefs. By the crown taking the government into it's hands, not even the proprietaries can juſtly complain of any injury. The being obliged to fulfil a fair contract is no injuſtice. The crown will be under no difficulty in compleating the old contract made with their father, as there needs no application to parliament for the neceſſary ſum, ſince it ſeems half the quittents of the lower counties belong to the king, and the many years arrears in the proprietaries hands, who are the collectors, muſt vaſtly exceed what they have a right to demand, or any reaſon to expect.

If ſtability in the government of every province does not take immediate place, and a perfect harmony and union is not effectually promoted amongſt them all; it is not poſſible that the good intentions of the Britiſh government can ever be anſwered, relative to our North American intereſt, purſuant to the DEFINITIVE TREATY; the Savages will ruin our whole commerce, and render the lives and properties of our coloniſts ever precarious, and ſubject this nation to immenſe expences to keep them in ſubjection, provided the ſeveral colonies do not act powerful in concert for that purpoſe: and if they do, they may ſoon ſecure themſelves forever, and rear their commerce and navigation to an amazing height, by raiſing ſuch materials for the manufactures of their mother-country; ſuch as FLAX, HEMP, SILK, POTASH, IRON, TIMBER, great variety of other eſtimable products that will equally enrich and aggrandize the plantations with theſe kingdoms in general. See our articles AMERICA, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI, MEXICO, PERU, CANADA, FISHERIES, NORWAY.

PEOPLE. Under the article MONEY, we have ſhewn, that it is the meaſure of commerce, but that the ſpring and original thereof, in all nations, is the natural or artificial product of the country; that is to ſay, what their land, and what the labour and induſtry of the people produce.

There is no man that can reaſonably diſpute this poſition; and, if granted, it follows from thence, that to know rightly how the ballance of trade ſtands with any nation, a due inſpection muſt be made into their natural or artificial product; and the courſes of foreign exchange muſt likewiſe be conſtantly examined. See the articles BALLANCE OF TRADE, and EXCHANGE.

But this natural or artificial product being moſt of it in the reſult of the people's labour and induſtry, we ſhall be ſtill in the dark, as to all enquiries of this kind, without maturely conſidering the numbers of the people.

In theſe ſort of ſpeculations, not only the quantity but quality of the inhabitants muſt be duly pondered; they muſt be divided into their ſeveral ranks and claſſes: it muſt be diſtinguiſhed, who, by arts, labour, or induſtry, are increaſing; and who, by their expence, poverty, or ſloth, are decreaſing the kingdom's wealth. Theſe ſub-diviſions are likewiſe to be made, of what numbers are employed in the church, in the wars, in the fleets, mercantile and warlike, in the law, in offices, in merchandize, in ſhop-keeping and traders, in handicrafts; and who, both of the higher and lower degree, are perſons living upon their eſtates, who are freeholders, farmers, labouring people, ſervants, cottagers, alms-people, and vagrants.

Various have been the conjectures, in relation to the number of people in this and other countries; which being a matter of uſe in commercial, as well as other political diſquiſitions, the following obſervations, which I have lately received from ------, a gentleman of honour in a public character abroad, who is turned for ſtudies of this kind, may not be unacceptable, though his ſentiments differ from ſome others, in regard to the number of people in this kingdom.

'Mr King, ſays this honourable gentleman, obſerves, that people alone do not make a government rich; for a multitude of beggars or ſlothful people renders it poor and weak.'

Wealth alone does not make a government rich; for people may be wanted to manage and propogate a great ſtock.

To which may be added, that people, and wealth, and induſtry, will not make a government rich and powerful, unleſs the ruling miniſters of ſtate take pains to give them a proper direction and application, which is extremely difficult to do, without ſome knowlege of the quantity of each of theſe ingredients, and how they are employed.

One of the firſt enquiries then of a patriot miniſter, will be after the numbers and qualities of thoſe from whom the public revenue is drawn. In which (unleſs a law was made for ſome regiſter of the people, or the method hereafter mentioned was taken) one can only be guided by conjectures and calculations.

From ſuch lights as we have at preſent, it may be reaſonably ſuppoſed, that the number of people in England was, at the beginning of this century, according to the obſervations of the famous Mr King, 5,500,000. See Davenant's Eſſay on Probable Methods, &c. p. 24.

The ratio of increaſe has been found, by a great variety of good obſervations, to be, that 100,000 people augment annually, one year with another, to 100,175.

The logarithm of the ratio of increaſe being multiplied by 50, and added to the logarithm of 5,500,000, will produce a number upwards of 5,995,000, which is near enough to 6 millions to be found any general obſervations upon, but far enough from the uſually ſuppoſed number of 8 millions: ſo that, until it can be ſhewn us, either that Mr King was wrong, or that the foregoing method of computation, recommended by Mr Kerſeboom, is falſe, we have reaſon to reject all concluſions drawn from a principle ſo erroneous. See Aanmerkinges, p. 12, notes. Quarto edition.

The 6 millions are ſuppoſed to be divided in the following manner:

In London - - - - -	747,985
In the market-towns, and others of above 150 houſes	951,091
In the countries - - - -	4,300,924
	6,000,000

Sir

Sir William Petty would have us believe the number of people to be 30 times the number of deaths. The writer of this paper believes it to be about 28 in London, but the ſafeſt of all appears to be the adopting Mr Kerſeboom's opinion, founded upon very many accurate obſervations, and agreeing very nearly with Dr Halley, viz. that the number of children born alive in one year, being multiplied by 35, will give us the ſum of the inhabitants. See Meenigte Des Volks*.

* I do not agree with Mr Kerſeboom in his calculation of the number of people in London, but I uſe his method to ſhew that Mr Maitland was nearer the truth than he.

Thus London may be eſtimated as follows:

The medium of regiſtered births for 14 years -	17,639
Ditto of unregiſtered births, ſuppoſing diſſenters of all kinds, as 13, 33 to 86, 66 - -	2,715
Ditto of illegitimates, ſhould be about 65 in 100, but is here rated only at 5 per cent. -	1,017
Total - -	21,371

Which total, multiplied by 35, produces - 747,985 for the number of inhabitants within the bills of mortality.

If theſe premiſſes be allowed to be right, it will be very eaſy for any common arithmetician to form a-new for theſe times, from Mr King's ſchemes A. B. and C. as reported by Dr Davenant; but the many alterations that have happened ſince his time, in the ſcheme D. make it a work of ſome difficulty: 'till a better can be formed, the following plan for it is propoſed.

SCHEME D.

1750. Number of Families in England. N°.		Heads per family.	Number of perſons.
1. Temporal lords -	200	40	8,000
2. Spiritual ditto -	26	20	520
3. Baronets, knights, eſquires	4,275	20	85,500
4. Gentlemen - -	13,073	8	104,584
5. Perſons in greater offices	5,500	8	44,000
6. Ditto in leſſer offices -	8,500	6	51,000
7. Eminent merchants and traders by ſea, and ſome monied perſons -	2,900	9	26,100
8. Leſſer ditto - -	11,100	6	66,600
9. Law and dependants -	15,000	7	105,000
10. Eminent clergymen -	2,000	7	14,000
11. Leſſer ditto - -	8,000	5	40,000
12. Freeholds of better ſort	27,000	7	189,000
13. Ditto leſſer - -	125,000	5½	687,000
14. Farmers - -	186,181	5	930,905
15. Perſons in liberal arts, &c.	18,000	5	90,000
16. Shopkeepers & tradeſmen	59,190	5	295,950
17. Artizans and handicraſts	68,181	4	272,724
18. Naval officers, and ſome captains of large merchantmen -	4,800	4	19,200
19. Military officers -	5,500	4	22,000
Total increaſing families	564,426		3,052,083
20. Common ſoldiers -	25,575	2	51,150
21. Common ſeamen -	60,000	3	180,000
22. Labouring people, and out-ſervants -	397,000	3½	1,389,500
23. Cottagers and paupers	426,238		1,278,714
Vagrants, Beggars, gipſies, thieves, &c. &c. -			48,553
Total decreaſing families	908,813		2,947,917
Families increaſing as above	564,426		3,052,083
Total together families	1,472,239		6,000,000

If the numbers here ſet down ſhould be thought any way near the truth, this ſcheme may be eaſily compleated with the incomes and expences, according to Mr King: No. 1. ſhould be 800,000l. per. ann. No. 2. 46,462. No. 3. 3,826,125. There are ſeveral variations in this ſcheme, from Mr King's proportions; the reaſons of moſt of them will be obvious: No. 12, 13, and 14, as they are of the greateſt importance towards judging of the political ſtate of the nation, ſo the moſt pains has been taken to make them right.

It has been imagined, by all thoſe who have turned their thoughts to theſe matters, that the number of better ſort of freeholders is much leſſened within theſe few years; if it ſhould be thought that I have diminiſhed them too much, let the objector take the number of freeholders in any county where he is well acquainted, and compare them, according to the ſize of his county, with thoſe that ſhould be in the whole kingdom, and I am perſuaded he will find, eſpecially if his county be large, that the proportion here ſet down is great enough; but he muſt remember to deduct thoſe freeholders, viz. clergy, lawyers, merchants, &c. &c. that are here included in other articles: thoſe that will take this pains muſt, I believe, agree, that we have loſt within theſe 50 years, 13,000 of thoſe valuable families, the ancient yeomen of this kingdom.

As to the great augmentation of No. 17, thoſe who conſider the preſent ſtate of luxury amongſt us, will not wonder at a double proportion of increaſe being given to this claſs. Hoc genus omne, having propagated very faſt of late years in England.

'The people being the firſt matter of power and wealth, ſays Dr Davenant, by whoſe labour and induſtry a nation muſt be gainers in the ballance of trade, their increaſe or decreaſe muſt be carefully obſerved by any government that deſigns to thrive; that is, their increaſe muſt be promoted by good conduct and wholſome laws; and if they have been decreaſed by war, or any other accident, the breach is to be made up as ſoon as poſſible, for it is a maim in the body politic, affecting all it's parts. Almoſt all countries in the world have been more or leſs populous, as liberty and property have been there well or ill ſecured. The firſt conſtitution of Rome was no ill-founded government, a kingly power limited by laws; and the people increaſed ſo faſt, that from a ſmall beginning, in the reign of their ſixth king, they were able to ſend out an army of 80,000 men. And, in the time of the commonwealth, in that invaſion which the Gauls made upon Italy, not long before Hannibal came thither, they were grown ſo numerous, as that their troops conſiſted of 700,000 foot, and 70,000 horſe: it is true, their allies were comprehended in this number, but the ordinary people fit to bear arms, being muſtered in Rome and Campania, amounted to 250,000 foot, and 23,000 horſe.

Nothing, therefore, can more contribute to the rendering England populous and ſtrong, than to have liberty upon a right footing, and our legal conſtitution firmly preſerved. A nation may be as well called free under a limited kingſhip, as in a commonwealth; and it is to this good form of our government, that we partly owe that doubling of the people, which has probably happened here in the 435 years laſt paſt, according to Davenant.

And if the ambition of ſome, and the mercenary temper of others, ſhould bring us at any time to alter our conſtitution, and to give up our antient rights, we ſhall find our number diminiſh viſibly and faſt. For liberty encourages procreation, and not only keeps our inhabitants among us, but invites ſtrangers to come and live under the ſhelter of our laws.

The Romans, indeed, made uſe of an advantitious help to enlarge the city, which was by incorporating foreign cities and nations into their commonwealth; but this way is not without it's miſchiefs. For the ſtrangers in Rome, by degrees, had grown ſo numerous, and to have ſo great a vote in the councils, that the whole government began to totter, and decline from it's old to it's new inhabitants; which Fabius, the cenſor, obſerving, he applied a remedy in time, by reducing all the new citizens into four tribes, that being contracted into ſo narrow a ſpace, they might not have ſo malignant an influence upon the city.

An act of general naturalization, would likewiſe probably increaſe our numbers very faſt, and repair what loſs we may have ſuffered in our people by the late war: it is a matter that has been very warmly contended for by many good patriots; but peradventure it carries alſo it's danger with it, which perhaps would have the leſs influence by this expedient, namely, if an act of parliament were made, that no heads of families hereafter to be naturalized, for the firſt generation ſhould have votes in any of our elections. But as the caſe ſtands, it ſeems againſt the nature of right government, that ſtrangers (who may be ſpies, and who may have an intereſt oppoſite to that of England, and who, at beſt, ever join in one link of obſequiouſneſs to the miniſters) ſhould be ſuffered to intermeddle in that important buſineſs of ſending members to parliament. From their ſons, indeed, there is leſs to fear, who by birth and nature may come to have the ſame intereſt and inclinations as the natives.

And though the expedient of Fabius Maximus, to contract the ſtrangers into four tribes, might be reaſonable, where the affairs of a whole empire were tranſacted by magiſtrates choſen in one city, yet the ſame policy may not hold good in England; foreigners cannot influence elections here, by being diſperſed about in the ſeveral counties of the kingdom, where they can never come to have any conſiderable ſtrength. But ſome time or other, they may endanger the government, by being ſuffered to remain ſuch vaſt numbers of them here in London, where they inhabit, all together, at leaſt 30,000 perſons in two quarters of the town, without intermarrying with the Engliſh, or learning our language; by which means, for ſeveral years to come, they are in a way ſtill to continue foreigners, and, perhaps, may have a foreign intereſt and foreign inclinations. To permit this, cannot be adviſeable or ſafe; it may, therefore, be proper to limit any new acts of naturalization, with ſuch reſtrictions, as may make the acceſſion of ſtrangers not dangerous to the public.

An acceſſion of ſtrangers, well regulated, may add to our ſtrength and numbers; but then it muſt be compoſed of labouring men, artificers, merchants, and other rich men, and not of foreign ſoldiers, ſince ſuch fright, and drive away from a nation more people than their troops can well conſiſt of: for if it has been ever ſeen, that men abound moſt where there is moſt freedom: (China excepted, whoſe climate excels all others, and where the exerciſe of tyranny is mild and eaſy) it muſt follow, that people will in time deſert theſe countries, whoſe beſt flower is their liberties, if theſe liberties are thought precarious or in danger. That foreign ſoldiers are dangerous to liberty, we may produce examples from all countries and all ages.

The danger of admitting foreign and mercenary troops into the nation, is too well underſtood to need any animadverſion. Indeed, all armies whatſoever, if they are over large, tend to the diſpeopling of a country, of which our neighbour nation is a ſufficient proof; where, in one of the beſt climates in Europe men are wanting to till the ground. For children do not proceed from the intemperate pleaſures taken looſly and at random, but from a regular way of living, where the father of the family deſires to rear up, and provide for the offſpring he ſhall beget.

Securing the liberties of a nation, may be laid down as a fundamental for increaſing the numbers of it's people; but there are other polities thereunto conducing, which no wiſe ſtate has ever neglected.

No race of men did multiply ſo faſt as the Jews, which may be attributed chiefly to the wiſdom of Moſes, their law-giver, in contriving to promote the ſtate of marriage.

The Romans had the ſame care, paying no reſpect to a man childleſs by his own fault, and giving great immunities and privileges, both in the city and provinces, to thoſe who had ſuch and ſuch a number of children. Encouragements of the like kind are alſo given in France, to ſuch as enrich the Commonwealth by a large iſſue.

But we in England have taken another courſe, laying a fine upon the marriage bed, which ſeems ſmall to thoſe who only contemplate the pomp and wealth round about them, and in their view; but they who look into all the different ranks of men, are well ſatisfied that this duty on marriages and births, is a very grievous burthen upon the poorer ſort, whoſe numbers compoſe the ſtrength and wealth of any nation. This tax was introduced by the neceſſity of affairs. It is difficult to ſay what may be the event of a new thing; but if we are to take meaſures from paſt wiſdom, which exempted prolific families from public duties, we ſhould not lay impoſitions upon thoſe who find it hard enough to maintain themſelves. If this tax be ſuch a weight upon the poor, as to diſcourage marriage, and hinder propagation, which ſeems the truth, no doubt it ought to be aboliſhed; and, at a convenient time, we ought to change it for ſome other duty, if there was only this ſingle reaſon, that it is ſo directly oppoſite to the polity of all ages and all countries.

In order to have hands to carry on labour and manufactures, which muſt make us gainers in the ballance of trade, we ought not to deter, but rather invite men to marry, which is to be done by privileges and exemptions, for ſuch a number of children, and by denying certain offices of truſt and dignities to all unmarried perſons; and where it is once made a faſhion among thoſe of the better ſort, it will quickly obtain with the lower degree.

Mr King, in his ſcheme (for which he has as authentic grounds as perhaps the matter is capable of) lays down, that the annual marriages of England are about 41,000, which is one marriage out of every 134 perſons: upon which we obſerve, that this is not a due proportion, conſidering how few of our adult males (in compariſon with other countries) periſh by war, or any other accident; from whence may be inferred, that our polity is ſome way or other defective, or the marriages would bear a nearer proportion with the groſs number of our people; for which defect, if a remedy can be found, there willl be ſo much more ſtrength added to the kingdom.

From the books of aſſeſſment on births, marriages, (when this was the caſe) by the neareſt view he can make, he divides the 5,500,000 people into 2,700,000 males, and 2,800,000 females; from whence, (conſidering the females exceed the males in number, and conſidering that the men marry later than the women, and that many of the males are of neceſſity abſent in the wars, at ſea, and upon other buſineſs) it follows, that a large proportion of the females remain unmarried, though at an adult age, which is a dead loſs to the nation, every birth being as ſo much certain treaſure; upon which account, ſuch laws muſt be for the public good, as induce all men to marry, whoſe circumſtances permit it.

From this diviſion of the people, it may be likewiſe obſerved, that the near proportion there is between the males and females (which is ſaid to hold alſo in other places) is an argument (and the ſtrongeſt that can be produced) againſt polygamy, and the increaſe of mankind, which ſome think might be from thence expected; for if nature had intended to one man a plurality of wives, ſhe would have ordered a great many more female births than males, her deſignments being always right and wiſe.

The ſecuring the pariſh for baſtard children, is become ſo ſmall a puniſhment, and ſo eaſily compounded, that it very much hinders marriage. The Dutch compel men of all ranks, to marry the woman whom they have got with child; and, perhaps, it would tend to the further peopling of England, if the common people here, under ſuch a certain degree, were condemned by ſome new law to ſuffer the ſame penalty.

A country that makes proviſion to increaſe in inhabitants, whoſe ſituation is good, and whoſe people have a genius adapted to trade, will never fail to be gainers in the ballance, provided the labour and induſtry of their people be well managed and carefully directed.

The more any man contemplates theſe matters, the more he will come to be of opinion, that England is capable of being rendered one of the ſtrongeſt nations, and the richeſt ſpot of ground in Europe.

It is not extent of territory that makes a country powerful, but numbers of men well employed, conveniant ports, a good navy, and ſoil producing all ſorts of commodities. The materials for all this we have, and ſo improveable, that if we did but ſecond the gifts of nature with our own induſtry, we ſhould arrive to a pitch of greatneſs that would put us at leaſt upon an equal footing with any of our neighbours.

If we had the complement of men, our land can maintain and nouriſh; if we had as much trade as our ſtock and knowlege in ſea affairs is capable of embracing; if we had ſuch a naval ſtrength, as a trade ſo extended would eaſily produce; and, if we had thoſe ſtores and that wealth, which is the certain reſult of a large and well governed traffic, what human ſtrength could hurt or invade us? On the contrary, ſhould we not be in a poſture not only to reſiſt, but to give law to others? See the article MANURE.

Our neighbouring Commonwealth has not in territory above eight millions of acres, and, perhaps, not much above two millions, two hundred thouſand people; and yet, what a figure have they made in Europe for theſe laſt hundred years? What wars have they maintained? What forces have they reſiſted? And to what a height of power are they now come, and all by good order and wiſe government?

They are liable to frequent invaſions; they labour under the inconvenience and danger of bad ports; they conſume immenſe ſums every year to defend their land againſt the ſea, all which difficulties they have ſubdued by an unwearied induſtry.

We are formed by nature againſt foreign enemies; our ports are ſafe; we fear no irruptions of the ſea; our land territory at home, is at leaſt 39 millions of acres; we have, in all likelihood, not leſs than ſix millions of people; what a nation might we then become, if all theſe advantages were thoroughly improved, and if a right application were made of all this ſtrength, and of theſe numbers?

They apprehend the moderate growth of any prince or ſtate, may, perhaps, ſucceed by beginning firſt, and by attempting to pull down ſuch a dangerous neighbour; but very often their good deſigns are diſappointed.

In all appearance they proceed more ſafely, who under ſuch a fear make themſelves ſtrong and powerful at home. And this was the courſe which Philip, king of Macedon, the father of Perſeus, took, when he thought to be invaded by the Romans.

In all appearance the beſt way for a nation, that apprehends the growing power of any neighbour, is to fortify itſelf within; we do not mean by land-armies, which rather debilitate than ſtrengthen a country, but by potent natives, by thriſt in the public treaſure, by multiplying the people, and augmenting their trade, and all the other honeſt and uſeful arts of peace.

By ſuch an improvement of our native ſtrength, agreeable to the laws, and to the temper of a free nation, England without doubt may be brought to ſo good a poſture and condition of defending itſelf, as not to apprehend any neighbour, jealous of it's ſtrength, or envious of it's greatneſs.

And to this end we open theſe ſchemes, that a wiſe government, under which we live, not having any deſigns to become arbitrary, may ſee what materials they have to work upon, and how far our native wealth is able to ſecond their good intentions of preſerving us a rich and a free people.

Having ſaid ſomething of the number of our inhabitants, we ſhall proceed to diſcourſe of their different degrees and ranks, and to examine who are a burthen, and who a profit to the public; for by how much every part and member of the Commonwealth can be made uſeful to the whole, by ſo much a nation will be more and more a gainer in this ballance of trade.

In regard to the ranks, degrees, titles, and qualifications of the people before diſtinguiſhed, it may be obſerved:

Firſt, that we may thereby detect their error, who, in the calculations they frame, contemplate nothing but the wealth

and plenty they ſee in rich cities and great towns, and from thence make a judgment of the kingdom's remaining part; and from this view conclude, that taxes and payments to the public, do moſtly ariſe from the gentry and better ſort; by which meaſures they neither contrive their impoſition aright, nor are they able to give a true eſtimate what it ſhall produce; but when we have divided the inhabitants of England into their proper claſſes, it will appear, that the nobility and gentry are but a ſmall part of the whole body of the people.

Believing that taxes fall chiefly upon the better ſort, they care not what they lay, as thinking they will not be felt; but when they come to be levied, they either fall ſhort, and ſo run the public into an immenſe debt, or they light ſo heavily upon the poorer ſort, as to occaſion inſufferable clamours; and they whoſe proper buſineſs it was to contrive theſe matters better, have been ſo unſkilful, that the legiſlative power has been more than once compelled, for the people's eaſe, to give new funds, inſtead of others that had been ill projected.

This may be generally ſaid, that all duties whatſoever, upon the conſumption of a large produce, fall with the greateſt weight upon the common ſort: ſo that ſuch as think in new duties that they chiefly tax the rich, will find themſelves quite miſtaken; for either their ſund muſt yield little, or it muſt ariſe from the whole body of the people, of which the richer ſort are but a ſmall proportion.

And though war, and national debts, and engagements, might heretofore very rationally plead for an exciſe upon our home conſumption; yet, in the time of peace, it is the concern of every man that loves his country, to proceed warily in laying new ones, and to get off thoſe which are already laid, as faſt as ever he can.

High cuſtoms and high exciſes both together are incompatible; either of them alone are ſcarce to be endured, but to have them co-exiſt is ſuffered in no well governed nation. If materials of foreign growth were at an eaſy rate, a high price might be better borne in things of our own product; but to have both dear at once (and by reaſon of the duties laid upon them) is ruinous to the inferior rank of men [ſee the article DUTIES]: and this ought to weigh more with us, when we conſider, that even of the common people, a ſub-diviſion is to be made, of which one part ſubſiſts from their own ſlavings, arts, labour, and induſtry; and the other part ſubſiſts, a little from their own labour, but chiefly from the help and charity of the rank that is above them.

For, according to Mr. King's ſcheme,

	Heads.
The nobility and gentry, with their families and retainers, the perſons in offices, merchants, perſons in the law, the clergy, freeholders, farmers, perſons in ſciences and liberal arts, ſhop-keepers and tradeſmen, handicraſts-men, naval-officers, with the families and dependants upon all thoſe, all together, make up the number of -	2,675,520
The common ſeamen, common ſoldiers, labouring people, and out-ſervants, cottagers, paupers and their families, with the vagrants, make up the number of - - - -	2,825,000
In all	5,500,520

So that here ſeems a majority of the people, whoſe chief dependance and ſubſiſtence is from the other part, which majority is much greater, in reſpect of the number of families, becauſe 500,000 families contribute to the ſupport of 800,500 families.

In contemplation of which, great care ſhould be taken not to lay new duties upon home-conſumptions, unleſs upon the extreameſt neceſſities of the ſtate; for though ſuch impoſitions cannot be ſaid to fall directly upon the lower rank, whoſe poverty hinders them from conſuming ſuch materials, (though there are few exciſes to which the meaneſt perſon does not pay ſomething) yet indirectly, and by uuavoidable conſequences, they are rather more affected by high duties upon our home conſumption, than the wealthier degree of people; and ſo we ſhall find the caſe to be, if we look carefully into all the diſtinct ranks of men enumerated.

Firſt, As to the nobility and gentry, they muſt of neceſſity retrench their families and expences, if exceſſive impoſitions are laid upon all ſorts of materials for conſumption; from whence follows that the degree below them of merchants, ſhopkeepers, tradeſmen, and artizans, muſt want employment.

Secondly, As to the manuſactures, high exciſes in time of peace, are utterly deſtructive to that principal part of England's wealth; for if malt, coals, ſalt, leather, and other things, bear a great price, the wages of ſervants, workmen, and artificers, will conſequently riſe, for the income muſt bear ſome proportion with the expence; and if ſuch as ſet the poor to work, find wages for labour, or manufactures advance upon them, they muſt raiſe in the price of their commodity, or they cannot live; all which would ſignify a little, if nothing but our own dealings among one another were thereby affected; but it has a conſequence far more pernicious, in relation to our foreign trade, for it is the exportation of our own product that muſt make England rich: to be gainers in the ballance of trade, we muſt carry out of our own product, what will purchaſe the things of foreign growth that are needful for our own conſumption, with ſome overplus, either in bullion or goods, to be ſold in other countries; which overplus is the profit a nation makes by trade, and it is more or leſs, according to the natural frugality of the people that export; or, as from the low price of labour and manufacture they can afford the commodity cheap, and at a rate not to be underſold in foreign markets.

The Dutch, whoſe labour and manufactures are dear, by reaſon of home exciſe, can, notwithſtanding, ſell cheap abroad, becauſe this diſadvantage they labour under, is ballanced by the parſimonious temper of their people: but in England, where this frugality is hardly to be introduced, if the duties upon our home conſumption are ſo large as to raiſe conſiderably the price of labour and manufacture, all our commodities for exportation muſt by degrees ſo advance in the prime value, that they cannot be ſold at a rate which will give them vent in foreign markets; and we muſt be every where under-ſold by our wiſe neighbours. The conſequence of ſuch duties in times of peace, will fall moſt heavily upon our woollen manufactures, of which moſt have more value from the workmanſhip than the materials; and if the price of this workmanſhip be inhanced, it will in a ſhort courſe of time, put a neceſſity upon thoſe we deal with, of ſetting up manufactures of their own, ſuch as they can, or of buying goods of the like kind and uſe, from nations that can afford them cheaper.

And in this point we are to conſider, that the bulk of our woollen exports does not conſiſt in draperies made of the fine wool, peculiar to our ſoil, but it is compoſed of coarſe broad cloths, ſuch as Yorkſhire cloths, kerſies, &c. which make a great part of our exports, and may be, and are, made of a coarſer wool, which is to be had in other countries; ſo that we are not ſingly to value ourſelves upon the material, but alſo upon the manufacture, which we ſhould make as eaſy as we can, by not laying over-heavy burthens upon the manufacture: and our woollen goods being two thirds of our foreign exports, it ought to be the chief object of the public care, if we expect to be gainers in the ballance of trade.

Thirdly, as to the lower rank of all, which we compute at 2,825,000 heads, a majority of the whole people, their principal ſubſiſtence is upon the degrees above them; and if thoſe are rendered uneaſy, theſe muſt ſhare in the calamity; but even of this inferior ſort, no ſmall proportion contribute largely to exciſes, as labourers and out-ſervants; which likewiſe affect the common ſeamen, who muſt thereupon raiſe their wages, or they will not have wherewithal to keep their families left at home; and the high wages of ſeamen is another burthen upon our foreign traffic.

As to the cottagers, who are above a fifth part of the whole people, ſome duties reach even them, as thoſe upon malt, leather, and ſalt, but not much, becauſe of their ſlender conſumption; but if the gentry, upon whoſe woods and gleanings they live, and who employ them in day-labour, and if the manufacturers, for whom they card and ſpin, are over-burthened with duties, they cannot afford to give them ſo much for their labour and handy-work, nor to yield them thoſe other reliefs which are their principal ſubſiſtence; for want of which, theſe miſerable wretches muſt periſh with cold and hunger.

Thus we ſee exciſes, either directly or indirectly, fall upon the whole body of the people; and conſequently upon our trade and manufactures.

Our ſtudy, therefore, now ought to be how thoſe debts may be ſpeedily cleared off, for which theſe revenues are the funds, that trade may again move freely, as it did heretofore, without ſuch a heavy clog.

Mr King divides the whole body of the people into two principal claſſes, viz.

	Heads.
Increaſing the wealth of the kingdom -	2,675,520
Decreaſing the wealth of the kingdom - -	2,825,000

By which he means, that the firſt claſs of the people, from land, arts, and induſtry, maintain themſelves, and add every year ſomething to the nation's general ſtock; and beſides this, out of their ſuperfluity, contribute every year ſo much to the maintenance of others.

That of the ſecond claſs, ſome partly maintain themſelves by labour (as the heads of the cottage families); but that the reſt, as moſt of the wives and children of theſe, ſick and impotent people, idle beggars and vagrants, are nouriſhed at the coſt of others, and are a yearly burthen to the public, conſuming annually ſo much as would be otherwiſe added to the nation's general ſtock.

The bodies of men are, without doubt, the moſt valuable treaſure of a country; and, in their ſphere, the ordinary people are as ſerviceable to the Commonwealth as the rich, if they are employed in honeſt labour, and uſeful arts: and

ſuch being more in number, do more contribute to increaſe the nation's wealth, than the higher rank.

But a country may be populous, and yet poor (as were the antient Gauls and Scythians); ſo that numbers, unleſs they are well employed, make the body politic big, but unwieldly, ſtrong but unactive, as to any uſes of good government.

Their's is a wrong opinion, who think all mouths profit a country that conſume it's product. And it may be more truly affirmed, that he that does not ſome way ſerve the Commonwealth, either by being employed, or by employing others, is not only an uſeleſs, but a hurtful member to it.

As it is charity, and what we indeed owe to human kind, to make proviſion for the aged, the lame, the ſick, blind, and impotent: ſo it is a juſtice we owe to the Commonwealth, not to ſuffer ſuch as have health, and who might maintain themſelves, to be drones, and live upon the labour of others. The bulk of ſuch as are a burthen to the public, conſiſts in the cottagers and paupers, beggars in great cities and towns, and vagrants.

Upon a ſurvey of the Hearth Book, made at Michaelmas, 1685, it was found, that of the 1,300,000 houſes in the whole kingdom, thoſe of one chimney amounted to 554,631; but ſome of thoſe having land about them, let them be computed 500,000 families. But of theſe, a large number may get their own livelihood, and are no charge to the pariſh; for which reaſon Mr King very judiciouſly computes his cottagers and paupers, decreaſing the wealth of the nation, but at 400,000 families; in which account he includes the poor houſes in cities, towns, and villages, beſides which he reckons 30,000 vagrants, and all theſe together, to make up 1,330,000 heads.

This is a very great proportion of the people to be a burthen upon the other part, and is a weight upon the land-intereſt; of which the landed gentlemen muſt certainly be very ſenſible.

If this vaſt body of men, inſtead of being expenſive, could be rendered beneficial to the Commonwealth, it were a work no doubt highly to be promoted by all who love their country.

It ſeems evident to ſuch as have conſidered theſe matters, and who have obſerved how they are ordered in nations under a good polity, that the number of ſuch, who through age or impotency, ſtand in real need of RELIEF, is but SMALL, and might be maintained for very little; and that the POOR RATES are ſwelled to the EXTRAVAGANT DEGREE we now ſee them at, by two ſorts of people; one of which, by reaſon of our ſlack adminiſtration, is ſuffered to remain in ſloth; the other, through a defect in our conſtitution, continue in wretched poverty, for want of employment, though willing enough to undertake it.

All this ſeems capable of a remedy: the laws may be armed againſt VOLUNTARY IDLENESS, ſo as to prevent it; and a way may probably be found out to ſet thoſe to work, who are deſirous to ſupport themſelves by their OWN LABOUR: and if this could be brought about, it would not only put a ſtop to the courſe of that vice, which is the conſequence of an idle life, but it would greatly tend to enrich the commonwealth; for, if the induſtry of not one half of the people maintains in ſome degree the other part: and beſides, in times of peace, did add every year near two millions and a half to the general ſtock of England; to what pitch of wealth and greatneſs might we not be brought, if one limb were not ſuffered to draw away the nouriſhment of the other; and if all the members of the body politic were rendered uſeful to it?

Nature, in her contrivances, has made every part of a living creature, either for ornament or uſe; the ſame ſhould be in a politic inſtitution rightly governed.

It may be laid down for an undeniable truth, that where all WORK, NO BODY WILL WANT, and to promote this, would be a GREATER CHARITY, AND MORE MERITORIOUS, THAN TO BUILD HOSPITALS, which very often are but ſo many monuments of ILL-GOTTEN RICHES, ATTENDED WITH LATE REPENTANCE.

To make as many as poſſible of theſe 1,330,000 perſons (whereof not above 330,000 are children too young to work) who now live chiefly upon others, get themſelves a large ſhare of their maintenance, would be the opening a NEW VEIN OF TREASURE, OF SOME MILLIONS STERLING PER ANNUM; it would be a preſent eaſe to every particular man of ſubſtance, and a laſting benefit to the whole body of the kingdom: for it would not only nouriſh, but INCREASE THE NUMBER OF THE PEOPLE, of which many thouſands periſh every year, by thoſe diſeaſes conttacted under a SLOTHFUL POVERTY.

Our laws relating to the POOR are very numerous, and this matter has employed the care of every age for a long time, though but with little ſucceſs, partly through the ill execution, and partly through ſome defect in the VERY LAWS.

The corruptions of mankind are grown ſo great, that, now a-days, laws are not much obſerved which do not in a manner execute themſelves; of this nature are thoſe laws which relate to bringing in the prince's revenue, which never fail to be put in execution, becauſe the people muſt pay, and the prince will be paid; but wherein only one part of the conſtitution, the people are immediately concerned, as in laws relating to the poor, the highways, aſſizes, and other civil œconomy, and good order in the ſtate, thoſe are but ſlenderly regarded.

The public good being, therefore, very often not a motive ſtrong enough to engage the magiſtrate to perform his duty, law-givers have many times fortified their laws with penalties, wherein private perſons may have a profit, thereby to ſtir up the people to put the laws in execution.

In countries depraved, nothing proceeds well wherein particular men do not one way or other find their account; and, rather than a public good ſhould not go on at all, without doubt it is better to give private men ſome intereſt to ſet it forward.

For which reaſon, it may be worth the conſideration of ſuch as ſtudy the proſperity and welfare of England, whether this great engine of MAINTAINING THE POOR, AND FINDING THEM WORK AND EMPLOYMENT, may not be put in motion by giving ſome body of undertakers a reaſonable gain to put the machine upon it's wheels. See the article POOR.

PERSIA is bounded on the north by part of Ruſſia, by the Caſpian Sea, and by the country of the Uſbeck and independent Tartars; on the eaſt by the Mogul empire, from which a ridge of mountains and the river Indus divide it; on the ſouth it has the Arabian Sea, which is part of the ocean, and the Perſian gulph; and on the weſt it has Georgia and Aran, or ancient Armenia, from which the rivers Kar and Aros part it, and alſo the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which ſeparate it from the Turkiſh empire in Aſia. It's greateſt extent, from ſouth to north, is about 19 degrees, from 25. 40. to 44. 40. that is to ſay, 1140 Engliſh miles; and it's greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about 1280 miles, though in many parts it is much narrower, eſpecially towards the north, where, on the weſt, it contains but a ſmall track of land between Turkey and the Caſpian Sea, and, on the eaſt, it is alſo pent in between the ſame ſea and the country of the Tartars. It is ſeated under the fourth, fifth, and ſixth climates; ſo that the longeſt day, in the north part, is 15 hours and ſome minutes, and in the ſouth part 13 hours and 45 minutes: and, therefore, the temperature of the air is various, according to the different provinces.

Generally ſpeaking, the ſoil in Perſia cannot be much praiſed: for though ſome parts be fruitful, and produce excellent fruits, yet other parts are perfectly barren, being mountainous and ſandy; and, as there are here but few rivers, they have only rain, and the diſſolved ſnow, to water the land, which falling from the mountains in ſmall brooks and rivulets, render the vallies fertile.

Some travellers tell us, that their corn ripens expeditiouſly, and that, in ſome parts, they have three-fold crops in a year. They have almoſt all kinds of fruits that are in France, but fairer and better, and, by reaſon of the dryneſs of the air, they keep a whole year. They have nine or ten ſorts of very good grapes; but they have not the muſcadine, ſays Mr Thevenot. Their wines are white, and made of grapes which they call kiſmich: they make alſo wine with other ſorts of grapes, but it is neither ſo good, nor keeps ſo well. They have alſo ſome red wine, but little, and to make it they only put ſome black grapes into white wine, to give it a colour: for, if it were made all of black grapes, it would not keep. We muſt except the wine of Shiras, which is red, and very good, and ſtomachical, but is only brought in bottles, and in little quantity.

They have few trees but what grow in their gardens, and of theſe the palm-tree is the moſt carefully cultivated; when it is young, and before it bears fruit, they dig at the foot eight or ten fathom deep in the earth, more or leſs, until they have found water; they only dig on one ſide, and then fill up the hole with pigeon's dung, whereof they have always great proviſion for that purpoſe, as well as for manuring lands, and to make hot-beds for raiſing melons.

Mr Thevenot ſays, he was told by the people of the country, that, if they did not take that courſe with the palm-trees, they would not bear good fruit. But there is a very curious thing beſides to be obſerved in the cultivating of this tree, which is, that every year, when the palm-trees are in bloſſom, they take the bloſſoms of the male palm-tree, and put two or three bunches of them into the matrix of each female palm-tree, when they begin to blow, otherwiſe they would produce dates without any pulp, and only with ſkin and ſtone. The matrix is that bud which contains the flowers, from which, in proceſs of time, the dates ſpring; the time of making that impregnation is about the end of November; not but that the male palm-trees alſo bear fruit, but it is good for nothing, and therefore they take all their bloſſoms to impregnate the female with. As to dates, it is worth obſerving, that the uſe of them is very dangerous during the heats in hot countries, becauſe they make the whole body break out in blotches and boils, and ſpoil the ſight.

Perſia produces alſo every ſort of carrots, beet-roots, parſnips, horſe-radiſh, radiſhes, turnips, potatoes, muſhrooms, cauliflowers of an extraordinary ſize, aſparagus, and moſt ſorts of our ſmall ſallad herbs, with cabbage, lettuce, and Roman lettuce with a long leaf, which is ſweet, and very pleaſant to

the taſte. They have alſo ſmall red and white beans, peaſe, white and grey, ſmall black beans for horſes, and green peaſe of the growth of Europe.

Perſia is alſo productive of all neceſſaries of life, and abounds particularly with poultry and game. They have plenty of ſnipes and woodcocks, many ſorts of wild ducks, teals, cranes, wood-pidgeons, turtles, larks, thruſhes, and partridges with red heads: however every ſort of deer is here ſcarce enough; but cattle, eſpecially oxen, abound.

The Perſian bread is generally very thin, ſays Sir John Chardin, and there are ſeveral ſorts of it; it is generally white and good, and alſo cheap enough, according to Mr Le Bruyn, who tells us, that they generally give but eight or ten pence for twelve pounds of bread.

A great many Perſians uſe opium; but it is a drug that ſo enſlaves thoſe who are addicted to it, that if a man has once made it cuſtomary to himſelf, and ſhould afterwards forbear to take it, no leſs than his life would be in danger: if he ſhould go but 10 leagues out of town, and forget to take his opium with him, and find none in the place he comes to, though he ſhould immediately return back again, and make all poſſible haſte, yet he would not get to the town ſoon enough to ſafe his life, ſays Mr Thevenot.

The horſes in Perſia are the fineſt in all the Eaſt: they are higher than the Engliſh ſaddle-horſes, ſtraight before, a little head, and legs that are wonderfully thin and fine, exactly proportioned, mighty gentle, good travellers, and very light and ſprightly: they are gentle and manageable, eaſy to feed, and do good ſervice 'till they are 18 or 20 years old.

Horſes are very dear in Perſia; the fine ones are valued from 90 to 450 pound ſterling: the great exportation of them into Turkey and the Indies is what makes them ſo dear, though they cannot carry any out of the kingdom without a ſpecial permiſſion from the king.

The beſt and moſt common way of riding there, after the horſe, is the mule; they have very good ones in Perſia, that pace well, never fall, and are ſeldom tired; the higheſt price of a mule is about 45 pounds. The other beaſts of uſe, after theſe, are aſſes, of which they have two kinds in Perſia, namely, the aſſes of the country, which are like ours, ſlow and heavy; theſe they employ for nothing but to bear burthens; but they have alſo a breed of Arabian aſſes, that are mighty fine beaſts, and the beſt aſſes in the world; they have ſmooth ſhining hair, they carry their heads lofty, their feet are light, and they move them gracefully: theſe are kept for riding, and their maſters love them for their lightneſs and eaſy going: ſome of them are valued at 20 pounds.

The camel is a beaſt much prized by the eaſtern people, of which there are two ſorts, the northern and ſouthern, as the Perſians call them. The latter, which travel from the Perſian gulph to Iſpahan, and no further, are much ſmaller than the other, and carry but 700 weight, the other 1300 weight; yet they bring their maſters as much profit, becauſe they coſt little or nothing to keep: they lead them without halter or reins, grazing on the road as they go along, notwithſtanding their load. They ſhed their hair ſo clean in the ſpring, that they look like ſcalded pigs, and then they pitch them all over, to keep the flies from ſtinging them. The camel's-hair is the moſt profitable fleece of all the tame beaſts; they make very fine ſtuffs of it; and in Europe they make hats of it, with a little beaver mixed with it. They take notice when the camel is in love, that they may increaſe his load, otherwiſe he would be ungovernable.

As Perſia is very mountainous, it is full of metals and minerals, which they have begun to draw out in the laſt century much more than in the preceding ages. Sir John Chardin aſſerts, that their diligence was owing to the great Scha Abas, and that it was the vaſt quantity of mineral waters, which are here and there to be met with in all parts of the kingdom, that induced him to cauſe the working of the mines to be proſecuted with vigour.

The metals moſt uſually to be met with in Perſia are iron, ſteel, braſs, and lead. They have not as yet found any gold or ſilver there, though they are well aſſured there muſt be ſome in the mines, it being impoſſible that ſo many mountains, which produce all ſorts of metals, and ſulphur and ſalt-petre, ſhould not likewiſe produce thoſe the more precious metals, ſays Sir John; but, adds he, the Perſians are too ſlothful to make any diſcoveries. Minerals abound through all Perſia: ſulphur and ſalt-petre are extracted out of the mountain of Damavend, which ſeparates Tabriſtan from Irax.

With regard to the mechanic arts and trades of the Perſians, Sir John Chardin gives us the following account: firſt he obſerves, that the eaſtern people are naturally ſoft and lazy: they work for and only deſire neceſſary things. All thoſe beautiful pieces of painting, carving, turning, and ſo many others, whoſe beauty conſiſts in an exact and plain imitation of nature, are not valued among thoſe Aſiatics: they think that becauſe thoſe pieces are of no uſe for the occaſions of the body, they do not therefore deſerve our notice. In a word, they make no account of the working of good pieces, they take only notice of the matter, which is the reaſon that their arts are ſo little improved: for, as to the reſt, they are men of good parts, have a penetraring wit, are patient, and would make very ſkilful workmen, were they paid liberally.

He obſerves, likewiſe, that they are not deſirous of new inventions and diſcoveries; they think they enjoy all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, and reſt contented, chuſing rather to buy goods from ſtrangers, than to learn the art of making them. It is well known how much the Turks and Perſians lay out in watch-work, yet they do not ſet about to learn that trade, which they ſee ſo profitable; nor paper-making, though abſolutely neceſſary; nor many other ſuch-like trades.

Neither is there in Perſia one ſingle native that knows well how to mend a watch. They have deſired a hundred times to have printing-houſes; they acknowlege their uſefulneſs, and neceſſity, and yet no body undertakes to ſet one up.

Sir John's next obſervation is, that the hot climates enervate the mind as well as the body, and lay the quickneſs of the fancy neceſſary for the invention and improvement of arts. In thoſe climates, men are not capable of night-watchings, and of a cloſe application, which brings forth the valuable works of the liberal and of the mechanic arts. It is for the ſame reaſon, alſo, that the knowlege of the Aſiatics is ſo reſtrained, that it conſiſts only in learning and repeating what is contained in the books of the Ancients, and their induſtry lies fallow and uncultivated.

Our traveller obſerves further, concerning the method of the eaſtern artificers, that they need but few tools about their works. It is certainly an incredible thing in our country to hear how eaſily and conveniently thoſe workmen ſet themſelves up, and work at their trade. Moſt of them have neither ſhop nor ſhop-bench; they go and work whereever they are ſent for; they ſet on the bare ground, or on an old carpet, in the corner of a room, and in a moment you ſee the board up, and the workmen at work, ſitting on his breech, holding his work with his feet, and working with his hands.

The gold and ſilverſmiths, as well as the reſt, go likewiſe and work at people's houſes. The reaſon why the Perſians have their work done at home, is becauſe they will not truſt the workmen, and will ſee whether things be done according to their mind.

As to the polity of the Perſian tradeſmen, Sir John informs us, that the trades have every one a head to the company, elected out of their body, who is approved by the king; and that is all their government: yet, ſtrictly ſpeaking, they do not form a regular body, for they never aſſemble together. They have ſome few cuſtoms only, which the head of the trade cauſes to be obſerved; as for inſtance, that there be always a due diſtance between the ſhops and tradeſmen of the ſame trade, except in the places which are particularly deſigned for one ſort of work: whoever is about to ſet up a ſhop in any trade, goes to the head of the trade, gives his name and place of abode, to be ſet down in the regiſter, and pays ſome ſmall fine for it.

The head never inquires of what country the tradeſman is, nor who was his maſter, nor whether he underſtands his trade. The trades have likewiſe no reſtrictions to hinder one from incroaching upon another: a tinker makes ſilver baſons, if they are beſpoke; every one undertakes what he pleaſes, and they never ſue one another upon that account. There is, likewiſe, no binding of apprentices among them, and they learn their trades for nothing; far from paying any money, the boys that are put out apprentices with a maſter have wages the very firſt day they go to him: the parents make an agreemeut between the maſter and the apprentice, for ſo much per-day the firſt year, a half-penny or a penny a day, according to the age of the apprentice, and the hardſhip of the trade; and the wages increaſe now and then, according to the apprentice's improvement; but this is ſtill without any mutual confinement with reſpect to time, the maſter having always the liberty to turn away his apprentice, and the apprentice to leave his maſter.

There it is, indeed, that knowlege muſt be ſtolen; for the maſter thinking on the profit he may reap by his apprentice, more than on teaching him his trade, does not trouble himſelf with him in that reſpect, but employs him only in thoſe things that relate to his advantage. Moſt trades are bound to the king's average, that is, to do the king's work when they are ordered; and the trades which are not employed in that work, as the ſhoe-makers, the cap-makers, the drawer makers, pay a tax to the place called Cargh Padeha, i. e. the King's Expence.

The Perſians have but indifferent carpenters; the reaſon of it is, becauſe of the little timber there is in Perſia, and the little wood they commonly uſe in building. It is not ſo with the joiners, they are very ſkilful and ingenious in compoſing all ſorts of inlaid and moſaic work, and they make noble cielings in that kind: they fit them all on the ground, and, when they are done, they raiſe them up over the top of the building, on the columns that are to bear them up. The joiners ſit on the ground at their work; their planes are not like ours, for they thruſt the ſhavings out of the ſides, which ſeems to be a more expeditious way. Their ordinary

wood

wood is a white wood, very ſoft, and without knots, and therefore very eaſily to be wrought. They have excellent wood, that comes from Hircania (now Tabriſtan) in long boards, like the Norway deal-boards.

Embroidery is one of the mechanic arts which the Perſians are beſt verſed in; they do all ſorts of embroidery very well, eſpecially the gold and ſilver, either in cloth, ſilk, or leather: they exceed us in that art, and the Turks, likewiſe, whoſe ſtitching and embroidery leather we ſo much admire. Their leather-ſeams, and thoſe of horſe-trappings among the reſt, are ſo ſmooth and ſo neat, that you would take them for embroidery. The gold and ſilver thread they uſe is ſo well twiſted, that one would take it for wire when it is wrought, the ſilk not appearing in the leaſt.

The enamel ware, or China ware, as they call it, is likewiſe one of the moſt curious manufactures which they make all over Perſia. The earth of which that ware is made, is pure enamel, both within and without, like the China ware. The grain of it is as fine and tranſparent, as that is, whereby it happens, that one is often deceived in that earthen ware, and cannot diſtinguiſh it from China ware. Nay, you meet ſometimes with Perſian ware, that exceeds the China ware, ſo beautiful and lively is the varniſh of it; but this muſt be underſtood of the new China ware, and not of the old. The ſkilful workmen in enamel ware, aſcribe to the water the gloſs of the colour, and ſay, that there are ſome waters that diſſolve the colours and make them ſpread, whereas there are others that contract and fix them.

The pieces which the Perſians make beſt, are the enamel tiles painted and cut out in imitation of moſaic work. Indeed nothing can be ſeen livelier and brighter in that kind, or drawn finer, or more regular.

This Perſian earthen ware is fire proof, ſo that they not only boil water in it without breaking, but they even make pillow-pots thereof; it is hard enough alſo to make mortars to grind colours, and other materials in.

The matter of that fine enamel is glaſs, and little river pebbles pounded very ſmall, together with a little mould mixed with them. There are ſome tradeſmen in Perſia, whoſe employment is to mend earthen ware and glaſs; they join the pieces together, and ſew them with very ſmall iron wire, and rub the ſeam over with a kind of Chalk or ſmall lime. A diſh ſo mended holds water as before.

The gold wire-drawers and thread-twiners are very dextrous workmen: they draw an ingot, weighing a muſcal or drachm, nine hundred guezes or Perſian ells long, each gueze being thirty-five inches long. Their thread is the beſt and ſmootheſt that can be imagined. All the art they uſe to give it that lively and laſting colour it has, is to gild the wire very fine and very thick.

The next trade in which the Perſians excel, is that of tanning hides, and eſpecially of working ſhagreen, and all ſorts of Turkey leather: abundance of theſe are made in Perſia, and exported to the Indies, to Turkey, and to the other neighbouring kingdoms. Shagreen is made of an aſs's rump, and of a ſeed called the ſeed of caſbin: it is black, hard, and bigger than the muſtard-ſeed, which they uſe for want of the caſbin ſeed. The tanners dreſs coarſe hides with lime; they uſe no bark, but chiefly ſalt and gall inſtead of it, and that is enough in their country, the air being hot and dry.

The turner's trade is alſo one of the mechanic arts, which the Perſians underſtand very well. They have no frame for turning as we have; their way conſiſts only in a treddle, to which they faſten whatever they intend to turn; a thong that goes twice round the treddle, and which a boy holds with both his hands, and pulling now one end, then the other, turns the piece about. But when they have but ſmall pieces to turn, the workman needs no help, for with one hand he moves the axis with a bow, and with the other hand he holds the piece of wood. They uſe no wimbles as we do, but they uſe gimblets of ſeveral ſizes, which are inſtead of them, and which they turn with the ſame inſtrument as they do wood: it is a piece of iron flat and ſharp at the end, ſhaped like a rib, that it may cut the better, haſted in a round handle filled with lead, to make it weighty, about which they put a ſtrap that goes quite round it; they hold faſt the gimblet with the left-hand on the piece of wood they intend to bore, and turn it with the right hand; ſuch is their mechanic way of turning and boring.

They lay on lacquer very neatly, the violent motion of the turning inſtrument melting it without the help of fire; they ſpread it with a palm-tree ſtick, becauſe that wood is porous; and then with a piece of coarſe cloth and a little oil, they give to their work a wonderful luſtre, which never goes off; that lacquer, likewiſe, is never ſubject to ſcaling.

They turn metals as well as wood, but they are very far from attaining in that reſpect, to the ſkill of our workmen; they are likewiſe unſkilful in the turning of an oval; it is a figure,, the working of which they are utterly unacquainted with.

The armourers make very good weapons, eſpecially bows and ſwords. The Perſian bows are the moſt valued of all thoſe in the eaſt. The matter whereof they are made is wood and horn laid over one another, and covered with ſinews, and over that with the bark of a tree very ſlick and ſmooth; they paint them afterwards, and varniſh them ſo admirably well, that one may ſee one's face in thoſe bows, and the colour of them is as bright as poſſible. The bow-ſtrings are of twiſted ſilk, the bigneſs of a large quill. The quivers are made of leather embroidered with gold and ſilk. Their ſcymitars or ſabres, are very well damaſked, and exceed all that the Europeans can do; which is, becauſe our ſteel is not ſo full of veins as the indian ſteel, which they uſe moſt commonly. They forge their blades cold, and before they dip them, they rub them with tallow, oil, or butter, to hinder them from breaking. Then they temper them with vinegar and copperas, which being of a corroding nature, ſhew thoſe ſtreaks or veins, which they call damaſk-works. This is likewiſe what they call damaſk ſteel, becauſe the town of Damaſcus was the moſt celebrated place for the manufacture of thoſe curious ſcymitar-blades.

The Perſians make alſo very well the barrels of fire-arms, and damaſk them as they do the blades; but they make them very heavy, and cannot avoid it; they bore and ſcower them with a wheel as we do, and forge and bore them ſo even that they ſcarce ever burſt. They make them alike ſtrong and thick all along, ſaying that the mouth of the gun being weak the report ſhakes it, and communicates the wavering motion to the bullet; which is the reaſon that if their guns be thicker, they therefore carry the ſhot farther and ſtraiter. They underſtand very well how to make locks or ſprings, thoſe they put to their fire-arms, being very unlike to ours.

The workmen in iron and ſteel are very well verſed in their trade; they hammer both iron and ſteel cold, and ſucceed very well in it with reſpect to ſeveral ſorts of tools and inſtruments: for inſtance, country ovens, which are ſhaped like two ſemi-cones, or ſemi-ſpheres, cut through the top, and faſtened together with iron hooks. The diameter of them is two feet and a half, and the height from three to four feet. There ſtick out in the inſide of theſe cones large pins about four inches long, and as big, with flat heads, and as broad as half a crown. When they have occaſion to warm thoſe ovens, they overcaſt the inſide and outſide of them with clay, which ſticks to the nail's head, and makes, as it were, a wall of it, to which they ſtick the bread. The iron and ſteel tools they make beſt alſo, are, among others, ſaws, which are made of ſteel, as ſmooth and as bright as a looking-glaſs; razors which are but half as big as the handles, yet are as broad at the end, and ſhave very well; ſciſſars which they make hollow in the inſide, like gutters, ſaying that being ſo ſhaped, the edges of the two blades join cloſer and cut better. Almoſt all their ſteel looking-glaſſes are convex, ſome few are concave like the burning-glaſſes. The air being very dry in Perſia, the brightneſs of the looking-glaſſes does not grow dull, and they never ruſt. The eaſtern people uſe likewiſe glaſs looking glaſſes, and even abundance of them, though not near ſo many as metal ones, and that they do upon two accounts; the firſt is, becauſe thoſe metal looking-glaſſes are more laſting, and do not break with falling; the ſecond reaſon is, when the glaſs looking-glaſſes are once unſilvered, they become uſeleſs, the method of ſilvering glaſs, being unknown in all the eaſtern parts; and the quickſilver that is on the back of the looking-glaſſes coming off eaſier there than in Europe, by reaſon of the dryneſs of the air. They poliſh their metal glaſſes with emeril, pounded to powder as fine as duſt, they having little or no Venetian tripoly.

The art of dyeing ſeems to have been more improved in Perſia than in Europe. Their colours are much more ſolid and bright, and do not fade ſo ſoon; but the honour of it is not ſo much to be aſcribed to their art, as to their air and climate; which being dry and clear, cauſes the livelineſs of the colours; as alſo to the ſtrength of the dyeing ingredients, which growing moſt of them in the country, are uſed when they are green and full of ſap. Their dyeing and painting colours are the bole or red earth, the rounat or opponax, which are two common ingredients in Perſia; the Brazil wood, which is imported among them from Europe; the Japan wood, and the Indigo, which they fetch from the Indies. They uſe, moreover, in dyeing, ſeveral herbs and ſimples, of their own growth, and gums, and bark of trees, and the rinds of fruits, as of wallnuts and pomegranates, and the juice of lemon. The lapis lazuli, which they call lagſverd, is got in their neighbourhood, in the country of the Uſbecks, but Perſia is the general ſtorehouſe for it.

There are glaſs-houſes all over Perſia, but they do not well underſtand the art of making glaſs; moſt of theirs is full of flaws and bladders, and is greyiſh: upon the account, doubtleſs, ſays Sir John Chardin, that their fire laſts but three or four days, and that their deremne, as they call it, which is a ſort of broom that they uſe to make it, does not bear heat ſo well as our fewel.

Paper-making is performed very rudely in Perſia, becauſe they uſe nothing but callico, either dyed or painted, therefore their paper is browniſh, foul, ragged, and over limber. They uſe a great deal of European paper, after they have prepared it, but they fetch ſome from Little Tartary, which they prefer before it. They prepare their paper with a little ſoap, which they rub over it, then they ſmooth it with a ſleek-

ſtone, that their ink may run more freely. Theſe are the chief mechanic arts and trades practiſed in Perſia.

We come now to give an account of their manufactures. They have very good manufactures in cotton, in goats and camels hair, in yarn, and eſpecially in ſilk, that being a plentiful and common commodity in Perſia. The natives have addicted themſelves particularly to the well working of it; and it is the thing they are beſt ſkilled in, and in which they have the moſt conſiderable manufactures.

They keep their raw and unwrought ſilk in damp places, which they water ſometimes, to continue the weight of them, becauſe they ſell it by the weight, and for the ſame reaſon, they keep that which is wound up in leathern bags. We ſhall paſs by ſeveral ſorts of ſtuffs of all ſilk, ſuch as taffeties, tabbies, ſattins, &c. and alſo ſtuffs mixed with ſilk and cotton thread, or with camel's or goat's hair, which are made all over Perſia: we ſhall only ſpeak of their brocade.

There is the ſingle brocade, whereof there are a hundred ſorts; and the double brocade, which is called douroye, i. e. with two faces, becauſe it hath no wrong ſide, and the machmely zerbafe, or gold velvet. They make gold brocades which coſt fifty tomans the gæze or ell, which being two feet and half a quarter long, French meaſure, comes to about thirty crowns the inch, or eleven hundred crowns the ell. No part of the world affords ſo dear a ſilk. They employ ſix men together about the loom to make it, who uſe about thirty ſhuttles to weave it. Notwithſtanding the extraordinary rate of that precious brocade, the workmen employed in it do not earn above fifteen or ſixteen pence a day, for they can make but the thickneſs of a half-crown piece of it. Thoſe dear brocades are bought for curtains, door-hangings, and cuſhions, which are the moſt common furniture of a houſe.

The gold velvet, which is wrought in Perſia, is very charming, eſpecially the curled velvet: all thoſe rich ſtuffs have ſuch admirable property, that they laſt or ever, as it were, and the gold and ſilver does not wear off whilſt the work laſts, and keeps ſtill it's colour and brightneſs. The fineſt looms for theſe ſtuffs are at Yeſd, at Caſhan, and likewiſe at Iſpahan; thoſe for carpets are in the province of Kherman: theſe are the carpets we commonly call in Europe Turkey carpets, becauſe the merchants brought them through Turkey, before they traded with the Perſians by the ocean.

Trading, ſays Sir John Chardin, is a very honourable profeſſion in the Eaſt, as being the beſt for thoſe that have any ſtability, and are not ſo liable to change: nor is it to be wondered at, for it cannot be otherwiſe in kingdoms, where, on the one hand, there is no title of nobility, and therefore little authority annexed to birth; and, on the other hand, the form of government being altogether deſpotic and arbitrary, the authority annexed to places and employments cannot laſt longer than the employments themſelves, which are likewiſe precarious; for which reaſon trading is much ſet by in that part of the world, as a laſting and independent ſtation.

Another reaſon why it is valued, is becauſe the noblemen and even the king profeſs it: they have their deputies or factors, as merchants have, and under the ſame denomination. They have moſt of them their trading ſhips, and their ſtorehouſes. The king of Perſia for inſtance, ſells and ſends into the neighbouring kingdoms, ſilks, brocades, and other rich goods, carpets, and precious ſtones. The name of merchant is a name highly reſpected in the Eaſt, and it is not allowed to ſhopkeepers, or dealers in trifling goods, nor to thoſe who trade not in foreigh countries; it is permitted only to ſuch as employ deputies or factors in the remoteſt countries: and thoſe men are ſometimes raiſed to the higheſt rank, and are uſually employed in embaſſies.

There are merchants in Perſia, who have deputies in moſt parts of the world; and when thoſe deputies are returned home, they wait on their maſters under no better denomination than that of a ſervant, ſtanding up always before them, and waiting at table, though ſome of thoſe deputies are worth above threeſcore thouſand crowns.

In the Indies the laws are ſtill more favourable to traders; for though they are more numerous than in Perſia, they are nevertheleſs more valued. The reaſon of this additional reſpect is, becauſe in the Indies, traders are ſacred perſons, who are never moleſted, even in time of war, and allowed a free paſſage, they and their effects, through the middle of armies. It is upon their account eſpecially, that the roads are ſo ſafe all over Aſia, and eſpecially in Perſia. The eaſtern merchants affect grandeur in trading, notwithſtanding they ſend their deputies into all parts, and ſtay at home themſelves, as in the centre of their chief concern. They make no bargains themſelves directly; there is no place of exchange in their towns, the trade is carried on by brokers, who are the ſubtleſt, the moſt cunning, the ſlieſt, the moſt complaiſant, moſt patient, and intriguing men of the whole ſociety, having a ſmooth and inſinuating tongue beyond expreſſion

The Mahometans are not the greateſt traders in Aſia, though they are diſperſed almoſt in every part of it. Some of them are too effeminate, and ſome too ſevere, to apply themſelves to trade, eſpecially foreign trade. Wherefore, in Turkey, the Chriſtians and Jews carry on the main foreign trade; and in Perſia, the Chriſtians and the Indian Gentiles.

As to the Perſians they trade with their countrymen, one province with another, and moſt of them trade with the Indians. The Armenians manage alone the whole European trade; the reaſon of which is, becauſe the Mahometans cannot ſtrictly obſerve their religion among the Chriſtians, with relation to the outward purity it requires of them; for inſtance, their law forbids them to eat fleſh either killed or dreſſed by a man of a different religion, and likewiſe to drink out of the ſame cup with ſuch a one. It forbids them to call upon God, in a place adorned with figures. It even forbids, in ſome caſes, the touching of perſons of a different opinion, all which laws it is almoſt impoſſible to keep among the Chriſtians.

Another hindrance there is to the Mahometan improvement of trade, namely, the forbidding uſury and intereſt without any diſtinction. Mahomet broached his religion in a country, whereof the whole riches and trade conſiſted in cattle and breeds of horſes, where little money was ſeen, and where the trade was managed by way of barter, as in former times; and it appears from a thouſand paſſages in the Koran, that he did not foreſee his religion would be propagated throughout the world, ſo that he perceived no inconveniency in forbidding to lend money upon intereſt.

The old commentators of his inſtitution have not explained that prohibition, ſo that it has remained in force to this day. Thus their law allows no intereſt, but it allows changes, eſpecially maritime changes, upon any advantage whatſoever, as thirty and forty per cent. profit, or more. As for intereſt, the parties have their way of evading the law juſt as they pleaſe.

Silk is the ſtaple commodity of Perſia. They get ſome in the provinces of Georgia, of Choraſſan, and of Kherman, but eſpecially in Ghilan and Mazanderan. They compute that Perſia produces yearly twenty-two thouſand bales of ſilk, each bale weighing two hundred threeſcore and ſixteen pounds weight; and that account increaſes every year, becauſe ſilk improves continually.

There are four ſorts of ſilk; the firſt and the worſt is called Chirvani, becauſe it comes from Chirvan, a province near the Caſpian Sea; it is a thick and rough ſilk, and the coarſeſt thread of the ſhell, it is that they call ardaſhe in Europe. The ſecond, which is a ſize better, is called carvari, i. e. an aſs-load, to denote that ſort of ſilk which the unſkilful buy; they call it legia in France, probably from the word Legian, the name of a ſmall town in Ghilan on the ſea, where none but ſuch a ſort of ſilk is made. The third is called ketkodapeſend, as though one ſhould ſay, the citizen ſort; which name the Perſians give to all things of a middling character. The fourth is called ſharbaffee, i. e. the brocade ſilk, becauſe the beſt ſilk is uſed for thoſe rich goods. The abundance of Perſian ſilk exported is well enough known. The Dutch import of it into Europe to the value of near ſixty thouſand pounds ſterling yearly, by the Indian Sea; and all the Europeans who trade in Turkey, import nothing more valuable than the Perſian ſilks, which they buy of the Armenians. The Muſcovites import it likewiſe.

Some foreigners trade with the Perſians for camel's hair, and ſome Europeans for kid's wool; they uſe it in Europe for making of hats. The beſt wool of that ſort, comes from Kherman and from Caſbin, a famous city of Parthia, or Perſian Irack. Perſia exports into the Eaſt-Indies abundance of tobacco, all ſorts of fruit dried, pickled in vinegar and preſerved, eſpecially dates, marmelades, wines, diſtilled waters, horſes, Perſian ware, feathers, Turkey leather of all ſorts and colours, a great deal whereof is alſo exported to Muſcovy, and other European countries. They export into Turkey tobacco, galls, thread, coarſe goat's hair, ſtuffs, and all ſorts of box-work, with many other things. The exportation of ſteel and iron is prohibited, but it is exported notwithſtanding.

It is not be ſuppoſed, however, that the Perſians manage trade with the ſame method and rule as we do, or with the ſkill of the Europeans; for inſtance, trading by commiſſion and the uſe of bills of exchange, are little known, but every one goes to ſell his own goods himſelf, or ſeeds his deputies or his children to do it. Neither have they any letter-poſts in the eaſt, becauſe their trade is not ſpread far enough, and is not managed with ſo much activity as in Europe; and alſo becauſe the towns are at too great a diſtance from one another, and meſſengers are hired at a very eaſy rate; they ſend an expreſs a thirty days journey for about thirty ſhillings, and he performs that journey, which amounts to nine hundred Engliſh miles, in eighteen or twenty days time, and ſometimes in fifteen. When thoſe expreſſes are hired to go a journey, they run preſently from place to place, and give notice of their intended journey, in order to get ſome letters to carry, which they carry for as little as you pleaſe; they will carry a packet of letters of three ounces weight for fifteen pence.

It muſt be alſo obſerved, that in Perſia they ſubſcribe no bills, bonds, and other writings, but inſtead thereof, they write at the top of the paper their own name, and their ſirname, which is always their father's proper name; and they

ſeal

ſeal the paper at the bottom, in the preſence of witneſſes, who atteſt it alſo with their ſeals: in that manner do the merchants make their writings; and although in moſt caſes the contracts made, without due FORM OF LAW, be void, yet amongſt merchants they remain in FULL FORCE, and the ſecular power ratifies them. The uſe of ſurities or bails, is alſo very common amongſt them.

The moſt current money in Perſia, as Tavernier, Thevenot, and others inform us, are the abaſſi's, mahmoudi's, ſhai's, and caſbeghio's; the abaſſi's are of the fineſt ſilver, and the officers of the mint dare not coin any ſingle piece, until they have firſt refined the piaſtres, and other pieces of ſilver, that are appointed for the making of abaſſi's. And abaſſi was in Thevenot's time, about eighten pence French money; and conſidering there was no great difference then in the value of French and Engliſh coin, we may well ſuppoſe an abaſſi to be ſtill worth about ſixteen pence of our money. The abaſſi's, as all the reſt of the Perſian coin, are ſtamped with the hammer, and not milled, and there is ſo great an inequality in their weight, that in great payments they are weighed after this manner: they put twenty-five abaſſi's in one ſcale of the ballance, and as many in the other; and if the one weigh more or leſs than the other, they conclude for certain, that there are ſome falſe abaſſi's among them, and fail not to examine them, in which they are never out, for each ſcale ought moſt exactly to weigh alike. An abaſſi is worth two mahmoudi's, a mahmoudi two ſhai's, and a ſhai ten ſingle or five double caſbeghi's. Theſe laſt pieces are of braſs, the three other ſorts are all of ſilver, for gold is not current in trade. They have one braſs coin called biſti, worth four caſbeghi's, but the biſti's are now very ſcarce. They do not ſtamp their coin with the king's effigy, nor with his coat of arms; they only ſtamp on one ſide of the ſilver pieces the king's name, in whoſe name it was coined, and on the other, the name of the town and the year of the hegira.

The braſs pieces have on one ſide a lion, with a riſing ſun on his back, the emblem of Perſia, and on the other the name of the place where it was ſtruck. There is a coin all along the Perſian Gulph, called larins, which is the moſt common in trade. Larin, ſays Sir John Chardin, ſignifies coin of Lar, which is the capital of Caramania Deſerta (now Lariſtan). This was a diſtinct kingdom, before Atlas the Great king of Perſia, who conquered it, joined it to his kingdom. that piece of money is of good ſilver, and is worth about ten pence Engliſh. The make of it is very extraordinary, being a round wire, of the bigneſs of a quill, folded in two, and an inch long, with a ſmall mark on it, which is the prince's ſtamp. None having been coined ſince the conqueſt above-mentioned, is the reaſon they are now very ſcarce. They do nevertheleſs reckon by that coin all along the Perſian Gulph, and in the Indies, along the gulph of Cambay, and in the neighbouring ports; they ſay that formerly it was current throughout all the eaſt. Sir John Chardin does not give us the ſame account with Tavernier, of the ſtamp of the money; for he tells us that the ſtamp of the money, like that of the great ſeal of the kingdom, repreſents in the middle of one of the ſides the Perſian belief in theſe words, There is no God but God; Mahomet is God's prophet; Aly is God's vicegerent, and the names of the twelve imans, and on the other the name of the king of the place, and of the year of the higera. Sir John adds, that the charge of coining is greater in Perſia than in any other parts of the world, for it amounts to ſeven and a half per cent. The or is not a real coin, but only a nominal value of money, as a pound ſterling is with us, and is uſed among merchants when they ſpeak only of ſmall ſums; an or is worth five abiſſi's. A toman alſo is but a certain ſum of money, and no coin; it is worth fifty abaſſi's, and in Perſia they generally reckon by tomans.

They have no gold money in Perſia, for the pieces of gold ſtamped with the king's effigy, and coined at his acceſſion to the throne, and on new year's day, which are of the ſame weight as the German ducats, are not current among the people, any more than counters are in France; beſides thoſe pieces of gold have no proper name; the Perſians call them commonly tela, i. e. gold pieces; they are called alſo chervaſi's, i. e. nobles, by reaſon of their value. Tavernier tells us, that the merchants who travel into Perſia, carry with them ducats of Germany, the Low Countries, and Venice, but they muſt carry them to the mint as ſoon as they enter the kingdom; yet if they can ſecretly ſell them to private perſons, they make a greater profit of them. And when they go out of the kingdom, they muſt declare all the gold coin they take with them, and pay four pence duty to the king's officers for every ducat, if they ſhould endeavour to conceal their gold, and chance to be diſcovered, they would loſe it all.

The common weight in Perſia is of two ſorts, the civil weight, and the legal or religious weight. The legal weight, which they call cheray, and which is like the weight of the ſanctuary, according to the uſe of the ancient Hebrews, weighs commonly double the civil weight. They have, like us, different weights for medicines and precious ſtones, from the common weights. The civil weight is alſo of two ſorts, the king's weight, and the tauris weight as they call it. The king's weight, or the great weight, weighs exactly as much more as the other, they call their common weight man, and alſo batman. The ſmall weight man comes to five pounds fourteen ounces of Paris weight. Their way of dividing it is as follows: the ratel is the ſixth part of a man, and comes near to a pound with us; the derham, or drachm, is the fiftieth part of a pound; muſcal is half a derham; the dung is the ſixth part of a muſcal, and comes to about eight grains of carat weight, and the barley-corn, which is the fourth part of a dung. The eaſtern weights are all reduced to the barley-corn.

There are two ſorts of ells, the royal ell, which is three feet long wanting an inch, and the ſhort ell, or guezemoukeſſer, as they call it, which is but two thirds of the other. The geometrical meaſure is called girib; the land is meaſured by no other meaſure, and the girib contains a thouſand and ſixty-ſix ſquare ells, each ell containing thirty-five royal inches. The carpets that are ſold by the ell, are meaſured alſo by the ſquare ell, multiplying the length by the breadth, which the Perſians call ell by ell. For inſtance, if a floor carpet is twelve ells long and three broad, they ſay, three times twelve is thirty-ſix, for it contains as many ſquare ells. The Perſians have no meaſure for dry goods, as a buſhel, &c. becauſe they ſell every thing by weight, even liquors. They have no meaſure for time, neither clocks nor dials, They divide the day into eight parts, moſt of which the Mahometan prieſts give notice of in towns, by calling people to prayer.

A ſummary of the commerce of Perſia, according to the judicious Mr Hanway *.

'If we may judge, ſays this ingenious gentleman, from the duties paid in RESHD, the trade began to flouriſh on our arrival there; for in 1742 the cuſtoms amounted only to 20,000 crowns, but in 1743 they aroſe to 50,000, and made about the ſame ſum in 1744. The annual produce of GHILAN in good times, I compute to be 30,000 batmans † of raw ſilk, of which about 6000 are conſumed in Perſia, 4000 ſent to Babylon, and the remainder over the Caſpian Sea. SHIRVAN formerly produced a large quantity, but that province is now in a much worſe condition than GHILAN. This commodity is brought to market all the year round. They have ſeveral kinds of it, the firſt is called ſherbaff, or weaver's ſilk, they being ſuppoſed, particularly in RESHD and CASHAN, to uſe the beſt they can procure; but what generally goes for the PERSIAN fabric at CASHAN, is the fineſt ſort, the threads of which are more ſplit; this is uſually all white, whereas the other is white and yellow; nor is it wound off ſo ſhort, ſo that though finer we do not eſteem it ſo much as ſherbaff. There is alſo a ſort called Arabs, from being bought up for the moſt part by Arabians, who ſend it into Turkey, where it is afterwards manufactured.

* See an Hiſtorical Account of the Britiſh Trade over the Caſpian Sea.—By Jonas Hanway, merchant.

† 240,000 great pounds.

GHILAN produces the beſt and greateſt quantities of ſilk; next to this comes SHIRVAN and ERIVAN, then MAZANDERAN, and laſtly ASTRABAD; but the latter is vaſtly inferior, ſerving only for a manufacture mixed with cotton, of which they make their ſhirts and drawers. Ghilan ſilk is ſent into Ruſſia and Turkey, and part of it is kept for the Perſian manufactures, but that of Mazanderan and Aſtrabad is ſeldom or ever exported. From Shirvan they formerly ſent all their ſilk to Turkey and Ruſſia. The peaſants of Ghilan perceiving that the Engliſh required the ſherbaff to be ſhort wound, prepared it in that manner, and the ſilk proved good, and was much eſteemed by our manufacturers. The peaſants gave this reaſon for chuſing to have their ſilk long wound: in moiſt weather, the ſilk wound on a large wheel is not ſo apt to ſtick or be gummed together, in thoſe parts where it lays on the bars, or diviſions of the wheel, where it is often rendered black, and ſo hard, that it cannot without great difficulty be ſeparated; beſides, with a large wheel they make more diſpatch; but all this time they did not conſider the inconveniency of winding it off to be manufactured. Theſe peaſants are extremely tenacious with regard to the price of their ſilk: their buſineſs is uſually done by brokers, but the buyer attends to pay the money. They ſell it in ſmall quantities, ſo that a cargo cannot always be collected. Beſides this inconvenience, there is that of bad money, for they are often obliged to cut it through, in order to ſee that it is not copper ſilvered over. Their jealouſy ran ſo high, that the governor of Ghilan once publiſhed an order, that whoever refuſed any kind of money, except it was manifeſtly bad, his ears and noſe ſhould be cut off, and his eſtate confiſcated: but I never heard that this order was carried into execution.

The ſilk-worm, as is well known, takes it's birth from an egg no bigger than a ſmall pin's head. In the month of March, when the ſun is already very warm, I obſerved the peaſants in Ghilan prepare to give life to the eggs, which they had preſerved during the winter, carrying them for the moſt part about them, in the warmeſt part of their bodies, and particularly

cularly under their arms. In ten or more days, according to the heat it receives, it becomes a maggot and begins to feed: the ſhrub mulberry-trees which are annually pruned, produce the moſt tender and proper leaves for their food. In about forty days, the worm arrives to it's maturity, and winds itſelf by daily gradations into a pod of ſilk as big as a pigeon's egg. When this egg is completely formed, which is uſually known by the ſilence of the worm within, they ſuffocate it by covering it with blankets, or by the heat of the ſun; unleſs they wind off the ſilk immediately, for then warm water anſwers the ſame purpoſe. Some of them, however, muſt be permitted to live and perforate the pod, for when it breaks from it's incloſure, it caſts it's ſeed or eggs, by means of which the generation is preſerved. From the pods thus perforated, the ſilk cannot be wound off as from the others, but being prepared by pounding, it is ſpun off like cotton yarn. This ſilk we call kedge, the remains or refuſe of which is ſo inferior, as to admit only of being milled and made into ſilk wadding.

The cleanneſs and clearneſs of raw ſilk conſtitute a great part of it's goodneſs; inferior ſilk has many knits and coarſe ſtuff ſticking to the threads. The moſs, or head of ſilk, often appears fair to the eye, when much coarſeneſs is concealed under it; for it is a trick of the peaſants of Ghilan, to hide the defects as they wind it off from the pod. The beſt ſilk has conſtantly a gloſs or brightneſs: the white or ſilver coloured is moſt eſteemed, but in Ghilan the greateſt part comes yellow from the worm. White ſilk that is ſoiled, is generally found to have lain in a moiſt place, which hurts it's ſtrength as well as beauty. Silk ſhould be equal, ſtrong, and round as wire, and alſo clean; the greateſt part of it ſhould be in a medium with regard to fineneſs, for the fineſt is not the eaſieſt to manufacture to advantage. The threads of ſilk being thus even, that is, as near as poſſible of one ſize, and not coarſe and fine intermixed, can be moſt eaſily ſeparated in the winding; but otherwiſe the coarſe is apt to tear the fine, and make waſte in manufacturing it. The ſize which we uſually moſt eſteem, is wound off 16 or 18 pods or cocoons. A moſs, which is about 60 inches in the round, can be moſt conveniently reeled off; longer is not approved of, and if ſhorter it is apt to break by the quick revolutions of the reel, being glued together with it's own gum. It is alſo to be obſerved, that there is a vaſt difference between ſilk cleaned by combing, and that which remains juſt as it came from the pod. The former, to an unſkilful perſon, who does not obſerve the broken threads and the ends of the combings, ſhall look better than the latter, though it be conſiderably worſe.

When the Armenians and Ruſſians pack up their ſilk, they generally comb the heads of the moſſes, to deceive the buyer, but this makes it really worſe, becauſe it hurts in the winding off. Theſe people, who were never famed for probity, have long practiſed the art of falſe package: hence, at Smyrna and Aleppo, where the Armenians ſell their ſilk to the factors of our Turkey company, as likewiſe in Ruſſia, it has often been rejected upon that account, eſpecially as they hold it a conſtant maxim, not to ſuffer their bales to be broken up except at the heads. The price of ſilk and Ghilan generally riſes in proportion to the advance on foreign goods, except in a very great ſcarcity, as of late: during the courſe of the Britiſh Caſpian trade, we found it vary from 12 to 18 crowns the batman; it was generally about 15, but within theſe two or three laſt years the Ruſſians and Armenians have paid from 30 to 40 crowns.

The kinds of European goods which the Ruſſians and Armenians vend in the northern provinces of Perſia, with a ſuccinct account of the Perſian weights, meaſures, and coins.

I ſhall finiſh this ſhort view of the trade of Perſia, by giving a general idea of the different kinds of European goods, which the Ruſſians and Armenians now vend in the northern provinces of that kingdom, with an account of the coins, weights, and meaſures, according to the beſt informations I could procure; but I muſt obſerve, that there ſeems to be a great diſcordance among writers in this particular. The chief demands of European goods, next to Dutch cloth, is for Britiſh woollens, ſuch as hair-liſt drabs, of 12 to 19l. per piece of 37 yards in white, which the Perſians call bergreſt: of theſe they uſually conſume nine bales in 30.

Gloſter cloths, of about 9l. 10s. to 11l. 10s. per piece of 42 yards in white, which the Perſians call maghoot, and conſume thereof 10 bales in 30.

Ordinary Yorkſhire cloths, of about 3s. 6d. per yard dyed, which the Perſians call Londora, and conſume thereof 11 bales in 30.

Five bales of ſhalloon, of a middling quality, are ordinarily required in 100 bales of cloth.

From Holland they reckon one bale of maghoot, one of ſhalloons, and one of long ells, to 10 bales of bergreſt.

Engliſh emboſſed cloth is alſo demanded; likewiſe indigo, cochineal, and, in good times, ſome rich ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, velvets, and other rich manufactures.

The Perſians had long been accuſtomed to Dutch cloths, which were thicker, and, for the moſt part, better ſhorn, and of a ſofter and finer wooll, the crimſon and ſcarlet of a finer dye; but they were dearer than ours: however, after two or three years, we improved ſome of our drabs, ſo as to be almoſt equal to the Dutch cloths in ſubſtance, and, in my judgment, ſuperior in ſoftneſs and beauty.

The tranſit duty in Ruſſia is 3 per cent. on the value, with an agio of 150 per cent. which, with other petty charges, makes it about 8 per cent. only in the cuſtom-houſe. In Perſia the duty on European goods is 5 per cent. on the value.

An Account of the Money of Persia.

The toman, biſtic, and denaer, are imaginary, but the other denominations are real; the valuation and currency of ſilver money, are, viz.

	Value in denaers.	Weight in muſcals.
A toman is ten hazardenaers -	10,000	50
It muſt be obſerved, that the hazardenaer (which the Engliſh call mildenaer, and the Ruſſians a ruble) is computed by Europeans, and accounts kept in hundreds	100	
Conſequently, the ſame in lower denominations, viz. peng ſid denaer, or rupie, or nadire - -	50	2½
Siſid denaer, or ſhis ſhahie -	30	1½
Abaſſie - - -	20	1
Sid denaer, or mahmudie -	10	
Shahie, or ſahie - - -	5	
Biſtie - - -	2	
Kaſbekie - - -	½	

An engliſh crown melted down in Reſhd, produced, at 17 denaers * per muſcal, only 95 denaers; but we always computed the mildenaer, or 100 denaers; equal to an Engliſh crown of 5s.

* The common price of ſilver.

The Gold Coins current are,

	Value	Wt. in muſcals and nackoot, or karrats. 24 = 1 muſcal.
Muhraſhreffie, or treble ducat of 6 mildenaers - -	6 —	2 9
Aſhreffi, or old ducat .	1 80	0 18*
Ditto Shan Nadir, or new ducat -	1 80	0 18
Ditto of Meſched - -	1 80	0 18
Ditto Bokhara, current at 2 10 -	2 20	1
And Fonduckli, Turkiſh ducat, about	1 80	0 18
Venetian Ducat - -	1 80	0 17¾
The comman abaſſie ſhould be	2 ---	1
Ditto Shah ſultan Huſſein -		1 4
Dttto Shah Suliman -		1 14
Ditto Shah Seffie -		1 16

N. B. 80 $\frac{9116}{10000}$ muſcals = 1 lb. Troy

* Equal in fineneſs to a Holland ducat.

Weights.

1200 muſcals, or 1 butman, are avoirdupois lb. ordinarily computed 12 ⅕ lb. Engliſh -	12	20343
98 ⅓ ditto - - -	1	
1 ditto I have found to be 3 dwts. ½ grain, but nicer calculators call it grains -	71	1888
1 dunk, or donk - - -	11	8648
1 karrat - - .. -	2	9662
1 hæbbie - - -	0	9887⅓

107 muſcals are 1 lb. Hollands.

The old batman, or manſhah, is 1200 muſcals, or 200 drams, by which ſilk, cocheneal, indigo, kedge, &c. are weighed.

The new batman ſhah is 1280 muſcals, or 213⅔ drams, by which heavy goods are weighed.

At Tavris the batman, called tavizie, contains 640 muſcals; likewiſe chiefly uſed at Meſched and Herat, as it is alſo, more or leſs through the whole country, for ſeveral ſpecies of goods.

The antient batman of Tavris weighed 600 muſcals.

At Iſpahan, at Shamakie, and all through Shirvan, the ſilk batman contains 48 ſtills, or 1600 muſcals, and 3 ſtills are called a ſhadah, and weigh 100 muſcals; but the batman, by which indigo is weighed, contains only 800 muſcals.

At Tæhiran the batman is called re, and contains 1600 muſcals; rice, wheat, liquors, and proviſions, are ſold by the batman.

A chærvar, or load of a camel, is 50 batmans.

A load of a mule, 25 batmans, according to the king's computation, but carriers uſually load from 30 to 34.

A chærvar of a horſe is 20 batmans, but carriers uſually load 25. The ſame load of an aſs, according to the common rule of carriers is 15 batmans.

Kæbbie, a handful.

Dizz, or gerib,, 1000 rice.

Four batman of Shahi rice, make one kuttie.

Corn and grain, and even liquids, are ſold by the batman, but rice, when winnowed, is ſold per meaſure, or jar.
The muſcal through oll Perſia is the ſame: the ſilverſmiths commonly make uſe of pieces of money inſtead of weights, eſpecially ſiſid denaers of 1 ½ muſcal in weight.
One karrat is three hæbbie.
Four karrats, or nockoot are one dunk.
Six dunk one muſcal.
Six muſcals one dram.

The MEASURE of RESHD.

Seven horſe-hair breadths are one barley-corn.
Seven barley-corns are one finger.
24 fingers are half a gæze, or gaz = one cubit.
4000 cubits are one mile.
Three miles are one farſang.
But the meaſure in common uſe is the gæze zerræ, divided into 16 parts, and called gierrie.
The foreign and Perſian merchants, in buying of woollens, compute the gæze at 40 inches Engliſh, but it is only 39 ⅔.
One ditto is computed to 10 Ruſſian archeens of 28 inches.
105 Smyrna pikes are reckoned equal to 70 Perſian gæze.
The Mokæſar gæze is $\frac{1}{10}$ leſs than the Shah gæze, and by the Mokæſar, Perſian manufactures, and moſt part of retale goods are meaſured.
The Tavris gæze is one per cent. longer than the Shah gæze.
The account which Mr Van Meirop gave of the import and conſumption of Meſched, extracted from the cuſtom-houſe regiſter of that city, made the quantities very inconſiderable, and the whole was ſent by Armenians, Ruſſians, and Greeks, from Reſhd, viz.

	Pieces of bergreſt.	Pieces of Londora.	Pieces of maghoot.
Meſched, and it's neighbourhood	305	100	700
For the conſumption of Bokhara	20	50	10
Orange	15	30	5
Balkh	15	15	5
Anthuy	10	15	5

Beſides theſe not diſtinguiſhed with regard to the place of their conſumption, were imported.
1000 Shalloons, } the moſt part from Kherman, by the way
1500 Long ells, } of the gulph of Perſia.
250 batmans of Lahori indigo, brought by the indians, of whom there are a conſiderable number, who alſo trade in cloth from Reſhd.
500 Batmans of American indico from Reſhd, by Armenians; formerly it came from Turkey, where they bought of the French.
300 Batmans of cocheneal from Reſhd, brought by Armenians and others.
Though Meſched was under the particular protection of Nadir Shah, it was with difficulty that this gentleman ſold to the value of 22000 crowns, during the ſpace of 27 months which he reſided there; and great part of this ſum was in exchange for Perſian manufactures, which no reaſon but the abſolute impoſſibility of obtaining money induced him to accept; ſuch was the diſtreſs of that country.
For my own part, I had the utmoſt reaſon to conſider this as a military trade, and myſelf as having made a campaign. The journey, had, however, afforded me an opportunity of ſeeing Perſia, and of enquiring into many circumſtances relating to the oriental commerce. The confuſion ariſing from inteſtine broils muſt ever give a deep wound to trade, the ſecurity of which is founded in the arts of peace, and the execution of civil laws; but the government of Perſia was now rendered precarious to a degree that threatened the ſubverſion of that monarchy. The Turks, the Leſgees, the Indians, the Turkumans, and other frontier nations, either favoured theſe inteſtine factions, or endeavoured to recover ſome limb which had been torn from them; ſo that every imaginable exceſs was committed, upon no better principle than the power of doing it.
In this ſituation it was the ill fortune of the Ruſſia company [ſee RUSSIA TRADE and RUSSIA COMPANY] to find Perſia governed by an uſurper and a tyrant, whoſe cruelty had no bounds: and the proſpect at this time, in a more particular manner, was overſhadowed with a dark cloud, which threatened a ſtorm: the Ruſſia company had already felt ſome of the difficulties in which they were involved, others they foreſaw, but knew not how to provide againſt them.
The rebellions in Shirvan in 1743, of Shiraſs, Aſhabad, Hazerjereb in 1744, were ſuppreſſed by the ſlaughter of many thouſands, and the almoſt total ruin of thoſe provinces. It is true that Nadir had enriched his treaſures with the plunder of India, yet the heavy taxes he had impoſed on his people to ſupport ſuch a continued ſeries of foreign and domeſtick wars, having reduced them to poverty, and driving them to deſpair, obliged thouſands to ſeek a voluntary baniſhment.
I have already obſerved that Nadir's army had been ſupported for upwards of four years, by the taxes drawn from his Perſian ſubjects, and that his Indian treaſure remained in a great meaſure untouched; this was one principle cauſe of their diſtreſs; by endeavouring to deprive them of the inſtruments of rebellion, he provoked them to rebel, and chaſtiſing them he compleated their ruin. Could any trade be carried on under theſe circumſtances?
It was computed that Nadir had near 200,000 men in pay, the charge of whom, officers included, was computed at 100 crowns * a year, and, conſequently, the expence of maintaining his army was 20 millions of crowns †, excluſive of the contingent expence.

* Twenty-five pounds.
† Five millions ſterling.

In good times, the provinces are ſuppoſed to bring into the exchequer the following ſums:

	Mildenaers.	£.
The conquered provinces in India were ſaid to produce, in 1743, 25 crore*, which make, Perſian money	12,500,000	3,125,000
Kandahar and Hærat	1,000,000	250,000
Khorazan	2,000,000	500,000
Aſtabad	50,000	12,500
Mazanderan	400,000	100,000
Ghilan, of which a million was once demanded, but is now ſet at	500,000	125000
Shirvan, including Georgia and ſome other parts of Dageſtan	1,500,000	375,000
Erivan, and the parts of Armenia ſubject to Perſia	2,000,000	500,000
Irac, including Caſbin, Iſpahan, and the country extending to the gulph, being the ancient Parthia	1,500,000	375,000
Aderbeitzan, in which Ardevill and Tauris are included †	1,500,000	375,000
	22,950,000	5,737,500

* One crore, or 10 laks, are 500,000 crowns.
† Aderbeitzan is the ancient Media.

The reader will naturally obſerve. how great a part of the Perſian revenue was produced by Nadir's conqueſt in India: it will alſo be obvious to him, that the charge of an army is certain, but the revenues to ſupport that army are uncertain, eſpecially if they commit the leaſt violence; and here the whole was a ſcene of rapine: the conſequence was, that, except the conquered provinces in India, and thoſe of Ghilan and Khoraſan, the reſt of the kingdom was ſo impoveriſhed, as to be diſabled from paying, perhaps, a quarter part of the uſual tax. Next to the above-mentioned, Kandahar, Hærat, and Erivan, were ſaid to be the leaſt diſtreſſed, but miſery reigned in every quarter.
Of theſe 200,000 men, 60,000 were quartered in Cabul and the adjacent provinces on the weſtern ſide of the Sind *, which had been conquered and kept by Nadir; and the revenues appear to have much exceeded the expence of ſupporting that part of the army. If one conſiders this number of troops, and large revenue, it was not unreaſonable to expect a large demand for cloth and other European goods; but we were not then acquainted with the nature of cloathing a Perſian army; for indeed not a third part of it wears European cloth,

* Ancient Indus.

With regard to the quantity of goods imported by the Perſians over the Caſpian Sea, whilſt the port of Gambroon was open to the ſeveral nations of Europe, the Caſpian traders could but ill form an idea of the general conſumption in that kingdom. The Ruſſia company were more ſanguine in their expectations, from a knowlege that, in the beginning of this century, the factors of the Eaſt-India company had extended their trade as far as Tavris, on the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian, where they ſold great quantities of the woollen manufactures of Great-Britain: but when the Britiſh factors in Ghilan, whoſe ſituation was now ſo much more advantageous, would have made an experiment of the like nature, they diſcovered that city and it's confines to be in ſo ruinous a ſtate, as blaſted their hopes of doing any buſineſs in thoſe quarters.
When Perſia enjoyed repoſe, the agent of the Eaſt-India company of England lived in ſplendor; the regal government being held in great veneration in that empire, he acted as immediately under the crown of England, and from thence derived an influence which he could not otherwiſe have poſſeſſed: his pompous manner of living had ſome good effects, but the expence was too conſiderable to be long grateful to the company.
With regard to the advantages the Ruſſians enjoyed, it muſt be obſerved, that beſides the Ruſſian miniſter who attends at the Perſian court, generally under the title of reſident, the conſul of that empire, who is fixed in Ghilan, is conſidered, in ſome meaſure, in a miniſterial light, and allowed a company of Ruſſian ſoldiers as a guard, at the expence of the empreſs their ſovereign.
Hence it was that Mr Elton recommended ſo ſtrongly, that a commiſſion ſhould be given to one of the Britiſh ſubjects in Ghilan, by which I preſume he meant himſelf, to act as conſul;

ful; but the ſtate of things was now changed, and every ſtep that could be taken to eſtabliſh the intereſt of the Ruſſia company in Perſia, in effect blocked up our paſſage through Ruſſia into Perſia. See RUSSIA COMPANY.

The advantages which the Eaſt-India company of England enjoyed beyond the Ruſſia company, were ſuch as will hardly admit of a compariſon, nor indeed is it material to my preſent purpoſe; I ſhall paſs over in ſilence the trade from Great-Britain to the gulph of Perſia, as alſo that between Perſia and India; obſerving only, that, after the Portugueze had ſettled themſelves in Eaſt-India, they took the iſland of Ormus, and being maſters of the ſea, carried on the trade between thoſe countries. That great prince Shah Abaſs thought it his intereſt to diſlodge them from his neighbourhood: for which purpoſe he entered into a treaty, in 1622, with the agent of the Eaſt-India Company, and, by means of their ſhips, he took Ormus, and demoliſhed the town, bringing the commerce of that iſland to the continent. This induced that prince to build the town of Bender-Abaſſi, now called Gambroon, which is reputed the greateſt place of trade in all Perſia. For theſe good ſervices Abaſs made the company a grant of half the cuſtoms of the new town, in perpetuity; but his ſucceſſors have not religiouſly obſerved the engagement.

The invaſions of the Afghans, in 1722, ruined the company's ſettlement at Iſpahan, in no leſs a degree than the death of Nadir occaſioned the pillage of the Ruſſia company's factors in Reſhd, as was the caſe. Their loſs, though very conſiderable, was not, I believe, ſuperior to that of the Caſpian traders, except the long interruption of their trade: in both caſes, extortion and plunder were carried to an extreme. The Armenians ſuffered alſo *; the Dutch likewiſe met the common fortune of the times, and being obliged to withdraw the greateſt part of their factory from Iſpahan, they ſettled in Gambroon, where they ſecured themſelves, in a great meaſure, by very ſtrong fortifications: they did not come into Perſia 'till ten years after us, but as they are the only traders in ſpice, ſo much in uſe over all Aſia, they have been encouraged to continue their commerce, though with leſs advantage than in paſt times.

* See Mr Hanway's Hiſtory of Revolutions, in vol. iii.

The French firſt appeared in Perſia in 1665, and concluded a treaty with the ſhah of Perſia in 1674; but the miſeries of that country, in conſequence of the invaſion of the Afghans in 1722, compelled them alſo to retire from Iſpahan.

A very pompous propoſal was made by a French projector, in relation to a trade over the Caſpian, in the beginning of this century, upon the occaſion of an ambaſſy * from Shah Sultan Huſſein to Lewis XIV. This perſon imagined that caravans could not be conducted ſafely through Ruſſia, and, therefore, he propoſed to carry merchandize in veſſels, by the lakes and rivers with which that country abounds; but, in regard to robbers, he ſeemed ignorant that this would not mend the matter in the leaſt. He mentioned alſo ſeveral commodities which he propoſed to return to France, particularly rhubarb: but this article is monopolized by the Ruſſian government: this ſcheme never was, and I believe never will be, carried into execution.

* It has been ſaid that this was entirely counterfeit, to amuſe Lewis XIV. in his old age; but it appears from ſeveral circumſtance, as well as the nature of the thing, that this opinion was very ill grounded, if not ridiculous.

But of all the nations who have endeavoured to eſtabliſh a trade with the north of Perſia, the Ruſſians are the moſt advantageouſly ſituated: the inteſtine broils of that country have not put a ſtop to their commerce; on the contrary, they have ſometimes turned to their advantage; for, beſides the ordinary courſe of their trade to and from Perſia, they reap conſiderable profit by their trading voyages on the Caſpian Sea, carrying rice from Ghilan to Baku, Derbends, and ſometimes to the ſouthern coaſt, as I have already mentioned. And as this export of proviſion ſometimes creates a ſcarcity in Ghilan, it occaſions a demand for Ruſſian meal, from which again new benefits are derived. Beſides cloth, and other European goods, the Ruſſians alſo export red leather, furrs and linnen, for the northern provinces of Perſia, and make their returns in raw ſilk. Hence aroſe their jealouſy of the Britiſh traders; for the Ruſſian merchants, particularly thoſe of Moſcow, and the trading towns on the Volga, no ſooner obſerved that the perſian markets were glutted with European goods, by the Ruſſia company of England, than they began to murmur, reſolving to make remonſtrances to court on the ſubject.

The Armenians, indeed, have for ſome years extended their trade to the north of Perſia, much beyond the Ruſſians; for, by means of their credit in Holland, joined to their own capitals, they employed in this branch of commerce about 100,000 l. This ſtock, however, was now inſufficient to ſupport them; for the exceſſive glut of the market in Ghilan, and the terrible oppreſſion of the Perſian government, ſtopped the circulation of their trade, and, conſequently, ſunk their credit in Holland. At length they were alſo conſtrained to abandon Perſia, and, in 1745, they retired to Aſtracan, to wait with their effects 'till there ſhould be a fair opportunity of returning thither.

Whilſt the Ruſſia company were in ſecurity, they could not be inſenſible of the benefits of buying raw ſilk immediately of the peaſants of Ghilan; but advantages may be over-rated, and indeed ceaſe to be ſuch, when attended with vexations and inconveniences, like thoſe which the Caſpian traders experienced. It was not, however, the leſs ungrateful to obſerve the Armenians, a people in themſelves deſpicable, and of no conſequence to Ruſſia in competition with the Britiſh nation, ſupported and protected in this trade, when meaſures were ſo apparently taken to wreſt it from us.

The Ruſſians do indeed alledge, that many of theſe Armenians are ſubjects of their country; and it is true, in general, that ſuch of them as are engaged in the Caſpian trade do put themſelves under the protection of that empire; theſe people are likewiſe educated in all the ſervilities of Aſia, and underſtanding how to accommodate themſelves to indignities, which the genius of a free nation will hardly ſubmit to, are in ſome meaſure the better qualified to carry on a commerce through foreign dominions.

The ſhare which the Ruſſia company enjoyed in this commerce made an eclat, but it was not yet puſhed to near the height which the Armenians had carried it; of what conſequence it was to the latter, may be eaſily deduced from hence, that not many years ago they imported into Ruſſia near 1000 bales of raw ſilk *. Of this the greateſt part was ſent to Amſterdam; part of the ſilk was alſo ſent to the German markets, and about 100 bales remained in the city of Moſcow, for the uſe of the Ruſſian manufactures.

* Of 25 batmans, is 300,000 lb. of 16 ounces; whereas all the Britiſh trade never amounted to half that quantity.

PERU. This country is bounded on the north by Popayan, which is part of Terra Firma; on the eaſt by the country of the Amazons; on the ſouth by Chili; and on the weſt it has the South-Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It extends from the 1ſt degree and about 30 minutes north latitude, to the 25th degree 10 minutes of ſouth latitude: ſo that it contains 28 degrees from north to ſouth; that is, 560 leagues, or 1680 Engliſh miles; but, conſidering the windings of the coaſt, and that it does not lie directly north and ſouth, but rather north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, we may very well agree with thoſe geographers who make it about 600 leagues, or 1800 miles long. It's greateſt breadth is not much above 100, and in ſome places 130 leagues, from weſt to eaſt.

Beſides the fruit-trees which have been tranſported hither from Europe, as pears, apples, figs, grapes, olives, &c. there are thoſe of the Caribbee Iſlands, as ananas, guayvas, patatas, bananas, melons, water-melons, beſides other peculiar to Peru; the moſt valued of the laſt ſort are the chirimbolas, reſembling in ſmell the anana, and pine-apple, buing full of a white ſolid ſubſtance, mixed with ſeeds as big as kidney-beans; the leaf is ſomewhat like that of the mulberry-tree, and the wood reſembles that of the hazel.

In relation to commerce, the Creolians are as ſharp and underſtanding as the Europeans; but being dainty and ſlothful, and not vouchſafing to deal unleſs there be a conſiderable profit, the Biſcayners, and other European Spaniards, who are moſt laborious, grow rich ſooner.

This country is divided into three audiences, or juriſdictions, which are, going from ſouth to north, Los Charcas, or La Plata, Lima, or Los Reyes, and Quito.

LOS CHARCAS. This province has Chili and Tucuman on the ſouth; part of Paraguay, and of the country of the Amazons, on the eaſt; the audience of Lima on the north; and the South-Sea on the weſt. It extends along the ſea-coaſt, from the 25th degree of ſouth latitude, to Rio Tamma, in latitude 17. 10. ſo that it's length is 7 degrees and 50 minutes, that is 570 miles, in a ſtrait line: but, conſidering the windings of the coaſt, we may very well reckon it above 600 miles. It's greateſt extent, from weſt to eaſt, as much as we can judge from the beſt maps, is about 400 miles, though in ſome places much leſs.

The climate of this country is but indifferent: on the ſhore ir is exceſſive hot, and the inland parts of the country partake ſo much of the other extreme, that it is ſaid the Spaniſh ladies, when pregnant, are compelled to remove to a warmer climate, before they can be delivered. The ſoil however is, generally ſpeaking, fruitful; on the coaſt it is made ſo by art; but the vallies among the mountains in the inland parts, are from nature luxuriouſly fertile, being every where ſufficiently watered; whereas there are no rivers at all upon the coaſt. As to the commodities of this country, though it may juſtly be ſtiled one of the richeſt in the world, yet they may be reduced to three, namely, pimento, which grows upon the coaſt, and is a kind of pepper, little different from what we call Jamaica pepper, and produces to the inhabitants 600,000 pieces of eight per annum.

The other commodities are ſilver and gold, of which we ſhall give ſome account when we come to deſcribe the places where or near which the mines are found.

LA PLATA, otherwiſe called CHAQUI, or CHAQUICACA, the capital, lies in ſouth latitude 19. 33. and in longitude

65. 30. weſt from London; it is about 250 miles diſtant from the neareſt ſea-coaſt to the eaſt, and about 780 from Lima, towards the ſouth-eaſt. It was formerly very conſiderable on account of the rich mines in it's neighbourhood, many of which are now neglected.

POTOSI, a moſt famous place on account of the rich ſilver mines in it's neighbourhood, is about 60 miles diſtant from La Plata to the ſouth eaſt. It ſtands at the bottom of a hill called the Silver Hill, which is round like a ſugar-loaf. The king obliges the neighbouring pariſhes to ſend thither a certain number of Indians yearly, to work at the mines. Captain Rogers obſerves, that there are 1500 or 2000 of them conſtantly employed in that work; they have two reals a day, and are paid every Sunday. The corregidores, or chief magiſtrates, cauſe them to ſet out on the feaſt of Corpus Chriſti; moſt of them go to that ſervitude with tears in their eyes, and with the greateſt reluctancy: however, after a year's duty, there are many who forget their habitations, and continue ſettled at Potoſi, which is the reaſon why that town is ſo populous.

This place is ſaid to be very cold: they have great froſts and ſnows here in May, June, and July. Proviſions are very ſcarce in the town, and they have no firing but charcoal, which is brought from 30 to 50 leagues diſtance. Knivet in his remarks ſays, that, in his time, they were well ſupplied with every thing from the South-Sea, and that the natives of the adjoining country trafficked in gold and precious ſtones. The mines here were diſcovered by mere chance, 12 years after the Spaniards had entered the country. In 1545, Villaroele, who was a Spaniard, and an Indian, named Guanea, began with opening two mines: they called one Rica, and the other Diego Centeno. The former was raiſed above the ſurface of the earth, in the form of a cock's-comb, about the heighth of a lance, and was 300 feet in length, by 13 in breadth: this mine was ſo rich, that almoſt half of the ore was pure and fine ſilver, to the depth of 50 or 60 fathoms, where it began to change a little. The third mine, which was called Del Eſtauno, becauſe of the hardneſs of the flints, was begun ſoon after the former two, and the fourth, called Mendieta, was opened in Auguſt 1545. Nothing can come up to the riches of thoſe mines: it appears from the royal regiſters, that, ſeveral years after they were diſcovered, there were brought every Saturday to the licentiate Pol, who was preſident at Potoſi, 150, and ſometimes 200,000 peſos, that he might take the fifth part for the king of Spain: and it appears from the accounts of perſons who were very well informed, that the king's fifth part amounted to 76 millions. The excellency of theſe mines will further appear from this particular, that, though they had dug 200 fathoms deep, yet they were not incommoded with any water.

Theſe mines are much decayed in their value, and the mint does not coin one quarter of what they did formerly. There were once 120 mills; and at this time there are only 40, and, for the moſt part of the year, there is no employment for half of them.

PORCO is about 20 miles to the weſt of Potoſi: it was alſo famous formerly, for it's ſilver mines, before thoſe of Potoſi were diſcovered, which being richer, and not incommoded by water, drew all the undertakers and workmen from Porco; but ſince the mines of Potoſi are decayed, it is probable thoſe of Porco may be opened again.

LA PAZ is ſeated near the ſpring-head of a river called Choqueaſſo, from which this town is alſo called by that name. It is about 210 miles diſtant from La Plata to the north-weſt, and 125 from the ſea-coaſt to the eaſt. It is a ſmall town, but pleaſantly ſituated in a fine plain, full of ſprings, fruit-trees and fields of maiz, with mountains on each ſide. It has many rich gold mines, and good ſalt-pits.

ARICA lies in ſouth latitude 18. 27. and in longitude 70. 20. weſt from London, and above 245 miles from Potoſi to the north-weſt.

A league up is the village of ST MICHAEL DE SAPA, where they begin to cultivate the agi, that is, Guinea pepper, which is ſown throughout all the reſt of the vale of Arica. In that little ſpace of the vale, which is very narrow, and not above ſix leagues long, they ſell yearly of it to the value of above 80,000 crowns.

LOS REYES. This province has on the north the audience of Quito, on the eaſt the Cordillera mountains, on the ſouth the audience of Los Charcos, and on the weſt the South Sea. It's extent from north to ſouth, is about ſeven hundred miles; but it's breadth is very unequal, both on account of the bending of the coaſt, and becauſe it is in many places pent in by the mountains.

This country abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, quickſilver, vermillion, and ſalt. They have plenty of cattle, fowl, and fiſh, and all proviſions common to us, except butter, inſtead of which they uſe lard.

They have oil, wine, and brandy enough though not ſo good as in Europe. They drink much of the jeſuits herb camini brought from Paraguay by land, whence it is alſo called the herb of Paraguay [ſee PARAGUAY]; for all Eaſt-India tea is prohibited. The Spaniſh writers in general ſay, that for five hundred leagues in length, from Tumbez to Chili, it never thunders, lightens, nor rains, but the want of this is ſupplied by great dews; ſo that they have as good fruit and corn, particularly wheat, as any in Europe. In the valleys near the ſea, the climate is hot, but tempered with breezes from the ſea and mountains. In the hilly parts, far into the country, it is winter, and very rainy, when it is ſummer, in the plains, though in the ſame latitude. The product, beaſts and birds, are much the ſame with other parts of the South-Sea coaſt. (Rogers.) Zuratte, the Spaniſh hiſtorian, has given us the natural cauſe of the perpetual drought there is in this country. He obſerves, that the ſouth-weſt winds blow upon the Peruvian coaſt all the year round, and the ocean here is therefore called Pacific, becauſe theſe winds never diſturb the waters. Theſe eaſy gales always bear away the vapours from the plains, before they can riſe, and form a body ſufficient to deſcend in a ſhower: but when they are carried farther and higher, they grow more compact, and at length fall by their own weight into rain. (Betagh.)

LIMA, the capital of all this province, and of all Peru, is ſeated in 12 degrees, 6 minutes, and 28 ſeconds of ſouth latitude, and in the 77th, 15 minutes of longitude weſt from London, and five miles eaſt from the port of Callao, which is it's harbour. This city is in ſome ſort the repoſitory of all the treaſures of Peru. It was computed ſome years ago, that above ſix millions of crowns (or 1,200,000 pounds ſterling) were expended there, but it muſt be much abated at preſent.

For the regulation of trade, there is a conſulſhip, where a prior or chief, and two conſuls preſide, who are choſen from among the merchants who beſt underſtand trade.

CALLAO is the harbour of Lima, from which it is two leagues or ſix miles diſtant to the weſtward: it extends along the ſea-coaſt, ſo that it is much longer than it is broad.

The town is built on a low, flat point of land on the ſea-ſhore. It's trade is conſiderable. From Chili they bring cordage, leather, tallow, dried fiſh, and corn; from Chiloe, cedar planks, woollen manufactures, and particularly carpets, like thoſe of Turkey; from Peru, ſugars of Andaguaylas, Guayaquil, and other places; wine and brandy from Lanaſco and Piſco; maſts, cordage, timber for ſhipping, cacao of Guayaquil, and the country about it, tobacco, and ſome little honey of ſugar. The cacao is afterwards tranſported to Mexico: from Mexico, as from Sonſonate, Realejo, and Guatimata, they bring hither pitch and tar, which is only fit for wood, becauſe it burns the cordage; woods for dyeing, ſulphur, and balſam, which bears the name of balſam of Peru, but in reality comes from Guatamala. There are two ſorts of it, white and brown; the latter is moſt valued; they put it into cacao-ſhells, when it is of the conſiſtence of tar, but generally it comes liquid in earthen pots, and then it is liable to be falſified, and mixed with oil to increaſe the quantity. From the ſame places they bring fine works, which they call caray, and commodities of China, by the way of Acapulco, though contraband goods. The French had formerly a conſiderable trade here.

CUSCO lies in the 13th degree, and 15 minutes of ſouth latitude, and 71, 30, of longitude weſt from London. It is above 326 miles diſtant from Lima, towards the eaſt. It ſtands in an uneven country, ſurrounded with mountains on every ſide, near the river Yucay and Apurina.

The gold and ſilver of Peru was brought in great plenty to Cuſco, in the neighbourhood of which there are very rich mines, which have been in ſome manner neglected, becauſe thoſe of Potoſi afford much more ſilver, and with leſs danger. The mines of Lampa, and thoſe of Cordillera de Cuſco, are very conſiderable, though there be others much richer towards the Moxos, where the Indians have plenty of gold, but they are of a ſavage and fierce temper. The Spaniards have ſome little trade with the nations that dwell beyond the mountains of Cuſco.

There are in this city, manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, which are ſome ſmall prejudice to the trade of Europe. They alſo make ſome ſorts of work in leather, as well for the uſe of men, as for the furniture of horſes and mules. This city is alſo famous for the vaſt number of pictures the Indians make there, and wherewith, wretched as they are, they ſupply the whole kingdom. (Frezier.)

GUAMANCA is 180 miles from Lima towards the eaſt. It's principal trade conſiſts in leather, and boxes of confectionary, paſtes, marmelades, jellies, preſerved quinces, and other ſweetmeats, which are moſt eſteemed in the kingdom, where there is a conſiderable conſumption of them. They alſo make here pavilions, which ſerve inſtead of bed-curtains, whereof there is a famous manufacture here, as there is of ſeveral ſorts of painted and gilt leather. The town is ſeated at the foot of a high mountain, in a very healthy country, fruitful in all ſorts of proviſions. The province abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, ſulphur, and load-ſtones. About 9 leagues to the north-weſt of Guamanca, are the famous mines of Guancavelica, from which they take great quantities of quickſilver. The mines of Palcas, in the territory of Guamanca, being diſcovered, the Spaniards flocked thither to get the quickſilver, which is of great uſe to extract the ſilver. They get every year from the mines of Guancavelica, quickſilver to the amount of a million of livres. (De Laet.)

GUAN-

GUANCAVELICA is a ſmall town, but rich, and famous for the vaſt quantity of quickſilver taken there from a mine, which is forty Spaniſh yards in front, and alone furniſhes all the gold and ſilver mills in that kingdom, ſays Frezier; but this muſt be a miſtake, ſince there are other rich mines of quickſilver, which are worked as well as this. Private perſons, adds he, work there at their own expence, and are obliged to deliver up to the king all they get, upon pain of forfeiture of their eſtates, baniſhment, and perpetual ſervitude at Baldivia. His Majeſty pays a ſet price for the ſame, which is ſixty pieces of eight the quintal, or hundred weight, upon the ſpot, and he ſells it for eighty, at the remote mines.

When a ſufficient quantity has been taken out, the king cauſes the mouth of the mine to be ſtopped up, and no man can have any, but what comes from the king's ſtores. The earth or mineral which contains the quickſilver, is of a whitiſh red, like ill burnt brick; they pound it, and put it into an earthen furnace, the head or top of which is a vault, like the top of an oven, a little ſpheroid. They lay it on an iron grate covered with earth, under which they keep a ſmall fire, made of the ſhrub they call jeho, which is more proper for that purpoſe, than any other combuſtible matter; for which reaſon there is a prohibition to cut it within twenty leagues round. The heat paſſes through that earth, and ſo fires the pounded mineral, that the quickſilver flies out volatile in ſmoak; but the top or covering being cloſe ſtopped, it finds no way out, but only through a little hole, which conveys it to a ſucceſſion of earthen veſſels like gourds, round, and joined by the necks; there the ſmoke circulates and condenſes, by means of a little water there is at the bottom of each gourd, into which the quickſilver falls condenſed, and in a well formed liquid.

It is leſs formed in the firſt gourds than in the laſt; and becauſe they grow ſo hot that they break, care is taken to cool the outſides of them with water. In this town there is another thing peculiar, which is a ſpring, whoſe water petrifies ſo eaſily, and ſo quick, that moſt of the houſes in the town are built with it.

TRUXILLO is 250 miles diſtant from Lima, towards the north-weſt. It ſtands near the ſea-ſhore, on the banks of a little river, near ſome rocky hillocks. There is a great deal of ſugar grows in the valley of Chacama, or Chicama, near this town.

It has a great trade for flour, braudy, ſugar, wine, and marmelade, of which they export three or four ſhips-loads every year, with which they ſupply the city of Panama.

QUITO. This province is bounded on the eaſt by part of the Amazon's country, on the ſouth by the audience of Los Reyes, on the weſt it hath the South-Sea, and on the north the country called Popayan. It's extent along the ſea-coaſt is from Punta de l'Aguja, or the Needle-Point, in the ſixth degree of ſouth latitude, to the river of Emeralds in the fifth degree of north latitude, which is ſeven degrees, or four hundred and twenty miles. It's breadth, in ſome places, is three hundred and ſixty miles eaſtward, in others more, and in others leſs. The Spaniards divide it into three diſtricts, which they call Quito Proper, Los Quixos, and Los Pacafnores. The climate here, ſays De Laet, is rather cold than hot. The winter continues from October 'till March, during which time they have heavy rains, but without any ſnow, except in the mountains of Andes. They have abundance of cows and ſheep, which multiply wonderfully here. They have a great deal of ſaltpetre in many places where the ſoil is marſhy, and make very good gunpowder of it. They have alſo excellent ſulphur or brimſtone, which is as clear as the ſaltpetre, and of a gold colour. They gather it out of the veins that are near the gold mines, of which there are ſeveral in this country, as well as of ſilver, quickſilver, and copper. They have alſo emeralds, and medicinal drugs, ſays captain Rogers.

QUITO, the capital city of this province, ſtands in 20 minutes of ſouth latitude, and in the 76th degree, 50 minutes of longitude weſt from London; about ſeven hundred and twenty miles diſtant from Lima, to the north. It is ſeated in a valley, that is bounded on the north and weſt by a ridge of very ſteep mountains, which extend from Porto Vejo, on the South-Sea, to Cartagena on the North-Sea. The ſoil about the city is very dry and ſandy, and a-croſs the city there is in the ground a large opening, over which there are ſeveral bridges. Wine, oil, ſpices, and other European merchandizes, are brought hither from the South-Sea, firſt by the river of Guayaquil, and then by land-carriage. The Indians alſo have here their fairs and markets, and ſell their wares, not by any certain weight or meaſure, but by way of barter or exchange. They bring hither fruit, cattle, cheeſe, of ſheep, cows, and goats milk; cloaths made of cotton, all ſorts of cloths, caps, cables, wool, flax, and leather. (De Laet.)

TACUNGA is about twenty miles diſtant from Quito, to the ſouth. It is a very populous town; the inhabitants weave woollen-cloth, in which they drive a great trade.

ZAMORA is about two hundred and ten miles diſtant from Quito to the ſouth, and a hundred and twenty from the neareſt coaſt of the South-Sea to the eaſt. In the neighbourhood of the town of Zamora, there are gold mines, from which they have taken grains of a prodigious bigneſs. There are alſo ſeveral ſprings, ſome of ſalt water, of which they make very good ſalt in great plenty.

GUAYAQUIL is about 185 miles diſtant from Quito to the ſouth-weſt, and 565 from Lima towards the ſouth. The town is well ſeated for trade, and the building of ſhips, for which they have ſheds to cover the workmen from the ſun. It may be reckoned one of the chiefeſt ſea-ports in the South-Seas. The commodities that are exported from thence are cacao, hides, tallow, ſarſaparilla, and other drugs, with woollen cloth, commonly called cloth of Quito, becauſe it is made in that city. This and all other commodities which come from Quito, are ſhipped off at Guayaquil for other parts, and all imported goods for the city of Quito paſs by Guayaquil; by which it may appear, that this is a place of no mean trade. (Dampier.)

General REMARKS on PERU.

There are two ſorts of ſilver mines at Peru, the one where ſilver is found ſcattered about in ſmall quantities, the other where it runs in a vein between two rocks; the one exceſſively hard, and the other much ſofter; and it is theſe laſt which beſt deſerve, and are generally diſtinguiſhed by the name of the ſilver mines.

This metal, which is in other countries the ſtandard or meaſure of riches, is in Peru the riches of the country conſidered in another light; we mean that of a natural commodity; for, throughout the whole of that vaſt country, there are almoſt every where ſilver mines to be met with of more or leſs value, according as the ore produces more or leſs ſilver, and can be wrought at a greater or leſs expence.

There are ſome, but not a great many mines, to the northward of Lima; but to the ſouth they are very numurous. On the back of the Andes there lies a nation of Indians, called Los Plateros, or the Platemen, from the vaſt quantities they poſſeſs of ſilver; but the Spaniards have very little communication with them. The beſt part of the mine-countries are to the ſouth of Cuſco, from thence to Potoſi, and ſo to the frontiers of Chili; and where for the ſpace of three hundred miles, there is a continued ſucceſſion of mines; ſome being diſcovered, and others deſerted every day. It is a common thing for the people here, as well as elſewhere, to complain of the preſent times, and commend the paſt, as if heretofore there were infinitely greater quantities of ſilver dug out of the mines, than at preſent, and, perhaps, with regard to particular mines, it may be ſo; but, upon the whole, doubtleſs the quantities of ſilver that are annually obtained in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, abundantly exceed what was formerly exported from thence. As to the names of thoſe which have been moſt remarkable, or are ſo at preſent in the country of Peru, they are theſe, viz. the mines of Loxa and Camora, Cuenca, Puerto Vejo, St Juan del Oro; theſe are wrought at preſent: thoſe of Oruro and Titiri are neglected; thoſe of Porco and Plata are filled up.

At Potoſi there is a great number of mines, and thoſe of Tomina, Chocaia, Atacuma, Xuxui, the Chalchaques, Guaſco, Iquique, &c. are all wrought with more or leſs profit; and this according to the ſkill of their proprietors, or of ſuch as have the direction of theſe works.

It is generally believed, and there ſeems to be ſome reaſon for it, that experience has taught the people here a perfect acquaintance with minerals, and the art of treating them, ſo as to obtain the largeſt profit. But, however, when one conſiders their ignorance in other arts, their going on conſtantly in the ſame beaten track in this, together with their vaſt waſte of quickſilver, we are tempted to believe, that our European miners might manage their works to ſtill greater advantage.

This ſeems the more probable, when we reflect, that this knowlege of theirs is not at all founded upon principles; but is, properly ſpeaking, an art built upon accidental diſcoveries, in which there is little of accuracy, and abundance of uncertainty; which will be more evident to the reader, when he has peruſed and conſidered the following account of the manner in which the ſilver is extracted from the ore at the mines.

The moſt perfect ſilver that comes from thence, is that which the Spaniards call pinnas; that is a lump of ſilver extremely porous, becauſe it is the remainder of a part made up of ſilver duſt and mercury, and the latter being exhaled, leaves this remainder of the maſs ſpongy and light. It is this kind of ſilver that is put into different forms by the merchants, in order to cheat the king of his duty; and therefore all ſilver in this condition, if found any where on the road, or on board any ſhip, is looked upon as contraband goods, and is liable to ſeizure.

In regard to the art of refining therefore, we ſhall ſhew the progreſs of the ore, from the mine to this kind of maſs or cake. After having broken the ſtone, taken out of the vein of ore, they grind it in their mills with grindſtones, or in the ingenios reales, or royal engines, which conſiſt of hammers, or pounders, like the French plaiſter mills. They have generally a wheel about twenty-five or thirty feet diameter, whoſe

whoſe long axletree is ſet with ſmooth triangles, which, as they turn, hook or lay hold of the iron hammers, lift them up to a certain height, and from whence they drop at once at every turn; they generally weigh about two hundred weight, and fall ſo violently, that they reduce the hardeſt ſtones to powder. They afterwards ſift that powder through iron or copper ſieves, to take away the fineſt, and return the reſt to the mill.

When the ore happens to be mixed with ſome metals, which obſtruct it's falling to powder, as copper, &c. they calcine it in an oven, and pound it over again. In the little mines, where they uſe none but mills with grindſtones, they, for the moſt part grind the ore with water, which makes a liquid mud that runs into a receiver: whereas, when it is ground dry, it muſt be afterwards ſteeped, and well moulded together with the feet, for a long time. To this purpoſe they make a floor, where they diſpoſe that mud in ſquare parcels, about a foot thick, each of them containing half a caxon or cheſt, that is twenty-five quintals, or hundred weight of ore, and theſe they call cuerpos, that is, bodies.

On each of them they throw about two hundred weight of ſea or common ſalt, more or leſs, according to the nature of the ore, which they mould and incorporate with the earth, for two or three days. Then they add to it a certain quantity of quickſilver, ſqueezing a purſe made of a ſkin, wherein they put it to make it fall in drops, with which they ſprinkle the maſs equally, according to the nature and quality of the ore. They allow to each maſs, ten, fifteen, or twenty pounds; for the richer it is, the more mercury it requires to draw to it the ſilver contained: ſo that they know not the quantity, but by long experience.

An Indian is employed to mould one of theſe ſquare parcels eight times a day, to the end that the mercury may incorporate with the ſilver. To that effect, they often mix lime with it, when the ore happens to be greaſy, where caution is to be uſed: for, they ſay, it ſometimes grows ſo hot, that they neither find mercury or ſilver in it, which ſeems incredible.

Sometimes they alſo ſtrew among it ſome lead or tin ore, to facilitate the operation of the mercury, which is ſlower in very cold weather, than when it is very temperate; for which reaſon, at Potoſi and Lipes they are often obliged to mould the ore during a whole month or ſix weeks; but in more moderate climates, the amalgama is made in eight or ten days.

To facilitate the operation of the mercury, they in ſome places, as at Puno, aud elſewhere, make their buiterons, or floors, on arches, under which they keep fire to heat the powder of the ore for twenty-four hours, on a pavement of bricks.

When it is thought that the mercury has attracted all the ſilver, the aſſayer takes a little ore from each parcel a-part, which he waſhes in a ſmall earthen plate, or wooden bowl, and by the colour of the mercury found at the bottom of the bowl, knows whether it has had it's effect; for when it is blackiſh, the ore is too much heated, and then they add more ſalt or ſome other drug. They ſay that then the mercury diſpara, that is, ſhoots, or flies away. If the mercury is white, they put a drop under the thumb, and preſſing it haſtily, the ſilver there is amongſt it, remains ſticking to the thumb, and the mercury ſlips away in little drops.

In concluſion, when they perceive that all the ſilver is gathered, they carry the ore to a baſon, into which a little ſtream of water runs to waſh it. Much in the ſame nature as we ſhall ſhew they waſh gold, excepting that this being only a mud without ſtones, inſtead of an hook to ſtir it, an Indian ſtirs it with his feet to diſſolve it.

From the firſt baſon it falls into a ſecond, where another Indian is, who ſtirs it again to diſſolve it thoroughly and looſen the ſilver. From the ſecond it paſſes into a third, where the ſame is repeated; to the end, that what has not ſunk to the bottom of the firſt and ſecond, may not eſcape the third.

When all has been waſhed, and the water runs clear, they find at the bottom of the baſons, which are lined with leather, the mercury incorporated with the ſilver, which they call lapella. It is put into a woollen bag, hanging up for ſome of the quickſilver to drain through. They bind, beat, and preſs it, laying a weight upon it with flat pieces of wood; and when they have got out as much as they can, they put the paſte into a mould of wooden planks, which being bound together, generally form the figure of an octagon pyramid cut ſhort, at the bottom whereof is a copper plate full of little holes. There they ſtir, in order to faſten it; and when they deſign to make many pinnas, as they call them, that is, lumps of various weights; they divide them with little beds, or layers of earth, which hinder their coming together. To that end, the pella, or maſs, muſt be weighed, deducting two thirds for the mercury that is in it, and they know within a ſmall matter what net ſilver there is.

They then take off the mould, and place the pinna with it's copper baſe on a trivet, or ſuch like inſtrument, ſtanding over a great earthen veſſel full of water, and cover it with an earthen cap, which they again cover with lighted coals, and they feed the fire for ſome hours, that the maſs may grow violently hot, and the mercury that is in it evaporate in ſmoke; but that ſmoke having no paſſage out, it circulates in the hollow, that is, between the maſs and cap, 'till coming down to the water that is underneath, it condenſes to the bottom again, converted into quickſilver.

Thus little of it is loſt, and the ſame ſerves ſeveral times; but the quantity muſt be increaſed, becauſe it grows weak. However, they formerly conſumed at Potoſi ſix or ſeven thouſand quintals, or hundred weight, of quickſilver every year, as Acoſta writes, by which a judgment may be made of the ſilver they got. When the mercury is evaporated, there remains nothing but a ſpongy lump of contiguous grains of ſilver, very light and almoſt mouldering, which the Spaniards call la pinna, and is obſerved as a contraband commodity from the mines; becauſe, by the laws of the kingdom, they are obliged to carry it to the king's receipt, or to the mint, to pay the fifth to his majeſty there.

Thoſe maſſes are caſt into ingots, on which the arms of the crown are ſtamped, as alſo that of the place where they were caſt, their weight and quality, with the fineneſs of the ſilver. It is always certain, that the ingots which have paid the fifth have no fraud in them; but it is not ſo with the pinnas or maſſes not caſt: thoſe who make them, often convey into the middle of them, iron, ſand, and other things, to increaſe the weight; ſo that, in prudence, they ought to be opened, and made red hot at the fire, for the more certainty; for if falſified, the fire will either turn it black or yellow, or melt it more eaſily.

This trial is alſo to extract a moiſture they contract in places where they are laid, on purpoſe to make them the heavier. In ſhort, their weight may be increaſed one third, by dipping them in water when they are red hot, as alſo by ſeparating the mercury, with which the bottom of the maſs is always more impregnated than the top. It alſo ſometimes happens, that this ſame maſs is of different fineneſs.

The ſtones taken from the mines, the ore, or, to ſpeak in the language of Peru, the mineray, from which the ſilver is extracted, is not always of the ſame nature, conſiſtence, or colour.

There are ſome white and grey, mixed with red or blueiſh ſpots, which is called plata blanca, or white ſilver. The mines of Lipes are moſt of them of this ſort. For the moſt part there appear ſome little grains of ſilver, and very often ſmall branches, extending along the layers of the ſtone. There are ſome, on the other hand, as black as the droſs of iron, in which the ſilver does not appear, called oregrillo, that is blackiſh: ſometimes it is black with lead, for which reaſon it is called plomo ronco, that is, coarſe lead, in which the ſilver appears as if ſcratched with ſomething that is harſh, and it is generally the richeſt, and got with leaſt charge; becauſe, inſtead of moulding it with quickſilver, it is melted in furnaces, where the lead evaporates by dint of fire, and leaves the ſilver pure and clean.

From that ſort of mines, the Indians drew their ſilver; becauſe, having no uſe of mercury, as the Europeans have, they only wrought thoſe whoſe ore would melt; and, having but little wood, they heated their furnaces with ylo, and the dung of lamas or ſheep, or other beaſts, expoſing them on the mountains, that the wind might keep the fire fierce. This is all the ſecret the hiſtorians of Peru ſpeak of, as of ſomething wonderful. There is another ſort of ore like this, as black, and in which the ſilver does not appear at all; on the contrary, if it be wetted and rubbed againſt iron, it turns red; for which reaſon it is called roſicler, ſignifying the ruddineſs of the dawn of the day: this is very rich, and affords the fineſt ſilver.

There is ſome that glitters like talck or iſinglaſs; this yields little ſilver; the name of it is zoroche: the peel, which is of a yellowiſh red, is very ſoft and broken in bits, but ſeldom rich; and the mines of it are wrought on account of the eaſineſs of getting the ore: there is ſome green not much harder than the laſt, called cobriſſo, or copperiſh; it is very rare: however, though the ſilver generally appears in it, and it is almoſt mouldering, it is the hardeſt to be managed, that is, to have the ſilver extracted from it; ſometimes, after being ground, it muſt be burnt in the fire, and ſeveral other methods uſed to ſeparate it, doubtleſs becauſe it is mixed with copper.

Laſtly, There is another ſort of very rare ore, which has been found at Potoſi only, in the mine Cotamiſo, being threads of pure ſilver, intangled together like burnt lace, ſo fine that they called it Arana, ſpider, from it's reſemblance to a cobweb.

The veins of mines, of what ſort ſoever they be, are generally richer in the middle, than towards the edges; and when two veins happen to croſs one another, the place where they meet, is always rich: it is alſo obſerved, that thoſe which lie north and ſouth, are richer than thoſe which lie any other way. Thoſe which are new places, where mills can be erected, and that are more commodiouſly wrought, are often preferable to the richer, that require more expence, which is the reaſon that at Lipes and Potoſi, a cheſt of ore muſt yield ten marks, of eight ounces each mark of ſilver, to pay the charges, and at thoſe of the province of Tarama, five pay them.

When they are rich and ſink downwards, they are ſubject to be flooded, and then they muſt have recourſe to pumps and machines, or elſe drain them by thoſe they call cocabones,

being paſſages made in the ſide of the mountain for the water to run out at, which often ruin the owners by the exceſſive expence they inſenſibly draw them into.

There are other ways of ſeparating the ſilver from the ſtones that confine it, and from the other metals that are mixed with it, by fire or ſtrong ſeparating water, made uſe of at ſome mines, where other means fail, and where they make a ſort of ingots, which they call bollas; but the moſt general and uſeful method is to make pinnas or maſſes, abovementioned, which are preferred to other forms, on account of their eaſineſs in making, and that they ſave ſome ingredients, which is a thing of conſequence in works of this nature, where to ſave in the expence, has the ſame effect as finding the mine.

It is very natural to ſuppoſe, that in mines, as well as other things, there happens great variation in their product, and in the value of the product. The mines which very lately yielded moſt ſilver, are thoſe of Orura, a little town eighty leagues from Arica: in the year 1712, one ſo rich was diſcovered at Ollachea, near Cuſco, that it yielded two thouſand five hundred marks, of eight ounces each, out of every cheſt, that is, almoſt one fifth part of the ore; but it has declined much, and is now reckoned among the ordinary ſort.

Next to theſe are thoſe at Lipes, which have had the ſame fate.

Laſtly, Thoſe at Potoſi yield but little, and cauſe a vaſt expence, by reaſon of their great depth. But notwithſtanding the mines here are far diminiſhed in their product, yet the quantity of ore that has been already wrought, and laid many years upon the ſurface, is thought capable to yield a ſecond crop; which is a proof that theſe minerals generate in the earth, like all other inanimate things; and it is likewiſe certain, from all accounts of the Spaniards, that gold and ſilver, as well as other metals, are continually growing and forming themſelves in the bowels of their natural earths.

This opinion is verified by experience, in the mountain of Potoſi, where ſeveral mines have fallen in, and buried the workmen with their tools; after ſome years they have dug the ſame place, and diſcovered many bones and pieces of wood, with veins of ſilver actually running through them.

Theſe mines belong to him who firſt diſcovers them: he immediately preſents a petition to the magiſtrates, to have ſuch a piece of earth for his own, which is no ſooner done than granted. They meaſure eighty Spaniſh yards in length, and forty over, which is about twelve hundred feet in length, and one hundred in breadth, and yield it to the diſcoverer, who chuſes what ſpace he thinks fit, and does what he pleaſes with it. Then they meaſure juſt the ſame quantity for the king, which is ſold to the beſt bidder, there being many who are willing to purchaſe a treaſure which may prove ineſtimable. If any other perſon has a mind to work part of the mine himſelf, he bargains with the proprietor for a particular vein; all that ſuch a one digs out is his own, paying the king's duty, which is, for gold a twentieth part, and for ſilver a fifth; and ſome landlords find ſuch an account in letting out their ground and their mills, that they live upon the profit, without any hazard.

At Copiapo there are gold mines juſt beyond the town, and all about the country likewiſe, which have brought many purchaſers and workmen thither, to the great damage of the Indians; for the Spaniſh magiſtrates take away not only their lands but their horſes, which they ſell to the new proprietors, under pretence of ſerving the king, and improving their ſettlements. There is alſo a great deal of magnet and lapis lazuli, which the Indians know not the value of. And ſome leagues in the country, there is plenty of ſalt and ſaltpetre, which often lies an inch thick on the ground. About an hundred miles eaſt upon the Cordelier mountains, there is a vein of ſulphur two feet wide, ſo fine and pure, that it needs no cleaning.

This part of the country is full of all ſorts of mines, but in other reſpects is ſo barren, that the natives fetch all their ſubſiſtence from Coquimbo; and that way being a mere deſart for three hundred miles together, and the earth abounding ſo much with ſalt and ſulphur, that the mules often periſh for want of graſs and ſweet water. There is but one river in two hundred miles, which the Indians call ancalalue, or hypocrite, becauſe it runs only from ſun riſe to ſun ſet; this is occaſioned from the great quantity of ſnow melted from the Cordeliers in the day time, which freezes again at night, where the cold is often ſo great, that the peoples features are quite diſtorted.

Hence Chili takes it's name, the word ſignifying cold in the Indian language; and we are certainly informed by the Spaniſh hiſtorians, that ſome of their countrymen and others, who firſt traded this way, died ſtiff with cold upon their mules; for which reaſon, the road is now always lower towards the coaſt.

We come now to the ſecond point, which is the regular commerce carried on between the inhabitants of the dominions of the crown of Spain in Europe, with thoſe of America.

The method in which this trade is carried on, is well enough known in general, but few enter far enough into it's particulars. In order to give as diſtinct an account of this matter as poſſible, we ſhall ſpeak of the galleons, the flota, and the flotilla, regiſter ſhips, and guarda coſtas, though we have occaſionally touched upon theſe points under ſeveral other heads; and when we have done this, the reader will perfectly comprehend the myſtery of the Spaniſh policy in this point.

A galleon is, properly ſpeaking, a very large man of war, of three or four decks, built in a manner now altogether out of faſhion, except in Spain; and the reaſon why it is ſtill uſed there is, that it affords a great deal of room for merchandize, with which the king's ſhips are generally ſo much crowded, as to be in no condition of defending themſelves.

That fleet which we call the galleons, conſiſts of eight ſuch men of war; of theſe there are three very large ones, ſtiled la Capitana, la Admirante, and il Governo, two others which are leſs, la Patacha, and la Margarita, each of 50 guns, and and an advice frigate of forty. The merchantmen which ſail with this fleet, and purchaſe their licences at a very high rate, are in number from twelve to ſixteen, and in burthen at leaſt a third part bigger, than is expreſſed in their reſpective ſchedules. Theſe ſhips are intended to carry all that is neceſſary, either of warlike ſtores or merchandize for Peru, and this is the ſpecific difference between this fleet and the flota, which is intended for Mexico. See GALLEONS.

In time of peace ('till ſince that of Aix la Chapelle) the galleons ſail regularly once a year from Cadiz, at no ſet time, but according to the king's pleaſure, and the convenience of the merchants. From Cadiz the galleons ſteer directly for the Canaries, where, if the flota fails with them as it ſometimes does, they anchor together in the haven at Gomera: thence they bear away for the Antilles, and when they arrive at that height, the flota ſeparates, and the galleons bear away for Carthegena. As ſoon as they double the Cape de la Vela, and appear before the mouth of Rio de la Hacha, advice is ſent to all parts, that every thing may be got ready for their reception.

In the harbour of Carthagena they remain a month, and land there all the goods deſigned for the audience of the Terra Firma; then they ſail to Porto Bello, where they continue during the fairs, which laſt five or ſix weeks; and having landed the merchandize intended for Peru, and received the treaſure and rich commodities ſent from thence on board, they ſail again to Carthagena, where they remain 'till they return to Spain, which is uſually within the ſpace of two years. When they have orders to return, they ſail firſt to the Havannah, and having there joined the flota, and what other ſhips are returning to Europe, they ſteer through the gulph of Florida, and ſo to the ſtraight of Carolina, where meeting with the weſtern winds, they ſhape their courſe then for the Azores: they take in freſh water and proviſions at Tercera, and thence continue their voyage to Cadiz. The flota conſiſts, as well as the galleons, of a certain number of men of war, and of a certain number of merchant ſhips: the former are ſeldom more than three; la Capitana, la Admirante, and la Patacha: the latter are uſually about ſixteen, in burthen between five hundred and a thouſand tons.

This fleet ſails about the month of Anguſt, that by the favour of the winds, which prevail about November, they may the more eaſily purſue the voyage to La Vera Cruz. In their paſſage they call at Puerto Rico to take in freſh water and proviſions, then paſs in ſight of Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba; and according to the ſeaſon of the year, and the nature of the winds, paſs either by the coaſt of Jucatan, or higher, through the gulph of La Vera Cruz, which lies at the bottom of it. See FLOTA and MEXICO.

The run of this fleet, according to the courſe we have mentioned, hath been thus computed: from Cadiz to the Canaries, two hundred and fifty leagnes, in about ten days: to the Antilles, eight hundred leagues in twenty days; to the moſt weſtern point of the iſle of Cuba, five hundred leagues in twenty days; to Vera Cruz, two hundred and ſixty leagues in twelve days or thereabouts; in all, eighteen hundred and ten leagues, in about ſixty-two days.

As the flota is deſigned to furniſh not only Mexico, but the Philippine Iſlands alſo, in order to ſupply the trade of Acapulco with European goods, they are obliged to remain there for a conſiderable ſpace, and, when it is neceſſary, they winter in that part. The cargo with which they return, is not ſo rich as that of the gallions; but 'till this method was laid aſide, it increaſed annually in it's value; which muſt be owing to the progreſs made in ſettling what the Spaniards call the kingdom of New Mexico.

It is uſually in the month of May that the flota leaves La Vera Cruz, though ſometimes it is detained in that harbour 'till Auguſt. Then the ſhips that compoſe it ſail for the Havannah, for though the galleons and the flota ſeldom leave Spain at the ſame time, yet they generally return together. As ſoon as they are ſafely arrived at the Havanna, they detach a few of the lighteſt and cleaneſt ſhips to Europe, who, beſides money and merchandize, carry alſo an exact account of the contents both of the galleons and flota. Theſe ſhips are called by the Spaniards with propriety enough the flotilla, i. e. the little fleet. The principal reaſon of ſending them in this manner into Spain, is to give the court of Madrid an opportunity of judging what convoy may be neceſſary, in caſe of

any

any alteration of affairs, to be ſent to eſcort the grand fleet, as alſo to regulate the indulto [ſee INDULTO], which may be levied on the merchants, in proprtion to their intereſt in the galleons and flota: but the reader may poſſibly incline to enquire, what obliges this great fleet to remain ſo long at the Havannah? To which two cauſes may be aſſigned, viz. waiting for a wind, or for the regiſter ſhips which they are to convoy home.

A regiſter ſhip is ſo called, from it's being regiſtered with all the effects embarked in Spain, in the books kept for that purpoſe in the chamber of Seville. As this general account will not probably appear ſatisfactory, we ſhall endeavour to ſtate the matter more fully.

A company of merchants having, as they conceive, juſt grounds to imagine, that European goods are greatly wanted at ſome particular ports in the Weſt-Indies, they draw up a memorial or petition, containing theſe reaſons in the cleareſt and conciſeſt terms, and lay it before the council of the Indies [ſee INDIA-HOUSE of Spain]. The prayer of this petition is, that they may have leave to ſend a ſhip of three hundred tons burthen, or under, to the port they mention. When leave is obtained, they pay a certain ſum to the crown which is generally between thirty and fifty thouſand piece of eight, beſides preſents, and thoſe no ſmall ones, to the king's officers, from the greateſt to the leaſt.

That this, however, may not induce any ſuſpicion of fraud, they regiſter their ſhip and cargo, that it may appear conſiſtent with their petition and licence; and yet (ſuch a fatality attends on all cuſtom-houſe cautions) this ſhip of under three hundred tons, generally carries upwards of ſix hundred ton of goods, and affords accommodation for paſſengers beſides.

Copies from the regiſter are tranſmitted to the governor and royal officers at the port, to which the regiſter ſhip is bound; and ſuch is their diligence, ſuch their integrity, that when the ſhip comes to an anchor in the port, they make a very narrow enquiry, and yet there is ſeldom or never any fraud diſcovered; but, on the contrary, this ſhip of ſix or ſeven hundred ton, returns into Europe with an authentic certificate from all the king of Spain's officers, that ſhe does not carry quite three hundred, together with a bill of lading, in the ſame ſtrain of computation.

By theſe regiſter ſhips there is ſometimes a gain of two or three hundred per cent. which enables the owners to pay ſo bountifully for cheating the king, having firſt got the money by robbing his ſubjects.

Theſe regiſter ſhips go to Buenos-Ayres, St Martha, Porto Cavallo, and other places, to which neither the galleons nor flota come; yet, generally ſpeaking, they return with thoſe fleets as they ſometimes go out with them, and ſo leave them in a certain latitude. The Spaniſh grandees often intereſt themſelves in procuring ſuch licences; and ſome people do not ſtick to ſay, that they find their account in it.

The profits accruing by this ſort of commerce, making thoſe concerned therein extravagantly rich in a ſhort ſpace of time, the Engliſh and Dutch in the Weſt-Indies, have heretofore had a ſtrong deſire to be dealing this way, without the ceremony of a licence; and for many years they ſucceeded to their wiſh, partly by the connivance of the Spaniſh governors, and partly by employing force.

At length this evil grew ſo flagrant, that the court of Spain determined to put an end to it; and in order thereto, ſent new governors into America with very preciſe orders on this head, declaring at the ſame time, that they ſhould be carried fully into execution.

Theſe inſtructions gave riſe to the guarda coſtas, or guard ſhips, which have ſince made ſo much noiſe in the world, and of which I think it neceſſary to ſpeak more particularly: it cannot be denied, that there was originally good grounds for equipping them, ſince the Engliſh in ſome meaſure, and the Dutch more openly, began to carry on an illicit trade by force.

The Dutch veſſels were from twenty to thirty-ſix guns, and therefore valued nothing the governor of Carthagena could do to prevent their trading on his coaſt; but when the guard ſhips were ſtationed here, they for ſome time put an end to the evil, for falling in with ſome of theſe interlopers, they ſunk one and took two, the cargoes of which were worth upwards of an hundred thouſand pounds; nay, finding on board them ſixteen Spaniſh merchants, who on a ſignal given were come off to trade, they hanged them all without mercy. So far all was right; for without queſtion theſe ſmugglers, not only prejudiced the king of Spain, but even the fair traders of their own nation, by the clandeſtine commerce they carried on.

The captains of the guard ſhips, however, ſoon altered their conduct, and inſtead of taking contraband traders, infeſted the Engliſh commerce, and took, without diſtinction, all they were able, at firſt under very frivolous pretences, and at laſt without any pretence at all.

As the Spaniſh governors reaped a conſiderable profit from the prizes of theſe privateers, or rather pirates, brought into their ports, they were ready to ſend deceitful accounts to the court of Madrid, which produced that ſpirit of obſtinacy, which brought on, all the world knows, the laſt war, and may very poſſibly ſoon bring on another, unleſs this matter is very ſoon happily adjuſted between the two crowns. See the article LOGWOOD, where I have done myſelf the honour to propoſe an expedient for this good purpoſe.

To return, however, to the point before us, and to collect what by theſe different methods comes into Spain from her colonies. This account has been with great induſtry, and, perhaps, without any ſenſible error ſtated thus: in gold, of which the galleons bring home between two and three millions, and the flota generally about one; in ſilver, by the galleons from eighteen to twenty millions, by the flota from ten to twelve: in precious ſtones by the galleons, in pearls two hundred thouſand, in emeralds three hundred thouſand, in bezoares, turquoiſes, amethyſts, &c. thirty thouſand; and of late by the flota ſome turquoiſes, to the amount in the whole of ſix hundred thouſand pieces of eight. In Vigonia wool, by the galleons, fifty thouſand pieces of eight, by the floata none.

Quinquina, by the galleons twenty thouſand pieces of eight, by the flota as much: in raw hides by the galleons, twenty thouſand pieces of eight, by the flota as much. By hides from Buenos-Ayres, in a regiſter ſhip two hundred thouſand pieces of eight; in logwood, by the galleons ſixty thouſand pieces of eight, by the flota none. In cocheneal, by the flota and regiſter ſhips, one million of pieces of eight; in indigo, about two hundred thouſand pieces of eight; in ſugar, tobacco, and other drugs, about two millions of pieces of eight. So that the whole may be computed at thirty-eight millions two hundred and ninety thouſand pieces of eight.

We are now arrived at the laſt point, which is that of diſcoveries. The Spaniards, beyond doubt, have been long pretty much at a ſtand; which how ſtrange ſoever it may appear to us, who ſee what prodigious advantages have attended all diſcoveries, and more eſpecially thoſe made by the anceſtors of theſe Spaniards in the two laſt centuries; yet when we come to reflect coolly upon this matter, we ſhall find that the great impediment of farther diſcoveries, has been the vaſt extent of what is already diſcovered.

However, not to do the Spaniards wrong, we ought in juſtice to obſerve, that they have not been altogether ſo indolent, careleſs, or inactive, as is commonly reported. The kingdom of New Mexico lies without the ſphere of our preſent enquiry, [ſee MEXICO] and therefore we ſhall only ſay here, that they have not only made great diſcoveries, but great conqueſts on this ſide, even in modern times; inſomuch, that thoſe who have been in theſe parts, have aſſured us, THAT THE COMMUNICATION IS OPEN BY THE LAKES, FROM THE NORTH-EAST SPANISH SETTLEMENTS QUITE TO CANADA. See BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, MEXICO, FLORIDA.

To keep, however, to the province of Peru. All the diſcoveries that can be made from thence, muſt be either by land towards the eaſt, or by the ocean towards the weſt; we will ſpeak of each of theſe ſccciſtly.

The countries which are already in the hands of the Spaniards, are of ſo great compaſs, and afford ſuch vaſt riches, that they have no very ſtrong temptation to make either conqueſts or diſcoveries; and as the ſame thing may be ſaid of the Portugueze ſettlements in Brazil, ſo from thence we gather with certainty, that there is a very large country in South America, altogether UNDISCOVERED, or at leaſt UNPOSSESSED BY ANY EUROPEAN NATION.

If any one deſires to be more particularly informed concerning this point, let him examine the beſt maps of South America, which hitherto have been publiſhed, and all the credible relations that have come from thoſe parts, and he will find that this undiſcovered country of which we ſpeak, muſt be in length near two thouſand miles from eaſt to weſt, and near a thouſand broad from north to ſouth.

The people poſſeſſed of theſe parts, are not only the deſcendants from their original inhabitants, but alſo vaſt numbers of Indians who have fled hither from the cruelties of the Spaniards, and if we conſider their multitudes, and the vaſt advantages they have from the ſituation of the countries in which they dwell, we ſhall ſee no juſt reaſon to ſuppoſe they ever will be conquered, unleſs it be by the miſſionaries, in the manner by which they have ſubdued the people of Paraguay. [See the article PARAGUAY.]

However it be, this unknown country contains a great deal more land, as well as many more people, than all the provinces of the Spaniſh empire; and there is good reaſon to believe that it is infinitely more RICH IN SILVER, GOLD, AND JEWELS, as well as in CATTLE, CORN, SUGAR, RICH DRUGS, AND FINE FRUITS.

Of this we can ſcarce doubt, if we reflect on what the beſt Spaniſh writers themſelves affirm, that at the time Pizarro made his firſt eruption into this country of Peru, he found the kitchen utenſils in the meaneſt houſes of GOLD, and their roofs covered WITH TILES OF THE SAME METAL; but there are no ſuch great quantities of gold now to be had, whence we ought to conclude, that this immenſe plenty of that precious metal, came from the INLAND PARTS, of which we have been ſpeaking.

But

But this is ſtill farther demonſtrated, by what has happened to the Creole Spaniards, who inhabit the frontier provinces, by which we mean, thoſe that lie next to that vaſt track of unconquered country. As for inſtance, in the province of POPAYAN, which is ſo called from a city of the ſame name, large, populous, and rich, the biſhop and his clergy have done more for the crown of Spain, than could have been done by a large garriſon, for they have converted many Indians, and by bringing them into the city, and matching them with Creole families, they have introduced a commerce with the free inhabitants of the mountains, which is of infinite ſervice, and may be a means of reducing the whole country.

It is remarked, that the inhabitants of this province are much more active and induſtrious, as well as much braver, than any of the reſt of the natives of New Spain: which is attributed to their continual wars with the free Indians, and their being obliged to make long and hazardous journeys, for the managing their own affairs.

There are in Popayan abundance of large towns, well built, and tolerably fortified; but the open country is much expoſed to the inroads of the Indians, who, whenever they have an advantage, uſe it cruelly enough againſt the Spaniards, towards whom their hate, with juſt reaſon, is implacable. As the northern frontier of this country joins the weſtern iſthmus, which is alſo inhabited by free Indians, the Spaniards are extremely apprehenſive of the ENGLISH MAKING SOME ATTEMPT THIS WAY, AND THEREBY SECURING TO THEMSELVES A SETTLEMENT ON BOTH SEAS: and although there may be ſome difficulties attending an enterprize of this kind, yet it is not impoſſible, but ſucceſs may one day attend an attempt of this kind, if the SPANIARDS CONTINUE TO MALTREAT THIS KINGDOM.—But there is a far eaſier, leſs hazardous, and leſs expenſive, way, to humble Spain than this, if their conduct towards Great-Britain ſhould make it neceſſary, which does not ſeem at all unlikely.

In the like manner there is a very beneficial trade carried on by the inhabitants of the city of Conception, with the Indians behind them, who though they are not ſubjects of the crown of Spain, nor have ever negociated a peace with the Spaniards, yet trade with them, and this in a very particular manner.

Theſe Indians are ſtiled Peulches, and inhabit the Cordillera, or great chain of mountains at the back of Chili, for a ſpace not certainly known, and who retain exactly the ſame manners and cuſtoms they had before the Spaniards arrived here. When a perſon goes to trade with them, he addreſſes himſelf to the cacique, or chief: no ſooner this little prince ſees a ſtranger, than he cries out, What! are ye come? The Spaniard anſwers, Yes, I am come. The cacique's next queſtion is, Well, what have ye brought me? The merchant anſwers, a preſent: to which the prince replies, Then you are welcome. A lodging is inſtantly provided him, near that of the cacique's, whither all his family go to viſit the ſtranger, in hopes he will make them ſome preſents.

In the mean time a horn is ſounded, to give notice to the Indians who are abroad, that the merchant is arrived: upon this they all run to the place where the ſtranger exhibits his treaſure, conſiſting of knives, ſciſſars, pins, needles, ribbands, ſmall looking-glaſſes, &c.

All theſe the Indians carry away without giving any thing for them, only the price is ſettled, and thus the merchant credits folks he never ſaw, and whom, for ought he knows, he may never ſee again.

After a certain time is elapſed, the horn, by the direction of the cacique, is ſounded a ſecond time, when immediately the ſavages return, and exactly perform their reſpective promiſes. The goods they deal in are cattle, ſkins of wild beaſts, and ſome gold, but this they bring only in very ſmall quantities, knowing well how dear the poſſeſſion of that metal hath coſt their neighbours and their anceſtors. As for the other Indians, who were formerly ſubdued, and have now recovered their freedom, they have little or no intercourſe with the Spaniards.

In reſpect to the diſcoveries that have been made of iſlands or countries at any diſtance in the Pacific Ocean, between the continent of Peru and the Philippine Iſlands, they are not much to be boaſted of. The iſlands of Solomon, indeed, are reported to have been worth the ſeeking and poſſeſſing, as being large and pleaſant, having excellent ports, and immenſe treaſures of ſilver; yet in the ſpace of almoſt two hundred years, theſe valuable countries have ſcarce been ſeen, and never ſettled or conquered; nay, ſome who are deſirous of paſſing for men of ſuperior ſenſe, and not to be led away by flying reports, are inclined to think theſe iſlands imaginary; yet if this ſort of wiſdom had prevailed, in Portugal or Spain, when the firſt propoſals for diſcovery were made, we might have known as little of the Eaſt-Indies and of the Weſt, as we now do of theſe iſlands; ſince the reaſons and rumours upon which theſe diſcoveries were undertaken, were certainly leſs clear and cogent, than what has been, or may be offered in reſpect to the iſlands of Solomon; and as this is a ſubject ſomething new, and which has never been treated, at leaſt in a ſatisfactory manner, the giving the reader a ſhort and methodical account of it, may be eſteemed curious and entertaining; nor is it impoſſible that it may fall into the hands of ſome, who may alſo think it uſeful.

The iſlands of Solomon were originally diſcovered by Alvaro de Mendoça, under the orders of the licentiate Lopez Garcia de Caſtro, in 1567, and looked upon as a very great thing. But as the Spaniards were always pretty ſlow in their motions, and, beſides, were under a neceſſity of waiting for orders from Europe, it was ten years before they made any farther progreſs; but when they were about to have undertaken ſuch an expedition, as they flattered themſelves would have put them in poſſeſſion of a new Indies, they received directions from Spain, not only to lay aſide the deſign for the preſent, but to ſuppreſs, with the utmoſt care and diligence, all papers, charts, letters, and whatever elſe might give the leaſt light into the ſituation of theſe iſlands, on account of Sir Francis Drake's expedition, who actually paid a viſit to the South-Seas in 1578. As ſoon as they were recovered from this fright, and were in a condition of thinking of ſuch matters again, the project of diſcovering the iſlands of Solomon was revived; but was again defeated before it could be put into execution, by the arrival of commodore Cavendiſh in the South-Seas, in 1586. However, having taken about nine years time to breathe, Don Alvaro de Miranda was ſent with a ſquadron of four ſail of ſhips upon this diſcovery. They did not find the iſlands of Solomon, but they found other iſlands very near them, of equal, if not of greater value; but they behaved ſo very ill, that they compelled the natives to have recourſe to arms, by whom they were driven out, and obliged to fly for ſhelter to the Philippines.

In their paſſage thither, three of their ſhips were loſt, and the only one that eſcaped, arrived in a ſhattered condition. This affair, however, had been then proſecuted, if Capt. Richard Hawkins had not arrived in this critical juncture in thoſe ſeas, as he himſelf tells us in his curious and excellent account of his Voyage thither.

It is a very mutulated and dark account of this expedition of Don Alvaro de Miranda's, that we have in the fourth volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages, under the title of a Fragment of the Diſcovery of the iſlands of Solomon; and there is a very ſtrange blunder in the date, of 1695 for 1595, which renders the whole account almoſt unintelligible.

That this is the true ſtate of the matter appears from hence, that in this voyage the Spaniards picked up one of Cavendiſh's men, in which there is nothing ſtrange, if it was undertaken nine years after, but would be very extraordinary indeed, at the diſtance of one hundred and nine.

There was one Ferdinand de Guiros who laboured hard to get this project reſumed; and ſome memorials of his are ſtill extant, which were printed at Seville in the year 1610, from which time this affair ſlept for any thing we know, for near one hundred years.

However, in 1709, when Capt. Woods Rogers was in the South-Seas, there was a veſſel fitted out by a Spaniſh gentleman from Lima, in ſearch of theſe iſlands, but having the misfortune to be taken by the Engliſh, almoſt as ſoon as he had ſailed, the buſineſs was once more dropped. About ten years after this, while ſome of the perſons who were with Capt. Shelvock, in his expedition, were priſoners at Lima, there came in two ſhips at a ſmall diſtance of time from each other, the crews of which reported, that being driven by ſtroms out of their courſe, they had fallen in with theſe iſlands, which they deſcribed very circumſtantially, with ſuch manifeſt correſpondence in their accounts, that one Mr Thaylet, a Frenchman, was ſent by the viceroy in a ſmall ſloop in ſearch of them; but having only two months proviſion, he returned without doing any thing: it may be, that Providence has reſerved the diſcovery of theſe iſlands, and the ſouthern unknown continent, for ſome other nation.

PERUVIAN BARK. The quinquina, Peruvian bark, or the bark againſt fevers, is the external bark of the trunk and branches of a tree, that grows plentifully in Peru, from whence this is brought us by the way of Cadiz.

According to the judicious Mr Bernard, the tree of which the quinquina is the bark, grows in the province of Quito in Peru, upon the mountains near the city of Loxa. This tree is almoſt the ſize of a cherry-tree; the leaves are round and indented: it bears a long reddiſh flower, from whence ariſes a kind of huſk, in which is found a kernel like an almond, flat and white, cloathed with a thin rind; that bark which comes from the trees at the bottom of the mountains, is thicker, becauſe it receives more nouriſhment from the earth: it is ſmooth, of a whitiſh yellow without, and of a pale brown within. That which comes from trees on the tops of mountains, is much thinner; it is uneven, browner without, and of a higher colour within; but the trees which grow on the middle of the mountains, have a bark yet browner than the other, and more rugged. All theſe barks are bitter, but that from the trees at the bottom of the mountains, leſs than the others.

It follows from hence, that the bark of the leaſt virtue, is that which grows in the loweſt places, becauſe it abounds more with earthy and watery parts, than that which grows high, which, for the contrary reaſon, is better; but the beſt of all, is that which grows in the middle of the mountains, becauſe it has not too much or too little nouriſhment. There is another kind of quinquina, which comes from the mountains of Potoſi, and is browner, more aromatic, and more bitter, than the former, but abundantly ſcarcer than any of the reſt.

Beſide the qualities remarked in this bark, it ought to be heavy, of a firm ſubſtance, ſound and dry. Beware of ſuch as is rotten, or hurt by wet, and ſuch as flies into duſt in breaking, or is dirty and unclean, as it happens to be ſometimes: but make choice of ſuch as is in little thin pieces, dark and blackiſh without, with a little white moſs, or ſome ſmall fern-leaves ſticking to it, reddiſh within, of a bitter and diſagreeable taſte, and refuſe that which is full of threads when broke, and of a ruſſet colour; and take care that there be not ſeveral pieces of wood mixed with it, which you have ſometimes ſticking to the bark. This was brought firſt into France in the year 1650, by the cardinal Lago a jeſuit, who having brought it from Peru, it was had in ſuch vogue in France, as to be ſold weight for weight for gold, but the quantities of it ſoon afterwards brought over, quickly leſſened the price.

The uſe of this bark is for the cure of fevers, eſpecially intermitting, for which purpoſe it is given in ſubſtance, tincture, or infuſion; but as it is a medicine ſome people have an utter averſion to, and as the uſe of it is of ill effect, unleſs properly applied, we would adviſe no body to make uſe of it without the direction of an able Phyſician.

To prevent the return of the ague, this method ought to be continued for eight days, three times a day; firſt, early in the morning, then an hour before dinner; and at night, an hour before ſupper; but if the ague ſhould return again, as it does, if you purge after it, the uſe of the bark muſt be repeated after the ſame manner as before, and it will not fail to produce the deſired effect, which is abſolutely to cure the ague. But though the ague ſeems to be perfectly gone, for ſeveral revolutions of fits, yet it is neceſſary to continue the uſe of the remedy for twelve days, by which means you will ſecure the patient againſt any freſh aſſault.

It is at the end of the fit that the doſe is to be given, and it muſt be continued 'till the cure is perfected; which in a ſingle and double tertian, commonly happens at the ſecond fit, or at moſt at the third: the ſame is to be uneerſtood in a ſingle and double quartan, wherein you have two whole days to give the medicine in, without interruption; in which, as in the tertian, the ague is maſtered at the third and fourth fit, if not at the very firſt, which often happens; and to prevent it's return, the uſe of the bark is to be the longer continued after the cure; for it is the too haſty diſcontinuance of it which cauſes the relapſe, and puts the patient to a new trouble of running over the ſame courſe again.

This medicine ought not to be given at the coming on of the fit, nor yet during the time of it; becauſe then, inſtead of alleviating the force and violence of the ague, it would be apt, by reaſon of the febrific ferment, to excite a fiercer conflict, and make the paroxyſm the more violent. This method being obſerved, the medicine will interrupt the courſe of the diſeaſe in it's progreſs; and being conveyed into the maſs of blood by a gentle motion, it purifies it, and deſtroys the feveriſh ferment, which would produce a new fit. It ought likewiſe, to be given at ſeveral times, to produce gradually, the wiſhed for effect; and but a ſmall ſpace of time ought to be allowed between each doſe, that the ſecond doſe may begin it's operation, when the force of the firſt is over; and the third may begin to act, when the ſtrength of the ſecond is loſt. It is given, in like manner, two or three hours after, that thereby it's virtue may the better unite itſelf with the chyle in the ſtomach, in order to it's entrance into the maſs of blood, to correct, depurate, and renew it. If this courſe is purſued, the cure is in a manner certain and infallible, and it will hardly be poſſible for the fit to return again. When the paroxyſm is gentle, in a good habit, and a good ſeaſon of the year, there is no need of giving it above five or ſix days together, once or twice a day in the intermiſſion; but when the paroxyſms ore ſtrong, oftner, as before directed.

The uſe of this bark, the Spaniards ſay, was diſcovered by accident: an Indian in a fever accidentally drinking the water of a pond, into which ſeveral of theſe trees were fallen, was cured by it; which made people ſearch into the occaſion, and ſo diſcover this ineſtimable medicine.

PETTY CUSTOM, or ALIEN's DUTY. This duty is payable by * merchant-ſtrangers, that is, aliens born, or denizens, on all goods imported liable to the ſubſidy of poundage (unleſs where the original old ſubſidy has been entirely taken away) but not on thoſe liable to the ſubſidy of tonnage, becauſe an equivalent is included in the old ſubſidy.

* 12th rule of certain rules, orders, directions, and allowances, for the advancement of trade. See the end of letter A, and our concluſive REMARKS there, relating to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS.

† And it is alſo payable by Britiſh, upon the following goods, though of Britiſh property, when imported in foreign ſhips, viz.

Aqua vitæ,
Boards,
Brandy,
Corn, or grain of all ſorts, when the old ſubſidy is taken at the original rate,
Figs, Prunes,
Flax ‖, Raiſins,
Hemp, Roſin,
Maſts, Salt,
Olive-oil, Sugar,
Pitch, Tar,
Pot-aſhes, Timber,
All goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muſcovy or Ruſſia,

} Imported in ſhips not belonging to the people of Great-Britain or Ireland, and whereof the maſters and at leaſt three-fourth, of the mariners, are not Britiſh; or in foreign-built ſhips, altho' owned or manned by Britiſh, unleſs ſuch as are taken as prize.

† 12 Car. II. cap 18. §. 9. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap 11. §. 6.
‖ By 4 Geo. II. cap. 27. §. 1. rough or undreſſed flax may be imported free.

Currants, Turkey commodities, } Imported in ſhips not Britiſh-built, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are not Britiſh.

It is to be levied according to the reſpective rates or values of the goods, as affixed or aſcertained for the old ſubſidy, after the following rates, viz.

		The duty l. s. d.
* Fiſh, dried or ſalted, and cod fiſh or herring (unleſs prohibited) not caught in Britiſh or Iriſh veſſels, and cured by Britiſh or Iriſh	2 ½ per cent. of the rate, or double petty cuſtom, being ½ part of ſuch rate, or for every 20 s. thereof	— — 6
† All other goods chargeable with ſubſidy of poundage. - -	1 ¼ per cent of the rate or value, being ¼ part thereof, or for every 20 s.	— — 3

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 5.
† 12th rule, &c. in Vol. I. page 178.

To be paid in ready money, without diſcount, upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, as follows, viz.

	The drawback l. — —
* Currants, the hundred weight, all but	4 ½

All other goods, nothing.

* 6th rule. See the Buſineſs of the CUSTOM-HOUSE at the End of every Letter.

PEWTER, a factitious metal, uſed in the making domeſtic utenſils. The common ſort is a compoſition of tin, regulus of antimony, and tin-glaſs, in ſeveral proportions, ſuitable to the quality of the metal intended to be made. There are other ways of making it, with tin, lead, and copper; but that with any degree of copper is eſteemed unwholſome.

To make PEWTER hard.

Take one pound, or what quantity you pleaſe, of pewter, and let it melt in an iron pan; add to it ſome ſallad oil, let it evaporate well, and ſtir it continually, keeping the flame from it; add to this ſome fine wheat-flour, and ſtir it well about; then take all the burnt matter off the top, and to each pound of tin add three or four ounces of plate braſs, cut in ſmall pieces, mixed with oil, and a few ounces of pulverized biſmuth, or regulus of antimony; ſtir it all the while, and, when all is melted and incorporated, you will not only have a pewter that is harder and whiter, but alſo different in it's ſound from common pewter. Or,

Melt tin in an iron pan, ſtrew colophony or roſin, with fine wheat flower mixed together, into it, and ſtir it gently about; this takes off the blackneſs, and makes it of a fine white colour. If you would have it hard, add to each pound of tin one or two ounces of pulverized regulus of antimony and veneris; this makes it white, hard, and gives it a clear ſound.

PHARMACY, that branch of phyſic which teaches the preparation of medicines. It is ordinarily divided into Galenical and Chemical; the former is called ſimply pharmacy, and conſiſts in the knowlege and management of the materia medica, in an unchemical way, as it were, and without the torture of bodies, as the art of chemiſtry inſtructs.

Pharmaceutical chemiſtry defines the art of directing and performing the ſeveral proceſſes or methods of manual operation, whereby natural ſubſtances are reducible to artful medicines.

Thus the whole art conſiſts of the theory and practice: the former is claimed by the Phyſician, and the latter is aſſigned to the Apothecary.

A SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF THE ART OF PHARMACY.

Moſt of the natural bodies being ſome way or other employed as ſubjects of pharmacy, the materia medica is extremely large, and it's operations various. It's materials, in the earlieſt ages, indeed, were few, and the ways of managing them

were ſimple: ſubjects afterwards multiplied, operations increaſed, and, at preſent, we ſeem abundantly ſtocked with both ſimple and compound medicines.

But the hiſtory of pharmacy may deſerve to be more particularly treated, in order to ſee by what means it arrived at it's preſent ſtate, and how it may be further advanced.

Diſeaſes muſt have been early, if the firſt inhabitants of the world experienced the ſame changes of ſeaſons, breathed the ſame kind of air, and uſed a like diet and regimen of life with ourſelves. But ſoon after a diſeaſe afflicts, the patient ſeeks a remedy: whence we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that this was the foundation of pharmacy in various parts of the world.

Expdriments being thus multiplied, and the event gradually introducing better methods of preparing the ſimples, pharmacy would begin to appear in the form of an art: yet, when Hippocrates came to compile a kind of a ſyſtem of phyſic, from the obſervations of antiquity, he deſcribed but few, and thoſe were generally ſimple.

Succeding phyſicians enlarged the materia medica: Galen conſiderably ſwelled the catalogue, which received many additions from the Arabians.

And, when learning began to revive in Europe, the materia medica was again enlarged, and great changes wrought upon it by chemiſtry: whence chemiſtry at length was generally received, and acknowledged of uſe in pharmacy.

Both the galenic and chemical parts of this art are now extremely copious. Neceſſity gave the occaſion, nature ſupplied the materials, and art and obſervation diſcovered their preparations, virtues, and uſes.

Thus we at preſent ſeem provided of a competency of ſtanding medicines; and phyſicians have, by degrees, acquired a method of preſcribing in extemporaneous forms.

The art of pharmacy may be conſidered under the management of phyſicians, apothecaries, trading chemiſts, and druggiſts.

It is the office of the phyſician to direct the medicines, or give the rules of extracting, compounding, and managing the ſimples. If the phyſician, therefore, ſhould be defective in this part, let the apothecary, the trading chemiſt, and the druggiſt, be ever ſo juſt, or ever ſo knowing, the art of pharmacy muſt fall ſhort of perfection.

To the apothecary belongs the reduction of the materia medica into certain forms of medicines, according to the direction of the phyſician.

But there are two kinds of apothecaries, vulgarly known by the names of wholeſale and retale apothecaries. It is the latter alone we are here concerned with: theſe act by rule, generally follow their ſtandard, and compound with art and care; though they will ſometimes ſubſtitute quid pro quo, and now and then venture to reverſe an order. According to their ſkill and care, they are more or leſs liable to be impoſed on by the druggiſt, and the trading chemiſt, all of them uſually ſelling what they buy; but if the apothecary be here often deceived, how ſtands it with the patient and phyſician, or what is the ſtate of pharmacy?

The retale apothecaries, however, deal more in ſubſtitution than in ſophiſtication. The prudent phyſician, therefore, preſcribes what is uſually kept, and proper to keep, in the ſhops, or what is otherwiſe eaſily obtainable. If there are other abuſes committed in this part of pharmacy, they may, perhaps, be chiefly attributed to ſome want of ſkill or conduct in the phyſician.

The deſign of the trading chemiſts and druggiſts is to furniſh medicinal matters to the apothecary, who cannot always detect an artificial counterfeit, or a dextrous ſophiſtication: and perhaps many remedies well deſigned by the phyſician, have failed or had miſchievous effects upon this account.

This is propoſed as a ſhort intimation of the preſent ſtate of pharmacy in England. If the art be found more perfect in other nations, it may, perhaps, be chiefly owing to this, that their phyſicians are well acquainted not only with the theory, but alſo the practice thereof; two things which ſhould never be ſeparated, as being, in reality, but one effective thing, conſiſting of two parts, viz. previous notion, and execution.

What uſeful addition or reformation the materia medica is capable of receiving, no one at preſent can ſay. If a ſtrict enquiry were made, perhaps it might be found proper to throw out of our preſent collection a conſiderable number of materials to make room for others of greater efficacy. But this is no work for private perſons: our preſent buſineſs is to ſee whether any improvements may be made in the ways of preparing the common medicines of the ſhops.

For the better regulating of our enquiry, it may be of ſome ſervice to lay down two larger obſervations, viz. 1. That the deſign of pharmacy is to ſeparate from bodies the more medicinal parts with which they are naturally endowed, and, upon occaſion, to mix ſuch of them together as will beſt anſwer the curative intentions. All in the power of art is only to ſeparate and mix, or differently modify, it is nature alone that is able to produce. Pharmacy, therefore, conſiſts in analyſis and ſyntheſis.

As it is the perfection of art to copy nature juſtly; ſo, by reſolving bodies into their principles, we obtain a general rule for compoſition, and ſee the ſeveral ſteps we ought to take in it. Nature ſhews us, that, in all mixed bodies, there is a baſis, or ſubſtratum, ſomething to ſupport and envelope the other ingredients. The natural ſalts are thus diluted with water, the oils with both, and altogether compoſe one uniform and elegant whole. To preſcribe juſtly, therefore, the phyſician ſhould imitate nature; but, if we compound without regard to this rule, the ingredients will appear huddled together, as if it were by chance; and, inſtead of preſerving and aſſiſting, they will often clog, incumber and deſtroy each other.

We now proceed to our experiments, whereby may be illuſtrated and improved, (1.) The common method of diſtilling ſimple waters. (2.) The common method of preparing tinctures. (3.) The method of preparing ſyrups. (4.) The method of making electuaries; and, (5.) The method of making compound oils, unguents: thus propoſing to touch upon the chief articles of the preſent Galenical pharmacy, as it is vulgarly called, though, in reality, it is ſomething chemical alſo.

Experiment I.

The beſt way of diſtilling ſimple waters.

Take as much dried mint, cut ſmall, as will fill two-thirds of a ſtill; then adding a ſufficient quantity of rain water to make the plant float commodiouſly, yet leaving a fourth of the ſtill empty, digeſted a while with a gentle heat; then work the ſtill, drawing off only ſo long as the water appears thick or milky, and taſtes rich and grateful; whereby you will obtain a ſimple mint-water, in tolerable perfection.

Observation.

This experiment, with a few occaſional alterations, may ſhew a general method of obtaining ſimple waters in their greateſt perfection. The ſubjects beſt fitted for it are thoſe of the odorous, aromatic, and oily kind; though ſome others alſo may, perhaps, communicate particular virtues to the water: among the fitteſt may, however, be reckoned angelica, aniſeed, baulm, camomile, cinnamon, cloves, fennel, hyſſop, roſemary, tanſey, wormwood, &c. but particularly pepper-mint, which affords an extremely aromatic, pungent, and agreeable water, good againſt the cholic, and many other diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels; whence it's uſe, perhaps, is too little known.

It is a principal caution in this operation, to remove the receivers before the more pellucid, acid, faint, and dead water comes over, as it ſoon will do, and, if ſuffered to mix among the reſt, is apt to ſpoil the whole, by giving it a vapid or faint taſte, and ſometimes a degree of acidity, or vitriolic ſtypticity, and an emetic virtue: for part of the eſſential ſalt of the plant, now riſing, uſually corrodes the copper head of the ſtill, and carries over with it ſome particles of the metal: whence thoſe waters ſhould either be diſtilled with a glaſs head, or one of pewter, or tinned copper, or elſe the operation ſhould be carefully watched, that the ſecond running may not mix with the firſt. The greater care ſhould here be taken, becauſe ſome patients, more particularly children, and thoſe of a tender habit, have ſuffered through a neglect herein; by being vomited, purged, and griped by the uſe of a ſimple water, contrary to the intention.

The ſimple waters diſtilled after the manner of the preſent experiment, may, in many caſes, prove too ſtrong to be uſed alone; but then it is eaſy to lower them with common diſtilled water, to the proper ſtrength: and this is, beyond all compariſon, better than to mix ſuch waters with their own faints, or liquor of the ſecond running.

There are two improvements that might be made in this method of obtaining ſimple waters: the firſt is, by means of cohobation and digeſtion; the other, by means of the previous fermentation of the plant. With regard to the firſt, if the liquor remaining in the ſtill be expreſſed from the herb, and returned along with all the water that came over upon a freſh quantity of the ſame ſubject, and they be digeſted together, in a gentle heat, for two days, then diſtilled as before, the water thus obtained will be much richer, and more efficacious than the former: and, if the ſame proceſs be repeated two or three times, thoſe who have not tried would ſcarce imagine how rich a ſimple water may be thus procured. And this method we would particularly recommend for making the ſimple water of baulm, elder-flowers, roſes, camomile, and the like ſubjects, but ſparingly furniſhed with eſſential oils, for they otherwiſe make but indifferent waters.

The other way of improving ſimple waters, is uſing by a previous imperfect fermentation: this is performed by adding to the plant and water put together, as in the foregoing experiment, a tenth or twelfth part of ſugar, or honey, or elſe a fortieth part of yeaſt; then ſetting the whole in a warm place, to ferment for two or three days only, ſo that the herb may not fall to the bottom, nor the fermentation be above half finiſhed; then the whole being committed to the ſtill, a water may, at one operation, be obtained extremely rich, or impregnated with the full virtue of the plant. And thus may ſimple waters be made fit for long keeping without ſpoiling;

the

the ſmall proportion of inflammable ſpirit generated in the fermentation, ſerving excellently to preſerve them. And theſe two methods ſeem applicable to the improvement of all thoſe ſimple waters commonly found in the ſhops.

We ſhould next proceed to ſhew the method of perfecting or improving compound waters, if we had not already endeavoured to do it under the article DISTILLATION, Vol. I.

EXPERIMENT II.

The beſt way of making light tinctures and infuſions.

Take half an ounce of the rind of Seville orange, ſhaved thin; half a drachm of gentian-root, thin ſliced; a ſcruple of the tops of Roman wormwood, half a drachm of cardamums, and half a drachm of cocheneal, each of them ſlightly bruiſed: theſe ingredients put to ſteep, for a night, in a pint of French brandy, and filter the liquor next morning.

OBSERVATION.

This experiment is general, and not propoſed for it's own ſake, but to ſhew the method of making all kinds of the lighter and finer tinctures and infuſions without fire, which would here prove prejudicial: the preparation itſelf is, however, a good ſtomachic bitter, of the ſame general nature with thoſe commonly ſold under the name of Stoughton's elixir.

The excellence of theſe preparations depends not more upon the choice and goodneſs of the ingredients, than upon the manner of their being infuſed: for, if ſuffered to remain too long in the menſtruum, or if heat be uſed in extracting the tincture, the groſs, terreſtrial, and nauſeous parts of the ingredients will be fetched out, and the tincture thus be loaded with a heavy indolent matter, of little virtue. But if the infuſion be made in the cold, and the liquor ſtrained off ſoon, only the finer and more ſpirituous parts of the ingredients will be imbibed by the menſtruum; whence the preparation will not only taſte and ſmell more briſk and agreeable, but alſo have a much greater virtue and efficacy. But if, through the ſhortneſs of their continuance in infuſion, the ingredients ſhould not have ſufficiently impregnated the liquor, the method is to pour the liquor again upon ſuch freſh ingredients, and again to ſtrain it off, without letting it ſtay too long upon them, or feeling the heat of the fire. Thus, by repeated effuſions of the ſame impregnated menſtruum, upon freſh ingredients, an infuſion, or tincture, may be obtained, of almoſt any degree of ſtrength or richneſs, without containing the groſſer or more concretive parts of the ingedients, but only what may be called the finer ſpirit, or quinteſſence: and this is no inconſiderable ſecret, both in chemiſtry and pharmacy, and may deſerve the regard of thoſe who deſire to procure the full virtues of the ſimples, unaltered in their nature, yet exalted, or concentrated to ſuch a degree, that a few ſpoonfuls of the liquor ſhall contain the ſpirit, or quinteſſence of a pound of a plant.

And this is an effect not to be expected from the fire, which almoſt conſtantly alters the nature of things committed to it; nor could a valuable eſſence of violets, jaſmin, lilies, borrage-flowers, and any flower or plant of an extremely fine odoriferous ſpirit, be procured by heat, as it readily may by ſteeping theſe flowers in cold water, cold vinegar, cold wine, or the like, and frequently pouring the tincture upon freſh flowers, 'till the liquor becomes ſtrongly impregnated.

Apothecaries uſually commit the ſame error in preparing the finer tinctures, that they do in working their cordial waters, and in both caſes ſaturate the liquor with the groſſer, more uſeleſs, and leſs ſpirituous parts of the ingredients; whence the cordial waters of the ſhops too often abound with a groſs, heavy, diſagreeable oil; and the tinctures of the ſhops with a groſs heavy earth, or kind of bituminous matter, inſtead of a briſk, lively, and invigorating ſpirit, which alone is the thing required in both caſes.

This doctrine of tinctures and infuſions ſhould be reduced to rule, for the improvement of chemiſtry; which will never be perfected 'till it can extract, ſeparate, and concentrate the virtues of things unimpaired, or unaltered in their nature. And doubtleſs it would prove a very ſerviceable thing in chemiſtry, medicine, and natural philoſophy, to know the beſt and eaſieſt ways of concentrating the virtues of bodies unaltered: and this may, in ſome meaſure, be effected by the preſent method, and practiſed with well-adapted menſtruums: for, in general, (1.) A quick and cold infuſion extracts the ſpirit of vegetables; but a hot and long one confounds, impairs, or deſtroys it. (2.) To repute the infuſion of a freſh ſubject quick and cold, in the ſame impregnated menſtruum, ſeems greatly to collect and concentrate the ſpirit, that is, the finer and more eſſential part of bodies. (3.) The proper menſtruums for this purpoſe ſeem to be ſuch as pure rain-water, vinegar, wine, water mixed with a little fine alcohol, water and a little ſugar; and, for certain uſes, the common atmoſpherical air, which is an excellent menſtruum to extract the ſpirit or effluvia of plants, as we remarkably find in ſpicy groves and gardens, and may, in ſome caſes, be uſed with good effect.

But, to obtain the ſaturated tinctures of hard, reſinous, or gummy bodies, requires a different treatment, as in the following

EXPERIMENT.

Take two ounces of that hard Indian roſin called gum-lacque, and reduce it into a fine powder, make it into a kind of ſtiff paſte, with oil of tartar per deliquium; ſet this paſte into an open glaſs to dry, by a gentle heat; then remove it to the open air, that it may relent or grow ſoft; and after this dry it again, as before: and, by repeating the proceſs once or twice, the hard body of the roſin will at length diſſolve into a purple-coloured liquor; which being now gently dried, and reduced to powder, will afford an excellent tincture, by being boiled for two or three hours in a tall glaſs, with alcohol.

OBSERVATION.

This proceſs is almoſt general, or may be advantageouſly uſed for making the tinctures of myrrh, gum-juniper, dragon's blood, amber, and other hard gummy ſubſtances, which will ſcarce otherwiſe yield a tincture in ſpirit of wine. Any improvement in the extracting tinctures with alcohol, may tend conſiderably to improve the art of pharmacy, becauſe ſuch tinctures are generally found powerful medicines; the ſpirit of wine appearing greatly to increaſe the virtue of the ſubjects. Thus, though the tincture of amber, prepared in this manner, appears to be only a bare ſolution of the ſubſtance of the amber, yet it is found to have ſuch effects as are no way equalled by any fine powder of amber: and, what ſeems remarkable, though ſo large a quantity of fixed alkali be uſed in the preparation of theſe tinctures, yet they give no manifeſt ſigns of containing an alkali; which is therefore changed in the operation, whether by the acid naturally contained in theſe reſinous and gummy bodies, or by being expoſed to the air, or both.

There are more methods of extracting the tinctures of theſe hard gummy bodies; but that delivered appears to be beſt, though it might, perhaps, be ſhortened, by uſing ſome proper intermediate ſubſtance to divide the particles of the ſubject, ſo as that the alkaline ſalt, the air, and the ſpiritous menſtruum, might all come into fuller conſent therewith, and act more forcibly thereon. And for this purpoſe pure virgin earth is recommended, ſuch as is commonly uſed for the making of teſts or cupels; by means whereof ſpirit of wine will extract a tolerable tincture from myrrh, without the addition of any fixed alkali.

But when tinctures not ſpirituous, or only aqueous ſolutions of theſe hard gummy bodies, are required, the uſe of the ſoluble tartar, or tartarum tartarizatum, is proper; for a ſolution of this ſalt will readily diſſolve myrrh, even in the cold, as water diſſolves gum arabic.

EXPERIMENT III.

The beſt method of making ſyrups.

Take three ounces of the yellow external rind of freſh oranges, and infuſe them in a cloſe veſſel, with a gentle heat in balneo mariæ, for ſix hours, along with a pint and a half of pure water; then ſuffer the infuſion to cool; filter the liquor, and add to it twice it's own weight of hard double-refined ſugar, made into a ſyrup, in a cioſe veſſel ſet in balneo mariæ.

OBSERVATION.

We would not contrive a general example to fit all ſyrups, becauſe they differ greatly in the liquors of which they are made; or according as thoſe liquors are infuſions, decoctions, natural juices, wines, or vinegars. We choſe to give an inſtance in a ſyrup made of a liquor by the infuſion of an aromatic ſubſtance, whoſe virtue would be almoſt entirely loſt if the ſyrup were to be prepared by long boiling, as it is ſometimes directed, with leſs than an equal weight of ſugar. Diſpenſatory writers have, perhaps, no where erred more remarkably, than in directing the making of ſyrups, which ſeems the more ſtrange, becauſe this part of pharmacy is extremely facile: the misfortune ſeems to have lain, that great men cannot ſubmit to conſider common and ordinary things; whence, however, the credit of a phyſician may ſink in the eſteem of thoſe who, by their employ, are led to a knowlege of theſe ordinary things.

It is judged, that the whole of this buſineſs may be reduced to a few eaſy rules, which we ſhall here endeavour to lay down, for improving this branch of pharmacy. And, (1.) It is matter of experience, that aqueous infuſions, decoctions, or other aqueous liquors, require twice their own weight of dry ſugar-candy, to make them into a ſyrup of a juſt conſiſtence for keeping, without candying or fermenting.

This rule, by directing the uſe of ſugar-candy, ſeems to fix the conſiſtence of ſyrups with exactneſs; becauſe all ſalts acquire a determinate proportion of water in chryſtallizing; ſo that ſugar, in the form of candy, conſiſts of one certain proportion of water, whilſt different kinds may hold more or leſs aqueous matter, according to their manner of refining, the accidents of the weather, &c. Hence, therefore, all ſuch infuſions for ſyrups as are of delicate or deſtructible colour, which

which is impared by boiling (for example, violets, clove-july-flowers, &c.) and all ſuch infuſions as contain any volatile parts, which would evaporate by a boiling heat (for example, thoſe of nutmeg, cinnamon, orange-peel, citron-peel, &c.) ſhould have twice their own weight of ſugar added to them, and be kept cloſe covered, in the gentle heat of a balneum mariæ, 'till the ſugar is diſſolved; and, to haſten the ſolution, the ſugar ſhould be firſt reduced to fine powder.

(2.) The decoctions of ſuch vegitable ſubſtances as loſe no valuable parts by boiling, may be boiled down to the form of a ſyrup, along with their own weight of ſugar, the two being firſt clarified together, with whites of eggs, in the ordinary way; but, if the ingredients here contain any unctuous or balſamic parts, whereon their medicinal virtues depend, let the ſugar be added from the firſt, and boiled along with the ingredients, afterwards ſtraining and clarifying the decoction, before it is boiled to near the full conſiſtence of a ſyrup.

This rule is founded upon that remarkable property which ſugar has to diſſolve oils, or the finer reſinous ſubſtances, ſo as to make them intimately mix with water: whence it may deſerve to be conſidered, whether the ſyrup of myrtles, comfrey, and diacodium, ſhould not be thus prepared. It muſt alſo be obſerved, that, by boiling the ſugar ſo long with the decoction, the aqueous part exhales and leaves the ſyrup much ſtronger than it could have been made without this boiling.

(3.) All vegitable juices are to be thoroughly purified before they are made into ſyrups. Thus the juices of citrons, lemons, and oranges, are to paſs the filter, and then be made into ſyrups, without boiling, according to the firſt rule, obſerving to uſe no metalline veſſel about them. But the juices of fruits, as particularly mulberries, raſberries, &c. will not clarify without beginning fermentation; but, by ſtanding for a day or two, they will begin to ferment and liquiſy, and may then be commodiouſly ſtrained through flannel; after which, theſe alſo are to be made into ſyrups, with about an eighth part leſs than twice their own quantity of ſugar, or with two pounds and twelve ounces of ſugar to a pint of juice, on account of their being ſomewhat ſaccharine themſelves.

And this holds alſo of wines and vinegars, when they come to be made into ſyrups; for wine contains an inflammable ſpirit, which does not incorporate with ſugar, and alſo a thick ſyrupy ſubſtance, which is alſo found in vinegar. And, by a due application of theſe rules, we apprehend the buſineſs of making ſyrups may be reduced to tolerable perfection.

The beſt method of making electuaries, by an example in the ſaſſafras electuary.

Take two ounces of the beſt ſaſſafras, newly raſped, and half an ounce of cinnamon, finely powdered; boil them together in a tall glaſs, in a ſand-heat, with 10 ounces of water, and 14 ounces of ſugar, ſo as that nothing might evaporate, for two hours; then ſtraining and preſſing out the ſyrup, add to it an ounce of freſh-raſped ſaſſafraſs, a drachm of cinnamon, and 10 grains of nutmeg, all reduced to fine powder, and make the whole into an electuary.

Observation.

In the common method of making this electuary, the ſaſſafras and cinnamon are boiled in the water, whereby a great part of their virtue is loſt, or not extracted, whence the medicine comes to be deſrauded of it's due: but here, by boiling the ingredients in a tall glaſs, with a due proportion of ſugar and water, to make a ſyrup (allowing an extraordinay proportion of water for what the ſaſſafras will drink up) we obtain the fine aromatic virtues of the ingredients to advantage, without any conſiderable loſs.

To make electuaries in perfection, where a ſyrup is employed as their baſis, (1.) The ſyrup ſhould be prepared in the manner above delivered, ſo as that the virtues of the ingredients may be preſerved. (2.) The powders, or ſpecies employed, ſhould be freſh, and fine ground. (3.) The gums, where any are uſed, muſt be be well cleanſed, and diſſolved in their proper menſtruums; and, (4.) The whole muſt be mixed, or thoroughly united into a ſmooth uniform ſubſtance, of a due conſiſtence for keeping, without either candying or running into fermentation.

Where ſyrups are uſed in the making of electuaries, care is not only required, that the virtues of the ingredients of the ſyrups be preſerved, as much as the form will allow of, but alſo that it's conſiſtence be not too high, for this would diſpoſe it to candy in the electuary, and render the medicine unduly mixed, or knotty, the ſugar thus concreting together in lumps, or ſhooting away from the ſpecies.

If the ſyrup be made too thin or aqueous, ſo as not to ſuſpend and hold the powder together, by a binding conſiſtence, the ſyrup will of neceſſity ferment in hot weather, and become ſomewhat vinous, afterwards ſour, and at length corruptive, [ſee the articles Brewing, Distillation, and Vinegar-Making] ſo as to change, invert, or deſtroy the nature of the medicine; for purgative ingredients, by fermenting, loſe their purgative virtues: and all other ingredients, by corrupting, are reduced to an indolent kind of fæces, or caput mortuum, very different from the thing intended.—See the article Wines. Hence electuaries that have thus fermented, or changed their nature, may ſometimes prove pernicious, inſtead of ſalutary.

The electuaries made with the pulp of fruita are leſs diſpoſed to keep for any conſiderable time perfect, on account of the greater tendency which ſuch pulpy ſubſtances have to fermentation and putrefaction: thus, though the lenitive electuary were made ever ſo artificially, it will ſcarce keep many months without altering it's nature, and eſpecially if the conſiſtence was originally too thin: whence ſuch electuaries ſhould be made in ſmall quantities, or freſh as they could be wanted.

But this does not hold of the capital electuaries, ſuch as Venice-treacle, or mithridate, which require to lie for ſome time, that the ingredients may digeſt or ripen, as it were, and grow mellow together; for the gums and ſpices that enter their compoſitions preſerve the medicines from alterations for the worſe, and the mixture becomes more perfect by time, provided the honey uſed in their compoſition does not candy, or the whole become too dry. To keep the honey from candying, ſome artiſts mix the ſpices and gums with it unclarified, taking care only to ſeparate the foul parts that lodge either at the top or bottom. And, if the medicine prove too dry, it is uſual at any time to ſoften, or beat them up in a mortar, with canary: thus theſe capitals of the ſhops are ſuppoſed to improve by keeping. But diacodium having few of the warm gums in it's compoſition, is more apt to alter, and loſe of it's aſtringent quality by keeping: for which reaſon it ſeems an alteration here for the better, to uſe a quantity of ſaccharum roſatum inſtead of honey, or diacodium, as this not only gives a greater compactneſs to the medicine, but alſo contributes to preſerve it's colour and virtues.

The powder, or ſpecies, that enter into the compoſition of electuaries, ſhould be freſh, becauſe they loſe of their virtues by keeping, and they ſhould alſo be fine ground, becauſe they would not otherwiſe intimately mix with honey or ſyrup, nor ſo readily part with their virtues in the ſtomach, nor render the medicine ſo agreeable to the eye. The common method of reducing theſe powders to a ſufficient degree of fineneſs, by the mortar and ſearce, is faulty; becauſe this method expoſes them too long to the action of the open air, whereby their more volatile and grateful parts are carried off, whilſt only the groſſer are left behind: whence it might be proper to have a cloſe engine contrived for the purpoſe, ſo as to prevent this ill effect.

Some artiſts grind their powders for electuaries by means of a horſe-mill; but the mill-ſtones here wear off, and communicate a ſtony matter to the ingredients, ſo as to prove diſagreeable in the mouth, increaſe the bulk of the medicine, without adding to it's virtues.—Nor is this method of the mill free from the inconveniencies of the latter; for the finer or more ſpirituous parts of the ingredients alſo fly off, as is ſenſibly found by the whole neighbourhood where any large quantity of the ingredients for Venice-treacle, &c. is ground by the common horſe-mill.

The better way doubtleſs is, by the means of iron rollers, moving oppoſite to each other in a cloſe box, to grind all the ingredients, viz. the purified gums, the roots, herbs, flowers, &c. along with the honey, and wine, after the manner of the chocolate engine: for thus the fine, volatile, and aromatic parts of the ingredients may, as well as the groſſer, be entangled with the honey and gums, and all at once be mixed uniformly together, into a ſmooth maſs of a due conſiſtence.

But perhaps a much better, though more troubleſome method would be in the form of extracts, eſſential oils, &c. to get out the full virtues of the ingredients, without any of their groſſer parts, and mix theſe oils, extracts, gums, roſins, &c. together with a ſuitable proportion of honey, &c. ſo as at once to concentrate the medicine, which might, therefore, be given in doſes of an agreeable ſmallneſs, with all the advantages that can be expected. The ſame method ſeems alſo applicable to the making of pills and troches.

Observations.

1. We learn from the preceeding enquiry, that ſome part of the ſalts of plants, as well as their oils, will riſe by diſtillation with water, and give an acid or alkaline nature to the ſimple waters thus propoſed, according to the nature of the plant.

2. That no ſimple waters ſhould be diſtilled ſo low as to bring over any remarkable acid or alkaline liquor from the plant, for fear of miſchievous effects, or making ſuch waters prove emetic or purgative, contrary to the intention.

3. That the virtues of ſimple waters chiefly depend upon their containing the eſſential oil of the plant.

4. That there are two methods of perfecting ſimple waters, viz. cohobation and fermentation.

5. That all tinctures and infuſions of ingredients, whoſe principal virtues depend upon their lighter, or more ſubtile and ſpirituous parts, ſhould not be made with heat, but in the cold.

6. That

6. That if ſuch tinctures or infuſions be required rich and ſtrong, they are to be made ſo, not by ſuffering the menſtruum to remain long upon the ingredients, or by the uſe of heat, but by adding freſh ingredients ſeveral times to the ſame liquor, infuſing them quick, and each time keeping out the ingredients that have once been uſed.

7. That the fire is apt to exhale, alter, or conſume the more ſubtile and ſpirituous parts of vegetables, and, therefore, unfit to be uſed where theſe more delicate parts are required.

8. That the buſineſs of infuſions and tinctures may be greatly improved, by extracting the efficacious, or more ſpirituous parts of vegetables, unaltered in their nature, yet concentrated, or brought into a moderate compaſs.

9. That rich tinctures may be extracted, with ſpirit of wine, from the hardeſt reſinous and gummy bodies hitherto known, by means of fixed alkali's, properly applied.

10. That even aqueous ſolutions may be made of the ſame kind of bodies, by means of the tartarum tartarizatum, or ſoluble tartar.

11. That the ways in common uſe for the making of ſyrups and electuaries are improveable, by the obſervance of a few eaſy rules.

12. That, therefore, there are grounds to expect ſome improvement of the common pharmacy, upon the footing it now ſtands, or by barely perfecting the methods of preparing the ſhop-medicines in uſe, without either retrenching their number, introducing new ones, or reducing the art to a greater ſimplicity. See CHEMISTRY, and PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. The Philippine Iſlands, ſituate in the Pacific Ocean in Aſia, are computed at 1200 in number, and extend from North latitude 6 to near 20, and from eaſt longitude 114 to 126, of which 5 or 600 are pretty conſiderable: they are about 400 leagues to the weſt of the Ladrones, 120 ſouth of China, and 200 eaſt of Cochin-China. The air here is very hot, with little difference of ſeaſons, but the rains begin generally in May, and laſt three months. Their chief product is gold, rice, the uſual Indian fruits, beaſts, fowl, and fiſh, with good large nutmegs, which they do not cultivate, however, leſt it ſhould tempt the Dutch to attack them. The natives neither allow the Engliſh nor Dutch to trade hither, leſt they ſhould diſcover their riches and weakneſs.

Their chief iſlands are, 1. MINDANAO, which lies ſartheſt, both to the eaſt and ſouth of them, all extending from north latitude 6, to 9 ¾, and from eaſt longitude 121, to 126, 30. It is the biggeſt of them all, next to Luconia, being, as Dampier ſays, 60 miles in length, and 40 or 50 in breadth; but Captain Hamilton makes it, 140 leagues in length, and other 76 in breadth; though, after all, the latter is very unequal, by reaſon of many harbours for ſhipping, and abounding, as well as it's navigable rivers, with variety of fiſh. The ſoil is fat, the valleys well watered, and abound with rice and other proviſions; evergreens, nutmegs, cloves, and good caſſia lignum, or baſtard cinnamon.

It's chief trade is with the iſland of Manilla, but partly with Borneo. The Dutch come hither in ſloops from Ternate and Tidor, two of the Molucca Iſlands, and purchaſe rice, bees-wax, and tobacco, the laſt of which grows more plentifully in this iſland, than in any other of theſe ſeas, except Manilla, and is an excellent ſort; but the people do not manage it to that advantage as the Spaniards do at Manilla. The common rate of the Mindanao gold, is 14 Spaniſh dollars the Engliſh ounce, and 18 dollars the Mindanao ounce; which is the rather obſerved, becauſe theſe Spaniſh dollars are the current coin in all theſe iſlands.

It is divided into ſeveral principalities of different religions and languages. Thoſe who live in the inland country, among the woods and mountains, are called Stilannoons, and have rich mines of gold ore, and great plenty of bees-wax and tobacco, which they exchange with the coaſters for cloathing, callicoes, muſlins, china-ware, ſilk, and other neceſſaries.

BEHOL, north of the former, towards Mindanao, is but 40 leagues in compaſs. The ſoil of it produces no rice, but yields cocoa and divers roots, much cattle and fiſh, and is rich and gold mines.

MINDORA, which extends from north latitude 12, to 13, and from eaſt longitude 119, to 120; is about 20 leagues long, and 12 broad, and 70 in compaſs, and lies on the weſt ſide of the Philippines, and particularly of Maſbate. It produces pepper, has mines of gold, and a town of the ſame name. It is divided by the ſtraights of Mindora from Manilla.

PHILIPPINA, which being firſt diſcovered, gave name to the reſt, is alſo called Tandaya and Samar, lies, betwixt north latitude 12 and 14 ½, and is the pleaſanteſt of them all, fruitful and rich. It is about 130 leagues in compaſs, and is divided from Manilla, on the north weſt, by the ſtraights of that name.

XOLO lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Philippines. All the ſhips of Borneo touch here, and it may be called the mart of all the mooriſh kingdoms in the eaſt. It abounds with rice, and is the only iſland of the Philippines that breeds elephants. The ſea throws up abundance of ambergris on it's ſhore, and yields pearls; and the ſoil, pepper and other fruits.

MASBATE, to the weſt of Tandaya, is 30 leagues in compaſs, and yields wax, ſalt, civet, and gold, of which here are rich mines, and the ore riſes 22 carats fine, but they are not wrought.

We conclude with the biggeſt, the richeſt, and the moſt northern of all the Philippine Iſlands, viz.

LUCONIA, which the Portugueze call Manilla, after the name of it's chief town, and the Spaniards New Caſtille. It extends from north latitude 14, to almoſt 19, and from eaſt longitude 120, to 124, and is ſaid to be 160 Spaniſh leagues in length, but unequal in breadth, being in ſome places twenty, in ſome thirty, and in others forty leagues over. It affords corn, fruit, and roots in great plenty, as well as wild game and fowl. It produces gold of low touch, and is able to furniſh good materials for carrying on a conſiderable commerce.

MANILLA, lies on a point of land made by a river, which iſſues from the lake of Bahia, and falls into the ſea a little lower, at the town of Cavite; where is a ſpacious harbour, but of difficult entrance, becauſe of rocks and ſhoals at the mouth of the bay.

This iſland has the liberty of ſending two ſhips every year to New Spain; but being limitted to that number, they therefore build them vaſtly large. Theſe carry the ſpices and rich commodities of India to Acapulco, a port in the South-Sea, in the kingdom of Mexico, or New Spain, and bring back the valuable commodities of America and Europe, by which trade the gain is ſaid to he four hundred per cent. See ACAPULCO.

PHŒNICE. This province lies along the Mediterranean coaſt, being bounded by it on the weſt, by Syria propria on the north, by Syria Cava, or Cælo Syria, and Batanea on the eaſt, and Paleſtine on the ſouth, and is at preſent part of the Beglebergate of Tripoly. It is but a narrow ſlip of land from eaſt to weſt.

TRIPOLIS of SYRIA, to diſtinguiſh it from that of Barbary, is pleaſantly and commodiouſly ſituated, at the foot of Mount Libanus. It's diſtance from the ſea is but about a mile and a half, and hath a commodious haven, which comes up within leſs than half a mile of the weſt ſide of it. As to the port, it is rather an open ſea than an incloſed harbour, except that it is in part defended by two ſmall iſlands, which lie about two leagues from ſt. (Maundrel.)

The people here ſpend moſt of the ſummer-time in their gardens, where they buſy themſelves with their ſilk-worms, which is the greateſt manufacture they have.

The air is extremely clear and healthy, and the country round about very rich and fruitful; ſo that the town is ſupplied with every thing it wants or can wiſh for.

BERYTUS is ſituate on the ſame coaſt, about 40 miles ſouth of Tripoly, and about 18 ſouth of Sidon. It's chief commerce, which is very conſiderable, conſiſts in fine tapeſtry, ſilks, camblets, cinnamon, nutmegs, ginger, pepper, caſſia, rhubarb, and cochencal. The ſea banks abound with mulberry, pine, lime, and other trees; and with gourds and prodigious quantities of colocynth: ſome add, that in the neighbouring hills are found a ſort of ſtones, of which ſome reſemble olives. (Moncony & Thevenot.)

SIDON, the antienteſt city of Phœnicia, is ſeated in a fertile and delightful ſoil, between the ſea on the weſt, and Libanus on the eaſt, and about 30 miles ſouth of Berytus.

It is at preſent but a little town, though formerly the metropolis of Phœnicia, and a place of great trade: one of the chief commodities of the place is that of raiſins, which the Baſha lets to proper farmers, who are obliged to be moderate in their prices, leſt they ſhould ſtick in hand. Other merchandizes are oil, aſhes, Egyptian ſoap, rice, blue ſilks, Turkey-leather, cotton, ſenna, piſtaches, buffaloes ſkins, &c. Thoſe they import from Europe, are ſattins, damaſks of Genoa and Lucca, ſcarlet and light coloured cloth, paper, and ſome other of leſs value. Proviſions of all ſorts are here in great plenty, and very cheap. The ſilk-worms are kept in little hutts under the mulberries, and thrive very well, unleſs diſturbed by violent claps of thunder.

Leaving the ſea-coaſts, and turning towards the eaſt, at about 82 miles north-eaſt of Aera, ſtands the famed city of Damaſcus, ſituate on a fertile plain, encompaſſed with hills, and upon the river Barady, which enriches that city and country with all kind of plenty and pleaſure.

The city has ſeparate wards for every trade and calling, and theſe are ſhut up every night by gates, and by a ſtout iron chain by day, to keep off beaſts of burthen. It hath, in particular, above 20,000 inhabitants imployed in making ſcymitars, ſword-blades, and other cutlery work; bridles, and a world of other things in iron and ſteel; all which are in great requeſt through Turkey, and beyond, on account of the fine temper which their water or art here gives to thoſe metals. Other commodities are wines, raiſins, prunes, raw and wrought ſilk, and all other merchandizes of Turkey, Arabia, and India, moſt of which are brought hither by caravans, which go and come from Conſtantinople, Egypt, India, Alleppo, Bagdad, Mecca, &c. As for thoſe which come from Europe, they are moſtly brought hither by the Venetians.

DAMASCUS ſtands about 43 miles diſtent from the ſea, being parted from it by a long chain of mountains, and about 45 almoſt eaſt from Sidon, and 65 ſouth-eaſt from Tripoly. In latitude 33 degrees, 37 minutes eaſt, longitude 37 degrees, 4 minutes.

PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL. By philoſophy, we underſtand, the ſcience or knowledge of the nature, cauſes, properties, and effect of all created beings, ſo far as they are capable of being known by reaſon, diſcovered by art, or any ways adapted to the human comprehenſion.—By experimental philoſophy, we mean, the art or method of making ſuch experiments upon all material things, as will tend to lead and conduct the human underſtanding into the true and certain knowlege thereof, and their application to all the uſeful purpoſes of life.

REMARKS of general utility to lucrative arts, manufactures, and commerce.

In order to acquire this art of philoſophizing, it's ſcientifical elements muſt be well underſtood; and it's operation perſonally viewed, and manually performed: whence it's two parts of theory and practice.

It's theory, in general, is acquired not only by information, axiomatically and demonſtratively delivered in the ſynthetical manner, à priori; but analytically, and à poſteriori, in particular. It's practice is acquired by a careful inſtruction in the proper manual operations; which, in general, are limited by place, time, the ſubject and ſuitable means; and, in particular, by the manner of performing. Whence are derived numerous arts, trades, and mechanical employments, and their daily improvement; which has induced us to take notice of an article of this kind. How far this knowlege may be advanced by the means of mathematics, ſee the article MATHEMATICS. How greatly alſo the knowlege of chemiſtry may tend to the advancement of philoſophy, grounded on indubitable experiments, and conſequently of various arts and trades, ſee the articles CHEMISTRY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, ASSAY, BLACK [Dyer's Black], BLEACHING, BLUE, BOLE, BRANDY, BREWING, CALLICO-PRINTING, CLAYS, COPPER-MINES, DISTILLATION, DYEING, EMERALD, ENAMEL, FARMING, FLUX [in metalliurgy], GLASS, and abundance of other articles, which the reader will find in the indexes to both the volumes.

I come now to ſhew, how Natural Philoſophy contributes to afford us the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life; whereby our empire is extended abroad, as a knowlege in phyſic, ſecures us at home. And experimentaliſts in philoſophy may greatly reform trade, or improve it; and this equally, if not more, perhaps, than thoſe who are engaged in it, which chiefly lies in the hands of the illiterate. Thus, for inſtance, the huſbandman's ſkill conſiſts in the knowlege of a few plants and animals, their relation to particular ſoils, and management, with the influence of the celeſtial bodies and meteors thereon; all which ſubjects fall properly under the cognizance of a natural and experimental philoſopher.

For he who has attentively conſidered the nature of generation, nutrition, and accretion, both in plants and animals, and knows how to vary an uſeful experiment, ſo as to remedy the inconveniencies, or ſupply the defects thereof; and can dextrouſly apply his own, and others obſervations, may cultivate huſbandry to as much advantage, as the ordinary farmer tills his land.

An attentive conſideration of the parts that conſtitute each particular trade, would ſhew how they all depend upon philoſophy, and might be farther improved. Thus, the principal parts of refining are a knowlege of the preparation of aqua fortis, and it's operation, upon ſilver, copper, and gold, with the means to purge it, that neither gold may be diſſolved, nor ſilver precipitated, when diſſolved, thereby; to know what proportion is diſſolvable therein, and the quantity of water neceſſary to weaken the ſolution; how long copper-plates ſhould lie, to precipitate the ſilver it contains; how lead is colliquated with, and what proportion thereof is requiſite to carry off the baſer metals upon the teſt; how cupels are made; and, with theſe, to draw off lead or antimony from ſilver or gold; to diſcern when the metal is ſufficiently refined; and, laſtly, to know the proper proportion of gold and ſilver, to make water-gold. This trade, indeed, is underſtood by few, and not ſo diffuſive and complicated as hundreds of others; yet, if they were all judiciouſly reſolved into their component parts, it would doubtleſs appear, that moſt of them are only corollaries, deduced from particular obſervations in philoſophy, or the bare application thereof, to the uſes of human life. And if ſo, it is very probable, that farther diſcoveries, in the nature of the materials, the ſubjects of trade, and a knowlege of the laws they obſerve, may reform or meliorate ſeveral of it's branches.

This too is performable, by odd and unſuſpected means; ſo that, perhaps, the chemiſt's charcoal, may prove an excellent equivalent for manure, if a vegitable ſalt, as probably it is, be the cauſe of the land's fertility. For chemical experiments may diſcover the nature hereof, and thereby afford uſeful directions towards the melioration of arable, paſture, and woodland. From the experiments which have been made upon earths, dungs, and ſeeds, whereby it hath been found that ſalts abounded in the liquors they yielded; we ſee reaſon to wiſh this enquiry were farther proſecuted, towards the improvement of huſbandry. Whoever has obſerved thoſe many particulars in this art, which cauſed Sir Francis Bacon to pronounce nitre to be the life of vegetables; and conſiders how land is improved by pigeon's dung, which impregnates it with ſaltpetre; and, laſtly, knows, that moſt fat earths, defended from the ſun and rain, and left to themſelves, will ſoon abound in nitrous ſalts; whoever conſiders theſe things, will, perhaps, believe a philoſophic enquiry into the nature of ſaltpetre, may be of great uſe in farming.

I once cauſed ſome earth, ſays Mr Boyle, to be dug up, from under a pigeon-houſe, and diſtilling it in a retort, little or no oil, but a conſiderable quantity of reddiſh liquor came over, ſo far unlike ſpirit of nitre, that it greatly reſembled volatile ſalts; for, without being rectified, it not only turned ſyrup of violets green, and precipitated a ſolution of ſublimate into a milky ſubſtance; but there alſo came over therewith, into the lower part of the receiver, a dry ſalt, in taſte like the volatile kind, and ſo far an alkali, that it readily hiſſed, and cauſed an ebullition in an acid menſtruum. From hence it ſeems, which is highly remarkable, that a ſalt, very different from acid, may, by the operation of the earth and air, be ſo altered, as afterwards, by a ſlight management, to afford ſaltpetre, whoſe ſpirit is ſtrongly acid. And dropping aqua fortis upon pot-aſhes, diſſolved in a little fair water, 'till the ebullition and hiſſing were perfectly ceaſed; and, having filtered this liquor, and ſet it in an open veſſel to evaporate with a gentle heat, being in two or three days time removed to a cold place, it afforded very pure cryſtals of ſaltpetre.

I might add, that the knowlege of the nature and diſtinctions of ſaline bodies, may greatly aſſiſt to ſhew the differences of the various ſaltneſs that is found in ſoils; and with what ſort each plant or ſeed is moſt delighted. By this means many tracks of land, now thought barren, for want of a knowlege hereof, might be rendered uſeful. A ground may be made to yield much better crops than uſual, by being ſucceſſively ſown with a proper variety of ſeed, agreeable to the nature of the particular ſalt, at preſent inherent in the earth; for, by the abſence of one kind of ſalt, it is better prepared to feed thoſe plants that delight in another. And of this the huſbandmen have, in ſome meaſure, already taken notice, as appears by their ſowing turneps in grounds too remote for the convenient carriage of compoſt, to ſerve for manure, and fit them for wheat. And I am of opinion, that any land, except mere ſand, might, without much culture, be made fertile, were we but well acquainted with the ſoil, and provided of the various ſorts of grain that nature affords in different countries.

There are various ſoils, both in England and elſewhere, left quite uncultivated, wherein ſome foreign vegetables might thrive and proſper. Many large tracks of ſteep and craggy land, expoſed to ſouthern ſun, lie waſte in ſeveral hot countries, where grapes are not planted; though in France, Italy, and even on the Alps, ſuch lands are turned into excellent vineyards.

An experienced way of cauſing wheat to grow and proſper, even in clay, where no grain had thriven, was communicated to me by a perſon who had uſed it; and the art conſiſted in ſteeping the ſeed, for a determined time, in a certain expreſſed oil that is not dear: whence it is probable, that without altering the ſoil, a ſlight change, properly made in the ſeed alone, may ſo fit them for each other, as to yield a large increaſe. I have alſo ſeen in a collection of rarities, an ear or two of corn, not much unlike our common wheat, one grain whereof, in a warm country, from whence this was brought, would afford ſo vaſt an increaſe, that the poſſeſſor was almoſt aſhamed to declare, and I am more afraid to repeat it.

An Engliſh gentleman, however, aſſured me, that having ſown ſome of this corn, in land of his own, he found a ſingle grain to produce ſeveral hundreds; though that came nothing near what it was ſaid to do, in a more ſuitable ſoil and climate.

The learned Acoſta affirms, that in ſeveral parts of America, where the European wheat will not proſper, the Indian, or Virginia ſort, called alſo maiz, ſucceeds ſo well, that though the grain be large and more than one cluſter often found upon one ſtalk, yet, in a ſingle cluſter he has counted ſeven hundred grains. He adds, it is not unuſual in that country, to reap three hundred times the quantity ſown. This, indeed, ſeems a little incredible; but I myſelf have found, even in England, ſuch a multitude of grains, in one of the vaſt number of ears produced from a ſingle grain, that I am inclined to abſolve Acoſta.

In ſome eaſtern countries, a ſort of rice, the chief food of the natives, thrives excellently upon land ſo watery, that the perſon is there obliged to wade who ſows it. Yet this is leſs ſtrange than what Martinius tells us, as a practice in ſome parts of China; where many places, that lie all the year under water, have ſeed ſo well appropriated to them, that though thrown in the water, as baits for fiſh, it ſhoots up in it's proper ſeaſon, appears on the ſurface like a verdant field, and affords a plentiful crop.

To proceed: chemiſtry and hydroſtatics may help to diſcover the kinds and degrees of ſaltneſs, reſiding in ſeveral other bodies,

dies, the husbandman employs. I myself have made surprizing discoveries, in working upon some sorts of earth, by chemistry. And as, in particular, the fertility of manure seems to depend upon it's salino-sulphureous parts, a practical enquiry into the differences and various operations of salts, may probably assist to discover various kinds of compost, with the proper manner wherein to multiply, compound, and apply them. See MANURE.

And thus, not only fire, but water, by means of the engines, and contrivances to be learnt from hydrostatics, may be made more serviceable to husbandry than ordinary. Martinius assures us, that in one province of China, they water their rice-fields by means of movcable mills, placed as occasion requires, upon any part of the banks of a river. The wheels here, raise the water in buckets to a great height, above the surface of the river; whence it is afterwards convcyed to the destined places in proper channels. But the art of levelling, or conducting water upon the ground, may be farther serviceable in this case. For soils, suited to this way of culture, are thereby greatly improveable; though it be almost entirely neglected, both in England and elsewhere. Some ground, by being skilfully overflowed, has doubled it's increase. And wild boggish places, have been turned into a good dry and compact soil, by barely trenching and overflowing it equally, six or seven times in a year, between the beginning of October, and the middle of April, with water from a neighbouring spring, that is enriched by no land floods, and rose in a barren and uncultivated place; so that this ground afforded hay, in such plenty, as to become worthy twenty times it's former purchase. Other instances of the like improvement have been made, from skilfully overflowing grounds with common water.

I must here observe, that the more comprehensive any trade is, the more improvements it will admit of from philosophy; because, depending upon many natural productions and operations, there must arise many particulars to be meliorated or reformed, either in the manufacture or profession. Thus corn, in husbandry, renders a knowlege of the whole art of tillage convenient, with the ways to order cattle, the dairy, or orchard; a kitchen garden, wood, flax, hemp, hops, bees, &c. and the particular productions of some of these, as honey, cyder, &c. are capable of improvement, and require skill to manage. In the variety of particulars, therefore, wherewith the husbandman deals, there must be some, wherein the superior knowlege and experience of the philosophers will be serviceable. And, as one of the principal parts of husbandry depends upon preserving cattle from diseases, and the fruits of the earth from putrefaction; natural philosophy, founded on experiments, may conduce to both these ends. He who can accelerate, and delay putrefaction in bodies, may shew the husbandman how to prepare variety of manures; to enrich his ground with the peculiar kind of salt it wants; and also, how to preserve several seeds, flowers, and fruits, beyond their natural duration. Thus many have continued fruits, as quinces, for instance, good almost all the year round, by a pickle made only of water, and the refuse of quinces, or what is easily obtained from them; but cherries have been preserved fresh and juicy for more than a year; and that without salt or sugar, only by a proper spirit of wine, well impregnated with the tincture it drew from the skins of the same kind of fruit.

The great advantage accruing to the Dutch, from the best way of pickling herrings; and to others, from so ordering the flesh of animals as to keep sweet, in passing from Europe to the West-Indies, and sometimes, even 'till it comes back again from thence, may shew what benefit husbandry might receive from discovering means to preserve the production of the earth; but especially if it could be extended to small wines, cyder, perry, &c. that are commonly made in large quantities, but soon decayed at home, and are unfit to be transported to very distant countries. The virtue of sugar, to strengthen vinous liquors, and render them durable; and the method of preserving great variety of fruits, and the juices of plants, without the help of salt, or any thing sharp, give some reason to expect, that very different ways may be found to make substances outlast their natural term of duration *.

* To preserve fruit and flowers for a whole year, take saltpetre one pound, bole-armoniac two pounds, common clean sand three pounds; mix them together, and, in dry weather, take fruit or flowers of any sort, not fully ripe, each with it's stalk, and put them singly into an open glass, 'till it be full; cover it close with oil-cloth, and in a dry cellar, put each of these glasses four fingers deep under ground, so that quite round above, as well as below, there may remain two fingers thick of the mixture. See Philosophical Transactions, No. 237. p. 44.

Again, that great damage the husbandman often sustains, by stubborn and contagious diseases in his cattle, might, in good measure, be prevented by the instructions of the philosopher, especially if skilled in physic. For, as many diseases, so many cures also are analogous in men and brutes; though remedies, for several reasons, usually succeed best in the latter. A gentleman has, for several years, preserved his numerous flocks in a moist country, when most of his neighbours lost theirs, by the use of Spanish salt. After having bled them a little under the eye, he obliged them to take down a small handful of it, two or three times in a few days, without permitting them to drink any thing for some hours after it. This remedy he employed at that season when there is a suspicion the sheep will begin to be bloched. I might here alledge the virtue of crude antimony, against the foulness of the blood, and leprosy in swine; of quicksilver against the worms in horses; of the remedy of Palmarius, which, he asserts, is infallible against the bite of a mad dog in cattle; of a more probable one also, that serves no less in men, the effect whereof has been experienced of the antimonial cup, for several diseases in horses and sheep; and lastly, of another antimonial medicine, very successfully used to fatten horses after sickness; all these, and many more receipts of medicines, highly esteemed for their efficacy in several distempers, both in men and brutes, might here be set down, were it needful.

Moreover, there are many reasons assignable, why husbandry, with the assistance of philosophy, may be improved by the addition of a therapeutic part, with regard, not only to the animal and vegitable productions it consists in, but also to the various distempers of the ground itself.

For, were the causes of barrenness therein, with it's respective indisposition to nourish particular plants or animals, discovered, many of those defects may doubtless be removed by rational applications, and proper means of cure; as we see in other inanimate bodies, and even metalline ones. And, from a knowlege of the particular cause of a barren soil, fertility may perhaps be procured to it, without much cost.

Some ingenious husbandmen have lately declared themselves satisfied with a way of meliorating two of the most fruitful kinds of land, clay, and sand, that consists only in skilfully mixing them, in a due proportion, according to the use for which it is designed. [See MANURE.] And an ingenious gentleman, to satisfy some curious persons, purposely sowed some corn, near a place which prospered so strangely, that one root yielded sixty odd ears: and, what is more surprizing, this wonderful increase depended only upon a philosophical observation, without any thing extraordinary having been done, either to the ground or the seed.

To proceed: not only the necessary trades, but also the pleasurable ones, are improvable by philosophy; for they chiefly consist in the knowlege and application, of some natural productions and operations. And the things, by this means acquired, will, without changing their nature, serve us in different capacities; thus wine quenches thirst, recovers a fainting person, and intoxicates: the same spirit of wine, wherewith the physician draws his tinctures and prepares his extracts for medicinal purposes, will dissolve benjamin for the ladies; which, mixed with water, makes an excellent cosmetic; and the same spirit, when applied to the proper ingredients, produces several kinds of fine varnish; the tincture of benjamin, likewise, is applicable to the same uses, and is, itself, a pretty odoriferous varnish, and good against tetters, they being bathed therewith.

That knowlege and skill may make happy applications, even of unpromising things, to the delight of mankind, appears evidently from musical instruments; for, who would imagine, did he not know it, that a few pieces of wood, joined together, and the guts of cats or lambs, twisted into strings, should, when artificially struck, afford the most ravishing pleasure? We might here go on to instance, in the art of colouring, perfuming, confectionary, and of preparing cosmetics, &c. did we not chuse to recommend philosophy, from the pleasure it affords the reason, rather than from the charm wherewith it bribes the senses. Though what has hitherto been delivered about the usefulness of philosophy to trades, belongs chiefly to those wherein nature herself seems more concerned than the artificer; yet such are not here exempted, wherein art has the greatest share. These, indeed, rather depend upon the manual dexterity of men, than a skilful management of nature's productions, by operating on each other; yet, even here the naturalist may be serviceable.

Many manual trades, especially as exercised in large towns, consist of several parts, and require other trades to prepare and dispose their materials before they can be finished and fitted for sale. And although the finisher performs his part, by means of his hands and tools, yet the subordinate workmen usually stand in need of some observations on the conditions of the body they deal with, or must else employ some physical operation; and herein they may be greatly assisted, by an intelligent philosopher. Thus, stone-cutting, though it seems wholly to consist in shaping it's materials, contains many particulars, wherein might easily be shewn, that experimental philosophy would be beneficial. For unusual methods might be discovered to examine the nature and goodness of marble, alabaster, or other stones. A competent knowlege of the sap found in stones, to be employed in building, is so necessary, that experienced master workmen assure us, that stone dug at one season, will soon moulder away; when the same sort, taken out of the same quarry, at another, will endure the weather for many years, if not ages. The cements

also,

alſo, and ſtoppings, as they call them, which are of great uſe in this trade, may be improved by one who is verſed in ſuch kinds of mixtures. I remember I once taught an inquiſitive artiſt a fine cement for rejoining broken ſtatues; who, by the like means, in other caſes, could counterfeit marble ſo well, that though large cavaties were filled up with cement, the work would paſs for entire, thoſe parts being undiſtinguiſhed from natural marble. Want of curioſity keeps our ſtone-cutters, in England, unacquainted with the ways of working upon porphire; for none of them will undertake, either to cut or poliſh it. Other countries alſo, are ignorant herein, though it was in great uſe among the Romans; and, even now, at Rome, there are few who make a very great advantage of this art. I am not certain what they employ for that purpoſe, but believe it to be powder of emery; for I have, in England, cauſed a porphire to be cut by means of that, ſteel ſaws, and water. Not here to mention, that I have an art to ſtain white marble with durable ſpots, ſmall or large, and of red or brown colour.

But the art of ſtone-cutting depending greatly upon the goodneſs of the ſteel tools, which they muſt have from the ſmith, and the dealers in iron; if theſe trades were improved, it would tend to the perfection of the other. And that the ſmith's craft, however manual it appears, may be meliorated by a knowlege of nature, is not difficult to manifeſt.

The ways of making iron and ſteel, are not only improveable before they come to the ſmith's hands, but better expedients may likewiſe be deviſed for ordering them, when they come to be faſhioned into weapons and tools.

The ſword-blades, and other weapons made at Damaſcus, are every where famed (and that juſtly, as far as appears from ſome trials made) for cutting aſunder even iron itſelf; yet it ſeems to be only the ſkill of the artificer that gives them this pre-eminence. Their goodneſs, indeed, might be preſumed to proceed from ſomething peculiar in the materials of that place, did not Bellonius inform us, they have no mines of their own, but receive all their iron and ſteel from other countries, the artiſts giving them this temper and perfection.

In tempering of ſteel, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that beſides the goodneſs of the metal, and the particular degree of heat, which is all the workmen regard, the nature of the fluid, or other body, wherein the hot metal is plunged, and other proper methods of ordering it, may greatly contribute to bring it to great perfection. I have met with a graver of ſo ſurprizing a temper, that all the known means, both I and others uſed, could not let it down; though no graver made in England, could have withſtood us. This was afterwards affirmed to have been tempered at Damaſcus. I am acquainted with a way to harden gravers, without quenching them in any liquor, tallow, or unctuous body; and having recommended to another, an uncommon method of tempering them, he brought me one, which, being plunged into a certain cheap mixture, had been hardened and tempered at once. And, what may ſeem more ſtrange, though ignition and extinction in cold water be the common way to harden ſteel, yet, by obſerving one certain moment of time, ſteel may, by this means, be made ſurprizingly ſoft. But farther, a curious maker of ſteel tools, told me, he obſerved a difference between pump and river water, in giving their temper, each being fit for it's reſpective ſort. Beſides theſe, there are many other particulars, wherein iron and ſteel are improveable by the naturaliſt. And firſt, the metal may be rendered ſo ſoft, as by means of ſtrong moulds to receive variety of figures. This an eminent artificer aſſured me, he has ſeen done in iron, with conſiderable profit. Secondly, it may be rendered fuſible, and I myſelf with a charcoal fire, and a flux powder compoſed of tartar, ſulphur, and arſenic, have run it into an exceeding hard, and very poliſhable maſs. Thirdly, it may be ſo ordered, as to continue long free from ruſt; and an ancient virtuoſo, who purchaſed the ſecret for a great prince, uſed to ſhew ſteel ſo prepared by tempering it in water, impregnated with the bark of a certain tree. In a word, there are various other means, whereby iron and ſteel, or the trades that uſe them, may be meliorated; for the naturaliſt may advance an art or profeſſion, in abundance of reſpects; as either by diſcovering variety of materials, or rendering thoſe already in uſe better conditioned; by detecting and reforming unheeded errors or miſtakes, by deviſing more eaſy and compendious methods of operation, by improving the auxiliary branches; by inſtructing the artificer to chuſe, examine, and preſerve his tools and materials; for laſtly, by ſhewing how to make the ultimate productions ſooner, cheaper, eaſier, and better, applicable to more uſes, or more durable than uſual, with other ſervices, too numerous here to relate.

But farther, a naturaliſt may likewiſe introduce new trades, as well as improve the old ones; and that, either by inventing them originally, or bringing them into requeſt, where they were unknown before: for neither nature nor human invention, is ſo far exhauſted, as not to afford them, were philoſophy employed in the ſearch. We may here obſerve, that a trade in many caſes, differs from an experiment, not ſo much in the nature of the thing, as it's having been accidentally applied to human uſes, or made a buſineſs by a company of artificers, in order to their own profit, which are things extrinſical and accidental to the experiment itſelf. Thus, for example, the exploſion occaſioned by a mixture of nitre, ſulphur, and charcoal, whilſt it paſſed no farther than the laboratory of the monk, the reputed inventor of gunpowder, was only an experiment; but, when once the great uſe to be made hereof became more generally known, and people reſolved to make a buſineſs of improving and applying it, this ſingle experiment at once, gave riſe to founders of ordnance, gunſmiths, engineers, and abundance of other trades.

The diſcovery of the polar virtue in the loadſtone, has occaſioned a diſtinct trade, the art of compaſs-making: and many other inſtances of the like kind might be produced, eſpecially where mechanical tools and contrivances conſpire with the diſcovery of natural productions; ſo that frequently, a very few mathematical theorems, or phyſical obſervations, reduced to practice by the manual operator, become trades. Thus, two or three dioptrical propoſitions, falling into mechanical hands, have introduced ſpectacles, teleſcopes, and microſcopes. Quickſilver being obſerved to amalgamate with gold, and to be again ſeparable therefrom without diminution, produced the art of gilding; which principally conſiſts in mixing, by means of a proper heat, pure gold with five, ſix, or ſeven times it's weight of quickſilver, 'till it become of a conſiſtence fit to ſpread upon the ſilver or copper deſigned. For the gold being by this means evenly overlaid, they can eaſily by fire force away the mercury; and with a liquor, by workmen called colouriſh, wherein nitre, verdigreaſe, ſal armoniac, and other ſaline bodies are diſſolved, reſtore it's luſtre to the remaining gold, which they afterwards make bright by poliſhing.

The ſlight and obvious remark that a ſpring, phyſically conſidereded, was a continual and durable force, with it's corollary, that this force, properly applied, might ballance the weight required to move the wheels of a clock, joined to a ſuitable mechanical contrivance, produced thoſe uſeful machines called watches, which now afford a handſome ſubſiſtence to many dextrous artificers; and which, though cuſtom has rendered them familiar to us, were unknown to the Ancients, and highly prized and admired even in China, when firſt carried thither.

The diſcovery that aqua fortis diſſolved ſilver and copper, but would not work upon gold, added to the obſervation, that lead, melted with either of the noble metals, and then forced from them by fire, will carry off with it any of the baſer ſort, has, in later ages, produced the art of refining.

The operations of ſome lixivia, clays, and other common things, upon the juice of the ſugar-cane, has not only added to the ancient huſbandry the cultivation of theſe canes, but given birth to the ſeveral trades of ſugar-boilers, ſugar-bakers, refiners of ſugar, and confectioners, not to mention the advantage it brings to the apothecary.

But even a very ſlight contrivance or manual operation, if it prove fortunate, may ſupply men with a trade, as we ſee in the art of printing. And the lucky trial made to bore very ſmall holes through broken China cups, with the uſe of ſlender wire, inſtead of thread or ſilk, to faſten the pieces together, has given being to the exerciſe hereof, as a vulgar trade in the eaſtern countries. Their art alſo of varniſhing or japanning as we call it, which depending on a knowlege of ſome gums and liquors in their country, employs multitudes of tradeſmen among them, is, as I am credibly informed, now practiſed at Paris. And finding from Linchoten, that in China and Japan they made this excellent varniſh of gum-lacca, I imitated one of the beſt ſorts of it, by diſſolving that gum in highly rectified ſpirits of wine, giving it a colour, and laying it on in a particular manner. I might farther alledge, the art of cultivating and gathering ſugar-canes, with the manner of ordering their juice, as a recent inſtance of the tranſplantation of arts and manufactures; for, as I am very credibly informed, a foreigner accidentally bringing ſome ſugar-canes as rarities, from Brazil into Europe, touched at Barbadoes, where an Engliſh planter obtained a few of him, with ſome hints as to their cultivation and uſe; which, by the curioſity and induſtry of the Engliſh colony there, were ſoon ſo well improved, that the iſland became, and ſtill continues, able to ſupply great quantities of ſugar. I am the more particular in this inſtance, becauſe it is very remarkable, and ſhews, how many hands the introduction of a phyſico-mechanical art may employ: for the negroes, who live as ſlaves there and at Jamaica, and are almoſt wholly employed in the ſugar-trade, amount to between ſixty-five and ſeventy thouſand, according to the Rev. Mr Hughes.

Thus then, it appears probable, that experimental philoſophy may multiply trades, as well as improve them. Nor do I deſpair, that among the means of increaſing trades, one may be the retrieving of ſome that were anciently practiſed, but ſince loſt, of which the learned Pancirollus gives us a catalogue. For, as the ſkilful diver brings up, not only pearls and coral, but alſo ſhipwrecked merchandize, ſo the experimental philoſopher dives into the deep receſſes of nature, to recover inventions ſwallowed up by the injuries of time, as well as to bring to light her hidden riches.

But,

But, ſtill farther, I am inclined to think, there is no profeſſion, condition, or, perhaps, individual perſon of the ſpecies, that may not, one way or other be advantaged or accommodated, were all the truths diſcovered by natural philoſophy, known and applied. So that beſides thoſe inventions, which are formed into trades, there may be a multitude of looſe particulars, whereby the naturaliſt might highly gratify and aſſiſt mankind. The nature of the thing will ſcarce permit me to illuſtrate this aſſertion, without deſcending to inſtances trifling in themſelves, if not contemptible; for which, reaſon, I ſhall here content myſelf with a few.

A great lady, lately complaining that ſhe could not write in the common way, without blacking her fingers, I deſired her to prepare her paper with a fine powder, made of about three parts of calcined copperas, two of galls, and one of gum arabic; which being freſh mixed and rubbed with a hare's foot into the pores of the paper, when that came to be wrote on with fair water, it would immediately diſcover black legible letters. Having ſeveral times, occaſion to make a word or two lately written, appear as if written long before, I lightly moiſtened them with oil of tartar per deliquium, more or leſs diluted with fair water, as I deſired the ink to appear more or leſs decayed. Another cleanly way of writing without ink, is by rubbing the fine powder of exquiſitely calcined harts-horn, clean tobacco-pipes, or rather mutton-bones, burnt to a perfect whiteneſs, upon the paper, and then uſing a ſilver bodkin or the like, as a pen. A very ſimple and eaſy method of making white table books, is a temper pulverized ceruſe, with a ſtrong ſolution of gum arabic in water, which being brought to a thick conſiſtence, muſt be rubbed over the paper, and ſuffered to dry. A very ingenious artificer, having contrived an uſeful engine, a neceſſary part whereof was a glaſs filled with fair water and ſtopped, complaining that froſty weather by freezing the water broke his glaſs; I adviſed him to uſe good ſpirits of wine, inſtead of the water, or to ſave the expence of that, ſea-water ſtrengthened with a little ſalt; or laſtly, common ſpring-water, with a twentieth or tenth part of ſalt diſſolved therein; for I have found none of theſe, though clear, to freeze in the ſharpeſt of our winters in England. A confection made up with the pulp of ſloes, accidentally ſtaining a large quantity of new damaſk from the top to the bottom, by ſteeping it for ſome hours in new milk, and afterwards cauſing it to be carefully waſhed in more of the ſame, the damaſk came out unſtained and white. Urine will uſually take ſtains, even thoſe made by ink, out of linnen; and with ſtrong ſpirit of ſalt I have done the ſame; firſt wetting the ſpotted places with fair water, whence after waſhing, no iron-mole has remained. Some ingenious perſons who deal much in lixivia and brines, complaining of inconveniencies that attend the trial of the ſtrength of ſaline liquors by means of an egg; for to mention no others, the ſame egg will, by being kept, grow lighter, and therefore, when ſtale, they have uſually a large cavity at the bigger end; I recommended to them the uſe of a piece of amber for that purpoſe, of what magnitude beſt ſuited their occaſions. Being once in a place where I could not procure ſome Dantzic vitriol that I wanted, and obtaining therefore ſome liquor which the rain had waſhed from green vitriol, or copperas-ſtones, and adding thereto a proper quantity of copper, I made it ſerve as a menſtruum to work upon the metal; and by exhaling the ſolution, obtained the blue vitriol I wanted. And the likee, I doubt not, may be done with all thoſe common green vitriols made of iron, wherein the ſaline part is not too much ſatiated with the ferruginous.

A great dealer in cyder, expreſſing a deſire to be able to make that liquor ſtronger, ſo as to keep longer than ordinary, I told him to infuſe, for twenty-four hours, in ten or twelve gallons of the juice of apples, about two buſhels of the ſame kind of fruit, groſsly bruiſed; then gently preſſing them, to repeat the infuſion, obſerving not to make it too thick: and this ſucceeded excellently.

Searching accidentally in a dark place, where ſtood ſome chemical glaſſes I knew nothing of, negligently ſtopped, and not wrote upon, one happened to fall, and grievouſly ſtain a new ſuit I had on; but judging, from the nature of the ſtain, that it proceeded from ſome acid ſpirit, by ſearching about, and ſmelling to the remaining bottles, I found one that I gueſſed by it's ſcent, to abound with volatile ſalt, and with this liquor I bathed the ſtained parts, which immediately reſtored them to their former colour. By the like means alſo, I have preſently remedied the diſcolourations made in garments, by fretting liquors, which would otherwiſe have been thereby rendered unfit for wearing.

A virtuoſo having made a ſolution of gold, ſuſpected the metal alloyed with copper, and therefore unfit for his purpoſe; I adviſed him to precipitate the gold by an urinous ſpirit, which it did, into a fine calx, while the fluid, remaining highly tinged with blue, betrayed the copper that had been uſed for alloy.

Theſe trifling inſtances being more pertinent to my deſign, than others in themſelves of greater value, is the reaſon I have choſe them; nor ſhall I repent the mention of them, if they ſerve to ſhew, that the meaneſt experiments may ſometimes be uſeful, and better adapted to convince ſtrangers to philoſophy of it's numerous uſes, than thoſe of a higher and obſtruſer nature. As to know the uſe of a bladder of air, may be more ſerviceable to a pilot in a ſhipwreck, than the moſt hidden properties of the magnet; ſo in ſome caſes, obvious and ſlight experiments prove vaſtly more welcome and uſeful, than more conſiderable ones would at another time: ſo true it is, that 'every thing is beautiful in it's ſeaſon.' For my part, I cannot but hope, that natural philoſophy will prove daily more ſerviceable both to particular perſons, and trades themſelves; eſpecially if a farther enquiry be made, and thereby new qualities detected, and unheeded uſes of natural and artificial philoſophy diſcovered. For whoever narrowly conſiders it, will find, that trades at preſent, deal with but very few of nature's productions, in compariſon of thoſe they leave unemployed; and that what they do make uſe of therein, are their obvious qualities, bating ſome few more ſecret properties which chance, or a lucky ſagacity, rather than ſkill and enquiry, have diſcovered; and, therefore, I ſcruple not to aſſert, that if men were thoroughly ſenſible of their own intereſt, and would carefully keep their eyes open upon the properties of things, and the application that might be made thereof in human life; they might not only diſcover new qualities thereby, and ſo produce NEW TRADES, but even convert them to ſuch uſes as the inventor little imagined: and of this I might produce various inſtances. To theſe general conſiderations I muſt add, with regard to the following, that the reader is not to expect a methodical enumeration of all the grounds and motives I have to expect greater advantages from a future progreſs in the knowlege of nature, for I chuſe to confine myſelf to what I can render probable by examples, and inſtances of that which is already acquired, or very likely ſoon will be. It muſt not, therefore, be imagined, that I have overlooked all the particulars pertinent to my ſubjects; nor that I propoſed to ſet down all the inducements that might be brought, to ſhew the uſefulneſs of experimental philoſophy. My deſign is only to render the expectations of advantages to be received from it probable; to do which, is taking a good ſtep towards the attainment of the things themſelves, as Sir Francis Bacon well obſerves. And I the rather endeavour to heighten mens expectations herein, becauſe many there are, who, being bred up in the vulgar barren philoſophy, judge of all philoſophy by that; and becauſe ſome moroſe authors and deſpondent perſons, who have unſucceſsfully attempted to perform things delivered by unfaithful writers, fancy, and would perſuade others, that nothing conſiderable is performable by natural philoſophy; our foreſathers having, if we credit theſe perſons, had the good luck to hit upon all the profitable inventions which philoſophy can afford mankind. It may here alſo, poſſibly be expected that I ſhould treat particularly of the principal means whereby a naturaliſt might advance trades, and aſſiſt mankind to recover part of his loſt empire over the works of nature. And I confeſs I have had thoughts of a project to advance experimental philoſophy, conſiſting of ſuch heads as theſe. A proſpect of what may probably be attained to by philoſophy, both in theory and practice. A brief account of what is already obtained thereby. The imperfection of our preſent attainments. What helps we now enjoy. The inſufficiency of our preſent helps. The hinderances and cauſes of them. And laſtly, the means and helps that may be applied. See ROYAL SOCIETY.

PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY conſiſts of three parts, viz. invention, rationale, and experiment. Whence it might be defined, the particular exerciſe of the inventive and rational faculties of the mind upon chemical ſubjects, operations, and effects, leading up to experiments and back again; ſo as to draw concluſions, account for phænomena, ſtart problems, and attempt their ſolution in this circle ſucceſſively *.

* Nec manus nuda, nec intellectus ſibi permiſſus, multum valet: inſtrumentis & auxiliis res perficitur; quibus opus eſt non minus ad intellectum quam ad manum. BACON.

Philoſophical chemiſtry, therefore, is the ſource and ſoul of the whole art; as by inventing, reaſoning, comparing, and adjuſting of things, directing experiments, and concluding from the reſult, it forms new doctrines, and makes new diſcoveries, for itſelf, and all the other branches, to improve and apply.

In the way of invention, this part of chemiſtry is more particularly applicable: (1.) To the imitation of natural and artificial things: (2.) To the production of new artificial bodies: (3.) To the ſtarting of new arts and trades: and, (4.) To the ſupplying of deſiderata, or defects in the old ones. (1.) As natural bodies may be ſo diſſolved or taken to pieces, as in many caſes to diſcover their conſtituent parts or ingredients; philoſophical chemiſtry hence forms rules for imitating various productions of nature; which, in ſome particulars, is done to great exactneſs; as in the making of cinnabar, vitriol, &c. where the reſolution has been found eaſy; in others leſs exactly, where, by the common methods, the reſolution has hitherto proved more difficult, as in the buſineſs of artificial gums and metals, though ſome well meant attempts have appeared in this way too.

The like alſo is to be underſtood of artificial bodies, made in one country and imitated in another; whence the imitataion of Venice glaſs in England, the imitation of porcellain, the Japan varniſh, various refinements of foreign drugs, ſugar, &c. in Europe: all which were not caſual, are of pure chemical extraction: and the proper enquiries into things of this kind, fall under the inventive part of philoſophical chemiſtry.

(2.) New artificial bodies are chemically producible ab origine, either in the act of ſeparation or combination.

In the way of ſeparation, chemiſtry has invented and produced fermented potable liquors, inflammable ſpirits, ſalts, ſugar, pot-aſh; thoſe vulgarly called chemical preparations, as oils, extracts, ſpirits, &c. various pigments, and all the pure and unmixed metals: and in the way of combination, it has produced ſoap, glaſs, vitriol, gunpowder, all the mixed or artificial metals, &c.

(3.) Arts and trades are the genuine fruits or conſequences of the preceeding diſcoveries, in which view inventive chemiſtry is the purveyor to all the other branches, and has thus ſtruck out a very large number of hints, which are frequently formed in trades. Thus the invention of aqua fortis, for example, has given riſe to the ſcarlet dye, the buſineſs of etching, the art of refining, &c.

(4.) And, as inventive chemiſtry ſtrikes out new arts and new trades, it is no leſs capable of diſcovering means to promote them, or ſupply the defect, which may appear in their firſt eſtabliſhment, or retard their farther advancement. Inſtances of this kind are every where to be met with; particlarly in the arts of ſugar-baking, ſoap-boiling, fermenting, diſtilling, &c. wherein many ſhorter and better methods of working have been ſeverally diſcovered.

(5.) In the way of rationale, philoſophical chemiſtry is particularly applicable: (1.) To the accounting for natural and artificial phænomena and effects: (2.) To the explanation of the general and particular properties, or forms and qualities of bodies: (3.) To the diſcovery of the chemiſtry of nature: (4.) To the conſideration of natural and artificial tranſmutations: and (5.) To the giving a rational theory of medical matters.

(1.) Philoſophical chemiſtry accounts for many natural and artificial phænomena and effects, as it is often in the power of this art to imitate the ſame; whence reaſoning by juſt analogy, it may be allowed to give fair and ſatisfactory ſolutions. After this manner it endeavours to account for lightening and thunder, with their ſtrange effects; the aurora borealis, earthquakes, volcano's, &c. And much in the ſame way it ſolves the phænomena of gunpowder, the phoſphori, and various other ſurprizing productions of chemiſtry itſelf.

(2.) As this part of philoſophical chemiſtry is uſed to explain the general and particular properties, or forms and qualities of bodies, it conſiders heat, cold, light, moiſture, dryneſs, volatility and fixedneſs, fluidity and firmneſs, continuity and contiguity, colours, taſtes, odours, congelation and conglaciation, efferveſcenſces, fermentations, putrefaction, ſolution, precipitation, and the various operations of chemiſtry, with numerous other phænomena; ſo as to ſhew how they are produced, effected, altered, or changed in bodies, and thence to make out their general and particular hiſtories.

(3.) Philoſophical chemiſtry finds many reaſons for allowing a chemical agency in the production of natural bodies, and their manner of acting upon one another, whence they bring about a kind of true chemical effects. And upon this foundation, the original compoſition and ſtructure of natural bodies, is rationally accounted for, with the operations and effects of the elements upon each other. Thus water and air may be chemically conſidered, as two grand menſtruums of nature; which, by means of the ſun's heat, and the ſubterraneal warmth, are continually at work upon all ſublunary bodies, in order to bring forward various changes, regenerations, and tranſmutations, &c. Whence the origin and appearance of meteors, the generation of hall, ſnow, rain, metals, minerals, &c. And thus all vegetation, anomalization, and mineralization (if theſe words are allowable) may be conſidered and accounted for, as operations or effects of natural chemiſtry.

(4.) The buſineſs of natural and artificial tranſmutations falls the more particularly under the rationale of chemiſtry, as little elſe but conſideration and reaſoning is required to underſtand and apply it. Theſe tranſmutations may be entirely natural, or entirely artificial, or partly natural and partly artificial. Under the entirely natural, come ſuch as thoſe produced by putrefaction, long ſtanding or digeſting in the air, water, or any natural fluid: whence animal ſubſtances are converted into vegetables, wood into ſtone, metals into one another, bodies into air, water, fire, &c. and theſe are again into bodies.

The tranſmutations effected by the joint concurrence of nature and art, are ſuch as thoſe made by fermentation; where art puts the ſubjects together, and rightly diſpoſes them, but nature performs the buſineſs: ſo in the making of paper, art ſtamps the rags, but nature half putrifies the matter, and thus contributes to change it.

The tranſmutations purely artificial, are ſuch as thoſe made by triture, mixture, long digeſtion, and other chemical operations; as in extracting the mercuries of metals, and ſeveral other inſtances in the ſublimer metallurgy.

Whether theſe artificial tranſmutations be real or only apparent, is not ſo much the queſtion; thoſe who will not allow them for tranſmutations, may call them alterations or changes of one form into another: and, perhaps, they may be no more at the bottom; for, if the changed body be not always artificially reducible to it's priſtine ſtate again (which is ſuppoſed the criterion of an artificial tranſmutation) this may be owing not to any impoſſibility in the thing, but to the want of a ſuitable method for doing it.

(5.) A juſt theory of many medical matters will naturally flow from the foregoing conſiderations, or from a particular application of the rationale of philoſophical chemiſtry to the human body; with a view to obſerve it's natural ſtate, it's diſorders, and the effects of remedies. Thus, in particular, it helps to clear up the diſputes about animal digeſtion, chylification, ſanguification, nutrition, &c. ſhews how the blood and humours are altered by heat, cold, motion, attrition, &c. Whence the origin, nature, duration, and phænomena of diſtempers, and their manner of cure.

(6.) In the way of experiment, philoſophical chemiſtry is univerſally applicable, and many times abſolutely neceſſary to the farther examination, illuſtration, and confirmation, of the preceding parts, or the whole theory of the art, which indeed cannot ſubſiſt without it. For though ſome kind of theory might be formed of philoſophical matters independent of experiments, yet ſuch theories have uſually been found barren, unſound, or uſeleſs, ſo as in no reſpect to be ſafely truſted *.

* Omnem philoſophiam ab experientiæ radicibus, ex quibus primum pullulavit, & incrementum cepit, avulſam rem mortuam eſſe. BACON.

(7.) It is the peculiar province of this part of philoſophical chemiſtry to bring new inventions and theories to the touch-ſtone; diſcover their validity or their inſufficiency; and when found juſt and ſolid, to confirm or ſtamp them with a character that makes them univerſally current, and fit to be employed for farther uſes.

(8.) Thus, when any hint is ſtarted for a new trade, or chemical method invented for the improvement of an old one, before the leaſt attempt is made to apply it in real buſineſs, the proper eſſay or experiment muſt be performed in miniature; which proving ſucceſsful upon repeated examination, with due variation of circumſtances, may now encourage the application, or advancement of this diſcovery into an art.

(9.) And thus philoſophical chemiſtry works in miniature to try the truth, and find out the practicability of things; an example or model of which procedure is preſerved and particularly retained in the buſineſs of aſſaying [ſee ASSAY], which before-hand determines the yield of an ore, and ſometimes the beſt way of working it in large, by previous experiments made in miniature.

(10) By thus confining itſelf to work in ſmall, or in the way of trial, enquiry or ſpecimen only, philoſophical chemiſtry has the opportunity of fully commanding it's ſubject; which it chuſes of a proper ſize for the external ſenſes to view, and examine on all ſides, and obſerve the phænomena, effects, and relations, without being oppreſſed with too unweildy a bulk, or having the mind diſtracted with too many conſiderations; which might attend a large work, and retard it's advancement to a regular and ſtated perfection.

(11.) But when thus the experimental part of philoſophical chemiſtry has perfected any diſcovery in ſmall, with relation to arts or trades, and clearly and ſolidly ſhewn how it may be wrought to advantage in large, it has now performed it's office; and here leaves the thing, or turns it over to the other branches of chemiſtry, whoſe end is advantage, to be carried on in the form of a buſineſs. So Cornelius Drebble, when he had fairly aſſayed and proved the invention of the ſcarlet dye, gave it up to thoſe, who afterwards ererciſed it as a trade. And this appears to have been the general way wherein arts and trades were originally invented, or firſt brought into uſe, for it cannot be ſuppoſed, that large expenſive works ſhould have been ſet up, before any trial had appeared to encourage them.

(12.) It is a particular happineſs in this buſineſs of experiments, that when an enquiry is made by their means, a proper ſet or competent number of them, gone through in due order, will uſually give the diſcovery, or as it were a ſpontaneous ſolution of the problem. But to practiſe this method to advantage, requires a judicious head and a dextrous hand, with a due obſervance of the rules laid down by the lord Verulam, in his noble work De Augmentis Scientiarum, and Novum Organum.

(13.) As the ſeveral parts of the philoſophical chemiſtry are thus ſeparately applicable to ſuch good purpoſes, much greater advantage may be reaſonably expected from the joint uſe and mutual aſſiſtance which they are capable of affording each other, eſpecially by a precedent management and application. A great deal has been already done in this way, but more remains to be done. The lord Bacon ſeems to have gone as far as mortal could, without the aſſiſtance of new ſetts of

experiments

experiments in all the parts of philoſophy, but principally in chemiſtry, up to which experiments his attatchment to nature led him: but at the fiat experimentum he judiciouſly choſe to ſtop, rather than to advance farther by the help of conjecture, or ſuppoſing the event of experiments, which it would require ſome ages to make. As if the fiat experimentum had been directed to Mr Boyle, he took up philoſophical chemiſtry where the lord Bacon left it; and to what lengths he carried it, the preſent ſtate thereof may witneſs.

(14.) But the Engliſh philoſophers ſeem, at preſent, to be got a little out of this chemical vein; and applying cloſer to other ſtudies, leave the cultivation of chemiſtry to the philoſophers of other nations. We have had our Bacons, our Digby, and our Boyle; men as eminent in chemiſtry, as in other parts of uſeful knowlege: but Germany ſeems more diſpoſed to encourage this art, where every court has it's laboratory, and every mountain it's mine: whence it has been uſually well ſupplied with a competent ſett of original chemiſts, ſuch as Agricola, Ercken, Kunckel, Becher, Homberg, and Stahl.

(15.) Hence alſo their contiguous neighbours the Dutch have derived ſo much of this art as ſuits their purpoſe, and fits them to ſupply all Europe with commodities of greateſt conſumption, new fabricated and refined by their induſtrious hands. Nor has leſs induſtry been uſed of late, to promote the knowlege of this art in their univerſities: and though it has been there taught with a view to medicine only, yet ſome have hence took occaſion to launch into the ocean of philoſophical chemiſtry; particularly Boerhaave, that late learned and aſſiduous profeſſor of Leyden.

(16.) But not to leave this buſineſs of philoſophical chemiſtry too looſe, it may be neceſſary to reſtrain it within it's own bounds. It ſeems ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed from the exerciſe of arts by that obſervation already made, as to it's confining itſelf to work in miniature, by way of trial and ſpecimen only; whereas arts and trades, produce in large, upon a ſetled diſcovery, to ſupply the demands of commerce.

(17.) Though we diſtinguiſh this general head by philoſophy experimental (under which we comprehend all kinds of experiments that may be of uſe in arts and trades), yet there is a diſtinction between philoſophical chemiſtry, and the common experimental philoſophy, which lies here; philoſophical chemiſtry, is the buſineſs of experimentally examining into the internal ſtructure and compoſition, not only of natural, but alſo of artificial bodies; ſeparating their conſtituent parts, differently combining theſe again, and thus producing new concretes, and new modifying both the internal or external form of the old ones: whereas the common experimental philoſophy is employed in the diſcovering the more obvious properties, and external uſes of natural bodies; the groſs integrant parts, or entire aggregates, whereof it experimentally orders, diſpoſes, and applies in their natural form and ſubſtance, to the promotion of knowlege, and the uſes of life: but this produces no new bodies, nor enters into the ſubſtance, ſtructure, and compoſition of the old ones; nor changes their external and internal forms; nor ſeparates their conſtituent parts; nor variouſly combines theſe afreſh; nor regards bodies at all as they are reſolvable and combinable, or as they are ſimples, mixts, compounds, aggregates, or de-compounds: all which is the peculiar buſineſs and office of philoſophical chemiſtry.

(18.) Thus again; it is conceived that natural philoſophy cannot, with propriety, be ſaid to extract and purify metals, analyze vegetables, animal and mineral ſubſtances, tan leather, brew beer, dye cloth, make glaſs, produce oils, ſpirits, ſoaps, &c. but theſe and all ſuch, are the direct and proper operations of chemiſtry.—See TANNING, BREWING, DYEING, GLASS, OILS, SPIRITS, SOAP, &c.

So likewiſe, natural philoſophy diſcovers the obvious, external properties of the air, fire, water, heat, cold, moiſture, wind, &c. by means of various experiments, made with the air-pump, and other ſuitable contrivances; but it is philoſophical chemiſtry, which more eſſentially examines into the internal nature, compoſition, relations, and uſes of the elements, and other phænomena, and thence finds ways of applying them as engines and inſtruments of actual buſineſs: and thus in a more particular manner, it applies thoſe two grand inſtruments, heat and cold.

(19.) In ſhort, there ſeems to be nearly the ſame difference betwixt chemiſtry and the preſent natural philoſophy, as there is betwixt art and nature; ſo that, perhaps, it might not be amiſs, if, by way of diſtinction, UNIVERSAL CHEMISTRY were allowed to paſs under the name of ARTIFICIAL PHILOSOPHY.

(20.) This diſtinction might not only ſerve to reſtrain chemiſtry to it's proper province, and ſettle it's real extent and immediate buſineſs, but contribute alſo in ſome meaſure, to remove the prejudice too commonly affixed to the name, when chemiſtry is mentioned.

(21.) The immoral practices of many who have aſſumed the name of chemiſt, have greatly contributed to bring a diſrepute upon the art; whereto the abandoned and diſſolute have uſually made their pretenſions with no more knowlege of it, than would ſerve them to cheat dextrouſly under it's appearance. So odious has chemiſtry been rendered by this means; as to deter many from the due ſtudy and exerciſe thereof, whence it has been too much left in bad hands. But the damage from this quarter is more ſenſibly perceived in the ſublimer metallurgy; whence GOLDEN MOUNTAINS having been too often ſeriouſly expected, the indigent and the knaviſh pretenders to art, have hence been furniſhed with a fine handle to practiſe upon the unwary, or ſuch as they found blinded by an immoderate paſſion for gain. See CHEMISTRY.

(22.) Theſe and the like abuſes, are no way juſtly chargeable upon the art itſelf, but entirely upon the artiſt; yet ſuch is the fate of human affairs, that the faults of men are often laid at the door of the arts they profeſs, as thoſe arts may prove occaſional cauſes of the ill: whence philoſophic chemiſtry, perhaps, gives more occaſion of public and private abuſes than other arts, as being leſs generally underſtood, and attended with the proſpect of greater advantages.

(23.) But, as the beſt things are capable of the greater abuſe, this miſapplication of chemiſtry could hardly of itſelf, have removed it from the care and patronage of the Engliſh philoſophers, if more tempting ſtudies had not come in the way; particularly the higher geometry, and ſpeculative philoſophy, which have employed moſt of our greater geniuſes. But if upon full examination, theſe more ſublime ſtudies ſhall be found of narrow uſe, philoſophic chemiſtry may again chance to be cultivated, as an art whoſe eſſence is action, and whoſe end is uſefulneſs in life.

(24.) And, if the genius of the Britiſh philoſopher ſhould in earneſt turn this way, the art itſelf might thus be nobly reſcued from the hands of ſuch as diſhonour it; and be ſet in it's true light, unſullied by chicane or deluſion: new improvements would be daily made therein, many valuable ſecrets diſcovered, new trades advanced, commerce in general enlarged, and uſeful knowlege increaſed. And though our philoſophers were to be thus employed for ages yet to come, there is no fear of exhauſting this rich mine of philoſophy and arts: which may be now dug to greater ſatisfaction and advantage, as there is no want of mechanical hands in England to execute in large, or bring into works, ſuch diſcoveries as ſhall give the encouragement. For as much as the Engliſh pliloſophers excel in contrivance, invention, and accuracy of experiment, ſo much are our mechanical people allowed to excel in adroitneſs and truth of work. And ſince the new opening, draining, and working of mines among us, we ſeem to be called upon afreſh to the exerciſe and improvement of this art; whence it may in time come to meet with that eſteem and application it deſerves, in a country ſo juſtly famous as ours for it's philoſophy and it's trade, and thence one day appear in a due body and form of ARTIFICIAL PHILOSOPHY.

(25.) But ſuch a fabric cannot be erected without a number of hands, ſet to work upon the ſeveral parts; and, indeed, all the aſſiſtance that can any way be procured, is little enough for the purpoſe.

(26.) When a general knowlege is gained in the theory and practice of this art, of experimenting philoſophically in all reſpects, ſo that it's uſes and manner of applying to the purpoſes of life, are become ready and familiar; it ſeems principally neceſſary to it's farther advancement, that there ſhould be a free communication of ſtudies, experiments, and trials, among a ſelect number of perſons thus qualified: for as it is naturally impoſſible that any ſingle man ſhould have a competent knowlege in all arts and ſciences, ſo is it expedient, that as much thereof as can be acquired ſhould be lodged in ſome few, who may freely draw out of each other as occaſion requires. Whence they might be enabled to furniſh out not jejune repetitions of things already currently known and practiſed, but reſults of new enquiries, real improvements, and methods of ſupplying the defects of particular arts; or eſſays well fraught with experimental FACTS and uſeful diſcoveries, after the manner of Bacon, of Boyle, of Homberg, and of Stahl and Shaw. Nor will ſuch a ſelect body of men fail of procuring all the aſſiſtance that can be had from uncommon books, papers, and accounts of particular facts and experiments. And in this manner philoſophical chemiſtry ſhould be kept coutinually open, or in a ſtate of improvement; permitting as it advances, that arts and trades be ſupplied, detached, or drawn from it occaſionally. See the articles CHEMISTRY, MUSÆUM, and ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

PICARDY, in France, is bounded on the eaſt by Champagne; on the ſouth by the iſle of France; on the weſt by Normandy and the Britiſh Channel; by which alſo, with the provinces of Artois, Hainalt, and Cambreſis, it is bounded on the north. The ſoil is extremely fertile in corn, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits, but it affords little or no wine. It is uſually divided into three parts, viz. Upper, Middle, and Lower Picardy.

UPPER PICARDY has Hainalt and Cambreſis on the north; Champagne on the eaſt, Laonnois on the ſouth, and Vermandois on the weſt.

At LA FERE is a powder-mill, in which they make about 120,000 pounds of powder yearly; and at Vermins, a ſmall city on the rivulet Serre, they have a great trade in corn.

MONCORNET,

MONCORNET, near the ſame river, has a manufactory of coarſe ſerges.

MIDDLE PICARDY comprehends Vermandois, tha country of Santerre, and Amienois.

ST QUINTIN, in Vermandois, near the Somme, is a very populous place, and has divers ſorts of manufactures, eſpecially of linnen cloth.

PERONNE, in the diſtrict of Santerre, on the ſame river, is alſo very populous, and they make a vaſt quantity of linnen cloth in the neighbourhood, of which they ſell yearly at Peronne for above 150,000 livres.

AMIENS, the capital of Amienois, ſtands alſo on the Somme, which runs through it in three different channels, which unite again below it.

There are here, and in the neighbouring villages, manufactures of ferrets, or woollen ribbands; they alſo make here a great quantity of black and green ſoap.

LOWER PICARDY comprehends Ponthieu, Boulenois, and the Pais Reconquis, or the Recovered Country.

ABBEVILLE, in the diviſion of Ponthieu, is ſituated on the river Somme, and is the moſt populous town of all Picardy, next to Amiens. In the year 1665, Mr Van Roberts, a Dutchman, ſet up here a manufactory of woollen, the ſucceſs of which has been extraordinary. Lewis XIV. granted him and his people ſeveral priveleges, and, in particular, the liberty of importing all neceſſaries for his manufactory, without paying any duty. Thoſe cloths are ſaid to be almoſt as fine as thoſe made in England or Holland. Some years ago one Turner, an Engliſhman, went thither, and gave Mr Van Roberts all the inſight he could; after which he went into Holland, and found a very good reception amongſt the manufacturers of Leyden. There is alſo at Abbeville a manufactory of mocades, and ſtriped ſtuffs called tripes, the warp of which is thread, and the woof wool, of ſeveral colours, for the figures that are to be traced in weaving. They alſo make here ſail and other coarſe cloth, and linens, which being dyed, ſerve for linings. They have, beſides, a conſiderable manufactory of black and green ſoap, of which they ſell for above 100,000 livres yearly. The muſquets and piſtols made here are very much eſteemed. This city has a good trade, by means of the veſſels that come up the river Somme, with all ſorts of merchandize, which they exchange for the cloths, linens, and ſtuffs made here. See FRANCE.

ST VALERY is a populous ſea-port town, at the mouth of the Somme. The entrance is very dangerous, becauſe of the ſhelves and quick-ſands, that ſhift from place to place; however there is a very great trade here, becauſe all merchandizes are eaſily carried from hence to Amiens, and from thence into Artois, Champagne, and to Paris. They import here ſpices from Holland, as alſo pot-aſhes for making ſoap, cod-fiſh, herrings, cheeſe, and a great many other different commodities from ſeveral countries, and even from America; and they export into Spain and Portugal the manufactures of Picardy.

BOULOGNE, the capital of the country or diviſion of Boulenois, is ſituated at the mouth of the little river Liane. The harbour is very incommodious, and the road before it extremely bad, the ſea being exceſſively rough and boiſterous with any winds but what blow from the north to the ſouth-eaſt. It is divided into the upper and lower town, which laſt is the largeſt and moſt conſiderable for it's trade.

CALAIS, in the Pais Reconquis, is at preſent a conſiderable mart. The port is very happily ſituated, but yet it has ſeveral inconveniences, for no veſſel can enter it without running a great danger, whether it comes along the eaſt or weſt mole, and there is here no road for ſhips to ride at anchor.

PIEDMONT is bounded on the eaſt by the Duchies of Milan and Montferrat; by the territories of Genoa, and the country of Nice, on the ſouth; by High Dauphiné, and part of Savoy, on the weſt; and by the duchy of Aoſte, and part of the Milaneſe, on the north. The river Po divides it into two parts. It's length, from north to ſouth, is about 130 miles, and breadth from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt, about 94 miles. It reaches from 43 degrees 25 minutes, to 45 degrees 50 minutes of latitude, and from 7 degrees to 8 degrees 30 minutes eaſt longitude.

Piedmont, as it is a very rich and fertile country, ſo it is likewiſe one of the moſt pleaſant and plentiful in all Italy. It produces great abundance of corn of all ſorts, wines, and fruits in great variety; as alſo hemp, flax, ſaffron, mulberries to feed great quantities of ſilk-worms, the ſilk here being a great manufacture; and affording good ſtore of cattle, ſome metals, and, in a word, plenty of every thing fit for man's uſe and delight, and ſo well peopled, that the Italians uſed to ſay the duke of Savoy has but one city in Italy, 300 miles in compaſs.

This country is divided into Piedmont, properly ſo called, and French Piedmont.

PIEDMONT, properly ſo called. This country is bounded with Monſerrat on the eaſt; the territory of Genoa on the ſouth; the marquiſate of Saluzzo on the weſt; and that of Suſa, and the marquiſate of Jurea, on the north.

FOSSANO was ſo called from ſome medicinal ſprings in the neighbourhood of it, not unlike thoſe of our Epſom and Tunbridge. It ſtands upon the river Stura, between Saluzzo to the weſt, and Mondovi to the ſouth-weſt, 27 miles ſouth of Turin, 8 north-eaſt from Coni, and 30 of Pignerol.

FRENCH PIEDMONT. This country ſcarcely deſerves to be made into a ſeparate article, it conſiſting only of three towns, which lie contiguous to that we have been deſcribing above, and on the weſt ſide of it.

REMARKS.

No country of it's dimenſions yields the ſovereign ſo great a revenue as Piedmont does the king of Sardinia: the Engliſh alone have taken off the value of, at leaſt, 200,000l. of their raw ſilk annually, for ſeveral years; but their crops of ſilk-worms are ſometimes deſtroyed by ſtorms of hail, called the plague of Piedmont. See SILK-WORMS, SILK.

PILCHARD. The pilchard is a ſea fiſh, bigger than the anchovy, but ſmaller than the herring.

The pilchard has a gilt head, a white belly, and the back of a ſea-green colour, that is, a little whitiſh. This fiſh, eaten when it is freſh, and lightly ſprinkled with ſalt, is reckoned exceedingly good; thoſe of Royan, a ſmall town in Xaintonge, are reckoned the beſt, if we can credit the French.

There are proper ſeaſons for the pilchard-fiſhery, being as the anchovy and the herring, a paſſage-fiſh.

They are dreſſed and ſalted in the ſame manner as anchovies and herrings, with this difference nevertheleſs, that they leave the head of the one on, and take it off the other. The anchovy is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the pilchard, though this laſt had it's head taken off; the anchovy having a round back, and the pilchard being very fat.

The pilchard-fiſhery is very conſiderable in France; it is carried on from the road of Olone Sands, in lower Poitou, as far as the bay of Douarnenez, even to Breſt. It commences in the month of June, towards the ſand's ſide of St Giles. This fiſh, in thoſe places, is ſold as ſoon as catched, to people that ſalt them, and carry them on horſeback to the neighbouring towns; where, at their firſt coming in, they are much eſteemed.

Pilchards commonly follow the ſhore, and a little while after they appear at the Sands and St Giles, they begin to take them at Belleiſle, next at Port Louis, at Crac, and at Quiberon; afterwards at Concarneau, and, laſtly, at Douarnenez, Crozon, and Cameret, near Breſt. Pilchards have been caught in the bay of Douarnenez at Chriſtmas.

Along the coaſt of Bretagne, from Belleiſle as far as Breſt, there is a great trade of pilchards; ſome are ſold ſalted, or in piles, ſome in caſks, others are dried by the fire, or in ſmoke, and others are put into little barrels, and are called pickled pilchards.

They do not prepare ſuch quantities, either ſalted or in piles, as they did formerly, upon the account of the exactneſs of the cuſtom-officers, who examine them when they come to the cuſtom-houſe, and take off all the ſalt, without which they ſoon putrify.

Thoſe that come in caſks, are called preſſed, or pickled pilchards, becauſe when they have been in ſalt for a while, they are well waſhed and put into caſks, in which they are well packed, in order to drain out all the oil which would corrupt them. The caſks which they make uſe of, are a little bigger than half a barrel, and the beſt are made of beech-tree, pilchards being preſerved therein, better than in any other ſort of wood. Though theſe caſks be ſmall, they give but four of them to a ton. There are ſtatutes about their quantities, becauſe in all Bretagne they buy them by the ton, always packed in caſks.

Towards the end of the fiſhing time, when pilchards are a little bigger, they pack ſome in caſks of a common ſize; but thoſe are bought and ſold on account, in which the credit of the fiſhermen is truſted to, who put them in caſks, and mark upon the bottom the quantity of pilchards therein contained.

Pilchards that are caught in the months of July, Auguſt, and September, are not fit for packing, becauſe the great heats rendering this fiſh ſoft, it burſts eaſily on packing; and for this reaſon, the pilchards which are packed at Belleiſle, Port Louis, Crac, and Quiberon, are not much eſteemed, the fiſhing time laſting, in thoſe places, but 'till the month of September; whereas, it does but begin at Concarneau and Douarnenez, when the weather is not too hard, and ſometimes laſts 'till Chriſtmas.

It is from thoſe two laſt places, particularly Douarnenez, that the beſt pilchards are caught, and beſt preſerved. The Maloins load whole cargoes of them there, to export to different places of the Levant.

In order to have the pilchards of a good quality, they muſt be well packed, firm, white, and clear; neither burſt, nor ſoft, nor yellow, but of a good bigneſs, that a caſk may contain 6000 of them; for when it contains more, even 10,000, they are two ſmall, and when leſs, they are too large; for which reaſon, a little caſk ſhould not contain above 2000, or 3000; ſo that a trader who is obliged to ſell them by retale, can get nothing by them.

The dried pilchards are bought and ſold on account; when they are not broiled, they are more valued than thoſe packed, and thoſe ſalted alſo, are dearer. It is of the laſt fiſhing, and

when

when the pilchards are very firm and big, that they dry them. There is a great ſale of theſe fiſh at Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Nantes, as well as in ſome little harbours in the country of Aunis, and the province of Xaintonge.

Sometimes they ſend them to Bayonne and Biſcay; but they are not dear there, but when the fiſhing has not been favourable in Spain, where great quantities are caught upon the coaſts of Galicia.

The pilchard fiſhery, in France, employs more than 300 ſhalloops, and almoſt all the ſeamen of the country, in the ſeaſon, upon the coaſt of Bretagne; each ſhalloop is commonly of 2 or 3 tons burthen, and has 5 men, and 12 nets, from 20 to 30 fathom.

The barrel is ſold from 20 to 50 livres; the greateſt conſumption of this fiſh is in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and all the Mediterranean; the fiſhery is commonly ſo good, that at Port Louis only, they vend 4000 barrels yearly.

Pilchards which are caught in Languedoc, are tranſported to Rouſſillon, Dauphiné, and the Lyonnois.

The preſſed oil of pilchards is put into caſks; it ſerves to burn, and it would have more virtue if it was not ſalted.

There is ſo plentiful a fiſhery of pilchards upon the coaſts of Dalmatia, in the months of May and June, near the ſouth of the Iſle of Iſſa, that it ſupplies, not only a part of Greece, but alſo a part of Italy; the Turks take this fiſh as a medicine, when they are ſick.

Pilchards follow the light, and encompaſs the ſhalloop that carries it in the night, and that contributes very much to their catching. To facilitate which, they make uſe, upon the coaſt of France, of cods eggs; thoſe eggs being a kind of bait for pilchards.

A fiſhing, almoſt as peculiar to Great-Britain as the herrings, is that of pilchards. The Corniſhmen ſay of the pilchard, that it is the leaſt fiſh in ſize, moſt in number, and greateſt for gain, of any fiſh they take out of the ſea.

Their ſeaſon is chiefly from the beginning of Auguſt to All-Hollowtide, as the countrymen call the 1ſt day of November.

They are ſaid to purſue, on the coaſt of Cornwall in England, a ſmall fiſh called the brit: and this draws them into the mouths of rivers and havens. They ſwim ſo near the ſurface, that they are diſcerned by the rippling of the water at a great diſtance.

There are two ways of fiſhing for theſe pilchards, and the fiſhermen are called drovers or ſeyners.—The drovers watch the ſhoals of the fiſh entering into the mouths of rivers and harbours as above, where they wait with large ſquare nets, placed athwart the ſide; and the ſhoal of pilchards paſſing by, and over them, all that come in the way of the net are entangled.—The ſeyners take them in the open ſea. Theſe complain that the drovers ſpoil the fiſhing, for that thoſe driving nets take but a few, and that they break and ſcatter the ſhoals of the fiſh, driving them from the ſhores: neither are the fiſh taken that way ſo merchantable, being bruiſed in the maſhes of the nets, and in tearing them haſtily out.

The ſeyne is a large net, the ſame in form with thoſe uſed in rivers, but far much larger: for, as the river ſeyne nets are 30 or 40 fathom long, thoſe uſed in the ſea, are ſometimes 5 or 600 fathoms; and each ſeyne is managed by three or four large boats at leaſt, each boat having 6 men. With theſe boats and ſeynes, they ply about in the ſea, where they expect the fiſh; and they are directed in their work by a man, or ſeveral men, who are placed on the hills, called the balkers or ſuers. Theſe men ſtanding on a high clift, can diſcern the courſe the fiſh take, by the rippling of the water: and they give notice by ſhouting, by waving a flag, or ſuch ſignal as is agreed on; and accordingly the men in the fiſhing boats order their matters. At the appointment of theſe balkers, the men in the boats let down the ſeyne, and draw it this way or that way, as the ſhoal of fiſh lies: then the net being wholly ſpread, they row round, and coming behind the fiſh, they beat the water with their oars to drive them into the net: at laſt, they either cloſe and tuck up the net in the ſea, drawing the fiſh into their boats, or draw it away to land; which, if the ſhore be free from rocks, and not too ſteep, is much the ſureſt, and moſt advantageous way. By this method they ſometimes take 2 or 300 tons of fiſh out of a ſhoal.

The pilchards are cured by packing and preſſing, as the herrings, and ſent into the Streights from England, to the ſeveral parts of Spain, Italy, and the Levant; where they generally meet with a good market. They formerly cured them by ſmoaking; but they have many years left off that method in England.

PILOT. A pilot is he that has the government of a ſhip, under the maſter, or who is intruſted with the ſteerage of the ſame. And it has been uſual for pilots not only to direct the ſhip's courſe, but alſo to ſteer her too themſelves, as they are ſtill obliged to do amongſt us, when the ſhip has any dangerous place to paſs through, or is ſo near the ſhore that a more than ordinary ſkill is requiſite to bring her ſafe off; but otherwiſe, ſuch of the other mariners as are moſt capable of the function are appointed to do it by turns.

By the ſea laws of Wiſbuy [ſee WISBUY LAWS] every pilot, mate, or mariner, that does not underſtand his buſineſs, ſhall be obliged to repay to the maſter whatever wages he had advanced him, and beſides be bound to pay half as much more as he had promiſed him. The laws of Denmark puniſh an ignorant pilot by ſentencing him to paſs thrice under the ſhip's keel: and by the laws of Oleron [ſee OLERON'S LAWS] if a pilot undertakes the conduct of a veſſel, to bring her to any port, and fail of his duty therein, ſo as the ſhip miſcarry by reaſon of his ignorance in what he undertook, and the merchant receives damage thereby, he ſhall be obliged to make ſatisfaction for the ſame, if he have wherewithal; and if he hath not, or where the fault of the pilot is apparently groſs, that the ſhip's crew ſee an apparent wreck, they may lead him to the hatches, and ſtrike off his head. Sea Laws, 176. Leg. Oleron, 23.

The laws of France ordain, That no perſon ſhall be received as pilot, nor perform that function, 'till he has made ſeveral voyages, and paſſed a ſtrict examination as to his knowlege and experience in navigation; and he ſhall be obliged, for proving his voyages, to produce the journals thereof. The pilot ſhall provide himſelf with all maps, books, and inſtruments neceſſary for his art: and in long voyages, he ſhall have two journals, in one of which he is to write the changes of the courſes and winds, the days and hours of the changes, the leagues which he believes the ſhip has ſailed in each, alſo the reductions in latitude and longitude, the variations of the compaſs, together with the ſounds and ſhores he has diſcovered; and in the other he ſhall write out, once in 24 hours, the courſes, longitude and latitude reduced, and the latitudes obſerved, and all other remarkable things diſcovered during the voyage; and at the return of ſuch long voyages, ſhall lodge a copy of his journal in the Admiralty, on pain of 50 livres. Sea Laws, 291, 292.

And by the ſame laws, if a pilot, by ignorance or negligence, occaſions the loſs of a ſhip, he ſhall pay 100 livres fine, and be for ever deprived of the exerciſe of pilotage; and, if he does it deſignedly, he ſhall be puniſhed with death. But no maſters of ſhips ſhall force pilots to paſs through dangerous places, or to ſteer courſes againſt their will; and, in caſe there be difference in opinion, they ſhall be governed by the advice of the moſt expert mariners.

When a ſhip comes to a harbour or river, and the maſter doth not know the coaſt nor the river, he ought to take a pilot of that country to carry her up the river or harbour; which pilot ſhall be maintained by the maſter, and paid by the merchant: alſo, if it is thought convenient in any river, or off any dangerous coaſt, to take aboard a pilot of the country, though the merchant oppoſes it, if the maſter, the ſhip's pilot, and the major part of the ſeamen are for it, he may be hired, and ſhall be paid by the ſhip and cargo, as avarages are calculated for goods thrown overboard. Leg. Wiſb. 44 and 60. Ibid. 185, 188.

The maſter of the ſhip generally in charter-parties [ſee CHARTER-PARTY] covenants to find a pilot, and the merchant agrees to pay him his pilotage: though if a ſhip ſhould be loſt coming up the river, under the charge of the pilot, it has been a queſtion, whether the maſter ſhould anſwer for the inſufficiency of the pilot, or whether the merchant may have his remedy againſt both? But it has been conceived, that the merchant hath his election to charge either; and, if he charges the maſter, then the maſter muſt have his remedy againſt the pilot. After the ſhip is brought into ſure harbour, the pilot is no further liable, for then the maſter is to ſee to her bed and lying, and hath all the charge upon himſelf; ſo that he muſt anſwer all danger and hazard, except that of the act of God: but, before ſhe arives at het place or bed, and while ſhe is under the pilot's care, if ſhe or her goods periſh or be ſpoiled, the pilot ſhall make good the damage. Leg. Oleron. Molloy, 254, 255.

By ſtatute 3 Geo. I. cap. 13. If any perſon ſhall take upon him to conduct and pilot any ſhip or veſſel, by or from Dover, Deal, or the Iſle of Thanet, to any place on the rivers Thames or Medway, before he has been examined by the maſter and wardens of the ſociety of Trinity-Houſe, and ſhall be approved and admitted into the ſaid ſociety at a court of load-manage, by the lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports, or his deputy, and the ſaid maſter and wardens: every ſuch perſon, for the firſt offence, ſhall forfeit 10l. for the ſecond 20l. and for every other offence 40l. to be ſued for and recovered by any one in the court of admiralty for the Cinque-Ports, if the offending pilot live within the juriſdiction of that court; or elſe by action of debt, &c. in any of the courts at Weſtminſter, one moiety to go to the informer, and the other to the maſter and wardens of the ſociety aforeſaid, to be diſtributed among ſuperanuated pilots, and the widows of pilots of the ſaid ſociety.

And the maſter, and ſuch two wardens of the ſaid ſociety as ſhall be appointed to examine into the ſkill and ability of any perſon on his being admitted as a pilot, ſhall take the following oath, to be given them by the regiſter of the ſaid court of load-manage, or his deputy, viz.

I A. B. do ſwear, That I will impartially examine and enquire into the capacity and ſkill of T. D. of, &c. in the art of pilotage over the flats, and round the long Sand-Head, and the coaſt of Flanders and Holland, and will make true and ſpeedy return thereof to the lord-warden of the Cinque-

Ports for the time being, or his deputy, without favour, affecton, fee, or reward.

So help me God.

The number of ſuch pilots ſhall not be leſs than 120, whoſe names, ages, and places of abode, ſhall yearly be affixed in ſome public place at the cuſtom-houſes at London and Dover, to which all perſons may have recourſe; and not returning liſts, the maſter and wardens of the ſaid ſociety ſhall forfeit 10l.

But this act ſhall not prevent the maſter or mate of any ſhip or veſſel, or any part owner, reſiding at Dover or Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, from piloting his own ſhip from any of the ſaid places up the ſaid rivers, nor ſubject any perſon, though not of that ſociety, to the penalties before-mentioned, who ſhall be employed by any maſter to pilot his veſſel from the places aforeſaid, when none of the ſaid ſociety ſhall, within one hour after the arrival of ſuch ſhip or veſſel at any of the ſaid places, be ready to pilot the ſame. And maſters of merchant-ſhips may make choice of ſuch pilot of the ſaid ſociety as they ſhall think fit; alſo no perſon ſhall continue in this ſociety who ſhall not pilot a ſhip at leaſt twice in one year (unleſs prevented by ſickneſs) to and from the places above-mentioned. And for preventing any exorbitant demands from theſe pilots, for conducting any ſhip or veſſel from Dover, Deal, or the Iſle of Thanet, to any places on the rivers Thames and Medway, the following, and no greater prices, ſhall be taken or demanded, than are here mentioned, viz. for every ſhip or veſſel drawing ſeven feet water, 3l. 10s. for eight feet water, 4l. nine feet water, 4l. 10s. ten feet water, 5l. eleven fect water, 5l. 10s. twelve feet water, 6l. thirteen feet water, 6l. 10s. fourteen fect water, 7l. fifteen feet water, 7l. 10s. ſixteen ſeet water, 8l. ſeventeen feet water, 8l. 10s. and no allowance to be made for odd inches.

In this act there is likewiſe a clauſe, impowering the lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports to nominate three perſons there to adjuſt differences between the maſter of any ſhip and others, where ſhips by bad weather are forced from their anchors and cables, for ſaving and bringing them aſhore: and this act ſhall not hinder any perſon from aſſiſting a ſhip in diſtreſs there.

By the 7th of Geo. I. cap 21. The lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports, with the aſſent of the commiſſioners of load-manage, and of the maſter and wardens of the ſociety of pilots of the Trinity-Houſe, of the Cinque-Ports, at a court of load-manage held by the ſaid lord-warden, or his deputy, may make ſuch rules and ordinances for the better government of the pilots reſiding at Dover, Deal, and the Iſle of Thanet, as ſhall be thought convenient, and may order a ſufficient number of the pilots living at Dover, &c. no leſs than eighteen, to ply conſtantly at ſea, to be ready to conduct ſuch ſhips up the rivers Thames and Medway as ſhall have occaſion for them: and the ſaid lord-warden, &c. at a court of load-manage, may ſuſpend or deprive any of the ſaid pilots, for breaking the rules or orders; and if any pilot ſo ſuſpended or deprived, ſhall undertake to conduct any ſhip by or from Dover, Deal, &c. to any place in or upon the ſaid river of Thames, &c. he ſhall be liable to all ſuch pains and penalties as are ordained by the before-mentioned act of 3 Geo. I. againſt ſuch perſons as ſhall conduct ſhips from and to the places aforeſaid, without being firſt examined and approved of by the maſter and wardens of the ſaid ſociety, at the ſaid court, and admitted into the ſame.

By the ſtatute 5 Geo. II. cap. 20. No perſon ſhall undertake the charge of any ſhip or veſſel, as pilot thereof down the river Thames, or through the North Channel, to or by Orfordneſs, or round the long Sand-Head into the Downs, or down the South Channel into the Downs, or from or by Orfordneſs, up the North Channel, or the river Thames, or river Medway, but ſuch as ſhall be licenſed to act as a pilot by the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-Houſe of Deptford-Strond, under the common Seal of the corporation, on pain of forfeiting 20l. being convicted before two juſtices of peace for the city of London, or the counties of Middleſex, Eſſex, Kent, or Surry, within their reſpective juriſdictions: but maſters of ſhips in the coal-trade, or other coaſting trade, are not obliged to employ a pilot.

The pilots to be ſo admitted and licenſed, ſhall be ſubject to the government of the ſaid corporation, provided their regulations do not relate to the pilots keeping of turns, or to ſettling the rates of pilotage, and ſhall pay the ancient dues, ſo as the ſame do not exceed 1 s. in the pound out of ſuch pilot's hire or wages, for the uſe of the poor of the ſaid corporation, within ten days after the ſervice of any pilot ſhall be ended. And in caſe ſuch pilots ſhall refuſe to take the charge of any of his majeſty's ſhips, when appointed thereto by the corporation, or ſhall miſbehave themſelves in the conduct of any ſhips, or other part of their duty, or if pilots ſhall refuſe to obey any ſummons of the ſaid corporation, or ſuch orders as they ſhall make, then the general court of the corporation, upon examination thereof, are required to re-call the warrants granted to ſuch pilots; and if, after notice of it given to them in perſon, or left at their place of abode, they ſhall act as pilots within the limits afore-mentioned, they ſhall be ſubject to the penalties inflicted on unlicenſed pilots.

This ſtatute ſhall not extend to the impeaching of any of the franchiſes, nor to take away the ſole right of piloting merchant-ſhips from or by Dover, Deal, and the Iſle of Thanet, up the rivers Thames and Medway, granted and allowed to the ſociety and fellowſhip of the maſter, wardens, and pilots of the Trinity-Houſe of Dover, Deal, and the Iſle of Thanet, by the ſtatute of 3 Geo. I. cap. 13.

And nothing herein ſhall impeach any privileges heretofore granted to, or which by ancient uſage have been enjoyed by, the pilots of the Trinity-Houſe of Kingſton upon Hull, or the Trinity-Houſe of Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

Nor to prejudice any juriſdiction of the mayor; or of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, upon the river Thames; nor any juriſdictions belonging to the office of lord high admiral.

The act 8 Geo. II. cap. 21. continues the afore-mentioned ſtatutes for regulating pilots.

Of Pilots in Spain.

1. There are three ſeveral principal pilots belonging to the Weſt-India voyage in Spain, viz. the chief pilot of the India-Houſe, inſtituted to examine and give their degrees to other pilots, and judges of the charts, and other inſtruments of navigation. The next is the chief pilot of the armada, or navy royal, to ſecure the trade of the Indies, commonly called the galleons; and the third the chief pilot of the New Spain fleet. Theſe being all employments of great importance, it may be proper to give an account of the nature of them, their duty, qualifications, and the manner of beſtowing them.

2. We are firſt to ſpeak of the chief pilot of the India-Houſe, becauſe he takes place, and ought to be moſt knowing, as being to chuſe the pilots for the India ſhips, out of which are choſen thoſe for the galleons and floats: though as to ſeniority, there were chief pilots of the armadas before there were any of the India-Houſe; becauſe thoſe diſcovering the new world, made way for an India-Houſe, and, conſequently, for a chief pilot of it, who ought to be univerſal in the theory, not only for the voyage to the Firm Land, New Spain, the coaſts of thoſe provinces, and the Windward Iſlands, but for the river of Plate, for which there was once a particular chief pilot.

3. The firſt chief pilot of the India-Houſe was Americus Veſpaſius, ſettled at Seville, to draw charts upon the diſcoveries of others, and the ſalary aſſigned him was 50,000 maravedies; this was in the year 1507, and in the reign of king Ferdinand. Not only the chief, but all others whom the king received as his pilots, had ſalaries ſettled on them; and ſuch as were as well ſkilled in warlike as in ſea affairs, were received as ſea-captains, which was done with Ferdinand Magallanes, whom we call Magellan, who firſt diſcovered the ſtraight of his name, and Ruy Fallero, his companion, in 1518, aſſigning each of them, 40,000 maravedeis ſalary; and, in general great encouragement was given to all that were ſkilful in this profeſſion.

4. The municipal laws of the court of the India-Houſe ordained, That there be in the ſaid houſe a chief pilot, to be preferred by edict, which is thus: when the place is vacant, the king and the council of the Indies are acquainted with it, and there are edicts, or proclamations, put up in Seville, the univerſities of Salamanca, Valladolid, and Alcala, and alſo in thoſe parts where ſailing pilots are known to reſide, as Cadiz, S. Lucar, Port S. Mary, and Ayamonte; for though it be rare to find among the practical pilots any one ſo well ſkilled in the theory as to be fit to carry the place of chief pilot to the India-Houſe, yet they have ſometimes been allowed as candidates, and the ſame may happen again.

When the candidates have made their claims, the court acquaints the king how the parties are qualified, both by their own acts, and the information the preſident and commiſſioners have of them, declaring whom they judge moſt deſerving, and what they think of the reſt, that the council may adviſe, and the king decree, as ſhall be moſt expedient.

The profeſſor of coſmography is made after the ſame manner; but as for the coſmographer, who is to be an inſtrument-maker, his ſkill being of ſuch ſort as is not learnt at the univerſities, the edicts are ſent to court, and put up at the council, and in Seville, at the India-Houſe, and Exchange, and the candidates are remitted by the council to manifeſt their ability before the preſident and commiſſioners of the India-Houſe.

5. Though ſome of the practical pilots have been propoſed as candidates, yet none of them have hitherto carried the employment, the council wiſely providing, that he who fills this place be the moſt knowing that can be found, not only in the art of navigation, but in other parts of the mathematics, becauſe he is not only to examine the pilots for the India voyage, but to judge of the profeſſor of coſmography, and the coſmographer inſtrument-maker, whom he is to examine and cenſure, as much as he does the mariners that have been his ſcholars, in order to take the degree of pilots.

Vice-

Vice-admirals have been propoſed to fill this poſt. The deſign in inſtituting this chief pilot, was only to examine, and give their degree to the other pilots, forbidding him to teach navigation, or the uſe of any inſtruments, upon the penalty aſſigned, and he that learns of him to be incapable of being examined in two years; which was done to the end that affection for his own ſcholars might not cauſe him to wink at their ignorance. For the ſame reaſon, he is forbid making any ſea-charts or inſtruments to ſell, becauſe it being his buſineſs to judge of them uſed in the voyage to the Indies, he could never ſee any faults in his own, for no maſter will ſpeak ill of his own work. For theſe reaſons, the two employments of chief pilot and coſmographer were never but once conferred upon the ſame perſon, and many inconveniencies appearing in it then, they were ever ſince accounted incompatible.

6. When any are to be examined in order to be declared pilots, it is to be done in the India-Houſe, and no other place. The coſmographers and pilots that are then in Seville are to be preſent, to the number of ſix at leaſt, being men well ſkilled in ſea affairs; the candidates are to be ſtrictly examined, all the examiners taking an oath to do it fully, and give their votes according to the beſt of their judgment; and the perſon ſo approved is to be declared pilot, and not otherwiſe, upon forfeiture of 10,000 maravedies.

In the year 1604 it was ordered, That one of the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe ſhould be preſent at the examination, and then the act was performed in the chamber of direction, the commiſſioners, chief pilot, and coſmographers, ſitting under the preſident's canopy; which being thought too great an honour for them, they have ſince ſat in the court of conſulſhip, under a canopy, and the pilots and deputies of the corporation of ſailors ſit on the ſaid benches, two coſmographers taking place under the canopy, according to ſeniority.

7. It is to be obſerved, that one previous circumſtance to examination is, that they bring proof they are none of thoſe the law forbids to be admitted as pilots, which proof is to be made before the chief pilot, who, upon all public occaſions, takes place of the ſteward and deputies of the company of ſailors; and if they, being ſummoned by the pilot's meſſengers, refuge or neglect to appear, he may proceed to take information without them. When either the chief pilot, as a member of the India-Houſe, enjoys all the privileges, and is under all the prohibitions that others are, yet there is a particular ordinance, which forbids him receiving any thing whatſoever of the perſon that ſtands to be made a pilot; nor is he to take any fees for the commiſſion or warrant he gives them.

8. There are two coſmographers, as has been ſaid before; the one is profeſſor of coſmography, inſtituted by king Philip II. in the year 1552, to teach the art of navigation and coſmography, with order that none ſhould be admitted pilot or maſter who had not learnt under him a year, or thereabouts. This time was afterwards ſhortened to three months, and at laſt to two, in order to fit them for examination; and as for reading and writing, it was thought enough if they could read the ſailing orders, and write their own names; all which was ordered to be taught as follows: the treatiſe of the ſphere, or at leaſt the firſt and ſecond book of it: the treatiſe that teaches how to take the ſun's altitude, and the elevation of the pole, with all the reſt taught in it: the uſe of the ſea-chart, and how to find out the point where the ſhip is: the uſe of inſtruments, and manner of making them, to diſcover whether they are faulty, that is, the compaſs, aſtrolabe, quadrant, and Jacob's ſtaff, and how to obſerve the needles, to diſcover whether they vary eaſt or weſt, which is a matter of great moment, to keep an exact account when they ſail: the uſe of a general dial for day or night: and the pilots muſt know, either by memory or by writing, what the age of the moon is any day of the year, that they may know how the tides fall out to enter any rivers or bars, and other matters in continual uſe. A leſſon upon theſe ſubjects is to be read every day, at the hours appointed by the preſident and commiſſioners of the India-Houſe, that may be moſt convenient for the learners. There is a great room in the Exchange appointed for this uſe.

9. The other coſmographer is inſtrument-maker, the uſe of which the profeſſor teaches; but the firſt of theſe is the ancienteſt employ. Both the coſmographers are to ſit with the chief pilot, upon examining of pilots, and to put queſtions to them; and the law appoints, that if the coſmographer of the India-Houſe informs the ſaid commiſſioners that the examination is not duly made, the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall take care to ſee right done.

It is alſo the duty of the chief pilot and coſmographers to approve of, and mark the ſea-charts, and other inſtruments; and they are to have marks for that purpoſe, which are to be kept in the India-Houſe, in a cheſt under two keys, whereof the chief pilot is to keep one, and the younger coſmographer the other, that no inſtruments may be ſold or approved without the conſent of all three: to which purpoſe they meet every Monday, and no inſtrument is to be ſold without the mark, under the forfeiture of thirty ducats. Two practical pilots were to be appointed by the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe, to examine inſtruments, together with the chief pilot and coſmographers; but if the inſtruments were made by the coſmographer himſelf, then he was to have no vote in the approbation. If an aſtrolabe be faulty, it is to be broke and caſt again; and a chart, that cannot be mended, muſt be cut, and left in the treaſury-chamber, that it may not be put together again. When the pilot and coſmographers meet, if there are any to be examined for pilots, that is the firſt thing to be done; what time remained after making inſtruments, was to be employed in examining the general map, and adding what they think neceſſary; but all theſe things are now out of uſe, there being no further diſcovery made; and the inſtruments and ſea-charts generally uſed, being thoſe made by the coſmographer of the India-Houſe, of which he makes ſome profit, but nothing conſiderable, nor is he to take any fee for touching the needles to the load-ſtone.

PITCH and TAR. This is a clear, fat liquor, that flows from the trunks of old pines. When they would kill or deſtroy the tree, the Swedes and Norwegians cut the bark round the tree, which, inſtead of yielding a white incenſe, or reſin, yields a black liquor, which is the tar; and preſently, as ſoon as all that is fallen, the trees die, and are good for nothing but to burn.

This may help to undeceive ſeveral who believe, as many authors have vouched, that tar is made by burning of the pines; for it is certain, that all the tar we now ſell is made as already mentioned, and not by means of the pines that are burnt. That which is found clear, is improperly called oil of pitch, and ſold under the name of common or falſe cade oil. The tar is much uſed by mariners, farriers, and ſhepherds, to mark their ſheep, as well as to defend them from diſeaſes. Chuſe ſuch as is natural and clean, not ſuch as is made with oil and pitch, but the true Stockholm tar.

It is generally brought to us from Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Swedeland; but there is much of it made in New England, Virginia, Carolina, and other parts of Florida. It is the produce of all reſinous trees. It was firſt taken from the cedar, the larch-tree, fir-tree, and pitch-trees, but now chiefly from the pine-trees. It cures all ſorts of ſcabs, itch, tetters, ring-worms, and other vices of the ſkin.

Tar is better than pitch, becauſe, in boiling, the pitch loſes the more ſubtil and fiery parts; this, therefore, is proper for coughs, phthyſicks, hoarſeneſs, and other humours that fall upon the lungs. Tar and bees-wax make a plaſter that is diſcuſſive and anodyne, good againſt the gout, and all manner of old achs and pains. The ſpirit is very diuretic, opens all obſtructions, and reſiſts the ſcurvy.

(What we call ſamp black, is made by burning the foul parcels of pitch, reſin, &c. and gathering the light ſoot that they ſent up; this is much uſed by artificers of various kinds.)

Remark.

How importantly uſeful to ſhipping and navigation the articles pitch and tar are, need not be ſaid: and how they ought to be encouraged in the Britiſh plantations, ſee NAVAL STORES.

PLANTATIONS. A plantation, or colony, is a place whither people are ſent to dwell, with an allowance of land for their tillage, and immunities for the good of themſelves and the ſtate they belong to.

A nation, or people, being expelled out of their own land, may ſeek waſtes in ſome other country; and ſuch poſſeſſion creates a property againſt all perſons, but he that hath empire there: and if, before they can reap the fruits of their labour, they are in want of neceſſaries, by the laws of nature they may force a ſubſiſtence from a neighbour planter; for ſubſiſtence belongs to every man, who hath not merited to loſe his life. The written laws are conformable to this; by which, if proviſions fail at ſea, thoſe who laid in particular ſtores for the voyage, muſt produce them for the benefit of all.

Our plantations abroad, are the iſlands in America; and the iſles of Jamaica and Barbadoes, with ſome others, are much frequented by unfortunate perſons, who oftentimes become wealthy there. The Engliſh plantations in general are, beſides theſe iſles, Virginia, Maryland, New England, New York, Carolina, Bermudas, and the Leeward Iſlands, &c. and the ſettlement of Georgia.

The iſlands being originally gotten by conqueſt, or by ſome planting themſelves there, the king may govern them as he will: but it has been held, that the laws in force before the conqueſt of them, do bind 'till new laws are given; and even then, ſome of the old cuſtoms may remain, as they do in Barbadoes, &c. But Engliſh ſubjects having found an uninhabited country, all Engliſh laws are immediately in force. 3 Mod. Rep. 160. 2 Salk. 411.

The Iſle of Man and Ireland, are poſſeſſions of the Engliſh crown; yet retain their antient laws: ſo did Jamaica, 'till new laws were made. In Barbadoes, all freeholds are ſubject to debts, and eſteemed but as chattels, 'till the creditors are ſatisfied, and then the lands deſcend to the heir, which is different from the laws here. By the laws of Virginia, negroes are ſaleable as chattels. 2 Salk. 411. 666. 4 Mod. 226. See ſtat. 7 & 8 W. III. and 5 Geo. II.

If

If in an action for rent upon a leaſe of lands in Jamaica, &c. there be a foreign local iſſue, it may be tried where the action is laid; and the plaintiff may enrol a ſuggeſtion, that ſuch a place in ſuch a county, is next adjacent; and it ſhall be tried in the King's-Bench, by a jury from ſuch place, according to the laws of that country.

Here, it was ſaid, there may be a law in Jamaica againſt bonds; but it will not confine the action of debt on bonds made there to that country: an action of falſe impriſonment has been here brought againſt a governor, and the laws of the country given in evidence. 2 Salk. 651. Mod. Caſes 195.

In the year 1661, the then governor of Jamaica called the firſt aſſembly there, and made laws for raiſing a public revenue by a tax on ſtrong liquors, for upholding the government there, which were indefinite and perpetual. The king impowered another governor to chuſe his own council; and, with conſent of the major part, to frame general aſſemblies of freeholders, as in other plantations, and with their conſent to make laws ſuitable to thoſe of England, to be in force for two years; and the aſſembly granted the like revenue out of ſtrong liquors for two years only. The queſtion here was, whether this laſt law had totally laid aſide the former? It was reſolved, that the laſt council having power to make laws only for two years, it did not repeal the perpetnal law made before, but ſuſpended it's power for that time only. Raym. Rep. 397.

King Charles II. by letters patents, of October, in the 32d year of his reign appointed Sir Richard Dutton chief governor of Barbadoes, who appointed 12 men to be of the king's council during pleaſure; and by their advice eſtabliſhed courts, &c. and had authority to make a deputy-governor, &c. and Sir John Witham being ſo conſtituted, was charged with mal adminiſtration, and by order of the governor and council was committed to priſon; for which having brought an action, it was ſaid for him, that the cauſes of commitment (if any) were not cognizable by them, but by the king alone, &c. To which it was anſwered, that being committed by order of council, it ought to be preſumed his commitment was legal. Judgment was given in B. R. for the plaintiff, but reverſed in the houſe of lords. 3 Mod. 160, 161.

All governors on their entrance are to take oath, that to their utmoſt, the acts paſſed concerning the ſaid colonies be duly obſerved. And, on failure, complaint being made to the king, ſuch governor to be removed, and forfeit the ſum of one thouſand pounds. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. and 7 & 8 W. III.

By 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 12. If any governor, deputy-governor, &c. oppreſs any of the king's ſubjects under their government, or act any ways contrary to the laws of this realm, or in force with their governments, &c. it ſhall be determined in the King's-Bench in England: and ſuch like puniſhments inflicted, as are uſual for ſuch offences here in England.

And by 7 & 8 W. III. cap. 22. All laws, cuſtoms, &c. practiſed in any of the plantations, that are repugnant to any laws already here, or to this act, or any other law hereafter to be made, relating to thoſe plantations, are declared null and void. And all places of truſt in the courts of law, or relating to the treaſury, in any iſland or colony of England, ſhall be held by native-born ſubjects of England, Ireland, or of the ſaid iſlands. Alſo perſons claiming any right in any of them, ſhall not diſpoſe of the ſame to any other than natural born ſubjects of England, &c. without licence; and all governors appointed by ſuch proprietors, ſhall be approved by his Majeſty, and take the oaths accordingly.

By 12 Car. II. cap. 18. no alien may be a merchant or factor in any Engliſh plantation, on pain to loſe all his goods: and any governor of the plantations that ſhall ſuffer any foreign built veſſel to load or unload, without certificate, that the owners are not aliens, ſhall be removed.

Goods ſhall not be imported or exported, in any other but Engliſh or Iriſh ſhips, &c. and of which the maſter and three fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. And any abatement or privilege in the book of rates, is to be underſtood, that the maſter and three fourths of the mariners be alſo Engliſh.

In the progreſs of our laws relating to the plantations, no ſugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtic, or other dyeing woods, the growth of any Engliſh plantation, were to be tranſported to any place but ſome Engliſh plantation, or to England, &c. on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. And for every veſſel ſetting out from England, &c. for any of the ſaid plantations, bond ſhall be given of 1000l. if the ſhip be under 100 tons, and of 2000l. if of greater burthen; that if the ſaid veſſel load any of the ſaid commodities at ſuch plantations, it ſhall bring them to ſome port in England, &c. But theſe laws were repealed by the acts of the 12th and 20th year of the reign of Geo. II. whereby liberty is given to carry ſugars from the Britiſh colonies, directly to foreign parts, 'till the year 1757. See alſo the article RICE.—The progreſs of the laws follows.

Alſo for all ſhips coming from any other port to thoſe plantations, the governor ſhall take bond as aforeſaid. And every ſhip taking in goods before bond given, or certificate from ſome cuſtom-houſe in England, &c. of ſuch bonds being there given, ſhall be forfeited; and the governors ſhall twice in every year return true copies of all ſuch bonds to the officers of the cuſtoms at London.

By 15 Car. II. cap. 7. no commodity, the growth or manufacture of Europe, ſhall be imported into any of the plantations, unleſs ſhipped in England, &c. and in Engliſh built ſhipping, legally manned, and carried directly thither, on pain of forfeiture.

But ſuch ſhips may lade in any part of Europe, ſalt for the fiſheries of New England and Newfoundland; and in the Madeiras and Azores, wines, the growth of thoſe Iſlands; and in Scotland or Ireland may take in ſervants, or horſes, and all victuals, the produce of thoſe places.

All perſons importing by land any goods into the ſaid plantation, ſhall deliver to the governor, or officer by him appointed, within 24 hours, their names, with a true inventory of the goods. And no veſſel ſhall lade or unlade, 'till the maſter have given due notice of his arrival, &c. and that the ſhip is Engliſh built, and legally navigated, and have delivered an inventory of her lading, &c. on forfeiture of ſhip and goods.

And any officers of the cuſtoms in England, &c. ſuffering any tobacco, ginger, cotton-wool, indigo, &c. the growth of the aforeſaid plantations, to be tranſported 'till firſt unladen in ſome port of England, &c. ſhall forfeit their places, and the value of ſuch goods.

All perſons who ſhall plant any tobacco in England, &c. forfeit 10l. for every rod of ground planted. And juſtices, on information, ſhall cauſe it to be deſtroyed; perſons reſiſting the act to forfeit 5l, and be impriſoned.

This act ſhall not hinder planting tobacco in phyſic gardens, &c. ſo it exceed not half a pole in any one garden.

By 22 & 23 Car. II. cap. 26. every veſſel lading at any of the Engliſh plantations, 'till bond be given, or certificate produced, or carrying the ſaid goods contrary to the tenor of it, was to be forfeited.

But the act 25 Car. II. cap. 7. ſeems to have taken off theſe penalties, ordaining, that if bond be not given, ſeveral duties are to be anſwered, payable, as appointed in the ſaid plantations: and if any perſons liable have not money, the officers ſhall take commodities amounting to the value, at the current price in the ſame plantations.

By 7 and 8 W. III. cap 22. no goods ſhall be imported or exported to or from any plantation, or port in the ſame, England, &c. in any ſhip but Engliſh, &c. or the ſaid plantations, and duly navigated, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods, &c. as by former ſtatutes.

No ſhip ſhall be deemed Engliſh, &c. built, or qualified to trade to any of the ſaid plantations, 'till regiſtered by the proprietor, and oath made by the owners, where the ſhip was built, who the preſent owners, and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any intereſt therein. Which oath being atteſted by the governor, or cuſtom-houſe officer before whom it is taken and regiſtered, ſhall be delivered to the maſter for ſecurity, and a duplicate ſent to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London: any veſſel trading without ſuch proof, ſhall be liable to forfeiture as a foreign ſhip would. And no ſhip's name regiſtered ſhall be changed without regiſtering anew, under like penalties; alſo ſale of any ſhare to be mentioned by endorſement on the certificate of the regiſter.

All ſhips lading or unlading at any of the plantations aforeſaid, and the maſters of them, ſhall be ſubject to the ſame rules, ſearches, &c. as in this kingdom by 14 Car. II. cap. 11. And the officers for collecting the revenue, &c. ſhall have the ſame authority as the officers of the cuſtoms in England, by the ſaid act 14 Car. II. and to enter houſes and warehouſes, to ſearch and ſeize ſuch goods; and all perſons aſſiſting in conveying or concealing goods, or reſiſting the officers in their duty, and the boats, &c. ſhall be liable to the like penalties, as for prohibited goods in this kingdom; and the officers to the ſame penalties for frauds, &c. as here.

If the governors or officers of the cuſtoms have cauſe to ſuſpect any certificates to be counterfeit, they may require ſufficient ſecurity for the diſcharge of the plantation lading in England, &c. and if they ſuſpect the certificate of having diſcharged the plantation lading in this kingdom is falſe, they ſhall not vacate the ſecurity given in the plantations, 'till ſatisfied from England concerning it. And any perſon counterfeiting cocket, certificate, &c. forfeits 500l. and the cocket, &c. ſhall be invalid.

The ſureties of bonds taken purſuant to the forementioned act, ſhall be perſons of known reſidence and ability in the plantations; and the conditions of the bonds within eighteen months after the date (danger of the ſeas excepted) to produce certificates of having landed the goods in England, &c. or the bonds and copies to be in force.

Nor ſhall it be lawful on any pretence, to land in Ireland any goods the product of the ſaid plantations, unleſs firſt landed in England, &c. and the due rates paid, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods: but if any ſhip ſo laden, ſhall by ſtreſs of weather be ſtranded, or be driven into any port of Ireland, and unable to proceed, her goods may be put on ſhore, but ſhall be delivered to the chief officer of the cuſtoms there, 'till put on board ſome other ſhip, to be ſent to ſome port in England, &c.

Where any queſtion ſhall ariſe concerning importation or exportation of any goods, proof ſhall lie on the owner or claimer: and on any actions, &c. commenced in the ſaid plantations relating to the duties or forfeitures, none ſhall be of any jury but natives of England or Ireland, or of the plantations; and the offences may be laid to be in any precinct of the ſaid plantations, where they are ſaid to be committed.

By 3 and 4 Anne, cap. 8. Any native of England or Ireland, may ſhip in any port of Ireland in Engliſh built ſhipping duly manned, any linen cloth the manufacture of Ireland, and tranſport to any plantation, &c. belonging to England, and there vend the ſame. But no ſhip ſhall break bulk 'till notice be given to the governor, and a true invoice of the lading be delivered him, with a proper certificete from the chief officer of the port in Ireland where laden; and 'till the maſter hath taken oath before the governor, &c. that the goods are the ſame that were took on board, nor 'till the ſhip be ſearched.

If the maſter ſhall break bulk before ſuch notice given, &c. or on ſearch any other manufacture be found, ſhip and goods ſhall be forfeited. And ſhips coming from Ireland to any ſuch plantation, ſhall be ſubject to the like rules, ſearches, and penalties, as ſhips from England are.

If any ſhip laden in England for the plantations, ſhall put into any port in Ireland and take on board ſuch Iriſh linen, the like certificate and oaths ſhall be made; and the ſhip, her maſter, and lading, ſhall be liable to ſuch ſearches and penalties, &c. only ſuits are to be brought in a twelvemonth after diſcovery of any offence. See the act 3 Geo. I. cap. 21.

The act 6 Ann. cap. 30. recites, That her Majeſty by proclamation, dated 18 June, 1704, ſettled the currency of foreign coins in the American colonies, which was as follows:

A PROCLAMATION, for aſcertaining the currency of the foreign coins in the PLANTATIONS.

WE having had under our conſideration, the different rates at which the ſame ſpecies of foreign coins do paſs in our ſeveral colonies and plantations in America, and the inconveniencies thereof, by the indirect practice of drawing the money from one plantation to another, to the great prejudice of the trade of our ſubjects; and being ſenſible the ſame cannot be otherwiſe remedied, than by reducing all foreign coins to the ſame current rate within all our dominions in America: and the principal officers of our mint, having laid before us a table of the value of the ſeveral foreign coins which uſually paſs in payments in our ſaid plantations, according to their weight, and the aſſays made of them in our mint, thereby ſhewing the juſt proportion which each coin ought to have to the other, which is as followeth, viz. Seville pieces of eight, old plate, ſeventeen pennyweight, twelve, grains, four ſhillings and ſix pence; Seville pieces of eight, new plate, fourteen pennyweight, three ſhillings and ſeven pence farthing; Mexico pieces of eight, ſeventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four ſhillings and ſixpence: pillar pieces of eight, ſeventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four ſhillings and ſix pence three farthings; Peru pieces of eight, old plate, ſeventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four ſhillings and five pence, or thereabouts; croſs dollars, eighteen pennyweight, four ſhillings and four pence three farthings; ducatoons of Flanders, twenty pennyweight and twenty-one grains, five ſhillings and ſix pence; ecus of France, or ſilver Lewis, ſeventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four ſhillings and ſixpence; cruſadoes of Portugal, eleven pennyweight four grains, two ſhillings and ten pence farthing; three guilder pieces of Holland, twenty pennyweight and ſeven grains, five ſhillings and two pence farthing; old rixdollars of the empire, eighteen pennyweight and ten grains, four ſhillings and ſixpence; the halves, quarters, and other parts in proportion to their denominations, and light pieces proportionable to their weight. We have therefore thought fit, for remedying the ſaid inconveniencies, by the advice of our council, to publiſh and declare, that from and after the firſt day of January next enſuing the date hereof, no Seville, pillar, or Mexico pieces of eight, though of the full weight of ſeventeen pennyweight and a half, ſhall be accounted, received, taken, or paid within any of our ſaid colonies or plantations, as well thoſe under proprietors and charters, as under our immediate commiſſion and government, at above the rate of ſix ſhillings the piece current money, for the diſcharge of any contracts or bargains to be made after the time aforeſaid; the halves, quarters, and other leſſer pieces of the ſame coins, to be accounted, received, taken, and paid, in the ſame proportion, and the currency of all pieces of eight of Peru, dollars, and other foreign ſpecies of ſilver coins, whether of the ſame or baſer allay, ſhall ſtand regulated, according to their weight and fineneſs, in proportiun to the rate before limited and ſet for the pieces of eight of Seville, pillar, and Mexico; ſo that no foreign ſilver coin of any ſort be permitted to exceed that proportion upon any account whatſoever. And we do hereby require and command, &c. (the obſervance of the directions herein, &c.)

For the better enforcing the due execution of the ſaid proclamation throughout the ſaid colonies, and more effectual remedying the inconveniencies thereby intended to be remedied, it is enacted, That if any perſon within any of the ſaid plantations, ſhall, for diſcharge of any contract to be hereafter made, account, take, or pay, any the ſpecies of foreign ſilver coins mentioned in the above proclamation, at any higher rate, ſuch perſon ſhall ſuffer ſix months impriſonment without bail, and forfeit 10l. for every offence.

But nothing in this act or proclamation, ſhall compel any perſons to receive any of the ſaid ſpecies of foreign ſilver coin at the rates in the proclamation mentioned: nor any thing herein contained, reſtrain her Majeſty from ſettling the rates of the ſaid foreign coins in any of the ſaid plantations, as ſhe ſhall judge neceſſary by proclamation, or from giving her royal aſſent to any law hereafter made in any of the plantations, for the ſame purpoſe.

By 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. reciting divers acts, by which diverſe commodities of the Britiſh plantations, are reſtrained to be imported into this kingdom, or ſome other plantation, under ſecurities and penalties therein ſpecified, enacts, That copper ore ſhall be under the like ſecurities, as for other goods enumerated by any former laws.

By 4 Geo. II. cap. 15. All goods not mentioned in any former act, may be imported into Ireland from the American plantations, the act 7 and 8 Will. III. notwithſtanding. But the goods ſhall be in Britiſh ſhipping legally manned.

By 5 Geo. II. cap. 7. All real eſtates ſhall be chargeable with all juſt debts whatſoever, as they are by the law of England liable to ſatisfaction of debts due by bond, or other ſpeciality; and ſubject to like remedies and proceedings in any court, in any of the plantations, in the ſame manner as perſonal eſtates are there.

And for more eaſy recovery of debts in the colonies in any ſuit brought there, for debt or account, in which any perſon reſiding in Great-Britain ſhall be party, ſuch debts may be proved here on oath before any chief magiſtrate near where the perſon ſhall reſide, and being certified under the common ſeal of the city or town, &c. ſhall be of the ſame force, as if the perſons had appeared in open court, or upon commiſſion.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. All ſugars and paneles of the product of any plantations not under his Majeſty's dominions, imported into any of his Majeſty's plantations, ſhall pay 5s. for every hundred weight, and for all rum or ſpirits of foreign produce, 9d. for every gallon; and for molaſſes 6d. the gallon. And on importation an entry ſhall be made with the proper officers, &c. and the duties paid down in ready money before landing the goods, on pain of forfeiture; and every ſuch offence may be proſecuted in an admiralty-court in the plantations, or court of record where committed.

By this act, ſugars, paneles, &c. rum and ſpirits of America, not the product of the Engliſh ſugar colonies, are prohibited to be imported into Ireland, but ſuch only as are ſhipped in Great-Britain, in ſhips legally navigated, &c.

By 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. No hats or felts ſhall be exported from one Britiſh plantation to another, on penalty of 500l. and forfeiture of the goods; and perſons aiding and aſſiſting therein, ſhall forfeit 40l. Any perſons may ſeize hats and felts found on ſhip-board, &c. and carry them to the king's warehouſe. And commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, &c. in the plantations, permitting entries for exportation forfeit 500l. This ſtatute alſo regulates the trade of felt-making, &c. and no perſon ſhall retain in the ſaid art any negro, on forfeiture of 5l. for every month.

By 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. Any Britiſh ſhip legally navigated clearing outwards in any port of England for the province of Georgia, may load rice there and carry to any port ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, under reſtrictions limited in the act. And the officers appointed by the truſtees of Georgia, are impowered to do all things there, which may be done by virtue of the ſaid act, by the officers in Carolina. The ſhips concerning which province, ſhall proceed directly without carrying rice to any other American plantation; firſt taking out a licence from the commiſſioners, on a certificate from the collector and comptroller of the port, that bond is given, that no enumerated goods ſhall be taken on board at Carolina, or any plantation, unleſs for neceſſary proviſions in their voyage.

After landing the rice at ſome port of Europe ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, the ſhip is to proceed for Great-Britain, and produce a certificate of having landed the ſaid rice, &c. and the maſter producing the licence to the officers of the port where given, they ſhall demand the amount of the half ſubſidy payable for rice ſhipped in Carolina, which would have remained, had the rice been firſt imported in Great-Britain, and afterwards re-exported; which not being paid within 30 days, the bond ſhall be forfeited, &c. At preſent, rice, as well as ſugar, is permitted to be carried to foreign countries from the plantations, without being brought to England.

REMARKS on PLANTATIONS before the laſt War.

In the courſe of this work, we have conſidered the Britiſh plantations in various lights the moſt nationally intereſting to our commercial proſperity. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA,

MAP, FRANCE, NORTH CAROLINA, PENSYLVANIA. See likewiſe our MAP of North America, compared with the French one of Monſ. D'Anville, performed by the order and under the patronage of the duke of Orleans, at a very great expence. Under the preceding heads, the reader will find the cauſes of the preſent precarious ſtate of our plantations in America, pointed out to him for ſeveral years paſt; and alſo ſuch meaſures, as we humbly apprehend, would have effectually protected our poſſeſſions from thoſe inſults and depredations, to which they ſeem daily liable, to the concern of all wiſe and honeſt men, who wiſh well to theſe kingdoms.

By the before-mentioned map it appears, how contiguous the French colonies in North America lie to the Britiſh, which are entirely ſurrounded by them, and that the claims of the French, in many reſpects, we have ſhewn to be groundleſs and unjuſt.

Several parts which they now claim, were, about the beginning of the reign of king James II. made over and ſurrendered by the Iroquois Indians and their allies, to the crown of England, the right and poſſeſſion whereof we have ever ſince aſſerted and endeavoured to ſecure, both by ourſelves and the above-ſaid Indians our confederates, who on their parts, on all occaſions of difference with the French or their Indians, have for that and other conſiderations, demanded the good offices and protection of the Engliſh; who knowing it their intereſt, have never failed, if the cauſe was juſt, to afford it them: as they did in the year 1696, when the count Frontenac, governor of Canada, with ſeveral thouſand French and Indians, attacked the Onondages, one of the Five Nations, and ravaged their country; but on the approach of colonel Fletcher, governor of New York, with ſome regular forces, militia, and Indians, he was forced to retire, not without a conſiderable loſs from theſe natives, who conſtantly attended him in his retreat, often fell on his rear, cut off many of his people, and all the ſtragglers they could meet with.

The Five Nations, when ſummoned on our two laſt unfortunate expeditions againſt Canada, readily joined the Engliſh troops under the command of General Nicholſon, with about a thouſand men, and the reſt of them were in motion in different parts; ſome to diſcover and obſerve the poſture of the enemy in their own country, others to ſcout about the rivers and lakes. And they had ſo great a reliance on the friendſhip and protection of the Engliſh, whom they have heretofore found and acknowleged to be truly juſt, honeſt, and punctual, in their treaties and dealings with them; that during queen Anne's war, they not only permitted, but alſo invited them, to build a fort in the very heart of their country, and on their main river, the gate of which adjoined to, and opened into one of their capital towns or fortifications, inhabited by the Mohawks, the chief and moſt warlike nation among them. The Engliſh garriſon being a detachment from the independent companies of New York and Albany, lived with them in the ſtricteſt amity, and daily entered their caſtle as the Indians did our fort, who conſtantly ſupplied the ſoldiers with veniſon, wild fowl, fiſh, and other neceſſaries in their way.

From theſe Indians of the Five Nations, the Engliſh of New York purchaſe the greateſt part of their furr and peltry-trade, and in exchange ſupply them with duffels, ſtrowds, blankets, guns, powder, ſhot, and other the manufactures of Great-Britain.

The French knowing and envying the great friendſhip and commerce the Engliſh of New York cultivate and carry on with theſe Indians, and being ſenſible of the mighty uſe and ſervice they are of, not only to that colony, but to all our other colonies to the northward, have on many occaſions endeavoured, by all the artifices imaginable, to draw them over to their party and intereſts, which when they failed in, they have attempted by force or fraud to extirpate or ſubject them: but that cunning and warlike people, by the advice and aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, have ever prevented their deſigns, to whom they continue moſt incenſed and irreconcileable enemies; though as long as the Engliſh have peace with them, they are purſuaded to continue the ſame.

Indeed, during the reign of king James II. they had certainly been cut off and exterminated by the French (the Engliſh being prohibited to give them the leaſt aſſiſtance) had not the happy Revolution of king William intervened, and the war with France ſoon ſucceeded.

Nay, even Col. Dungan, a Roman Catholic, made governor of New York by king James, was at that time ſo very ſenſible of the ruin intended to the Five Nations our allies, and in conſequence to the Engliſh plantations, that he ordered the Popiſh prieſts, who were by leave come into his government, under pretence of making proſelytes, to depart from thence, becauſe he found their deſigns was to betray our colonies to the French, inſtead of making converts of the inhabitants.

The French, as is related above, have many ways endeavoured to ruin or diſtreſs the Iroquois; but as they are well aſſured, nothing will affect them ſo much and nearly, as to deprive them of their fiſhing and hunting, which is moſtly on the borders of, and between the great lakes, and without which they muſt ſtarve; therefore they have attempted to build forts on the ſeveral narrow paſſages thereof, and the rivers which empty themſelves thereinto, in order to intercept them, either in their going or returning from thoſe places; but the Indians have as often prevented the finiſhing of them, or otherwiſe obliged them to demoliſh or deſert them.

But ſhould the French be permitted to eſtabliſh their projected communication between Cape Breton and the gulph and river of St Lawrence, as far as the Miſſiſſippi, and ſo downwards to the bay of Mexico, which will be a mighty addition and increaſe of territory, ſtrength, and power to them, it is much to be feared, they will carry their point one time or another, and thereby diſtreſs and ſubject theſe our allies; the conſequence of which will not only be very ſhocking, but of the utmoſt concern to the ſafety of our northern plantations: for if we now, in ſo great meaſure, ſtand in need of, and depend on them as our friends, for the ſecurity of our frontiers, what muſt we expect when that barrier is removed, and they become our enemies? And not only they, but all the reſt of our friendly Indians to the ſouthward, which we may of courſe depend on.

We have heretofore experienced the diſmal and tragical conſequences attending a defection, of only one or two paultry nations of Indians bordering on Carolina; and though other pretences have been urged as the cauſe thereof, and were, perhaps, in ſome meaſure true; yet the French, ſince their late ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, and the bay of Mexico, have frequently clandeſtinely fomented and widened the breach, which occaſioned the butchering of ſo many hundreds of the inhabitants of that colony, with the burnings, devaſtations, and almoſt entire deſolation thereof.

It is well known, that the frontiers of our colonies are large, naked, and open, there being ſcarce any forts or garriſons to defend them for near two thouſand miles. The dwellings of the inhabitants are ſcattered at a diſtance from one another; and it is extremely difficult, if not almoſt impoſſible, according to the preſent eſtabliſhment and ſituation of our affairs there, from the great number of our colonies independent on each other, their different ſorts of governments, views, and intereſts, to draw any conſiderable body of forces together on an emergency, though the ſafety and preſervation, not only of any particular colony, but of all the Engliſh plantations on the continent, were never ſo nearly concerned.

For ſeveral of theſe governments, pretending to or enjoying ſome extraordinary privileges, which the favour of the crown has formerly granted them, excluſive of others, if their aſſiſtance is demanded or implored by any of their diſtreſſed neighbours, attacked by enemies, perhaps, in the very heart of their ſettlements, they either by affected delays, inſiſting on punctilios and niceties, ſtarting unreaſonable objections, and making extravagant demands, or other frivolous pretences, purpoſely elude their juſt and reaſonable expectations; and by an inactive ſtupidity or indolence, ſeem inſenſible of their particular and moſt deplorable circumſtances, as well as regardleſs of the general or common danger, becauſe they feel not the immediate effects of it; not conſidering their own ſecurity is precarious, ſince what happens to one colony to-day, may reach another to-morrow. A wiſe man will not ſtand with his arms folded when his neighbour's houſe is on fire.

The only expedient which has been ſuggeſted (with the utmoſt deference to his Majeſty and his miniſters) to help and obviate theſe abſurdities and inconveniencies, and apply a remedy to them, is, That all the colonies appertaining to the crown of Great-Britain on the northern continent of America, be united under a legal, regular, and firm eſtabliſhment, over which it is propoſed a lieutenant-general, or ſupreme governor, may be conſtituted, and appointed to preſide on the ſpot, to whom the governors of each colony ſhall be ſubordinate.

It is further humbly propoſed, That two deputies ſhall be annually elected by the council and aſſembly of each province, who are to be in the nature of a great council, or general convention of the eſtates of the colonies; and by the order, conſent, or approbation of the lieutenant, or governor-general, ſhall meet together, conſult, and adviſe for the good of the whole, ſettle and appoint particular quotas, or proportions, of money, men, proviſions, &c. that each reſpective government is to raiſe for their mutal defence and ſafety, as well as, if neceſſary, for offence and invaſion of their enemies: in all which caſes, the governor-general, or lieutenant, is to have a negative, but not to enact any thing without their concurrence, or that of the majority of them.

The quota, or proportion, as above allotted and charged on each colony, may, nevertheleſs, be levied and raiſed by it's own aſſembly, in ſuch manner as they ſhall judge moſt eaſy and convenient, and the circumſtances of their affairs will permit.

Other juriſdictions, powers, and authorities, reſpecting the honour of his Majeſty, the intereſt of the plantations, and the liberty and property of the proprietors, traders, planters, and inhabitants in them, may be veſted in, and cognizable by, the aboveſaid governor-general, or lieutenant, and grand convention of the eſtates, according to the laws of England,

but

but theſe points are not thought fit to be touched on or inſerted here: this propoſal being general, and with all humility ſubmitted to the conſideration of our ſuperiors, who may improve, model, or reject it, as they in their wiſdom ſhall judge proper.

A coalition, or union of this nature, tempered with and grounded on prudence, moderation, and juſtice, and a generous encouragement given to the labour, induſtry, and good management of all ſorts and conditions of perſons inhabiting, or any ways concerned or intereſted in the ſeveral colonies above-mentioned, will, in all probability, lay a ſure and laſting foundation of dominion, ſtrength, and trade, ſufficient not only to ſecure and promote the proſperity of the plantations, but to revive and greatly increaſe the flouriſhing ſtate and condition of Great-Britain, and thereby render it, once more, the envy and admiration of it's neighbours.

Let us conſider the fall of our anceſtors, and grow wiſe by their misfortunes. If the ancient Britons had been united amongſt themſelves, the Romans, in all probability, had never become their maſters: for, as Cæſar obſerved of them, Dum ſinguli pugnabant, univerſi vincebantur; whilſt they fought in ſeparate bodies, the whole iſland was ſubdued: ſo if the Engliſh colonies in America were conſolidated as one body, and joined in one common intereſt, as they are under one gracious ſovereign, and with united forces were ready and willing to act in concert, and aſſiſt each other, they would be better enabled to provide for and defend themſelves againſt any troubleſome ambitious neighbour or bold invader: for union and concord increaſe and eſtabliſh ſtrength and power, whilſt diviſion and diſcord have the contrary effects.

It muſt ſeem to every man a very great indignity offered to his Majeſty and the nation, that when there are are 500,000 Britiſh ſubjects (which are, perhaps, three times more than the French have both in Canada and Louiſiana put together) inhabiting the ſeveral colonies on the eaſt ſide of the continent of North America, along the ſea-ſhore, from the gulph of St Lawrence to that of Florida, all contiguous to each other, who, for a century, have eſtabliſhed a correſpondence, contracted a friendſhip, and carried on a flouriſhing trade and commerce with the ſeveral nations of Indians lying on their back, to the weſtward and northward, for furrs, ſkins, &c. a moſt rich and valuable traffic, the colonies themſelves abounding with metals and minerals of copper, iron, lead, &c. producing hemp, flax, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, maſts, timber, and planks of oak, firr, and all other ſorts of naval ſtores in great abundance, and the beſt of their kind in the world; beſides wheat, beef, pork, tobacco, rice, and other neceſſary and profitable commodities; with a noble fiſhery for whales, cod-fiſh, &c. along the coaſt and in the bays thereof: I ſay it ſeems a great indignity offered to his Majeſty and the Britiſh nation, that the French ſhould preſume to make thoſe incroachments, and commit thoſe ravages and hoſtilities on our plantations, which are now the ſubject of daily converſation and ſurprize; eſpecially ſince the Engliſh have planted and improved them, from the ſea-coaſt almoſt up to the ſources of the largeſt rivers, by the conſent of the natives, whoſe lands they have actually purchaſed and paid for, and whoſe traffic we may be entirely deprived of, if the French do not meet with an effectual check.

Moreover, if the Engliſh ſuffer themſelves to be thus ſtraightly cooped up, without ſtretching their plantations further back into the continent, what will become of their offspring and deſcendants, the increaſe of their own and the nation's ſtock; who claim and demand an habitation and inheritance near their parents, relations, and friends, and have a right to be provided for in the country where they are born, both by the laws of God and man, and which the prudence and policy of the ſtate does likewiſe require, as convenient and neceſſary, both for extending our territories, ſtrengthening our hands, and enlarging our trade?

Beſides, as the Engliſh are not fond of extending their dominions on the continent of Europe, but confine themſelves to their iſlands, being content with their ancient territories and poſſeſſions, except what is abſolutely neceſſary to promote and ſecure their trade and commerce, the very vitals of the ſtate, I cannot apprehend with what reaſon or juſtice the French, or any other nation, ſhould incroach upon their claims, colonies, or plantations in America.

We have heretofore likewiſe been, with juſt reaſon, alarmed in Great-Britain by the many letters, memorials, repreſentations, and remonſtrances, which have, from time to time, been tranſmitted from divers of our colonies upon the continent of America, ſetting forth the danger they have been frequently expoſed to from the neighbourhood of the French, if they obtained full poſſeſſion of the province of Carolina, (which they ſome years ſince attempted) and the lands to the northward of it, as far as the five great lakes, which comprehend great part of what they call their Louiſiana.

For through theſe countries many great rivers have their courſe, proceeding from the back of our colonies of New York, New Jerſey, Penſylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina (their ſprings being not far diſtant from the heads of the chief rivers that belong to, and run through thoſe colonies) moſt of them navigable without interruption from their fountains, 'till they fall into the Miſſiſſippi. And by means of their ſettlements on that and the other inland rivers and lakes, from the bay of Mexico to the river and bay of St Lawrence, the French are drawing a line of communication, and now endeavouring to ſurround and ſtraighten all our colonies, from Nova Scotia to South Carolina. Thus are they working out their own grandeur and our deſtruction! Indeed the French, whom all the world acknowlege to be an enterprizing, great, and politic nation, are ſo ſenſible of the advantages of foreign colonies, both in reference to empire and trade, that they uſe all manner of artifices to lull their neighbours aſleep, with fine ſpeeches and plauſible pretences, whilſt they cunningly endeavour to compaſs their deſigns by degrees, though at the hazard of encroaching on their friends and allies, and depriving them of their territories and dominions in time of profound peace, and contrary to the moſt ſolemn treaties.

For beſides their ſeizing on, and ſettling the great river Miſſiſſippi, and ſome part of the north ſide of the bay of Mexico, and the claim they ſeem clandeſtinely to make to another of our inhabited ſouthern colonies adjoining thereunto, as I ſhall in the ſequel demonſtrate, they in ſome of their writings boaſt, that their colony of Louiſiana hath no other bounds on the north than the arctic pole, and that it's limits on the weſt and north-weſt are not known much better, but extend to the South-Sea, Japan, or wherever they ſhall think fit to fix them, if they can be perſuaded to fix any at all; intending one day, if it is in their power, to deprive the Britiſh nation of all that vaſt track of land ſituate between the gulph of Mexico and Hudſon's Bay, which includes the province of Carolina, the aforeſaid great lakes, and the whole country of our five indian nations and allies, with the furr, peltry, and other trade thereof.

And what further views and deſigns they may ettertain againſt the Spaniſh provinces of New Mexico and New Biſcay, may be eaſily conjectured, ſince we cannot forget the project framed by Monſieur de la Salle, to viſit and ſeize on the rich mines of St Barbe, &c. which if he thought no difficult taſk to accompliſh with about 200 French, and the aſſiſtance of the Indians adjoining to, and in actual war with, the Spaniards at that time; how much more eaſily will they become maſters of them, when with the united ſtrength of Canada and Louiſiana, both French and natives, they ſhall think fit to attack them? And after ſuch an acquiſition of the numerous mines of thoſe provinces, with the immenſe riches thereof, what may not all our colonies on the continent of America apprehend from them?

Beſides, Jamaica lying, as it were, locked up between their ſettlements in the iſland of Hiſpaniola, and thoſe on the bay of Mexico, will ſoon be in danger of falling into their hands; and whether the Havannah itſelf, and the whole iſland of Cuba, with the key of Old Mexico, La Vera Cruz, will long remain in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, is very much to be doubted, if the Spaniards ſhould neglect their true intereſt, and not act in concert with Great-Britain, to curb and reſtrain ſuch meaſures: and ſuppoſing the beſt that can happen to us, it will be but Ulyſſes's fate, to have the favour of being deſtroyed laſt.

We are all ſenſible what clamours were raiſed at the conceſſions made to France on the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht. There is ſcarce a man well verſed in the intereſt of trade and plantations, but blamed the then miniſtry for not inſiſting on the ſurrender of Canada, as well as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, for the ſecurity of our northern colonies on the continent of America, and the traffic thereof: nor ought they to have allowed them the poſſeſſion of Cape Breton, if they had well conſidered or underſtood the nature of the fiſhery in thoſe ſeas.

The hiſtory of former ages, and the experience of theſe latter times, have informed us, that the French have ever been troubleſome neighbours, whereſoever they were ſeated: hiſtorians aſſerting, that the natural levity and reſtleſſneſs of their temper, their enterprizing genius, and ambition of extending their dominions and raiſing the glory and grandeur of their monarchs, contribute in great meaſure to make them ſo.

Wherefore it is to be hoped, that the Britiſh nation will be ſo far from continuing idle or indifferent ſpectators of the unreaſonable and unjuſt uſurpations and encroachments of the French on the continent of America, that they will let them know they have too much already of Canada and Cape Breton, and that, in reaſon and juſtice, they ought to abandon their new acquiſitions on the Miſſiſſippi and the Bay of Mexico, that river and the country belonging of right to the crown of Great-Britain.

And if, while they were weak, and in the infancy of their ſettlement in Louiſiana, we had duly aſſerted and maintained our right, we had a much better chance than at preſent to have kept them from further encroachments: for ſince they have had time to augment the number of their inhabitants, corrupt and influence the natives to their intereſt, ſtrengthen themſelves, by ſecuring with forts and garriſons, the paſſes of the rivers, lakes, and mountains, it will be no eaſy matter to curb and reſtrain them from going greater and greater

lengths;

lengths; but this muſt be done, or our plantations will be undone.

And I am apt to think, that prudence and policy will, or ought to prompt us to preſerve a ballance of power in America, as well as nearer home; and that, as we have, for many years paſt, found it our intereſt to check and put a ſtop to the growing power of France, and ſet bounds to their dominions here in Europe, we ſhall not eaſily be induced to allow them to encroach on, and deprive us of our colonies and plantations in America.

The Spaniards, if they knew their own intereſt, could not be leſs jealous and uneaſy than we, at the ſo near neighbourhood of THE FRENCH ON THE MISSISSIPPI; for it is certainly for their ſecurity to diſpoſſeſs them of their ſettlements there, and on the bay of MEXICO, leſt, in time, they render themſelves SOLE MASTERS OF THE NAVIGATION THEREOF; and, with the aſſiſtance of the Indians, make irruptions into the very hearts OF THEIR COLONIES, ATTACK THEIR TOWNS, SEIZE THEIR MINES, AND FORTIFY AND MAINTAIN THEMSELVES THEREIN.

And perhaps, if this matter was properly repreſented to the Spaniards, it is not improbable but they might be induced rather to DIVIDE THIS COUNTRY WITH US, AND SURRENDER ALL THEIR PRETENSIONS TO WHATSOEVER LIES EASTWARD TO THE MISSISSIPPI, except St Auguſtine, on condition that the French are obliged to remove thence, and retire elſewhere. And indeed nothing ſeems more proper and reaſonable, than for that great river to BE THE SETTLED AND ACKNOWLEGED BOUNDARY AND PARTITION BETWEEN THE TERRITORIES OF SPAIN AND GREAT-BRITAIN, ON THE NORTHERN CONTINENT OF AMERICA, NATURE SEEMING TO HAVE FORMED IT ALMOST PURPOSELY FOR THAT END, AS WILL BE EVIDENT TO THOSE WHO SHALL GIVE THEMSELVES THE TROUBLE OF VIEWING OUR MAPS; and at the ſame time they will perceive how the French have wormed themſelves into a ſettlement between the Engliſh and the Spaniſh plantations, on pretence of a vacancy, and, with an aſſurance ſcarce to be parallelled, have ſet bounds to the dominions of both. Whether ſome proper uſe may not be made of theſe ſuggeſtions, at this critical conjuncture, at the court of Madrid, is moſt humbly ſubmitted: if France, indeed, has not brought Spain into their ſcheme of ————, ſomething of this kind might poſſibly be brought about.

This is certainly a treatment moſt unjuſt and diſhonourable to the Britiſh nation, which I ſhould not have mentionod, if the duty I owe to my ſovereign, and the affection I bear to my country did not forbid me at ſuch a juncture, and on ſo important an occaſion, to be ſilent and unconcerned.

If we tamely ſubmit to theſe inſults and injuries which are daily committed by the FRENCH IN AMERICA, without being alarmed, and taking the neceſſary ſteps towards a ſpeedy and effectual redreſs of them, ſhall we not ſeem infatuated, and wanting to ourſelves, be arraigned as felo de ſe, and accounted, with good reaſon, the eternal bubbles of the French? From what has been ſaid, and the ſeveral writings, charts, and maps of the French, it is evident to what a narrow extent of ground they have confined the Engliſh plantations, and particularly in L'Iſle's, as well as D'Anville's map, the beſt and moſt approved of any they have lately publiſhed: beſides many very remarkables, there is one in L'Iſle's which we cannot omit taking notice of, viz. that on the part where they fix Carolina, now and long ſince inhabited by the Engliſh, they have inſerted this memorable paſſage, 'Caroline, 'ainſi nommez en l'honneur, de Charles IX. par les Fran-'çois, qui la decouvrierent en prirent poſſeſſion et s'eſtabli-'rent, l'an 15.'—That is to ſay, Carolina, ſo named in honour of Charles the IXth, by the French, who diſcovered, took poſſeſſion of, and ſettled it, in the year 15.—By which the author ſeems to intimate the right of his nation to that province; who, if they were ſo bold to put in their claim in ſo bare-faced and ſo public a manner, will they not, when they think themſelves ſtrong enough, attempt by force to aſſert it?

But if the French ſhould ever grow ſo powerful in America, as to be able to intercept or engroſs the trade with the INDIANS, or ruin or ſubject our plantations, there is an end of the conſumption of our home-produce and manufactures in America, of all our ſhipping-trade thither, of the duties for goods exported thither, or imported from thence, the increaſe of our ſailors, and the advantages of raiſing our own naval ſtores; beſides the loſs of ſo large an extent of dominion, and at leaſt 500,000 Britiſh ſubjects therein. We may be likewiſe aſſured, that all our ISLANDS IN THE WEST-INDIES will ſoon undergo the ſame fate, or be terribly diſtreſſed, for want of their uſual ſupplies of fiſh, lumber, and other neceſſaries they conſtantly ſtand in need of, and receive from our plantations on the continent; which neither Great-Britain nor Ireland can eaſily aſſiſt them with, and which they purchaſe with their ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, the vent of which will be, in great meaſure, ſtopped on the loſs of our NORTHERN COLONIES, whereby they will be mightily diſcouraged and impoveriſhed, ſo as to become an eaſy acquiſition to any ambitious and powerful invader.

Thus Great-Britain being deprived of it's ſubjects, dominions, and trade in and to America, our merchants will be ruined, our cuſtoms and funds will ſink, our manufactures will want vent, our lands will fall in value, and, inſtead of decreaſing, our debts will increaſe, without the leaſt proſpect of the nation's emerging.

It looks with an aſpect ſomething very extraordinary and ſtriking, that both France and Spain ſhould take, almoſt ever ſince the late peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE, every meaſure to increaſe their MARITIME POWER, and procraſtinate, from time to time, the adjuſtment of all miſunderſtandings between the court of Great-Britain and theirs. Did we give up CAPE BRETON in America the more effectually to enable the French to maltreat and inſult us in that part of the world? Was the ASSIENTO CONTRACT given up to Spain for a ſong, to encourage them to continue their depredations upon our trade and navigation in America, and France to ruin our African trade? Do not FRANCE AND SPAIN SEEM, AT PRESENT, TO ACT IN CONCERT AGAINST GREAT-BRITAIN? Does not their conduct ſhew, that they have ſomething more in view than the humiliation of the piratical ſtates? [See our article MEDITERRANEAN.] This is an eaſy pretext, and may, like their domeſtic jars, be contrived only to cover ſome latent ſcheme of ————. Be this as it may, we cannot be too much upon our guard; and WITH THIS VIEW, AND NO OTHER, ARE THESE THINGS TAKEN NOTICE OF. But how far we may with ſafety depend upon the faith of a certain power, ſeems, at preſent, to be quite forgot: it may, therefore, be uſeful to remind the nation, and indeed all Europe, thereof, by giving a brief hiſtory of the late French king's perfidiouſneſs in the breach of ſolemn treaties.

Additional REMARKS ON THE CONSTANT PERFIDY OF FRANCE, WHICH WE OUGHT NEVER TO FORGET.

Before we come to the facts, it is neceſſary to take notice that the principles of ambition which led the late French monarch to aſpire to the univerſal monarchy, and the principles of treachery which were needful to be practiſed towards his obtaining it, were infuſed into him by thoſe who had the charge of his education, and his conduct gave the world a ſufficient proof that he cultivated both to the higheſt degree.

The biſhop of Rhodes, who was appointed his firſt preceptor, gave him for a model of government the deſigns of his grandfather, Henry IV. as appears by the book which the biſhop publiſhed on that ſubject. After that great prince had made good his title to the crown of Franee, by renouncing the proteſtant faith, and ſubduing thoſe who had made the Catholic league againſt him, he formed a project to caſt Europe into a new model, to reduce all the kingdoms and commonwealths of it to a certain number, and to preſcribe them ſuch bounds as he ſhould think fit, reſerving to himſelf ſuch a ſhare as might enable him, or his ſucceſſors, to graſp the univerſal monarchy, as his predeceſſor Francis I. intended before him.

To this end he choſe his generals, and other great officers, erected vaſt magazines of ammunition and arms, and laid up prodigious ſums of money; but, as he was going to model his army, he was murdered in his coach by Ravilliac.

In purſuance of the like deſign, Lewis XIV. applied himſelf in his youth to read the memoirs of the ſaid Henry IV. with thoſe of the preſent Jeanin and the biſhop of Rhodes; but though he copied very well after his grandfather's ambition, he ſtudied nothing of his generous qualifications, which made him the darling of his ſubjects, and procured him the eſteem of the greateſt princes and ſtates of Europe: ſo that he inverted his plan in every thing that carried a ſhew of equity, and ſet out upon the foot of making himſelf an abſolute conqueror, and of forcing all Europe to ſubmit to his chains.

In order to this, abundance of mercenary, but able pens, were employed to flatter his ambition, on pretence of making his character glorious: in order to which, they poſſeſſed him with the following maxims, 1. That any title was ſufficient to take poſſeſſion by the ſword, 2. That the greateſt part of Germany was the patrimony and antient inheritance of the crown of France. 3. That his predeceſſor Charlemain poſſeſſed Germany as king of France, and not as emperor: the writers on thoſe ſubjects were gratefully rewarded; and one of them dedicated a book to him, intitled, The juſt pretenſions of the King of France to the Empire; wherein, beſides the above-mentioned principles, he laid down theſe following propoſitions, viz. That the dominions of ſovereign princes have always been the dominions and conqueſts of their eſtates, and that the dominions and conqueſts of crowns, can neither be alienated nor preſcribed; though, at the ſame time, there were treaties betwixt the crown of France, the empire, and other princes, directly contrary to theſe maxims.

But, to come to the treaties, the firſt we ſhall take notice of, is that of Munſter, which was concluded betwixt the plenipotentiaries of the emperor and empire, and the French plenipotentiaries at that city, the 24th of October, 1648. As

to which, it is fit to obſerve, that the Empire having deſired the aſſiſtance of France againſt the houſe of Auſtria, the French, on pretence of that aſſiſtance, poſſeſſed themſelves of ſeveral provinces and conſiderable towns in Spain, Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands; ſo that the Empire finding themſelves to be in as much danger from France, as they had formerly been in from the houſe of Auſtria, they willingly came into that peace, and were content to ſit down with their loſſes, rather than truſt their French allies any longer. The court of France perceiving that they could not put off the peace of the empire by their uſual intrigues, nor hinder the Dutch to make a ſeparate peace with Spain, they found methods to have the treaty of Munſter finiſhed, without including the Spaniards, or the duke of Lorrain, in the general peace; and Monſieur de Wicquefort, in his book, intitled, L'Ambaſſadeur & ſes Fonctions, lib. ii. and ſect. 13. informs us, that cardinal Mazarine endeavoured to prevent the peace all that he could; and though his maſter's troops pretended to eſpouſe the intereſt of the proteſtants, and that the Spaniſh miniſters preſſed the imperial court to grant them all their demands, yet underhand he hindered it, that by continuing the war he might unite the Spaniſh Netherlands to the crown of France; and at the ſame time he favoured the elector of Bavaria, the chief of the papiſts, againſt the elector Palatine, who had been the head of the proteſtant League in the Empire. By theſe intrigues, the cardinal, and others of the young French king's governors, not only laid a foundation for a new war, whenever they ſhould think fit, but got all confirmed to them that they had taken from the emperor and empire in a hundred years before, viz. the city of Briſac, the Landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alſace, Suntgow, and the provincial lordſhip of the ten imperial cities in Alſace, with all their dependencies, to be incorporated with the kingdom of France for ever. They did alſo obtain a perpetual right to keep a garriſon in Philipſburgh, and to the ſovereignty of the cities and dioceſes of Metz, Toul and Verdun, by which they opened their way into the empire on the Moſelle, and the Upper and Middle Rhine, whenever they ſaw occaſion; or as ſoon as their king, who was then about ten years of age, ſhould be in a capacity to practiſe the ambition and treachery which they bred him up to.

When he came of age, cardinal Mazarine brought on the treaty of the Pyrenees, in order to lay a furer foundation for his maſter's greatneſs, and had the ſatisfaction to ſee his pupil outdo all the copies of perfidiouſneſs and treachery he had ſet him. This treaty was concluded by the cardinal for France, and Don Louis Mendez de Haro for Spain; by which a peace was made betwixt the two crowns, on the 7th of November, 1659, when the French king was left in poſſeſſion,

1. Of all Artois, except Ayre and St Omers, with their dependencies. 2. Of Graveling, the forts Philip, the Sluce, Hannum, Bourbourg, and it's chatellany, and St Venant, in Flanders. 3. In Hainault, he had Landrecy and Queſnoy, with their chattellanies and dependencies. 4. In Luxemburg, Thionville, Montmedy, and D'Anvilliers, with their dependencies, and the provoſtſhips of Ivoy, Chavaney, Chaſteau, and Marville, with all that belonged to them; Marienburgh and Philippeville, on the Maes with all their dependencies; Avennes, on the Sambre with all that belonged to it; Recroy, in the Ardernes; Le Chatelet, at the head of the Scheld, and Linchamp. 5. On the ſide of Germany, all that had been granted him by the treaty of Munſter was confirmed. 6. By this treaty the duke of Lorrain was in a manner ſacrificed to him; for Nancy, his capital, was to be demoliſhed, and not to be refortified; and all the guns, arms, and ammunition to be carried off: he was ſtripped of the whole duchy of Bar, the county of Clermont, the provoſtſhips of Stenay, Dun, and Jametz, Moyenvie, and their dependencies. 7. By this treaty all the French king's pretenſions to the kingdom of Navarre, were left in ſtatu quo, and his ſovereignty over the county of Carolois in Burgundy, was reſerved to him, the king of Spain being to hold it in fee, as before the war. 8. On the ſide of Spain, the county of Rouſſillon, the Viguery of Conflans, and part of Cardegna were yielded to him. 9. In Italy, the king of Spain obliged himſelf to reſtore Verreil, with it's dependencies, to the duke of Savoy, to withdraw his garriſon from Correggio, to pay the duke the arrears of the dower of the infanta Catharina, to reſtore the duke of Modena to his favour, and allow him a neutrality, to reſtore the prince Manaco; and, on the French king's interceſſion, the king of Spain reſtored Juliers to the duke of Neuburg.

By this means the French king had put into his hands the keys of the Empire, Spain, and the Netherlands; which were neceſſary for his deſign, to obtain the univerſal monarchy that he afterwards diſcovered.

We cannot ſuppoſe the Spaniards, who are a wiſe people, to have made him ſuch a ſacrifice, without a valuable conſideration; which was to preſerve what they had left intire, that they might be at liberty to recover the kingdom of Portugal, which had newly revolted from them, and to obtain reſtitution of the duchy of Burgundy, and ſome places of importance the French had taken from them in Flanders. Beſides, they had ſome hopes of tying down this young aſpiring prince, by the bonds of love, ſince they could not do it by force of arms; eſpecially when the hands of the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria were tied up from aſſiſting them, by the treaty of Munſter, and their own low circumſtances. In order to this, a contract of marriage was agreed on betwixt Louis and infanta Maria Thereſa, the king of Spain's eldeſt daughter, on condition that he and ſhe ſhould ſolemnly renounce all pretenſions for themſelves and their ſucceſſors, to the crown of Spain, or any of the dominions thereunto belonging; which was ratified by the 33d article of this treaty, and there called the chief part of it, and the moſt worthy, as well as the greateſt, and moſt precious earneſt of the ſurety of it's duration.

But that the French court might ſhew themſelves to be ſtill acted by the ſame maxims of treachery and cruelty; as they made the match betwixt the king of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. and Margaret of France, a trap to ruin the Proteſtants, by the infamous maſſacre of St Bartholomew; ſo they made the like trap of this match to ruin the family of Auſtria, and uſurp their dominions, which has occaſioned ſo much blood in Europe, and God knows when the current will be ſtopped.

We come now to the French king's behaviour, at, and after this treaty; which opens ſuch a ſcene of perjury, atheiſm, and treachery, as, all circumſtances conſidered, never had it's parallel in the world.

To prove this, we ſhall bring ſome inſtances which make it evident, that the French king ſwore to the clauſe of renunciation with a deſign to break it. The firſt is from cardinal Mazarine's letter to Monſieur Lionne, of Auguſt 5, 1659, where he ſays, 'We could not ſuffer ourſelves to be perſuaded to loſe ſo many advantages, which with juſtice we might pretend to, without agreeing to the marriage of the king with a princeſs who might come to be heireſs of ſo great a monarchy as that of Spain.' And in the ſame letter he ſays, 'That when M. Piementel made the overture of the marriage, it was without making mention of the renunciation.'

In his letter to Monſieur le Tellier, of Auguſt 23, he gives an account of his conference with Don Lewis de Haro, the Spaniſh miniſter, wherein he would have perſuaded him to conſent to the marriage without the renunciation; but Don Lewis ſtopped his mouth, by telling him that the emperor had offered, in caſe he might have the infanta for himſelf, that he would break with France, and in all things follow the conduct of Spain; which obliged the cardinal to accept the match with the clauſe of renunciation.

In that ſame letter he ſays, that Don Lewis durſt not propoſe the marriage to the court of Spain, without the renunciation, they being ſo averſe to it, that there were none of the council but himſelf, and one more, who were for the match, even with that clauſe; for they all maintained, and he himſelf was of the ſame opinion, 'That if the king of Spain ſhould loſe his two ſons, which there was great reaſon to fear, they could not expect that the king of France would quit his hopes to ſucceed him, and renounce ſo great pretenſions.' Upon which the cardinal adds his own reflections in the following words: 'I am fully perſuaded of the truth of all this, for ſeveral very ſtrong and concluſive reaſons.' And he ſubjoins: 'moreover, I very well remember what the queen, his moſt chriſtian majeſty's mother, who likewiſe made a renunciation when ſhe was married to Lewis XIII. often told me, that when her brother, the king of Spain, had but one ſon; but, ſays he, (in a rapture of joy) I was well pleaſed to hear the ſame thing from the firſt miniſter of Spain, and that their whole council is of the ſame ſentiments.' Theſe letters being wrote for the king's own perufal, the cardinal durſt not have preſumed to uſe ſo much freedom, had he not been perſuaded that it agreed with his majeſty's intentions.

The ſecond inſtance is from Monſieur Aubery's Life of Cardinal Mazarine, dedicated to the king himſelf, by the author, who was an advocate of the parliament of Paris, and one of the king's council. He ſays, in the ſecond tome of Mazarine's life, p. 554. The cardinal acted prudently to ſign the contract of marriage, without having any regard to the pretended renunciation; which being manifeſtly contrary to common right, and to the law and general cuſtom of the ſtate, might be freely contradicted and diſavowed.

Theſe are full proofs of the French king's ſwearing to the treaty of the Pyrenees, with a deſign to break it: and what aggravates his crime is, that he had the ſame treacherous intention when he took his marriage oath; which after, according to the religion he profeſſed, he looked upon as a ſacrament, is a clear demonſtration that he was not to be tied, even by what he himſelf accounts to be moſt ſacred. The firſt open breach he made of this treaty, was, that though in the 6th article of the contract of marriage, it was ſtipulated, that he ſhould make another ratification of the renouncing clauſe, jointly with his queen, as ſoon as he ſhould be married, and enregiſter the ſame in the parliament of Paris, with other neceſſary clauſes, according to the uſual form, yet he would never comply with it; ſo early had he learned to play faſt and looſe with oaths and ſacraments, and ſo little

regard or love had he to the honour or perſon of the infanta, whom he could never have obtained without this renunciation.

The ſecond breach was that of the 60th article of the Pyrenean treaty, by which the French king obliged himſelf to abandon Portugal, and to give that king no aſſiſtance, in the following words: 'His ſaid majeſty ſhall meddle no more with the ſaid affair, and doth promiſe and oblige himſelf upon his honour, and on the faith and word of a king, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, not to give unto the forementioned kingdom of Portugal, neither in general, or to any perſons of it in particular, of what dignity, eſtate, or condition ſoever, neither now nor hereafter, any aid or aſſiſtance, public or private, directly or indirectly, of men, arms, ammunition, victuals, ſhips, or money, under any pretext; nor of any thing elſe, either by land or ſea, or in any other manner: and that he would not ſuffer levies to be made in any part of his kingdoms and eſtates, nor grant free paſſage to thoſe which may come out of other countries to the aſſiſtance of the ſaid realm of Portugal.'

But ſo far was the French king from obſerving this article, that immediately after the treaty, he ſent privately ſeveral bodies of troops to Portugal, and encouraged their obſtinacy to maintain the duke of Braganza upon the throne, contrary to the houſe of Auſtria; which was ſo much the more groſs, becauſe it appears by many places of the cardinal de Mazarine's letters, that the French king muſt of neceſſity have continued the war, and gone without his bride; nor would the Spaniards have abandoned the duke of Lorrain, and the prince of Condé, as they did, in ſo many material points, but merely on the conſideration of the French king's abandoning Portugal. When the Spaniſh ambaſſador at Paris complained of this breach to the French king, that prince, to ſhew how well he was verſed in the art of diſſimulation, ſent orders to all his ports, that no forces ſhould embark there for Portugal, which they did notwithſtanding; and when the Spaniſh miniſter renewed his complaint, he was told, that this was the marſhal de Turenne's particular act, and that the court had no hand in it: though, at the ſame time, the Spaniards intercepted ſeveral letters betwixt Monſieur Leon, the archbiſhop of Ambrun, and Count Schomberg, which fully proved, that the latter kept a conſtant correſpondence with the French court, and received all his directions from thence for carrying on the war. So early had the French king learned the art of debauching Proteſtant generals, ſo far as to concur with him in carrying on his treacherous and tyrannical deſigns.

The treachery of the French king, in this matter, was ſtill more evident by the letters which the Spaniards intercepted; which made it evident, that ſoon after the treaty, he hindered the Portugueze from accepting the advantageous propoſals made them by the Spaniards, by promiſes of ſuch aſſiſtance, as ſhould enable them, not only to defend themſelves, but to carry the war into the heart of Spain. And ſoon after the cloſe of the treaty, Mr Colbert made ſeveral journeys into Portugal to encourage them, and to contract a ſecret alliance with them: aud Monſieur Courtin went to England, at the ſame time, to move the king of Great-Britain not to abandon the Portugueze: nay, the Spaniards intercepted, in a French veſſel coming from Portugal, an account of the expences and ſuccours which France had given, without intermiſſion, to the Portugueze from the cloſe of the treaty; and, among other things, that they had maintained troops there to uphold the war: and all this, at the very time when they offered to the Spaniards to compoſe the differences betwixt them and Portugal, by their mediation. But, as ill men become more and more hardened in their wickedneſs, by continuing the practice of it, the French king, in 1667, when he began to form his deſign of invading the Spaniſh Netherlands, did openly, in defiance of the Pyrenean treaty, make a league, offenſive and defenſive, with Portugal, againſt all nations, England excepted.

By this treaty, all the harbours which the Portugueze ſhould take in Spain, either upon the one or the other Sea, were to be put into the power of France, which was to furniſh them with men and money by way of loan; and this treaty was to laſt for ten years, and the French were not to treat until the Portugueze were intirely ſatisfied, as we are informed by the author of The Buckler of State and Juſtice.

Having thus treacherouſly enfeebled Spain, by continuing the war of Portugal, the French king dealt in the ſame manner with the duke of Lorrain; and, contrary to the reſervations made for the ſaid duke in the treaty of the Pyrenees, he forced him to ſell him his duchy, to the prejudice of his lawful ſucceſſor: but knowing that the contract was null of itſelf, the French king obliged him, by force, to put the only place left him into his hands; by means of which he revoked the bargain, and got the thing without paying the price.

The next thing the French king did, was to poſſeſs himſelf of thoſe provinces belonging to the Spaniards, where he was likely to meet with moſt oppoſition to his deſign of making himſelf maſter afterwards of the whole Spaniſh monarchy; either becauſe of their native ſtrength, or becauſe of the intereſt that neighbouring princes and ſtates were like to take in their preſervation; and theſe were Flanders, the French county, and Milan.

In 1665, the queen-mother of France, who had made the ſame renunciation as her ſon, the French king, had done, told the Spaniſh ambaſſador, in a diſcourſe, that ſhe was ſenſible of the ill advice given her ſon, the French king, to ſet up pretenſions upon the monarchy of Spain; ſhe was ſenſible alſo of his deſire of glory, and of the unquiet temper of the French nation, and being afraid that theſe things might give a diſturbance to the peace, of which ſhe looked upon herſelf to be the author: ſhe therefore deſired him to acquaint her brother, the king of Spain, that ſhe thought it neceſſary, ſince he had given ſo much for a peace, to give yet ſomething more for preſerving it, and to ſtop the mouths of thoſe that puſhed on the king, her ſon, to violent reſolutions; and that for her part, ſhe would inſpire him with all the moderation ſhe could.

But the French king was ſo far from having any regard to the advice of his mother, or to her honour, that he perfectly gave her the lye, in his letter to the queen-regent of Spain; to whom he wrote, that his mother, in this conference, told the marquis that his pretenſions were juſt, ſolid, and undeniable.

The Spaniſh ambaſſador gave the court an account of what had paſſed betwixt him and the queen-mother of France; but Philip IV. of Spain dying a little after, they returned no immediate anſwer, only the ambaſſador had orders, that if the queen-mother of France ſhould again debate that buſineſs, he ſhould inform her fully of the falſhood of the French king's pretenſions, and that the queen-mother of Spain could do nothing in thoſe things herſelf, during the regency.

The French king made no complaint of this anſwer, nor any new propoſals upon it: and when he ſent the marquis de Bellefonds to Madrid, with a compliment of condolance upon the king of Spain's death, he gave him no orders about his pretenſions; but, on the contrary, the archbiſhop of Ambrun, the French ambaſſador at Madrid, gave all aſſurances of his maſter's intentions to keep the peace, propoſed entering into a league with Spain, to compoſe their differences with Portugal; and reproached thoſe as perſons of a ſeditious and turbulent humour, who would call in queſtion his maſter's ſincerity. Nay the French king himſelf, when the Spaniſh ambaſſador took leave of him to return to Spain, charged him to engage his faith and word to the queen, that he would keep a conſtant amity with her and her kingdom, without ſaying one word of his pretenſions.

By theſe falſe promiſes he lulled the Spaniards aſleep; and, to prevent their making any alliances for their own defence with their neighbours, he declared to the Spaniards, that if they ſigned any treaty with England, or made a peace or truce with Portugal upon their mediation, he would immediately declare war againſt them, as appears by Sir William Temple's letter to the earl of Clarendon from Bruſſels, May 4, 1667.

The French king having alſo, by his practices and private intrigues with Charles II. king of Great-Britain, raiſed a war betwixt England and Holland, he continued it by the ſame arts, becauſe he knew very well that an union betwixt thoſe two powers, would be an effectual curb to his deſigns upon the Spaniſh monarchy. Being unwilling, however, to alarm Europe too much, he made his pretenſions at firſt only to the duchy of Brabant, with it's appurtenances; the lordſhips of Mechin, Antwerp, Upper Guelderland, Namur, Limburg, the united places beyond the Maeſe, Hainault, Artois, Cambray, the French county, and part of Flanders; which was expreſsly contrary to the PYRENEAN TREATY.

The French king having thus abuſed the credulity of the Spaniſh court, and prevented their taking neceſſary meaſures for their own preſervation, he aſſembled his army on the frontiers of Flanders, on pretence of a general review; and on the 8th of May 1667, he wrote to the queen of Spain, that he was ready to appear at the head of his army to do himſelf right, and at the ſame time ſent her his manifeſto, without having made any other demand of his pretended rights, but what paſſed in the conference formerly mentioned betwixt his mother and the Spaniſh ambaſſador. The queen-mother of Spain returned him an anſwer the 21ſt of the ſame month, wherein with great modeſty and reaſon, ſhe laid open the injuſtice of his pretenſions and proceedings; but told him, ſince he deſired an accommodation, ſhe was willing to agree to it, and deſired him to name commiſſioners, and appoint a place of treaty; but the French king, that his conduct might be all of a piece, did not ſtay for her anſwer, went to his army eight days after the date of his letter, and made thoſe ſurprizing conqueſts, which at that time alarmed and amazed all Europe: nay, he was ſo far from ſtanding to his own propoſal of an accommodation, that he rejected it with fury, when the Spaniſh miniſtry offered to agree to it, and to refer it to the arbitration of neighbouring princes.

All his neighbours being alarmed at his progreſs in Flanders, and his conqueſt of the French county, England and Holland clapped up a peace betwixt themſelves; and the king of England brought Portugal to a peace with Spain. In 1668, the triple league between England, Holland, and Sweden, was concluded;

concluded; which put a ſtop to the arms of France, and brought on the treaty of Aix la Chapelle at that time. This treaty ſaved the remainder of Flanders, and obliged the French king to reſtore the French county, after demoliſhing all it's ſtrengths; but he ſtill retained and had confirmed to him for ever, Charleroy, Binch, Aeth, Doway, Fort Scarpe, Tournay, Oudenard, Liſle, Armentiers, Courtray, Berges, and Furnes, with all their appurtenances and dependencies. Yet the French king, far from being ſatisfied with this, and knowing that the triple league was an invincible barrier againſt his deſign of graſping the univerſal monarchy, he reſolved to break it; and for that end ſent over the ducheſs of Orleans, who had an interview with her brother king Charles II. at Dover, in 1670, and not only prevailed with that prince to diſengage himſelf from that alliance, but to concert meaſures with France to carry on a joint war againſt the Dutch, which broke out in 1672. The reaſon of his attacking the Dutch was, that he knew they were concerned in intereſt, as well as obliged by treaty, to prevent his getting any more of the Netherlands into his poſſeſſion.

The motive which moved our king Charles II. to join with him was, the aſſurance given him by his ſiſter the ducheſs of Orleans, in the name of the moſt Chriſtian king, that he would aſſiſt him to attain an abſolute authority over his parliament, and to eſtabliſh popery in his dominions; as we are informed by the Hiſtory of the War with Holland, printed at Paris in 1682, with the French king's allowance, but afterwards ſuppreſſed; and the count de Maiole who wrote it, was put into the Baſtille, upon complaint of the Engliſh ambaſſador, becauſe it diſcovered the ſecret tranſactions betwixt the two courts. The French king likewiſe engaged the emperor to approve the confederacy againſt the Dutch, on condition that he ſhould not invade the empire nor the Spaniſh dominions. And all things being thus prepared, he actually invaded their provinces, and brought that republic to the brink of ruin. His treachery in this was ſo much the more palpable, that it was not only contrary to treaty, but without any declaration of war, or demand of reparation for any injuries real or ſuppoſed: though the States wrote very reſpectfully to him upon his preparations in 1671, and promiſed to make him all reaſonable ſatisfaction if they had failed towards him in any thing. King Charles II. of England followed his example in this, and attacked the Dutch Eaſt-India ſhips in their return home, without any declaration of war.

The French king and he publiſhed their declarations afterwards, as did the biſhops of Cologn and Munſter; but all of them ſo frivolous, that every body perceived that there was ſomething elſe at bottom than what was pretended in thoſe declarations. The Dutch publiſhed anſwers to them ſeverally, wherein they ſufficiently expoſed the treachery of all the four, and the falſeneſs of their pretenſions. Thus the French king engaged king Charles II. in treachery and perjury with himſelf. But the Engliſh being diſſatisfied with the meaſures of our court and the progreſs of the French king, it encouraged the Dutch to ſend deputies to England to ſollicit a peace. King Charles accordingly ſent over four perſons of quality to confer with the States and prince of Orange, to whom they pretended that the king deſigned only to humble, hut not to ruin them; and that being alarmed at the progreſs of France, he was much inclined to their intereſt. This was nothing in effect but a French artifice, for the ſame perſons renewed a treaty with the French king for three years, and both of them delivered their demands to the Dutch; which were ſo extravagant, that the States reſolved to riſk all rather than agree to them, and applied to the empire for aſſiſtance.

In 1674, the parliament of England being uneaſy at the war with Holland, a ſeparate peace was made with the Dutch and Spain, and a great part of the empire declared in their favour; which, together with the admirable conduct of the prince of Orange, retrieved their affairs. The French king continued his war, however, upon the Spaniards, which occaſioned a treaty of defenſive alliance betwixt the king of England and the Dutch; which was followed by another ſoon after, and by a third, by which the Spaniards were conſiderable loſers. For inſtead of Charleroy, Binch, Aeth, Oudenard, and ſome other parts of his conqueſts, which the French king reſtored to Spain, he had the French county, the towns of Beſançon, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambray, with the Cambreſis, Aire, St Omers, Ypres, Warvick, Warneton, Poperingen, Bailleul, Caſſel, Bavay, and Maubeuge, with their dependencies, confirmed to him for ever, as appears by the treaty of NIMEGUEN.—By this means the Spaniards entirely loſt the French county, and had but a weak barrier in Flanders: yet the French king not being ſatisfied with this, did, according to his uſual way of obſerving treaties, preſently after the peace, ſet up claims to ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable places of Flanders, &c. under the pretence of re-unions, dependencies, &c. but knowing theſe titles to be weak, he backed them with a powerful army; and, having ſecured the friendſhip of our king Charles II. he did not much value any other oppoſition. He took Luxemburg, put the Spaniſh provinces under contribution, and miſerably harraſſed them; but being ſenſible that he could not be long without oppoſition in theſe unjuſt proceedings, he propoſed a ſeparate and advantageous alliance with the Dutch, who rejected it, becauſe they ſaw the ſnare laid for them: and king Charles II. of England being uneaſy at home, becauſe of the too well-grounded jealouſies that the nation had of his popiſh and arbitrary deſigns, he propoſed by Mr Henry Sidney, afterwards earl of Romney, a treaty of guaranty to inforce that of Nimeguen, refuſed to ſettle the limits between him and Spain in the NETHERLANDS, according to that treaty, and forced the king of Spain to renounce his title of duke of Burgundy.

He proceeded in the ſame treacherous manner againſt the empire; and contrary to the treaties of WESTPHALIA and NIMEGUEN, continued his troops in the empire, refuſed to evacuate the places there, which he ought to have done by the treaty of Nimeguen, demanded contributions, obliged the ten towns of ALSACE to ſwear to him as their ſovereign, and the vaſſals and nobles of the country the like; he erected new courts of appeals there, and forbad appeals to the imperial chamber at Spires. He likewiſe ſet up pretenſions to the ſovereignty of the juriſdictions of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and to other imperial ſtates and countries; confiſcated the revenues of the chapter of Straſburg, made new fortifications at Schleſtadt and Huningen, refuſed to reſtore Montbelliard, diſmounted Duckſburgh, took Homburg, Bitſch, and raiſed new pretenſions on Straſburg: all which were complained of in the diet of the empire, and repreſented to the French king, who was ſo far from thinking himſelf bound by the moſt ſacred treaties and oaths, that inſtead of redreſs, he invaded the Palatinate, ſurprized Straſburg by treachery; and, in order to graſp the univerſal monarchy, did all that he could by fraud or force to get the DAUPHIN choſen king of the ROMANS.

Much about the ſame time, in order to make himſelf maſter of Italy, and particularly of the Spaniſh dominions there, he purchaſed CASAL from the duke of MANTUA, and by his intrigues with the ducheſs regent of SAVOY, endeavoured to poſſeſs himſelf of the dominions of her ſon, then but fourteen years of age, on pretence of ſending him to Portugal to be matched with the infanta, and in her right to enjoy that crown. But this deſign was happily defeated by the nobility of SAVOY.

All theſe things together brought on the league of AUGSBURG in 1683, by the emperor, the king of Sweden, the ſtates of Holland, and ſeveral circles of the empire, of which league the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. was the main inſtrument. In 1684, the French king continued his conqueſts in the SPANISH NETHELANDS; but, perceiving the vigorous oppoſition he was like to meet with from the prince of Orange, by virtue of the Augſburg league, he propoſed a twenty years truce with the perſons concerned in it, and alſo with the king of Spain: which being accepted, he ſecured himſelf of all that he had treacherouſly taken from the Spaniards, except COURTRAYE and DIXMUDE, which he reſtored after demoliſhing the fortifications.

It appeared, however, afterwards, that the French king entered into this twenty years truce, with the ſame treacherous intentions that he had formerly entered into all his other leagues; and when king James IId came to the crown of Great-Britain, he thought himſelf ſure by his intereſt and long alliance with that prince, where weakneſs and bigotry had made him his tool, to accompliſh his ambitious deſigns. He put him upon the ſame deſign of ſubverting the Engliſh parliament, and of eſtabliſhing POPERY in his dominions, as he had done his brother king Charles II. Which England being ſenſible of, they ſoon grew diſcontented, and being unwilling to be brought under the curſed yoke of POPERY and SLAVERY, they made application to the immortal prince of Orange for aſſiſtance, to free themſelves from the intended bondage, in which the States of Holland chearfully concurred. The French king perceiving this from their preparations, he ordered the count D'Avaux his miniſter, in 1688, to acquaint the States that he ſhould look upon their firſt act of hoſtility againſt king James, as a manifeſt rupture with himſelf, becauſe of the engagements of friendſhip and alliance betwixt him and that prince. This was an interpoſition which the French king was no ways concerned to make, had it not been for the treacherous alliance he had made with king James, contrary to the twenty years TRUCE and the TREATIES before-mentioned.

The ſtates of Holland were not to be frightened, however, by this memorial of the French ambaſſador, but came to a reſolution to aſſiſt the prince of Orange in his expedition to England; upon which occaſion, the Dutch take notice of the ſtrict alliance between thoſe two kings to deprive the ſtate of their allies, and to overturn it. This expedition brought on the late happy revolution, which diſconcerted the French king's meaſures; whereupon, contrary to the twenty years truce, he treacherouſly invaded the empire, and beſieged and took PHILIPSBURG, &c.

It is fit to obſerve here, that this very ſtep diſcovered his treachery alſo to king James: ſince it would have been a much more effectual aſſiſtance to him to have invaded the NETHERLANDS, which muſt needs have hindered the States

of

of Holland from lending their army to the prince of Orange, as he might have ſent troops to England to aſſiſt king James here. But this did not ſuit with his deſigns: for he believed, no doubt, that England muſt needs be engaged in a civil war by that expedition, and he thought it his intereſt to let Great-Britain be weakened by ſheathing their ſwords in one another's bowels, that they might not be able afterwards, upon the turn of affairs, to put a ſtop to his ambitious deſigns of univerſal monarchy, as they had done ſeveral times before: and thus he ſacrificed his dear friend and ally king James.

Theſe treacherous proceedings of the French king occaſioned declarations of war on both ſides, and the allies in theirs charged the French king home with his treacheries. That of the States of Holland charge him, (1.) With invading them in 1672, in a time of profound peace, contrary to ſolemn treaties then in being, for no other reaſon, as he expreſſes himſelf, but for the increaſe of his honour and glory. (2.) With the breach of the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678. (3.) With laying exorbitant duties upon their navigation and commerce, contrary to the ſaid treaty. (4.) With diſturbing their navigation as well within as without Europe, and attacking their men of war in time of peace, with a manifeſt deſign to ruin their trade, and rejecting all their deſires of redreſs with ſcorn. (5.) That during his perſecution of his own proteſtant ſubjects, he had alſo involved their proteſtant ſubjects reſiding in France in the ſame calamity, and treated them barbarouſly, contrary to the law of nations and expreſs treaties; parted wives from their huſbands, and children from their parents; impriſoned their ſubjects, refuſed them leave to withdraw, and barbarouſly uſed their conſuls. (6.) That he threatened the States for making alliances for their own defence, which, it is allowable to all ſovereigns, they had a liberty to do by the treaty of Nimeguen. (7.) That in time of peace, contrary to the ſaid treaties, he had ſeized the veſſels, perſons, and goods of their ſubjects in his dominions; ill uſed their merchants and traders, clapped them up in priſon, and ſold their ſhips, becauſe they would not change their religion. (8.) That his troops had burnt and plundered ſeveral places in their dominions, before the war was declared, or at leaſt on the ſame day, for no other reaſon, but becauſe they made ſome extraordinary levies for their own ſecurity againſt his private deſigns, of which they were too well informed.

The governor of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS, in his declaration of war againſt France, charges the French king, (1.) With declaring war againſt the Netherlands in April 1689, for no other reaſon, but becauſe the king of Spain had entered into an alliance with other princes and ſtates, for his own defence. (2.) With bringing the Turks upon Hungary, and endeavouring to prevent a peace betwixt the emperor and his allies, and the OTTOMAN PORTE.

King William and queen Mary, in their declaration againſt France, charge him, (1.) With invading the territories of the emperor and empire, their allies, and laying them waſte in a barbarous manner, contrary to treaties wherein England was concerned as guarantee. (2.) With many injuries againſt themſelves and their ſubjects, without giving reparation, though they had not been taken due notice of, for reaſons well known to the world. (3.) With invading our trade and ſettlements in NEWFOUNDLAND, from the governor of which the French did formerly take licence to fiſh. (4.) With invading our CARIBBEE ISLANDS, and poſſeſſing himſelf of NEW YORK and HUDSON'S BAY in a hoſtile manner, and treating the inhabitants with the utmoſt barbarity, while at the ſame time his miniſters were negociating a treaty in England for a NEUTRALITY and GOOD CORRESPONDENCE in AMERICA. (5.) With his countenancing the ſeizure of our ſhips by his privateers; forbidding the importation of a great part of our products, and laying exorbitant cuſtoms upon the reſt, with a deſign to deſtroy our trade and navigation. (6.) With diſputing our right to the FLAG, and barbarouſly perſecuting our proteſtant ſubjects in his dominions, contrary to the law of nations and expreſs treaties, and forcing them to abjure their religion by unheard-of cruelties; impriſoning and ſending to the gallies our merchants, maſters of ſhips, and ſeamen. (7.) With having promiſed aſſiſtance to overthrow the government of England, and invading the kingdom of Ireland.

During the courſe of the war, which followed theſe declarations, he treacherouſly brought the duke of Savoy to break the alliance, and to enter into a ſeparate peace with him.

We may alſo take notice here, that during the ſaid war, it appeared plain by the confeſſion of Grandval, and others executed abroad, and by the trial of Sir William Perkins, Charnock, King, and Keys, &c. executed here, that he was engaged with the late king James in ſeveral plots to aſſaſſinate king William and queen Mary; which is moſt cruel practice in private perſons, but ſo ſuperlatively vile and abominable in one prince towards another, that the moſt brutal of human ſavages have held it in abhorrence and deteſtation.

The war was at laſt concluded by the treaty of RYSWIC in 1697. But it ſoon appeared, that the French king entered into that treaty with no other deſign than to break it, as ſoon as he could with ſafety and advantage: and as the States of Holland charge him in their manifeſto of 1702, he did it with no other view than to induce the confederates to lay down their arms, to diſband their rroops, and to ſeparate them from one another, in order to weaken and ruin them: for that part of the treaty with the Dutch, which related to traffic and commerce, was ſcarce well ratified, when he began to invade the trade of their provinces, and openly refuſed to grant them the tariff ſtipulated in that treaty, and put their ſubjects and merchants to numberleſs troubles on that head, and the States to a tedious and expenſive negociation. After which they were obliged to ſubmit to a diſadvantageous tariff, contrary to the tenor of that treaty, rather than hazard a new war: and though it was alſo ſtipulated by the ſaid treaty, that the Dutch ſubjects who ſettled in France to carry on their trade, ſhould be exempted from the taxes and duties laid upon foreigners; yet he impoſed exceſſive duties upon them, without giving any redreſs when demanded.

It is alſo well enough known, how they chicaned and trifled with us about reſtoring our Hudſon's-Bay colony, and would never come to ſettle a tariff of trade with us. He treated the emperor and empire in the ſame manner, and broke that treaty, by refuſing for a long time to reſtore the fortreſs of Briſac, and by the injuries and damages he did to the houſe of Montbelliard, and countenancing a treacherous explanation of the fourth article of Ryſwic, by which the proteſtants of the empire were perſecuted: nor was he any thing more punctual, as to what he ought to have reſtored to the crown of Spain by that treaty. But notwithſtanding theſe new inſtances of his perfidiouſneſs and treachery, king William and the States-General being willing to ſecure the peace of Europe, if poſſible, and to prevent a new war about the ſucceſſion to the crown of Spain, upon the death of king Charles II. who was then in a languiſhing condition; they entered firſt into a treaty of PARTITION with the French king for ſettling the ſucceſſion of Spain on the electoral prince of Bavaria, on condition that Naples, Sicily, Guipuſcoa, &c. ſhould be granted to the Dauphin, and the duchy of Milan to archduke Charles. But the prince electoral happening to die, they came to a ſecond treaty of partition, by which the Dauphin was to have Naples, Sicily, &c. and the duchies of Lorrain and Bar, for which the duke of Lorrain was to have the duchy of Milan, and all the reſt of the Spaniſh dominions were to be given to the archduke and his heirs for ever. The French king entered into theſe treaties with all poſſible proteſtations of ſincerity, and pretended he had no other deſign in ſo doing, but to preſerve the peace of Europe, and to remove all obſtacles that might interrupt the ſame. That treaty was no ſooner concluded, than it manifeſtly appeared that the French king never intended to keep it; for he immediately uſed all manner of artifices in the court of Spain, not only to render the emperor odious to the Spaniards, but likewiſe to oblige king Charles II. to diſpoſe of his ſucceſſion by will in favour of France.

Here alſo it is fit to obſerve his treachery to king James II. his kinſman and ally, whoſe intereſt with that of his pretended ſon and daughter, he ſacrificed to the treaty of partition, contrary to ſolemn treaties, and all the rules of gratitude, ſince that unfortunate prince had ruined himſelf by following his meaſures.

The author of the fable of the LION'S SHARE, verified in the treaty of partition, who was an able writer employed by the imperial court, makes theſe judicious remarks upon the deſign of the French king in the treaty of Ryſwic, and thoſe of the partition. (1.) That he ſacrificed ſo many places of importance which he had fortified at a vaſt charge, beſides ſeveral provinces that he had conquered, and expoſed his own frontiers, by demoliſhing many ſtrengths, merely that he might have an opportunity of uſurping the monarchy of Spain. It was this alone that made the peace of Ryſwic abſolutely neceſſary to him; for it is well known, that when he concluded that treaty, he had the advantage of the allies by arms. (2.) His deſign by the treaties of partition was, to divide the allies among themſelves, and to break the two maritime powers, and the elector of Bavaria, with the houſe of Auſtria; who he had reaſon to think would never agree to it, and could ſcarce ever enter into a friendſhip again with the Engliſh and Dutch, for abandoning them in this manner, ſince by the fourth article of the firſt grand alliance, none of the allies were to conclude a peace, 'till the treaties of Weſtphalia, Oſnaburg, Munſter, and the Pyrenees, were vindicated, and all things reſtored according to the tenor of the ſame. (3.) Conſidering the weakneſs of the houſe of Auſtria, and their then circumſtances, he made no doubt either to bring them to agree to the treaty, or afterwards to break with the allies and join with himſelf, upon granting them better terms. (4.) Having by this means engaged the maritime powers to acknowlege the electoral prince of Bavaria's right, notwithſtanding the renunciation of his mother the archduchеſs to all the dominions of Spain upon her marriage with his father, he knew it laid a foundation for the dauphin afterwards to diſpute his right to the whole with that prince, notwithſtanding the renunciation of his mother the late queen of France; who being a daughter of Spain, he was nearer in blood to that crown than the electoral prince.

That

That ſame author adds, That the Spaniards finding themſelves deprived of their allies by this treaty, and their monarchy diſmembered, it was a powerful argument to induce them rather to accept of a ſon of France, than to ſuffer themſelves to be torn in pieces, and their monarchy partitioned. He is very modeſt, however, as to the motives, which he thinks might have induced king William and the States to enter into this treaty; and ſuppoſes, that perceiving the French king ready to break out into a war to make good his pretenſions to the Spaniſh monarchy, when England and Holland were not prepared to reſiſt him, he deſigned, like a wiſe politician, to charm the ſtorm with a negociation; and upon that account was not unwilling that the French king ſhould publiſh the treaty, by which the houſe of Auſtria may take the alarm, and enter into proper meaſures to prevent it.

But be that how it will, when the king of Spain died, the French king, who had ſecretly broke that treaty before, by procuring a will which ſettled the whole Spaniſh monarchy on the duke of Anjou, then publickly avowed it; and by a jeſuitical diſtinction betwixt the ſpirit and the letter of the treaty, he preferred that will to the treaty of partition, and advanced his grandſon to the throne of Spain, not only contrary to all theſe treaties, but alſo contrary,

1. To the laws of the kingdom, which do not allow the alienation of that crown, nor that it ſhould be placed on the head of a ſtranger; the ſucceſſion being ſettled by conſent of the States on the houſe of Arragon, from whom the houſe of Auſtria is lineally deſcended.

2. It was contrary to the renunciation made by Lewis XIII. and the infanta Mary-Anne his wife, at the time of their marriage, the validity of which was not then diſputed.

3. It was againſt the renunciation made by the French king and his wife the famous Mary Tereſa, at the time of their marriage, and the oaths which both of them ſwore on the altar.

4. It was againſt the treaty of the Pyrenees, of which that renunciation was one of the chief articles.

5. It was contrary to the will of Philip IV. purſuant to that renunciation.

6. It was contrary to all the arguments formerly made uſe of by Lewis XIV. againſt the renunciations above-mentioned; which made him guilty of the ſame injuſtice to the Dauphin and duke of Burgundy, that he himſelf had charged upon the ſaid renunciations.

7. It was expreſsly againſt the civil law, and the decretal of pope Boniface VIII. which ſays, 'That every renunciation 'made upon oath by a daughter above 12 years of age, in 'favour of her father, in order to contract a marriage, by 'which a ſufficient dowry is aſſigned her, ought to be good 'in law, though ſhe be then under the juriſdiction of her 'father.'

As to the pretended will of king Charles II. of Spain, by which the duke of Anjou claims the crown, we may obſerve, (1.) That it is contrary to the will of his father, which was founded upon a treaty with conſent of the States, and the ſolemn renunciation of two ſucceſſive kings and queens of France, ratified by the legiſlative power of France and Spain; which is no great argument of the piety of thoſe that put him upon making it, or rather ſigning it. (2.) That it was contrary to a will which he made but a little before in favour of the archduke, to his repeated aſſurances to the emperor, and to his known inclinations. All which make it evident, that it was an impoſition upon him when he was ſtruggling with the pangs of death, and in no condition to peruſe, much leſs to compoſe, ſuch a will.

To return to the treaty of partition; the French king not only broke it, but upbraided king William and the Dutch with it in ſuch a manner, as diſcovered both his treachery and ingratitude: for in his memorial after the king of Spain's death, he charges the treaty of PARTITION with being productive of infinite troubles and misfortunes common to all Europe: which was a full proof of his wicked deſign and inſincerity, when he ſollicited the Engliſh and Dutch to enter into it. For here he acted the part of the great enemy of mankind, firſt to tempt, and then to accuſe. In that ſame memorial he reflected upon them, as having no right to thoſe dominions, which were allotted him by the treaty; by which he charges them as uſurpers, and meddling where they had nothing to do: though upon the firſt publication of the partition treaty, he joined with them in their memorials to the other potentates of Europe; wherein it was expected, that the deſign of the treaty was to preſerve the peace of Chriſtendom; and that the partitioning of the Spaniſh monarchy for that end, was as neceſſary as the pulling down or blowing up a ſtreet or ſome houſes during a fire, to prevent a whole city's being conſumed.

He diſcovered his ingratitude ſtill further, by charging the maritime powers with inſincerity, in demanding what they never deſigned to obtain; and the Dutch in particular, with framing views contrary to the intereſt of their republic: and that neither we nor they ſtipulated any advantage to ourſelves. The deſign of this was to inſence the ſubjects of England and Holland againſt their reſpective governments, as if they had concerted meaſures with France, prejudicial to their trade and liberty: and we know well enough what uſe the diſaffected faction made of this in England, when in parliament they charged the king with having made a ſelonious treaty, and impeached his miniſters for conſenting to it.

The French king having thus ſeized the Spaniſh monarchy, by virtue of that pretended will, one would have thought he ſhould have piouſly obſerved the contents of it; but he was ſo far from doing ſo, that, according to his uſual treachery, he broke in upon it in many inſtances, and particularly by ſending Frenchmen to poſſeſs the chief truſts of the kingdom, and to govern their councils, contrary to the 23d article, by which king Charles II. ordered that each of his kingdoms ſhould be governed by natives, without any innovation.

This treachery and ingratitude of the French king brought on the then confederacy, wherein the late king William III. was the chief inſtrument, but died before the war was declared. Her majeſty queen Anne, who ſucceeded to his deſigns at firſt for the public welfare of Europe, as well as to his crown, publiſhed her declaration of war againſt France on the 4th of May, 1702, which was leſs than two months after king William's death. Her majeſty charges him there with unjuſt uſurpations and encroachments; with keeping poſſeſſion of a great part of the Spaniſh dominions; with exerciſing an abſolute authority over all that monarchy; with ſeizing MILAN and the SPANISH LOW COUNTRIES, and making himſelf maſter of the entrance into the MEDITERRANEAN, and of the ports of the SPANISH WEST-INDIES, with a deſign to invade the liberties of Europe, and to obſtruct the freedom of navigation and commerce.

It is fit to be obſerved here, that, before the death of king William, the French king had declared the pretender to be king of Great-Britain and Ireland, which was directly contrary to the 1ſt and 4th articles of the treaty of Ryſwick, by which he was bound to a perpetual peace and ſincere friendſhip with king William, to promote his intereſt, honour, and advantage, and tied up from affording any aſſiſtance, directly or indirectly, to any enemy or enemies of king William, and in no manner whatſoever to favour the conſpiracies and plots which any rebels, or ill-diſpoſed perſons, may in any place excite or contrive againſt the ſaid king; and that he would not aſſiſt with arms, or any other way, any perſon or perſons who ſhould hereafter, under any pretence whatſoever, diſturb or moleſt the ſaid king of Great-Britain in the free and full poſſeſſion of his kingdom, &c.

Upon this her majeſty, in her ſaid declaration, takes notice that the French king, inſtead of giving that ſatisfaction for his contravention of the above-mentioned treaties, which ought juſtly to have been expected, not only proceeded to further violence, but added thereto a great affront and indignity to her majeſty and her kingdoms, in taking upon him to declare the pretended prince of Wales king of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and had alſo influenced Spain to concur in the ſame affront and indignity, as well as in other oppreſſions.

The States-General, in their manifeſto, recapitulate the French king's former breach of treaties, and particularly that of Ryſwick; wherein, beſides the other infractions already mentioned, they charge him alſo with breaking the treaty of PARTITION, notwithſtanding the repeated proteſtations he had made never to depart from it: and that he had violated the ſame, without giving any previous communication of his intention to thoſe with whom he had made it, alleging, for his principal motives, that the SPIRIT and SENSE of the ſaid treaty, and not the LETTER, were to be regarded; and explained that SPIRIT and SENSE in his own way. He threatened them, at the ſame time, if they did not concur with him, which they juſtly obſerved was an uncommon, as well as unheard-of, breach of faith, and a dangerous inſtance, which tended for the future to undermine and ruin the faith of all PUBLIC TREATIES. They charged him likewiſe with having poſſeſſed himſelf of the Spaniſh dominions, contrary to the treaty of PARTITION, without any regard to the emperor's pretenſions; which being the foundation of it, the greateſt part of the Spaniſh monarchy was thereby yielded to the archduke. He likewiſe, contrary to that, and former treaties, had poſſeſſed himſelf of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS, notwithſtanding they had garriſons there by the conſent of the king of Spain, for the ſecurity of the country; by which the French deprived them of the BARRIER he had ſettled by former treaties, and particularly by that of the partitions, and had procured an abſolute ſurrender of thoſe provinces from his grandſon, whoſe dominions he governed in as abſolute a manner as if France and Spain were one and the ſame kingdom. He alſo endeavoured to force the States into a ſeparate treaty, without their allies; and, to compel them to it, ſeized Liege, and the moſt conſiderable places of the electorate of Cologn, that he might invade them on all ſides, as in 1672, and for that ſame end raiſed a conſiderable number of troops in the country of Wolfenbuttle. He likewiſe ſeized all the harbours of SPAIN, NAPLES, and SICILY, and other iſlands in the MEDITERRANEAN, and alſo of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS and the WEST-INDIES, to make himſelf entire maſter of the commerce of EUROPE, and to exclude them and other na-

tions from it. He endeavoured likewiſe to perſuade the king of Portugal to deny them his harbours, and ſent a ſquadron to the Weſt-Indies, to ſeize the PLATE-FLEET, in which the ſubjects of the States, and of other princes and potentates, had ſo great a ſhare; and at the ſame time he endeavoured to AMUSE them with a treaty for a GENERAL PEACE, though he erected a fort in the Netherlands, within cannon-ſhot of one belonging to the States, contrary to a treaty agreed on with Spain in 1648, contrary to the laws of nations, and thoſe of war.

The emperor, in his declaration, charges the French king with the breach of the treaty of Ryſwick, and of the Pyrenees; with ſeizing ſeveral hereditary countries belonging to the houſe of Auſtria; with invading the empire, and ſeizing ſeveral of his fiefs; with ſupporting the elector of Cologn in his diſobedience, and his grandſon, the duke of Anjou, in uſurping ſeveral titles, as that of duke of Auſtria, count of Hapſburg and Tyrol, &c. which belonged to none but the archducal houſe. In the laſt place, with ſeizing the dominions of Spain, on pretence of a will contrived by ſome bribed Spaniſh counſellor, according to the direction of the French king, which was offered to the king of Spain when he was ſo weak in body and mind, as not to be able to read or underſtand, much leſs to weigh and examine, as was neceſſary, the large contents of the ſaid will; which of itſelf was full of falſities, and incomprehenſible contradictions, as well as contrary to the intention of the ſaid king, which he had ſo often ſignified to the emperor.

All theſe things being conſidered, we may juſtly ſay that there was never a prince in the world, and much leſs any who aſſumed the title of Chriſtian, whoſe reign affords ſo many inſtances of ſtudied and deliberate perjury, and breach of ſolemn treaties; nor have we an inſtance of any prince that ever pretended to the belief of a God, that ſo frequently profaned his name by the breach of public oaths, or that played faſt and looſe in ſuch a manner with things that they themſelves accounted ſacred: ſo that, like another Pharaoh, he all along bid defiance to the Almighty, and it was the language of his practice, though not of his mouth. Who is the Lord, that I ſhould obey him?

Though the divine vengeance puniſhed him in a remarkable manner, by the defeats of his armies, and deſolating judgments upon his dominions, he went on ſtill in his obſtinate perjuries and uſurpations, and had ſo chicaned with the Confederates in the buſineſs of the preliminaries to the peace of Utrecht, and ſo egregiouſly impoſed upon the nation in that treaty, and attempted to do ſo infinitely more than he did, by an infamous treaty of commerce; that we have all imaginable reaſon ever to diſtruſt the ſincerity of a court that has proved ſo diſhonourable, eſpecially if we have ſufficient cauſe to believe, that the ſame ſyſtem of diſturbing the tranquility of Europe ſtill prevails, in order to aſpire at that univerſal empire which they have ſo long had in view.—And what advances they have really made thereto in EUROPE, which ſeem not to be duly noticed, will appear from what we have urged under the article FRANCE, which the reader is deſired to refer to: how far, likewiſe, their ſyſtem tends to deſtroy the ballance of commerce and empire in AMERICA, the reader is deſired to turn to our REMARKS on the article BRITISH AMERICA: ſee alſo our articles NORTH CAROLINA, CANADA, LOUISIANA, PENSYLVANIA, and FRENCH AMERICA, and all others to which we refer from thoſe.—And ſtill to confirm our opinion that we have entertained of the meaſures of this nation, ever ſince the laſt treaty of Aix la Chapelle, we ſhall conclude this head of Plantations with the two following ſpeeches of governor Shirley, of New England.

REMARKS before the laſt war.

Whilſt I have been drawing up this article, the public have had communicated from Boſton in New England, the authentic ſpeech of governor Shirley, which, as it gives an account, that may be depended on, of the conduct of the French in that part of America, we judge it neceſſary to give the ſame a place in this work.

The ſpeech of his excellency William Shirley, Eſq; to the great and general court, or aſſembly, of the province of the Maſſachuſetts Bay in New England, March 28, 1754.

Gentlemen of the council and houſe of repreſentatives,

Having received, in the receſs of the court, ſome diſpatches, which nearly concern the welfare of the province, I thought it neceſſary to require a general attendance of the members of both houſes at this meeting of the aſſembly, that the matters contained in them may have as full and ſpeedy a conſideration as the importance of them ſeem to demand.

By account ſent from Richmond Fort, and declarations made before me and his Majeſty's council, by two of the ſettlers at Francfort, upon the river Kennebeck, I am informed, that, in the ſummer before laſt, a conſiderable number of French ſettled themſelves on a noted carrying-place, made uſe of by the ſeveral Indian tribes inhabiting that part of the country in their paſſage to and from Canada, which ſeparates the head of the aforeſaid river from that of the river Chaudiere, which laſt falls into the great river St Lawrence, at four miles and a half above the city of Quebec.

And I have received further intelligence, that the French are ſettled very thick for twelve miles on each ſide of the ſaid river Chaudiere, at about 30 miles diſtance above the mouth of it, and in the mid-way between the river St Lawrence and the before mentioned carrying-place; and the captain of Richmond Fort, in his letter dated the 23d of laſt January, informs me, that the Norridgwalk Indians have declared to him, 'That they had given the new French ſettlers upon the carrying-place liberty to hunt any where in that country, as a recompence for the great ſervice they will be of to them, in a time of war with the Engliſh, by ſupplying them with proviſions and military ſtores.'

The ſame officer further acquaints me, in another letter, dated February the 11th, that ſeveral Indians of the Arreſſigunticook, and ſome of the Penobſcot tribe, amounting, together with the Norridgwalk Indians, to 600 effective men, beſides boys capable of bearing arms, were then lately arrived in the neighbourhood of the fort under his command: and that, though they aſſembled there on pretence of writing a joint letter to me, as they have done, yet he had reaſon to expect, from their haughty inſolent behaviour, the repeated open threats of ſome of them, and the private warnings from others, that, as ſoon as the rivers ſhould be free from ice, they would commit hoſtilities againſt the Engliſh, upon that and neighbouring rivers; in which they intimate, they are to be aſſiſted by a number of French from Canada, diſguiſed like Indians. And in another letter, dated the 10th of March, he acquaints me, that the French prieſt, miſſionary to the Indians of the river Kennebeck, appeared to him to be continually uſing artifices to excite the Indians to prevent our ſettlements from being extended higher up it, to ſet them at variance with the Engliſh, and diſpoſe them to a war with them this ſpring.

Moſt of theſe accounts are confirmed by the declarations of the before-mentioned ſettlers at Frankfort, with the additional circumſtances, that the French prieſt had been very inquiſitive after Roman Catholic families in this ſettlement, and uſed endeavours to draw off ſome of the inhabitants into the ſervice of the French, particularly for building a chapel and a dwelling-houſe for himſelf upon that river, about three or four miles above Cuſhana, and at a diſtance of 24 from Frankfort, and been very induſtrious to perſuade them that it was within the French territories; and the Indians have further declared, that they have been inſtigated by the governor of Canada, to hinder the Engliſh from ſettling upon any part of the river; which is ſtrongly confirmed by a depoſition of Capt. Lithgow, made in Auguſt laſt.

Upon this occaſion, gentlemen, I ſent as ſoon as might be, with the advice of his Majeſty's council, the neceſſary reinforcements of men and ſtores to all the eaſtern forts, iſſued commiſſions for raiſing ſix independent companies in the townſhips and diſtricts next adjacent, with orders for the officers and ſoldiers to hold themſelves in conſtant readineſs to march, upon any alarm, to the ſuccour of any neighbouring fort or ſettlement which may be attacked, to cut off the enemy in their retreat; and, in caſe that they ſhould find that the Norridgwalk Indians have committed hoſtilities, to break up their villages and ſettlements upon Kennebeck, and to kill or captivate all they can meet with of their tribe: I likewiſe ordered an officer, commiſſioned by me for that purpoſe, to proceed, by the firſt opportunity, to the ſuppoſed place of the new French ſettlement, in order to diſcover the certainty and circumſtances of it, and to require the French commandant to retire and withdraw the people under his command from that ſpot, as being under his majeſty's dominions, and within the limits of this government.

And I doubt not, gentlemen, from your diſtinguiſhed zeal for the defence of his Majeſty's territories, and the protection of his ſubjects within this government upon all occaſions, but that, upon a refuſal of the French to comply with that requiſition, you will make ſufficient proviſion for enabling me to compel them, with the armed force of the province, to free us from their encroachments.

The concern, gentlemen, which you expreſſed in your meſſage to me at our meeting in December laſt, upon your apprehenſions of the imminent danger which the province was in, from the French having fortified themſelves upon the river of St John's, cloſe to our borders, leaves me no room to doubt of your being ſenſible of the fatal conſequences in the general that muſt attend their encroachments, which it ſeems plain they are now puſhing into the heart of the province (as the general court, in a vote paſſed the 16th of January, 1749, juſtly call the river Kennebeck) unleſs they are timely removed.

But it may not be improper for me to obſerve to you in particular, that it appears from extracts which I have lately cauſed to be made of ſome original letters taken among Father Ralle's papers, at the breaking up the Indian ſettlement at Norridgwalk in 1724, and which paſſed between him, Father Lauverjat, prieſt of the Penobſcot tribe, and Father La Chaſſe, ſuperior of the Jeſuits at Quebec, during the Indian war in the years 1723 and 1724; that the head of Kennebeck river, near which the Indians have declared the French have made

a new ſettlement, was the centre of moſt of the tribes then at war with us, and the general rendezvouz of all that came to the eaſtern parts; the Hurons, the Iroquois of the falls of St Lewis, the tribe of St Francis (or Areſſigunticooks) and the Indians of the ſeignory (as the French call them) of Becancour on the one hand, uſed to aſſemble with the Norridgwalks here, from their ſeveral ſettlements; and the Penobſcots from their river, on the other: here they held their conſultations, and from thence iſſued out in parties united or ſeparate, as beſt ſuited them, againſt the Engliſh; hither they retired after action, and brought their wounded for relief; and here, if they met with proviſions, they fared well; if not, they ſuffered greatly for want of them.

It appears further from theſe letters, that the ſeveral French miſſionaries chiefly conducted and managed this war; that they had the care of ſupplying the Indians with the neceſſary proviſions and ſtores for carrying it on; were employed to make them perſevere in it, and to puſh them on to their boldeſt enterprizes; that they tranſmitted accounts of their proceedings to the government of Canada, through the hands of the ſuperior of the Juſuits at Quebec, through whom likewiſe they received their directions from thence, as the governor of Canada ſeems to have done his, upon this occaſion, from the court of France.

And I would further obſerve, that this route affords the French a ſhorter paſſage for making deſcents from Quebec upon this province, and deſtroying the whole province of Maine, with the king's woods there, and in the government of New Hampſhire, than any other whatever from Canada.

Theſe advantages, which the poſſeſſion of this river would give the French over this province, make it eaſy to account for their conſtant endeavours, ever ſince the treaty of Breda, at which it was determined, in the moſt ſolemn manner, between the two crowns, that the river Pentagoct, or Penobſcot, was the boundary between New England and Acadia, or Nova Scotia, to extend the limits by claim upon all occaſions (as in fact they have done) to the eaſtern ſide of the river Kennebeck; though they never attempted, until within theſe few years, to paſs over the river St Lawrence, within the extent of this province.

I am ſatisfied it is needleſs for me, gentlemen, to urge any thing more to ſhew how neceſſary for the ſafety of this government it is, that we ſhould ſecure to ourſelves the poſſeſſion of this important river, againſt the encroachments of the French, without delay: and I think the preſent ſituation of affairs in that country muſt convince you, how vain a ſcheme it would now be to have your ſole dependence for gaining this point upon making annual preſents to Indians, who appear to have entered into an offenſive alliance with the French againſt you, and have ſhewed evident marks of a diſpoſition to put the river into their power.

How different are ſuch proceedings from thoſe of the French? Whilſt we have been ſuing in vain to a few Indians, for their permiſſion to ſettle lands within the undoubted limits of this province, and which themſelves cannot deny to have been purchaſed of their anceſtors, and have in effect promiſed them a yearly tribute, to reſtrain them from committing acts of hoſtility againſt us, the French have marched armies into diſtant countries of numerous and powerful tribes, which, without any colour of right, they have invaded: they have forbid them to make further grants of any of their lands to the Engliſh, and have built, and are ſtill building ſtrong forts, with an avowed intent to drive them off from the lands already granted to them, and to exclude them from all commerce with thoſe Indians, whom they have threatened with deſtruction, if they ſhall preſume to interfere in their favour.

It is time, gentlemen, for you to deſiſt from having your chief dependence upon temporary expedients, which ſeem rather to have expoſed the government to the contempt of theſe Indians, than to have conciliated their friendſhip to it; and to take counſel in part from the policy of our neighbours.

Vigorous meaſures againſt the French, in caſe they ſhall refuſe to quit his Majeſty's territories within this government, without being compelled to it by force; building a ſtrong fort near the head of the river Kennebeck, above the ſettlements of the Norridgwalk Indians, and puſhing on our ſettlements upon it in a defenſible manner, would effectually rid the province of the encroachments of the former, and either hold the latter in a due dependence upon us, or oblige them to abandon the river.

And further, by making ourſelves, through this means, maſters of the paſs, which was the general place of rendezvous during the Indian war in 1723 and 1724, of all the tribes engaged in it, both in their incurſions and retreats, we ſhould have it in our power to curb all thoſe Indians for the future, and in a great meaſure prevent them from attempting to make depredations in our expoſed ſettlements.

I muſt further obſerve to you upon this occaſion, gentlemen, how dangerous delays to make ſuitable preparations for removing the French would be.

How practicable was it, at firſt, to have put a ſtop to their proceedings in building their fort at Crown Point? And you can't but remember what miſchievous effects of the neglect to do that in the beginning, were felt by this and the province of New-York, in the ravages which they ſuffered from thence during the late war.

A ſhort delay to diſlodge them from their encroachments near the river Kennebeck, might give them an opportunity of making themſelves maſters of that river likewiſe, in the end; and in that caſe we may expect ſoon to ſee another fort built by them, near the mouth of it, and the French in poſſeſſion of all the ſea-coaſt between that and the river St John.

Gentlemen of the council and houſe of repreſentatives.

I hope you will proceed in the conſideration of theſe matters with that unanimity and diſpatch which his Majeſty's ſervice and the ſafety of the province requires; and that you gentlemen of the houſe of repreſentatives will make the neceſſary ſupplies.

Council-Chamber,
March 28, 1754. W. SHIRLEY.

Boſton, April 25, 1754.

On the 2d inſtant his Excellency was pleaſed to make the following ſpeech to the great and general court, or aſſembly, then ſetting here, viz.

Gentlemen of the council and houſe of repreſentatives.

The occaſion of my ſpeaking to you now, is to acquaint you that I have received a letter from the right honourable the lords commiſſioners for trade and plantations, ſignifying to me, that his Majeſty has been pleaſed to order a ſum of money to be iſſued, for preſents for the Six Nations of Indians, and to direct the governor of New York to hold an interview with them for delivering thoſe preſents, at ſuch place and time as he ſhall appoint; and I am directed to lay this matter before you, and to recommend to you to make a proper proviſion for appointing commiſſioners from this government to meet commiſſioners of Virginia, Maryland, Penſylvania, New Jerſey, and New Hampſhire (to the reſpective governors of which colonies their lordſhips have wrote to the ſame effect) as alſo for making ſuch preſents as have been uſual upon the like occaſions.

I have likewiſe to acquaint you, that I find, by a paragraph of their lordſhips letter upon this occaſion to the governor of New York, which his honour lieutenant-governor De Lancey, commander in chief of that province, hath communicated to me, that he is herein directed to take care that all the provinces be, if practicable, comprized in one general treaty, to be made in his Majeſty's name.

And that Mr De Lancey hath given me notice, that he hath appointed the ſaid interview to be held at the city of Albany, on the 14th of June next.

I am perſuaded, gentlemen, I need not uſe arguments to convince you, that it is of very great conſequence to the intereſts of his Majeſty's colonies upon this continent at all times, that as many of the tribes of Indians inhabiting it as may be (thoſe of the Six Nations more eſpecially) ſhould be kept in friendſhip with the Engliſh, and a dependence upon the crown of Great-Britain; and that as free a commerce and intercourſe ſhould be maintained with them as is poſſible; but I think it my duty, at this time, to enter into a particular detail of theſe matters.

At the treaty of Utrecht, which is confirmed by that of Aix la Chapelle, theſe were looked upon to be points of that importance to the Britiſh intereſt in North America, that care was taken in that treaty to have the Indians of the Six Nations acknowleged by France to be ſubject to the dominion of Great Britain; and it is herein expreſsly ſtipulated, that the French ſhall give no hindrance, or moleſtation, either to them or the other natives of America, who were friends to the Engliſh: it is alſo ſtipulated, that the ſubjects of both crowns ſhould enjoy full liberty of going or coming (upon this continent) on account of trade; and that the natives of the countries upon it ſhould with the ſame liberty reſort, as they pleaſe, to the Britiſh and French colonies, for promoting trade on the one ſide and the other, without any moleſtation or hindrance either on the part of the Britiſh ſubjects or the French.

With regard to the Indians of the Six Nations in particular, I would obſerve to you, that, according to an account given by them in an open council at Turpehawkie, at their return from the Indian treaty at Philadelphia in 1742, of the ſeveral Indian nations which have been conquered by them, and are now in their alliance, and trade with the Engliſh, and which ſeems to be depended upon, the warriors belonging to thoſe tribes may be computed to amount to 16 or 17,000 at leaſt; and one, who muſt be a good judge of the ſtrength of the Five Nations themſelves, upon being interrogated by me concerning the number of their fighting men, made anſwer, That he did not know their number, but well knew that they are a numerous people, a terrible body of men, and able to burn all the Indians in Canada.

You muſt be ſenſible, gentlemen, what frequent attempts the French have made, from time to time, to draw off the Six Nations from the Engliſh intereſt into their own; and from the repeated advices we have received from his Majeſty's ſouthern colonies on this continent, what efforts they have lately exerted to win over their allies, together with the other numerous tribes inhabiting the vaſt countries lying along the great lakes and rivers, and to the weſtward of the Apalachean Mountains (all which may be reckoned to exceed double the number of the Indians of the Six nations, and thoſe in their alliance) as alſo what meaſures the French are taking to exclude the Engliſh from all trade and commerce with thoſe Indians.

To compaſs this, they have, in manifeſt violation of the aforeſaid treaties, entered the country of theſe Indians, upon the back of his Majeſty's ſouthern colonies, and within the limits of his territories, with large bodies of troops, ſeized the effects, and captivated the perſons of the Engliſh, whom they found trading there; abſolutely denied their right to traffic with thoſe nations, and erected a line of forts upon the lakes and rivers, from Canada to Miſſiſſippi, to cut off all commerce and intercourſe between them; they have committed hoſtilities againſt ſome of the tribes in friendſhip with the Engliſh, engaged others to take up the hatchet againſt them, and threatened thoſe with deſtruction who ſhall interfere with their avowed deſign to drive the Engliſh out of that country.

Should the Indians of the Six Nations, at this critical conjuncture, deſert our alliance, and go over to the French, how fatal an influence muſt ſuch an event have upon the Britiſh intereſt? On the other hand, ſhould proper meaſures be taken to attach them finally to it, how greatly would it diſappoint and check the preſent ſchemes and enterprizes of our dangerous neighbours?

It it is well known how wavering the diſpoſitions of theſe Indians have of late been, and how viſibly they have abated their former enmity to the French; and we can't be at a loſs to diſcover the real cauſes of it.

Nothing could at this time ſo effectually reclaim them to their old alliance with us, as the meaſures directed to by their lordſhips of the board of trade, one general league of friendſhip, comprizing all his Majeſty's colonies, to be made with them in his Majeſty's name, with ſtipulations to build ſuch forts in their country as they ſhall chuſe, and may be judged neceſſary for their ſhelter and protection againſt the French.

Such a coalition of the colonies for their defence, would be a convincing proof to them that they might ſafely depend upon his Majeſty for protection, and confirm them in their ancient alliance with the Engliſh; and how neceſſary ſuch a confederacy of the colonies for their ſafe-guard is, may appear to you from the following account, given by an Indian trader, who for more than 20 years had carried on a trade among the different nations of the Indians, ſome hundred miles weſt of Philadelphia, the truth of which I have great reaſon to depend upon, viz. 'That, at the commencement of the late war, he, with ſundry other traders of the Engliſh, was taken priſoner by ſome Frenchmen belonging to a fort upon the river Ohio, and from thence was tranſported from fort to fort to Quebec; by means of which forts and the lakes, the French, he ſays, have a communication open from Quebec to Miſſiſſippi; that they have forts there within 20 or 30 miles diſtance from each other, with a command of from 10 to 20 men in each; in which, he ſays, they put the ſqua's and papooſes of the Indians in alliance with them, for protection, whilſt the men go out to war, and there keep them until the men return; and he obſerves, that, by means of theſe forts, they bid fair, in a little time, to reduce the Indians in alliance with the Engliſh, as the Engliſh do not afford the ſame protection to their women and children, whilſt the men are gone to war, as the French do.'

I would therefore earneſtly recommend to you, gentlemen of the houſe of repreſentatives, to make ſuitable proviſion for ſending commiſſioners on the part of this government, to join in the approaching interview at Albany, duly authorized to concert ſuch meaſures, in conjunction with the government of New York, and commiſſioners of the before-mentioned governments, as ſhall be judged proper to be entered into for cementing a firm league of friendſhip with the Indians of the Six Nations, and retaining them in the Britiſn intereſt; and to give thoſe commiſſioners full power to agree with the other governments upon the quota of money and men to be furniſhed by this province for this ſervice.

I have taken the liberty to propoſe the ſame thing to be done by the other governments concerned in this interview, in my letters to his Majeſty's governors, and againſt the preſent dangerous enterprizes of the French on every ſide of them.

I have already let you know, gentlemen, his Majeſty's orders to me and his other governors upon this point, ſignified to us in the earl of Holderneſſe's letter of the 18th of Auguſt laſt, and how neceſſary it is that ſuch an union ſhould be immediately formed in the common cauſe: whoever takes a ſurvey of the whole extent of the invaſions and encroachments which the French are ſurrounding his Majeſty's territories upon this continent with, from their moſt eaſtern to their moſt weſtern limits, muſt ſoon be convinced.

Cloſe on the back of the ſettlements of his Majeſty's ſouthern colonies, they are joining Canada to Miſſiſſippi, by a line of forts and ſettlements along the great lakes and rivers, and cutting off all commerce and intercourſe between the Engliſh and the numerous powerful tribes of Indians inhabiting that country, whom they are attempting to engage in their intereſt by all manner of hoſtilities and artifices: and, at the ſame time, they are puſhing on their encroachments with equal vigour quite round his Majeſty's eaſtern colonies, where they have ſecured all the Indians in thoſe parts to join them againſt the Engliſh.

Should the French prevail in the former part of their ſcheme, and gain a general influence and dominion over the Indians behind the Apalachean Mountains, which they muſt, in the ordinary courſe of human events, do in a ſhort time; if they are not timely prevented by an union of his Majeſty's colonies, they will have, in a few years, a moſt formidable army of thoſe Indians at their command, maintained without any expence to themſelves; but, on the other hand, with great profit ariſing from an immenſe furr-trade carried on with them: and what fatal conſequences ſuch an army of warriors (a few of which have been found ſufficient to keep a large frontier in continual alarm) muſt have upon all his Majeſty's ſouthern colonies, by continually harraſſing them, at the direction of the French, and ſupported by them from Canada on one ſide, and Miſſiſſippi on the other, and covered in their retreat behind the mountains by a ſtrong line of forts, commanding the navigation of all the lakes and rivers, is eaſy to conceive; eſpecially if the Indians of the Six Nations ſhould deſert our alliance, and join the French, which muſt, in ſuch caſe, be a deciſive blow to the Britiſh intereſt on that part of the continent.

At the ſame time, if they are not prevented by a coalition of the colonies, from finiſhing the ſcheme which it is moſt manifeſt they are forming againſt the eaſtern provinces, and already far advanced in, they muſt ſoon have it in their power equally to diſtreſs them likewiſe; and all the Engliſh colonies will be involved together in one general flame. It is true, thoſe colonies are far ſuperior to the French in their number and ſtrength; but if that ſtrength, gentlemen, is not properly exerted, by an union among themſelves, how little will it avail? It is not difficult to imagine ſuch a body of troops as the French may ſoon collect, together with the aſſiſtance of all the Indians ſcattered throughout this continent on the back of the Engliſh colonies (as the French ſettlements likewiſe are) when under the command of the governor-general of New France, who, upon all emergencies, can direct their force as he pleaſes, may reduce a number of diſunited provinces, many of them very remote from each other, though much ſuperior to them in point of the number of inhabitants.

For forming this general union, gentlemen, there is no time to be loſt: the French ſeem to have advanced further towards making themſelves maſters of this continent, within theſe laſt five or ſix years, than they have done ever ſince the firſt beginning of their ſettlements upon it: and how determined they are to accompliſh their ſcheme as ſoon as poſſible, appears from their breaking through the moſt ſolemn recent treaties and agreements made between the two crowns in order to effect it.

Gentlemen,

His Majeſty hath given the ſtrongeſt proof of his paternal care of his colonies, and conſtant attention to their ſafety, in directing his governors to promote this union within their reſpective governments: and I hope you will not be wanting on your parts to contribute all in your power towards effecting it, by improving the opportunity which the approaching interview with the Indians of the Six Nations at Albany happily preſents for that purpoſe: and I doubt not but that you may depend on all reaſonable ſupport and protection on the part of his Majeſty, againſt all preſent and future enterprizes and attempts of the French againſt you.

Council-Chamber, April 2, 1754. W. SHIRLEY.

REMARKS on our article PLANTATIONS, ſince the laſt war and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

From the whole drift and tenour of what we urged under this article, one would be led to think, that we were poſſeſſed of the gift of political prophecy; every thing falling out, with reſpect to the laſt war with France and Spain, as we had prejudged, though this work was begun juſt after the peace of Aix la Chappelle: and the revival of the paſt perfidy of France could not be malapropos, as being intended to rouze and alarm us to guard againſt the treachery of that ſtate. The precaution, we have all the way ſuggeſted, in relation to Spain joining France alſo, did not prove viſionary: we have likewiſe pointed out what came to paſs, in relation to the

the making the Miſſiſſippi the boundaries between Great-Britain and Spain; and even ſuggeſted the total extirpation of France from the whole American continent: and if it ſhould prove true, that France has actually ceded NEW ORLEANS, and their weſtern parts of the MISSISSIPPI to Spain, it will manifeſt how far human foreſight may reach in matters of a public nature, when a man is governed in his repreſentations by facts and impartiality. See LEEWARD ISLANDS, AMERICA, COLONIES, MEXICO, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, NEWFOUNDLAND.

PODOLIA. This province has Volhinia on the north, the river Nieſter on the ſouth, which ſeparates it from Moldavia, Oczrakow, Tartary, on the eaſt, and the palatinate of Lemberg on the weſt. It is divided into Upper and Lower, and is 250 miles in length, and near 80 in breadth, according to Moll. It is exceeding fruitful, and abounds particularly with wax and honey, and aſparagus grows wild in the fields: but the eaſt part of this province, although it be good land, is in a manner a perfect deſert, by reaſon of the frequent invaſions and ravages of the Turks, Tartars, and Coſſacks, to whoſe incurſions the whole province is very ſubject.

The upper, which is the weſt part, is populous and fruitful, though mountainous in ſome parts, and abounds with honey; and the valleys are well watered by rivers. In ſeveral places it has ſundry ſorts of marble and alabaſter.

CAMINIEC, the chief city of the Upper, and indeed of all Podolia, ſtands on the river Smotrzick, which about 110 miles below, falls into the Nieſter, not above 12 miles from the confines of Moldavia, 98 ſouth-eaſt from Lamberg, 224 eaſt from Cracow, 230 ſouth-eaſt from Warſaw, and 480 north-weſt from Conſtantinople.

The LOWER PODOLIA, which is the eaſt part, and alſo called, the palatinate of Braclaw, from it's chief town on the river Bog, 40 miles from the confines of Moldavia, and 92 eaſt from Caminiec.

POITOU, in France, is bounded on the eaſt by Touraine, Berry, and La Marche, on the north by Anjou and Britany, on the weſt by the Ocean, and on the ſouth by Aunis, Saintonge, and Angoumois. It is a large province, and more or leſs fruitful, according to the different ſituation of it's ſeveral parts.

CHATELLERAUD is ſituated on the river Vienne. The inhabitants of this place are induſtrious, and inclined to trade, They make a great quantity of watches, clocks, knives, ſciſſars, and other works of that kind. Their corn and wine they diſpoſe of within the country, but they export ſome flax and hemp.

PARTENAY, has a pretty conſiderable trade in cattle and corn.

ST MAIXANT has a manufactory of woollen ſtockings, caps, and ſerges, which they ſell within the kingdom and abroad: but their chief trade is in corn and all ſorts of grain, and in oxen, ſheep, horſes, and mules, of which they ſell a great many to the merchants of Auvergne, Lyons, Piedmont, and Savoy. They keep two markets weekly, and ſix fairs in the year.

FONTENAILLE-COMPTE, is a ſmall, but well built city, with a pretty good trade. They make here cloths, and ſeveral other woollen ſtuffs.

NIORT, is ſituated on the river Sevre. Within the diſtrict of this city they drive a great trade in cattle, horſes, and mules; and have in the city, manufactures of ſhamoy-leather, druggets, ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs.

OLONE, is inhabited by people who apply themſelves chiefly to the marine, and are very good ſeamen.

POLAND, as it is now extended, is bounded on the north with Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic; on the ſouth with Upper Hungary, Tranſylvania, and Valachia, on the eaſt with Moſcovy, and Little Tartary; and on the weſt with Germany. It's extent is from the frontiers of Pomerania on the weſt, to the frontiers of Tartary on the ſouth-eaſt, about 700 miles; and from the frontiers of Livonia, to the Crapach, or Carpathian mountains, which are the limits of Hungary, on the ſouth, above 600 miles.

By the ſituation, the climate is temperate, and the air not exceſſive cold; yet ſometimes it's lakes and rivers are ſo frozen, that coaches and carts paſs over them for 5 or 6 months together. The ſoil alſo is generally fertile, fit for tillage and paſture, and produces a vaſt quantity of corn and cattle; even enough to feed the populous nation of Holland, who yearly ſend vaſt fleets to Dantzick to buy the corn and oxen, ſent down thither from the ſeveral parts of Poland.

LITHUANIA, in particular, produces honey, wax, hemp, flax, leather, pot-aſhes, ſalt, wood, ſaltpetre, vitriol, and quick-ſilver. With theſe ſtaple commodities they purchaſe thoſe of other nations, viz. wines, cloth, ſtuff, wrought-ſilks, tapeſtry, jewels, ſablens, martens, tin, ſteel, iron ware, brandy, and ſpices. The country of Poland, in general, produces alſo all kinds of fruits and herbs, and a good breed of horſes; ſo that their cavalry is numerous, and well mounted. There are vines in many places, whoſe grapes are grateful to the taſte, eſpecially if the ſummer and harveſt be favourable, but the wine generally is very ſharp, when drawn off. In the mountains there are mines of lead, ſilver, copper, and iron; but the moſt conſiderable of all, are the ſalt mines in Leſſer Poland, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring moſt money into the Exchequer. They work in thoſe mines as the colliers do in our coal-pits. The ſalt is generally of a bluiſh colour, but ſome of it white and tranſparent. When it is dug it has a brackiſh taſte; but when expoſed to the air, it becomes brittle and more ſweet. They have alſo ſome veins of ſal-gemma. The woods are well ſtored with hares, conevs, ſquirrels, deer, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. The Maſovian foreſts have plenty of elks, wild aſſes, wild oxen, called uri, and buffaloes, whoſe fleſh when powdered, the Poles eſteem a great dainty. In the Ukraine there are wild horſes alſo, whoſe fleſh is equally eſteemed by the nobility. The wolf, reſembling a hart, or the European linx, called lupus cervarius, and by the natives ris, with ſpots on it's belly and legs, affords the beſt furs in Poland. The quails in Podolia have green legs; it is ſaid their fleſh is unwholeſome, and, if immoderately eaten, breeds the cramp.

It is a plain flat country, rather inclining to marſh lands; ſo that no conſiderable woods or mountains are found here, except thoſe that make the frontiers to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of 300 miles in length, and called the Crapach, or Carpathian Mountains. The eaſtern part of the country, indeed, is full of woods, foreſts, lakes, marſhes, and rivers, which affords a delightful proſpect to that part of it which is open. As for it's rivers, the moſt conſiderable is the Viſtula, the Niemen, or Cronus, the Nieper, or Boryſthenes, the Nieſter, or Tyras, the Bog, or Vagus.

The kingdom of Poland conſiſts of theſe parts.

I. Poland, properly ſo called, in the weſt.
II. Pruſſia on the banks of the Baltic.
III. The great dukedom of Lithuania in the eaſt.
IV. Samogitia and Courland, in the north.
V. Watſovia, Polachia, and Poleſia in the centre.
VI. Red Ruſſia, and Podolia, in the ſouth.
VII. Volhinia, and the Ukraine, in the eaſt.

The ſubdiviſions whereof are thus:

Poland, properly ſo called, is divided into the Upper and Lower.

Upper Poland, called alſo the Leſſer Poland, contains the three Palatinates of Cracow, Sendomir, Lublin.

Lower or greater Poland, contains the Palatinates of Poſnania, Kaliſh, Brezeſty, Wladiſlaw, Lencici, Inowloiz, Siradz, Rava, Ploezko, Dobrizin.

Pruſſia is divided into Royal, and Ducal.

Lithuania, is divided into the Palatinates of Witna, Troky, Breſlaw, Novogrodeck, Minſky, Mzciſlaw, Witepſk, Poloeza, Roſiem.

Samogitia hath theſe cities, Midnick, Schivende, &c.

Courland is divided into Semigallia, Courland.

Warſovia, otherwiſe called Maſſovia, hath one Palatinate of Czerſkow, and the city of Warſaw.

Polachia, the Palatinate of Bielſk.

Poleſiaſia, Breſſici, or Breſte.

Red Ruſſia contains three Palatinates, Lemberg, Belcz, Chelm.

Podolia, divided into Upper, wherein is the Palatinate of Caminiec. Lower, wherein is the Palatinate of Braclaw.

Volhinia, divided the Upper, which contains the Palatinate of Lufuck. The Lower, which is commonly called the Ukraine, contains the Palatinate of Kiow.

The Upper or Leſſer Poland, is ſituated between the Lower Poland and Warſovia on the north, Hungary on the ſouth, Red Ruſſia on the eaſt, and Sileſia on the weſt, containing in extent, from eaſt to weſt, near 200 miles, from north to ſouth, about 120, lying between 49 and 51 degrees of latitude. The river Viſtula, or Veiſſel, paſſes through it; the Warta hath it's ſource here, and ſeveral other rivers water the land, which is reaſonably fruitful, but over-run with woods.

It is divided into three Palatinates, wherein are theſe cities and chief towns, viz.

In the Palatinate of Cracow, being the ſouth-weſt part of the province, are, Cracow, Novoguria, Severia, Czenterow, Lelow, Oſwieczin, Zator, Wieliczka, Bochna, Sandècz, Lubowla, Bryecz.

In the Palatinate of Sendomir, which is the middle part, are, Sendomir, Zawicheſt, Cunow, Schidlowitz, Radom, Zarnaw, Malogocz, Pikzow, Viſlickia, Corezin, Polaniez, Pilſno.

In the Palatinate of Lublin, which is the north-eaſt part, are, Lublin, Kaſimiers, Piotrowin, Urzendow, Epol, Scodlec.

The PALATINATE of CRACOW has Sileſia on the weſt, the palatinate of Sendomir on the eaſt, Hungary on the ſouth, and Siradin on the north. There is a ſort of manna in this country, which they gather in May and June, ſweep it off the graſs with ſieves, together with the dew, and make ſeveral diſhes of it.

CRACOW, CRACOVIA, the metropolis of this palatinate, and of the kingdom of Poland, is ſeated on a rocky bank of the river Viſtula, about the middle of the Palatinate; 36 miles eaſt from the confines of Sileſia, 40 eaſt from Germany, 44, north

north from the confines of Upper Hungary, 86 ſouth-weſt from Sendomir, 120 ſouth-eaſt from Almuiz, and 127 from Breſlaw, 135 ſouth-weſt from Warſaw, and 185 north-eaſt from Vienna, 173 north from Buda, 250 ſouth from the Baltic Sea, 680 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and near 720 weſt of Moſcow.

Near this city are falt mines, of which Dr Conner gives this account. They were diſcovered in 1548, are about 300 geometrical paces in depth, and have ſo many alleys and paſſages, that one can ſcarce go over them all in a week.

They are generally ſo cold as is ſcarce to be endured, and the winds are ſometimes ſo furious, that nothing can withſtand them. The yearly revenue of theſe mines is about 400,000 French livres, of which 50,000 go to the king, 10,000 to the queen, and ſome thouſands more to the officers of ſtate; beſides which, the proprietor is obliged to make a yearly preſent to all the cities of Poland, and their ſtaroſtas.

The falt here is of four kinds; one extreme hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle: theſe are all brackiſh; but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. On one ſide of theſe mines there is a ſtream of ſalt water, and on the other one of freſh.

The other towns of note in this palatinate, are,

ZATOR, on the ſouth ſide of the Veiſſel, 22 miles ſouth-weſt from Cracow, and 20 from the confines of Sileſia.

SEVERIA is capital of a large duchy of the ſame name; in the neighbourhood are mines of ſilver and lead.

BIEEZ, 33 miles ſouth-eaſt of Cracow, is watered by the river Rapa, a branch of the Veiſſel, of whoſe froth they make ſulphur. This town ſtands on the confines of the palatinate of Sendomir, and has good mines of vitriol in the neighbourhood.

SANDECZ, 24 miles ſouth-eaſt from Cracow, is noted for trade, the induſtry of the inhabitants, and ſome mines of gold and copper.

OSVIECZIN, 30 miles from Cracow, on the ſouth ſide of the Veiſſel, near the river Sala, 12 miles from the borders of Sileſia, is reckoned the capital of Poliſh Sileſia. This town is a thoroughfare from Cracow to Vienna, and has a great trade in hard ſalt, of which there are great lumps expoſed to ſale in the public ſquares, of from 20 to 30 quintals in weight. It is dug out of the mines near Cracow, to the inhabitants of which, it is ſold for 8, 10, or 12 florins each, and the others from 50 to 70.

CZENTOCHOW, 57 miles north-weſt from Cracow, and 70 eaſt from Breſlaw, ſtands on the river Warta, and the confines of Sileſia. It is famous for good beer, tranſported over the nation and into Germany.

SLACOVEA, 25 miles north-weſt of Cracow, gives name to a duchy, and is noted for ſilver mines, which bring great profit to the biſhop of Cracow.

PROSZOVICE, 10 miles north of Cracow, on the banks of the river Sozienova. The king has a palace there, in which is kept a provincial dyet.

ILEUSSIA, 20 miles weſt of Cracow, is a royal town, noted for ſilver and lead mines, and the beſt bread and beef in Poland.

WIELIEZ, 25 miles eaſt from Cracow; and Bochnia, another town in the neighbourhood, are noted for quarries of excellent rock-ſalt, diſcovered in 1252, of which that of the latter is moſt tranſparent. The mines which are below the town, make one of the beſt branches of the revenue, and employ a thouſand men and many horſes. Such of them as work under-ground, grow blind, from the ſharpneſs of the ſalt. Here are alſo ſeveral ſprings, the water of which is boiled into ſalt. Our Philoſophical Tranſactions, N°. LXI. p. 1099, call them ſalt-gem mines. Here are three ſorts of ſalt, one coarſe and black, another finer and whiter, and the third very white and clear, like cryſtal. The black ſalt is cut out into maſſes of three Poliſh ells long, and one in thickneſs. They lay the great pieces before the doors, that the cattle may lick them. Theſe pieces are ground by mills and other engines.

This palatinate is ſmall, exceeds all the reſt in mines, except that of Sendomir only: for, beſide thoſe already mentioned, there are ſome, both of copper and gold, at Novoturgus; marble of all colours at Sileſia; pit-coal at Tencinum; and iron mines, and glaſs-houſes at Olſtinia.

The PALATINATE of SENDOMIR has that of Cracow on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, Hungary on the ſouth, Mazovia and Great Poland on the north, and Red Ruſſia and the palatinate of Lublin on the eaſt. It is divided into eight diſtricts, and has nine ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of Sendomir, and the caſtellans of Wiſliez, Radom, Zawichoſt, Zarnow, Malagoſh, Polowiez, and Sechow. It abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, lead, and marble, and has it's name from it's capital, viz.

SENDOMIR, on the weſt ſide of the Veiſſel, near it's confluence with the San, 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, and 75 ſouth of Warſaw.

The other towns of any note, are,

KUNOW, 40 miles north of Sendomir, noted for quarries of marble of all ſorts and colours.

SYDLOVEEZ, 40 miles north-weſt of Sendomir, is noted for ſtore of timber, iron, and ſteel, in it's neighbourhood, and plenty of fiſh.

VIARDEN, a new built town, of good trade much frequented.

ITZA ſtands on a river that falls into the Veiſſel, 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, and furniſhes all Poland with earthen ware.

KIELEZ is famous for mines of copper, and lapis lazuli.

CHENEIN, 12 miles eaſt of Kielez, noted for mines of lead and ſilver, and quarries of marble.

LAGOVIA is a city famous for making earthen ware.

The PALATINATE of LUBLIN lies north-eaſt from that of Sendomir, out of which it is taken; has Maſovia on the north, with Podlachia; is bounded on the eaſt by Lithuania, aud the palatinate of Ruſſia. It has two ſenators, viz. the Palatine and Caſtellan; and the Veiſſel and the Vieperd are it's two chief rivers.

LUBLIN ſtands at the foot of a hill, near the river Uſtrieza, 20 miles from the frontier of Red Ruſſia, 35 weſt of Chelm, 56 north of Sendomir, 55 ſouth-eaſt of Warſaw, and 130 north-eaſt of Cracow. It has a conſiderable trade, and is frequented by merchants of Turkey, Armenia, Muſcovy, Germany, Italy, France, England, &c. at it's four annual marts, which laſt each a month.

The LOWER or GREAT POLAND, is bounded on the north by Pomerania and Royal Ruſſia, by the Upper or Leſſer Poland on the ſouth, by Sileſia and the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the weſt, and on the eaſt by Maſovia, or the duchy of Warſaw. It is 165 miles from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, and the like, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt, according to thoſe geographers who include Maſovia in it: but, excluding this, which is rather a boundary than a ſubdiviſion of it, it is 200 from eaſt to weſt, and about 100 from north to ſouth.

It is, in general, a level champaign country, has pleaſant rivers, lakes, and ponds, and is well furniſhed with all manner of fiſh and fowl. It's hills abound with ſheep, and other cattle, and it's valleys with corn.

POSNANIA, called by the Germans POSEN, is bounded on the north by Pomerania, on the eaſt by Pomerelia, and by the palatinate of Kaliſh, part of which, together with Sileſia, bounds it alſo on the ſouth; and on the weſt it is bounded, partly by Sileſia, and partly by the marquiſate of Brandenburg.

It's capital city of the ſame name ſtands in a plain, among ſeveral little hills, by the river Varta, or Warta, 28 miles weſt of Gneſna, 40 north of Wratiſlaw, 43 north-weſt of Kaliſh, 135 ſouth of Dantzick, and 143 weſt of Warſaw.

There are three very famous commercial fairs kept in this city, much reſorted to by the German traders and gentry. The firſt is kept about the beginning of Lent, and laſts a month; the ſecond and third at Midſummer and Michaelmas, each of which continues five weeks.

The PALATINATE of KALIS lies along the river Warta, between the palatinate of Poſnan on the weſt, Siradia on the ſouth, Sendomir on the ſouth-eaſt, and Cujavia on the eaſt and north-eaſt.

The chief city of this palatinate, is,

GNESNA, which is the capital of the Lower Poland, and was formerly the metropolis of the whole kingdom, and ſeat of the king. It ſtands in the middle of the palatinate, in a plain, between hills and lakes, 37 miles north of Kaliſh, and eaſt of Poſnan, 46 ſouth-weſt of Thorn, 95 north of Breſlaw, 118 ſouth of Dantzick, 121 north-weſt of Warſaw, and 155 north-weſt of Cracow.

The PALATINATE of SIDARIA lies on the eaſt and weſt ſides of the river Warta, and is divided into four diſtricts, having Sileſia on the weſt, Little Poland and Sendomir on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, Kaliſh on the north, and Lencicia on the eaſt. It has five ſenators.

The PALATINATE of LENCICIA has that of Rava on the ſouth-eaſt, and Little Poland on the ſouth; is divided into three diſtricts.

The PALATINATE of RAVA lies eaſt from Lencicia, between Leſſer Poland, Maſovia, and Cujavia, and is ſeparated from Sendomir by the river Piltza.

The two following palatinates are comprehended in the province of Cujavia, which has Royal Ruſſia on the north, Kaliſch on the weſt, Lencicia on the ſouth, and Dobrin on the eaſt.

The PALATINATE of BREZESTEY, on the ſouth-ſide, is fertile in all ſorts of grain, of which it exports vaſt quantities to Dantzick, by ſeveral navigable rivers. It is divided into four diſtricts, and has it's name from a little town 16 miles weſt of the river Veiſſel, 30 miles ſouth-weſt of Thorn, and weſt of Ploczko, and 60 eaſt of Gneſna.

VLADISLAW is a palatinate, whoſe capital city of the ſame name is built among marſhes near the Veiſſel, in the midway between Ploczko and

THORN, 14 miles north-eaſt of Brezeſtey, 20 ſouth-eaſt of Thorn, and 75 north-weſt of Warſaw. Though the adjacent ſoil is marſhy, and ſo ſcarce of fuel, that the inhabitants ſuffer very much for want of it; yet it is fruitful in corn, and ſends great quantities to Dantzick.

The

The PALATINATE of INOWLOCK. It extends from the lake of Goplo and the city of Gruſwick, to the Veiſſel, and the confines of Pomerania; has Pruſſia on the north, the Veiſſel on the eaſt, Kaliſh on the ſouth, and lies north-weſt from Brezeſtey. It is divided into three territories.

DARBIN is by ſome made a diſtinct palatinate of the province of Maſovia, and by others a territory belonging to that of Brezeſtey. It lies on the eaſt of the Veiſſel, between Cujavia and Pruſſia; abounds with fruits and fiſh of all ſorts. It is divided into three diſtricts.

PLOCZKO, on the weſt ſide of the country, is by ſome alſo reckoned a palatinate of Maſovia, from which it lies rather to the eaſt, between the Veiſſel and Ducal Pruſſia. It is divided into four diſtricts

REMARKS.

DANTZICK being the chief city of traffic in Poland, we ſhall more particularly deſcribe that and it's commerce from the beſt accounts.

Dantzick, eaſt longitude 19, latitude 54, the capital of Royal Pruſſia, in the kingdom of Poland, ſituate on the weſtern ſhore of the Viſtula, which a little below falls into the Baltic Sea. It is an excellent harbour, and has the beſt foreign trade of any port within the Baltic. It ſtands 140 miles north of Warſaw, and 70 miles ſouth-weſt of Koningſburg. The town is large, and encompaſſed with a wall and fortifications of a great extent. The houſes are well built of ſtone or brick, ſix or ſeven ſtories high, and the grainaries, containing vaſt magazines of corn and naval ſtores, are ſtill higher, to which the ſhipping lie cloſe, and take in their lading; for the Dutch annually import from hence a great many thouſand tons of corn, timber, and naval ſtores, and other nations ſome; but the Dutch have the greateſt ſhare of this trade, paying for their merchandize with pickled herrings, the ſpices of India, ſugars, brandy, and other produce of the more ſouthern countries; whereas, the Engliſh and other nations are forced to purchaſe theſe things chiefly with treaſure. The inhabitants are computed to amount to 200,000 ſouls.

The moſt conſiderable part of the trade of Dantzick conſiſts in corn, which the Polanders bring down the Viſtula in large ſtruzes or barks, which carry in bulk about 50 tons Engliſh. Theſe barks generally come down annually, in very plentiful years to the number of 1600. They reckon by laſts, of 11 Engliſh quarters; the grain is ſmall, but the red ſort often ſells for 180 Poliſh gilders the laſt, and rye about half this value.

As theſe cargoes are often expoſed to the weather, it is a cuſtom to ſpread their ſails on the banks of the river, and dry their corn on them. They alſo export bees-wax annually, to near 1000 ſchip-pounds, for which they often get the price of 300 gilders per ſchip-pound. Narrow linens, of about 21 inches broad, and ſacking of different qualities, for bags and imbalage, are alſo exported to a great amount *; alſo pot-aſh †, weed-aſh ‡, and pearl-aſh; this laſt is calcined, and takes it's name from it's colour. Pipe-ſtaves are alſo a conſiderable article, and oak-plank, of which the greateſt part is 4 inches thick, 16 to 20 inches broad, and 50 feet long §. This ſpecies of timber will not ſtand the weather ſo well as Engliſh oak, but under the water is eſteemed equal.

* Some ſay near 100,000 l.
† Sold there at 50 f. per ſchip pound.
‡ Sold at 22 ½ f. per barrel of 360 lbs.
§ Of this near 30,000 l. value.

They import iron from Sweden, to the quantity of 1500 or 2000 tons, but of the woollens, and other manufactures of England, an inconſiderable quantity. The laws of commerce are very ſtrict to prevent one foreigner from ſelling to another, or to re-ſell to any other burgher than to the perſon he bought of, which muſt neceſſarily cramp the trade very much. Peter the Great made a law to the ſame purpoſe for Peterſburgh, and yet it is unrepealed; but the government knows very well, that to inforce the execution muſt be extremely prejudicial, and contrary to the maxims of all wiſe ſtates. Even in Dantzick, in the time of the fair, all ranks and degrees of people are admitted free, to ſell what, and to whom they pleaſe.

Poland abounds in Jews, ſaid to be of the tribe of Benjamin: whatever tribe they are of, they appear as deſpicable as any people in the world; yet their acuteneſs and induſtry have given them an eſtabliſhment, in which it is the intereſt, both of the lords and the clergy, to ſupport them; for the trade which they carry on, enables them to pay an intereſt of 10 per cent. per annum for large ſums.

They keep their accounts here in gilders, groſch, and phennigen, a ducat paſſing for 8 gilders, 6 groſch.

The Current Money here is,

3 ſhillings, or 18 phennigen	- -	1 groſch,
3 groſch	- - - - -	1 ditkin,
2 ditkins	- - - -	1 ſixer,
3 ſixers	- - - -	1 tymph,
7 ½ groſch	- - -	1 ach de halber,
4 ach de halbers	- - -	1 gilder.

A current dollar is 3 gilders, and a ſpecie dollar 4 gilders.

Here are alſo half, whole, 2 gilders, and 4 gilders pieces, of which the laſt is a French crown of Lewis XIV. eſteemed the beſt money current, when they have not been in the hands of the Jews. Poliſh coin ſells from 1 to 2 per cent. advance. The exchange is uſually 280 to 290 groſch per pound Flemiſh banco. Koningſburg draws in current money, 1 per mil. according to cuſtom, being deducted.

Weight in Dantzick.

32 lote	- -	1 pound,
24 pounds	-	1 ſmall ſtone,
34 dittos	- -	1 large ditto,
120 dittos	- -	1 centner,
320 dittos	- -	1 ſchip-pound, or 2 ½ hundreds Engliſh.

The weight is there 4 per cent. lighter than the Engliſh. A laſt of corn is 60 ſheffelt, but of malt 90.

Long Meaſure.

12 inches	- - - -	1 foot.
2 feet	- - - -	1 ell.
102 ells Dantzick	- -	make 50 ells Engliſh.
6 dittos	- - - -	5 Brabant ells.

The whole amount of the trade here, is ordinarily computed twelve millions of current dollars, on which the duties are about 7 or 8 per cent. One half is called the revenues of the crown, the other the property of the city.

This duty is paid in Alberto ſix dollars of 4 gilders. HANWAY.

Of the General Courſe of Exchange of Dantzick and Koningſberg.

72 rixdollars, more or leſs,	in France,	100 crowns d'or ſol.
270 Poliſh gros—idem	in Holland,	1 pound gros banco.
100 rixdollars	at Breſlaw,	103 rixdollars, more or leſs.
84 Poliſh gros, more or leſs,	at Frankfort,	1 rixdollar current.
110 dittos—idem	at Hamburgh,	1 rixdollar banco.
100 rixdollars	at Leipſic,	101 rixdollars, more or leſs, current.
56 Poliſh gros, more or leſs,	at Haremberg,	1 florin current money.

London exchanges, with Poland and Pruſſia, by the way of Amſterdam and Hamburgh,—See HOLLAND.

REMARKS before the laſt war between ENGLAND, FRANCE and SPAIN.

It is recent in every one's memory, that the death of king Auguſtus of Poland gave riſe to a bloody war between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon.

The late emperor Charles VI. was very far from being ſatisfied with the conduct of king Auguſtus, in the latter part of his reign, becauſe he ſuſpected, not without grounds, that he had ſome engagements with the courts of France and Bavaria, not very favourable to the Pragmatic Sanction; for which reaſon the imperial intereſt was employed in Poland, rather to traverſe than promote the king's views, with reſpect to the ſucceſſion.

But when his Poliſh majeſty was dead, and the imperial court found his ſon, the preſent king, very tractable, with reſpect to it's favourite point, the Pragmatic Sanction: this gave a new turn to the councils of the court of Vienna, and engaged them to favour that meaſure which they had hitherto impeded.

On the other hand, France, from firſt to laſt, openly ſupported the intereſt of king Staniſlaus, whoſe hiſtory, from the time of his being driven out of Poland, is, in a few words, this.

His generous friend, the king of Sweden, aſſigned him his paternal inheritance, the little duchy Deux Ponts for his ſubſiſtence, which he held ſo long as that prince lived; but upon his demiſe, the next heir took poſſeſſion, and king Staniſlaus was forced to retire to Straſburgh, where he lived on the bounty, as well as under the protection of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, who in the year 1723, married the princeſs Mary, his daughter; which conſequently intereſted France extremely in his favour. His great alliances, his many virtues, and his being freer from vices than almoſt any prince in his time, had preſerved him many friends in Poland; ſo that it was no difficult matter for the marquis de Monti, the French ambaſſador in that kingdom, at the death of king Auguſtus, in conjunction with the primate, to form a great faction in his favour, more eſpecially as they were both men of great abilities.

But the electoral prince of Saxony being ſupported by the courts of Vienna and Peterſburgh, a double election enſued. King Staniſlaus, who paſſed into that country immediately after the throne became vacant, went to Warſaw, where he was received and treated as king, but was very ſoon driven out again by the Ruſſian army commanded by count Munich, and obliged to retire to Dantzic, in which he ſuſtained a long ſiege, ran great hazards, ſuffered many hardſhips, and at laſt with infinite difficulty made his eſcape to Konigſberg, where he was protected by the late king of Pruſſia.

In the mean time, the crowns of France and Spain broke with the emperor, upon pretence of this diſpute, and of his having ſupported king Auguſtus III. and proſecuted that war with great vigour in Germany and Italy; 'till at laſt having carried their point, and forced the emperor to a peace, all the care that was taken of king Staniſlaus was, that he ſhould enjoy the title of king of Poland and the duchy of Lorrain for life, and on the other hand, France and Spain acknowleged king Auguſtus.

It was very clear from their whole management of this affair, that the court of Verſailles was never in earneſt in the ſupport of Staniſlaus's title to this crown; but made uſe of it only as a colour, firſt for engaging in a war againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and next for obtaining an immediate poſſeſſion of LORRAIN under his name, which otherwiſe they could never have gained.

It hath been the conſtant view of France for many years paſt, to extend her frontier to THE RHINE; and, upon the breaking out of ſeveral wars there, ſhe hath conſtantly ſeized great numbers of places, and fortified them at a vaſt expence. The return of peace hath generally demoliſhed them, and put the French under a neceſſity of employing large ſums again, upon the renewal of every war. The experience of this, and that they may be the more ready upon any occaſion, hath convinced them long before now, that LORRAIN, if not the greateſt, is at leaſt one of the moſt conſiderable acquiſitions, that they could poſſibly gain or deſire.

That Lorrain is of great uſe to the French in the deſign they have long ſince laid, of carrying their frontier to the Rhine, hath been ſufficiently ſeen in the great advantages they have received by that country, all the time of their uſurpation.

The union of Lorrain with France, advances THEIR FRONTIER FORTY LEAGUES INTO THE EMPIRE; for ſo many there are, from the extremity of the duchy of Bar to the city of Straſburg; makes them maſters of all the country between Queitſch, the Saar, and the Moſelle; opens a way into the Palatinate, and into the territories of Mentz and Triers. See LORRAIN.

This duchy ſecures the communication of France with the county of Burgundy, and the two Alſatia's; is ſituated at the head of the Moſelle and the Meaſe, and therefore cannot but be extremely commodious, as well to preſerve their old conqueſts, as to make new. Here they may aſſemble their forces, to diſtribute them in every part; make proviſion of corn to fill their magazines in Alſatia, and KEEP AN ARMY IN WINTER-QUARTERS, TO BE READY TO ACT UPON THE RHINE, BEFORE THEIR ENEMIES CAN TAKE THE FIELD. It is hard to imagine greater advantages than theſe; and if we add to all, that out of this country above 30,000 men are raiſed and paid, we ſhall find, that the French had good reaſon to obtain it, as they have done. Thus has France made dupes of all Europe, and gradually purſued their ambitious point towards UNIVERSAL EMPIRE; which is greatly to be feared they may ſtill one day obtain, if they are not effectually checked. To confirm the truth of which, ſee the articles FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS.

REMARKS on the article POLAND, ſince the laſt great war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, concluded in 1763.

The immenſe load of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, with which this kingdom is at length incumbered, and by which our whole commerce and navigation are now oppreſſed, will, it is to be hoped, be a ſtriking memento to our rulers, that this nation may be as little as poſſible involved for the future in wars with the continent, which do not immediately concern the intereſts of Great Britain: for it is certain, that by engaging ourſelves in continental, in that moſt expenſive and profuſe manner we have done, has been greatly inſtrumental to entail upon us our tax-incumbrances. However neceſſary ſuch policy may have been heretofore judged, our own immediate ſafety will inſtruct us as readily to relinquiſh ſuch a ſyſtem as we have been to embrace it; our wares in general becoming ſo exceſſively dear, by one tax-incumbrance after another, that foreigners will not be able to purchaſe them at all; and if we cannot ſell our commodities and manufactures, how can we be able to buy the commodities of other nations? Can any means prove ſo effectual to the ABSOLUTE RUIN of our whole foreign trade, as to be eternally loading it with more and more taxes? And if once our imports decreaſe, in proportion as our exports do, will not the revenues both of CUSTOM AND EXCISES be gradually annihilated? and what then muſt become of the public credit, every wiſe man will tremble to conſider.

The choice of a king of Poland ſeeming to threaten Europe with a freſh continental war, in the opinion of ſome, we are willing to hope that this nation will by no means be drawn into it: for ſuch a war may be kindled by certain potentates, with the ſole view to that end, that thereby we may more and more incumber and oppreſs our commerce, that at length they may gain the dominion therein, and by that means recover more than the full value of what they loſt in the laſt war.

The election of a king of Poland being the firſt occaſion that has offered ſince the laſt peace, whereby certain powers may try the diſpoſition of the court of London towards another continental war; it will be our preſent as well as future intereſt, to convince them, that it is our intention never more to be trapanned into that DESTRUCTIVE SYSTEM, in the manner we have heretofore been—That we have ſufficiently experienced, that the chief ſecurity and proſperity of this notion will depend upon it's maritime ſtrength, which we are determined to cultivate to the utmoſt, and that we are reſolved to raiſe every ſhilling's worth of NAVAL STORES IN OUR OWN PLANTATIONS; and that whatever we ſhall expend for the future upon our maritime force, ſhall be raiſed WITHIN OURSELVES, and every ſhilling thereof ſhall likewiſe be SPENT AMONG OURSELVES: and to this great end, we are further determined to raiſe all FUTURE SUPPLIES to carry on our NAVAL WARS WITHIN THE YEAR; in conſequence of which, we ſhall be able to bid our enemies DEFIANCE.—Theſe are the meaſures that ſhall be ſteadily adopted by an Engliſh-born king; becauſe theſe meaſures, and theſe only, will conſtantly promote and advance the proſperity and happineſs of his people of Great Britain.

As the foregoing obſervations were drawing up, and not printed off, we have advice of the choice of a king of Poland; and it is worth remarking, that the election to that crown gives us the moſt ſtriking inſtance that we can imagine, of the effect the late war has had, in prejudice to the power of the court of Verſailles. If we look back a century paſt, the retroſpection will ſhew the amazing influence of France in the choice of Poliſh kings; and if we take the ſlighteſt review of the public tranſactions of a few months in Poland, ſince the death of Auguſtus, we ſhall find that her intereſt there has actually dwindled into nothing; or that ſhe is determined to avoid future continental wars, and not interfere ſo much as ſhe hath been wont to do in the wars of other ſtates, but ſeems determined now to mind more her own affairs; which it is to be hoped will caution other ſtates to pay a due regard to their own intereſt, and not interpoſe in the concerns of others ſo much as they have done.

It is at preſent currently ſaid, that Pruſſia deſires aſſiſtance from the Court of England, againſt Auſtria and France, in caſe of new troubles, which that monarch is apprehenſive of, from their jealouſy of his influence in Poland; and that a ſtrong memorial has alſo been preſented to the States of Holland, requeſting the ſame, and to have immediate anſwers to both. And on the other hand, it is ſaid, that Auſtria and France, in their memorials to our court, complain heavily againſt Pruſſia and Ruſſia, and inſiſt on knowing what part England intends to take in the new troubles that threaten Europe.

In anſwer to which memorials, we are informed, that they have been given to underſtand, that Great Britain would no ways interfere in the affairs of Poland, as the Poles certainly have a right to chuſe their own kings; and that if they had a mind to go to war, they might fight it out among themſelves: which wiſe anſwer, if perſevered in, will preſerve the peace of Europe; for if we pay either ſide, the Germans will ſoon find an enemy.

POLITICAL ARITHMETIC. By political arithmetic, we mean the art of reaſoning by figures, upon things relating to government.

The art itſelf is undoubtedly very antient, but the application of it to the objects of revenue and trade, is what Sir William Petty firſt began, who as yet has been followed by very few; he firſt gave it that name, and brought it into rules and methods; and his excellent diſcernment would have carried it very far, if he had lived to this time; for his ſkilful hand did all along want right materials to work upon, with which he might have been furniſhed, by the variety of new taxes that have been ſince his time levied in this kingdom.

The foundation of this art is to be laid in ſome competent knowlege of the numbers of the people; ſee the article PEOPLE: and in all his enquiries, he took for guides the cuſtoms, exciſe, and hearth-money, but the accounts of theſe revenues were not fully ſtated, and their produce was not known, at leaſt to him, when his books were written.

He endeavoured to compute the number of the people from the trade and conſumption of the nation, into which the exciſe and cuſtoms were to give him an inſight, and where the hearth-money might afford him yet better lights. He was to gueſs at our ſtrength and wealth, by the general ſtock employed in trade; and he might ſee a little into the quantity of money in the nation, by the turnings it made into the Exchequer, in the payments of cuſtoms and exciſe; the number of houſes in England ſhewed him in the number of families, from whence he was to gather how many inhabitants the kingdom might contain.

But his chief ſchemes were calculated, before the true produce of theſe three branches was fully known; for as to the exciſe, 'till the beginning of Mr Vincent's farm, which was anno 1674, the farmers in their ſeveral contracts, had never been

been obliged to give in a real ſtate of their accounts, and a true produce of their reſpective counties. And as to the hearth-money, it's groſs produce was likewiſe kept private 'till Mr Trant's farm (which began anno 1679) who was obliged by his contract to give it in. And we have yet never been able to meet with any true account of what the cuſtoms produced, 'till from the year 1674.

So that the very grounds upon which he built his calculations being probably wrong, he muſt, in many inſtances, be miſtaken in his ſuperſtructure; and the true produce of theſe branches being concealed from him, and indeed from every body elſe but the parties concerned, in all likelihood, he over-reckoned them in his mind, and was thereby brought to over-rate the inhabitants of England, and to under-rate the numbers, and the ſtrength and wealth of other countries: and this error in a fundamental, has led him into many others, and has miſled ſuch as have followed him in theſe matters.

It is true, Sir William Petty had very much ſtudied the bills of mortality, and the accounts of the births and burials, not only of this kingdom, but of other nations, which did certainly help him to very uſeful lights.

But, through the whole courſe of his writings it may be plainly ſeen, by any obſerving man, that he was to advance a propoſition not quite right in itſelf, but very grateful to thoſe who governed.

The growth of the French king, and chiefly of his naval power, was a very unpleaſant object for the parliament and the people of England to contemplate, and no doubt it did diſquiet the mind of king Charles II. But this prince delighting to be ſoothed in his eaſe and pleaſures, and to have no anxious thoughts, was very glad to ſee one of Sir William Petty's repute for calculations of this nature affirm *, That France exceeded England very little in point of territory; that we came near them as to the number of men, and that our numbers were as effectual in point of ſtrength; that the people of England had, head for head, thrice as much foreign trade as the people of France; that France was under a natural and perpetual impediment of being powerful at ſea; and that the French had not above 15,000 ſeamen to manage their trade, out of which, not above 10,000 could be ſpared for a fleet of war.

* Sir William Petty's Political Arithmetic, page 74, 75, 7, 85, 56, 57.

Every good Engliſhman does undoubtedly wiſh all this had been true; but we have ſince had manifeſt proofs, that this great genius was miſtaken in all theſe aſſertions; for which reaſon we have ground to ſuſpect, he rather made his court than ſpoke his mind.

The king was well pleaſed to be lulled aſleep by a flattering council, which ſuggeſted, that the power of France was not ſo formidable, and could never be prejudicial to this kingdom: for it excuſed his breach of the tripple alliance, and all the other meaſures which have ſince proved ſo pernicious to the intereſt of England. See the article PLANTATIONS.

But if ſuch as meddled with computations at that time, had truly compared the ſtrength of both kingdoms, and if the miniſters themſelves had duly weighed the increaſing wealth, trade, naval force, and growing greatneſs of that nation, it might, perhaps, have awakened both the king and parliament from that lethargy, which has ſince proved ſo fatal and expenſive to us.

The abilities of any miniſter have always conſiſted chiefly in this computing faculty; nor can the affairs of war or peace, be well managed without reaſoning by figures upon things. As for example, ſuppoſe a nation entering into a war, that may have a good event, if they can hold it out longer than the enemy; and a bad one, if they ſhall be obliged to give back firſt: in ſuch a caſe, does not a wiſe ſtateſman, even in the beginning of the buſineſs, compute and compare the power and riches of the adverſe party, with the wealth of his own country; and all in order ſo to huſband it's ſtrength, that it may continue to the very laſt? Does he not ſum up the revenues of the enemy, and, at the ſame time, reckon what may be gathered at home? And does not all this help him to govern wiſely his prince's affairs, and to give his maſter wholeſome and ſafe counſels? Does it not often happen that a nation, which, without any prejudice, may ſpend three millions a year for a long ſpace of time, may be ruined by the expence of twenty millions in three or four years? For that body which can bare frequent but moderate bleedings, muſt die, if too great a quantity of blood be drawn from it at once. Great ſtateſmen, therefore, have always taken care, not only to know the exact poſture of their own country, but likewiſe to underſtand perfectly the power or weakneſs of other people, with whom they have wars or alliances; and the judgment formed from thence, is political arithmetic.

It was by this computing faculty, that Fabius Maximus found out the way to break the ſtrength of Hannibal, and reſtore the affairs of Rome. Fabius conſidered, that the forces of his enemy were not of a repairing nature; that their ſupplies were to come from a factious and a diſtant country; that Hannibal was a wary captain, full of ſtratagems, and not to be ſurprized himſelf: that his voluntary troops, compoſed of different nations, were invincible in battle, and to be waſted and wearied out only by a long war, which might conſume their numbers. On the contrary, that the Romans were at home, and had recruits ready at hand; he therefore quite changed the manner of the war: and thus, by rightly computing and comparing the Roman and Carthagenian ſtrength, he prevailed more by not fighting, than many conſuls and dictators had done with their courage, not ſo wiſely governed and directed.

If it could be clearly ſtated what the real wealth and ſtock of a kingdom is, and if it can be known by what degree it grows rich in time of peace, and by what ſteps it becomes poor at other ſeaſons, ſome opinion might be formed, and judgment made, how long, and upon what foot a war might be carried on with ſafety to the public.

In the ſame manner, if the condition of the enemies affairs can be rightly underſtood, ſome gueſs may be made how long they can probably hold out, ſuppoſing fortune to incline neither way, and to diſtribute her favours (as ſhe uſually does among nations ſtrong and wiſe alike) with equal hands.

And if a country (engaged in a league with other nations) can be truly apprized of the ſtrength and riches of their allies, they may know whether any of their confederates are not juſtly to be called upon, and preſſed for a larger quota, and to aſſiſt with more vigour in the common buſineſs.

For theſe reaſons, able ſtateſmen in all ages, have been at a great expence in embaſſies, or ſpies in foreign courts, to get intellligence of the poſture of affairs in thoſe countries with which they are at war, or with whom they hold alliance.

He that would furniſh himſelf with ſuch ſkill in foreign affairs, as may make himſelf uſeful at home, muſt begin with an enquiry into the condition of his own country; in which, if he can attain to a competent knowlege, he will more eaſily find out the poſture and ſtate of orher places. See the articles BALLANCE of TRADE, BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN], BRITISH AMERICA, CREDIT [PUBLICK CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, BULLION, CASH, COIN, COLONIES, EXCHANGE, EXPORTATION, IMPORTATION, LABOUR, LANDED INTEREST, MANURE, MONEY, NAVAL AFFAIRS, PEOPLE, REVENUE, SHIPPING, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

He muſt know the laws, conſtitution, humour, and manners of his own country, with the number of it's inhabitants, and it's annual expence and income from land, [ſee the article LAND] with it's product from trade, manufactures, and the other buſineſs of the kingdom: and mankind in the maſs being much alike every where, from a true knowlege of his own country, he may be able to form an idea, which ſhall prove right enough concerning any other, not very diſtant people.

As for example, when the number of inhabitants in England is known, by conſidering the extent of the French territory, their way of living, and their ſoil, and by comparing both places, and by other circumſtances, a near gueſs may be made how many people France may probably contain. See the article FRANCE.

In the ſame manner he that knows the income of England from trade, by contemplating the frugality and induſtry of the Dutch, their ſeveral ſorts of commerce, the places to which they deal, and their quantity of ſhipping, ſhall be able to find out what annual profit ariſes to the Hollanders, from their foreign traffic. See HOLLAND and UNITED PROVINCES.

And he who knows what taxes [ſee TAXES] and impoſitions one country can pay, by conſidering the different humours of the people, their ſtock and wealth, their territory, their ſoil and trade, ſhall be able, by compariſon, to form a good conjecture, what revenues can be raiſed in another nation; and conſequently he may make a near gueſs, how long either kingdom can carry on a war.

In the art of decyphering, it is ſaid, where three or four words, perhaps letters, can be found out, the whole cypher may be diſcovered: in a great meaſure, the ſame holds in the computations we are treating of: and very probable conjectures may be formed, where any certain footing can be found, to fix our reaſonings upon.

No commonwealth or monarchy did ever arrive at a very great power, but by methods to be comprehended by the underſtandings of men; and we read of no great empire ruined, but the ſeeds of it's deſtruction may have been obſerved long before, in the courſe of it's hiſtory; there being a certain degree of wiſdom, induſtry, virtue, and courage, requiſite to advance a ſtate; and ſuch a meaſure of folly and ill conduct, neceſſary to pull it down.

In the ſame manner, the ways are evident by which a country grows rich, and the decays in the wealth and ſubſtance of a nation, may be likewiſe foreſeen early, by ſuch as bend their ſtudy to matters of this nature: for where the cauſes are apparent, we may judge eaſily of the effect. A people who keep their expence at home, or who protect their trade, [ſee the article COMMERCE] will not be much waſted by a war. A foreign war muſt needs drain a kingdom of it's treaſure.

ſure. This treaſure being the common ſtock, if it be diminiſhed, muſt certainly diminiſh the trade and buſineſs of that nation; and by how much the trade and buſineſs of a country is leſſened, and by how much it's treaſure is exported, [ſee BALLANCE of TRADE] by ſo much that country is grown poorer: indeed, to compute the exact degrees in all this, is difficult; but in ſo dark a point, conjectures that come ſomewhat near the truth, may be of ſervice to any ſtateſman.

It is true, that ſpeculations in the cloſet, which have not been enlightened and aſſiſted by practice and experience, will be very uncertain guides to him who deſires to know the ſtate and condition of his country: a ſtateſman, therefore, who would compute with any effect, conducive to the public good, muſt conſult variety of men, and men of different talents; and, in any ſcheme he is to form, above all things, he muſt avoid projectors, [ſee the article PROJECTORS] his flatterers or admirers, or thoſe who depend upon him. For the projectors are always too full of their own thoughts and buſineſs, to judge rightly of it. His flatterers will always aſſent; his admirers will be too much biaſſed by his opinions, and, from his dependents, he can never have that contradiction, by which truth muſt be ſifted out.

A great ſtateſman, by conſulting all ſorts of men, and by contemplating the univerſal poſture of the nation, it's power, ſtrength, trade, wealth, and revenues, in any counſel he is to offer, by ſumming up the difficulties on either ſide, and by computing upon the whole, ſhall be able to form a ſound judgment, and to give a right advice, and this is what we mean by political arithmetic. See the article PARLIAMENT [MEMBER of PARLIAMENT.]

He that has ſuch a computing head, will ſeldom enter into ill meaſures; he will not put the wars of his prince upon a wrong foot; he will not engage him in weak alliances; he will not propoſe ill digeſted ſchemes and funds for revenues that ſhall not anſwer. In any new council he will weigh the event beforehand, and conſider how far it may diſturb his maſter's affairs, or affect the nation's credit. Happy are thoſe kingdoms, which abound in ſtateſmen ſo qualified; but miſerable is that country, where the men of buſineſs do not reckon right; and where, in matters very important, and on which the whole welfare of a people depends, they are allowed to ſay, they are miſtaken.

This computing faculty may not only be uſeful to ſtateſmen in the general and higher affairs, but it will likewiſe help them in the more ſubordinate and miniſterial parts of government. It ſhall not only contribute to their well guiding and conducting the nation's whole ſtrength and wealth truſted to their care, but if they know rightly how to reaſon upon things by figures, they ſhall commit very few errors in relation to their prince's revenues, or to the trade of the kingdom.

There are few places which afford better helps for computation, than England does at preſent. The exciſe, the cuſtoms, and land-tax, are criteria, by which we may judge, not only of what the people conſume, but, in ſome ſort, they let us into a knowlege how their numbers increaſe or diminiſh. Thoſe duties are the very pulſe of a nation, from which it's health or decays may be obſerved. And theſe revenues muſt be the better guide to computers, becauſe the accounts of them are fairly kept and ſtated, and becauſe the reſpective branches have been under ſo exact a management, that their produce is known and underſtood.

The wealth of all nations ariſes from the labour and induſtry of the people: a right knowledge therefore of their numbers, is neceſſary to thoſe who will judge of a country's power and ſtrength. See the article PEOPLE.

And upon this account undoubtedly, the Romans did ſo often make the cenſus, that a judgment might from thence be formed, how able the commonwealth was to defend itſelf, or to invade others.

And the ſin David committed in numbering Iſrael, might be probably this, that it looked like a ſecond proof of rejecting theocracy, to be governed by mortal aids and human wiſdom. For without doubt, it muſt very much help any rules to underſtand fully that ſtrength which he is to guide and direct; ſince he may thereby know how many are fit for war, what hands ſupport the commonwealth by their labour and induſtry, and what ſort of men are idle and uſeleſs in it.

And this is ſo far from being a matter of mere ſpeculation, as ſome think, that very many concluſions may be drawn from thence, uſeful and reducible to practice.

For if the numbers of the people can be truly ſtated, if they can be divided into proper ranks and claſſes, if it can be diſtinguiſhed who are rich, who are eaſy, who can barely ſubſiſt, and who, by reaſon of poverty, can contribute little in any tax or aid to the public: if all this can be thoroughly underſtood, in the laying any kind of tax or impoſition, a very near computation may be made, what ſuch a duty ſhould produce to the government, ſuppoſing it to be duly collected, and under a good management.

When the different ranks and qualifications of men are divided and ſtated, when there is a right diſtinction made, between the number of ſolvent and inſolvent perſons, when it is known how many pay not to church and poor, how many receive alms, and how many are mere vagrants, a very good judgment may be made what any perſonal or family-tax ought to yield, ſtill ſuppoſing it to be well and carefully levied.

The number of the people leads us to know, what the yearly income may be from land, and what from mines, houſes, and homeſteads, rivers, lakes, meers, ponds; and what from trade, labour, induſtry, arts, and ſciences: for, where a nation contains ſo many acres of arable land, ſo many of paſture and meadow, ſuch a quantity of woods and coppices, foreſts, parks, and commons, heaths, moors, mountains, roads, ways, and barren and waſte land; and where the different value of all this is computed, by proper mediums, it is rational to conclude, that ſuch a part of the people's expence is maintained from land, &c. and ſuch a part from mines, houſes, &c. and that ſuch a part is maintained from trade, labour, &c. And the poor, exceeding ſo much the rich in numbers, the common people are the proper medium by which we may judge of this expence.

There is a certain ſum requiſite to every one for food, raiment, and other neceſſaries; as for example, between 7 and 8 l. per annum; but ſome expending leſs, and ſome more, it may not be improper to compute, that the maſs of mankind in England, expend one with another, near 8 l. per. annum: from whence it may be concluded, that an annual income of ſo many millions is needful for the nouriſhment of ſuch and ſuch a number of people.

And if land with it's product will not reach this ſum, it is rational to infer, that the reſt muſt ariſe from trade, arts, and manufactures.

And further, when a nation contains ſuch a number of people, ſkilled in huſbandry and the improvement of land, when they have ſuch an extent of territory, and when their acres are, one with another, of ſuch a value, it may be from thence concluded, that the land of this country will produce ſuch and ſuch a ſum.

So much of the product of the earth will nouriſh ſuch a number of the people; and a ſoil ſo and ſo improved, will yield ſuch a product; and if this be above what the people conſume, it follows, that there muſt be ſuch and ſuch a quantity of goods for exportation.

Such a number of men ſkilled in maritime affairs, verſed in traffic, with variety of ports, dealing to many countries, with ſuch and ſuch a native product to export, and ſuch an acquired ſtock to turn and wind, muſt gain ſo and ſo by trade.

And if land and trade do not reach the expence in queſtion, it follows, that the reſt muſt ariſe from arts, manufactures, and the other buſineſs of a people.

But if land and it's product, with what is done at home, is ſufficient to nouriſh ſuch a number of inhabitants, and that they are beſides able to export many commodities and manufactures, and that their ſtock is ſuch, as to deal in many goods with foreign people; we may infer, that there is ſuperlucration of wealth accruing to ſuch a country by their traffic.

Therefore a right diſtinction to be made between what part of the people's expence ariſes from land, &c. and what from trade; and what from arts, labour, &c. muſt be a good guide to princes and ſtates, in laying any kind of taxes or impoſitions.

Expence muſt ariſe from income, and ſuppoſe the general income of a nation, from land trade, arts, &c. ſhould be - -		44,000,000
Suppoſe of this, land to be -	14,000,000	
Trade - - - -	10,000,000	44,000,000
And arts, labour, &c. -	20,000,000	

And where this is the caſe, can it be reaſonable in taxing the people to lay almoſt the whole weight upon the twenty-four millions, and to let the other twenty millions in a manner eſcape. And yet this muſt happen, in countries the whole burthen is generally put upon land and trade.

So that ſuch a political arithmetic, as could diſtinguiſh in all the different parts which compoſe a nation's wealth, muſt be very uſeful and of public ſervice.

The eighth penny, raiſed upon the annual income or expence of England, would have maintained the war of king William a great while, on the foot of five millions a year, if the burthen had been put upon all degrees of men alike, with geometrical proportion; for, in all probability, an EQUAL land-tax, and moderate duties upon the whole conſumption, would have produced ſuch a ſum: and if this could have been compaſſed, the landed men had undoubtedly been in a better condition than they are at preſent, and we had avoided the vaſt debt, which was a weight upon the king's affairs.

This computing faculty conſiſts in comparing the ſtrength of nations, and in conſidering their number, power, policies, wealth, trade, ſhipping, naval force, land armies, and alliances.

But there is in this art a ſphere for lower capacities to move in, who can preſume no further than to find out and prepare materials, to be made uſe of by abler hands, and who think it praiſe enough to them, if they can make tools for ſkilful artiſts to work withal.

If general computations had been more ſtudied and improved, thoſe errors relating to the revenues, muſt probably have been avoided, which have ſo entangled the public affairs.

If ſome of the men of buſineſs had conſulted political arithmetic, the parliament had not been troubled ever ſeſſion, to make goad ſo many deficient funds, which have loaded England with a heavy debt.

Moſt undoubtedly a right ſkill in this art, would be of great uſe in all conſiderations relating to the public revenue: for though the number of people could not be certainly fixed, and though the conſumption of any commodity could not be truly known; yet he who goes by ſome rule (though not capable of a mathematical proof) ſhall ſeldomer err, than he who gropes entirely in the dark, and only follows the ſuggeſtions of his fancy.

The projectors of moſt new funds, have hitherto been generally miſtaken two parts in three: that art is therefore to be praiſed, the rules of which, if rightly followed, will ſhow à priori, within a ſmall difference, what any branch of the revenue ſhall produce, making allowance for the difference between war and peace, or any other extraordinary occurrences.

In all computations, the number of people is the groundwork; however, that knowlege will be but an uncertain guide, without other helps and directions. For in reckoning what any branch may yield, conſideration muſt be had of the preſent abilities and condition of the kingdom; of the current caſh, and even of the diſpoſition of the people to pay the duty. The nature of the commodity likewiſe to be charged muſt be conſidered, whether it be the proper object of a duty, and not eaſily concealed and evaded, and whether its collection is to be aſcertained by high or eaſy penalties; and whether it is to be come at by a few or by many officers; and the law itſelf, which is to give the duty, muſt principally be weighed; for if it is to be ſlackly penned, the branch will anſwer accordingly: by an univerſal contemplation of theſe matters, and by making every where proportionable allowance, in all the foregoing, and ſome other inſtances, a judgment may be formed, what ſum the government may reaſonably expect from any new revenue.

And, in computing any new duty, the number of the people will be an uncertain guide to thoſe who do not diſtinguiſh rightly, between the rich and the poor of a country: for in moſt computations, men are led into error, by reckoning and concluding, from what is in view, and juſt before them. But they who will make a true eſtimate in things of this nature, muſt conſider the maſs of the people together, and not meaſure the riches of the whole, by that plenty and pomp, which they ſee among a few.

He who will pretend to compute, muſt draw his concluſions from many premiſes; he muſt not argue from ſingle inſtances, but from a thorough view of many particulars; and that body of political arithmetic, which is to frame ſchemes reduceable to practice, muſt be compoſed of a great variety of members.

He who will arrive at this art, muſt look into all the public revenues; he muſt underſtand ſomething of their management; he muſt not be a ſtranger to the product and manufactures of every country and place; he muſt know what goods we export, and what foreign commodities are imported to us; and only from this general view, he muſt frame any ſcheme that may be uſeful to the public. A contemplation of one object, ſhall give him light into things, perhaps, quite of a different nature: for as in common arithmetic, one operation proves another, ſo in this art, variety of ſpeculations are helpful and confirming to each other.

Nor is the faculty of computing leſs uſeful in matters relating to trade, than in what concerns the public revenues.

The councils of a country are always inquiſitive after truth, but to hide it from them, and to perplex things which have relation to trade, is the intereſt of ſo many, that in the greateſt deliberations, wiſe men are often miſled by ſuch as in all their actings, conſult more their private profit than the common welfare.

There is hardly a ſociety of merchants, that would not have it thought the whole proſperity of the kingdom depends upon their ſingle traffic.

So that at any time, when they come to be conſulted, their anſwers are dark and partial; and when they deliberate themſelves in aſſemblies, it is too frequently with a bias, and a ſecret eye to their own emolument.

There is hardly a commerce, but the dealers in it will affirm, we loſe by all the reſt: when, perhaps, in time of eſtabliſhed peace, the kingdom gets by trade in general.

A true account of the ballance of trade would ſet all this right, and ſhew what traffics are hurtful, and what are beneficial to the nation; and the general ballance is not to be accurately found out, but by the aid of political arithmetic, and a ſkill in the foreign exchange. See BALLANCE of TRADE, and EXCHANGE.

And, perhaps, this art alone can ſhew the links and chains by which one buſineſs hangs upon another, and the dependance which all our various commercial dealings have each upon the other.

In firſt appearance, thoſe traffics ſeem hurtful which export money; but when we come to reaſon upon things by figures, we find that ſuch trades are often beneficial, when they bring in one way more bullion than they carry out another. See the article BULLION, Vol. I. page 397.

We may ſeem to loſe by the ballance in one place, but perhaps, that trade may be the cauſe of another, twice as profitable: ſo that to object againſt the motion of one wheel, without knowing and ſeeing how the whole engine moves, is to no manner of purpoſe.

He that would, therefore, compute with any good effect in matters relating to trade, muſt contemplate the wealth, ſtock, product, conſumption, ſhipping, exportations and importations of his country; and, at the ſame time, he muſt conſider the ſtate and condition of other places.

In this art, the moſt deficient point is, to find good materials, and to have a footing probably ſure to fix our reaſonings upon; for where our premiſes can be certain, our concluſions ſhall be almoſt undeniable.

It is a great guide, in concerns of this nature, to have before us an account of all the exportations from London and the out-ports, to every diſtinct country; and alſo of all the importations to London and the out-ports, from every diſtinct country, and of their values at prime coſt, and ſo downwards. Every commodity ſhould be under a ſeparate head, and the drawbacks upon re-exportation taken due notice of, and the value taken into conſideration, where the duty on goods is ad valorem. Theſe materials are very helpful in our computations of this kind.

But it would be a further light into the general ballance of trade, if we could form a good judgment of that beneficial trade of buying goods in one place, to ſell in another country, and what we gain by the articles of freight. If the true ſtate of theſe matters could be obtained, it would greatly contribute to our information in regard to the general loſs or profit made by commerce.

The general poſture of our traffic, as well in time of war as peace, is likewiſe requiſite to be taken into conſideration; for by contemplating the various charges in our exports and imports in thoſe different junctures, a judgment may be formed, from political arithmetic, how the ballance of trade formerly ſtood, and how it is like to ſtand hereafter, with the ſeveral countries wherewith England has commercial negociations.

Theſe are the out-lines of the art of political arithmetic; and how far this work may contribute to give the reader ſome knowlege of the art itſelf, can be known only by thoſe who ſhall peruſe our work throughout; wherein they will, perhaps, find more matter, if rightly applied, tending to information of this kind, than thoſe who have not dipped into it may be aware of.

POMERANIA. The ancient Pomerania was of a much larger extent than the modern, for it included Pomerelia, and Caſſubia, called Black Pomerland. The modern duchy of Pomerania, taken all together, is a long narrow track, above 200 miles from eaſt to weſt, and from 50 to 80 from north to ſouth, the breadth being very unequal.

It has Poliſh Pomerania on the eaſt: the Baltic Sea on the north; the marquiſate of Brandenburgh on the ſouth; and the duchy of Mecklenburgh on the weſt. It's air, by reaſon of it's being the extreme north-eaſt corner of Germany, is reckoned the coldeſt of any part of it. The ſoil in many parts is ſandy and barren, and their arable lands near the ſhore are frequently overwhelmed with ſand; yet in other parts they have corn enough, both for conſumption and export, beſides good paſtures filled with cattle, and many large woods and foreſts, which abound with deer, wild boars, hares, foxes, wolves, wild horſes, wild bulls, &c. and fowls of all ſorts. Here are alſo beavers, and ſuch plenty of water-fowls, that they reckon 20 ſorts of ducks. They have great plenty of ſalt and freſh-water fiſh, particularly ſalmon, and very large lampreys, eſpecially in the bay of Stetin and lake of Laſſen. About Gripſwald and Rugen they have good herring-fiſhing; and in the lake Madduje, near Colbatz, there is a large broad fiſh, called muſcum, found no where elſe in Germany. There are many fair and fertile meadows between the branches of the Oder, and has great quantities of fruits of all kinds, as in any province of Germany. They have no wine of their own growth, but excellent mum, and beer of ſeveral ſorts, particularly the bitter beer of Stetin, the mum of Gripſwald, and the ſtout of Wollin, which mariners tranſport elſewhere: and as there are ſcarce any mountains in the country, it has no mines, but ſome few of iron in the Upper Pomerania. It abounds with amber, eſpecially on the coaſts of Brandenburgh Pomerania, where it is not only thrown up by the ſea, and found among the ſea-weeds and ſands, but alſo dug out of the rocks and mines. It is frequently dug out

of

of the ground, at a great diſtance from the ſea, and many times found by the huſbandmen, as they plow their lands. There is a particular lake in this country, that communicates with the ſea, where they gather it in nets, when the ſea begins to flow, and ſometimes haul up pieces as big as one's fiſt. At firſt taking up it is ſoft, but ſoon hardens, by the air, into a ſtony ſubſtance: it is of ſeveral colours, white, yellow, black, and red: the ſort found in Pomerania is a dark yellow.

It is well watered by rivers and lakes: among the former are, the Oder, the Pene, the Rega, the Perſant, the Wiper, the Stolp, the Rekenitz, and the Barte. The Rekenitz ſeparates Pomerania from Mecklenburg, forming a large lake near Damgarten, and falling into the Baltic at Dars. The Barte riſes near Stalſund, and falls into the ſea at Bardt. The Oder, ſoon after it's entrance into Pomerania, divides into ſeveral branches, add after having paſſed by Garts, Griffenhagen, Schwedt, and Stetin, flows into the Damiſh lake, and then into Damantzkt, and at laſt dilates itſelf into a freſh-water lake, or ſea, called the Great Friſch-Haff, which is an excellent road for ſhipping, 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth, abounds with fiſh, and falls into the Baltic by three currents, through which ſhips paſs to Stetin. Beſides the abovementioned, there are many more rivers in Pomerania, which fall into the Baltic.

The moſt common diviſion of this country is, into the weſtern, viz. the Upper, or Swediſh Pomerania; and the eaſtern, viz. the Lower, or Brandenburg Pomerania; which latter is alſo called Ducal Pomerania, or the duchy of Pomerania, becauſe it was given to the ducal houſe of Brandenburg by the treaty of Munſter.

The chief towns of the eaſtern, or Brandenburgh, i. e. Ducal Pomerania, are,

1. STOLPE, 22 miles north-eaſt from Rugenwald, 52 eaſt of Colberg, and 64 weſt of Dantzick.
2. RUGENWALD is the capital of Wenden duchy, on the river Wiper, 18 miles north-eaſt from Coſlin, and 20 from Carmin.
3. COSLIN, 18 miles north-eaſt of Colberg, is a very pleaſant town with a good air. It being but a league from the Baltic, the inhabitants can eaſily export their coin, and import what commodities they want from abroad. The Friſch-Haff lake is a treaſure to them, for they often, in the winter, bring up an hundred tons of fiſh there, at one draught of the net, if we may credit ſome. The adjacent country is fruitful, and interſperſed with little hills, on which ſtood formerly Popiſh chapels, much frequented by pilgrims. Here are three annual commercial friars, viz. the Saturday after Lady-Day, the Thurſday after the fourth Sunday in Lent, and All-Saints Day.
4. CORLIN, 13 miles eaſt of Colberg, and 12 weſt of Coſlin, has two annual fairs, viz. on the Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and on Aſcenſion-Day.
5. BELGART is a little town, with a good trade, five miles ſouth-eaſt of Corlin, 16 from the Baltic, 18 from Colberg, and 56 north-eaſt of Stetin.
6. COLBERG is the capital of that called the duchy of Caſſubia, and ſtands at the mouth of the Perſant, near the Baltic ſhore, 30 miles north-eaſt from Carmin, and 55 from Stetin. Salt is made here, of which large quantities are ſent abroad, to the great enriching both of the town and of the elector of Brandenburg, to whom the town came by the treaty of Munſter. It's harbour, which is a good one, though ſomewhat too narrow, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.
7. CAMIN is a ſmall city, which ſome, however, reckon the capital of Ducal Pomerania, but five miles from the Baltic Sea, 32 north of Stetin, and 33 eaſt of Wolgaſt: it ſtands on the mouth of the Oder that is called Druvenow. It has three trading fairs a year, viz. the ſecond Sunday in Lent, on Trinity-Sunday, and Holy-Croſs-Day.

UPPER, or SWEDISH, called alſo the ROYAL POMERANIA, extends from the Oder to the frontiers of Mecklenburg, and from the marquiſate of Brandenburg to the Baltic.

1. GRIFFENHAGEN ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Oder, above Stetin, almoſt oppoſite to Gartz. It has three fairs in a year, viz. on Thurſday after the firſt Sunday in Lent, on Trinity-Sunday, and on the 28th of October.
2. DAM is a ſmall but ſtrong town, on the eaſt ſide of the Oder, overagainſt Stetin. There are three annual fairs at this place, viz. on the Friday before the firſt Sunday in Lent, the eve of Palm-Sunday, and Michaelmas-Day.
3. STETIN, the metropolis of this Pomerania, ſtands on the riſing of a ſmall hill, with a fine caſtle on the weſt ſide of the Oder, which runs from thence through the lake called Groſs-Haff, into the Baltic, by the iſle of Uſedom. It is 18 miles from the frontiers of Brandenburg, 73 north of Frankfort 74 north-eaſt of Berlin, 153 weſt of Dantzick, 170 eaſt of Lubec, and 320 north of Vienna. It's trade was the moſt conſiderable of any in theſe parts, 'till the ſettlement of the Dutch republic. It was formerly one of the Hanſe-Towns, and the rendevous of the fleets which thoſe towns uſed to fit out to protect their trade, and ſecure their privileges. It is 40 miles to the ſea, yet ſhips of good burthen come up to the very walls of the city, where they have a fine key, though the river itſelf, which is navigable a great way above the town by leſſer veſſels, is a ſufficient harbour.

One branch of it's trade is, the exporting of ſalt and freſh fiſh, eſpecially thoſe taken in the Groſs-Haff, the lake abovementioned, which is about 15 miles below the town; and from thence they alſo ſhip off great quantities of naval ſtores, eſpecially oaken plank, maſts, with other wood, both for building and fuel; canvas, linen, yarn, honey, wax, roſin, &c. Many ſhips come yearly from hence to London: and as the Oder brings down a vaſt quantity of corn, which comes into it from Poland and Sileſia by the river Warta, about 50 miles above the city, here is a very great exportation of it, eſpecially for Sweden, which is ſometimes much diſtreſſed for want of it. In fine, it is ſo proper a center for exchanging the commodities of Poland and Germany, with thoſe brought from the Baltic by the conveniency of the river Oder, that it cannot fail of having a great ſhare of trade, and it, is now ſaid to be ſo populous, that many of the inhabitants are obliged to live in cellars and vaults. They have large granaries, ſtore-houſes, an arſenal, and a dock for building ſhips.

4. TRIPTOW, a pretty town, defended by a ſtrong caſtle on the Tollen Sea, or lake, not far from the confines of Mecklenburg, 26 miles ſouth of Gripſwald: it has three fairs a year.

There is a town of this name in the Lower Pomerania, near Coſlin, which is called Triptow on the river Rega, or New Triptow. The townſmen have an opportunity, by their river, of trafficking to ſea: it has a fair on St Peter and Paul's-Day.

5. PASSEWALCK, anciently PAZDEWALCK, ſtands between Prenzlow and Turgelow, on the weſt ſide of the river Ucker, by which the inhabitants ſend their goods through the Haff to the Baltic.
6. GARTZ is another town on the ſame confines, and is one of the paſſes of the Oder.
7. UKERMUNDE ſtands where the Uker river falls into the Groſs-Haff.
8. ANKLAM, on the river Pene, 17 miles ſouth-weſt from Gripſwald, and 31 north-weſt of Stetin. It made a good figure once among the Hanſe-Towns. It is advantageouſly ſituated among good arable lands and excellent paſture, with the conveniency of fiſhing, and of exporting their commodities abroad by the river Pene.
9. GUTSKOW is a town on the river Pene, 8 miles ſouth of Gripfwald, and 10 weſt of Wolgen, between Anklam and Loytz, and capital of a county of the ſame name, which formerly included Gripſwald, Loytz, and the abbey of Eldenow.
10. LOYTZ ſtands on the Pene river, between Grotſkow and Demain. It has four fairs a year, viz. the Monday before Lent, the Monday before Whitſuntide, a fortnight after Midſummer, and a fortnight after Michaelmas.
11. WOLGAST ſtands very pleaſantly, near the mouth of the Oder called Pfin, nine miles ſouth-eaſt from Gripſwald, 27 from Stralſund, and 40 north-weſt from Stetin. It is a very handſome, well-built, populous, and ſtrong town. The harbour, though 12 miles from the ſea, is the beſt in all this duchy, Stralſund excepted.
12. The ISLE of USEDOM lies weſt from that of Wollin, and is formed by the Pene, where it falls into the Baltic along with the Oder, ſo that one of the mouths of the Oder, which runs between this and Wollin, is called the ſwine, and the other, beyond Uſedom, the Pfin. Upon the deſtruction of Wollin, the town of Uſedom was reſorted to by the Daniſh and Poliſh merchants, and became a place of very good trade, being very large, and well fortified; but ſince 1473, when it was burnt down by an accidental fire, it has been only an inconſiderable ſea-port. This iſland is about ſix miles in length, abounds with wild boar, deer, and hares, and was the park where the dukes of Pomerania kept their game.
13. WOLLIN is the eaſtermoſt of the two iſlands formed by the tree mouths of the Oder: it is 25 miles long, 15 where broadeſt, and is divided by the Swine from Uſedom. The town, which ſtands at that mouth of it called Drenow, is five or ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Rugen, 25 miles north of Stetin, and 25 ſouth-weſt of Volgaſt. It was built out of the ruins of Julinum, once a very famous town, and was one of the largeſt cities in Europe, and it's greateſt mart, next to Conſtantinople, being inhabited by Danes, Swedes, Ruſſians, Jews, and merchants of all nations, who had their ſeparate ſtreets and houſes of exchange; and ſaid to have been ſo powerful, as ſingly to maintain a war againſt Denmark; but having been partly deſtroyed by lightning, and partly by the arms of Woldemar king of Denmark, it was, in 1170, totally demoliſhed, and has been but an inconſiderable town ever ſince: it's commerce has been transferred to Lubec and Dantzic. This is the common fate of all places that loſe their trade.
14. GRIPSWALD, 9 miles north-weſt of Wolgaſt, 29 ſouth-eaſt of Stralſund, and 46 north-weſt of Stetin, which was one of the Hanſe-Towns, and formerly imperial, ſtands within half a league of the Baltic, at the bottom of a ſmall gulph, which they call the ſea of Stralſund, over-againſt the iſle of Rugen:

Rugen: and there being another bay in the iſland juſt oppoſite, both together make the paſſage above 20 miles over. The place is not ſo big as Stralſund or Stetin, yet it is a conſiderable town, being well built, well fortified, and has a good trade by ſea. The beſt ſalt was made here of any place upon the Baltic, but the works have been diſcontinued for want of fuel, which in this country is ſcarce. They have abundance of cattle here, and deal much in hides and tallow. Here is a good harbour, and a great many ſhips belonging to it, which are brought to the quay by means of a canal, that is cut from the gulph to a great lake on the other ſide of the place.

15. RUGEN is ſtrong both by art and nature, and much celebrated in ancient hiſtory for the courage of the Rugii, it's old inhabitants. It is about 30 miles in length, and as much in breadth (though ſome ſay the latter is not more than 20): it is ſo fruitful in corn, that it is called the granary of Stralſund; and in graſs, that it is well ſtocked with horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and the largeſt geeſe in Europe. The ſeas and lakes here abound with fiſh; and the Rugeners are not only good fiſhermen, but reckoned the beſt pilots in the Baltic, which makes them very uſeful to the merchants of Stralſund. The foreſt of Jaſund furniſhes them with fuel and timber, and the ſea, bays, and lakes, with plenty of fiſh for conſumption and export.

16. STRALSUND, the largeſt and richeſt town in Pomerania, the ſixth in rank of the Hanſe-Towns, and a free imperial city, by ſome reckoned the moſt conſiderable in the circle of Upper Saxony, ſtands near the banks of the ſea, over-againſt the iſland of Rugen, 19 miles north of Gripſwald, 32 miles north-eaſt of Roſtock, and 66 north-weſt of Stetin. It has an excellent haven, where ſhips come up to the very town, and is ſo well ſituated for trade, that it has a very great and lucrative commerce, both by ſea and land; for it is to be obſerved, that here begins the export of thoſe ſtaple commodities which all Europe ſends for to the Baltic, as corn and naval ſtores, viz. hemp, flax, &c. but eſpecially corn, of which great quantities are exported, this being the firſt city in the Baltic, to which the Dutch trade for it. Here are alſo great quantities of honey, and wax, tar, pitch, roſin, hides, and tallow, as alſo of linen, eſpecially canvas, of which a good ſort is made here.

POOR. There is certainly no ſtate in which may be found more laws than in ours concerning the poor: laws wiſer in appearance, or more humane, more equitable: or ſo many books and excellent repreſentations on this ſubject: ſo many hoſpitals: or, in ſhort, ſo great a fund of generoſity and charity, as in England: at the ſame time too, there is not, perhaps, a country in which there are ſo many poor.

Yet thoſe laws muſt be intrinſically defective, which being ſo important as they are to every member of ſociety, have not the force to make themſelves be executed, or which one may eaſily elude.

The poors-rate for England only, which is from two ſhillings as far as to ſix and eight ſhillings in the pound, in ſome parts, exceeds three millions and a half ſterling. If we add to it the private charities, and foundations of hoſpitals, a ſum ſufficient to maintain the tenth of the inhabitants.

The charges of the roads, and of the public works, are alſo immenſe, and continual reſources for ſuch as want employment.

The charity-ſchools maintain and bring up the twentieth part of the children that are born: nevertheleſs, in the towns, the ſtreets ſwarm with poor, ſome of whom ſoon after, perhaps, beg on the high-way with a preſented piſtol in hand.

The abuſe of the particular adminiſtrations of the poor's revenue, and the inſufficiency of the laws, are too glaringly evident, and the conſequences of this evil are too dreadful for the adminiſtration not to become a national concern.

There is no more effectual method of redreſs for it, than to appoint a committee of members of Parliament, before whom ſhould be annually laid a ſtate of the ſums levied, or applied to the maintainance of the poor, and a liſt of the poor maintained in every county.

By theſe circumſtantial ſtates and liſts, by compariſons and indiſputable facts, it would be made manifeſt,

1ſt, That ſome of the principal cauſes of there being ſo many poor are, privileges, excluſive rights of freemen, and corporations; the indiſcreet, as well as unfaithful, diſtribution of the pariſh-alms; the money ſcattered through towns and country, by the candidates, in the time of elections; the multiplicity of alehouſes, taverns, and other infamous ſnares of idleneſs, and debauchery.

2dly, That robbers owe their origin not to want, but indiſcreet charity. The claſs of men which has no right to the pariſh-alms, is far leſs abundant in robbers than that which has: that right is an encouragement to, and the certain refuge of, idleneſs, the parent of debauchery and crimes.

In ſhort, it would appear convincingly plain, that the only prompt remedy that can be brought for this urgent evil would be,

1ſt, To form a common national aggregate of all the ſums levied throughout all the pariſhes, under the name of the poor's tax, to which ſhould be joined the funds of all the ancient charitable foundations: with reſervation, however, of liberty to all future donors to appropriate particularly their charities to whatever counties or pariſhes they ſhould think fit.

2dly, To take into workhouſes, or alms-houſes, all beggars, even every perſon applying to the pariſh for charity, equally in caſe either of ſickneſs or of health, without any diſtinction even of the private poor, that is to ſay, of ſuch as are aſhamed of begging: becauſe there ought to be no poor of that nature in a nation where it is no ſhame for any one to work.

3dly, To aſſign to every perſon ſo received into theſe workhouſes, that ſort of work of which he ſhould be capable, inſomuch that the ſick, and ſuch as ſhould be deprived of the uſe of all their ſenſes, ſhould alone be diſpenſed with from it.

4thly, To divide theſe workhouſes into two wards, the one for the poor who ſhould work voluntarily, the other for them to be carried to, in caſes of neceſſary correction, and forced to work, ſhould they refuſe to ſubmit to it.

5thly, It would alſo be very neceſſary to collect together, in one common houſe, all the children diſperſed in the different ſchools and eſtabliſhments of each pariſh. The care of their firſt years of life, and of breeding them up to work, would be better adminiſtered in one common houſe than by pariſh-nurſes, who inhumanly ſacrifice, even in the cradle, ſo many innocent victims to their barbarous avarice. This is a truth inconteſtibly proved, by a compariſon of the number of dead beneath the age of ſeven years, amongſt the children nurſed by the pariſh-nurſes, and amongſt thoſe brought up in the Foundling-Hoſpital.

6thly, Every workhouſe or alms-houſe throughout England ſhould render an account of it's adminiſtration, atteſted by the magiſtrates or officers of each town or pariſh, to the committee of the nation. Theſe accounts would ſerve for checks upon one another. The members for every county ſhould be called to the inſpection of the account of the general adminiſtration, and, upon the report of this general committee, the poor's tax ſhould be ſettled, and paſſed by the nation.

From ſuch a form of adminiſtration as this, would reſult the following advantages:

The real miſery of the ſick and diſabled would receive the relief which is due to it.

The malverſation of particular adminiſtrations would be remedied.

The number of the poor would ſenſibly diminiſh: many now receive private alms, who would then reſolve to work, rather than receive public ones.

Society would be delivered from beggars, of whom the example and enormities are ſo much to be dreaded.

The produce of the work of ſuch as ſhould be free to leave the houſe when they pleaſed, and the work of the poor under confinement, would be a clear and new profit to the public.

The poor's tax would diminiſh conſiderably.

All the recenſions of the above-deduced three claſſes of men, and of their ſubdiviſions, ſhould be draughted and framed in each pariſh, by it's reſpective churchwardens, aldermen, overſeers of the poor, or the like proper officers. A ſhort enough time, and a great deal of order and method, would ſuffice to carry them to the requiſite perfection for making all the uſe to be promiſed from them, without much expence.

Dr D'Avenant's SCHEME for ſetting the POOR to WORK.

Firſt, That ſuch perſons as ſhall ſubſcribe and pay the ſum of 300,000l. as a ſtock for and towards the better maintaining the impotent poor, and for buying commodities and materials to employ and ſet at work the other poor, be incorporated and made one body politic, &c. by the name of the governor and company for maintaining and employing the poor of this kingdom.

By all former propoſitions, it was intended that the pariſhes ſhould advance ſeveral years rates to raiſe a ſtock; but, by this propoſal, the experiment is to be made by private perſons, at their riſk; and 300,000l. may be judged a very good ſtock, which added to the poor's rate for a certain number of years, will be a very good fund for buying commodities and materials for a million of money at any time. This ſubſcription ought to be free for every body; and if the ſum were ſubſcribed in the ſeveral counties of England and Wales, in proportion to their poor-rates, or the monthly aſſeſſment, it would be moſt convenient; and proviſion may be made, that no perſon ſhall transfer his intereſt but to one of the ſame county, which will keep the intereſt there during the term; and as to it's being one corporation, it is preſumed this will be moſt beneficial to the public. For firſt, all diſputes on removes, which are very chargeable and burthenſome, will

be at an end, this propoſal intending, that wherever the poor are, they ſhall be maintained or employed. Secondly, it will prevent one county which will be diligent, impoſing on their neighbours who may be negligent, or getting away their manufactures from them. Thirdly, in caſe of fire, plague, or loſs of manufacture, the ſtock of one county may not be ſufficient to ſupport the places where ſuch calamities may happen; and it is neceſſary the whole body ſhould ſupport every particular member; ſo that hereby there will be a general care to adminiſter to every place according to their neceſſities.

Secondly, That the ſaid corporation be eſtabliſhed for the term of 21 years.

The corporation ought to be eſtabliſhed for 21 years, or otherwiſe it cannot have the benefit the law gives in caſe of infants, which is their ſervice for their education; beſides, it will be ſome years before a matter of this nature can be brought into practice.

Thirdly, That the ſaid ſum of 300,000l. to be paid in, and laid out for the purpoſes aforeſaid, to remain as a ſtock, for and during the ſaid term of 21 years.

The ſubſcription ought to be taken at the paſſing of the act, but the corporation to be left at liberty to begin either the Michaelmas or the Lady-Day after, as they ſhall think fit; and per cent. to be paid at the ſubſcribing, to perſons appointed for that purpoſe, and the remainder before they begin to act, but ſo as 300,000l. ſhall be always in ſtock during the term, notwithſtanding any dividends, or other diſpoſition: and an account thereof to be exhibited twice in every year, upon oath, before the lord chancellor for the time being.

Fourthly, That the ſaid corporation do, by themſelves or agents, in every pariſh of England, from and after the day of during the ſaid term of 21 years, provide for the real impotent poor, good and ſufficient maintenance and reception, as good, or better, than hath at any time within the ſpace of years before the ſaid day of been provided or allowed to ſuch impotent poor; and ſo ſhall continue to provide for ſuch impotent poor, and what other growing impotents ſhall happen in the ſaid pariſh during the ſaid term.

By impotent poor is to be underſtood all infants and old decrepit perſons not able to work; alſo perſons who by ſickneſs, or any accident, are for the time unable to labour for themſelves or families; and all perſons (not being fit for labour) who were uſually relieved by the money raiſed for the uſe of the poor: they ſhall have maintenance, &c. as good, or better, as within years they uſed to have.

This does not directly determine what that ſhall be, nor is it poſſible, by reaſon a ſhilling in one county is as good as two in another; but it will be the intereſt of the corporation that ſuch poor be well provided for, by reaſon the contrary will occaſion all the complaints or clamour that probably can be made againſt the corporation.

Fifthly, That the corporation do provide (as well for all ſuch poor which on the ſaid day of ſhall be on the poor-books, as for what other growing poor ſhall happen in the ſaid term, who are or ſhall be able to labour or do any work) ſufficient labour and work proper for ſuch perſons to be employed in; and that proviſion ſhall be made for ſuch labouring perſons according to their labours, ſo as ſuch proviſion doth not exceed $\frac{3}{4}$ parts as much as any other perſon would have paid for ſuch labour. And, in caſe they are not employed and ſet to work, then ſuch perſons ſhall, until materials or labour be provided for them, be maintained as impotent poor; but ſo as ſuch perſons who ſhall hereafter enter themſelves on the poor's books, being able to labour, ſhall not quit the ſervice of the corporation, without leave, for the ſpace of ſix months.

The corporation are to provide materials and labour for all that can work, and to make proviſion for them not exceeding $\frac{3}{4}$ parts as much as any other perſon would give for ſuch labour. For example: if another perſon would give one of theſe a ſhilling, the corporation ought to give but nine-pence. And the reaſon is plain; firſt, becauſe the corporation will be obliged to maintain them and their families in all exigencies, which others are not obliged to do, and, conſequently, they ought not to allow ſo much as others. Secondly, in caſe any perſons able to labour ſhall come to the corporation, when their agents are not prepared with materials to employ them, by this propoſal they are to allow them full proviſion as impotent poor, until they find them work, which is intirely in favour of the poor. Thirdly, it is neither reaſonable nor poſſible for the corporation to provide materials upon every occaſion for ſuch perſons as ſhall be entered with them, unleſs they can be ſecure of ſuch perſons to work up thoſe materials; beſides, without this proviſion, all the labouring people of England will play faſt and looſe between their employers and the corporation, for, as they are diſobliged by one, they will run to the other, and ſo neither of them ſhall be ſure of them.

Sixthly, That no impotent poor ſhall be removed out of the pariſh where they dwell, but upon notice in writing given to the churchwardens and overſeers of the ſaid pariſh, to what place of proviſion he or ſhe is removed.

It is judged the beſt method to provide for the impotent poor, is in houſes prepared for that purpoſe, where proper proviſion may be made for ſeveral, with all neceſſaries of care and maintenance: ſo that in ſome places one houſe will ſerve the impotent poor of ſeveral pariſhes, in which caſe the pariſh ought to know where to reſort, to ſee if good proviſion be made for them.

Seventhly, That, in caſe proviſion be not made for the poor of each pariſh, in manner as aforeſaid (upon due notice given to the agents of the corporation) the ſaid pariſh may order their poor to be maintained, and deduct the ſum by them expended out of the next payments to be made to the ſaid corporation by the ſaid pariſh.

In caſe any accident happens in a pariſh, either by ſickneſs, fall, caſualty of fire, or otherways, and that the agent of the corporation is not preſent to provide for them, or having notice doth not immediately do it, the pariſh may do it, and deduct ſo much out of the next payment; but there muſt be proviſion made for the notice, and in what time the corporation ſhall provide for them.

Eighthly, That the ſaid corporation ſhall have and receive, for the ſaid one and twenty years, that is to ſay, from every pariſh yearly, ſo much as ſuch pariſh paid in any one year, to be computed by a medium of ſeven years; namely, from the 25th of March, 1690, to the 25th of March, 1697, and to be paid half yearly; and beſides, ſhall receive the benefit of the revenues of all donations given to any pariſh, or which ſhall be given during the ſaid term, and all forfeitures which the law gives to the uſe of the poor; and to all other ſums which were uſually collected by the pariſh for the maintenance of the poor.

Whatever was raiſed for, or applied to, the uſe of the poor, ought to be paid over to the corporation; and where there are any donations for maintaining the poor, it will anſwer the deſign of the donor, by reaſon there will be better proviſion for the maintenance of the poor than ever; and if that maintenance be ſo good as to induce further charities, no doubt the corporation ought to be entitled to them: but there are two objections to this article: Firſt, That to make a medium by a time of war is unreaſonable. Secondly, To continue the whole tax for one and twenty years, does not ſeem to give any benefit to the kingdom in that time. To the firſt, it is true we have a peace, but trade is lower now than at any time during the war, and the charge of the poor greater; and when trade will mend is very uncertain. To the ſecond, it is very plain, that although the charge may be the ſame to a pariſh in the total, yet it will be leſs to particular perſons; becauſe thoſe who before received alms, will now be enabled to be contributors; but beſides, the turning ſo many hundred thouſand pounds a year (which in a manner have hitherto been applied only to ſupport idleneſs) into induſtry, and the employing ſo many other idle vagrants and ſturdy beggars, with the product of their labour, will altogether be a preſent benefit to the lands of England, as well in the rents as in the value: and further, the accidental charities in the ſtreets, and at doors, is, by a very modeſt computation, over and above the poor rates, at leaſt 300,000l. per annum, which will be intirely ſaved by this propoſal, and the perſons ſet at work; which is a further conſideration for it's being well received, ſince the corporations are not allowed any thing for this ſervice.

The greater the encouragement is, the better the work will be performed; and it will become the wiſdom of the parliament, in what they do, to make it effectual; for ſhould ſuch an undertaking as this prove ineffectual, inſtead of remedying it will increaſe the miſchief.

Ninthly, That all the laws made for the proviſion of the poor, and for puniſhing idle vagrant perſons be repealed, and one law made to continue ſuch parts as are found uſeful, and to add ſuch other reſtrictions, penalties, and proviſions, as may effectually attain the end of this great work.

The laws hereunto relating are numerous, but the judgments and opinions upon them are ſo various and contradictory, and differ ſo in ſundry places, as to be inconſtant with any one general ſcheme of management.

Tenthly, That proper perſons be appointed in every county, to determine all matters and differences which may ariſe between the corporation and the reſpective pariſhes.

To prevent any ill uſage, neglect, or cruelty, it will be neceſſary to make proviſion, that the poor may tender their complaints to the officers of the pariſh; and that thoſe officers having examined the fame, and not finding redreſs, may apply to perſons to be appointed in each county, and each city, for that purpoſe, who may be called ſupervisors of the poor, and may have allowance made them for their trouble; and their buſineſs may be to examine the truth of ſuch complains; and in caſe either the pariſh or corporation judge themſelves aggrieved, by the determination of the ſaid ſupervisors, proviſion may be made that an appeal lie to the quarter ſeſſions.

Eleventhly,

Elevently, That the corporation be obliged to provide for all bublic beggars, and to put the laws in execution againſt public beggars, and idle vagrant perſons.

Such of the public beggars as can work muſt be employed, the reſt to be maintained as impotent poor; but the laws to be ſeverely put in execution againſt thoſe who ſhall aſk any public alms.

This propoſal, which in moſt parts of it ſeems to be very maturely weighed, may be a foundation for thoſe to build upon, who have a public ſpirit large enough to embrace ſuch a noble undertaking.

But the common obſtruction to any thing of this nature, is a malignant temper in ſome who will not let a public work go on, if private perſons are to be gainers by it: when they are to get themſelves, they abandon all ſenſe of virtue, but are cloathed in their whiteſt robe; when they ſmell profit coming to another, maſking themſelves with a falſe zeal to the commonwealth, where their own turn is not to be ſerved. It were better, indeed, that men would ſerve their country for the praiſe and honour that follow good actions; but this is not to be expected in a nation, at leaſt leaning towards corruption; and, in ſuch an age, it is as much as we can hope for, if the proſpect of ſome honeſt gain invites people to do the public faithful ſervice. For which reaſon, in any undertaking where it can be made apparent, that a great benefit will accrue to the commonwealth in general, we ought not to have an evil eye upon what fair advantages particular men may thereby expect to reap, ſtill taking care to keep their appetite of getting within moderate bounds, laying all juſt and reaſonable reſtraints upon it, and making due proviſion that they may not wrong or oppreſs their fellow ſubjects.

It is not to be denied, but that if fewer hands were ſuffered to remain idle, and if the poor had full employment, it would greatly tend to the common welfare, and contribute much towards adding every year to the general ſtock of England.

Among the methods that we have here propoſed of employing the poor, and making the whole body of people uſeful to the public; we think it our duty to mind thoſe who conſider the common welfare of looking with a compaſſionate eye into the priſons of this kingdom, where many thouſands conſume their time in vice and idleneſs; waſting the remainder of their fortunes, or laviſhing the ſubſtance of their creditors, eating bread and doing no work, which is contrary to good order, and pernicious to the commonwealth.

We cannot, therefore, but recommend the thoughts of ſome good bill, that may effectually put an end to this miſchief, ſo ſcandalous in a trading country, which ſhould let no hands remain uſeleſs.

It is not at all difficult to contrive ſuch a bill as may relieve and releaſe the debtor, and yet preſerve to his creditors all their fair, juſt, and honeſt rights and intereſt.

Thus have we endeavoured to ſhew, that to preſerve and increaſe the people, and to make their numbers uſeful, are methods conducing to make us gainers in the ballance of trade.

Extract of two letters wrote to the author, from an Engliſh gentleman of honour, who ſome time ſince reſided in Holland, and is now appointed in a public character at a certain court in Europe.

SIR,

'It is eaſy to anſwer your queſtion, How are the poor maintained in Holland? But to do it ſo as to pleaſe you, who look farther than the outſide of things, would require more than one day or one letter. However, defering other things to next poſt, I will be as particular as I am able, upon ſo ſhort warning, to be upon this ſubject; ſenſible that it is of the greateſt conſequence to us, and that thoſe who have never conſidered it, will hardly imagine what an IMMENSE PROFIT England might make by ſetting her poor at work, beſides all the advantages of getting quit of all your pickpockets, &c. &c. &c.

I will firſt give you ſome extracts of the laws of this country [meaning the UNITED PROVINCES] about the poor, and then an account of their practice.

The earlieſt law that I find in their ſtatute-books relating to the poor, is a long one of the emperor Charles V. It enacts, *

* 7 October 1531.

ARTICLE IX.

That whereas the poor of our provinces are now much more in number than they formerly uſed to be, and whereas it is found by experience, that many abuſes have ariſen from ſuffering them to beg and aſk alms, particularly that it fixes them in IDLENESS (which is the beginning of all evil), and that neither THEY NOR THEIR CHILDREN FOLLOW ANY TRADE OR METHOD OF GETTING THEIR LIVING, but

are thus brought into BASE ACTIONS, AND A BAD MANNER OF LIFE: ſo that though young, ſtrong, and healthy, they nevertheleſs extort, by great importunities, what ought to go to the poor and ſick; to the impotent, and thoſe who are in danger of ſtarving: and whereas, before our departure, we deſire to remedy and regulate theſe evils, &c. &c. &c.*

* Groot Placart. book 1. B. 20. T.

REMARKS.

It appears by this article, and the following one, and by the end of the 12th, that before this law, every body that had a mind WAS FREE TO BEG IN THESE PROVINCES.

ARTICLE X.

That no one, be it man or woman, from this time forward, ſhall BEG OR ASK ALMS, BY DAY OR BY NIGHT, SECRETLY OR OPENLY, in the ſtreets, in the churches, nor in or at the houſes of our good people, in any manner whatſoever, upon the penalty, that whoever acts contrary to this law ſhall be put, for the firſt offence, in PRISON, AND FED WITH BREAD AND WATER, according to the diſcretion of our officers, judges, and magiſtrates, who ſhall be commiſſioned to execute this our edict, &c. &c. And for the ſecond offence they are to be WHIPPED AND CORRECTED, according to the diſcretion of our officers, &c. except always the mendicant friers, &c. &c.

ARTICLE XI.

No FOREIGNER, nor outlandiſh perſon, ſhall beg or aſk alms, but ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties, except pilgrims, &c.

REMARKS.

Upon theſe two articles I cannot help obſerving, that the great freedom Holland once enjoyed from beggars, robberies, &c. &c. ſeems to have been entirely owing to the ſtrict execution of the article enjoining them to be kept upon BREAD AND WATER; this ſimple circumſtance being of the greateſt conſequence in taming otherwiſe incorrigible offenders, to whom not death itſelf is ſo terrible as LOW LIVING; and this plainly appears by their conduct, for they riſk their lives, only for the ſatisfaction of living LUXURIOUSLY, and therefore abſtinence is a more effectual puniſhment to them than hanging.

ARTICLE XII.

All poor people, who ſhall remove from one CITY OR VILLAGE TO ANOTHER, there to live or reſide, ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties and corrections, unleſs they are reduced by fortune of war, inundation, fire, or other ſuch misfortunes, and that they make this properly appear; in which caſes, and not otherwiſe, it is permitted to let them LODGINGS OR HOUSES; and all the poor reſiding in our ſaid provinces, and having been there a whole year, muſt remain in the places where they are ſettled, and have their ſhare and part of the alms which ſhall be there ordered them, without going about TO BEG ALMS OR BREAD, openly or ſecretly, as hitherto.

REMARKS.

This article is quite contrary to our NOTIONS IN ENGLAND, and to the liberty we give our poor, of trying to get their livelihood better in one pariſh than in another. I ſhall not venture to decide which of the two nations is in THE RIGHT, where much may be ſaid for both.

ARTICLE XIII.

Whoever ſhall permit their children, whether great or ſmall, to go and permit any RASCALITY, or to beg and aſk alms, ſhall undergo the aforeſaid penalties; and the children ſhall be whipped with rods, and otherwiſe corrected, according to the diſcretion of our officers and magiſtrates of the places where the offence ſhall happen.

REMARKS.

The making PARENTS PUNISHABLE in this caſe for their children (eſpecially if underſtood to be thoſe under 12 years of age) appears highly reaſonable.

ARTICLE XV.

As for the ſupport of the POOR, SICK, AND OTHERS, not able to get their bread, nor having any thing to live upon, in any town or village of our ſaid provinces; we order, that a common purſe ſhall be made of all CHARITIES, POOR-HOUSES, HOSPITALS, BROTHERHOODS, and others having the diſtribution of the PRODUCT OF ALMS, and that

part

part thereof ſhall be given to the poor, according to the advice of the maſters and governors of the aforeſaid CHARITIES, POOR-HOUSES, &c. joined with ſuch of the officers and magiſtrates of every town, pariſh, or village, as ſhall be deputed for that purpoſe, according to the manner hereafter declared; except that alms founded for eccleſiaſtics, as well mendicants as others, ſhall be diſtributed according to the directions of the founders.

REMARKS.

Might not the charities given annually by our COLLEGES, by being put into a common purſe, be more uſefully employed than now they are?

ARTICLE XVI.

That, for the future, boxes ſhall be placed in every PARISH-CHURCH of our provinces, to receive the SECRET ALMS OF GOOD PEOPLE; the ſaid boxes to be locked with three keys, of which the pariſh prieſt ſhall keep one, the magiſtrates another, and the deputies, who ſhall be appointed according to the manner hereafter declared, another; which ſaid perſons are impowered to take the money out of the ſaid boxes, whenever they ſhall think good; and farther, the magiſtrates and officers of each pariſh ſhall depute an honeſt man or two to go round the ſaid churches, once or twice a week, to collect for the poor; and beſides, the aforeſaid deputies of every pariſh ſhall go once a week, or oftener, to every houſe, in order to BEG ALMS FOR THE SUPPORT OF THE POOR; and all theſe ſeveral committees or deputies, as well thoſe who receive, as thoſe who diſtribute theſe contributions, are obliged hereby to give an account, at the end of every month, of what they receive or diſtribute, before the magiſtrates or their deputies, IN PUBLIC AND OPEN PLACES, where every body ſhall be admitted that have a mind to come in.

REMARKS.

This laſt paragraph ſeems to be a wiſe proviſion againſt MISAPPLICATION OF THE MONEY COLLECTED: as to the manner of collecting, I ſhall only ſay, that I have ſometimes thought—That one good way of collecting with us, as well as of altering a ſhameful cuſtom of giving money TO SERVANTS BEFORE THEIR MASTERS FACES, would be for every gentleman to hang up a box in his hall, where every viſitor might put his VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTION, and that it ſhould be underſtood, that at the end of the year this was to be divided, one half to the POOR, and ONE HALF TO THE SERVANTS OF THE FAMILY. By this means no man would be obliged to pay more than he chuſes for dining with a lord, and a good uſe would be made of HALF the vaſt ſum collected in a year from thoſe who viſit their friends: beſides, ſervants would be mended by the temptation of ſtaying a year in their places, for the ſake of their diviſion.

ARTICLE XVII.

In order to regulate and conduct this work of charity, the officer * and magiſtrates of every town and village are hereby required to chuſe out perſons RESIDING AMONGST THEM, the beſt qualified for the ſaid purpoſes, whom we require and order to take upon them this care, according to their duty to God, and out of a true ſpirit of charity, and to regulate themſelves in it according as is preſcribed them by our edict; and the ſaid deputies ſo choſen, ſhall appoint themſelves a treaſurer to keep their particular accounts of the aforeſaid alms, and what belongs to them on that account, and ſhall each in his diſtrict, take or cauſe to be taken, an EXACT LIST OF THE NUMBER, STATE, QUALITY, AND CONDITION OF THE POOR within it, of WHAT TRADE, and of WHAT AGE they are, how they are burthened with children, what they gain or may gain.

* Officer ſignifies here, the chief magiſtrate for executing of juſtice in criminal affairs.

ARTICLE XVIII.

The aforeſaid committee ſhall keep a REGISTER IN EVERY PARISH, wherein ſhall be plainly written the reſult of their ſeveral enquiries, viz. the number of the POOR IN EACH FAMILY or dwelling, and the quantity OF MONEY NECESSARY FOR THEM, over and above what they can gain, conſideration being had of their abilities, neceſſities, and burthens.

ARTICLE XIX.

The alms ſhall be diſtributed in every pariſh, according to the diſcretion of the ſaid deputies, be it in MONEY, BREAD, FIRING, CLOATHS, or OTHER NECESSARIES, conſideration being had of the QUALITY AND CONDITION OF THE AFORESAID POOR PERSONS: to drunkards, idlers, gameſters, and ſuch like, NO MONEY is to be given, but only BREAD, FIRING, CLOATHING, AND OTHER NECESSARIES TO MANTAIN THEIR FAMILIES; and thoſe that lead idle or roguiſh lives, and are able, ſhall be COMPELLED TO WORK, and to bring their GAINS HOME, under the penalty of being deprived of the benefit of the alms-purſe, and beſides, of being CORRECTED ARBITRARILY by the magiſtrate.

REMARKS.

Theſe three laſt articles ſhew how the poor were governed, and the alms diſtributed, before the Reformed Church, and the offices of elders and deacons were eſtabliſhed in theſe provinces.

ARTICLE XX.

That SICK AND WEAK PERSONS, who cannot come out of their houſes, and women in childbed, ſhall be viſited and aſſiſted by the alms-purſe, and provided with linen, ſheets, and coverlids, with victuals, with firing, and other neceſſaries; and ſo likewiſe, muſt young orphans and foundlings be maintained out of the ſaid alms-purſe.

ARTICLE XXI.

As to the CHILDREN OF THOSE POOR PEOPLE, who, before the publication of this edict, were idlers living upon roguery, ſome ſhall be put to ſchool, and ſome to trades or to ſervice, and ſhall, on Holidays and Sundays, be taught the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Commandments, and ſhall be carried to maſs and to veſpers every Sunday; and that the ſaid children may be put in a condition to go to TRADES OR SERVICE, the ſaid committee ſhall have them cleaned from all filth and naſtineſs, and cloath them in a decent manner.

ARTICLE XXII.

The poor that live upon this alms-purſe muſt wear a BADGE.

ARTICLE XXV.

We forbid all perſons, who by themſelves or their children, enjoy any ſhare of the diſtribution of the alms-purſe, from henceforth to go into, or converſe in TAVERNS, CABARETS, or SUCH LIKE PLACES: we likewiſe forbid them playing at ninepins, bowls, dice, or other ſuch forbidden games, upon pains of arbitrary puniſhment; conſenting, nevertheleſs, that they may ſometimes drink a pot of beer for their recreation with their wives, but not ſo as to be drunk. We are now come to the laws made ſince the Reformation, of which the firſt is an edict of the States of Holland, the nobility, gentry, and cities of Holland, &c. &c. *

* 19 March 1614.

ARTICLE I.

That all men and women, who being in health go a begging, or are vagabonds, either in the towns or open countries, ſhall be obliged, within FOUR DAYS from the publication of this edict, to quit the province of Holland, or to acquaint the officer of the place where they deſign to get their livelihood, by WORK or BY TRADE, and to give him a declaration who they are, whence they came, what is their buſineſs, and likewiſe inform him where they lodge and lie at nights, and pray permiſſion to ſtay in that place, one, two, or three days, engaging themſelves not to beg in the mean time.

ARTICLE IV.

The beggars and vagabonds, who are not able or FIT TO WORK, ſhall, within two days after the publication of this edict, be ſent to the place of their abode, where they muſt be maintained according to the uſage and cuſtom of the place; and from thence they are forbid to wander, or beg in other towns and villages, under the penalty of being, for the firſt offence, put to diet of BREAD AND WATER, according to the diſcretion of the magiſtrates; and, for the ſecond offence, to be WHIPPED AND BANISHED; the third offence, publicly whipped, marked with the burning-iron, and baniſhed again.

ARTICLE VIII.

All children forbid to beg, on pain of being put to bread and water, if above 8 years of age.

ARTICLE IX.

The fathers and lodgers of children, as well above as under 8 years old, are required to take good care that their children do not go a begging, under the penalty of being puniſhed as beggars themſelves.

ARTICLE XI.

For the clearing of the open country, all the droſts are ordered to go about their diſtrict every 8 days, and take up all vagabonds

vagabonds and beggars, and to deliver them into the hands of the officer of the place where they are taken, to be proceeded againſt according to this law. We command likewiſe the ordinary officers of juſtice, ſo often as they can, and at leaſt once a month, to do the ſame; and the aforeſaid droſts are ordered to give an account to the provincial council of ſtate, and the aforeſaid ordinary officers to the court of Holland, either by word of mouth or by writing, of what they have done, touching the execution of this article.

ARTICLE XII.

Officers required to ſearch inns, and all ſuſpected places, to find out beggars and apprehend them.

ARTICLE XV.

All carriers, waggoners, &c. &c. are forbid to tranſport any beggars, from one place to another, under penalty of three gilders for every offence.

The laſt law I ſhall quote, is one of the States-General, of the United Provinces *.

* Placart 25 June 1649.

ARTICLE IV.

It is likewiſe enacted, That every TOWN, VILLAGE, OR PARISH, ſhall maintain its poor out of the income of the charitable foundations and collections, ſo far as it will go; and, in caſe that theſe means ſhall fall ſhort, then the magiſtrates ſhall maintain them at the general expence of the inhabitants, as can moſt conveniently be done; provided always, that the poor be obliged TO WORK AND LABOUR, either for merchants, farmers, &c. &c. according to their ſtrength and abilities, for REASONABLE WAGES. In order that they may, as far as poſſible, be ſupported that way; provided alſo, that they are to be indulged in no idleneſs nor inſolence.

ARTICLE VI.

Forbidding, for the future, all maſters of poor-houſes, hoſpitals or charity-houſes, maſters of inns or taverns, farmers, or any other perſons whatſoever, to lodge or harbour, either in their houſes, granaries, or ſtables, or to ſupport with meat or drink, any idlers or vagabonds, foreigners, or others, who are HEALTHY AND SOUND OF THEIR LIMBS, and who nevertheleſs appear in various forms and manners of beggary and idleneſs: forbidding alſo agreements with them to go ſhares in the profit which they make by ſuch unlawful means, or to attend their rendezvous, or to go with them, or to ſhew them the way, unleſs along the common roads, or otherwiſe to ſhew them any favour or aſſiſtance, on pain of being taken for their accomplice, and being puniſhed as ſuch, as to juſtice ſhall appertain.

ARTICLE VII.

Nor ſhall it be any excuſe for the ſaid innkeepers, &c. that theſe people came by force and againſt their will to lodge with them, unleſs it be proved, that the ſaid innkeepers, &c. gave SECRET NOTICE to the officer of the place, that ſuch vagabonds were at his houſe.

ARTICLE IX.

To the end that the officers of the towns and open country may be better informed and advertiſed, where ſuch vagabonds and offenders are, we command and require them and their under-officers, to go about all ordinary markets, churches, hoſpitals, and poor-houſes, upon fair-days, upon marriages, and ſuch-like aſſemblies or feaſts, where theſe offenders are commonly found, to take them up, and proceed againſt them according to the contents of this edict.

ARTICLE X.

And to provide againſt the CHEATS that ſome beggars practiſe, of appearing to be afflicted with ſickneſs, or otherwiſe infirm; it is ordered, that beggars ſuſpected of ſuch deceits ſhall, by order of the magiſtrates, and at the expence of the place where taken, be viſited and examined by ſworn phyſicians and ſurgeons, that the truth being known, thoſe who have been guilty of ſuch cheats, may be PUNISHED according to the nature of their offence.

ARTICLE XIII.

Charging and commanding all officers of juſtice in their reſpective diſtricts, to do their duty, by apprehending all ſuch idlers, wanderers, and vagabonds, on pain of being, not only arbitrarily puniſhed, but of being obliged to pay all the damages which ſhall happen to any perſon, through their having neglected to apprehend ſuch offenders.

ARTICLE XV.

And that no difficulties may be made by SCHEPENS, JUSTICES, or officers of particular places, before whom the ſaid offenders ſhall be brought, about the JUDGING OF THESE OFFENDERS; we ſtrictly and expreſsly command, that whoever ſuch offenders are brought before, whether it be high-bailiff or other officer, he ſhall be obliged to examine, and SENTENCE THEM, upon pain of being not only deprived of his office, but otherwiſe arbitrarily puniſhed.

REMARKS.

Thus much for their laws; upon which I beg leave to make this obſervation; that this manner of providing for their poor was not begun at the Reformation, or occaſioned by the diſſolution of monaſtries; but rather was a natural conſequence of their increaſing in PEOPLE AND TRADE, which brought both buſy and idle people amongſt them: in the ſame manner, our law of the 43d of queen Elizabeth was made, upon our having flouriſhed for about the ſaid term of years. The diſputes between the archduke Maximilian, and the States of Flanders, which forced a great deal of trade into Holland, having only ended about 1491; and the firſt of theſe laws is made juſt 40 years after, as our law was forty years after the end of queen Mary's perſecution, and the beginning of queen Elizabeth's encouragement to trade *.

* See Mr North's Manuſcript upon the Poor, § 2.

Now, as to their practice, every town or congregation maintains it's own poor, either out of the collections which are made every Sunday, and church-day, or the ordinary collections which are made four times a year, from houſe to houſe, or the extraordinary ones, which are made when neceſſity requires, which have been frequently four times more. Theſe voluntary contributions are laid up and diſtributed by the deacons of the ſeveral congregations, and the poor are by them, either maintained in their own houſes, or lodged with others, according to their circumſtances or infirmities.

The charity of the people of Holland is ſuch, that the collections ſuffice, in ordinary years, for the maintenance of the poor; but in extraordinary ones, the magiſtrates have advanced great ſums for that purpoſe: as for example, in the year 1740, the magiſtrates of the Hague paid 15,000 gilders, and thoſe of Leyden 30,000 on that account.

But the diacony, or treaſury of the reformed and eſtabliſhed church of Amſterdam, is upon ſo good a footing, that they did not even in that year, want the aid of the magiſtrate; they diſtributed 578,758 gilders, but their income is about 500,000.

The Romiſh, Lutheran, and other diaconies, are directed in the ſame manner as thoſe of the eſtabliſhed religion, and diſtributed to about 500, and may keep in houſes 6 or 700 old people and children in Amſterdam: the eſtabliſhed church to about 1000 or 1200 poor families, beſides their three almſhouſes, where are about 1300 old people and children.

REMARKS.

There are other hoſpitals and poor-houſes, beſides theſe three, of which the great one, that takes in beggars children of all perſuaſions and foundlings, has about 1500 children.

The poor are here, not only free of all exciſes, but they have an allowance paid of ſome branches of the exciſe, and a third part of all fines in criminal caſes, computed, goes to the poor-houſes, of which there are two ſorts where poor children are maintained; one goes by the name of the orphan-houſe, the other of the poor-houſe; the former is filled with children of a BETTER RANK than the other, with the children of decayed SHOPKEEPERS, and thoſe who have LIVED WELL, and the latter with thoſe of the LOWEST SORT OF PEOPLE. When a child is taken into either of theſe houſes, the governors poſſeſs themſelves of whatever little effects they have for the uſe of the houſe.

Theſe children are extremely well taken care of; they have maſters and miſtreſſes, to teach them reading, writing, and accounts, and the girls plain needle-work. When they are fit to go out, they are put to maſters and miſtreſſes by the day to LEARN TRADES, and they come back to theſe houſes to dinner, and in the evening; what they gain during this time, in the poor-houſe, belongs to the houſe; but in the orphan-houſe, the children are allowed A FOURTH OR A FIFTH PART of what they gain for themſelves.

When they come to be upwards of 20 years of age, and are able to gain their living, the houſe CLOATHS THEM WELL, and TURNS THEM OUT; in the orphan-houſe they return likewiſe the value of the capital brought in with them, but the intereſt falls to the houſe: there are, however, ſome who, on account of defects in their underſtanding, or other reaſons, are maintained in the houſe all their days.

Theſe houſes have been ſome of them pious foundations of private perſons; ſome of them have been built or bought by the towns, and afterwards ſupported from pious legacies and charities, by which ſome of them are become rich.

The public old mens and womens houſe in Amſterdam, was founded by the profits of two LOTTERIES, about the year 1600, and is ſupported by ſome donations, and by periodical collections, in the old-church, and by one third of the profits of the PLAY-HOUSE, which is from 12 to 15,000 gilders a year; the other two thirds go to the ſupport of the burghers orphan-houſe.

The direction of theſe houſes is always in the BEST PEOPLE OF THE COUNTRY, and it is eſteemed an HONOUR, as well as a PIOUS OFFICE, to aſſiſt in looking after them. Thus ladies of the FIRST QUALITY have gone, once in three weeks, or oftener, to ſee that things are well adminiſtred, to examine the childrens linen, cloathing, nouriſhment, &c. &c. and to inſpect the expence and accounts.

As to the Raſp, and Verbetering, or correction-houſes for rogues, and thoſe who being able will not work, theſe are maintained by the reſpective towns, generally at a ſmall expence, there being a good deal of PROFIT MADE OF THE WORK THAT IS DONE IN THEM: they ſet the offenders reaſonable taſks, and when thoſe are well done, they allow them certain hours TO WORK FOR THEMSELVES: a few years ago the workhouſe at Breda coſt the barony a TRIFLE, AND MADE VERY FINE MANUFACTURES: the maſter, who was put in there, had been a broken CLOTHIER at Leyden, but who, tho' become a bankrupt by misfortunes, underſtood his buſineſs well, and inſtructed numbers of people in the workhouſe to make good cloths, by ſetting them firſt to comb wool, and ſo bringing them by degrees to more difficult branches.

The yearly expence of the Raſp-houſe at Rotterdam, is from 8 to 10,000 gilders, of which generally about 5 or 6 accrues from the labour of the people, and the remainder is ſupplied by the magiſtrates out of the ſurplus of ſome of their taxes.

There is a kind of Bridewell (called the Vrywillige Raſphuys) at Amſterdam, which is partly maintained BY AN ADDITIONAL TAX ON ALL THE GIN-SHOPS, PETTY HOUSES FOR SELLING WINE AND BEER, AND LITTLE TOBACCO-SHOPS.

The people in the Raſp-houſe are employed in two kinds of labour, CHIPPING AND RASPING LOGWOOD: a chipper muſt chip 3600 pounds in 14 days, Sundays included, for which the houſe is paid at the rate of 5 ſtivers per pound. A raſper muſt raſp 300 pounds nett in 12 working days, and the houſe is paid for it 30 ſtivers per 100 pounds. When they perform more than their ALLOTTED TASK, TWO-THIRDS go to themſelves. The women are employed in a great many different branches, and contribute in proportion as much towards the GENERAL EXPENCE AS THE MEN.

By more or leſs allowance of MEAT AND DRINK, as well as by the quality of it, the GOOD ARE ENCOURAGED, and the bad BROUGHT TO REASON: to thoſe who are remarkably obſtinate, they uſe ſuch ſeverity as ſoon reduces them to order, but it cannot be enough repeated, that the grand ſecret of reducing ALL ROGUES TO TEMPER AND REASON, is by DIET more than by any other correction; and I am perſwaded, if this was ONCE TRIED STEADILY IN ENGLAND, IT WOULD PREVENT ROBBERIES, &c. &c. more than any other method of ſeverity.

In the villages, or open country where there are no HOUSES OF CORRECTION, offenders are ſent to the towns who have them, and ſo much is allowed by thoſe who ſend them to the towns for their maintenance; and their poor children are taught and taken care of in the villages, by perſons appointed by the magiſtrates of the place.

In general, the adminiſtration of the poor here is excellent, tho' their diſcipline, with regard to foreign beggars, is much relaxed; but there being many CHECKS UPON THE ACCOUNTS OF ALL THEIR CHARITIES, it is difficult to attempt, and rare to hear of any fraud in the RECEIPT OR DISPOSITION OF THEM: the proviſion of the 16th article of the emperor Charles the Vth's law, enjoining the making up the accounts PUBLICLY, is, perhaps, alone ſufficient to guard the poor-money from any notorious mal-adminiſtration.

Theſe, Sir, are the informations I propoſed to give you relative to the poor of this country, their conduct with regard to them having been often cited as a pattern worthy imitation.'

GENERAL REMARKS on the article of POOR.

Let us caſt our eyes on the multitude of unfortunate people in this kingdom of reputable families, and of liberal, or at leaſt eaſy education: ſome undone by guardians, ſome by lawſuits, ſome by accidents in commerce, ſome by ſtocks and bubbles, and ſome by ſuretiſhip. But all agree in this one circumſtance, that they muſt either be burthenſome to their relations, or betake themſelves to little ſhifts for ſuſtenance, which (it is ten to one) do not anſwer their purpoſes, and to which a well-educated mind deſcends with the utmoſt conſtraint.

What various misfortunes may reduce the rich, the induſtrious, to the danger of a priſon, to a moral certainty of ſtarving! Theſe are the people that may relieve themſelves, and ſtrengthen our plantations, [ſee COLONIES and PLANTATIONS] by reſorting thither, and Great-Britain by their departure. I appeal to the recollection of the reader (though he be opulent, though he be noble) does not his own ſphere of acquaintance? (I may venture to aſk) Does not even his own blood, his ſett of near relations, furniſh him with ſome inſtances of ſuch perſons as have been here deſcribed? Muſt they ſtarve? What honeſt mind can bare to think it? Muſt they be fed by the contributions of others? Certainly they muſt, rather than be ſuffered to periſh. Are theſe wealth to the nation? Are they not a burthen to themſelves, a burthen to their kindred and acquaintance, a burthen to the whole community?

I have heard it ſaid (and it is eaſy to ſay ſo) let them learn to work; let them ſubdue their pride and deſcend to mean employments, keep ale-houſes or coffee-houſes, even ſell fruit, or clean ſhoes for an honeſt livelihood. But alas! theſe occupations, and many more like them, are overſtocked already by people who know better how to follow them, than they do whom we have been talking of. Half of thoſe who are bred in low life, and well verſed in ſuch ſhifts and expedients, find but a very narrow maintenance by them. As for labouring, I could almoſt wiſh that the gentleman or merchant, who thinks that another gentleman or merchant in want, can threſh or dig, to the value of ſubſiſtence for his family, or even for himſelf: I ſay, I could wiſh the perſon who thinks ſo, were obliged to make trial of it for a week, or (not to be too ſevere) for only a day: he would find himſelf to be leſs than the fourth part of a labourer, and that the fourth part of a labourer's wages could not maintain him.

I have heard it ſaid, that a man may learn to labour by practice; it is admitted: but it muſt alſo be admitted, that before he can learn, he may ſtarve. Suppoſe a gentleman was this day to begin, and with grievous toil found himſelf able to earn three pence, how many days or months are neceſſary to form him, that he may deſerve a ſhilling per diem? Men, whoſe wants are importunate, muſt try ſuch expedients as will give immediate relief. It is too late for them to begin to learn a trade, when their preſſing neceſſities call for the exerciſe of it.

Having thus deſcribed (I fear, too truly) the pitiable condition of the better ſort of the indigent, an objection ariſes againſt their removal, upon what is ſtated of their imbecility for drudgery. It may be aſked, if they can't get bread here for their labour, how will their condition be mended in our plantations? The anſwer is eaſy, part of it is well atteſted, and part ſelf-evident. They have land there for nothing, and that land is ſo fertile, that they receive an hundred fold increaſe for taking very little pains. Give here in England ten acres of good land to one of thoſe helpleſs perſons, and I doubt not his ability to make it ſuſtain him, and this by his own culture, without letting it to another: but the difference between no rent and rack-rent, is the difference between eating and ſtarving. See the article MANURE.

If I make but 20l. of the produce of a field, and am to pay 20l. rent for it, it is plain I muſt periſh if I have not another fund to ſupport me: but if I pay no rent, the produce of that field will ſupply the mere neceſſities of life.

Beſides the perſons before deſcribed, there are others whom it may be proper to ſend abroad, for reaſon will alſo ſhew at whoſe expence theſe other ſorts of indigent people ought to be removed. I think it may be laid down for a rule, that we may well ſpare all thoſe, who having neither income nor induſtry equal to their neceſſities, are forced to live upon the fortunes or labours of others; and that they who now are a heavy RENT-CHARGE UPON THE PUBLIC, may be made an IMMENSE REVENUE TO IT, and this by a happy exchange of their poverty for an affluence.

Believing it will be granted that the people before deſcribed ought in prudence to go abroad, or have land given them to cultivate at home, and that we are bound in humanity and charity to ſend them, there ariſes a queſtion, Whether our aiding their departure be conſiſtent with good policy? I raiſe this objection on purpoſe to anſwer it, becauſe ſome who mean very well to the public have fancied, that our numbers abſolutely taken, WITHOUT A DISTINCTION, ARE REAL WEALTH TO A NATION. Upon a little examination, this will appear to be a miſtaken notion. It ariſes from a miſapplication of Sir William Petty's Political Arithmetic, and of Sir William Temple's Obſervations on the United Netherlands. But when theſe great men eſteem people as the wealth of a nation, ſurely they can only mean ſuch as labour, and by their induſtry add yearly to the capital ſtock of their country, at the ſame time that they provide the neceſſaries or comforts of life for themſelves.

Perhaps the Raſp-houſes may be reckoned part of the riches of Holland, becauſe the drones are made to work in them: but is an infirmary of incurables wealth to a community? Or (which is worſe, becauſe it is remediable and is not remedied) are hundreds of priſons filled with thouſands of Engliſh debtors, and are they a glory or a reproach, a benefit or a burthen to the nation? Who can be ſo abſurd as to ſay, that we ſhould be enriched by the importation of a multitude of cripples, who might not be able, perhaps, to earn a fourth part of what is neceſſary to ſuſtain them?

If

If ten thouſand of theſe would be an addition to our wealth, ten millions of them muſt add a thouſand times as much to it. Did the fire of London add to the wealth of the nation? I am ſure it gave abundance of employment to the poor, juſt as people are employed in trade to feed and cloath the inhabitants of priſons. But theſe are alſo a ſlow fire, an hectic fever to conſume the vitals of the ſtate.

The true ſtate of national wealth is like that of private wealth, it is comparitive. The nation, as well as individuals, muſt work to ſave and not to ſpend. If I work hard all day, and at night give my wages to the next cripple I ſee, however good it may be judged of in a religious ſenſe, my worldly fortune is in the ſame condition as if I had ſtood idle. If the produce of the nation be in moveables, land, and labour, fifty millions in a year, and only forty-eight millions are expended to maintain the people, then has the nation added two millions to it's capital: but if it ſpends fifty-one millions, then is that to be made good by ſinking part of the perſonal eſtate, or mortgaging the real. And upon a par, plus a million, and minus a million in earning and expences, will operate nothing towards increaſing the national wealth: if you proceed in infinitum, it is only impoveriſhing the RICH TO MAINTAIN THE POOR: it ſeems, indeed, to have ſomething of levelling in it; to prevent which, I think our men of fortune would act wiſely once for all, to put theſe poor people on a footing of their own, and ſhake off the perpetual incumbrance by a ſingle act of prudent beneficence.

Some would have Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, ſunk under water, but all the people ſaved and ſettled in England. Such certainly deceive themſelves with a view of the artificial ſtrength of the Dutch, when their fiſhery was at the higheſt pitch, and when they were carriers for mankind.

But they have not been able to preſerve theſe branches of trade entire, and their numbers muſt decreaſe as do the means of maintaining them *. Therefore, inſtead of taking it for granted, that numbers of people neceſſarily create a traffic, we may invert the propoſition, and ſafely hold, that an extenſive traffic will infallibly be attended with ſufficient numbers of people.

* To illuſtrate the doctrine laid down in this ſentence, take the following part of a deſcription of a neighbouring country by a celebrated author,

I met in my day's journey nine cars loaden with old muſty ſhrivelled hides, one car-load of butter, one cow and calf driven by a man and his wife. A colony of one hundred and fifty beggars, all repairing to people our metropolis, and by increaſing the number of hands, to increaſe it's wealth: upon the old maxim, That people are the riches of a nation. And, therefore, one thouſand mouths with hardly ten pair of hands, or any work to employ them, will infalliby make us a rich and flouriſhing people. Secondly, Travellers enough, but ſeven in ten wanting ſhirts and cravats; nine in ten going barefoot and carrying their broagues and ſtockings in their hands. One woman in twenty having a pillion, the reſt riding bare-backed. Above two hundred horſemen, with four pair of boots amongſt them all; ſeventeen ſaddles of leather (the reſt being made of ſtraw) and moſt of their garranes only ſhod before. I went into one of the principal farmer's houſes out of curioſity, and his whole furniture conſiſted of two blocks for ſtools, a bench on each ſide the fire-place made of turf, ſix trenchers, one bowl, a pot, ſix horn-ſpoons, three noggins, three blankets (one of which ſerved the man and maid ſervant, the other two, the maſter of the family, his wife and five children) a ſmall churn, a wooden candleſtick, a broken ſtick for a pair of tongs. In the public towns, one third of the inhabitants walking the ſtreets barefoot, &c.

And yet theſe unhappy people, who are not able to earn above a fourth part of their ſubſiſtence at home, and as we have ſhewn, are a load on the fortunes and induſtry of others, may in ſeveral of our plantations, or by cultivating more land in Great-Britain and Ireland, provide by their labour a decent maintenance, and at the ſame time enrich their mother-country. See the article MANURE.

Upon what has been ſaid, the reader may be deſirous to ſee a ſtate of the difference (with reſpect to the intereſts of the induſtrious and wealthy part of the nation) between a poor perſon here, earning but half HIS SUSTENANCE, and the ſame perſon ſettled in a freehold, of a FERTILE SOIL WITHOUT TYTHES OR TAXES; and in this computation, let us remember, that of the many thouſands of poor debtors who fill our priſons, few earn any thing at preſent; and our colonies are chiefly intended for the UNFOTUNATE, there being no danger of the departure of ſuch as are able to maintain themſelves here.

A man who is equal in ability only to the fourth part of a labourer (and many ſuch there are) we will ſuppoſe to earn four pence per diem, or five pounds per annum in London; his wife and a child of above ſeven years old, four pence per diem more: upon a fair ſuppoſition (becauſe it is the common caſe) he has another child too young to earn any thing. Theſe live but wretchedly, at an expence of twenty pounds per annum. To defray which, they earn ten pounds; ſo that they are a loſs to the rich and induſtrious part of the nation of ten pounds per annum; for there are but three general methods of ſupplying the defect of their ability. Whatever they conſume more than they earn, muſt be furniſhed, firſt, either by the bounty or charity of others; or, ſecondly, by frauds, as by running in debt to the ruin of the induſtrious, &c. or, thirdly, by what our law calls force and felony, as theft and robbery, &c. They muſt be ſupplied at ſome of theſe rates; therefore, as obſerved, this family is a loſs to the rich and induſtrious of ten pounds per annum.

REMARKS on the article POOR.

Since the drawing up the foregoing, I have been informed by a gentleman of great honour and veracity, reſident at Ipſwich in Suffolk, that their poor there are ſo wiſely managed, as to maintain themſelves; which example, if it could be happily reduced to practice as ſucceſsfully in all other parts of Great Britain, would prove an extraordinary ſaving to the kingdom: certain it is, that to obtain ſuch eaſement from the poor rate, and at the ſame time to add thouſands upon thouſands of induſtrious ſubjects to the community, who are at preſent a dead weight upon it, well deſerves the efforts of every public-ſpirited man in his pariſh: and if once we had a few more examples evidencing the practicability of the Ipſwich one, it would animate other pariſhes to imitate it, whereby the ſame might become univerſal thoughout the nation. The employment of a million of hands, perhaps, amongſt the poor, would have a tendency to lower the price of labour in general, and conſequently fall the prices of our commodities and manufactures, which is ſo much wanted at this criſis. See our articles DUTIES, LABOUR, TAXES, WAR, and ſuch other, to which from them we refer.

PORCELAIN, or PURCELAIN, a fine kind of earthen ware made in China, and therefore alſo called China, or China-ware; but brought into Europe from other parts of the eaſt, as Japan, Siam, Surat, and Perſia.

The annals of the city of Feou-leam relate, that ſince the year 442, the workers in porcelain have always ſupplied the emperors with it: and that one or two mandarines, ſent from the court, had the care of that work. It is, however, probable, that before the year 442, this ware was in uſe, and that it has been gradually brought to it's preſent perfection.

The fine porcelain, which is of a bright and lively white, and of a beautiful ſky blue, is all brought from King-te-tching.

There is porcelain made in other parts, but it is very different from this both in colour and fineneſs. The emperors have brought to Pekin workers in porcelain, and all the materials employed in making it, but their work never ſucceeded. King-te-tching alone, has the honour of ſending porcelain to all the parts of the world. The Japoneſe come to buy it at China.

The matter of which it is made, is compoſed of two kinds of earth; one of which is called petunſe, and the other kaolin. This laſt is intermixed with corpuſcles, which have a kind of ſplendor, but the other is ſimply white, and very fine to the touch. At the ſame time that great numbers of large barques aſcend the river of Jaotcheou to King-te-tching, to be loaded with porcelain, almoſt as many ſmall ones deſcend from Kimuen, loaded with petunſe and kaolin, reduced to the form of bricks, for King-te-tching produces none of the materials proper for the porcelain.

The petunſes, whoſe grain is ſo fine, are nothing elſe but pieces of rocks dug out of quarries, and moulded into this form. All ſtones are not proper for this purpoſe, otherwiſe it would not be neceſſary to go twenty or thirty leagues, into the other provinces for it.

The Chineſe ſay, that the ſtone ought to be of a greeniſh colour. The firſt ſtep of the preparation is this; they break theſe pieces of ſtone with a large bar of iron, after which they put the broken pieces into mortars, and with peſtles which have heads of ſtone covered with iron, they reduce them to a very fine powder. Theſe peſtles play continually, either by the labour of men or by water, as the hammers of our paper-mills do. After this they throw the powder into a large urn full of water, and ſtir it briſkly about with an iron peſtle. When they allow it to reſt ſome minutes, a kind of cream four or five fingers breadth thick, floats on the ſurface. This they take off, and pour it into another veſſel full of water. Thus they ſeveral times agitate the water of the firſt urn, gathering the cream each time, 'till there remains none but the groſſer parts, which ſubſide to the bottom. Theſe are taken out and pounded afreſh.

With reſpect to the ſecond urn, into which they throw what they had collected from the firſt, they wait 'till a kind of paſte is formed at the bottom of it. When the water above this paſte appears very clear, they pour it off by inclination, that they may not diſturb the ſediment, and they throw this paſte into large moulds proper to dry it. Before it is quite hard, they divide it into ſmall ſquare pieces, which are ſold by the hundred. This figure and it's colour have made it get the name of petunſe.

The moulds into which this paſte is thrown, are a kind of very large and broad caſes. The bottom is filled with bricks laid end-ways, ſo as to make the ſurface equal. Over this

bed

bed of bricks thus ranged, they ſpread a cloth, as large as the cavity of the mould. Then they pour in the matter, which they cover with another cloth, over which they place a bed of bricks laid flat on each other.

This is done in order to force out the water the ſooner, without loſing any thing of the matter of the porcelain; which by becoming hard, eaſily receives the form of bricks. There would be nothing to be added to this labour, if the Chineſe were not accuſtomed to alter their merchandize; but people who roll ſmall grains of paſte in pepper, in order to cover them with it, and mix them with genuine pepper, do not care to ſell petunſe without mixing ſome ſediments with it; for which reaſon, they are obliged to purify them at King-te-tching, before they make uſe of them.

The kaolin, which enters the compoſition of the porcelain, gives leſs trouble than the petunſe, nature having a greater hand in producing it. There are mines of it in the boſom of certain mountains, which are covered eternally with a reddiſh earth. Theſe mines are pretty deep, and contain the kaolin in lumps, which they cut into ſquares, in the manner with the petunſe. The white earth of Matta, commonly called St Paul's earth, has a great reſemblance to the kaolin, though the former has not the little ſilver grains with which the latter is interſperſed.

It is from the kaolin, that the fine porcelain derives all it's ſtrength. Thus it is the mixture of a ſoft earth which gives ſtrength to the petunſes, which are taken from the hardeſt rocks. Some Engliſh and Dutch bought ſome petunſe and brought it into their own countries to make porcelain, but their enterprize failed, becauſe they had no kaolin.

Beſides the barques loaded with petunſe and kaolin, with which the ſkirts of King-te-tching are covered, we ſee others full of a whitiſh liquid ſubſtance, and this is the oil which gives the porcelain it's whiteneſs and luſtre. This oil or varniſh is drawn from the hardeſt ſtone, which is not ſurprizing, ſince it is thought that ſtones are principally formed of the ſalts and oils of the earth, which mix and are intimately united with each other. Though the ſpecies of ſtone of which the petunſes are made, may be indifferently uſed to obtain the oil, yet they generally chuſe that which is whiteſt, and has the greeneſt ſpots.

Though the Hiſtory of Feou-leam does not deſcend into a detail, yet it ſays, that the good ſtone for the oil, is that which has ſpots of a colour of a cypreſs-leaf, or which has red marks on a browniſh ground. This ſtone muſt be firſt well waſhed, after which it undergoes the ſame preparations with the petunſe. When they have in the ſecond urn the hardeſt parts they could take from the firſt, they throw a pound of ſtone or mineral like allum, upon a hundred pounds or thereabouts of this cream. It muſt be made red by the fire, and afterwards pounded. This is, as it were, the preſſure which gives it conſiſtence, though they take care to keep it always liquid.

This oil of ſtone is never employed alone. They mix another with it, which is, as it were, the ſoul of it. The compoſition is as follows: they take large pieces of quick lime, on which they throw a little water to diſſolve and reduce them to pieces. Then they make a bed of dry fern, over which they lay another of ſlacked lime, of theſe they put ſeveral alternately over each other. After this they ſet fire to the fern. When the whole is conſumed, they ſpread theſe aſhes on new beds of dry fern.

This is done five or ſix times, and the oftener they do it the oil is the better. Formerly, ſays the Hiſtory of Feou-leam, they uſed beſides the wood of a tree, whoſe fruit is called ſe-tſe.

If we judge of this tree by the ſourneſs of the fruit before it is ripe, and by it's ſmall top, we ſhould take it to be a kind of medlar.

It is no longer uſed at preſent, probably becauſe it is become too ſcarce in that country. Perhaps it is for want of this wood, that the preſent porcelain is not ſo beautiful as that of former times: the nature of the quick lime and fern contributed to the goodneſs of the oil; and it is obſervable, that what is brought from ſome parts, is better than what comes from others.

When they have a certain quantity of the aſhes of quick lime and fern, they throw them into an urn full of water. Upon an hundred pounds they muſt diſſolve one pound of ke-kao, ſtir the mixture well, and allow it to reſt, 'till there appears on the ſurface a cloud of cruſt, which they take off, and put into a ſecond urn. This they repeat ſeveral times. When a kind of paſte is formed at the bottom of the ſecond urn, they pour off the water by inclination, and keep this liquid paſte, which is the ſecond oil, to be mixed with the former; for a juſt mixture of theſe two depurated oils, they muſt be equally thick. In order to judge of this, they ſeveral times plunge into each of them pieces of petunſe, by taking which out, they ſee upon their ſurface whether they are equally thick.

This is what relates to the quality of thoſe two oils. As for the quantity, the beſt way is to mix ten meaſures of the oil of ſtone, with one meaſure of the oil of quick lime and fern. They who are moſt ſparing, never put leſs than three meaſures. If the merchants who ſell this oil, have the leaſt inclination to cheat, they can eaſily augment it's bulk by throwing water into it, and adding a proportional quantity of ke-kao, to cover this fraud and hinder the oil from being too liquid.

Before I explain the manner of applying this oil, or rather varniſh, I ſhall deſcribe how the porcelain is made. We ſhall firſt begin with the work performed in the leaſt frequented parts of King-te-tching. There is an incloſure of walls, within which they build vaſt piles, one ſtory above another, of a prodigious number of earthen urns. In this incloſure live and work an incredible number of labourers, each of whom has his taſk ſet him. Before a piece of porcelain is taken out of this to be carried to the furnace, it paſſes through more than twenty hands, and that without confuſion. They have no doubt found, that by this means the work is much more quickly carried on.

The firſt labour conſiſts in purifying again the petunſe and the kaolin, from the dregs which remain in them when they are ſold. They bruiſe the petunſe, and throw it into an urn full of water. Then they diſſolve it, by ſtirring it about with a large ſpatula. They let it reſt ſome moments, and take off what ſwims on the ſurface, and ſo of the reſt, in the manner above explained.

As for the pieces of kaolin, it is not neceſſary to break them. They only put them into a baſket, which they immerſe into an urn full of water. The kaolin is eaſily diſſolved of itſelf; there generally remains a ſediment, which muſt be thrown away. In a year's time the dregs are accumulated, and form great heaps of white ſand ſeparated from the kaolin. Thus prepared, there muſt be a juſt mixture of them. For fine porcelain, they put in as much kaolin as petunſe; for ordinary, they put four parts of kaolin to ſix of petunſe. The leaſt they ever put, are five parts of kaolin to three of petunſe.

After this firſt operation they throw this maſs into a large cavity, well paved and cemented every where. Then they tread upon it and knead it 'till it becomes thick.

From this maſs thus prepared, they take different pieces, which they extend upon large ſlates. On theſe they knead and form them into different ſhapes, taking care that there be no flaws therein, nor no mixtures of extraneous bodies; for a hair, or a grain of ſand, would ſpoil the whole work; for want of rightly managing this maſs, the porcelain ſplits, cracks, and warps. It is from theſe firſt elements, that we have ſo many beautiful works of porcelain, ſome of which are made on the wheel, others are only made upon moulds, and afterwards perfected by the chiſſel.

All the plain or ſmooth works are in the former manner. A cup, for example, when it comes off the wheel, is no more than a kind of imperfect cavity, almoſt like the crown of a hat before it is formed on the block. The workman firſt gives it the diameter and height he wants, and it comes out of his hands almoſt as ſoon as he has begun; for he has only three farthings Engliſh money for a ſhelf, and every ſhelf contains twenty-ſix pieces. The foot of the cup is at that time only a piece of earth of the bulk and diameter which it ought to be of, and which is hollowed out with the chiſſel when the cup is dry, and has acquired conſiſtency; that is, after it has received all it's ornaments.

This cup on coming from the wheel, is firſt received by another workman, who places it upon it's bottom. A little after it is given to a third, who applies it to it's mould, and gives it the ſame figure: this mould is a kind of turning-wheel.

A fourth poliſhes this cup with the chiſſel, eſpecially near the lips, to render it thin and tranſparent. He ſcrapes it ſeveral times, moiſtening it a little with water, if it is too dry, leſt it ſhould break. When the cup is taken off the mould, it muſt be rolled gently on the ſame mould, without preſſing more on one ſide than another; without which there will either be flaws in it, or it will warp. It is ſurprizing to ſee with what ſpeed and dexterity one of theſe cups paſſes through ſo many different hands. Some ſay, that a piece of porcelain has paſſed through the hands of ſeventy workmen.

The large pieces of porcelain are made at two different times. One half is raiſed on the wheel by three or four men, who ſupport it, each on the ſide next to him, to give it it's figure. The other half being almoſt dry, is applied and united to it, by the matter of the porcelain, diluted in water, which ſerves as a kind of mortar or cement. When theſe pieces thus united are entirely dry, they with a knife, ſcrape the internal and external ſides of the part where the union was, which, by means of the varniſh with which they cover it, becomes equal to the reſt.

It is in this manner, that they apply handles, ears, and other ornaments to veſſels. This principally regards the porcelain made upon moulds or by the hands, ſuch as ribbed pieces, or ſuch as are of a whimſical figure; ſuch as animals, idols, or buſts, which the Europeans beſpeak, or other things of a ſimilar nature. Theſe kinds of moulded works are made in three or four pieces, which they join to each other, and afterwards perfect with inſtruments proper to hollow, poliſh, and repair the different parts, which had eſcaped the mould.

As

As for their flowers, and other ornaments, which are not raiſed, but, as it were engraved, they are applied to the porcelain with ſeals and moulds. They alſo apply raiſed work prepared almoſt in the ſame manner, that gold lace is ſewed on a coat.

When they have the model of the piece of porcelain which is wanted, and which cannot be imitated on the wheel by the hands of the workmen, they apply over the model, earth proper for the moulds. This earth receives the impreſſion, and the mould is made of ſeveral pieces, each of which is pretty large. They ſuffer the mould to become hard, when the figure is imprinted on it. When they want to uſe it, they place it near the fire for ſome time; after which they fill it with porcelain, in proportion to the thickneſs they want to give it: they preſs with their hands on all parts, and then for a moment, preſent the mould to the fire. The imprinted figure is forthwith detached from the mould by the action of the fire, which a little conſumes the humidity that glued this matter to the mould. The different pieces of the whole drawn ſeparately are afterwards re-united, with the ſomewhat liquid matter of the porcelain. In this manner they make figures of animals, which are all ſolid. They leave this maſs to harden, give it the figure propoſed, perfect it with the chiſſel, or add the parts formed ſeparately. Theſe kinds of works are made with great care and pains. When the work is finiſhed, they lay on the varniſh and bake it. Then if they pleaſe, they paint it of various colours and gild it. Afterwards they bake it a ſecond time. Pieces of porcelain thus finiſhed, are ſold extremely dear. All theſe works ought to be defended from the cold; humidity makes them ſplit, when they are not dried equally, for which reaſon they ſometimes keep fires in theſe laboratories.

Theſe moulds are made of a fat yellow earth, which is found in a place near King-te-tching. This earth is kneaded, and where it is united, and becomes a little hard, they take a quantity of it neceſſary for the mould, and beat it ſtrongly; when they have given it the deſired figure, they dry it, and form it on the wheel.

This kind of work is ſold dear. In order ſpeedily to anſwer a commiſſion, they make a great quantity of moulds, that a vaſt number of labourers may be employed at once. If theſe moulds are taken care of, they laſt a long time. A merchant who has them ready for the porcelain-works, beſpoke by an European, may ſell his commodity better, and make a much more conſiderable gain than another who ſhould have them to make. If theſe moulds ſhould happen to crack, or have their ſurfaces ſplintered, they are no longer of any ſervice, except for porcelain of the ſame figure, but of a ſmaller ſize. In this caſe, they put them on the wheel and ſmooth them, that they may ſerve a ſecond time.

They often embelliſh their porcelain, by making it paſs through the hands of painters, who are not much richer than the other workmen. At this we need not be aſtoniſhed, ſince, except a few of them, they would only paſs in Europe for apprentices, who had been ſome months at the buſineſs. The whole ſcience of theſe, and of the Chineſe painters in general, is founded upon no principles, and only conſiſts in following a certain beaten track, aſſiſted with a narrow and confined imagination; they are ignorant of all the beautiful rules of this art: we muſt, however, confeſs that they paint flowers, animals, and landſkips, which are admired on the porcelain, as well as on ſcreens, and the window blinds of fine gauze.

The painting is divided in the ſame laboratory among a great number of hands. One only forms the firſt coloured circle near the edges of the china; the other traces the flowers, which a third paints; one is for rivers and mountains, another for birds, and another for animals; human figures are generally moſt mangled by them. Certain landſkips and plans of cities illuminated, carried from Europe to China, afford us the liberty of laughing at the Chineſe method of painting. As for the colours of the Chineſe painting, they are of all ſorts; the moſt common in Europe is of lively blue, on a white ground; there are ſome in which this ground reſembles that of a burning-glaſs: ſome are entirely red, and among thoſe ſome are coloured in oil, while others are of a blown red, and intermixed with ſmall points, almoſt like our water-colours. When theſe two works ſucceed to their perfection, which they rarely do, they are accounted extremely valuable, and are ſold at a great price.

There is ſome porcelain in which the landſkips are formed of a mixture of almoſt all ſorts of colours, heightened by the gilding: theſe are very beautiful, when of the right kind, but the ordinary porcelain of this ſort is not comparable to that painted with azure alone.

The annals of King-te-tchin ſay, that formerly the meaner people only uſed white porcelain; this probably happened becauſe they had not in the neighbourhood of Joa-tcheou, found a leſs valuable azure than that uſed for the fineſt porcelain, which is brought far, and ſold dear.

It is ſaid that a merchant who dealt in porcelain being ſhipwrecked on a deſert coaſt, found there much greater riches than he had loſt: as he wandered on the coaſt, while the crew were building a ſmall barque of the wrecks of the ſhip, he perceived that the ſtones proper for the moſt beautiful azure were very common there. He brought a large cargo with him; and it is ſaid that, by that means, there was never ſo beautiful an azure ſeen at King-te-tchin. The Chineſe merchant in vain attempted to find that coaſt again, on which he had been thrown by chance. The azure is prepared in the following manner: they bury it in gravel, which is about half a foot high in the furnace; here they bake it 24 hours; then they reduce it to an impalpable powder, as well as the other colours, not upon marble, but in large porcelain mortars, whoſe bottoms are without varniſh, as well as the peſtles employed to pound it.

The red colour is produced with copperas: they put a pound of copperas in a crucible, which they lute with another crucible, in the ſuperior end of which is a ſecond aperture, which is covered in ſuch a manner, that it may be eaſily uncovered, if neceſſity requires. They ſurround the whole with a large charcoal fire, and, that they may have the ſtronger reverberation of the heat, they encloſe the whole with bricks. So long as the ſmoke riſes very black, the matter is not duly prepared; but as ſoon as a ſmall cloud, fine and ſubtile ariſes, it is ſufficiently done. Then they take a little of this matter, dilute it in water, and make a trial of it upon a piece of board; if a beautiful red is produced by it, they remove the fire which ſurrounds it, and in part covers the crucible; when the whole is cold, they find a ſmall cake of this red at the bottom of the crucible, but the beſt red adheres to the ſuperior part of it. A pound of copperas yields four ounces of the red with which they paint the porcelain.

Though the porcelain is naturally white, and rendered ſtill more ſo by the varniſh, yet there are certain figures for which they apply a particular white upon the porcelain, which is painted of ſeveral colours. This white is made of the powder of tranſparent flints, which is calcined in the furnace, in the ſame manner as the azure. To half an ounce of this powder they add an ounce of ceruſs pulverized. For example, to make the green, to one ounce of ceruſs, and half an ounce of the powder of flints, they add three ounces of what they call tom-hoa-prien, which, according to all appearances, are the fineſt ſcoriæ of copper reduced to powder.

The prepared green becomes the matter of the violet, which is made by adding a proper quantity of white: they add more of the prepared green in proportion, as they want the violet more deep. The yellow is made by taking ſeven drachms of prepared white, to which they add three drachms of copperas. All the colours laid upon the porcelain already baked, after they are varniſhed, do not appear green, violet, red, or yellow, 'till they are baked a ſecond time. Theſe different colours are applied with ceruſs, ſalt-petre, and copperas; ſome ſay that they only employ ceruſs, which is mixed with the colour, when they diſſolve it in gum water.

The red colour in oil is produced by mixing the red tom-lonhum, or even the red I have mentioned, with the ordinary oil of porcelain, and another oil made of white flints, in the ſame manner with the firſt ſpecies of oil: ſeveral trials diſcover the particular quantity of each to be uſed; then they leave the porcelain to dry, and bake it in the ordinary furnace: if, after the baking, the red comes out pure and ſparkling, without the leaſt ſtain, they have attained then to the perfection of the art. Theſe kinds of porcelains do not ſound when they are ſtruck. The other ſpecies of blown red is made thus: they have the red prepared; they take a pipe, of which the apertures are covered with fine gauze; they gently apply the lower end of the pipe to the colour laid on the gauze, after which they blow into the pipe againſt the porcelain, which is, by that means, beautified with red ſpots. This ſort of porcelain is ſtill dearer and rarer than the preceding, becauſe the production of it is more difficult, if the workman obſerves all the requiſite proportion.

The black porcelain has alſo it's beauty and value: it is called oumien. The black is leaded, and reſembles that of our burning-glaſſes; the gold laid upon it renders it ſtill more agreeable. They give this black colour to the porcelain when it is dry; and, for this purpoſe, they mix an ounce of azure with ſeven ounces of the ordinary oil of ſtone: trials exactly teach the proportion of this mixture, according to the deeper or fainter colour they intend to give to the porcelain. When this colour is dry, they bake the porcelain, after which they lay on the gold, and bake it again in a particular furnace.

There is alſo a kind of porcelain made, which externally is all pierced, like pinking; in the middle is a cup proper to contain the liquor: the cup, however, is but one ſubſtance with the pinked work. There are other porcelains, on which the Chineſe or Tartar ladies are painted to the life; the drapery, the complexion, and the features, are all preſerved: at a diſtance theſe works are taken for enamel.

It is to be obſerved, that, when they lay no other oil on the porcelain than that of white flints, this porcelain is of a particular ſpecies, and is called tſou-tſchi; it is all marbled and croſſed in all directions, with an infinite number of veins. The colour which this oil gives is a white, ſomewhat cineritious. If the porcelain is all azured, and if they lay this oil on it, it will appear both cut and marbled when the colour is dry.

When they apply the gold they pound it, and diſſolve it in the bottom of a porcelain veſſel, 'till they ſee under the water, a ſmall canopy of gold. They ſuffer it to dry, and, when, they want to uſe it, they diſſolve a ſufficient quantity of it in gum-water. With thirty parts of gold they incorporate three parts of ceruſs, and lay it on the porcelain in the ſame manner with the other colours.

There is alſo a ſpecies of porcelain made in the following manner: they give it the ordinary varniſh, and bake it again; they ſometimes deſignedly delay the painting 'till after the firſt baking; ſometimes, alſo, they have recourſe to the ſecond baking, to conceal the faults of the porcelain, by applying colours to the defective places. This porcelain, which is full of colouring, is agreeable to the taſte of a great many people. It generally happens that we feel inequalities on this ſort of porcelain, and theſe have been neceſſary either to ſupply the ſhades of the painting, or cover the defect of the porcelain.

When the painting is dry, as well as the gilding, if there is any, they make piles of the porcelain, and putting the ſmall into the large veſſels, place them in the furnace.

Theſe furnaces may be of iron, when they are ſmall, but generally they are of earth. Some of them are as high as a man, and almoſt as wide as one of our largeſt hogſheads for wine. They are made of ſeveral pieces, of the ſame matter with the caſes for the porcelain; they are large pieces, about an inch thick, a foot high, and a foot and a half long.

Before they bake them, they give them a figure proper for becoming round; they are placed over each other, and well cemented. The bottom of the furnace is raiſed about a foot and a half above the ground, and placed upon two or three rows of thick, but not very broad bricks Round the furnace is a well-built incloſure of bricks, which at it's bottom has two or three air-holes, which ſerve as bellows to the fire. This incloſure is a foot and a half diſtance from the furnace, except in three or four places, which are filled up, and ſerve as ſupports to the furnace; they, at the ſame time, remove the furnace and the incloſure, without which the furnace cannot ſtand. They fill the furnace with the porcelain they want to bake a ſecond time, piling the ſmall into a large veſſel; when this is done, they cover the mouth of the furnace with pieces like thoſe of which it's ſides are built. Theſe pieces, whoſe edges are laid over each other, are cloſely united with mortar, or a kneaded earth fit for that purpoſe. They only leave an aperture in the middle, in order to obſerve when the porcelain is baked. They afterwards kindle a quantity of coals under the furnace; they alſo kindle coals on the covering, whence they throw the aſhes into the ſpaces between the incloſure of bricks and the furnace. The aperture at the top of the furnace is covered with a piece of a broken pot. When the fire is burning, they now and then look through this aperture, and, when the porcelain appears to be ſhining, and painted with briſk and lively colours, they remove the fire, and take out the porcelain.

There may naturally ariſe a thought concerning the colours which are incorporated with porcelain already baked and varniſhed with ceruſs, to which, according to the annals of Feouleam, they added ſalt-petre and copperas: if we employed ceruſs in the colours with which we paint the ſquares of glaſs, and afterwards give them a ſecond kind of baking, might not this ceruſs reſtore to us the ancient ſecret of painting glaſs, without deſtroying any thing of it's tranſparency? But this is only to be judged of by experience.

The Chineſe had formerly the art of painting, on the ſides of porcelain veſſels, fiſhes, and other animals, which were only perceptible when the veſſel was full of ſome liquor. They call this ſpecies kia-hin, that is, azure, is put in preſs on account of the manner in which the azure is laid on: this is all, that is retained of this ſecret; perhaps, in Europe, we may conjecture at what the Chineſs are ignorant of. The porcelain to be painted thus ought to be very thin; when it is dry, we ought to apply a pretty faint colour, not externally, as is uſual, but within on the ſides. They paint fiſh, as moſt proper to appear when the cup is filled with water. When the colour is once dry, they lay over it a ſlight bed of ſtrong but fine glue, made of the ſame earth as porcelain; this bed incloſes the azure between theſe two laminæ of earth. When the bed is dry they lay the varniſh on the inſide of the porcelain; ſome time after they put it on the mould and wheel. As it has received a body in the inſide, they render it externally as ſlender as poſſible, without penetrating to the colour. Then we muſt put the outſide of the porcelain into the varniſh, and, when the whole is dry, they bake it in the common furnace. This labour is extremely nice, and requires a dexterity of which the Chineſe are no longer maſters; they are, however, every now and then trying to recover the art of this magical painting, but to no purpoſe.

Be this as it will, we may at preſent ſay, that the beautiful azure appears again upon the porcelain, after having diſappeared for ſome time. When it is firſt applied, it is of a paliſh black colour; when it is dry, and has received the varniſh, it is totally eclipſed, and the porcelain appears white; the colours are then buried under the varniſh; the fire makes them blow, almoſt in the ſame manner as the natural heat brings out the moſt beautiful butterflies, with all their variety of colours. It is to be obſerved, that, before the varniſh is laid upon the porcelain, it is to be poliſhed, and it's irregularities removed: for this purpoſe, they uſe a pencil made of very fine feathers, which they moiſten a little with water, and paſs every where with a gentle hand.

Beſides, there is great art in the manner of laying the varniſh on the porcelain, both in putting on a ſufficient quantity, and ſpreading it equally on all parts. To very thin and ſlender porcelain they give, at two different times, two ſlight beds of varniſh, for, if theſe beds were too thick, the weak ſides of the cup would not bear them, but bend immediately. Theſe two beds are as good as an ordinary varniſh, which they give the fine and ſtrong china: they lay on the one by impreſſion, and the other by immerſion. At firſt they take the cup in one hand, on the outſide, and holding it ſlopingly over the urn where the varniſh is, they with the other throw as much into it as is ſufficient to varniſh it every where; this is done ſucceſſively to a vaſt number of cups. When they are dry within, they varniſh the outſide in the following manner: they hold one hand on the cup, and ſupporting it with a ſmall ſtick under the middle of it's bottom, they plunge it into the veſſel full of varniſh, and immediately take it out; it is to be remembered, that the foot of the cup remains ſolid: in a word, it is not 'till it has received the varniſh and becomes dry, that they put it upon the wheel to hollow the bottom; after which, they paint upon it a ſmall circle, and often a Chineſe letter. When this painting is dry, they varniſh the cavity they have made under the cup, and this is the laſt hand put to it, ſince it is forthwith carried from the laboratory to the furnace to be baked.

The place where the furnaces are, preſents us with another ſcene. In a kind of area, or entry, before each furnace, we ſee heaps of caſes, deſtined to contain the porcelain: every piece of porcelain, however coarſe, as well thoſe which have lids as thoſe which have not, has it's caſe. Theſe lids are but weakly attached to the lower part in baking, and are eaſily diſengaged by a ſmall ſtroke which they give them. As for the ſmall porcelain-ware, ſuch as tea and chocolate-cups, they have a caſe common to many of them. The workman in this imitates nature, who, in order to concoct and maturate fruits, includes them under a common covering, that the heat of the ſun may only penetrate them gradually, and that it's internal action may not be too much interrupted by the external air, during the cold damps of the night.

Theſe caſes have in the inſide a kind of bed of ſand, which is covered with the powder of koalin, that the ſand may not adhere too much to the foot of the cup, which is placed upon this bed, after having preſſed it, and given it the figure of the porcelain, which does not touch the ſides of the caſe: the mouth of the caſe has no covering. A ſecond caſe, of the figure of the firſt, furniſhed in like manner with porcelain, is ſo fitted into it, as to cover it intirely, without touching the porcelain below. In this manner they fill the furnace with large piles of earthen caſes, all furniſhed with porcelain. By means of thoſe thick coverings, the beauty, and, if we may uſe the expreſſion, the complexion of the porcelain, is not defaced by the fire.

With reſpect to the ſmall pieces of porcelain, which are contained in large round caſes, each of which is placed upon a ſupporter of earth, about the thickneſs of two crowns, and as wide as it's foot, the bottoms of theſe are alſo covered with the powder of koalin. When theſe caſes are large, they put no porcelain in the middle, becauſe it would be too far from the ſides, by which means, the caſe being deſtitute of due ſtrength, would break and fall down, and endanger the whole pile. We muſt obſerve, that theſe caſes are the third of a foot in height, and ſome of them are not baked no more than the porcelain; however, they intirely fill thoſe which have been already baked, and are ſtill fit for uſe.

We muſt not forget the manner in which the porcelain is put into theſe caſes. The workman does not touch it immediately with his hands, for, by that means, he might either break it, or produce irregularities in it; he draws it from off the plate by means of a ſmall cord; this cord is fixed at one end to two ſomewhat crooked branches of a fork of wood, which he takes in one hand, while with the other he holds the two ends of the cord, croſſed and open, according to the bulk of the porcelain. In this manner he ſurrounds it, raiſes it gently, and places it on the ſmall pedeſtal in the caſe. All this is done with incredible expedition.

We have already obſerved, that the bottom of the furnace is covered with a bed of gravel, a foot and a half thick; this gravel is deſigned for the more ſecurely placing the piles of porcelain, whoſe rows, which are in the middle of the furnace, are at leaſt ſeven feet high. The two caſes at the foot of each pile are empty, becauſe the fire does not act ſufficiently below, and becauſe they are in ſome meaſure covered by the gravel: for the ſame reaſon, the caſe placed at the top of the pile is left empty. In this manner they fill the whole furnace, leaving no vacuity, except at the place which is immediately under the vent.

In the middle of the furnace they place the piles of the fineſt porcelain, at the bottom ſuch as are coarſer, and at the entry ſuch as are of a deeper colour, which are compoſed of an equal quantity of petunſe and kaolin, and on which they have laid a varniſh made of the ſtone which has ſpots a little black or red, becauſe that oil has a ſtronger body than the other. All theſe piles are placed very near each other, and united below, above, and at the middle, with ſome pieces of earth which they apply to them in ſuch a manner, however, that the flame has a free paſſage to inſinuate itſelf equally on all ſides. This depends on the eye and dexterity of the workman, and is abſoluely neceſſary to ſucceed in his attempt, and avoid certain accidents, nearly ſimilar to thoſe which ariſe from obſtructions in the animal body.

All earths are not proper for the caſes which contain the porcelain. There are three ſorts uſed; the one is yellow, and very common; it is uſed in the greateſt quantity, and conſtitutes the baſe. The other is called laotu, that is, a ſtrong earth. The third, which is an oleous earth, is called yeoutou. Theſe two laſt earths are in the winter-time taken from very deep mines, where it is not poſſible to work during the ſummer: if they were mixed with equal quantities, which would coſt a little more, the caſes would laſt longer. They bring theſe earths ready prepared, from a large village at the foot of the river, about a league from King-te-tching. Before they are baked they are yellowiſh; but, when baked, they are of a dark red colour: as the workmen are very ſparing, they put in moſt of the yellow earth, which is the reaſon why the caſes do not laſt above two or three bakings, after which they ſplit altogether; if they are but ſlightly ſplit, they tie them round with a band of oſiers: the band is burned, but the caſe ſerves for that time, without doing any harm to the porcelain. They muſt not fill a furnace with new caſes, which have not been uſed before; the half of them muſt be ſuch as have been baked before: theſe are placed at top and bottom; in the middle of the piles they place ſuch as are new made. Formerly, according to the Hiſtory of Feou-leam, all the caſes were baked ſeparately in a furnace, before they were uſed for baking the porcelain; no doubt, becauſe at that time, they had leſs regard to the expence than to the perfection of the work: it is not ſo at preſent, becauſe the workers in porcelain are multiplied to an incredible number.

We ſhall now conſider the ſtructure of the furnaces. They are placed at the bottom of a pretty long entry, which ſerves as a bellows to them, and is of the ſame uſe as the arch of a glaſs-founder's. The furnaces are, at preſent, larger than they were ſome years ago, ſince in former times, according to the Chineſe books, they were only ſix feet in breadth and heighth; at preſent they are two fathoms high, and almoſt four fathoms broad. The arch as well as the body of the furnace, is pretty thick, that they may be able to walk upon it, without being incommoded by the fire. This arch, in the inſide, is neither flat, nor formed into a point, but runs ſlanting, and grows narrower in proportion as it approaches the great vent, which is at the extremity, and through which the flames and ſmoke are diſcharged. Beſides this vent, the furnace has in it's top five ſmall apertures, which are, as it were, the eyes of it; they cover them with ſome broken pots, in ſuch a manner, however, that they aſſiſt the air and fire of the furnace; it is by theſe eyes that they judge whether the porcelain is baked enough: they uncover the eye which is a little before the great vent, and with iron tongs open one of the caſes. The porcelain is enough baked when there is a clear fire in the furnace, and when all the caſes are red-hot, and when the colours are bright and clear: then they diſcontinue the fire, and cloſe up the door of the furnace for ſome time; the furnace having a deep fire all over it. They paſs over a plank into the cavity of the furnace, in order to range the porcelain. When they have kindled the fire, they forthwith ſhut the door, leaving in it an aperture neceſſary to throw in pieces of wood a foot long, but very ſmall. They firſt heat the furnace for a day and a night: then two men, who relieve each other, conſtantly throw wood into it; for one baking they generally burn four-ſcore loads. To judge of this matter by what the Chineſe book ſays, that quantity cannot be ſufficient: in it we are aſſured that they burned 240 loads for this purpoſe, and 20 more if the weather was rainy, though at that time the furnaces were ſmaller by one half than thoſe uſed at preſent. They at firſt kept up a gentle fire in them for ſeven days and ſeven nights, and on the eighth day made a very ſtrong fire. It is to be obſerved, that at this time the caſes of the ſmall porcelain were baked apart, before they were put into the furnace; it muſt alſo be owned, that the ancient porcelain had more ſubſtance than the modern.

The old workers alſo obſerved one thing, which is neglected at preſent; when there was no more fire in the furnace, they did not open the door 'till after five days, for the ſmall: at preſent, indeed, they delay opening the door, and taking out the large porcelain, for ſome days, for without this precaution they would ſplit; but for the ſmall, if the fire has been extinguiſhed in the evening, they take them out the next day: the deſign is probably to ſpare wood for the next baking. As the porcelain is exceſſively hot, the workman, in order to lay hold of it, uſes long ſlings hung about his neck.

After having in one day burnt a hundred and four-ſcore loads of wood in the entry of the furnace, it is ſurprizing that the next day no aſhes ſhould be found. They who attend theſe furnaces muſt be well accuſtomed to the fire: it is ſaid they put ſalt into their tea, that they may drink as much of it as they pleaſe, without being the worſe; but it is not eaſy to comprehend how this ſalted liquor allays their thirſt.

After what has been ſaid, it is not ſurprizing that porcelain ſhould be ſo dear in Europe. It is alſo to be obſerved, that, beſides the great gain of the European merchants, and that which their Chineſe commiſſioners make of them, it is rare that a baking ſucceeds entirely, that often the whole is loſt, and that, on opening the furnace, they find the porcelain and caſes reduced to a maſs as hard as a rock; and too great a fire, or ill-tempered caſes, may deſtroy the whole; that it is not eaſy to regulate the fire which ought to be applied; that the nature of the weather inſtantaneouſly changes the action of the fire, the quality of the ſubject on which it acts, and that of the wood which ſupports it. Thus for one workman who becomes rich, there are an hundred others who ruin themſelves, and tempt fortune, from the hopes they have of amaſſing wherewithal to ſet up a merchant's ſhop.

Beſides, the porcelain tranſported into Europe is almoſt all made upon new models, which are often whimſical, and in which it is difficult to ſucceed; provided it has but the ſmalleſt fault, it is diſliked by the Europeans, who will have nothing but what is perfect; for this reaſon, it remains in the hands of the workman, who cannot ſell it to the Chineſe, becauſe it is not agreeable to their taſte: it is, therefore, neceſſary, that the pieces ſold ſhould defray the expence of ſuch as are rejected.

According to the Hiſtory of King-te-tching, the gain formerly ariſing from porcelain was much greater than at preſent. This can hardly be believed, for there was not at that time ſo great a vent for porcelain in Europe. This happens becauſe the living is at preſent dearer than before; becauſe the wood in the neighbouring mountains being exhauſted, they are obliged to bring it a great way, and at a vaſt expence, becauſe the profit is divided among ſo many different perſons; and laſtly, becauſe the workmen are leſs ſkilful than they were in former times, and conſequently leſs certain in ſucceeding. This may alſo proceed from the avarice of the mandarins, who employing a great many workmen, make rich preſents to their protectors at court, and pay the labourers ill, which are ſufficient reaſons why the merchandize ſhould be dear, and the merchant poor.

The difficulty of imitating certain models ſent from Europe, is one of the circumſtances which augment the price of porcelain; for all the workmen cannot labour upon all the models ſent from foreign countries: ſome of them are impoſſible to be imitated in China, juſt as ſome of their works ſurprize ſtrangers, and are thought impoſſible to be done.

The following are ſome examples of this: we there ſee a large porcelain lanthorn, through which a flambeau enlightens a whole room. This work had been beſpoke by the hereditary prince, who alſo beſpoke ſeveral muſical inſtruments, and, among the reſt, a kind of ſmall organ, called t-ſeng, which is near a foot high, and compoſed of fourteen pipes, whoſe melody is very agreeable. They ſucceed perfectly in flutes, flagelets, and another inſtrument called yun-lo, which is compoſed of ſeveral ſmall, round, and ſomewhat concave plates, each of which has a particular ſound; they ſuſpend nine of them in a ſquare, which correſponds to ſo many different ſtages, which are touched with ſticks, like the drum: there is a ſmall chime, which agrees with the ſound of other inſtruments, and imitates voices. It is neceſſary, they ſay, to make a great many experiments, in order to diſcover the thickneſs, and the degree of baking proper for the tones neceſſary for harmony.

To return to ſuch of the Chineſe works as are curious. They ſucceed principally in groteſque pieces, and the figures of animals. The workmen make ducks and tortoiſes, which float upon the water; they make cats, painted in the natural manner, which upon their heads carry a ſmall lamp, the flame whereof forms the two eyes of the animal; by this means the rats are frighted in the night-time. They alſo make a great many ſtatues of Kouañ-in, a goddeſs celebrated in China; they repreſent her holding an infant in her arms, and ſhe is invoked by barren women who want to have children: ſhe may be compared to the antique ſtatues which we have of Venus and Diana; with this difference, that the ſtatues of Kouan-in are very modeſt.

There is another kind of porcelain, the making of which is very difficult, and is, therefore, very uncommon. The body of this porcelain is extremely thin, and it's ſurface very even, both within and without; it has mouldings, however, in it, groups of flowers, for example, and other ſimilar ornaments. It is made in the following manner: when it is taken off the wheel, they put on a mould, on which the figures are engraved, and theſe are imprinted on the inſide; they render it as ſmooth and fine externally as poſſible, working

ing it with the chiſſel, after which they varniſh and bake it in the ordinary furnace.

The European merchants ſometimes deſire the Chineſe workmen to give them plates of china for tables, the ſeats of chairs, or the frames of pictures; but theſe cannot be had: the largeſt and longeſt plates are about a foot ſquare; if they are made larger, let them be as thick as they will, they warp. For this reaſon, inſtead of making theſe plates thick, they make them with two ſurfaces, which they unite, leaving the inſide hollow: in the two ſides they make two apertures, to enchaſe them in joiner's works, or in the backs of chairs, where they make an agreeable appearance.

The Hiſtory of King-te-tching ſpeaks of ſeveral works ordered by the emperors, which they in vain attempted to make. The grandfather of this preſent emperor beſpoke urns, almoſt of the ſame figure with thoſe pots in which we put orange-trees; theſe urns he wanted to contain ſmall red, gold, and ſilver-coloured fiſh, which are accounted curioſities. Perhaps he alſo intended to bathe in theſe veſſels, for they were to have been three feet and a half diameter, and two feet and a half high; the bottom was to have been half a foot thick, and the ſides a third of a foot in thickneſs. The workmen laboured three years ſucceſſively at theſe veſſels, and made two hundred, none of which ſucceeded. The ſame emperor ordered plates for the porch of an open gallery; every plate was to be three feet high, two feet and an half broad, and half a foot thick. All theſe things, ſay the Annals of King-te-tching, could not be made; for which reaſon the mandarins of that province petitioned the emperor to have the work diſcontinued.

As every profeſſion has it's idol, and as divinity is there as eaſily communicated as the quality of count and marquis in Europe, it is not ſurpriſing that there ſhould be a god of porcelain. The Pouſa, which is the name of this idol, owes it's origin to theſe deſigns which the workmen cannot execute. It is ſaid, that formerly an emperor would abſolutely have porcelain upon a model which he gave. It was repreſented to him, that the thing was impoſſible; but all remonſtrances only excited his curioſity.

As porcelain has been in great eſteem for ſo many ages, perhaps the reader may want to know wherein that of former times differs from the preſent, and what the judgment of the Chineſe is in this particular. It is not to be doubted but China has its antiquaries, who are prepoſſeſſed in favour of their ancient works. Though the Chineſe are certainly admirers of antiquity, yet ſome of them ſtand up in defence of the modern works. But the porcelain does not, like old medals, give us an acquaintance with remote times.

The old porcelain may be adorned with ſome Chineſe characters, which, however, denote no point of hiſtory; ſo that the curious find nothing in it but the taſte and colours, to make them prefer it to that of the preſent days. It is ſaid in Europe, that porcelain muſt be long buried in the earth before it arrives at it's perfection. This is a falſe opinion, at which the Chineſe laugh. The Hiſtory of King-te-tching, ſpeaking of the moſt beautiful porcelain of former times, ſays, that it was ſo much ſought after, that the furnace was hardly opened, 'till the merchants were diſputing with each other, who ſhould have the firſt parcel. This by no means ſuppoſes that it was buried in the earth.

It is true, in digging in the ruins of old buildings, and eſpecially in cleaning old wells, there are ſometimes beautiful pieces of China found, which have been hid during revolutions in the ſtate. This porcelain is beautiful, becauſe the inhabitants only hid what was valuable, that they might find it again when the troubles were at an end. If it is eſteemed, it is not becauſe it has acquired any new degree of beauty in the earth, but becauſe it has retained it's ancient luſtre; and this alone is of great importance in China, where they give large ſums for the ſmalleſt veſſels, which were uſed under the emperors Yan and Chun, who reigned many ages before the dynaſty of Tang, at which time porcelain began to be uſed by the emperors. All that porcelain acquires by lying long in the earth, is ſome change in it's colouring or complexion, which ſhews that it is old. The ſame happens to marbles and ivory, but more ſpeedily; becauſe the varniſh hinders the moiſture from inſinuating itſelf ſo eaſily into the porcelain.

According to the annals of King-te-tching, there were formerly urns ſold at fifty-eight, or fifty-nine taels, which amount to more than eighty crowns. What an immenſe ſum muſt theſe have been worth in Europe?

Certain mandarins, to their protectors at court, make preſents of old porcelain, which they have the talent of making themſelves; that is, they have found the art of imitating ancient porcelain, or at leaſt ſuch as is pretty old. The matter of theſe falſe koutongs, or counterfeit antiques, is a yellow earth, found near King-te-tching. A plate of this earth weighs as much as ten porcelain ones of the ſame ſize. There is nothing particular in making this kind of porcelain, if not that they give it a varniſh made of yellow ſtone, mixed with ordinary oil, which prevails moſt in the compoſition. This mixture gives the porcelain a ſea-green colour. When it is baked, they throw it into a very rich broth, of fowls and other victuals, in which it is boiled. After this they put it into the filthieſt ſink they can find, and there leave it a month or more. When it comes out of this ſink, it paſſes for three or four hundred years old, or at leaſt as old as the dynaſty of Ming; when the porcelain of this colour and thickneſs was much eſteemed at court.

Theſe ſpurious antiques likewiſe reſemble the genuine ones in this, that when they are ſtruck, they do not ſound, and when they are applied to the ear, they produce no humming noiſe.

The natives of China are almoſt as curious about glaſſes and cryſtals which come from Europe, as the Europeans are of the Chineſe porcelains; but, whatever eſteem the Chineſe have for our commodities of this kind, they do not croſs the ſeas for European glaſſes, finding their own porcelain of more uſe, becauſe it bears hot liquors.

The method of giving a luſtre to the gold laid on porcelain; the different kinds of varniſhes and colours given to the porcelain; the method of preparing theſe varniſhes and colours; new deſigns of porcelain works; manner of emboſſing porcelain.

As gold laid upon porcelain is, in proceſs of time, effaced, and loſes a great deal of it's luſtre, they reſtore it's ſplendor by wetting the porcelain with pure water, and rubbing it with an agate-ſtone; but they muſt take care to rub the veſſel in the ſame direction, for example, from the right to the left.

The lips of the porcelain are principally ſubject to ſcale off. To remedy this inconveniency, they fortify them with a certain quantity of bamboo-coal pounded, which they mix with the varniſh that is laid on the porcelain, and which gives it a grey, or cineritious colour. Then, with the pincers, they make a border of this mixture round the porcelain already dry, putting it on the wheel. When it is time, they apply the varniſh to the border, as they do to the reſt of the porcelain; and when it is baked, the edges are extremely white. As there is no bamboo in Europe, it's place may be ſupplied by willow-coal, or rather that of alder, which more approaches to bamboo.

It is to be obſerved, Firſt, That, before the bamboo is reduced to coal, it's green ſkin muſt be taken off, becauſe the aſhes of that ſkin make the porcelain break in the furnace. Secondly, That the workman ought not to touch the porcelain with greaſy or oily hands, ſince by this means the part touched, would infallibly crack in the baking.

In blowing the colours of red and blue upon the porcelain, the latter is more eaſily done. The Chineſe workmen agree, that if it was not too expenſive, they could blow gold and ſilver upon porcelain, of a black or blue ground, as they do a red or blue; that is, diffuſe gold or ſilver equally all over it. This ſort of porcelain, of a new taſte, could not fail to pleaſe.

They blow the varniſh as well as the red. They have, for the emperor, made works ſo delicate and fine, and they were obliged to place them on cotton, becauſe they could not handle pieces ſo tender, without danger of breaking them; and, as it is not poſſible to plunge them in the varniſh, without touching them with the hand, they blow the varniſh upon them.

It is to be obſerved, that in blowing the blue, the workmen take a precaution to preſerve the colour which does not fall on the china, and to loſe as little of it as poſſible. This precaution is to place the veſſel on a pedeſtal, poſited over a large piece of paper, which ſerves for ſome time. When the azure is dry, they take it off, by rubbing the paper with a ſmall bruſh.

They have likewiſe found a new ſubſtance, proper to enter the compoſition of porcelain. This is a ſtone, or ſpecies of chalk, called hoache, which the Chineſe phyſicians uſe in a ptiſan, which they ſay removes wearineſs, is aperient and refreſhing. They take ſix parts of this ſtone, and ſix of liquorice, which they pulveriſe. They put half a ſpoonful of this powder into a large draught of freſh water, which they order the patient to drink.

They pretend that this ptiſan refreſhes the blood, and temperates internal heats. The workers of porcelain have thought fit to employ this ſtone inſtead of the kaolin. Perhaps ſuch parts of Europe, where kaolin cannot be found, may furniſh the ſtone hoache. It is called hoa, becauſe it is glutinous, and reſembles ſoap.

The porcelain made of hoache is rare, and much dearer than the other kinds. It has an extremely fine grain; and, with reſpect to the work of the pencil, if we compare it with the ordinary porcelain, it is almoſt what vellum is to paper.

Beſides, this porcelain is extremely light, which ſurpriſes a perſon accuſtomed to handle other porcelains. It is alſo more brittle than the common ſort, and the true degree of baking it is very hard to be hit upon.

Some workmen do not uſe the hoache for the body of their work, but make a thin glue of it, in which they dip the porce-

lain

lain when dry, before it receives the colours and the varniſh, by which means it acquires ſome degree of beauty.

They uſe the hoache in the following manner. Firſt, When they have taken it from the mine, they waſh it with river or rain water, to ſeparate it from the yellow earth which adheres to it. Secondly, They break it, and put it into a veſſel to diſſolve; after which, they prepare it in the ſame manner with the kaolin. They affirm, that porcelain may be made of the hoache alone, without any other mixture. Some Chineſe workmen, however, ſay, that to eight parts of hoache, they put two of petunſe; and that in other reſpects they proceed in the ſame manner as in making ordinary porcelain with petunſe and kaolin.

In this new ſpecies of porcelain the hoache is in place of the kaolin, but it is much dearer than the other. The load of kaolin coſts only twenty pence, whereas that of hoache comes to a crown. Thus it is not ſurpriſing, that this ſhould be ſold dearer than the common porcelain.

There is another obſervation to be made on the hoache; when they prepare it, and form it into ſmall ſquares, like the petunſe, they diſſolve in water a certain quantity of theſe ſquares, of which they form a very clear glue or cement. In this they dip the pencil, and draw various deſigns on the porcelain; and when it is dry they give it the varniſh. When the porcelain is baked, we perceive theſe deſigns to be of a different white from the reſt. They ſeem to be a delicate ſteam ſpread on the ſurface. The white of the hoache is called ſiamyape, or ivory white.

They paint figures on porcelain with chekao, as well as with hoache, which gives it another ſpecies of white colour; but the chekao has this peculiar to itſelf, that before it is prepared like the hoache, it muſt be toaſted on the hearth; after which it is broken, and prepared in the ſame manner with the hoache. They throw it into a veſſel full of water, and agitate it there. They, at different times take off the cream which floats upon it; and when all this is done, they find a pure maſs, which they employ in the ſame manner as the purified hoache. The chekao cannot ſerve as the body of the porcelain. Hitherto, nothing but the hoache has been found to ſupply the place of the kaolin, and give ſolidity to the porcelain. If, according to the Chineſe workmen, they were to put more than two parts of the petunſe to two parts of the hoache, the porcelain would infallibly be deſtroyed in baking, becauſe it's parts are not ſufficiently united.

We have not as yet ſpoken of a kind of varniſh, called tſe-kin-yeou, that is, burniſhed varniſh of gold. We might rather call it varniſh of a bronze, or coffee-colour, or of the colour of a withered leaf. This varniſh is of a late invention, and in order to make it, they take common yellow earth, and manage it in the ſame manner they do the petunſe. When it is prepared, they employ only the moſt delicate part of it, which they thow into water, and which forms a glue, as liquid as the ordinary varniſh, called peyeou, which is made of pieces of rocks. Theſe two varniſhes, the peyeou and the tſe-kin, are mixed together, and for this purpoſe they ought to be rendered equally liquid. Of this they make a trial, by plunging the petunſe into both; and if each of the varniſhes penetrates it's petunſe, they judge them equally liquid, and proper to incorporate with each other. They alſo mix with the tſe-kin, varniſh or oil of quick lime, and aſhes of fern, and of the ſame liquidity with the peyeou; but they mix more or leſs of theſe varniſhes with the tſe-kin, according as they want it, deeper or fainter. This may be known by ſeveral trials; for example, mix two cupfuls of the tſe-kin, with eight of the peyeou; then, to four cupfuls of this mixture, add one cupful of the varniſh of lime and fern. It is not long ſince they found the ſecret of painting the porcelain with tfoui, which is of a violet colour, and gilding it. They have tried to make a mixture of gold leaf with the varniſh and power of flints, which they applied in the ſame manner as the red, with oil; but this varniſh does not ſucceed, and they have found that the varniſh of the tſe-kin had more beauty and ſplendor.

Formerly they made cups, to which they gave the outſide a gilded varniſh, and the inſide the pure white varniſh. They afterwards varied, and to a cup or veſſel they intended to varniſh, they in one or two parts applied a ſquare or circle of paper; and after having laid on the varniſh, they raiſed the paper, and painted the unvarniſhed ſpace red or blue. When the porcelain was dry, they gave it the uſual varniſh, whether by blowing or otherwiſe. Some fill theſe empty ſpaces with a ground of blue or black, in order to apply the gilding after the firſt baking. In this reſpect we may imagine ſeveral combinations, according to our fancy.

They have alſo invented a new ſort of porcelain, which is of an olive colour, and which they call long-tſiven. This ſpecies was formerly called tſinko, the name of a fruit among them, whoſe colour reſembles that of olives. This colour is given to the porcelain, by mixing 7 cups of the varniſh called tſe-kin, with four cups of peyeou, two cups, or thereabouts, of the oil of quick lime and fern, and one of tſouyeou, which is an oil obtained from flint. The tſouyeou makes a large quantity of veins appear on the porcelain. When they uſe it alone, the porcelain is brittle, and without ſound when ſtruck; but when it is mixed with the other varniſhes, it is variegated by beautiful ſmall veins, and neither renders the porcelain leſs ſonorous, nor more brittle than the common ſort.

We muſt not omit one thing, which is, that before they give the varniſh to the porcelain, they poliſh it, and ſmooth all it's ſmalleſt inequalities. This is done by a pencil made of very fine feathers, which they moiſten with water, and gently paſs it over the whole; but it is principally with the fine china that they uſe ſo much pains.

The ſhining or reflecting black, is given to the porcelain by plunging it in a liquid mixture compoſed of prepared azure. In this caſe it is not neceſſary to employ the fineſt azure, but the compoſition muſt be a little thick, and mixed with the varniſh of peyeou and tſe-kin, adding a little of the oil of lime, and of the aſhes of fern. For example, with ten ounces of azure, pounded in a mortar, we muſt mix one cup of tſe-kin, one cup of peyeou, and two cups of the oil of fern, burnt with quick lime.

This mixture carries it's varniſh with it, ſo that it is not neceſſary to give it another. When they bake this ſpecies of black china, they place it in the middle of the furnace, and not near the vault, where the fire has the greateſt force.

It is not true, that the red laid on with oil, called the yeou-ci-hunc, is drawn from the red of copperas, ſuch as that which is employed in painting their baked pocelain red. This red laid on with oil, is made of the grains of red copper, and of the powder of a certain ſtone or flint of a reddiſh caſt. It is thought that this ſtone is a kind of allum employed in medicine. The whole is pounded in a mortar, along with the urine of a young man, and the oil of peyeou. This mixture is applied to the porcelain before it is baked, and they give it no other varniſh. They muſt take care, during the baking that the red colour falls not to the bottom of the veſſel. The Chineſe workmen ſay, that when they want to give this red to the porcelain, they do not make uſe of the petunſe to form it; but that, in it's ſtead, they employ, together with the kaolin, a yellow earth, prepared in the ſame manner with the petunſe. It is probable that ſuch an earth is more proper to receive this kind of colour.

Perhaps the reader will be glad to know how the grains of copper are prepared. In China there is no ſilver coin, ſince in commerce they uſe it in lumps, and there are a great many pieces bad. There are, however, certain occaſions on which it is neceſſary to refine theſe bad pieces, when, for example, taxes or ſimilar contributions are to be paid.

Then they have recourſe to workmen, whoſe only buſineſs it is to refine the ſilver in furnaces made for that purpoſe, and to ſeparate it from the copper and lead. Before the melted copper is hardened and congealed, they take a ſmall broom, which they dip ſlightly in water; then, by ſtriking on the handle of the broom, they ſprinkle the melted copper with water. A pellicule is formed on the ſurface, which they take off with iron pincers, and plunge it in cold water, where the grains are formed, and multiplied in proportion as they reiterate the operation. It is evident, that if they employed aqua fortis to diſſolve their copper, the powder would be more proper for making the colour of which we ſpeak. But the Chineſe are unacquainted with aqua fortis and aqua regia, and their inventions are all extremely ſimple.

They have executed deſigns which were thought impracticable. Theſe are urns, as before-mentioned, three feet high and more without the cover, which riſe a foot high, like a pyramid. Theſe urns conſiſt of three different pieces, ſo elegantly joined, that they ſeem to make but one.

There are alſo pieces of porcelain, which they call yao-pien, which ſignifies tranſmutation. This tranſmutation is cauſed either by the defect or exceſs of the heat, or by other cauſes, which are not eaſily diſcovered.

Theſe pieces, which have not ſucceeded agreeably to the intention of the workman, and are the pure effects of chance, are not leſs beautiful and valuable than the others.

A workman intended to make veſſels with red flowers blown; a hundred pieces were entirely loſt, while only one came out of the furnace, perfectly like a ſpecies of agat.

If they would run the riſk, and be at the expence of different trials, they might effectually diſcover the art of making, what chance at that time produced. For this reaſon, they have thought fit to make porcelain of a ſhining black, which they call oukom. The caprice of the furnace has determined them to this reſearch, in which they have ſucceeded.

When they want to give a varniſh, which renders porcelain extremly white, they add to thirteen cups of peyeou, one cup of the oil of fern aſhes, as liquid as the peyeou. This varniſh is ſtrong, and ought not to be given to the porcelain which is to be painted blue; becauſe, after baking, the colour would not appear through the varniſh. The porcelain which has got the ſtrongeſt varniſh, may without any dread, be expoſed to the greateſt heat of the furnace. Thus they bake it all white, either with a view to keep it in that colour, or to gild it, or paint it in different colours, and then bake it a ſecond time. But when they want to paint porcelain blue, with a deſign that the colour ſhould appear after the baking, they only take ſeven cups of peyeou, with one cup of varniſh, or of the mixture of lime and fern aſhes.

It is to be obſerved in general, that the porcelain, whoſe varniſh contains a grear deal of fern aſhes, ought to be baked in the moſt temperate part of the furnace; that is, either after the three firſt ranks, or at the botrom, about the foot, or a foot and a half high. If it was baked at the top of the furnace, the fern aſhes would be fuſed with precipitation, and fall to the bottom of the porcelain. The caſe is the ſame with the red laid on with oil, the blown red, and the long-tſiven, on account of the grains of copper contained in theſe varniſhes: on the contrary, in the top of the furnace they bake the porcelain, to which they have only given the tſoui-yeon, which is the varniſh that gives the porcelain ſo many viens, that it ſeems to conſiſt of pieces joined tngether.

The red of copperas, laid on the rebaked porcelains, is made in like manner with copperas called tſa-fan. But before we give the method of compoſing this colour, we ſhall firſt explain the proportion and meaſure of the Chineſe weights. The kin, or Chineſe pound, conſiſts of ſixteen ounces, which they call leams or taels.

The leam or tael is a Chineſe ounce.

The tſien or mas, is the tenth part of the leam or tael.

The fuen is the tenth part of the tſien or mas.

The by is the tenth part of the ſuen.

The hoa is the tenth part of the by.

To a leam or tael of ceruſs, they add two maſs of this red. They paſs the ceruſs and the red through a ſieve, and mix them together dry; then they incorporate them with water impregnated with common glue, reduced to the conſiſtence of mouth-glue.

This glue fixes the red to the porcelain, and prevents its melting. As the colours, if laid on too thick, would produce inequalities on the ſurface, they now and then dip the pencil in water, and tſen in the colour which they intend to uſe.

In order to obtain a white colour, to a leam of ceruſs they add three mas, and three fuen of the powder of the moſt tranſparent flint calcined, after having luted them in a veſſel of porcelain, which they bury in the ſand of the furnace before they heat it. This powder ought to be impalpable. They uſe ſimple water, wirhout any mixture of glue, in order to incorporate it with the ceruſs.

In order alſo to make the deep green, they add to one teal of ceruſs, three mas and three fuen of the powder of flint, with eight fuen, or near a maſs of tom hoa-pien, to make the green. They muſt waſh it well, and carefully ſeparate the grains of copper which are mixed with it, and which are not proper for the green. They only employ the ſcoriæ, that is to ſay, the parts of the metal which are ſeparated when they work it.

As for the yellow colour, it is made by adding to a tael of ceruſs three mas and three fuen of powder of flint, and one fuen and eight by of red, which has not been mixed with ceruſs. To make a beautiful yellow, you muſt add two fuen and a half of this primitive red.

A tael of ceruſs, three mas and three fuen of powder of flint, and two by of azure, form a deep blue of a violet caſt. Some workmen add eight by of azure.

The mixture of green and white, for example, one part of green, added to two of white, makes the water green, which is very clear.

The mixture of green and yellow, for example, two cups of deep green, added to one of yellow, produces the colour which reſembles a leaf ſomewhat faded.

In order to produce black, they dilute the azure in water, but the ſolution muſt be very thin. They mix with it a little common glue, macerated in lime-water, and boiled to the conſiſtence of mouth-glue. When with this black they have painted the porcelain, which they intend to bake a ſecond time, they cover the black parts with white. In the baking, this white is incorporated with the black, juſt as the common varniſh is with the blue of the common porcelain.

There is another, called tſin, which is prepared of a ſtone, or mineral, reſembling Roman vitriol. It is probable that this ſubſtance is taken from ſome lead mine, and that carrying imperceptible particles of the lead along with it; it inſinuates itſelf into the porcelain, without the help of the ceruſs, which is the vehicle of the other colours given to the re-baked porcelain.

It is of this tſin that they make the deep violet. It is found at Canton and at Pekin, but that found at the laſt of theſe places is by far the beſt. It is ſold at ſeven ſhillings and ſixpence a pound. The tſin is fuſed, and when it is ſo, ſilverſmiths, by way of enamel, lay it upon ſilver works. They will put, for inſtance, a ſmall circle of tſin about a ring, or they will enchaſe it by way of a ſtone. This ſpecies of enamel comes off at laſt, but they endeavour to prevent this by laying it on a ſlight ground of mouth or common glue.

The tſin, as well as the other colours we have mentioned, is only uſed for the re-baked porcelain. The tſin is prepared in the following manner. They do not toaſt it as they do the azure, but break it, and reduce it to a very fine powder; then they put it into a veſſel full of water, which they agitate a little; then they pour out the water, in which there is ſome naſtineſs, and keep the cryſtal which has ſunk to the bottom of the veſſel. This maſs, thus diluted, loſes it's beautiful colour; but the tſin recovers it's violet colour when the porcelain is baked. The tſin may be kept as long as they pleaſe. When they want to paint any porcelain veſſel with this colour, they muſt dilute it wirh water, mixing a little common glue with it; which, by ſome, is thought unneceſſary, but this muſt be determined by experience.

In order to gild or ſilverize the porcelain, they add two fuen of ceruſs to two maſs of diſſolved gold or ſilver leaf. The ſilver upon the varniſh tſe-kin has a beautiful ſplendor. If they gild ſome, and ſilverize others, they do not leave the ſilveriſed work ſo long as the gilt, in the ſmall furnace, otherwiſe the ſilver would diſappear before the gold obtains the degree of baking neceſſary to give it it's luſtre.

There is another ſort of coloured porcelain, which ſells deater than thoſe painted with the colours we have mentioned. Perhaps the account I am to give of it, may be of ſome uſe for perfecting the Engliſh pottery-ware, though we ſhould not be able to obtain to the perfection of the Chineſe porcelain.

To make theſe kinds of works, it is not neceſſary that the ſubſtance employed ſhould be extremely fine. They take cups that have been already baked in the large furnace, without being varniſhed, which are conſequently all white, and have no luſtre. They colour them by plunging them in the veſſel, where the colour is prepared, when they want them of the ſame colour. But if they want them of different colours, ſuch as the works called hoan-tou-houan, which are divided into a kind of ſquares, ſome of which are yellow, and others green; they apply theſe colours with a large pencil. This is all the ornament they give to this ſpecies of porcelain, only after the baking, they lay a little vermillion on certain places; as, for example, on the beaks of certain birds; but this colour is not baked, becauſe the fire would deſtroy it, for which reaſon it does not laſt long. When they have applied the other colours, they re-bake the porcelain in the large furnace, with other porcelains which have not been baked before. It muſt be placed at the bottom of the furnace, and below the air vent, where the fire has leſs activity; becauſe an intenſe fire would deſtroy the colours. The colours proper for this ſort of porcelain are prepared in the following manner: in order to make the green, they take tamhoa-pien, ſaltpetre, and powder of flint. When they have reduced them ſeparately into an impalpable powder, they dilute, and mix them together with water.

The moſt common azure, together with ſaltpetre, and powder of flint, forms the violet.

The yellow is prepared by adding three mas of the red of copperas, to three ounces of the powder of flint, and three ounces of ceruſs.

For producing the white, to four mas of the powder of flint, they add a tael of ceruſs. All theſe ingredients are to be diluted in water; and this is the whole of what relates to the colours of this ſort of porcelain.

When ſpeaking of the furnaces, where they re-bake the painted porcelain, we have obſerved, that they make piles of porcelain veſſels, putting the ſmaller into the larger, and thus ranging them in the furnace. Care muſt be taken, that the veſſels do not touch each other in the parts which have been painted; for, in this caſe, all the veſſels would be loſt. The foot of one cup may be ſupported by the bottom of another, though it be painted; becauſe the edges of the bottom of the ſmaller cup are not painted: but the ſides of one cup muſt not touch thoſe of another. Thus, when they have cups which do not eaſily enter into each other, ſuch as the long chocolate cups, the Chineſe workmen range them in the following manner.

Upon a bed of theſe porcelains, laid in the bottom of the furnace, they lay a covering, either of plates made of the earth with which the furnaces are built, or of the pieces of caſes for the porcelain; for in China every thing is uſed to the beſt advantage. Above this covering they lay another bed of theſe porcelains, and continue to do ſo to the very top of the furnace.

It is not true, as we have before obſerved, that they know that the painted or gilt porcelain is ſufficiently baked, when they ſee the gold or colours ſparkle with all their luſtre. The colours are not diſtinguiſhed 'till the re-baked porcelain is become cold. They judge that the porcelain, baked in the ſmall furnace, is ready to be taken out, when, looking through the aperture at the top, they, to the very bottom, ſee all the porcelains red with the fire; when they diſtinguiſh the piled cups from each other; when the porcelain has no longer theſe inequalities formed by the colours, and when the colours are incorporated in the body of the porcelain, in the ſame manner that the varniſh laid upon the beautiful azure, is incorporated with it by the heat of the large furnace.

As for the porcelain re-baked in the large furnace, they judge that it is ſufficiently baked, 1. When the flame which comes out is not of a very red, but rather of a whitiſh colour. 2. When looking through one of the apertures, they perceive that the caſes are all red. 3. When, after having opened a caſe at the top, and taken a piece of porcelain out of it, rhey perceive when it is cold, that the varniſh and colours are in the condition in which they want them. And, 4. When

looking

looking in at the top of the furnace, they perceive the gravel in it's bottom to be ſhining. By all theſe marks, a workman judges whether the porcelain is perfectly baked.

When they would have the blue entirely to cover the veſſel, they uſe leao or azure, prepared and diluted in water to a due conſiſtence, and in this they plunge the veſſel. As for the blown blue, called tſui-tſim; they in it uſe the moſt beautiful azure, prepared in the manner before-mentioned. They blow it upon the veſſel, and when it is dry, they lay on the ordinary varniſh, either alone, or mixed with tſoui-yeou, if they would have the porcelain veined.

Some workmen upon this azure, whether blown or otherwiſe, draw figures with the point of a long needle. The needle removes as many ſmall grains of the dry azure, as is neceſſary to repreſent the figure; after which, they lay on the varniſh. When the porcelain is baked, the figures appear painted in miniature.

There is not ſo much labour as may be imagined, in making the porcelains, on which flowers, dragons, and other ſimilar figures are emboſſed. They firſt trace them with the graver on the body of the veſſel; then they make ſmall incifions round them, which raiſe them; and, laſtly, they apply the varniſh.

The following things are to be obſerved in the manner of preparing the leao, or azure. 1. Before burying it in the gravel of the furnace, where it is to be toaſted, it muſt be well waſhed, in order to remove the earth which adheres to it. 2. It muſt be included in a caſe of porcelain well luted. 3. When it is toaſted it muſt be pounded, and paſſed through a ſieve. Then they put it into a well varniſhed veſſel, and pour boiling water upon it. After having agitated it a little, they take off the froth on the ſurface, and pour out the water, by inclining the veſſel to one ſide. This preparation of azure, with boiling water, is to be repeated twice. After this they take the azure, thus moiſt and reduced into a kind of thin paſte, and putting it into a mortar, pound it for a conſiderable time.

The azure is found in the mines of rock-coal, or in the red earths adjacent to thoſe mines. It ſometimes appears on the ſurface of the ground; and this is an infallible ſign, that by digging farther, more of it may be found. In the mine it preſents itſelf in pieces as large as a man's thumb, but flat, and not round. The coarſe azure is pretty common, but the fine is very rare, and not eaſily diſcerned by the eye; and we muſt make trial of it before we can judge of it's value.

This trial conſiſts in painting a porcelain veſſel with it, and then baking the veſſel. If Europe produced beautiful leao, or azure, and fine tſin, which is a kind of violet colour; theſe would, among the Chineſe, be commodities of great value, and eaſily tranſported: ſo that we might bring back the moſt beautiful porcelain in exchange for them. We have already obſerved, that a pound of tſin is ſold for a tael and eight mas, that is, for ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence. For two taels they ſell a box of beautiful leao, which contains only ſix ounces, and this amounts to twenty-pence an ounce.

They have tried to paint ſome porcelain veſſels black, with the fineſt of the Chineſe ink; but this attempt had no ſucceſs: for when the porcelain was baked, it was found to be very white. As the parts of this black have not a ſufficient body, they were diſſipated by the action of the fire, or rather the had not force enough to penetrate the bed of varniſh, and produce a colour different from it.

Of the SAXON PORCELAIN, according to Mr HANWAY.

Perhaps it may be ſome indulgence, to a female curioſity at leaſt, to be informed concerning this brittle commodity, which has been ſo paſſionately ſought after by the fair ſex. But can this paſſion be deemed a folly, when we ſee even mighty princes * pride themſelves in it? Here are a great number of porcelain figures of dogs, ſquirrels, monkeys, wolves, bears, leopards, &c. ſome of them as big as the life; alſo elephants, and rhinoceros's of the ſize of a large dog; a prodigious variety of birds, as cocks, hens, turkeys, peacocks, pheaſants, hawks, eagles; beſides parrots, and other foreign birds, and a curious collection of different flowers. The Apoſtles, near three feet high, are in white porcelain. There is a repreſentation of the crucifixion, four or five feet high, with numerous other curious pieces: theſe laſt are intended for the Romiſh chapel, which is to be furniſhed with theſe rare materials. A clock is preparing for the gallery in this palace, whoſe bells are to be of porcelain: I heard one of them proved, and they are ſufficient to form any muſic; but the hammers muſt be of wood.

* His Majeſty of Pruſſia ſometimes calls his brother of Poland the Porcelain King.

Baron Botgen, about 46 years ſince, firſt began to make this porcelain; his firſt trial was the red, and from thence he proceeded to glazing, and ſince that, gilding and painting have been carried to an amazing perfection. In order to preſerve this art as much as poſſible a ſecret, the fabric at Meiſſen, which is near Dreſden, is rendered impenetrable to any but thoſe who are immediately employed about the work; and the ſecret of mixing and preparing the materials, is known to very few of them. They are all confined as priſoners, and ſubject to be arreſted if they go without the walls; and conſequently a chapel, and every thing neceſſary is provided within. There are about 700 men employed, moſt of whom have not above ten German crowns a month, and the higheſt wages are forty; ſo that the annual expence is not eſtimated above 80,000 crowns. This manufacture being entirely for the king's account, he ſells yearly to the value of 150,000, and ſometimes 200,000 crowns *, beſides the magnificent preſent he occaſionally makes, and the great quantity he preſerves for his own uſe. They pretend they cannot execute faſt enough the commiſſions which they receive even from Aſia, as well as from all parts of Europe, and are conſequently under no neceſſity of lowering the enormous prices; however, this muſt be the conſequence ere long, if the Engliſh and French continue to make ſuch great improvements in this art. It is with great ſatisfaction that I obſerve the manufactories of Bow, Chelſea, and Stepney, have made ſuch a conſiderable progreſs. On the other hand, it is equally a ſubject of horror to ſee ſo many ſhops in the ſtreets of London, ſupplied with the porcelain of Dreſden, though it is importable, only under oath of being for private uſe, and not for ſale.

* 35,000l.

REMARKS.

The French court ſeems to have very much at heart the promotion of the new manufacture of porcelain, which has lately been ſet up in the royal caſtle of Vincennes, with a view of equalling that of Saxony. The Sieur Charles Adams, the undertaker of it, has, in particular, extraordinary power given him over his workmen, to prevent their engaging with other projectors, to the damage of the ſaid Adams.

What renders the Oriental porcelain ſo univerſally eſtimable is, not only it's general delicacy, but it's general greater cheapneſs compared to that of Dreſden, or any other nation: and 'till England, France, Holland, or Saxony, can afford this manufacture at as reaſonable rates as the Eaſtern nations do, it can never be expected that any, or indeed all the united European porcelain manufacturers, will vend ſo large a quantity as is done by the Aſiatics in general.

It is certain that the art of pottery, as well in England as in Holland and France, has, within theſe twenty years, arrived to great perfection. And, if ever this, or any other European nation ſhould advance in the manufacture of China ware, to the degree of perfection that the Eaſtern countries have done, I am inclinable to think it muſt depend rather upon art than on the mere productions of nature; for, although in the eaſtern countries there may be earths of a quality for the purpoſe, ſuperior to ſuch as may have yet been diſcovered in any other parts of the world, yet the extraordinary beauty of their earth, we apprehend, is owing chiefly to art: and, if once the Europeans obtain that art, we believe there are earths enough, even in England, from which as good porcelain may be made, as from any that ever came from the Eaſt-Indies, or from Dreſden, and that it may come as cheap too, as ſome of our pottery-ware.

PORTO RICO. See ANTILLES ISLANDS.

PORTS, are thoſe places to which the officers of the cuſtoms are appropriated, and which include all the privileges and guidance of all members and creeks thereunto allotted.

Members are thoſe places where anciently a cuſtom-houſe hath been kept, and officers or the deputies attending, and are lawful places of exportation or importation.

Creeks, are places where commonly officers are or have been placed, by way of prevention only, and are not lawful places of exportation or importation, without particular licence from the port or member under which it is placed.

The ſeveral ports and members as now they account at the Cuſtom-houſe, are,

PORTS.	MEMBERS.	CREEKS.
London		Graveſend
Ipſwich	Malden	Leigh, Burnham, Weſt Merſey
	Colcheſter	Eaſt Merſey, Brickley, Wivenhoe
	Harwich	Maningtree
Yarmouth	Woodbridge	
	Aldborough	Orford, Dunwich
	Southwold	Walderſwich, Leoſtoff
	Blakeney and Cley	

Ports.	Members.	Creeks.
Lynn Regis	Wells and Burnham	
	Wiſbich	Hitcham, Croſs-keys
Boſton		Spalding, Foſdick, Wainfleet, Numby Chapel, Thettlethorp, Saltfleet
Hull		Grimſby, Gainthorp, Bridlington, Scarborough
Newcaſtle upon Tyne	Whitby, Stockton, Hartlepool, Sunderland	Middleborough
	Shields	Seaton Sluice, Blyth's Nook
Berwick		Aylemouth, Warnewater, Holy Iſland, Eaſt Marches, containing the coaſt of Northumberland bordering on Scotland.
Carliſle		Weſt Marches, containing the coaſt of Cumberland bordering on Scotland.
	Whitehaven	Workington, Ravinglaſs, Milnthorpe
	Lancaſter	Pyte of Fowdery, Graunge
	Poulton	Wyre-water, Preſton and Ribble-water
	Liverpool	Sankey-bridge, Fradſham, South ſhore of the river Merſey to the red ſtones
Cheſter		Hilbree, Dawpool, Neſton, Burtonhead, Baghill, Moſtin
	Aberconway, Beaumaris, Caernarvon, Conway, Holyhead, Pulhelly	Amlough, Barmouth
Milford	Aberdovy	Aberuſtah
	Cardigan	Newport, Fiſcard
	Pembroke	Haverfordweſt, Tenby, Caermarthen, Lanelthy, North Burrys
Cardiffe	Swanzey	South Burrys, Neath or Briton-ferry, Newton
		Aberthaw, Penarth, Newport, Chepſtow
Glouceſter		River Severne, from Bridge-north to King-road.
Briſtol		Pill, Uphill
Bridgewater	Minehead	

Ports.	Members.	Creeks.
Plymouth	Padſtow, St Ives, Penzance, Gweeke, Falmouth, Fowey, Lowe, Penryn, Truro	St Maws
		Saltaſh, Stonehouſe, Couſland
Exeter	Ilfracomb	
	Barnſtaple	Clovelly, Appledore
	Biddeford	
		Tincomb, Starcroſs, Bear and Seaton, Topſham, Pouldram, Sydmouth, Lympſon, Exmouth, Aylmouth
	Dartmouth	Saltcomb, Brixham, Torbay, Tortneſs
Pool	Lyme Regis	Bridport, Charmouth
	Weymouth	Portland, Lulworth
Southampton		Swanidge, Wareham
		Chriſt Church, Lymington
	Cowes	Yarmouth, Newport
	Portſmouth	Emſworth
Chicheſter	Arundel	Pagham Point, Selſey
	Shoreham	Brighthelmſtone
	Lewes	Newhaven, Seaford
	Pemſey	
	Haſtings	
	Rye	Winchelſea, Lyd, Romney
	Hythe	
Sandwich	Dover	Ramſgate
		Margate, Whitſtable
	Deal	
	Feverſham	
	Milton	
	Rocheſter	Queenborough.

Note, All the ports and havens in England, are infra corpus comit. and that the Admiralty-court cannot hold juriſdiction of any thing done in them. Holland's caſe, earl of Exeter, 30 Hen. VI. And becauſe he held plea in the Admiralty of a thing done below the port of Hull, damages were recovered againſt him two thouſand pounds. Godbolt 260, 261.

The port of London being of great concern as to the cuſtoms, it's extent is by the Exchequer ſettled, and declared to be, from the North Foreland in the Iſle of Thanet, and thence northward to the oppoſite point called the Naeze, on the Eſſex coaſt, and continued Weſtward through the river Thames, and the ſeveral ſtreams falling into it, to London-bridge, ſave the uſual right to the ports of Sandwich and Ipſwich, and their members, and of the cuſtomers, comptrollers, &c. within thoſe ports, and the ſeveral creeks, &c. belonging to them within the counties of Kent or Eſſex.

And becauſe when ſhips did come up to the port of London, great frauds uſed to be committed by a promiſcuous ſhipping and landing of goods at ſeveral unknown wharfs, it was provided that a commiſſion might iſſue from the Exchequer, to

aſcertain all ſuch places, and his Majeſty hath been pleaſed to allow to be lawful keys, for lading or landing goods,

Brewer's Key Cheſter's Key Galley Key Wool Dock * Cuſtom-houſe Key	* The ſtone-ſtairs on the weſt ſide are declared not to be a place for ſhipping or landing of goods.
Porter's Key Bear Key * Sabb's Dock	* Excluding the ſtairs there, which are declared no lawful place for ſhipping or landing of goods.
Wiggon's Key Young's Key Ralph's Key * Dice Key	* The ſtairs there declared no lawful place for ſhipping and landing of goods.
Smart's Key * Somer's Key	* The ſtairs there declared unlawful for ſhipping and landing of goods.
Lyon Key Botolph Wharf Hamon's Key * Gaunt's Key	* The ſtairs on the eaſt declared unlawful for ſhipping or landing goods.
Cock's Key	One other place betwixt Cock's Key and Freſh Wharf, called part of Freſh Wharf, the ſtairs are declared unlawful for ſhipping or landing of any goods.
Freſh Wharf.	
Billingſgate	To be a common open place for the landing of fiſh, ſalt, victuals, or fuel of all ſorts, and all native materials for building and for fruit (all manner of grocery excepted) and for carrying out of the ſame, and for no other wares or merchandize.
Bridge-houſe in Southwark	Is only allowed for landing of any kind of corn for the city of London, and not upon any private or particular perſon's account.

Any perſon may lade into any ſhip or veſſel on the river of Thames bound over ſeas, horſes, coals, beer, ordinary ſtones for building: fiſh taken by any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, corn or grain, the duties being paid, and cockets, &c. duly paſſed.

So likewiſe deal-boards, balks, and all ſorts of maſts and great timber, may be landed at any place between Limehouſe and Weſtminſter, the owner firſt paying or compounding for the cuſtoms, and declaring where he will land them, and on licence had, and in the preſence of an officer, he may unlade them, otherwiſe he incurs a forfeiture.

PORTUGAL. This kingdom borders northwards on Gallicia in Spain, and is divided from it by the Minho next the ſea, and by ſome ſmall rivers and hills farther up land towards the eaſt. The weſt and ſouth ſides are waſhed by the ocean, including the little kingdom of Algarve on the ſouth, and on the weſt, the Guadiana parts the ſaid little kingdom from Andaluſia, from whence drawing a line northwards, Portugal borders on Andaluſia, Eſtramadura, and Leon. The whole extent of it from north to ſouth is 300 miles, that is, from 37 to 42 degrees of latitude. From eaſt to weſt where broadeſt, which is about the middle, it is about 120 miles, that is, from 7 to 9 degrees weſt longitude, and where narroweſt next Algarve, about 60.

Here are ſeveral mineral and medicinal ſprings, of great virtue, and much reſorted to, ſome of a hot, and others of a cold nature.

The ſoil here is, perhaps, the very worſt in all Spain, yet not univerſally ſo. But, upon the whole, it never produces corn enough to maintain it's inhabitants, but muſt be ſupplied either from Spain, or, when at war with it, from England, and other northern countries. As to wheat, it has been always obſerved to come ſhort of what the people require. Paſture is no leſs ſcarce, if we except ſome of the northern parts, as the province called Entre duero e Minho, and along the banks of ſome of their great rivers, where the beſt and largeſt cattle are fed; but on the ſouthern ſide, is very ſcarce, ſmall, and lean, though the fleſh generally good.

To make amends for this want of corn and paſture, here are vaſt quantities of wine made, which is indeed the beſt commodity of this kingdom, and ſo well known at preſent to all England, that we need ſay the leſs about it. Oil is here likewiſe, in great abundance, but far inferior to that which we have from other countries, that of Portugal being commonly ſo ſtrong and fœtid, that no one can diſpenſe with it, that hath been ever accuſtomed to the Spaniſh and Italian. Lemons and oranges alſo grow here, and are exported in great quantities, though the acidneſs of the latter, be nothing near ſo pleaſant as that of thoſe which come from Seville; nor are indeed any of their fruits, raiſins, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, &c. either ſo large or well taſted, as thoſe of Spain. Herbs and flowers of all ſorts are here commonly very good, and abundance of perfumed waters are diſtilled from thoſe of the odoriferous kind, which are here in great requeſt, they being in ſome ſhape or other, uſed in almoſt every thing that is eat, drank, or worn. This country produces likewiſe great quantities of allum, white marble, alabaſter, and eſpecially ſalt, of which immenſe loads are continually exported hence from the port of Setuval, for moſt northern nations. The woollen manufactures of this country are of ſo indifferent and coarſe a nature, that they are only worn by the meaner ſort, being ſcarcely fit for any other. Their ſilks are, in ſome places, much better, but far inferior, not only in beauty and goodneſs, but in quantity, to thoſe which are made in Spain.

The country in general is well peopled, and filled with goodly cities, towns, and villages, though not every where alike.—We ſhall, in the ſequel, give an account of the moſt remarkable ones.

This kingdom is divided into five provinces, to which if we add the little kingdom of Algarve, they will be in all ſix, of which we ſhall now ſpeak in due order, beginning at the north, and ſo deſcending to the ſouth. They are as follow:

I. Entre Duero e Minho.
II. Tra los Montes.
III. Beira.
IV. Eſtramadura,
V. Alentejo.
VI. Algarve.

I. The province ENTRE DUERO E MINHO. This province hath the Minho on the north, to divide it from Gallicia, and the Duero on the ſouth, which parts it from Beira; on the weſt it is bounded by the ocean, and on the eaſt by a ridge of mountains, which ſevers it from the province of Tra los Montes, or over the hills. It is but ſmall, not extending in it's utmoſt length above 36 miles, and in it's greateſt breadth above 30, and where narroweſt above 12 or 14. It extends from 41 to a little above 42 degrees of latitude, and within the 8th degree of weſt longitude; but though ſo ſmall is the beſt inhabited, has the greateſt number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the reſt, in proportion, beſides that it is one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile, though mountainous, having many other rivers beſides the two that incloſe it, and a vaſt number of rivulets, and ſweet ſprings to water it, as we have already hinted; which makes it abound in good paſture more than any other parts of Portugal, though inferior, in this reſpect, to many of the provinces of Spain. Beſides theſe, the plains are every where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all ſorts, and the country well ſupplied with every neceſſary of life, except, as we obſerved before, that it hath not a ſufficient quantity of corn for it's inhabitants.

Braga, and Porto or Oporto, are the chief cities.

Guimaranes, Viana, Caminha, Valenza, Monzao, Barcelos, Ponte de Lima, Villa de Conte, and Amarante, are towns of note.

BRAGA, formerly the metropolitan ſee of Portugal, is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the river Cavado, about 41 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, and 8 degrees of weſt longitude: it is diſtant about 180 miles north of Liſbon.

PORTO, OPORTO, a famed city and ſea-port, on the north ſide of the Duero, about three miles from the ſea, is pleaſantly built on a rocky ground, that river waſhing it's walls. The port, a very commodious one, is ſo well known and frequented by our nation, that we need ſay the leſs of it. The harbour is ſafe againſt all winds, but when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ſhips; at which times they are forced to ſqueeze and faſten them to each other along the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent. The city ſtands in 41 degrees 10 minutes latitude north, and 8 degrees 30 minutes weſt longitude. It's diſtance is 120 miles north from Liſbon.

GUIMARANES is ſeated upon a hill, and is encompaſſed by a good wall. It ſtands about 10 miles eaſt from Braga, and about 150 miles north of Liſbon. The chief manufactures of this place are linen and fine thread, of both which conſiderable quantities are made and exported.

VIANA DE FEZ DE LIMA, ſituated on the mouth of the Lima, is a conſiderable ſea-port, encompaſſed with ſtrong walls. This town is become very conſiderable for trade, ever ſince the great conſumption of Portugueze wines in England; and is itſelf famed for a delicate ſort of it's own product, which is ſmall, and not unlike the French, nor hardly inferior to it; whereas thoſe that grow in the more ſouthern parts, are heavier and leſs pleaſant. It is diſtant from Braga about 20 miles ſouth, and about 130 north from Liſbon.

CAMINHA another, but ſmall, ſea-port, ſeated on the mouth of the river Minho.

VALENZA DE MINHO, about 12 miles above the laſt on the ſame river.

MONZAO, about ſix miles above the laſt on the ſame river.

BARCELOS ſtands on the river Cavado, in the territory of Viana.

PONTE DE LIMA ſtands about 180 miles north of Liſbon.

VILLA DE CONDE is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, at the mouth of the river Ave.

AMARANTE ſtands on the banks of the river Tamada, and has the river of Locia running through the midſt of it. It hath a linen manufacture.

II. The province called TRA LOS MONTES. This ſmall province is called in Latin Tranſmontana, becauſe ſeated on the other ſide of that chain of hills which parts it on the weſt, from that of Entre Duero e Minho we have juſt deſcribed; on the north it borders on Gallicia, and eaſtward on the kingdom of Leon, and on the ſouth the Duero parts it from Beira. It's length from eaſt to weſt, is at moſt about 74 miles, and breadth near 60; being ſituated between the 41ſt and 42d degrees of latitude, and ſtretching from 6 degrees 40 minutes, to near 8 degrees weſt longitude.

This country is but dry and barren, being watered by but few rivers, and none of them of any conſiderable length or breadth. For this reaſon the territory has but few corn fields, except rye and ſome barley, but yields plenty of wine, and fruits of ſeveral ſorts, and abundance of game.

The cities of this province are Braganza and Miranda.

BRAGANZA is ſituated on the furtheſt angle of Portugal, but ſix miles diſtant from the borders of Leon, and at near the ſame diſtance from thoſe of Gallicia. It ſtands on a ſpacious plain, watered by the river Fervenza, which runs along it's walls. It is ſeated in the 42d degree of latitude, 6 degrees 30 minutes weſt longitude, and about 120 miles northward from Liſbon.

MIRANDA DE DUERO, ſtands on a rocky eminence, and it's walls are waſhed by a large pleaſant brook, which falls into the Duero a little below it.

III. The province of BEIRA is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero e Minho by the former of thoſe rivers; it is bounded by the ocean on the weſt, and by ſome part of Eſtramadura; on the ſouth by another part of that province, and by the Tagus; and on the eaſt it runs contiguous to the Spaniſh Eſtramadura, and the kingdom of Leon. The country, though not ſo rich and fertile as ſome in this kingdom, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other uſeful commodities, if rightly cultivated.

COIMBRIA, once the metropolis of Portugal, is ſtill one of the fineſt cities in this kingdom, and no leſs celebrated for it's famed univerſity. It is pleaſantly ſeated on the north ſide of the river Mondego. It ſtands in 40 and a half degree of latitude, and 8 degrees 20 minutes of weſt longitude, being about ten miles from the mouth of the river Mondego, and about 90 north from Liſbon.

AVEIRO is a conſiderable market-town, commodiouſly ſituated in a plain, upon a bay at the mouth of a creek, on the weſtern coaſt, and made by a ſmall river, which divides the town into two parts, joined by a ſtately bridge. In this creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven, is made a vaſt quantity of ſalt, which is exported ſome into other parts of the kingdom, and the reſt into foreign countries. It ſtands in 40 degrees 40 minutes latitude, 8 of weſt longitude, and about 101 miles from Liſbon.

IV. The province of ESTAMADURA is a long narrow ſlip, running along the ſea-coaſt, and reaching from the mouth of the river Mondego northwardly down, ſouthwardly quite below the town of Setuval; ſo that it extends from the latter to the former, that is, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, about 110 miles, or from 38 degrees 30 minutes to 40 degrees 10 minutes of Latitude. In breadth it is ſcarce 50, and in ſome places much narrower; and it's utmoſt verge weſtward, which is the Cape la Roca, or, as the ſailors term it, the rock of Liſbon, lies under 9 degrees 45 minutes weſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mondego above-mentioned, which parts it from Beira, and the province of Alentejo. It hath again Beira on the eaſt, and the ocean on the weſt.

The land is here for the moſt part the very beſt in Portugal, and the climate very pleaſant and mild, by it's being ſo near the Weſtern or Pacific Ocean. It produces wheat and other grain, in greater plenty than the other provinces, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. upon which account the people here live much better, and above want. Here are alſo greater variety of manufactures carried on, and a much larger ſhare of trade and commerce; all which is owing partly to it's commodious ſituation and ſea-ports, to it's nearneſs to the city of Liſbon, the metropolis of this province and kingdom; to it's commodious harbour, and to the noble river Tagus, which is navigable a conſiderable number of leagues inland, and carries a very conſiderable commerce from that metropolis.

LISBON, the head city of this kingdom, the reſidence of it's monarchs, the great ſeat of all the courts of juſtice, the metropolitan ſee of Portugal, the moſt noble and celebrated univerſity of it, an emporium of the world, the receptacle of all the richeſt merchandizes of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, and the beſt ſea-port in the whole kingdom. It is ſituated in 38 degrees 46 minutes of latitude, and about 9 of weſt longitude, in an excellent air; and though that climate be rather inclinable to be hot, yet is refreſhed by the delightful breezes of the ſea, and of the river Tagus, on the banks of which it is pleaſantly and ſtrongly ſituated, and which conveys to it all the wealth of Aſia and America, as well as the chief commodities of Europe and Africa.

The harbour is one of the moſt commodious in Europe, it lying upon the Weſtern Ocean, and being capacious enough of itſelf to contain ten thouſand ſhips, all riding in ſafety, and without incumbering each other, and carries water enough for the largeſt veſſels to anchor before the windows of the royal palace. The entrance into it is defended by two handſome forts, the firſt ſeated on the ſhore, the other ſtanding oppoſite to it, on a ſhelf, in the midſt of the water. Beſides theſe, nature has provided it with another defence, which is the bar, very dangerous to paſs without pilots belonging to the place. Within this appears a vaſt capacious bay, which contracts itſelf as it draws near the city.

SETUVAL is a conſiderable ſea-port on this coaſt, a little below Liſbon. It is ſeated on a handſome bay, cloſe to the ocean, where the river Zadao diſcharges itſelf, and is much reſorted to by moſt northern nations, eſpecially for the vaſt quantities of ſalt that are made here every year.

It ſtands about 20 miles ſouth of Liſbon, and on the ſouth ſide of the Tajo, but in the ſame province with the metropolis, it's latitude is 38 degrees 27 minutes, and longitude about 8 degrees 48 minutes.

SANTAREM is ſituated on a high hill, cloſe to the Tajo. It hath on the ſouth ſide a deep valley, with a ſteep winding aſcent to the town, and on the north is a craggy ſolid rock, altogether inacceſſible; but on the weſt it faces a delightful plain, covered with gardens, orchards, and fertile fields, producing vaſt quantity of corn, oil, and variety of fruits. The Tajo abovementioned, which is here very broad and navigable, enriches, moreover, all that country, by little channels that are cut from it; inſomuch that we are told by ſome Spaniſh authors, that it yields a prodigious increaſe of wheat and other grain, but that it is often ſown, cut down, and threſhed, within the ſpace of two months. The town ſtands in 39 degrees 12 minutes latitude, 8 degrees 20 ſeconds weſt longitude, and about 42 miles north-eaſt from Liſbon.

SINTRA is ſeated near the ſea, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and by the cape that bears it's name, almoſt on the utmoſt weſtern verge of Portugal. The town is juſtly eſteemed the moſt delightful ſpot in the whole kingdom, both for the beauty of it's ſituation and proſpect, and for the fruitfulneſs of it's territory, which produces, among other commodities, plenty of corn and wine, oil, lemons, oranges, and other fruits; and the rock on which it ſtands, hath a noble quarry of black and white marble, in great requeſt.

ALCAZAR DO SAL, ſo called, from the great quantities of ſalt which this territory produces, is ſituated on the river Zadao. It ſtands thirty-five miles ſouth-weſt from Liſbon, on the other ſide of the river Tajo, and about thirty at it's neareſt diſtance from that river.

V. The province of ALENTEJO borders on the north, on part of Eſtramadura, and of the river Tajo; eaſtward, on the Spaniſh province of Andaluſia and Eſtramadura; on the weſt it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portugueze Eſtramadura; and on the ſouth, by the little kingdom of Algarve. It lies between 37 deg. 30 min. lat. and about 39 degrees weſt longitude; but ſo irregular, and runs ſo much into the adjacent provinces, that it's extent can not be preciſely ſtated. In the whole it runs, where wideſt, between 90 and 100 miles; and in ſome places beyond, and in others much leſs than 80.

The country is reckoned the fineſt and fertileſt in all Portugal; and it's inhabitants, according to Faria, the wealthieſt and beſt bred. The far greater part of theſe are farmers; and the land here is ſo rich, ſo well watered by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tajo, or Guadiana, which two laſt great ones, run quite acroſs this province, that they are all wealthy and induſtrious, and have few poor people among them.

This territory abounds not only with corn of all ſorts, wine, oil, fruits, and good paſtures, ſufficient for it's own inhabitants, but likewiſe to ſupply ſome of the adjacent provinces, which are more barren, or leſs cultivated: and this exportation is very much facilitated by thoſe rivers, which interſect the country, and run into the great ones above-mentioned, and ſome into the ſea.

EVORA is a very antient and conſiderable city, ſeated in the heart of this province, on a pleaſant hill, encompaſſed about with mountains. It ſtands about 60 miles ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon, and in 38 degrees 30 minutes latitude, and about 7 degrees 25 minutes weſt longitude.

ELVAS is ſituated on an eminence, ſtrong by nature, ſix miles from the frontiers of the Spaniſh Eſtramadura, where the river Coa divides it from Portugal. The country about is very pleaſant and fertile, and produces, in particular, great abundance of oil. The chief trade of this town is in the woollen manufacture.

ESTREMOS is ſeated on an high hill, on the top of which is a very ſtrong caſtle. Here is a curious manufacture of red earthen-ware, formerly much admired in England, and brought hence, rather for an ornament to mix among China-Ware, than for any other uſe.

Near the town is a noble ſpring, which throws up ſo much water

water in ſummer, as ſerves to turn ſeveral mills; and, contrary to all others, is dried up all the winter.
The town is about 105 miles diſtant eaſt from Liſbon, and 15 from Elvas.

VI. The little kingdom of ALGARVE. This is that part of Portugal, called, by ſome antient authors, Cuneus, or Wedge, being really wedged in by the ocean on the weſt and ſouth; on the eaſt by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andaluſia: on the north, by the mountains called Serra de Algarve, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; ſo that it is but 90 miles in length, where longeſt, and but 28 in breadth, where broadeſt.
The country, though very mountainous in moſt parts of it, is yet very fertile. It does not, indeed, abound with any great quantity of corn, but abundance of wine, oil, figs, raiſins, dates, almonds, pomegranates, and other fruits. In the main, the country is nothing populous or wealthy, nor their cities and towns remarkable for any great matters.

Of the MONIES, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of PORTUGAL.

The Portugueze keep their accounts in milreas and reas, 1000 reas making a milrea [ſee the article LEDGER]; they ſeparate the milreas from the reas thus, 769 ℔ 210, which is to ſay, 769 milreas, and 210 reas.

The GOLD MONIES of PORTUGAL are as follow, viz.

	Sterling money.
The 25 ℔ 600 reas piece - -	l. 7 : 4 : —
The 24 ℔ ditto	6 : 15 : —
The 12 ℔ 800 reas ditto - -	3 : 12 : —
The 12 ℔ ditto - - - -	3 : 7 : 6
The 6 ℔ 400 reas ditto - - -	1 : 16 : —
The 4 ℔ 800 reas, or moydore ſtamped	1 : 7 : —
The 3 ℔ 200 reas piece - -	— : 18 : —
The 2 ℔ 400 reas ditto, or half moydore	— : 13 : 6
The 1 ℔ 600 reas ditto - - -	— : 9 : —
The 1 ℔ 200 reas, or quarter-moydore	— : 6 : 9
The 800 reas or teſtoon-piece - -	— : 4 : 6

Their SILVER MONIES are,

The 400 reas, or cruſado, or the exchange-piece not ſtamped - - -	— : 2 : 3
The 480 reas, or one-tenth moydore-piece ſtamped in 1643 - -	— : 2 : 8⅔
The 240 reas, or 12 vintin-piece -	— : 1 : 6
The 100 reas, or 5 vintin-piece -	— : — : 9
The 50 reas, or 2 and a half vintin ditto	— : — : 4½

Their COPPER COIN.

The 20 reas, or vintin-piece -	— : — : 1½
The 10 reas, or half vintin ditto -	— : — : —¾
The 5 reas, or quarter vintin ditto -	— : — : —⅜

Their WEIGHTS

Are but of one kind, and divided thus: 2 drams = 1 octave, 8 octaves = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = an arrate, or pound, 32 pounds = an arobe, 4 arobes = 1 quintal, or 128 pounds, half an arobe = 16 pounds. They divide the ſaid ounce alſo into penny-weights and grains, as we do our ounce Troy weight. Their weights are about 3 or 4 per cent. heavier than our Engliſh avoirdupois.

Their MEASURES.

Their long meaſure.—The vare is the length of the ell Engliſh, and 81½ = 100 yards Engliſh. The other meaſure is the cavida, and is ¾ of a yard Engliſh.
Their liquid meaſure.—Their largeſt is the almuda = 2 cavadas, and half and quarter cavadas; they have other meaſures, that contain one half and one quarter of a gallon: the almuda = 4½ gallons of our Wincheſter meaſure.
Corn and ſalt meaſure.—60 alquiers = 1 moy = 3 Engliſh quarts, 2½ alquiers = 1 Engliſh buſhel.

Of the EXCHANGES of PORTUGAL with the principal places of EUROPE.

Portugal exchanges with London on the milrea, and London gives pence ſterling, more or leſs, for the ſame, from 60 to 66.
With Holland, and throughout the United Provinces, and with Hamburgh, on the cruſado of 400 reas, and gives gros Flemiſh, more or leſs, for the ſame.
With Spain for the Spaniſh ducat, and gives reas, more or leſs, for the ſame.
With France on the exchange-crown, and gives reas, more or leſs, for the ſame.
With Florence on the crown of 7½ livres, and gives reas more or leſs.
With Genoa on the ſcudi, and gives reas more or leſs.
With Leghorn on the dollar of 6 livres, and gives reas more or leſs.
☞ Exchanges are frequently made by the way of Amſterdam, Antwerp, or Hamburgh.
Suppoſe I owe the following ſums to my correſpondents, what will they amount to in the money of their reſpective countries?

	Cruſ.	Reas.	Courſe of exchange.
At Paris	560	300	at 490 ⅜ reas per crown of 60 ſols Tournois.
Amſterdam	1120	72	at 44 ⅜ den. de gros per cruſado of 400 reas.
London	2128	163	at 5s. 6d. ſterling per milrea
Madrid	1250	250	at 830 reas per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Genoa	1430	230	at 880 reas per piaſtre of 5 lires banco.
Leghorn	900	300	at 770 reas per piaſtre of 20 ſols d'or.
Meſſina	2000	200	at 420 reas per florin of 12 carlins.

Of the EXCHANGE of LISBON upon FRANCE.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 560 cruſadoes, 300 reas, of Portugal, into crowns of France, of 60 ſols Tournois, the crown of exchange being at 490 reas per crown.

OPERATION.

Cruſ. Reas.
560 : 300
400

490)224300 reas (457 crowns, 45 ſols, 3 deniers, for which
2887 the draught upon Paris ought to be
33 60 made.

)22200(45
265
112

)1800(3

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 560 cruſadoes by 400 reas, the value thereof, and take in the 300, and divide the product, 224,300 reas, by the price of exchange, of 490 reas, and the quotient will give 457 crowns, with a remainder of 370; which multiplied by 60 ſols, the value of a crown, and divided by the ſame diviſor, the quotient gives 45 ſols, with a remainder of 150; this multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided by the common diviſor, it produces 3 deniers, to be received at Paris for the ſaid cruſadoes, &c.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon HOLLAND.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 1120 cruſadoes, 72 reas of Portugal, into florins and ſols bank money of Amſterdam, the courſe of exchange being at 44 ⅜ deniers gros per cruſade.

OPERATION.

1120 cruſadoes, 72 reas, to be multiplied
By 44 ⅜ deniers gros, the exchange.

4480
4480
280—for ⅜ = ¼ } of 1120 cruſadoes
140—for ⅛ = ⅛ }
5⅝ for 50 reas = ⅛ } of the exchange-price
2½ for 20 reas = 1/20
⅝ for 2 reas = 1/10 of 20 reas

40)49708 deniers gros.

1242 florins, 14 ſols, bank money, for which the draught on Amſterdam ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum of the cruſadoes by the price of exchange, and divide by 40, the deniers in a florin, and there will remain 28, the half of which is 14 ſols bank money, to be received at Amſterdam.—For the proof hereof ſee the article HOLLAND, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon LONDON.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 2128 cruſadoes, 163 reas of Portugal, into pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling money of England, the courſe of exchange being 5s. 6d. ſterling per milrea of Portugal.

OPERATION.

OPERATION.

2128cruſ. 163reas, to be multiplied
By 400

851 ℔ 363

And multiply again by 5 : 6, the price of exchange

4255 d.
425 : 6, for the 6d. [price of exchange.
1 : 1, for the 200 reas, the $\frac{1}{5}$ of the
0 : 6, for the 100 ditto, the $\frac{1}{10}$ of ditto.
0 : 5, for the 63

Shillings ſter. 2|0(468|2 : 6(

1. 234 : 2 : 6, ſterling money, for which the draught ought to be made upon London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the cruſadoes into reas, in multiplying by 400 the value thereof in reas, taking in the 163 odd reas, and the product will be 851 ℔ 363 reas, which multiplied by the price of exchange, and the aliquot parts taken as above, and added, make ſhillings ſterling, which divided by 20, give pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling.—For the proof hereof, ſee the article ENGLAND, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon SPAIN.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 1250 cruſadoes, 250 reas of Portugal, into rials of plate of 16 quartos of Spain, the price of exchange being 830 reas per ducat of Spain of 375 marvadees.

OPERATION.

1250 cruſadoes, 250 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

500250 reas, to be multiplied
By 375 marvadees of Spain

2501250
3501750
3501750

Anſwer.

2822|0)18759375|0(6647 rials, 18 marvadees of old plate,
16932 ··· for which the draught muſt be made
on Madrid.

·18273
16932

·13417
11218

·21295.
19754

·1541
34

6164
4623

)52394(18

Price of exchange.
830 reas
34 marvadees

3320
2490

28220 diviſor.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 1250 cruſadoes, 250 reas, in multiplying them by 400, the value of the cruſadoe, the product will be 500250 reas; theſe multiplied by 375 marvadees, the value of the ducat, the product thereof will be 187593750, for a dividend.

Multiply the 830 reas, the price of exchange, by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and the product will be 28220, for a diviſor.

Carry on the diviſion, and you will have a quotient of 6647 rials, with a remainder of 1541, which being multiplied by 34 marvadees, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 18 marvadees old plate, to be received at Madrid: for the proof of which, ſee the article SPAIN.

The EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon GENOA.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 1430 cruſadoes, 230 reas of Portugal, into piaſtres, ſols, and deniers d'or, bank money of Genoa, the price of exchange being 880 reas per piaſtre of 5 lires of Genoa.

OPERATION.

1430 cruſadoes, 230 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

88|0)572|30(to be divided by the price of exch. of 880 reas.
442 (650 piaſtres, 15 ſols, 2 deniers, bank money,
for which the draught upon Genoa ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 1430 cruſadoes, 230 reas, in multiplying them by 400 reas, the value of a cruſadoe; divide the product, 572230, by the price of exchange, 880 reas, and you will have a quotient of 650 piaſtres, with a remainder of 23: this multiplied by 20 ſols, the value of the piaſtre, and divided by the ſame, it will give 5 ſols, and 20 for a remainder; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of the ſol, and divided again by the common diviſor, it gives 2 deniers bank money, to be received at Genoa.—For the proof of which, ſee the article GENOA, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon LEGHORN.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 900 cruſadoes, 300 reas of Portugal, into piaſtres ſols, and deniers d'or of Leghorn, the exchange at 770 reas per piaſtre of 20 ſols d'or.

OPERATION.

900 cruſadoes, 300 reas, to be multiplied
By 400

77|0)360300|0(to be divided by the exchange of 770 reas,
5211 (467 piaſtres, 18 ſols, 5 deniers d'or, for which
67 the draught muſt be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 900 cruſadoes, 300 reas, into reas, in multiplying by 400 reas, the value of the cruſadoe; divide the product 360300, by the price of exchange, of 770 reas, and you will have a quotient of 467 piaſtres, 18 ſols, and 5 deniers d'or to be received at Leghorn; for the proof of which ſee the article TUSCANY, where you will find the port-town of LEGHORN.

The remainder of the firſt diviſion muſt be multiplied by 20 ſols d'or, the value of the piaſtre, and that of the ſecond by 12 deniers, the value of the ſol, and dividing by the ſame, it will give 18 ſols, 5 deniers d'or.

The EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon MESSINA.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 2000 cruſadoes, 200 reas of Portugal, into florins, ounces, tarins, grains, and piccioli of Meſſina, exchange at 420 reas per florin of 12 carlins.

OPERATION.

2000 cruſadoes, 200 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

42|0)800200|0(reas, to be divided by the exchange of 420 reas.
3810 ($\frac{1}{5}$) 1005 florins, 1 tarin, 8 grains, 3 piccioli.

381 ounces, 1 tarin, 8 grains, 3 piccioli; for which ſum the draught muſt be made upon Meſſina.—For the proof of which, ſee the article SICILY, upon PORTUGAL.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 2000 cruſadoes 200 reas, in multiplying by 400 reas, the value of a cruſadoe, and divide the product, 800200 reas, by the price of exchange of 420 reas, and the quotient will be 1905 florins, and 10 for a remainder; which multiplied by 6 tarins, the value of a florin, and dividing the product by the ſame, it gives 1 tarin, with a remainder of 18, which alſo multiply by 20 grains, the value of the tarin, and dividing by the common diviſor, you will have 8 grains, and a remainder of 24; this again multiplied by 6 piccioli, the value of a grain, and being divided by the ſame, it produces 3 piccioli.

To reduce theſe florins, &c. take the $\frac{1}{5}$ (becauſe the ounce is equal to 30 tarins, and the florin 6 tarins) and you will find that you have to receive at Meſſina 381 ounces, 1 tarin, 8 grains, and 3 piccioli, for the ſame.

ADVERTISEMENT.

With relation to negociating bills of exchange in Portugal, it muſt be obſerved, that

Uſance { Of France, Of Holland, Of England, Of Genoa, Of Leghorn, Of Venice } is two months, comprehending the date; and that there are 6 days of grace allowed after the bill becomes due.

Of the ARBITRATION of the FOREIGN EXCHANGE wherein LISBON is concerned.

OPERATION.

Between AMSTERDAM, LONDON, LISBON, and LYONS,

If - - ŧ florin banco - = 402 deniers gros banco
And ŧØØ den. gros banco = 99 ½ ditto, proviſion deduct.
And ŧ2 ditto - - = ŧ ſol gros banco
And 17 34 ſols gros banco = 240 20 pence ſterling
And 11 ŧØØ pence ſterling = 99 ½ d. ſter. proviſion deduct.
And 66 ditto - - = ŧØØØ reas.
And 5ØØ reas - - = 3 livres Tournois, what will 2ØØØ florins banco make?

17 x 11 = 187, the diviſor.
9900 ¾ x 20 x 4 = (2 x 2), the dividend.
The quotient will be 4235 livres, 8 ſols, anſwer.

Again,

OPERATION.

Between AMSTERDAM, LONDON, LISBON, LEGHORN, and LYONS.

If - - ŧ florin banco - = 40 2 deniers gros banco
And ŧØØ den. gros banco = 99 ½ ditto, proviſion deducted
And ŧ2 ditto - - = ŧ ſol gros banco
And 17 34 ſols gros banco = 240 pence ſterling
And 11 66 pence ſterling = ŧØØØ reas
And 77Ø reas - - = 93 31 ſols Tournois for Leg.
And ŧØØ ſols Tournois = 99 ½ ditto, proviſion deducted
And 6Ø ditto - - = 3 livres Tournois, what will 2000 flor. banco amount to?

17 x 11 x 77 = 14399, diviſor.
9850747 x 31 x 2 = 61074642 ¼, dividend.

Which gives for quotient 4241 livres, 13 ſols, the anſwer, and the product of the circulation upon the abovesaid places.

Another EXAMPLE.

Amſterdam being to remit to London 750l. Flemiſh, the negociator firſt ſends it to France, at 12 crowns per pound Flemiſh; from thence to Venice, at 100 crowns per 100 ducats; from thence to Hamburgh, at 100 grots per ducat; from thence to Portugal at 50 grots per cruſadoe of 400 reas; and from Portugal to London, at 3000 reas per pound ſterling: it paſſing through ſo many places, the queſtion is, how much ſterling money muſt be received in London for the abovesaid remittance, excluſive of charges?

1 l. Amſterdam = 3 crowns
Crowns French = ducats of Venice
1 Ducat = 20 grots of Hamburgh
Grots of Hamb. = 8 reas of Portugal
Reas of Portugal = 1 l. ſterling

3 x 20 x 8 = 480l. ſterling, to be received in London.

REMARK.

In order to underſtand the reaſon and foundation of the preceding operations, the reader is deſired to conſult the articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, ENGLAND, GENOA, HOLLAND, SICILY, SPAIN, TUSCANY, VENICE, and UNITED PROVINCES. Under theſe heads, alſo, is ſhewn the application of the foregoing general arbitrational rule, to the weights and meaſures, as well as to the monies of foreign countries.

	Antecedents.		Conſequents.
Suppoſe again that	5 l. Amſterdam	=	12 French crowns
	100 French crowns	=	100 ducats Venice
	1 Ducat Venice	=	100 grots of Hamb.
	50 Grots Hamb.	=	400 reas of Portu.
	3000 Reas of Portugal	=	1 l. ſterling

How much ſterling at London = to 750l. Flemiſh?

Now, ſuppoſe that you would find out the antecedent of the 400 reas of Portugal belonging to the foregoing queſtion; diſpoſe of the terms as follows, omitting the antecedent 400 reas, after which abridge, as directed under the preceding heads; then multiply and divide, and you will find 50 grots of Hamburgh to be the antecedent: thus

5 l. Flemiſh	=	12 crowns
100 Crowns	=	100 ducats
1 Ducat	=	100 grots
— Grots	=	400 reas
3000 Reas	=	1 l. ſterling
480 l. ſterling	=	750 l. Flemiſh

which abridged, will give 25 x 2 = 50 grots of Hamburgh, the antecedent required by the queſtion.
Let it be propoſed to find the antecedent to 1 l. ſterling, which muſt be reas, becauſe the conſequent that precedes it is 400 reas.

Antecedents.		Conſequents.
5 Amſterdam -	=	12 French crowns
100 French crown -	=	100 ducats of Venice
1 Ducat of Venice	=	100 grots of Hamburgh
50 Grots of Hamburgh	=	400 reas of Portugal
Reas of Portugal -	=	1 l. ſterling
480 l. ſterling - - -	=	750 l. of Amſterdam

The above abridged, as directed under the heads referred to, will give 12 x 2 x 5 x 25 = 3000 reas, according to ſuppoſition.
Suppoſe, alſo, that you would find the conſequent of the antecedent of 50 grots of Hamburgh, purſue the ſame method as directed in the laſt queſtion, and you will find it to be 400 reas; for the terms being properly ranged and abridged, the anſwer will turn out 50 x 4 x 2 = 400 reas, which anſwers the queſtion.

The application of this rule to find the juſt par of monies of exchange, according to the INTRINSIC VALUE of the real monies, by taking this value according to the weight and ſtandard.

EXAMPLE.

To find the par of money of exchange between France and another ſtate or kingdom, by the means of the real ſilver money, for inſtance, of the piaſtre of Spain, of 8 rials of old plate, or 128 quartos, by that of the effective piaſtre, marked with two globes, we muſt previouſly underſtand, that

170 Quartos is the value of this effective piaſtre in Spain,
506 88/100 Grains is it's weight - - - -
4608 Grains is the number that the mark contains - -
529 Grains fine is the ſtandard that the coinage gives to this piaſtre - - - - - -
262 Grains fine is that of the French ſilver crown
576 Grains is the number that the ounce contains
277 ½ Grains is the weight of the crown, 60 ſols is now it's value - - - - -
} in France.
128 Quartos is now the value of the piaſtre of exchange in Spain.

Theſe preliminaries being known, we muſt proceed, according to the foregoing conjoint rule, by antecedents and conſequents, as follows:

If 170 quartos - - - - = 1 piaſtre effective
And 17 ſuch piaſtres weight - = 506 88/100 grains
And 4608 gr. are receiv. for ſtand. = 259 grains fine
And 262 grains fine - - - = 8 oz. of French crowns
And 1 ſuch ounce weight - = 576 grains
And 277 ½ grains of ſilver - - = 60 ſols Tournois, how much are 128 quartos worth?

Anſwer, 81 ſols, 6 deniers Tournois.

OPERATION.

If 170 → 506 88/100
4608 — 259
131 262 — 8
1 — 576
277½ — 60 — 128
64

506 88/100
259
4554
2530
1012
129 6/12 for 50/100
64 3/12 for 25
25 10/12 for 10
5 2/12 for 2
2 7/12 for 1
131281 10/12, or 5/6
6
787691
64
3150764
4726146

131
17
917
131
2227
277½
15589
15589
4454
1113½
617992 ½ diviſor

)50412224 divid. (81 ſ. 6 de.

As this fraction produces nothing, we ſuppreſs it, though if you convert is the anſwer, and the ſolution of the rule.

vert it into a decimal of $\frac{5}{6}$, for greater preciſion ſake, you may divide by it; yet it will occaſion no alteration deſerving practical notice.

Instruction.

Multiply the antecedents together for a diviſor, which will give 617992 $\frac{1}{2}$; and the conſequents, which will produce 50412224, for a dividend, and the quotient will be 81 ſols, with a remainder of 354872, to be multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and dividing by the ſame diviſor, it will give 6 deniers: ſo that the par of the exchange piaſtre of 8 rials old plate, of 16 quartos each, is in France equal to 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols, eſtimating the ſtandard of the piaſtre with two globes at 10 deniers 19 grains, as the coinage-office at Lyons receives it; and as they give in evaluation for the French crown of 60 ſols, which is it's current value.

But if the par of this exchange-piaſtre is required, according to the ſtandard of which the piaſtre of two globes is received in the mint of France, inſtead of 10 deniers 19 grains, or 259 grains, you ſhould ſubſtitute, in the courſe of the operation, 261 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains, and only 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols; which is the proportional price of the mark of the ſaid French crowns, paid by the mint inſtead of 60 ſols currency.

In this caſe, the conjoint rule ſhould be thus conſtructed:

If 170—506 $\frac{88}{100}$
4608—261 $\frac{1}{2}$
262— 8
1—576
277 $\frac{9}{16}$ — 56$\frac{1}{2}$—128? Or, if 170—506 $\frac{88}{100}$
4608—261 $\frac{1}{2}$
262—46 liv. 18 ſols—128?

The anſwer to theſe poſitions is 77 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols:

To which may be added, for the 4 den. per livre, given upon 10,000 livres - - } 1 $\frac{1}{4}$

Then the par of the piaſtre will be, according to this operation - - - } 78 $\frac{3}{4}$ ſols Tour.

The 46 livres 18 ſols of the laſt conſequent, are the price at which the mark is eſtimated with the French crown, in the mint of France.

And if you will ſuppreſs ſeveral proportions, to ſubſtitute in their ſtead the number only of piaſtres of two globes contained in the French mark, that is to ſay 9 $\frac{1}{11}$, and the price that is paid in their mints, which is 46 livres 9 ſols, you muſt then form your rule thus:

If 170 ——— 1 piaſtre
9 $\frac{1}{11}$ = 46 livres 9 ſols
1 livre 20 ſols. How many—128? The anſwer is, a little leſs than 77 ſols,

To which we add as above - - - 1 $\frac{1}{4}$

The true par, according to this operation - 78 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols.

You will obſerve that there is a difference of 6 deniers between the two preceding pars, which is occaſioned by reaſon that the mint pays the mark of the French crown, as if it was of the ſtandard of 11 deniers, or 264 grains; whereas it is in effect but of 10 deniers 22 grains; for if, inſtead of the antecedent of 262 grains, we had placed the ſaid 264 grains, the two anſwers would have come out equal.

81 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols is the par of the firſt operation,
78 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols is that of the laſt,

3 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols is the difference; which evidently proceeds from this, that the French crown iſſued by the mint for 60 ſols, pays no more than 56 $\frac{1}{2}$: and this difference would be ſtill greater, even 5 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſols, if the aſſay-office, inſtead of receiving the ſaid effective piaſtre at the ſtandard of 10 deniers 19 grains, ſhould receive it at the mint at that of 10 deniers 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains.

This being the caſe, you will aſk, How comes it to paſs that any one will carry theſe to the refiners? The anſwer is, Becauſe they give in payment ingots which the commerce of Lyons affords, that are worth more than 50 livres the mark of the ſtandard of 10 deniers 20 grains.

☞ Obſerve that to find the par of the places or countries to which France gives the variable courſe of exchange, you ſhould place in the propoſition the value in ſuch country, of the effective ſpecie, and that alſo of exchange, as is done in finding the par of the exchange piaſtre of Spain, by placing to the firſt antecedent of the rule, 170 quartos, and 128 to it's laſt term.

But it muſt not be ſo for the places or countries to which France gives the certain or invariable money: ſince in that caſe, you would find what will be given for the intrinſic value of the French crown, which is compoſed of ſols, and then you muſt place in the propoſition the price in ſols that the mint pays for the mark of the ſaid crown: that is to ſay, at 46 livres 18 ſols, or 938 ſols, to the firſt antecedent, and to the laſt term of the rule the 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols of the crown, according to the courſe of exchange, and paſſes current for 60 ſols; which is done for England and Holland, France giving the certain and invariable exchange crown for an uncertain price of exchange.

Operation.

If 938 ſols, the value of the mark of the French crown, are for 8 ounces,
And 1 ounce contains 576 grains weight,
And 565 grains weight of the Engliſh crown are worth there 60 pence ſterling, what will 65 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols be worth?—Anſwer, 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ pence ſterling.

Note, The ſtandard of the Engliſh crown-piece being the ſame with that of the French crown, we muſt only place, in the conſtruction of the rule, it's weight and it's value in the country; and as the 4 deniers per livre are not added to the firſt conſequent, you are not to take notice in the laſt term of the rule of the 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols.

But the ſtandard of Holland being different from that of France, the rule muſt be thus conſtructed:

If 938 ſols are given for the ſtandard of 262 grains fine,
And 245 grains is the ſtandard of the mark, containing 4608 grains weight.
And 536 grains is the weight of the crown of Holland, there worth 100 deniers gros; What will be 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols be worth?
Anſwer, 53 deniers gros, and a little more.

Remark.

If the effective piaſtre ſhould be diminiſhed in Spain to 160 quartos, inſtead of 170 that it is there worth, the firſt antecedent of the arbitrational rule being diminiſhed, and the diviſor, in conſequence thereof, to 581640, it undoubtedly follows, from this diminution, that the quotient muſt be greater, ſince, inſtead of the par of 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols, of which we have ſpoken, it will give 86 $\frac{2}{3}$ ſols.

And if the price of the Spaniſh piaſtre remaining of the ſame value in Spain, the price of the French crown ſhould riſe to 70 ſols, the product of the multiplication of the conſequents becoming thereby greater (to 58814208) the diviſor being the ſame, the par, or the quotient, will be greater in the like proportion, that is to ſay, 90 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols.

If France, by increaſing the price of their crown, the par with Spain ſhould only increaſe, it is not eaſy to conclude, that, if France diminiſhes the price of this ſame crown, the par in queſtion ſhould alſo diminiſh in the ſame proportion; and, if there was both in Spain and France an augmentation of ſpecie, exactly proportioned the one to the other, the par whereof we have treated will be the ſame, 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols; and in like manner, if the augmentation was, at the ſame time, more conſiderable, both Spain and France.

Upon theſe certain principles, in relation to the par between France and Spain, to which France gives the uncertain price, to receive the certain, you may eaſily fix your point in view, and form your rule of conjunction accordingly, to obtain the par of Holland, &c. &c. to which France gives the certain for the uncertain price of exchange.

General Remarks upon the whole of this part of Exchange.

1. There is more difficulty, perhaps, in this matter of calculating the par of money between nation and nation, than moſt people imagine, yet there is no one who has fully diſcuſſed it; but ſince it is what ought to be well underſtood, as well by perſons of quality as by merchants, we ſhall obſerve, by way of further illuſtration, that all foreign coin is eſteemed as bullion to us, and ours as bullion to them; ſo that the extrinſic value regards chiefly the temporary intereſt of foreign money negociations, in their commercial, or foreign banking concernments.

2. Another point requiſite to be obſerved, is the fineneſs of our own coin, and the weight and fineneſs of the foreign, which we are to receive in exchange; and this knowlege of the foreign muſt be acquired, either by the experience of ſome aſſay-maſter of allowed repute and accuracy [ſee the articles Assay and Coin], or by the merchant's actual aſſay, few of whom are at all acquainted with the art of Assayng and Refining, and, therefore, are obliged to depend on the repreſentation of workmen who make it their buſineſs, or on the aſſay-maſter at the Tower, or Goldſmiths-Hall, on whom it is thought we may more ſafely depend, than on the ordinary aſſay-maſters, though many of them are very accurate in their aſſays.

Admit it were required to know how much ſterling bullion, or coin may be given for 1000 pieces of eight Seville.

	oz. dwt.
The fineneſs of our coin we know is - - -	11 : 2
And ſuppoſe the fineneſs of a piece of eight, we will ſuppoſe to be, though more or leſs - - -	11 : 3
And it's weight 17 dwts. 12 grains,	
Or the weight of 1000 pieces we find to be - -	875 : 0

3. The

3. The third particular is, to know how many ounces of ſilver, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, are equal to 875 oz. of 11 oz. 3 dwt. fine; which is found by ſingle indirect proportion thus:

oz. dwt. oz. oz. dwt. oz.
11 3 : 875 : : 11 2. to 878,94144 decim. the anſwer.

Here it is found that we may give 878,94144 oz. of bullion, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, for 875 oz. of bullion of 11 oz. 3 dwt. fine (or for 1000 pieces of eight Seville of the aforeſaid ſtandard) which if paid in coin, we muſt, for the 1000 pieces of eight, pay l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſterling: for

Grains. Grains.
1858,0645 : l. 1 ſterling : : 421891,89 : l. 227,059 ſterling.

That is to ſay, as 1858,0645 (the grains in 1l. ſterling) are in proportion to 1 l. ſterling, ſo is 421891,8912 (the grains in 878,94144 ounces of bullion, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, which are equal in value to the 1000 pieces of eight) to l. 227,059 ſterling, or l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$.

4. But ſo often as I can buy 878,941 ounces of bullion for leſs than l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$. (which we can always do ſo often as ſterling ſilver is under 5 s. 2 d. per ounce) ſo often we gain by making our exchange in bullion: if, however, we can buy bullion for 5 s. 1 d. per ounce, at that rate the 878,941 ounces (which we are to give for the 1000 pieces) will ſtand me in l. 223 : 7 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, which is leſs than l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ (the ſum we pay in exchanging coin) by l. 3 : 13 : 2 $\frac{3}{4}$, which is my gain by exchanging in bullion: thus in exchange, the par of money and bullion ought to be conſidered, as well as the par of domeſtic and foreign coins.

5. Though the foregoing rules, judiciouſly applied, contain the method of calculating the par of money; yet, ſince the price of exchange is agreed on in the currency of negociations by bills of exchange, it is uſeful to know how much ſterling money each of theſe foreign pieces are worth; for which reaſon we have, under the article COIN, ſhewed, according to the aſſays of Sir Iſaac Newton, the intrinſic value of the chief gold and ſilver coins of Europe; whereby the merchant will know when he may negociate therein to advantage, and the politician alſo be informed whether the nation gains or loſes in the ballance of trade with ſuch nation.

The ſtandard of the gold coin of this kingdom is 22 carats fine, and 2 alloy, per pound of gold; and 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine ſilver, and 18 dwt. alloy, the ſtandard pound of ſilver; and the diviſion of the pound of gold is into 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ guineas, and the ſilver into the uſual number of crowns. The guineas have varied in the nominal value ſeveral times, riſing up to 30 ſhillings, and declining to 21, the preſent current value, but never have been reduced again to the level of 20 ſhillings, nor indeed ought, when compared with the Portugal pieces of 3l. 12s. or 1l. 16s. it appearing to be better worth 21 ſhillings.

		To the lb. Troy.		l. s. d.
Portugal	l. 3 : 12	- 13	-	46 : 16 : 0
Engliſh guineas	1 : 1	- 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	46 : 14 : 6
				0 : 1 : 6
And the Portugal ſtandard worſe $\frac{1}{4}$ grain			-	0 : 2 : 6
Total worſe in lb. Troy, by ſtandard and tale				l. 0 : 4 : 0

This, with the difference in point of exactneſs in coining, wherein the Portugal is more defective than the Engliſh coin, may be good reaſons for their being refuſed in payments in the receipts of the public revenue; but anſwer very well the purpoſes of thoſe who benefit by the irregularity in trading with the heavier, and paſſing off the lighter by tale, and which if they can turn into guineas or heavy ſilver, make another gain.

A SHORT ACCOUNT of the COMMERCE of PORTUGAL, on a very INTERESTING OCCASION.

The Portugueze themſelves, carry on no active commerce of conſequence with any other European dominions: the Britiſh, French, Germans, Dutch (and thoſe who go under the denomination of Hamburghers), Danes, Swedes, Spaniards, and moſt of the ſtates of Italy, having conſuls and factories ſettled in Liſbon: and ſome of them, particularly the Engliſh, have the ſame at Oporto; alſo a few houſes in Viana, Figeira, Faro, and likewiſe on the iſland of Madeira. Of theſe people, the Portugueze merchants purchaſe the neceſſary commodities for their India, Guinea, and Brazil commerce; as the town and country dealers do thoſe for their home conſumption. And the ſame merchants purchaſe of the natives, or take in barter, the ſeveral products of their dominions, which they export to the countries proper for their ſale.

The native exports of Portugal are wine, lemons, oranges, dried figs, ordinary raiſins, almonds, ſalt, oil, cork, ſhumac, tunny fiſh, and other ſmaller articles. Wool uſed likewiſe to be exported in conſiderable quantities, but the extraction of it from that kingdom is now prohibited. However, there is reaſon to believe, that the Dutch get a good deal of it off ſtill under the name of Spaniſh wool, by the help of forged certificates and falſe ſwearing; of which bad practice the Portugueze make as little ſcruple for gain, as even the worſt of our own countrymen.

The commodities the Portugueze bring from their foreign dominions, and ſell chiefly at Liſbon, for other European countries, are diamonds of Brazil and India, ſugars, tobacco, Brazil-wood of ſeveral ſorts, cocoa-nuts, coffee, cotton, pepper, ſeveral ſorts of drugs, ſome inferior kind of ſpices, whalebone, raw and tanned hides, elephants teeth, arrac, orchella, citrons, and occaſionally China ware, Indian ſilks, and cotton piece-goods. And here it may be proper to obſerve, that all their India commerce is going to be made more regular and extenſive. To theſe exports we ſhall add, ſilver and gold. The former, as no product of their own, is allowed to be ſhipped off by entry and licence. The latter is not, except for corn in time of great want, and by ſtipulation for ſome articles they receive from Sweden. But in either of thoſe caſes, the procuring of the licence would be attended with ſo much trouble, that it is rarely, if ever, ſollicited. However, in their exports, gold muſt be, and is, underſtood as a COMMODITY, at the exportation of which Portugal ought to wink, or they could not carry on any of their other commerce. But Britain receives as ſmall, or a ſmaller proportion of gold, than any other nation trading with Portugal, as will be apparent from a general view of their commerce, notwithſtanding the weight of that accuſation in Portugal is levelled at us, through the folly and ignorance in ſome, and from a want of ſpirit, abilities, and reſolution in others; for Portugal, of all kingdoms in the world, has the leaſt reaſon to miſuſe or affront Great-Britain.

The imports in Portugal, for their home and colonies conſumptions, are almoſt all things neceſſary for the ſupport, convenience, ornament, or luxury of life; of moſt of which articles we ſhall give ſome account, when we come to treat ſeparately of the trade of each country.

The nature of the government of this kingdom, which is entirely abſolute, has too ſtrong a tendency to oppreſſions, deſtructive of induſtry, eſpecially in thoſe parts of the country where the climate is an additional encourager of lazineſs, as well as the promoter of vice. To which may be added, the invincible pride of all noble and genteel families, every branch of whom will abſolutely ſtarve, rather than uſe any ſort of employment for their ſupport. But above all, the burthens of prieſts, friars, nuns, and the ſuperſtitious influence they have over the people, as well as an univerſal litigious diſpoſition in the whole nation, conſpire to make every order of the people in that country poor. Theſe, joined to the natural ſterility of the ſoil, the number of ſoldiers neceſſary to garriſon a country which is almoſt all frontier, and whoſe pay is ſo ſmall as to oblige them to a life of celibacy, the great number of religious orders of all ſorts, and the neceſſary draught of people for their immenſe extent of territory in America, keeps the mother-country continually weak in people. So that they do, and muſt always, depend on the ſuccours and ſupplies of other nations, both for their protection and ſubſiſtence.

But the all-wiſe diſpenſer of bleſſings, to ſupply their deficiency in ſtrength, and the extent of kingdom, as well as of the exterior wealth of the earth, and even induſtry, has given them a treaſure from under it. Their gold and diamond mines in America, have enabled their monarchs of late, to figure amongſt the great potentates of Europe, and made them generally reſpected, from the convenient and neceſſary commerce carried on to their dominions, greatly beneficial to all.

The people of Portugal in general, look on no nation with ſo evil an eye as Spain: France they have no affection nor eſteem for; and always expreſs a juſt ſenſe of the natural connection they have with Great-Britain in commerce and intereſt, as well as faith and reliance on our ſupport in times of need.

We ſhall now return to the ſtate of the commerce; and, for the reaſons given above, muſt obſerve, the native poverty of Portugal was ſo great, on the diſcovery of their gold mines, that they would have found it impoſſible to have worked them, but from the credit given by other countries, and particularly Great-Britain, in the neceſſary commodities for that purpoſe. And as their returns of bullion augmented, their credit from us, and by degrees all other countries, grew greater; and though now conſiderably enriched themſelves, they ſtill work their very mines, and carry on almoſt all their colony commerce, and much of their home trade, with foreign capitals. For they are credited with all articles of traffic, 'till the returns come round: inſomuch that the merchants of other countries, not only ſtand the diſburſe of the coſt of their goods, and the charges of tranſporting them to Portugal, but alſo of the king's duties there, (which are very high on moſt of the articles that are re-exported) 'till, as was ſaid before, the returns for them arrive. A cuſtom and confidence ſo greatly advantageous to the king, as well as the ſubjects of Portugal, that the foreign merchants ſettled among them, eſpecially the Engliſh, ought to live under the faireſt and ſtrongeſt protection, even had they

they no treaty to exact it; becauſe, on the ſupport of the foreign factories, that neceſſary credit muſt depend: for, without ſuch merchants or factors reſiding in the kingdom, no ſuch credits could with ſafety be given, nor would it be ſo at all: and this as ſtrongly behoves every nation, that would preſerve it's commerce to that kingdom, to ſupport it's merchants eſtabliſhed there; otherwiſe the trade of that country will go gradually declining, and at laſt be entirely loſt.

The exports from Portugal to the Baltic, are ſome cargoes of ſalt, a few lemons and oranges, a little arrac, and a meer trifle of wine; ſo that the ballance paid in ſpecie muſt be exceeding great.

From Hamburgh and other neighbouring ports are imported immenſe quantities of German linens of all kinds and qualities; and, occaſionally, many of the Baltic commodities.

The exports of Hamburgh and it's neighbouring ports, are ſome ſalt, ſugar, and tobacco, whalebone, a little wine and arrac, a few lemons, oranges, and dried figs, ſome cocoa-nuts, coffee, cork, citrons, a few India goods occaſionally, and other trifling articles; the whole of which, however, cannot amount to one quarter of the value of their imports, conſequently the ballance paid in ſpecie muſt be very great. It is, notwithſtanding, to be acknowledged, the ſilver imported into Liſbon is chiefly in return for German linens, and ordinary Engliſh woollen goods; a trade greatly beneficial to Portugal.

From Holland are imported great quantities of fine thin woollen cloths, hair camblets, linens, ſpices, cordage, anchors, and all ſorts of naval ſtores, moſt of the Baltic commodities, all kinds of grain, prodigious quantities of ſmall round cheeſes, coach-horſes, arms, ammunition, and accoutrements of war, indigo, toys, and other articles.

The exports for Holland are a few lemons, oranges, and dried figs; a ſmall quantity of wines, ſome candied citrons, orchella, wool (under certificates of it's being Spaniſh), ſeveral cargoes of ſalt; diamonds, whalebone, a little ſugar and tobacco, Brazil-wood, ſome cocoa-nuts, coffee, Brazil hides, India goods, in conſiderable quantities, when to be had at public ſale; cork, ſhumac, canes for weavers, and other articles. The ballance paid by Portugal to Holland in ſpecie, and abſolutely carried over in their own ſhips, &c. is very great.

The French ſend to Portugal fine woollen cloths, various kinds of ſtuff, particularly a ſort of black goods called druggets, of which they ſell immenſe quantities for the habits of the clergy (having thereby entirely deſtroyed the conſumption of ENGLISH CRAPES, once a very important article of our trade), wrought ſilks, a great quantity of linens and cambricks, dreſſed CALVE-SKINS (another branch taken from us), HATS, SILK-STOCKINGS (both of which articles they are alſo getting from us every day), all ſorts of toys, furniture, ribbands, and moſt of the ornamental parts of female dreſs; grain of all kinds, when they have it to ſpare, and ſometimes in immenſe quantities; clarret, champagne and brandy, though prohibited, are ſmuggled in; as are flowered and figured ſilks, gold and ſilver laces, India goods, and other contraband commodities: they likewiſe import printed books, ſome ordinary ſort of cutlery ware, and an abundance of ſmaller articles, which it would be too tedious to enumerate.

By the help of wool ſmuggled from us, the French have made attempts to rival us in Portugal, in our very great article of LONG-BAYS, but hitherto without ſucceſs. God grant their future endeavours, aided by our inattention, may not bring ſuch a project to bear.

The French take from Portugal ſome raw hides, a ſmall quantity of fruit, a few cocoa-nuts, and occaſionally a little pepper; alſo ſome Brazil wood, and orchella. They formerly, likewiſe, uſed to receive ſome Brazil diamonds, but I think they now prohibit the importation of them in France. So that Portugal pays them a very great ballance in bullion, and for articles, in general, the leaſt neceſſary of any they import.

The Portugueze take from Spain immenſe quantities of cattle, both for labour and ſlaughter, a great deal of Biſcay iron, a vaſt many cheap wrought ſilks and velvets (moſt of which are ſmuggled, to defraud the king of his duties), many cargoes of a thin ſtrong kind of ruſhes, for ordinary cordage, and other uſes; printed books, ſome dried raiſins, and occaſionally corn and oil, and ſome other commodities.

The Spaniards take from Portugal, cured tunney-fiſh, ſome tobacco, a few ſugars, ſome cocoa-nuts, which are ſmuggled in, as is alſo a vaſt quantity of ſpecie; ſome part of which ballance Portugal, however, gets from them again, by the ſame method, in another part of the world. To this article we muſt alſo add, the vaſt ſums of money Portugal pays to Spain for the labour of the people of Gallicia, who are the principal ordinary working perſons at Liſbon, and in many other cities; they come young into Portugal where they work hard, and fare hard, for a conſiderable number of years: and then retire with incredible ſums, for ſuch people, to their own country.

The Italians import into Portugal immenſe quantities of wheat, a great deal of barley, and alſo a good deal of Levant rice, vermicelli, and oil occaſionally. They likewiſe import a prodigious quantity of writing paper, abundance of wrought ſilks and velvets, coral, and many expenſive curioſities; great quantities of glaſs beads, for their Guinea and home conſumption, a great many cotton goods (by ſpecial licence from Malta), many toys, and other inferior articles; not to particularize religious traffic, which is very great and public.

The Italians export from Portugal hides, a conſiderable quantity of ſugars and tobaccos, cocoa-nuts, pepper, ordinary ſpices, elephants teeth, Brazil wood, ſome drugs, and an immenſe quantity of bullion. Inſomuch that of late, while gold bore ſo high a price in England, it has been a drug all over Italy: a circumſtance well worthy of Britiſh attention.

The exports from England to Portugal are long bays of all kinds, Colcheſter bays, Spaniſh, Yorkſhire, and ſome few Glouceſter cloths; long-ells, ſhalloons, ſays, ſerges, Spital-fields, Norwich, and Coventry ſtuffs of various kinds; printed linens, watered tabbies, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, hats, great quantities of Birmingham and Sheffield wares, ſome wrought plate, lead, ſhot, copper, pewter, tin, coals, corn of all kinds, pulſe, flour, biſcuit, iron, hoops, toys, watches, arms and accoutrements of war, ſome cordage, ſhip-chandlery articles; and, in fine, almoſt every thing produced or made here that is uſeful, and cheaper than in other countries.

From Scotland they have barley, and a little cured ling.

From Ireland they receive butter in great quantities, ſalted beef and pork, ſalted ſalmon, and ſome ordinary camblets, barley and potatoes.

From Newfoundland, New England, and Nova Scotia, dried cod-fiſh, and particularly from the former place, in great quantities.

From Carolina, ſeveral cargoes of rice.

From New York, Philadelphia, Virginia, and Maryland, wheat, flour, Indian corn, biſcuit, pipe-ſtaves, bees wax, and lumber.

They alſo buy moſt of their commercial ſhipping from us, ſome river built, by order, but moſtly of Old or New England conſtruction, that have been uſed.

We export from Portugal almoſt all the wines that are ſhipped from their whole dominions, including the weſtern iſlands and Madeira. The ſame of lemons and oranges, ſalt for all our fiſheries, and moſt of our colonies uſe, in North America; for our fiſheries in England and Scotland, and to Ireland prodigious quantities for their fiſheries, exported proviſions, and the whole national uſe; dried figs, raiſins, almonds, cork, ſhumac, orchella, citrons, ſugars of late, in very great quantities for Ireland, near, if not ſufficient, for that kingdom's conſumption, and from thence we have heard a great many, when refined, have been run into England; the whole to the great reproach of our colony management, as is alſo our traffic there in French ſugars. Diamonds, both of Brazil and India, Brazil wood, arrac, and occaſionally other Indian commodities, which our ſhips ſmuggle into many parts of the Britiſh dominions; oil when they have it to ſpare, at a reaſonable rate; and ſometimes cocoa nuts, elephant's teeth, drugs, a few tobaccos and other articles.

N. B. I have not placed their cotton among the exports for any particular country, as hitherto they have not received great quantities from Marnham, and there are generally bidders upon it of all nations, who ſend it to thoſe places where it is likely to turn to account, the importation, I think, being prohibited no where.

From this ſhort view of the particulars of the Portugal commerce, it is apparent, that the trade of Great-Britain with Portugal, is the leaſt burthenſome, and diſadvantageous to them of any; that in no article do we enjoy any preference, or receive any favour; but, on the contrary, in the branch of fine cloths, a manifeſt injury.

I ſhall now recommend a few points, ſays this judicious patriot merchant, to the immediate conſideration of whom they may concern.

And firſt, I recommend to ſome ſubſtantial fabricant, or public-ſpirited gentleman, to endeavour in ſome place where labour is cheap, to ſet a manufacture on foot that may rival the BLACK FRENCH DRUGGETS; an article which, if it could be brought to bear, would employ every inhabitant of a conſiderable village *.

* Since this worthy gentleman has ſuggeſted this matter, for the public benefit, I have alſo followed his example, and recommended the ſame to one of the moſt ingenious maſter woollen manufacturers in the kingdom, who reſides in a cheap country, and who has aſſured me, that he will undertake the ſame, provided I can furniſh him with patterns of that ſpecies of the French manufacture. Wherefore, I muſt requeſt the favour of this public-ſpirited gentleman, to oblige me with patterns of ſuch druggets as he would have our manufacturers imitate; and I hope to be able to give him an acceptable account of the ſucceſs. They are deſired to be directed, in a packet, for me, to be left with Mr Knapton, Bookſeller, in London.

New Remarks since the foregoing.

Since the above, I have received patterns of the beforementioned French druggets, and put them into the hands of certain manufacturers, in order that trials might be made thereof in our kingdom; and the trial has ſucceeded, with reſpect to the quality of the manufacture, but not in price, by every one who has attempted it. I have been informed, that one of the manufacturers did ſucceed at PENRYN IN CORNWALL; and it has been affirmed, that they were made ſo cheap, at the commencement of the laſt war, as to have been delivered at the Liſbon markets for the ſame price that the French do theirs.—But it ſeems, that, it ſo fell out, that this branch of manufacture, which would have been attended with great national advantages, has been put a ſtop to, and the manufacturer almoſt ruined, becauſe he voted according to his conſcience for members of parliament, at the laſt general election.

Whether this can be done, ſince the encreaſe of our taxes, occaſioned by the laſt war, I have never heard.

Theſe light druggets, commonly called the French druggets, is a kind of cloth greatly eſteemed by the Spaniards and Portugueze, for it's being well worked, though at the ſame time thin, light, and cheap. The French were the firſt introducers of this manufacture; and are, at this time, the ſole venders thereof in the Liſbon and Spaniſh markets, to the great detriment of our trade. Theſe druggets are made in France of the beſt of the Spaniſh or Turkey wool, which are very well prepared and ſcribbled; and afterwards ſpun into the fineſt yarn that thoſe wools will admit of.—When placed in the loom, the chain and filling, or warp and woof, muſt be of one quality, and be driven pretty cloſe, as this cloth muſt not be beat up cloſe after it is wove; (THESE LAST PARTICULARS ARE WHAT THE GENERALITY OF OUR BRITISH MANUFACTURERS HAVE ERRED IN) a yard of this cloth, which is half-ell wide, when finiſhed, ſhould not weigh above four ounces.

The French ſell their druggets at Liſbon from 1s. 6d. to 1s. 10d. per yard. The French and Dutch ſuperfine cloths, which they underſell us with, at the Liſbon and Turkey, and other ſouthern markets, are greatly inferior to the ſuperfine cloths which are made in England, for laſting; but this is not the principal quality which the inhabitants of thoſe hot countries deſire in their cloth. They deſire a cloth, which is thin, and light, and of an inferior price to our ſuperfine cloth; but, at the ſame time it muſt be well dyed, and look pleaſing to the eye: this is the kind of cloth which the French and Dutch ſupply them with, and which our manufacturers cannot be brought to manufacture, becauſe they imagine it greatly inferior to our own; but if we expect thoſe people ſhould buy our goods, we muſt ſupply them with ſuch as are the moſt agreeable to them. Both of thoſe branches of manufacture may be carried on in ſeveral parts of this kingdom; and, therefore, if the government would give a bounty for the exportation of thoſe cloths, for a few years, 'till proper manufactories were eſtabliſhed, by way of encouragement, and uſe every meaſure to annihilate all thoſe taxes, will fall the heavieſt upon our manufactures, and duly regulate all the poor of the kingdom, we ſhall be able to rival, and underſell both the French and Dutch at all the ſouthern markets. See our articles, POOR, TAXES.

Secondly, To ſome of our northern counties, or to Ireland, I recommend, continues this gentleman, the making the ſort of cheeſe ſent by the Dutch to Liſbon; of which many cargoes go in a year: and I cannot think but in our country, they are to be made cheaper.

Thirdly, To whom it concerns, to ſupport and extend our HAT TRADE; chiefly by preventing the ſale of beaver to the French, and to encourage the importing of greater quantities of it.

Fourthly, Improving our ſilk-ſtocking buſineſs as much as poſſible, in point of cheapneſs and quality; particularly in gauze fabrics.

Of the extraction of gold from Portugal.

I am now, ſays this gentleman, to diſcuſs the intereſting point, that has puzzled ſo many weak heads; I mean the extraction of gold from Portugal, which has been ever fooliſhly repreſented as an immenſe evil to that kingdom, ſuffered, however, out of great kindneſs and particular favour to us, as is pretended.

Nothing is more evident, than that gold is, in itſelf, of no other value than for the neceſſary and convenient uſes it can be put to. For example, I will ſuppoſe every Portugueze had his houſe full of that metal, and was at the ſame time in want (as he muſt be if he would not part with it) of comfortable food and raiment; might he not, in ſuch a caſe, with propriety, be ſaid, amidſt his uſeleſs heaps of ſhining ore, to be miſerable, poor, and wretched? What are individuals, or what is a ſtate the better for dead and uſeleſs piles of wealth? It certainly might as well be kept under ground, as brought above it to no purpoſe; nay, it had better be kept there, on ſuch principles, than produced to the light; becauſe the care and labour of working the mines would then be avoided.

Should the whole race of Portugueze fall again into their old penurious, and inelegant methods of life; feed upon pulſe, or other ſuch ordinary food, and that in a ſparing manner, nay, even without cleanlineſs; when their own corn was exhauſted, if they would content themſelves with eating cheſnuts inſtead of bread, as the poor, in bad years, yet do in the north part of their kingdom; or with the pods of the locuſt tree, which often ſupply the like wants to this day in Algarve: I ſay, if the people of the metropolis and other affluent parts of their kingdom, could condeſcend to forego the comforts of grateful food, kick off their ſhoes and ſtockings once more, and make, as in times paſt, an ordinary cloak their cloathing by day, and only bed by night, of what value would gold become? Or, in what ſhape could they propoſe to make it ſerviceable to them? For my part, I ſee no other uſe it could poſſibly be put to, than the buying of themſelves, in time of need, a protection obſtinately to poſſeſs a wretched and comfortleſs independence. Whereas, on the contrary, by parting with their gold in commerce to other kingdoms [ſee the article BULLION], they enjoy, not only the comforts, but elegancies of life; make a reſpectful figure in Europe, and are ſecure, ſingly from Great-Britain (while they are ſo wiſe as to preſerve her friendſhip), of a fuller and ſafer protection than they could poſſibly buy from the hire of all the mercenary troops upon earth.

That Portugal muſt and does pay a great ballance in bullion to every other nation ſhe trades with, I hope, has been made apparently obvious: but if a further proof thereof is wanting, I appeal to the weekly, nay, I may almoſt ſay daily, practice of our buying bills of exchange for thoſe ballances of the ſeveral countries to whom they are due.

Such debts of Portugal do we purchaſe, commonly for ready money, in an exchange buſineſs, which ſeldom gives a profit equal to national intereſt, and a decent premium for ſea riſques: and yet is a negociation more favourable for us than any other nation, on account of our ſituation, and the number of privileged ſhips we continually have at Liſbon; as alſo from the ſuperior characters of our mercantile navigators, to thoſe of Holland and other countries; inſomuch that our ſhips not only bring the money to England, but are alſo the general carriers of it, for all nations, to Italy. Thus becauſe our ſhipping is principally uſed for the extraction of gold, and our country is made greatly a channel for it's conveyance, both the ignorant of Portugal and of Great-Britain imagine the ballance of our commerce with Portugal immenſely greater than it really is; for, as I ſaid before, England is only a channel for the greateſt part of the ſpecie our ſhips bring from Portugal; moſt of it going out of the kingdom at her eaſtern ports, as ſurely as it enters at the weſtern ones; ſo that our gain on the traffic for the payments Portugal makes to many other nations, by the way of England, including freight, commiſſion, profit, and charges, may be reaſonably eſtimated at from two and an half, to three per cent. and no more. Such is the profit for which we do the buſineſs, run the riſques, and bear the odium in Portugal, belonging to other countries.

I cannot quit this head without obſerving, that it is exceeding ill policy in Portugal to make the riſque of extracting gold great; becauſe, according to the difficulties, the exchanges will be proportioned more or leſs againſt them. And I muſt add, if we were not the carriers of any, it would nevertheleſs go, and more to the diſadvantage of Portugal: for national ballances, like thoſe of private people, muſt be paid, ought to be ſo, and will be, in bullion, let what laws ſoever be made to hinder it. See BULLION, and BALLANCE of TRADE.

The Portugueze, therefore, as our friends and well-wiſhers, ought, by all means, to preſerve to us the advantage of being the carriers of their bullion. Nay, the late king of Portugal did ſo, on a patriot principal, after his eyes were once well opened, as they were in Wingfield and Roberts's affair *; for it is well known he ever after diſcouraged informations and diligences about the extraction of coin, being well ſatiſfied of the abſolute neceſſity there was for it's going out of his kingdom.

* Two Engliſh merchants of eminence who were condemned to be hanged in Liſbon for ſhipping off gold (but not duſt, as has been ignorantly imagined), on which his late Britannic Majeſty appointed a fleet to be immediately equipped, as was really done; and the very order had it's proper effect, by ſaving the gentlemen's lives, reſtoring their effects, and convincing the king of Portugal of his error.

Nothing ſhews the ſenſe and ſpirit of the Britiſh court better, in regard to this matter, than the ſpeech of the great lord Galway, made in the year 1709, to his late Portugueze Majeſty (when that nobleman was general there of the Britiſh forces, and ambaſſador from queen Anne) on a project then in agitation at the court of Liſbon, to prevent the extraction of bullion: of which lord Galway having received infor-

mation, he immediately demanded an audience of the king, to whom he ſtrongly and elegantly delivered his ſenſe on the ſubject, in the following manner:

'Your Majeſty cannot be ſufficiently commended for the ſteady attention you have always ſhewn to the affairs of your government. And the pains you have lately beſtowed on examining into the ballance of trade, is a new proof of that merit which would entitle you to the crown, had it not deſcended to you from a long and glorious line of royal anceſtors. —But permit me, Sire, to obſerve, that there is a greater king; one by whom all kings reign, and whoſe providence is over all his works. According to his diſtribution of things, riches belong to ſome nations, and induſtry to others; and by theſe means the liberality of Heaven is made equal to all. Vain, Sire, are all haman councils, when oppoſed to his wiſdom; and feeble the efforts, even of royal powers, when directed to croſs his will. You have forbid gold to be exported out of your dominions, and you would willingly inforce the prohibition: but the thing is impracticable. You may reſtrain your ſubjects, but you cannot ſet bounds to their neceſſities. But ſay this was poſſible: ſuppoſe you could defeat the induſtry of the northern nations; what would be the conſequence? Their huſbandmen, graziers, weavers, and all that infinite train of manufacturers that now labour quietly at home, to cloath and feed your ſubjects, would then turn ſoldiers; and, inſtead of ſeeing their marchantmen in Liſbon, you would hear of their fleets conveying them to BRAZIL, to fetch much more of that gold you now fetch for them. Beſides, Sire, if they are gainers by their trade, they thereby become the natural guarantees of your dominions. It is not only their treaty, but intereſts, that bind them to your ſervices. You have potent enemies, and you require powerful friends. The ambition of France knows no bounds, and the pride of Spain will teach her to keep up a perpetual claim to your territories and crown. You have no recourſe to fruſtrate the views and defeat the endeavours of theſe potentates, but to the MARITIME POWERS; and, therefore, let me beſeech your Majeſty to conſider, that every project to diſtreſs them, is, in effect, a ſcheme to deſtroy yourſelf.'

This ſpeech had it's deſired effect, as ſuch ſpeeches ever muſt have in Portugal; at leaſt while the preſent ſyſtems of power and politics remain as they are in Europe, or the Portugueze preſerve their ſenſes, or the governing men their true loyalty to their king, and a generous zeal and patriot love for their country.

Of the privileges to which the Britiſh ſubjects in Portugal are entitled by treaty.

Of theſe privileges, many were the ſpecial grants (doubtleſs for wiſe reaſons) of ſeveral of the kings of Portugal in antient times, and were mere acts of grace and favour, 'till the celebration of Cromwell's treaty with John the IVth, when they became our abſolute right, by being declared ſuch in the third article thereof.

I ſhall now mention the particular articles of privileges at preſent contended for, as well as others that are loſt, and ſhall ſubjoin a ſhort obſervation on moſt of them.

We will begin with a very neceſſary one, which is the right of having juſtice duly adminiſtered in Portugal: and that certainly ought not to be reckoned a favour in any nation: but it is at preſent too well known to be the caſe in Portugal (and I am afraid has been for many ages paſt the cuſtom there) to regard perſonal influence more than impartial juſtice, in judicial determinations; which, doubtleſs, occaſioned the treaty's being ſo very full as it is, of regulations on that head.

The office of judge-conſervator is our ſtipulated right, by the 7th article of the treaty, whoſe province it is to judge all our cauſes: but with a right, however, for either party to appeal to a body of judges, who are to give the final ſentence within four months: which rule is ſo far from being obſerved at preſent, that law-ſuits may be kept undetermined for forty years. The judge-conſervator is, likewiſe, to protect the ſubjects of Great-Britain (not from juſtice, but) from wicked or vexatious inſults. But that authority, like every other, is now taken from him; and our merchants of the moſt reſpectable figure, are thereby ſubjected to the inſolences of the very meaneſt fellows in office, having many of them been carried by ſuch (unheard, unexamined) both with and without orders from their ſuperiors, to the Newgates and Gatehouſes of the kingdom; and ſuffered outrages in their houſes and properties (as we ſhall hereafter give examples of) without a poſſibility of obtaining reparation, or any ſort of ſatisfaction whatever; even after proving the illegality of the proceeding, and the innocence of the inſulted perſon.

Let every merchant of Great-Britain, every ſubject of theſe kingdoms, think ſeriouſly of ſuch a ſituation; and never venture more to pronounce a valuable body of their country-men blameable for ſoliciting, nay demanding (for it is their right) protection from ſuch unjuſtifiable violences; or that their judge-conſervator may be reſtored to his ſtipulated authority for that purpoſe.

As to the navigation articles for America, they are all become now of no account: our ſhips are not allowed, unleſs in diſtreſs, to go to any of their colonies, except Mazagam and their African iſlands, and there without preference. The right of having houſes of trade in Brazil, and their other ſettlements, is alſo entirely taken from us.

The right of a legal navigation and commerce to Portugal, with an equitable ſecurity of property, particularly in periſhable commodities, and ſome of them owing no duties to the king, are ſtipulated to be free from all vexatious embaraſſments; all of which is agreeable to reaſon, juſtice, and good policy, for them to allow of; and yet in moſt of thoſe articles our merchants are eternally plagued with vexatious obſtructions and plunderings, of which ſeveral very extraordinary examples ſhall be produced.

We have alſo, by ſtipulation, a right to the wearing of ſuch arms for our defence; as are uſed by the native: an article which I hope is not thought a favour for us to enjoy, becauſe thoſe nations who have no treaties with them do the ſame, and ought to do it in every country.

The liberty of profeſſing our religion, likewiſe, I hope this nation has too much dignity to receive as a favour from any in Europe, eſpecially while the ſame indulgence is granted to the people of all countries in Great-Britain.

That debts owing to our merchants by perſons ſequeſtered by the king or inquiſition, ſhould be made good to the creditors, is certainly a very reaſonable and neceſſary ſtipulation: yet in regard to the king it is not obſerved, in regard to the inquiſition it is.

That the king, or any other power, by arbitrary protections, ſhall not guard the effects of our debtors from legal executions, is likewiſe an article of mere juſtice, yet it is frequently and wantonly violated.

The not protecting our run-away ſailors, on a pretence of changing their religion, and the obliging them, when demanded to return to their ſhips, is an article now not at all regarded by the Portugueze: on the contrary, they are encouraged in unreaſonable and inſolent proſecution of their captains, ſeduced from their duty, and ſupported in their reſiſtance; debauched in infamous houſes, where they are encouraged to run in debt; for the payment of which, they are afterwards ſold like cattle to the Portugueze and others; ſuch practice being abſolutely become a traffic in Liſbon, to the diſhonour as well as prejudice of Great-Britain.

The Britiſh factory have a right, under the authority of their judge-conſervator, to appoint, out of their own body, adminiſtrators of the effects of ſuch of their countrymen who die without partners, or inteſtate: which is certainly, not only a very reaſonable, but very neceſſary article, and can be no evil to Portugal.

Our merchants are exempted from hired or perſonal military ſervice, as well as their domeſtics; and from civil and religious offices, and all church tributes, which in ſome points are merely reaſonable and agreeable to the practice of all nations: in others, moſt neceſſary exemptions. They have, moreover, the right of having all neceſſaries for their houſes and perſons, and thoſe of their families, duty free, but this privilege is now made of little conſequence to them. They have likewiſe, by royal decrees and the laws of the land, the right of being treated as gentlemen, even in the article of criminal proſecutions; but it is ſo far loſt to them, that they are continually, even from wanton inſolence, treated as ſlaves: and they have another privilege, which is that of being priſoners at large for debt.

By the ſeparate and ſecret article, the regulation of DUTIES on our WOOLLEN GOODS is made; but to the manifeſt prejudice both of Great-Britain and Portugal, it is, like moſt of the others, never regarded.

Such are the Britiſh privileges in Portugal, and the ſubſtance of the ſtipulations in our favour of the treaty with that crown, which ignorant perſons have thought full of mighty advantage to this nation: whereas the fact is ſo far otherwiſe, that if they join Charles the IId's treaty, and that of queen Anne to Oliver Cromwell's, and then take a cool view of our ſituation, and that of other nations in Portugal, it will be found we are upon much the worſt footing with them of any nation, being in nothing favoured in trade, and yet we are the only nation obliged to ſuccour and protect them, as we frequently have done at an immenſe expence.

The treaty made between queen Anne and Peter the IId of Portugal, conſiſting but of two articles (except the preamble and concluſion) and thoſe being ſhort ones, I ſhall here give them entire to the public.

ARTICLE I.

'His ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit for ever hereafter into Portugal, the WOOLLEN CLOTHS and the reſt of the WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES OF THE BRITONS, as was accuſtomed, 'till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheleſs upon this condition, that is to ſay,

ARTICLE II.

That her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged, for ever hereafter

hereafter, to admit the WINES of the growth of Portugal into Great-Britian; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by any other title whatſoever, directly or indirectly (whether they ſhall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogſheads, or other caſks) than what ſhall be demanded for the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſaid royal Majeſty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures.'

I muſt here obſerve, that the cloth trade is not the only article to which we have an excluſive right; becauſe the treaty manifeſtly gives it for WOOLLEN GOODS IN GENERAL; and ſuch was the right that we accordingly did enjoy, in it's full and genuine ſenſe, 'till the late Dutch conſul M. Heſterman, found the means of explaining it away in favour of his nation, who thereupon began introducing Dutch cloths, now increaſed to a great trade.

And the French have ſince taken the like advantage of our ſupineneſs to traffic in cloths to Portugal, though in ſecret; and the better to cover it, their cloths go with ENGLISH MARKS, TICKETS, and PACKAGE, [to confirm the truth of which, ſee the article FRANCE, Vol. I. page 815] though they are well enough known: and as to any other kinds of FRENCH WOOLLEN GOODS, they are imported into Portugal openly, and in very great quantities.

From the ſenſe of the treaty, enforced by many years practice, it ſhould ſeem clear, that we have the SOLE EXCLUSIVE RIGHT of importing woollen goods of all kinds into Portugal; and we are the only nation who gave them an equivalent for that right; the conditions whereof, to their advantage, being duly obſerved by us, ſurely demands as honourable an obſervation on their part, of the ſtipulations made in our favour; and I ſee no reaſon for ſuffering ourſelves quietly to be elbowed out of our rightful poſſeſſions by any intruders whatever.

In regard to our national dignity, weight, and privileges, I have only to add, as a ſerious truth, that the Portugueze people laugh, nay, cry ſhame on us, for given them ſo tamely and readily up. The French act in all points with a quite different ſpirit: they have NO TREATY, NO PRIVILEGES, but from favour; and yet, from being better ſupported, their MERCHANTS gain ground on ours every day.

Of the unjuſtifiable treatment that our Britiſh merchants have lately ſuſtained in Portugal.

Having already explained, that a principal uſe of the conſervatorial office is to protect our merchants from oppreſſive vexations and perſecutions, I ſhall now, in proof of the ill conſequence of that officer's loſing his power, mention two recent and very extraordinary impriſonments, that our Britiſh merchants have ſuffered in Portugal.

The firſt was of a gentleman, who went on board of an Engliſh packet boat, on the morning ſhe was to ſail, to take leave of a friend, who was coming in her to England. He had been guilty of no tranſgreſſion; yet, on his return to the ſhore, he was ſeized by the officers of a cuſtom-houſe boat, and without any legal authority, nay even without carrying him before any magiſtrate whatever, he was, by people of no higher account than tide-waiters, hurried to the moſt ignominious priſon of Liſbon, where he remained a conſiderable time; and, at laſt, from the ſtrongeſt interceſſion of one of the higheſt * noblemen, both in rank and employment, made to the governing man of the cuſtom-houſe, he was, reluctantly, by that officer, ſuffered to become a priſoner at large; and has ſince left the kingdom, without receiving an entire releaſement, or any ſort of ſatisfaction for the inſult.

* The marquis of Mariabua, captain-general of the forces of Portugal, and maſter of the horſe to the king.

The ſecond was of a gentleman, who had a barrel of beer depoſited under his charge, about which there was a judicial contention; and there happening to leak out of the caſk a trifling quantity of the liquor, the ſame head officer of the cuſtom-houſe made the leakage a pretence (to gratify a pique) for committing him of a ſudden to the common priſon; from whence he, however, ſoon got releaſed, by the interpoſition of a * lady of very high quality, as no ſort of offence could be reaſonably alledged in excuſe for the violence done him.

* The marchioneſs of Gouvea, lady to the hereditary lord ſteward of the king's houſhold.

Biſcuit is a commodity that pays no duty to the king of Portugal, nor any fees but a few at the cuſtom-houſe. Yet the ſame good director of that office, took it of a ſudden into his head to inſiſt, that an Engliſh merchant, who had then imported a conſiderable quantity, ſhould pay a duty on it. The merchant diſputed the point: a proceſs enſued, and the biſcuit was thereby detained in the cuſtom-houſe warehouſes 'till it was ſpoiled: then the health-officers ſeized and condemned it, nay, laid a fine on the merchant for having bad proviſions on hand; whilſt his antagoniſt of the cuſtom-houſe notified him at his own charge, to throw his biſcuit into the river; which he was forced to comply with, and has never been able ſince to obtain any kind of redreſs for the wrong.

Alſo a Britiſh houſe of great figure, that had large warehouſes, at a country-ſeat they hired about a league above Liſbon, on the banks of the river, had a viſitation there by the very meaneſt officers of the cuſtom-houſe, under a pretence of ſearching for ſmuggled goods. The family being in town, and only one ſervant there, who had not the keys of the warehouſes, on their being demanded to be opened, the officers were told by the ſervant that he would ſend for his maſters and the keys, as he immediately did: but they inſolently, and without legal authority, broke open the doors; and finding nothing to ſeize, left the warehouſes expoſed to plunder, as the gentlemen found them when they arrived; for they went thither directly with their keys, on receiving the notice that was ſent them. For this, like all other violences, no ſort of ſatisfaction could be obtained: and yet if theſe fellows had carried but a pound of foreign tobacco, ſnuff, or ſoap, or a ſingle pack of foreign cards, and then ſwore they had found them there, this Britiſh houſe of trade would have been confiſcated and ruined.

The 17th article of the treaty expreſsly ſays, 'If it happens that any controverſy does ariſe between the ſaid king's inſpectors, officers, or miniſters, and the ſaid merchants, concerning the goodneſs of fiſh, or any other ſorts of proviſion whatſoever, which ſhall be carried to any of the ſaid king's dominions; the ſame ſhall be determined by the arbitration of good men, provided they are Portugueze, who ſhall be equally choſen by the magiſtrate of the place, and the conſul of the Engliſh nation, and they ſhall determine the buſineſs in ſuch a manner, that no damage may accrue to the owner in the mean time, while the matter is in diſpute.'

Notwithſtanding the equitable precautions in this article of the treaty, the health-officers are guilty of ſuch arbitrary inſolences and plunderings, as are wicked and infamous to the higheſt degree. For example, in the ſummer of the year 1752, a great quantity of foreign grain being then at Liſbon, under falſe and ridiculous pretences, they exerciſed ſuch tyrannies as would diſgrace, even a Barbary government. They ſeized on whole warehouſes of corn, fined the owners of it, condemned the grain, and threw conſiderable quantities, at the expence of the owners, into the river. From others they took bribes to be quiet, which was the real end they drove at, and not the ſafety of the public; for it is well known the people of that office are capable, for money, of ſuffering the very plague to be imported and ſold. With ſuch proceedings it muſt be concluded, all the holders of grain were greatly terrified; inſomuch that the prices of wheat, and eſpecially the Engliſh (which is not ſo fit for keeping as Straights grain at any time, and was that year, from a wet harveſt, of an inferior quality) fell 50, 60, nay 70 per cent. in price; ſo that the whole Britiſh commerce did not loſe leſs that ſummer than 50,000 l. ſterling, beſides the ſums given in bribes to thoſe harpies the health-officers.

On that occaſion, the whole Portugueze nation cried ſhame on ſuch proceedings! However, the ſpoilers found protection, the merchants were plundered without redreſs, and the dealers in Engliſh grain ſuffered more in proportion than any others. I muſt here beg leave to inſtance one barbarous act of their wanton tyranny, which was as follows:

Two Engliſh houſes, who had a great deal of our country wheat on hand, finding their corn begin to ſuffer in quality, from the hot weather and weavel, joined together in a petition to the health-office, for leave to ſhip it off, under bond-ſecurity for producing certificates of it's being landed in other countries; which petition was rejected, under the unwarrantable and improbable pretence, that they might convey it to other parts of Portugal, and obtain forged certificates to cover the fraud: whilſt their real motive for the refuſal was, not to let a commodity get out of their power, which they had hopes of ſqueezing gains from. And, as a proof of the iniquity of this proceeding, I can aver, that the corn was afterwards ſold for making bread at Liſbon; alſo, that it made very good bread; and yet it was embarraſſed in it's ſales by the health-officers, to the great loſs of thoſe who had ſued for a juſt and reaſonable right, and were refuſed it.

The hard impoſitions that even attend the unlading of corn on it's arrival at Liſbon, can be vouched for by almoſt every maſter of a ſhip that uſes the trade. It muſt be eaſily conceived, that hardly any cargo of corn can be navigated without receiving ſome little damage, either from heating, or water made by the ſhip on her paſſage. The firſt kind of prejudice is always removed by care in the warehouſe, after it is landed; and for the ſecond, any corn damaged by ſalt-water, it has been cuſtomery to ſell for what it might be found worth, to feed hogs or other animals with; for corn can hardly be ſo bad, as not to ſerve well for ſome neceſſary uſe.

uſe. Yet the health-officers have been ſo tyrannical of late, as to throw into the river great quantities of grain but little damaged, and ſometimes when it was not at all ſo, merely to extort inſquitous fees for themſelves.

It was not long ago that a merchant had a cargo of corn conſigned to him, ſome of which was ſpoiled by the ſhip's making water on the voyage; when he heard of it, he ordered the damaged wheat to be thrown overboard: no, ſays the health-officer, there muſt be a diligence done, and fees paid: the gentleman replied, there was no neceſſity for any ſuch diligence, ſince all he could do was to cauſe the corn to be thrown away, and he did not want to preſerve it: but his remonſtrances were in vain, for the pickpocket innovation was inſiſted on.

Such were the tranſactions in the corn trade, in the year 1752; and in the laſt ſummer, which was the following one, another game was played equally tyrannical and unjuſt: the harveſt had failed in Spain, and the crop alſo proved very ſhort in Portugal: however, in the latter kingdom there was a very conſiderable ſtock of foreign grain on hand; and, though the price of it was raiſed, yet the merchants went on ſelling it in their uſual manner, without any combination, fraud, or ill practice in their proceedings. They were not moleſted for a conſiderable time, that orders might be given for buying up farther great quantities, as was actually done, for a future ſupply: but in the month of Auguſt, juſt the dangerous time for embarraſſments to the ſtock on hand, miſrepreſentations having been made, out comes a ROYAL ORDINATION to circumſcribe and impede the ſales of grain; nay, in effect, to take it, in that critical ſeaſon, out of the proprietors hands; or at leaſt, putting it out of their power to uſe the proper means for it's preſervation, thereby expoſing many people to ruin: nay more, they were made liable to a treatment due only to the vileſt of felons, and that, even without the power of being heard in their own defence, for the order expreſsly directed the preſident of the corn-market to take out ſecret informations concerning all tranſgreſſors of it, and tranſmit them to the ſecretary of ſtate, for the king to determine the puniſhment in his cloſet.

Down falls corn on this proceeding, 25 per cent. in it's prices, which might make the difference of near another 50,000l. ſterling on the year's trade; beſides the danger to the merchants (from falſe informations) of ſequeſtration, corporal puniſhment, and baniſhment from the kingdom; all againſt the force of judicial determination, as well as reaſon and cuſtom; and alſo againſt the ſanction of a NATIONAL TREATY, in the 10th article of which there is this ſtipulation: 'And the people of this republic (England) may freely carry arms, corn, fiſh, and all other ſorts of merchandize, into the kingdom, ports, and territories of the king of Portugal, and ſell the ſame at their pleaſure, either by RETAIL or WHOLESALE, TO ANY PERSON WHATSOEVER, and for whatever prices they can get; AND THEY SHALL NOT BE PROHIBITED, CIRCUMSCRIBED, OR INCAPACITATED, BY HIS SAID ROYAL MAJESTY, OR HIS MINISTERS, GOVERNORS, FARMERS OF THE REVENUES, OR MONOPOLIES, OR BY ANY CHAMBER OR JURISDICTION OF ANY TRIBUNAL, EITHER PUBLIC OR PRIVATE.'

Such were the ſecurities under which the merchants had ſent for the corn, about which they were treated as before deſcribed. I have now only to add on the ſubject, that foreign grain is, by the very laws of the kingdom, a free trade; owing no kind of duty to the king, nor any fee whatever to his officers, except a trifle for any entry at the corn-table; and, therefore, there was no lawful plea for cauſing the prejudices our merchants were made to ſuffer, or the very alarming dangers to which they were ſo arbitrarily expoſed.

The Portugueze unjuſtifiable treatment of the Britiſh merchants in other reſpects.

Part of the ſeparate or ſecret article of the treaty between England and Portugal begins thus: 'That the people and inhabitants of England, trading (as has been already mentioned) in the kingdoms, dominions, ports, and territories of the ſaid king, ſhall not pay more duties and taxes, but only in the manner following, viz. That the Engliſh goods, merchandize, and manufactures, ſhall never exceed 23 per cent. on their valuation, for the payment of the DUTIES; and they ſhall be favourably VALUED, according to the regimen (or book of rates) of the cuſtom-houſe, and the ancient laws of the kingdom; and ſuppoſe there ſhould be any motive for raiſing the valuation, by reaſon of a riſe in the real value of goods and merchandize, it ſhall not be done but by the conſent, and in the preſence of two Engliſh merchants, who reſide and dwell in Portugal, and are choſen by the Engliſh conſul; and, granting that the merchandize ſhould fall from it's preſent or future exact value, the valuation and doubt ſhall be determined by diſintereſted perſons, who ſhall be choſen by the Engliſh conſul and the officers of the cuſtom-houſe.'

Such are the ſtipulations by treaty for regulating the duties on our Britiſh manufactures in Portugal; but theſe are at preſent as little attended to in that kingdom as the reſt, to our manifeſt injury, and indeed to that of the Portugueze alſo. The great article of CRAPES, which, as before obſerved, we have now loſt, was a commodity that paid a moſt enormous duty: and at preſent, LONG ELLS and SHALLOONS, and ſome other ſort of ſtuffs, pay from 28 to 30, and even upwards per cent. DUTIES on their valuation. The conſequences of which are, that theſe branches greatly decline, and moſt of the traffic in them becomes clandeſtine, to the great prejudice of the fair traders, and alſo of the royal revenue of Portugal. Beſides, Spain lies ſo very convenient for ſmuggling in her cheap and ſtrong ſilks, that, if not timely checked, they muſt infallibly undermine a very great part of our ſtuff-trade to Portugal, which can only be preſerved by a better and juſter regulation of the duties theſe goods are to pay.

It has become a practice of late for the provedors, or chief officers of the cuſtom-houſe, to act in ſo capricious and tyrannical a manner, that our merchants can make no certain calculations on hardly any thing they deal in, notwithſtanding there is a printed BOOK OF RATES *; and there are alſo certain officers in the cuſtom-houſe, whoſe ſole buſineſs is to aſſert the qualities of merchandize; but their determinations are no farther attended to, than as the ſuperior pleaſes. I ſhall furniſh two inſtances, out of hundreds that might be produced, of his overbearing and arbitrary management.

* Let any foreign merchant ſuppoſe this to be the caſe in England, upon what a precarious footing would he ſend the commodities of other countries hither? Were not the duties upon the Portugal wines duly aſcertained here, and the treaty in this caſe inviolably regarded, what would ſoon become of the vintages in Portugal? If we ſhould be obliged to retaliate in the like manner upon the Portugueze, they would ſoon feel the calamitous effects of our reſentment.

The firſt was of ſome Engliſh cloths, of a quality often imported by the gentleman thoſe belonged to. The valuers of the goods put them at their uſual rate, the director of the cuſtom-houſe inſiſted they ſhould pay according to another. The owner remonſtrated on the injuſtice of ſuch a demand: every valuer in the cuſtom-houſe peremptorily aſſerted they could not poſſibly have an higher eſtimation than their OLD one given, without a manifeſt injury to the merchant; yet the chief officer perſiſted in his demand. The merchant appealed to the higher tribunals, his cloths lying all the while (I believe near a twelvemonth) open in the cuſtom-houſe, but could obtain no redreſs, and was forced to ſubmit to the impoſition.

The ſecond inſtance I ſhall produce was concerning printed linens. One Engliſh houſe diſpatched in the beginning of a week, ſome caſes of them, at the uſual rate of paying duties for ſuch goods, which had always been regular and certain: about the middle of the ſame week, another Engliſh houſe ſent to diſpatch ſome caſes of the very ſame goods, both for kinds and qualities, and the valuers declared the rates for them to be as USUAL. But Mr chief director peremptorily inſiſted they ſhould pay more than CENT. PER CENT. higher duties. The owner remonſtrated, but in vain; he was obliged to pay the unreaſonable exaction; nay, the duties were afterwards raiſed greatly higher. When that gentleman reproached the cuſtom-houſe valuers for the impoſition, thinking it was their fault, the poor men ſhrugged up their ſhoulders, and ſhaking their heads, replied, 'What, Sir, would you have us to do? We are as badly uſed as yourſelf. Since I—— T—— came over here and did nothing, you muſt look upon yourſelves as given into the hands of this man, as we are, for him to do what he pleaſes with.'

Such capricious and unreaſonable exactions, made without any the leaſt previous notice, deſtroy all calculation, and render uncertain every rule by which merchants can, and do regulate their proceedings; and, therefore, are acts of the moſt barbarous oppreſſion and injuſtice.

Such were the violences and injuries, that have, from time to time, created uneaſineſs in the minds of our merchants at Liſbon; and, as they were contrary to ſtipulated regulations, they were certainly ſtronger grounds for complaint.

Our merchants were, upon too good grounds, put under an extraordinary apprehenſion ſome time ago. A method was taken to quiet their fears on that head, which effectually did it. They were, however, at the ſame time, promiſed their grievances ſhould alſo be redreſſed, and their juſt privileges reſtored: but what has been the event thereof? Reader, thou ſhalt be impartially informed; for the following novelties have happened within the two years laſt paſt.

1ſt, The few remaining powers of our judge-conſervator, for protecting the Britiſh merchants, have been entirely taken away, by a public printed decree of his moſt faithful Majeſty's.

2dly, Our corn trade has been made ten times more precarious, and the perſons and fortunes of our merchants rendered unſafe, from the worſt and moſt arbitrary violences, warranted by a written ordination of the king of Portugal's, which was ſtuck upon the doors of the corn-market in Liſbon:

Liſbon: it's whole tenor expreſsly contrary to the 10th article of the treaty; which they now ſo effectually annul, as to diſpatch no petition about corn, in which a right from that treaty is claimed. *

* By petitions all kinds of applications are made to every office, and all legal proceſſes are likewiſe formed upon them.

3dly, By a decree of the king of Portugal's, in favour of that righteous officer called the provedor of the cuſtom-houſe, all caſes, wrappers, barrels, and package whatſoever, are made his due, of any merchandize, imported into Portugal, and may be taken by him in ſpecie if he pleaſes. A moſt unjuſt ordination, as well as enormous tax! for the package is certainly as much the merchant's, as the goods it contains; and, in ſome caſes, ſuch as butter, rice, and flour, for example, cannot be ſeparated. In ſhort, never was there a law ſo unreaſonable, or ſo unjuſt. That officer's chief pay aroſe formerly on a duty only on package, which the kings of Portugal might have ſome grounds for exacting, as it was a light charge to the merchants; but henceforward it may be made, what an arbitrary officer pleaſes: though, in fact, we ought to pay no ſort of duty on package, as by a decree of king Emanuel's, (now incorporated with our rights) we are entitled to import, free of duties, canvas, wrappers, bags, and other neceſſaries for carrying on our buſineſs, provided they are for our uſe, and not for ſale.

4thly, The inſecurity of the perſons and fortunes of our merchants, from the before-mentioned corn ordination, well deſerves the attention of Great-Britain.

The enumerating of theſe facts are the beſt and fulleſt vindication of our merchants at Liſbon, that can, or need to be given for their proceedings, in appealing to their ſovereign (through the proper channel of his miniſtry) for his royal ſupport and protection. They are well known to have hearts filled with zeal, loyalty, duty and affection for their king, and a becoming reſpect for all who are in authority under him: but they would no longer deſerve the name of Britons, if they acted in a manner ſo unbecoming of themſelves, as to forget that juſtice is their due, and legal liberty their birth-right. There never was a more falſe and injurious opinion propagated, than that our merchants at Liſbon are either factious, turbulent, or unreaſonable; they are not ſo, but the reverſe: and as their cauſe is juſt, they truſt it muſt prevail.

Of other diſadvantages under which the Britiſh traders in Portugal labour.

The firſt we ſhall name, is the prejudice which bigotry inſpires them with againſt us, on account of our religion. It muſt be acknowleged, to the great honour of the Portugueze, that all orders of them are very civil to foreigners, and the better ſort are particularly polite: but ſtill they are rigid Roman Catholics, with whom it is a neceſſary point of faith, to think too ſeverely of thoſe who differ from them in religious principles. And although there are many of the nation who are very obliging in their carriage, nay, that do many kind and friendly actions for our Proteſtant merchants; yet it is not to be doubted but the very beſt of them would like us ſtill better, if we profeſſed the ſame tenets with themſelves: and there are others, no doubt, who eſteem it a merit to hate us; and who think it a much leſs crime to deceive, over-reach, and defraud us, than any ſuch as are of their own Church. Beſides, the difference in religion does in a great meaſure prevent a free intercourſe with them; and hinders our having that intereſt with the clergy, in particular, which is often of very great ſervice to the Roman Catholic merchants of other countries.

The next diſadvantage our countrymen labour under, is that of having too often improper, or encapable c——s. For example, what ſervice can any man be of, in that office, who goes over advanced in years, unacquainted with the laws, language, and cuſtoms of the country, and is withal, totally ignorant of commerce? Such a man, at beſt, can be of no uſe to the merchants; and if to the want of theſe neceſſary qualifications, are to be joined the poſſeſſion of ſome bad ones, ſuch as p--de, ind---ce, ob---n--y, or p-rv--ſſn-ſs, he is ſure to do them infinate diſſervice; of which having really happened ſeveral times, numberleſs inſtances can be given. Whereas, other nations have the moſt able and experienced reſident traders appointed to that office [ſee our article CONSUL]; men, who have been of the profeſſion themſelves, will certainly feel, as well as know how to act, for the merchants. And if the national end is to appoint a conſul for the ſervice of commerce, and the ſame to be the motive for the merchants paying for his ſupport, both are diſappointed, both are wronged, by the nomination of any man, who wants affability, aſſiduity, or abilities: and what, alas! muſt be the caſe, when all theſe, and many more neceſſary, qualifications are wanting?

The factory of Liſbon had formerly the indulgence of chuſing and recommending a conſul; but fooliſhly reſigned it, to prevent animoſities from growing up among themſelves; and there are perſons yet on the ſpot who ſigned the letter for that purpoſe. Fatal reſignation! for thereby, the office is now fallen, amongſt thouſands of others, to be ſquabbled for by people who regard it for nothing but for it's profits; and who, without conſidering conſequences, think of little elſe but making the poſt as eaſy as it is profitable to them. Now, rightly conſidered, I believe it will appear, there is no power can legally oblige one Briton to pay money to another, without an act of the legiſlature to authorize it: and therefore conſulage can be conſidered only as a voluntary gratification for ſatisfactory ſervices; conſequently the merchants have a right to demand reaſonable and proper ſervices, or refuſe paying any conſul his appointments; eſpecially if it is made a reſolution of the majority of their body. But as this is a point of law, any able practitioner would greatly oblige the world by impartially diſcuſſing it, as a matter in which the proſperity of commerce, and the rights of the ſubject, are greatly intereſted.

To the ill execution of the c----r o----ce muſt be added, that our countrymen labour ſometimes under the diſadvantage of having the m---ſt---l functions too, as badly performed. It is well known, that in Portugal, ſpirit and dignity in a miniſter, are very eſſential qualities for preſerving a national reſpect, as the certain conſequences of an abject, mean, or poſillanimous behavour, are it's being ſlighted, deſpiſed, and trampled on. I will ſuppoſe, for example, that if our nation ſhould be ſo unfortunate, at any time, as to have a miniſter at that court, who, in the face of ſo very proud a people, could be ſo mean as to trade, nay, ſo indiſcreet, as even to let his name appear at the head of a compoſition in a bankruptcy, what figure can it be thought he could make? And how little muſt he of neceſſity be reſpected, either by the natives or his own countrymen? Nay, I will carry my ſuppoſition farther, and imagine a Proteſtant merchant of our factory, proſecuted without a crime, ſhould apply to him, by the direction of the body of merchants, for his protection, and ſhould receive from him this anſwer, 'I cannot protect you, I come hither for other purpoſes; if you want protection YOU MUST GO TO A CONVENT FOR IT.' I ſay, if ſuch a thing as this could poſſibly happen, what opinion would Portugal have of Great-Britain? How would our merchants there look? How would they be treated by the very meaneſt of that people? And how long, after ſuch a diſgrace, could Portugal be tolerable to a Briton?

A noble negociator, that, not an age ago, left Liſbon, on terms bad enough with his countrymen, had, (notwithſtanding his piques) the wiſdom and honour to deliver his true ſentiments on the very evening of his departure from thence, in or near the following words: 'Well, after all, the trade of this place is of great conſequence to Great-Britain; and there ought to be a MINISTER here of illuſtrous birth, with a high character, and large appointments (nor is the beſt nobleman in the kingdom too great for the office) to ſupport properly the dignity of the crown, and the rights of the nation. And there ought to be a CONSUL of ſufficient abilities, who ſhould be a merchant; one that could obtain weight and influence in the tribunals of the kingdom, and do all the under parts of buſineſs, without troubling the miniſter, who ought never to appear but in matters of real importance; and, when he does move, he ſhould have ſuch powers as to enable him to act with great weight and dignity: and ſo I will inform the miniſtry when I get to London.'

It is to be hoped that ſo wiſe and neceſſary an information was given; and that, to this nation's great benefit as well as honour, a time will come for carrying ſuch prudent counſel into execution.

Were, therefore, the national diſadvantages of having bad c------s, and improper m---ſt---s prevented by wiſe determination here, moſt others would thereby be greatly weakened, if not entirely removed. Even the firſt I mentioned; their prejudice againſt us, on the ſcore of religion, would a good deal be blunted, or at leaſt many of it's bad effects removed, by a glare of grandeur on one hand, and a ſteady, wiſe, and prudent conduct on the other; eſpecially if attended with affability, liberality, and politeneſs. But from the reverſe of theſe qualities, either in miniſters or conſuls, I am ſure all honeſt and worthy merchants of Great-Britain will join me in ſaying, GOOD LORD DELIVER US!

Of the late miſunderſtandings, ſaid to have aroſe between the Britiſh factory, and the B——h c——l in Portugal, and the ill conſequences attending their unhappy differences.

The B——ſh c——l, in a public debate at a factory-meeting, oppoſing the whole body of merchants, in points of great concern to the nation, as well as themſelves, was ſo raſh as to ſay, that 'the treaty exiſting betwixt the two crowns, could not, nor ought to, prevent the king of Portugal from making what laws he pleaſed in contradiction to it, in his own kingdom.' To which a merchant, deeply intereſted in point of property in the matter debated, ſaid, in his reply, 'Sir, if you wilfully ſacrifice the rights of the nation, you will be a traitor to your king, and an enemy to your country.' There was no explanation demanded of theſe words, conformable

to the practice of all public assemblies; nor, indeed, was any explanation necessary, as the words if, and will be, made it clearly a supposed case. What followed was, that this officer, whose express duty it was to protect his fellow-subjects from extra judicial violences, applied to the arm of a foreign absolute power, to punish a supposed offender for what had passed in a British national assembly, and of which that court had no sort of right to take any cognizance.

A secret process was formed; the merchant who never was judicially accused, or, of course, allowed to make his defence, was banished (of a sudden and unexpectedly) from his house, at twenty-four hours warning, and from the kingdom of Portugal in five days: nor could then obtain the justice of being heard for himself, or even of making a written representation against so violent an outrage. These are the facts that have been told, and most of them given in a printed narrative of the affair; and the truth of them is vouched for by every one acquainted with the proceedings. The whole of which are so uncommon, so unjustifiable, in respect to the merchant's banishment, that history does not furnish a precedent of the kind.

As to the supposed crime, what was it? A warm expression, uttered in the heat of an entirely legal public debate; and that too, in reply to such a one as may, perhaps, be found to merit a most weighty censure. Is not every speaker on public affairs liable, from human frailty, to say more offensive things than were uttered by this man? Who, it is to be also observed, was not, on the occasion, an officious, idle babbler; but a speaker in behalf of his king, his country, of commerce, of the whole community present, of his own immediate property, and that of his friends entrusted to his care, in a foreign country.

In so very interesting a cause, if he had made a real rash slip, what did it, what could it deserve more than a reprehension? And even that, a gentle and polite one? But for a c——l, for such an offence, to drive a man to ruin, ignominy, banishment, and expose, he cared not whom besides, to inconveniencies and prejudices, was surely acting so wild, so outrageous a part, as must startle and shudder every humane and honest man to hear of. Can there be produced, from amongst the ablest and coolest speakers in public debates, hardly a man who has not been so much off his guard, as, on some occasions, to let words fall from his tongue, that drew on him the disapprobation of his hearers? Nay, that even himself has not been afterwards sorry for having uttered? Sure I am, that many instances can be given, on the affirmative side, of men who were even celebrated for an uncommon command of their tempers.

The mischiefs that followed the outrage done to this man, are many of them known, and others may be most reasonably supposed. It is not, therefore, a mere restoration, however honourable, that is satisfaction sufficient, either to him or his house of trade: they ought, likewise, to have a full indemnification, a most ample reparation; the voice of equity, the common practice of courts of judicature, the safety of commerce, and the honour of the nation, all demand it.

When a gentleman has been prejudiced in his affairs, and others in theirs through him, is it satisfaction sufficient, that, after a tedious time of suffering, the illegal and unjustifiable embarrassments and evils are merely removed? Surely no: an honest jury, in any court of justice, could not do otherwise than award very high damages; and every man, making the cafe fairly his own, would think they were undoubtedly his due.

But it may be said, justice is left open against the offender; who, I must say, may, or may not be able to be responsible for the determination; nor do I think it ought to be put on that issue: those who put him in the way of doing such mischief, or those who so unwarrantably did it at his instigation, ought in conscience, in justice, in honour, to stand in his place for the indemnification.

Of some other disadvantages, under which our Portugal merchants have laboured of late years.

Among the many particulars relating to our Portugal commerce, which have lately appeared in public, it has been a matter of surprize, to find that no one has wrote upon the subject of the money lost by our merchants, from on board the prince Frederick packet-boat, which was seized on her homeward voyage from Lisbon by the Algerines, seven years ago, carried into their port, and there plundered, under pretence of her not having a proper pass on board for her protection.

The king's colours, which those packet-boats are authorized to carry, were always thought, 'till that time, a sufficient protection; and the money put on board that vessel by our merchants, was shipped on a full persuasion that such colours were a full security against the plunderings of the Barbary corsairs: however, it has proved to be otherwise; for their money has been seized, divided, and is irrecoverably lost.

Nothing can be more evident, than that the Mooriſh pleas, urged in defence of this piece of roguery, were all chicanery; trumped up pretences, and temporary evasions of truth, reason and justice; however, they served their turn, in merely furnishing excuses for keeping of our money; which we thought not worth hazarding the safety of our navigation to quarrel about, and therefore accepted of their proposed expedient of making a new, and more explanatory treaty, which has been done; and the money, so unwarrantably seized, was accepted in lieu of a national present, which it is customary for us to make on such occasions.

Had no treaty been made, or any other national benefit accrued from this unwarrantable action, as the treasure was taken from under the king's colours, it is but reasonable that the royal revenue should be charged with the loss, since the presents to the piratical states must have been made out of that revenue. For if, as a new treaty has been obtained, for the fuller security of respect to our flag, and safety of our mercantile navigation, which that money has expressly paid for, there can be no just reason assigned, why a PUBLIC benefit should be purchased by INDIVIDUALS; and therefore it is an high injustice, that the money mentioned, has not been repaid to the just proprietors of it long ago.

If any man's absolute property, of what kind soever, is made subservient to public utility, by an application of any sort, contrary to his own free disposition, it has been the invariable practice of parliament (or the crown, if done on an emergency) to assign an ample equivalent for the appropriation they take upon them to make. And, therefore, as on the concluding of a national treaty with the Algerines, it is customary to make them an expensive present; and they, sensible of the illegality of this capture, agreed, on the making of a treaty, that it should stand in the place of such a gift; certainly the people, whose property that treasure was, ought to have it made good to them again, and without delay; honour and justice demand it should be done: and no man, no minister, who would be thought to have the interest of trade at heart, ought, for his own credit, or the national honour, to evade or obstruct so clear and necessary an act of justice.

And it must be observed, that public faith and honour were never more necessary to be set in a conspicuous light, than at present, when the French are said to be attacking our distant colonies, and where, for the preservation of them, it may be necessary that particulars should have strong grounds to rely on public honour and justice, for the voluntary disbursements and services that may be of the highest consequence for them to contribute; more especially so, since in those very parts of the world, there were, but a very few years ago, many too just and well-grounded complaints for hard treatment, in proceedings of the utmost service and importance to this nation.

Besides what has been represented, in relation to the conduct of the Portugueze towards our British trading subjects in general, they have begun, like some other of their neighbour-nation, to seduce our people into their commercial system, in order still more to insult and maltreat that kingdom which has been their protection. For by late authentic accounts from Lisbon, it appears, that the new EAST-INDIA COMPANY established there, are indefatigable in rendering their trade successful. Not long since five of the ships fitted out for that service, sailed from thence under the conduct of Mr Stevens, who was a lieutenant in the British navy. He was sent from thence to London, to procure persons to go as captains, and returned with three, who are also sent out commanders, upon their being strongly recommended for their great skill in navigation, and their knowlege of the country. And their salaries, which are very considerable, are to be paid by ENGLISH factors, who are principals in this undertaking, and agents for the company.

Nor are British factors only employed in this Portugueze undertaking, but it is very currently said and believed, that British captains, British sailors, and British money, are all employed in advancing the Portugueze East-India traffic, a considerable part of which returns, may very probably be smuggled into the British dominions. Is it not strange infatuation, that Britons should thus encourage a nation in their trade, at the very time such nation is attempting to ruin that of our own country? Is it not requisite, that strict inquisition into thismatter should be made on our side? Should not enquiry be made, who invited Mr S-----s to Lisbon? Under whose patronage did he live there? From whom did he receive his credit on England, when he came last hither? On whom was that credit given? What are become of the British sailors who navigated the two ships from London to Lisbon, called the King and Queen of Portugal, that were built here for the Portugueze India trade? Who are the British factors gone from Lisbon in the Portugueze service? To what houses of trade there did they belong? What connections have they with any partners in such British houses; and what are the conditions and obligations of their engagements? Will the alluring away our sailors, our merchants, and our money, by some nations; and our manufacturers, artizans, and shipbuilders, by others, tend to the advancement of the British trade and navigation? If we have it not in our power to retaliate upon the Portugueze, will not our laws call British subjects to account for practices so highly detrimental to the national

national commerce of our own country? Was the conduct of the Portugueze towards this kingdom, as unexceptionable as it ought to be, practices of this kind ſhould by no means be connived at among ourſelves: but when it is otherwiſe, too much rigour and ſeverity, conſiſtent with the laws, cannot be uſed to ſuppreſs evils of this kind, for if they are ſuffered with impunity, in regard to one nation, will not our own ſubjects follow the like example in reſpect to others? Will not an unreſtrained toleration of this nature, render the ſkill and ingenuity, as well as the capital ſtocks, of our Britiſh merchants, ſubſervient to the aggrandizement of the commerce of other nations inſtead of our own, under which they are protected?

Did all the Portugal gold that temporarily circulates in this nation, proceed from the advantageous ballance of our trade with that kingdom, it would, even in ſuch caſe, be a high indignity to Great-Britain to ſuffer ſuch treatment as our merchants have met with in Portugal. Would not this be the natural ſtep to bring us into irrecoverable contempt and ignominy, without due reſentment; and would not that ſoon reduce the ballance of trade, as well as ſink the honour and glory of the Britiſh nation? But when nine tenths of the Portugal gold that makes it's appearance among us occaſionally, belong to other countries, and England only is the carrier thereof, and the bridge over which it paſſes, to pay the ballances due from Portugal to other nations, that are greater gainers by her, what obligation is there on us to bear with the leaſt inſult? Where is the nation that takes ſo much of their wines and their fruit as Great-Britain does? What ſtate is more highly favoured in the duties laid upon their productions imported into theſe kingdoms, than Portugal? Is not an hundred pounds worth of our woollen goods worth an hundred pounds worth of their wine, without a pipe of which we can eaſily do, and yet not drink worſe in quality, or leſs in quantity, as I will one day attempt to demonſtrate? And what nation will they then get to take their luxuries off their hands, in the like proportion that Great-Britain does? Is not a thouſand pounds worth of our lead or our tin worth a thouſand pounds worth of their gold? Cannot Great-Britain find the way to the Brazils as well as the Portugueze, as lord Galway, in effect, gallantly told the late king of Portugal: and as his late Majeſty king George had reſolution and magnanimity enough to threaten to ſend a fleet to bombard the city of Liſbon, may not that be one day done in reality, if that nation ſhould once dare to rouze that lion againſt them, who has been their great ſafety and protection? What potentate have the Portugueze to depend upon, in caſe of need, except Great-Britain? and does wiſdom and policy dictate to them to ill treat their beſt and tried friends!

The natural and dangerous enemy of Portugal is Spain; for as the acquiſition of that kingdom would be of ſuch infinite conſequence in the points of eaſe, convenience, and power, to the Spaniards, the Portugueze would be blind and ignorant indeed, not to ſuppoſe their ambitious neighbours would miſs no opportunity, on any pretence, for ſeizing on their country. And that ſuch an apprehenſion does always exiſt in Portugal, is evident from the alarms conſtantly taken on any movements or augmentations of troops on the Spaniſh frontier. The antipathy and hereditary hatred the people of thoſe kingdoms have for each other (putting the Gallicians out of the caſe) are moſt extremely obvious and ſtrong. From traditions of former ſufferings, and a dread of future ones, the Portugueze even abhor Spaniards; they conſider them as having been the unwarrantable ſeizers of their country, and the tyrannical ruiners of it afterwards, to make the acquiſition ſecure: while, on the other ſide, it may be ſaid as violent a prejudice operates, and almoſt to an equal degree. The proud Spaniards conſider the Portugueze as a province of rebellious and revolted ſlaves, whom they want to ſhake their whips at, and conſtrain to a ſervile obedience, but cannot; they affect to deſpiſe the Portugueze, but, in the manner of expreſſing their contempt, always manifeſt an anger, that ſhews they are moſt ſenſibly hurt. Such is the animoſity that reigns now, and has for ages reigned betwixt theſe nations; nor is there the leaſt likelihood of an abatement of it, but, on the contrary, rather an increaſe: for if the preſent moſt Catholic king dies without iſſue, his ſucceſſor brings in the neighbourhood of Portugal a ſpecious claim to it's dominions, in right of his mother, heireſs of the houſe of Parma, and, by direct deſcent, repreſentative of an elder daughter of king Emanuel's of Portugal, than her from whom the houſe of Braganza inherit the throne. And, as a proof that the king of the Two Sicilies is not inſenſible of his claim, he wears the arms of Portugal, in an eſcutcheon of pretence, on his other royal bearings, if I greatly miſtake not, even on his very coin: and, therefore, it is probable neither he or his deſcendants will ever think they are in conſcience obliged to acquieſce in the determination of the law of * Lamego, or the nobility's choice at the reſtoration of Portugal, eſpecially if any favourable opportunity for the exertion of power ſhould offer.

* An ancient and fundamental law of the kingdom, by which it is determined the crown cannot be inherited by a prince born out of the kingdom; but that law, in other particulars, has been frequently violated.

To ſuch an unlucky and diſagreeable ſituation as this, a new and important affair has happened, which puts Portugal under great difficulties with regard to Spain, and that is, the treaty concluded between his late moſt faithful Majeſty and the preſent Spaniſh king, for the former giving up Nova Colonia to the latter, in exchange for other ſpecified territories in South America. An adjuſtment ſo diſadvantageous, and even dangerous to Portugal, that every ſubject of that kingdom ſpeaks of the negociation in the harſheſt terms, ſaying it was an impoſition on their king, in his very infirm ſtate of mind and body. However, the treaty having been ratified in form, the Spaniſh court claims it's being duly executed; and Portugal would be put to hard ſhifts for evaſion, did not, by great good luck, the Jeſuits intrigue in their favour: thoſe pious fathers, not chuſing any other European neighbour too near their own valuable poſſeſſions in America, have ſtirred up the natives of that country ceded to Portugal to oppoſe the ſurrender of it; and they accordingly profeſs a voluntary obedience to the Jeſuits, and refuſe it to the king of Spain; while the Portugueze, it may be concluded, ſecretly encourage the oppoſition, as in the mean time they remain poſſeſſors of Nova Colonia, and hope, in the end, to overſet the treaty; all which management muſt be plainly ſeen, and the purpoſes underſtood by the court of Spain, who ſeem, on their ſide, determined to carry their point. Theſe are the affairs that have occaſioned alarms of late in Portugal, from the military motions and reinforcements on the Spaniſh frontiers.

Thus having made appear that Portugal does, and always muſt, want a powerful ally for her ſupport, it is next to be conſidered who, of all her European neighbours, is the beſt able, and moſt to be depended on, for that purpoſe.

Of the dependency of Portugal on Great-Britain.

France has had, ſince the treaty of Utrecht, and poſſibly may have for many ages to come, a moſt cloſe, but unnatural connection with Spain; I call it unnatural in regard to intereſt and commerce, for in theſe points Spain has been greatly and manifeſtly injured, by the national advantages having been made ſubſervient to the mere family ties, as well as partial ambition of it's ſovereigns. The Spaniards, notwithſtanding they are become ſuch paſſive vaſſals, as, in reſpect to their crown, to glory in being obedient ſlaves, are not inſenſible that their French alliance is hurtful to them, and alſo, that their nation is not truly intereſted in providing dominions for the collateral branches of their royal family, or in extending ſuch foreign poſſeſſions at any price: a humour, however, that France will probably find her account by encouraging at the court of Madrid: but in the purſuit ſhe muſt tread warily, for the connection of the nations can never be other than a miniſterial one, that of a royal relationſhip, or the vanity of the Bourbon houſe: for, as I ſaid above, the ſubjects of Spain do not think ſuch an alliance for the national intereſt or honour; and beſides, are of manners ſo very different from the French, that they hate them, and ſeldom miſs an opportunity of expreſſing an abhorrence even equal to that they have of Moors, ſince nothing is more common than to hear them to ſay, in point of religion, That the heretics of other countries are better Chriſtians than the Roman Catholics of France.

In ſuch a ſituation with Spain, France can never be a ſafe ally to Portugal: for if ever, on any account, ſhe was to take part with Portugal againſt Spain, ſhe muſt loſe her intereſt infallibly with the latter; which would be giving up a greater convenience for a leſs, both in point of a military and commercial intereſt, as alſo be a ſure means of cauſing the laſt thing France is deſirous of ſeeing, the cloſer unity of Spain with great-Britain.

Nor, indeed, is there wanting this ſpeculative influence in Portugal againſt the French, the people of that nation having no opinion either of French faith, generoſity, or honour: they never ſpeak of them with eſteem or reſpect, are open in their ridicule of them, and behave to them, more than to other nations, as impertinent and unwelcome intruders, that come either as ſpies, or to pick their pockets.

Thus with Spain for an hereditary enemy, and France a friend that ſhe dares not truſt, where can Portugal, too weak to defend herſelf, look for an able and truſty ally? To Italy? No: they have no ſuccours to ſend, but, on the contrary, live themſelves in perpetual need of them from others. Can Holland do the buſineſs? Moſt certainly no: her ſtrength and weight are no more. As for the more northern kingdoms, they are at too great a diſtance, and too poor, to enter upon, or comply with, ſuch an engagement. Great-Britain, then, is the only nation that ever has been, can, or will be, the ſafe, the truſty, the generous, the able, ſupporter of Portugal. If we examine hiſtory, from almoſt the firſt foundation of their monarchy, it will be found we were always their true and honourable allies We generally helped them to conquer their country, and have ever protected them in it: for the truth of which I appeal to their own hiſtorians, as well

as

as ours. At the reſtoration of their monarchy, our Charles the Firſt was one of the firſt princes that acknowleged their John the Fourth, and entered into a treaty with him: the good effects of which were, however, in ſome meaſure prevented, by the unhappy troubles that juſt then broke out in Britain. If a ſquabble happened in Oliver's time, it was from an indiſcretion of the court of Portugal, that they paid heartily for: and, on their becoming wiſer, we became their friends again. Charles the Second was no ſooner reſtored to his dominions, than the intereſts of Portugal were by him taken to heart. He married their Infanta, in preference to all other princeſſes, notwithſtanding the Spaniſh king offered to portion higher any other Catholic or Proteſtant princeſs that he would chuſe. He confirmed all former treaties made betwixt the nations, and made a new and perpetual one with Alphonſo the Sixth; by which Great-Britain is to ſuccour them in times of need, and particularly with a naval force adequate to the neceſſity of their demand. It was under the ſame king's ſingle and expreſs mediation the treaty was negociated, by which Spain firſt acknowledged the independency of Portugal, Charles being guaranty; and by his power did the earl of Sandwich abſolutely accompliſh and ſign the treaty.

In conſequence of our abovementioned engagement, did Great-Britain, in the year 1735, ſend them a ſuccour of near thirty ſhips of the line, ſo very expeditiouſly fitted out, that they carried themſelves the firſt public news of their appointment; which fleet remained under the command of Sir John Norris, twenty-two months in the river Tagus, to the coſt of above A MILLION STERLING to this nation. And whenever they require another and greater aſſiſtance, I hope we ſhall as readily grant it, on the ſingle condition that Portugal as fully and willingly complies with her obligations to us, in obſerving thoſe regulations in reſpect to commerce which the ſame national treaty confirms and preſcribes, and which is not demanding from them any favour, nothing diſhonourable to their crown, or diſadvantageous to their country; nothing but what impartial juſtice exacts, and what good policy on their ſide would readily promote.

REMARK.

That Great Britain might be made amends by the court of Portugal for the obligations, under which ſhe lies to her; that court eſtabliſhed in the year 1756, a wine company at Oporto; and endowed the ſame with the following excluſive powers; which by law ſtrikes at the root of the priviledges of an Engliſhman in the kingdoms and dominions of Portugal. See our article TREATIES OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, where is contained THE TREATY OF PEACE concluded by OLIVER CROMWELL, in favour of England: alſo various other laws, decrees, &c. made at ſundry times, and on divers occaſions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the ENGLISH NATION. To which is added, the king of Portugal's new law, concerning the diamonds found in the Brazils.

INSTITUTION of the GENERAL COMPANY for the culture of the VINEYARDS of ALTO DOURO, in the kingdom of PORTUGAL.

MOST GRACIOUS SOVEREIGN,

Your majeſty's dutiful ſubjects, the vintagers of Alto Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, humbly beg leave to repreſent to your majeſty, that, whereas the ſubſiſtence of great part of the religious communities, private families, and chief inhabitants of the three provinces of Behira, Minho, and Tralos-montes, depends upon the culture of the vines; this ſpecies of agriculture is nevertheleſs reduced to ſo great a decadency, and is in ſo ruinous a ſtate, that beſides the detriment occaſioned by the circumſtance of the wines not yielding a ſufficiency wherewith to cultivate the lands which produce them, this loſs of capital, to the proprietors in particular, is aggravated by the farther loſs of health to the public in general. For, as the number of taverners in the city of Porto is multiplied to an extravagant exceſs, forbidden by your majeſty's laws, as well as by the regulations of the guild of the ſame city, beyond the poſſibility of reducing that multitude to rule; it thence follows, that, as the ſaid taverners adulterate the wines, and corrupt them from their native purity, by a multiplicity of mixtures hurtful to human conſtitutions, they deſtroy not only the reputation of ſo important and conſiderable a ſpecies, but alſo all the commerce which is carried on in that commodity; nay, and the very conſtitutions of ſuch of your majeſty's ſubjects as make uſe of the wines which the ſaid taverners vend for home-conſumption.

Animated therefore by the unparallel'd clemency with which your majeſty has already afforded relief to your afflicted ſubjects, even in caſes of lighter grievance than the above-mentioned, the petitioners have agreed among themſelves to form, under your majeſty's royal favour, a company, which, by competently promoting the culture of the vineyards, may at the ſame time preſerve the produce thereof for the advantage of foreign and domeſtic commerce, as well as of the health of your majeſty's ſubjects.

SECT. I.

The ſaid company ſhall conſtitute a body politic, having a governor, twelve directors, and a ſecretary; all of whom ſhall be qualified ſuch in the manner hereafter declared. Beſides the ſaid directors, there ſhall be ſix conſultors, men well verſed in this branch of trade. The ſaid company ſhall be ſtiled, THE GENERAL COMPANY FOR THE CULTURE OF THE VINEYARDS OF ALTO DOURO. All the authentic papers iſſuing from it ſhall be diſpatched in name of the governor and directors of the ſame company, and ſealed with it's common ſeal, which ſhall exhibit the image of St Martha, protectreſs of the territories of Douro, and underneath it, a ſcrip, or label, with this device: PROVIDENTIA REGITUR.

SECT. II.

The ſaid governor and directors ſhall be either natural-born, or at leaſt naturaliſed ſubjects of your majeſty, and inhabitants of the city of Porto, or of Alto Douro, who have in the company's funds ten thouſand cruſados ſtock, or upwards.

SECT. III.

The elections of the ſaid governor, directors, and conſultors, ſhall always be made in the common hall, or guild of the company, by a majority of votes of all ſuch proprietors therein as are poſſeſſed of three thouſand cruſados ſtock, or upwards. Such of them, however, as have not ſo much capital ſtock, may unite to make up out of leſſer ſhares one total to the above amount, wherewith to conſtitute a ſingle vote in the name of ſeveral, to be given by whom they ſhall judge proper to be nominated for that purpoſe. The firſt choſen for this eſtabliſhment ſhall ſerve the office for the ſpace of three years, and all others, who ſhall ſucceed him, ſhall ſerve for the ſpace of two years; provided always, that ſuch as ſhall have ſerved may not be rechoſen in the next election, without having a majority of votes in their favour not leſs than two thirds, as is more expreſsly declared in ſection iv. At the ſame time, and in the ſame manner, ſhall be choſen, from among the ſaid directors, a ſub-governor and a ſubſtitute, who ſhall gradually fill the office of governor, in caſes of death or hindrance.

SECT. IV.

The governor, directors, and conſultors, ſhall at the firſt election be nominated by your majeſty, to ſerve for the ſpace of three years; at the expiration of which they ſhall produce, in a general court, the accounts of their whole management, and diſtribute to the proprietors the dividends belonging to them, or ſuch as the court, by a plurality of votes, ſhall appoint to be made. This done, they ſhall immediately proceed to the election of the new governor, directors, and conſultors: on whom it ſhall be incumbent firſt, and before all things, to examine the accounts delivered in by their predeceſſors, in order to paſs to conteſt them, according to their deſert: and the ſame ſhall continue to be the practice in future elections, ſo long as this company ſhall ſubſiſt. Still, in caſe the proprietors ſhould think fit to re-elect one or more from among the ſaid governor, directors, or conſultors, they ſhall be entitled to admit the ſame again into office, on condition of their having a majority of votes of at leaſt two thirds in their favour. The judge conſervator (or recorder) ſhall tender to thoſe firſt, who are to be nominated by your majeſty, an oath that they will well and faithfully manage the effects of the company, and maintain it's ſeveral members in their reſpective rights: and to thoſe who ſhall be thenceforward choſen, the ſame oath ſhall be tendered at the board of the company, by the governor who quits the office, and regiſtered in a ſpecial book he is to ſet apart for that purpoſe.

SECT. V.

The ſaid governor and directors ſhall be the treaſurers of the capital ſtock, of which this company ſhall be poſſeſſed from it's firſt eſtabliſhment, and of all intereſts thence ariſing, 'till the times of making a dividend of them among the reſpective proprietors: to which effect they ſhall keep one or more coffers, as occaſion may require, with proper keys to them, of which keys every one ſhall keep his own, ſo that each may remain bound for himſelf, and every one for all, to anſwer for every deficiency which may be found in the ſaid ſtock, 'till they deliver up the capital to their ſucceſſors, and make a dividend of the intereſts thereof among the ſeveral proprietors in the ſaid company.

SECT. VI.

All affairs, which ſhall be propoſed at the board, ſhallbe decided by a plurality of votes, and all which ſhall be thereby

thus done, and ordain'd, ſhall have full credit given to it, and ſhall be put in its full and due execution, in the ſame manner as is practiſed in your majeſty's tribunals; provided that at the ſaid boards nothing be diſpoſed in alteration of the eſtabliſhed laws and regulations relative to the ſtate of the Brazils, or that be contrary to any other of your majeſty's laws, ſave what is allowed to it in virtue of its preſent eſtabliſhment. The ſaid governor and directors ſhall make choice of what officers they ſhall deem neceſſary for the good government of the company, as well in the city of Porto, and within the kingdom, as in foreign parts. They ſhall have ample juriſdiction over them; to ſuſpend them, put them out, bring them to juſtice, and provide others in their places: all of them ſhall continue in their poſt ſo long as ſhall ſeem meet to the company, which ſhall have the inſpection of their accompts, and paſs to them acquittances, ſign'd by two of the directors, and ſealed with the company's ſeal, after their ſaid accompts have been reviſed and examined at the board.

Sect. VII.

This company ſhall have a judge conſervator (or recorder) who, with privative juriſdiction, and excluſion of all other tribunals, ſhall hold courts of oyer and terminer for all contentious ſuits, wherein the governor, directors, conſultors, ſecretary, clerks, managers, and other officers of the company, ſhall be either plaintiffs or defendants; whether the matter of the ſaid ſuits be criminal or civil, ſo long as they are carried on between the ſaid officers of the company, or between them and perſons who do not belong to it: which ſaid judge conſervator (or recorder) ſhall call the ſaid ſuits to his tribunal in the city of Porto by poſitive decree, and elſewhere by precatories; and ſhall have a definitive power in himſelf to the amount of 100 cruzados, without appeal or demur; as well in civil cauſes, as in the penalties decreed by him: but in all other caſes, and in thoſe, which being proved, are capitally criminal, he ſhall proceed in judgment in the high court of juſtice, call'd the relaçao, by one ſole joint form of proceſs, with the aſſiſtants which ſhall be appointed him by nomination from the chief juſtice for the time being of the relaçao and king's bench at Porto, or whoever ſhall ſerve office. Both the judge conſervator (or recorder) and his clerk, as alſo his marſhal, ſhall be nominated by the ſaid board, and confirmed by your majeſty, who ſhall oblige the miniſters, whom the company may chuſe to ſerve the ſaid office; and that notwithſtanding the ſtatute, lib. 3. tit. 12. and all other laws hitherto publiſhed, relative to the office of conſervatory (or recorderſhip); for as the judgment of the ſaid judicature is not recurr'd to, as a voluntary privilege for the moleſtation or vexation of the parties, but as a weighty contract for the ſervice of your majeſty, for the common good of your ſubjects, and for the good management of the affairs of the company, and the writings which it ſhall paſs in your majeſty's royal name; all theſe motives render the ſaid judge conſervator (or recorder) abſolutely neceſſary. Such diſputes, however, as may ariſe between perſons intereſted in the ſame company, concerning the capital ſtocks, intereſts, and the dependences thereof, ſhall be propoſed at the board of adminiſtration, and there verbally decided, in mercantile form, by plain dealing, according to the known truth, without form of proceſs, or other allegations than thoſe of ſimple matter of fact, and thoſe of the rules, uſages, and cuſtoms of commerce and navigation, commonly received as ſuch, in the preſence of the judge conſervator (or recorder) and of the attorney-general of the company; which ſaid board, with the approbation of the two aforeſaid miniſters, ſhall decide all cauſes, not exceeding the amount of 300 milreis, without appeal or demur: and ſuch as exceed the amount of that ſum, where the parties are unwilling to abide by the deciſion of the ſaid adjudgers, ſhall be forthwith laid before your majeſty, in an humble addreſs from the board, for your majeſty to nominate ſuch judges as to your wiſdom ſhall ſeem meet, who ſhall determine the ſame in like form, without intervention of any other ordinary or extraordinary recourſe; all other diſpoſitions of law or ſtatutes to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Sect. VIII.

The ſaid conſervator (or recorder) ſhall, by ſummonſes in the royal name of your majeſty, diſpatch all ſuch orders as ſhall be forwarded to him by reſolution of the company, for the good government of the ſame; as alſo for the hiring of carts, and embarkations for the carriage of wines, and for the compulſion of vintagers, coopers, taverners, and all other artiſts on whom this branch of commerce may depend, to enter into the ſervice of the ſaid company, on condition of it's paying them their ſalaries. And the miniſters of your majeſty ſhall not take away, or interrupt their boats, carts, veſſels, or any other things whatever, on which the diſpatch of their loadings may depend; but rather, having occaſion for more, the miniſters to whom it may belong ſhall be required to ſend them more. And for whatever elſe may be further neceſſary towards the good government of the ſaid company, it ſhall be empowered to ſummon ſuch miniſters, as do not comply with, and effectually execute it's orders, before the relaçao, (or court of king's bench) of the city of Porto, whither they ſhall repair to anſwer to the charge, the ſaid judge conſervator being firſt heard, who ſhall attend the board of the company, whenever he ſhall receive a meſſage for that purpoſe, having there a ſeat ſuitable to his dignity.

Sect. IX.

It being indiſpenſably neceſſary for the company to have ſufficient houſe-room, for it's diſpatch of buſineſs, for the ſecurity of it's coffers, for the accommodation of it's clerks and other officers, and for warehouſes wherein to keep their wines, veſſels, and other materials thereto neceſſarily appertaining, your majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to grant to it the privilege of ſettling, ſo as that their judge conſervator (or recorder) may cauſe dwellings to be aſſigned over to it's uſe, wherever the company ſhall judge them to be moſt for it's conveniency, without becoming ſubject to the having the rents, they were valued at before, raiſed upon that account; which rents the company will pay to the owners; and in caſe of diſpute, the ſame ſhall be adjuſted to the ſatisfaction of the parties, by the arbitration of proper perſons, your majeſty having for this effect abrogated all privileges of ſettlement, which the perſons may be poſſeſſed of, from whom ſuch dwellings ſhall be taken, or who have lodged their effects therein.

Sect. X.

The main purpoſe of this company being that of ſupporting, together with the credit of the wines, the culture of the vineyards, and to promote, at the ſame time, the advantage of the commerce, which is carried on in this commodity, by fixing ſuch a regular price for it, as may produce a competent profit to the manufacturers of it, and a reciprocal lucre to the traders in it; by avoiding, on one hand, the exorbitant prices, which, rendering it's conſumption impoſſible, deſtroy the ſpecies; and not ſuffering it, on the other hand, to fall to ſo low an ebb as that the vintagers ſhall be unable, without loſs to themſelves, to ſupport the yearly expences of their agriculture; it is neceſſary for theſe uſeful ends to eſtabliſh certain competent funds: wherefore the capitatal ſtock of this company ſhall be one million two hundred thouſand cruzados, divided into actions of four hundred mil-reis each; the half of which may be advanced in competent wines fit for vent, by ſuch as ſhall be willing to be concerned in the actions; and the other half ſhall be conſtituted in abſolute caſh, that the company may be enabled to fulfil it's engagement of ſupplying the neceſſities of the vintage, and commerce, in the following manner.

Sect. XI.

On the ſtrength of the aboveſaid fund, the company ſhall lend to neceſſitous vintagers, not only the neceſſaries for the conſtruction and dreſſing of the vineyards, as well as for the managing of the wines, but alſo whatever elſe may be needful to them towards ſome of thoſe minute expences, which the preſervation of human life makes a daily matter of indiſpenſable neceſſity, without requiring of them, for ſuch loan, any higher intereſt than at the rate of three per cent. per annum; provided always that the ſaid loans ſhall not exceed one half the value in general of the wines, which every ſuch vintager is wont to collect: which wines, in conſideration of the ſaid loans, ſhall become and remain, effectively pledged to the company, in ſuch manner as to give it the ſame preferable right over them as landlords of houſes have over the goods therein contain'd, without it's having occaſion for any other title thereto, or other proof, than that of the ſaid loans being entered in the books of the company, and verified by a writing under the debtors hands, recognized with the ſignature of ſome public officer.

Sect. XII.

The company ſhall hold in readineſs all materials neceſſary for the making of wine-veſſels, not only for the year in which it may make it's ladings, but alſo for the year following, that no deficiency of this kind may occaſion either damage to the wines, or a baulk in the proviſion of them, which they are to furniſh the ports of Brazil with, according to your majeſty's gracious grant for this commerce.

Sect. XIII.

And that the ſaid ports of Brazil may not experience any want of this commodity, the company ſhall, for the preſent, ſettle a ſtock of 10,000 pipes of good wine, and fit for exportation, to enable it the firſt year to bear any diſappointment it may meet with in it's firſt ladings, and to wait for the produce thereof for a competent time.

SECT. XIV.

In order to facilitate the purchaſe of ſtocks, in favour of the vintagers of the wines of Alto Douro, the company ſhall take of the purchaſers of actions, ſuch wines as are of the beſt ſort, and in their natural perfection, without mixtures or brewings, capable of ſpoiling them, at the price of 25 mil-reis per pipe of common meaſure; and ſuch of an inferior ſort as are nevertheleſs fit for navigation, it ſhall take in like manner at the rate of 20 mil-reis. At the ſame prices they ſhall purchaſe the ſaid wines for the time to come, whether this commodity happen to abound or fall ſhort: wherefore as the company is to pay for their wines at the above rates in the years of plenty, ſo likewiſe ſhall the vintagers be obliged to deliver them at the ſame rates, without any alteration, in the years of ſcarcity, or dearth: the reſpective intereſts of each party being thus fairly compenſated to the advantage of the commodity itſelf.

SECT. XV.

And that neither the company may deſtroy the navigation of the city of Porto, by diſappointing it of the lading of wines, which is its principal ſupport, nor the navigation may prejudice the company by omitting to ſupply it with a competency of ſhipping for the tranſport of wines to the ſtates of Brazil: your majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to eſtabliſh, that for the carriage of every pipe of wine, brandy, or vinegar, which the company ſhall ſhip from the city of Porto for Rio de Janeiro, it ſhall pay to ſuch ſhips ten mil-reis freight, after the manner heretofore practiſed, without any alteration in this reſpect whatever, on one ſide or the other. For ſuch wines, &c. as ſhall be ſhipped for Bahia, it ſhall pay eight mil-reis per pipe as above; and in like manner eight mil two hundred reis per pipe freight, for thoſe it ſhall ſend to Pernambuco, which freights ſhall not be altered in any wiſe whatſoever, neither by the company nor the proprietors, nor by the captains of ſhips, on pain, to ſuch as ſhall act in any wiſe contrary to this regulation, of paying double the amount of ſuch freights, the whole of which ſhall be applied, one half to the informer's uſe, the other half to the uſe of the hoſpital of the city of Porto, beſides two months impriſonment of the delinquents.

SECT. XVI.

The wines, brandies, and vinegars, which the company ſhall ſend to the Brazils, ſhall be ſhipped on board the veſſels of the reſpective ſquadrons of that city, which ſhall put up for ladings, dividing them among them, and each of them, in proportion to their aſſortments; and the ſaid veſſels ſhall be obliged to receive them, without heſitation, in the ſame manner as is practiſed with regard to the ſalt-contract. Nevertheleſs, if it ſhould happen that the conſumption of the ſaid commodities ſhould increaſe to ſuch exceſs in the ſtates of Brazil, that the private ſhips of the trade be not able to convey thither the quantity neceſſary for daily proviſion, the company in that caſe ſhall be obliged to get ready, and ſend at its own expence, the ſhips neceſſary for ſuch tranſport, only, however, to that port, for whoſe uſe the wines exceed the burthen of the ſaid private ſhips belonging to the mart of the city of Porto. And in this caſe, neither ſuch ſhipping, nor their equipages, nor whatever ſhall be neceſſary for their conſtruction and fitting out, ſhall be ſeizeable to any other uſes than thoſe of the ſaid tranſport and the dependencies of the ſame company, not even under colour of your majeſty's royal ſervice, on pain to the perſons acting in oppoſition thereto of paying to the ſaid company, out of their own effects, all the damage thence reſulting to it; to which intent they ſhall be called to an account before the judge conſervator, or recorder, of the ſame company, and not at any other tribunal whatever, notwithſtanding any privileges they may enjoy to the contrary.

SECT. XVII.

Conſidering the notorious prejudice which ſalt, in it's nature, does to wines in general, and the abſolute neceſſity there is for that commodity in the ſtates of Brazil, which obliges all the ſhipping to take competent ladings of it, your majeſty is pleaſed to will, that none of the veſſels on board of which the above wines are ſhipped ſhall carry any ladings of looſe ſalt, but ſhall carry the whole in wooden cheſts, as they ought and are bound to do, ſtowing them well and cloſe on that ſide where the wines are put, and placing between the wines and the ſalt other moiſt commodities, ſo as by every poſſible means to prevent the damage which may reſult to the wines from their immediate nearneſs to the ſalt, on pain to the captain or commander, who ſhall act contrary, of paying to the company double the value of all the wines which ſhall be found damaged at their arrival, as alſo of three months impriſonment for the firſt offence, and the penalties ſhall be douhled in proportion to the relapſes into the ſame.

SECT. XVIII.

The chief agent and deputies of this company, and the factors or adminiſtrators it ſhall employ in the ſtates of Brazil, for their adminiſtration, and the clerks it ſhall employ in the city of Porto, for their ſalaries, ſhall be entitled only to their commiſſion, at the rate of ſix per cent. to be levied in the following manner: two per cent. on the coſts the company ſhall be at in it's ſeveral diſpatches at Porto; two per cent. on the ſales which ſhall be made in the ſaid harbours of the ſtates of Brazil; and two per cent. on the returns and charges in the city of Porto; which ſaid ſix per cent. ſhall be made to ſuffice for the full payment of the whole adminiſtration belonging to the trade, without the company's being liable to any other charges of the like nature; ſave only that it ſhall be chargeable with all coſts ariſing from the ſalaries of ſuch miniſters, and other officers, as are to make a part of their body politic and œconomic, as alſo with ſuch as may ariſe from the renting of houſes and magazines, all which ſhall run on the company's account.

SECT. XIX.

In order that this company may be able to ſupport itſelf, and be enabled to make ſuch a profit as may compenſate the obligations it lays itſelf under by this eſtabliſhment, and be a valuable conſideration for the advantages thence reſulting to the common-weal of the ſaid provinces, your majeſty is pleaſed to grant to it in the four governments within the ſtates of Brazil, of S. Paolo, of Rio de Janeiro, of Bahia, and of Pernambuco, the excluſive commerce of all the wines, brandies, and vinegars which ſhall be ſhipped from the city of Porto for the ſaid four governments and their reſpective harbours; to the intent that no perſon of any condition whatever ſhall be qualified to ſend thither any of the ſaid commodities, except the ſame company, which ſhall enjoy the ſaid excluſive privilege in the following manner:

SECT. XX.

The brandies and vinegars may not be ſold by the company in the ſaid harbours for more than fifteen per cent. free to the proprietors of the principal coſt, caſkage, carriage, freight, cuſtoms of import and export, ſhipping, commiſſion, the one per cent. to the coffer, and of all other charges thereon to be made to the act of ſale, which ſhall wholly run on the account of the buyers; conſidering, however, the greater danger the wines are in of ſuffering damage in their quality, and that, on that account, they more immediately threaten ſome loſs to the ſaid company, therefore the ſaid company ſhall be allowed the liberty of ſelling their wines at ſixteen per cent. free to the ſaid company from all the above-mentioned charges, but not at any higher price.

SECT. XXI.

And in order to juſtify it's ſales, and make appear the exactneſs with which the company obſerves the ſaid prices, it ſhall he obliged to ſend to it's reſpective factors, or adminiſtrators, the accompts of the ſeveral cargoes ſigned in an authentic manner, by all the deputies, and ſealed with the ſeal of the company, in order to be thus made known to the people, that every purchaſer may be enabled to examine thereby the true value of the ſeveral commodities as may be parcelled out, in which accompts of cargo ſhall be ſpecified in the moſt circumſtantial manner the prime coſts and other charges of each of the ſaid commodities, that there may be no room to ſuſpect the leaſt unfair dealing.

SECT. XXII.

This, however, is to be underſtood on ſuppoſition, that the ſaid commodities be ſold for ready money, or paid for, in caſe of ſale, at the preciſe term agreed upon; becauſe the debtors, on default of payment, ſhall incur the penalty of farther paying five per cent. intereſt, for the whole time of their delay of payment, or ſo long as the execution ſhall laſt, with which they may be ſerved: But if the ſaid wines be trucked in exchange for the goods of thoſe governments, whoſe value is uncertain, and depends on the free will of the ſellers; in that caſe, the agreement ſhall he fixed by convention of the parties; as it would not be fair for the inhabitants of that ſtate to raiſe their goods to ſuch a height as may do hurt to company, nor for the company to undervalue them, ſo as to diſcourage their agriculture.

SECT. XXIII.

And becauſe, likewiſe, it would not be fair for the company to hurt ſuch perſons in thoſe governments, as ſell the ſaid commodities by retail, by depriving them of the means of ſubſiſtence, the ſaid company ſhall not be entitled to ſell at any time by itſelf, or it's factors, any of the above-mentioned commodities

commodities by retail, nor diſpoſe of any leſſer quantity than one pipe of each of the ſaid commodities; the ſale of which ſhall always be made at the magazines of the ſaid company, and never in ſhops, or ſuch like private places, on pain to ſuch of it's factors as ſhall act contrary hereto of being chaſtiſed for every diſorder, which ſhall thence reſult; remaining (ipſo facto) incapable of ſerving the company, as alſo of all and every the offices of juſtice, or property, beſides being condemned in a five years baniſhment to Angola.

Sect. XXIV.

No perſon, whatever be his qualifications or condition, ſhall be allowed to ſend, take, or introduce into the ſaid governments of S. Paolo, Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, and Pernambuco, the ſaid wines, vinegars, and brandies, which are to be exported in the ſquadrons from the city of Porto, or ſhall be of the product of the lands of Alto Douro, on pain of the forfeiture of them, and as much more of their value amounts to: the whole to be applied, one half in favour of the company, and the other half in favour of the informers, who may give their information publickly, or in ſecret, (provided their informations be made good, upon corporal apprehenſion) in this kingdom, before the judge conſervator (or recorder) of the company, and in that ſtate before the preſiding miniſter of the houſe of intendency, or before any common judges, in places where there are no intendants; all which ſhall cauſe the informations to be notified to the company's factors, that they may act as plaintiffs in the matter, being entitled thereby to a fifth part of the value; and they not thus fulfilling their duty, their effects ſhall be liable to anſwer the damages thence ariſing.

Sect. XXV.

Nevertheleſs, if it ſhould happen that ſome of the vintagers do not agree to the prices determined in ſection xiv. and ſhould have a mind to ſhip the wines of their own manufacture for the ſaid ports of Brazil, they ſhall be allow'd ſo to do by the hands of the directors of the company; who, at the charges and riſk of the ſame vintagers, ſhall ſend them to their factors, to be ſold in the ſaid ſtate, at the ſame prices as the company's wines ſhall be ſold at, and by no means at greater; provided always, that the quality thereof be equivalent to the ſaid prices. And for the very reaſon that any ſuch vintager did not care to content himſelf with the eſtabliſhed prices on one occaſion, he ſhall be excluded the privilege of obliging the company on any other, to take his wines at the ſaid prices; and the company ſhall reimburſe the ſaid vintagers the amount of their product, abating commiſſions, according to the eſtabliſhed rule, and all other expences attending the returns, ſo ſoon as the company ſhall have received the ſame: it being underſtood, that all charges attending the ſaid wines, till put on board, ſhall be paid at the coſt of the vintager, and not of the company.

Sect. XXVI.

If the company ſhould find any advantage in extending it's commerce of wines and brandies to the foreign nations of Europe, it ſhall be at liberty to do ſo, on paying the duties already eſtabliſhed in the ſame branch of trade; as alſo thoſe of entry at the cuſtom-houſe of the goods it imports in exchange; and for that purpoſe, the company may retain in it's ſervice the ſhipping it may ſtand in need of, which it may diſpatch, as it ſhall think beſt, without any hindrance, and without being liable to have them, or their crews, diſturbed, or taken from it, even under colour of your majeſty's royal ſervice.

Sect. XXVII.

The company ſhall pay all the duties hitherto wont to be paid on the above commodities, as well in this kingdom, as in the ſaid ſtate of Brazil, in the ſame manner as has been heretofore practiſed; and the ſame ſhall be obſerved with the returns it ſhall make from the ſame ſtate of Brazil to this kingdom.

Sect. XXVIII.

Whereas every one knows the grievous prejudice, which has been done to the reputation of the wines of Douro, and conſequently to the culture of the ſame, by the great liberty hitherto taken in the dealing therein, and by the exceſſive number of taverners, who retail them in the city of Porto, and the neighbouring towns; every one endeavouring to adulterate them from their native purity, with mixtures, and foreign compoſitions: and whereas the whole is contrary to what remains eſtabliſhed by the charter of the 23d of February, 1605, by the act of conſulſhip of the 18th of June, 1655, and by the proviſion of the board of Dezembargo do Paço, (or ſenate) of the 23d of Auguſt of the ſame year: your majeſty, in order to provide againſt theſe evils, is graciouſly pleaſed to ordain, that in the city of Porto, and in the neighbouring places, within the diſtance of three leagues, no wines ſhall be ſold, but on the account of this company, by retail; which ſaid company, for that purpoſe, ſhall purchaſe of the proprietors the quantity of wines neceſſary, and the governor and directors ſhall be entitled to no more than one per cent. on the price thereof, and the other charges thereto incidental, on account of carriages, caſks, duties, warehouſes, and ſale, or other trifling expences, by way of commiſſion; out of the product of which they ſhall pay the factors they may employ in this ſervice; and all the remaining profit ſhall belong to the ſeveral perſons intereſted in the ſaid company, by a liquid balance to be divided among them in the manner above eſtabliſhed in ſect. iv. And that this regulation may be put in force, without any notable trouble to the parties, regard is to be paid to the following ſections.

Sect. XXIX.

Whereas an entire and abſolute ſeparation is to be made of the wines of the coaſts of Alto-Douro, and it's diſtrict, in order ro be ſhipped for America and foreign nations, from all the other wines of ſuch places as only produce a ſort fit to be drank in the country, that by this means the inferiority of theſe wines may not deſtroy the credit due to thoſe on account of their native excellence; your majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to will, that there be made, with the greateſt expedition, a map and general ſurvey of the two coaſts of the river Douro, north and ſouth, wherein may be deſcribed all that territory which produces THE TRUE WINES FOR EXPORTATION, capable of paſſing forth of the bar of the ſaid river, ſeverally and diſtinctly ſpecifying the great and ſmall vintages of this peculiar kind, and exhibiting an eſtimate, by a common ſupputation or average, according to the produces of the laſt five foregoing years, of what each of the ſaid vintages is wont to yield, in order that the proprietors thereof may not ſell any, without making known to the company what they do ſell, nor be enabled to ſell to the company, or to foreigners, any greater number of pipes, than that which is allotted to them in the ſaid regiſter or ſurvey, on pain, in caſe of exceeding the ſaid quantities in their ſales, of paying nine times the value of the exceſs, and remaining incapacitated to ſell wines any more out of the kingdom.

Sect. XXX.

No wine whatever ſhall be brought from without the limits of the territory above deſcribed into the ſame, unleſs accompanied with permits, paſſed by the whole body of the guilds of the places whence the ſaid wines are brought; which permits ſhall declare the place they are bound to, the uſe they are deſtined for, the name of the vintager and vintage where they are received, the perſons to whom they are conſigned, and the direct road by which they are to be tranſmitted; which permits, in the above form, ſhall be exhibited to the commiſſaries, whom the company ſhall have nominated in the reſpective places, to inſpect whether, in fact, the uſe be made of them for which they were deſigned. All this under the penalty, that the wine which is tranſmitted without permits, diſpatched in the above form, or which ſhall be found to be out of the direct roads and highways, ſhall be forfeited in favour of the company: and this, in order to prevent the ſorry wines from being mingled with the good, to increaſe their quantity in prejudice of their credit, and to the detriment of the company, and of foreigners, who are to become purchaſers thereof. And if inferior wines ſhould happen to be diſcovered in houſes not approved for their reception by the guilds, with the company's conſent, not only the ſaid wines ſhall be forfeited, but thoſe perſons in whoſe cuſtody they be found, ſhall be fined the treble of their value to the profit of the ſame company.

Sect. XXXI.

In like manner, to prevent the fraudulent introduction of adulterated and ſorry mixed wines into thoſe foreign countries, whither the wines which are to be qualified as above are tranſported, no perſon, whatever be his ſtate or condition, ſhall, under the above ordained penalties, be entitled to embark any wines for the city of Porto, but ſuch as come addreſſed with the domeſtic manifeſtos of the vintagers to the board of directors of the company; which, finding them exact, ſhall order their mark to be put upon them as fit for exportation; finding them to be of another inferior quality, it ſhall order the proper mark to be put on them as inferior wines, fit only for home conſumption on the ſpot, or within the kingdom; and finding them fit to be ſhipped for the Brazils, or for foreign countries, licence ſhall be granted for the ſale thereof, and the board of the ſaid company ſhall be obliged to make out annually a general and particular liſt of all the pipes of qualified wine which ſhall be ſhipped out of the bar of Porto to be navigated as above; putting on every one of them, with a hot iron, the mark of their approbation, and pointing them out with permits, ſigned by the

the governor, and all the directors of the company to the ſeveral cuſtom-houſes to which they are bound; and declaring in the ſaid permits the names of the perſons who make the ladings, and the certain number of pipes which every one of the ſaid perſons ſhippeth, though it be but a ſingle pipe, or even but a barrel; to the intent, that if any ſhould have an inclination to introduce into any of the ſaid foreign countries any wines without permits, or in quantities exceeding the number ſpecified in the ſaid permits, on the ſuppoſition of their being wines of Alto Douro, the cheat may be inſtantly diſcovered in the reſpective cuſtom-houſes of the ſaid foreign countries, as it will be evident in both caſes that the wine is of different territories, and ſubjected to thoſe mixtures and frauds which the company is endeavouring to prevent for the common good. And for a ſtill greater ſecurity the company will, at the end of every year, remit to the different ports of America and Europe, to which any wines are exported, a printed general account, and circumſtanced as above, with the names of the laders, and with a declaration of how much every one of them ſhipped, that it may reach the knowlege of every body.

Sect. XXXII.

For the ſale of wine by retail in the city of Porto, no more taverners ſhall be allowed than the ninety-five eſtabliſhed by the charter of the 23d of February 1605. by the act of conſulſhip of the 18th of June, 1655, and by the proviſion of the board of Dezembargo do Paço (or ſenate) of the 23d of Auguſt of the ſame year: inſomuch, that neither the number of taverns ſhall be altered, nor any change made with reſpect to the places appointed for them; nor ſhall any taverner be admitted to hold any one of them, who is not approved and licenſed for that purpoſe by the board of the company, on pain of forfeiture to the company's uſe, of all the wine found in taverns not licenſed as above, and of ſix months impriſonment to ſuch as ſhall be detected ſelling therein: this penalty to be doubled and trebled, in caſes of relapſe, againſt ſuch taverners or owners of wines as ſhall be ſubject thereto.

Sect. XXXIII.

That the manufacturers of wine, and the purchaſers thereof, may be enabled to act upon certain grounds, ſo as that neither the manufacture may claim, by ſelling it, ſuch profits as may prove prejudicial to the commerce, nor the commerce be able to ruin the manufacture in it's beginning for the purchaſes thereof, the company ſhall unalterably pay for all the wines it may take up for exportation at the rate of twenty-five mil-reis per pipe, according to the two different qualities thereof, in the manner above declared in ſect. xiv. ſo that, in caſe of there being a great deficiency of the aboveſaid qualified wines, and a great demand for the ſame, thoſe of the firſt rank may not exceed the price of thirty mil-reis per pipe, nor thoſe of the ſecond ſurpaſs the price of twenty-five mil-reis. Such, however, as may prove unfit for exportation, and yet proper enough for home-conſumption, ſhall alſo be bought and ſold by the ſame company at certain fixed prices, in the following manner: ſuch as are of the growth of the lands lying between Porto and Arnellas ſhall be bought at the rate of four mil-reis per pipe, and ſold at the rate of ten reis per pint, the company being at all expence and charges thereof: thoſe of the growth of the lands lying between Arnellas and Bayao ſhall be bought at the rate of five mil-reis per pipe, and ſold in the ſame manner at the rate of twelve reis per quart: thoſe of the growth of Anſede and it's territory, which ſhall be hereafter deſcribed, ſhall be bought as above at the rate of ſix mil-reis per pipe, and ſold in like manner at the rate of twelve reis and a half per quart: thoſe of the growth of the lands of Barqueiros, of Mazaofrio, of Barrou, and Penhajoya, ſhall be bought at the rate of eight mil-reis per pipe, and ſold at the rate of fifteen reis per quart: the other ripe wines of the hills beyond douro, lying without the limits deſcribed of the lands productive of wines for exportation, ſhall be ſold at the rate of twelve mil-reis per pipe, and ſold in like manner at the rate of a vintem (or twenty reis) per quart: and the governor and directors of the company ſhall cauſe the ſaid wines to be diſtributed among the taverns, to be ſold at retail in the manner eſtabliſhed in ſection xxviii. with this farther declaration, that for each of the aboveſaid ſorts of wine the ſaid company ſhall provide proper caſks, marked with a hot iron, diſtinguiſhing their ſeveral qualities and prices: and that the taverner who inverts the ſaid orders, either by putting the better ſort of wines in the caſks of the inferior ſort, or by mingling the one with the other, ſhall for the firſt offence pay a hundred mil-reis, ſhall forfeit all the wine he may be found poſſeſſed of, in favour of the informer, and have ſix months impriſonment; for the ſecond, the ſame penalties ſhall be doubled; and for the third, he ſhall be liable to the ſame, and ſhall be over and above publicly whipped and tranſported to the kingdom of Angola. And becauſe there will be ſome wines of ſo bad a ſort as to be only fit to burn, or make vinegar, the company ſhall immediately grant licences to the proprietors of ſuch wines for reducing them to brandies or vinegars, and being diſpoſed to make their proviſions of theſe two commodities, they ſhall purchaſe the ſame by mutual agreement of the parties.

Sect. XXXIV.

If in ſome years the growth of the wines ſhould be ſo redundant as to render it impracticable for the company to diſpoſe of it readily, neither for American conſumption, nor for that of the city of Porto, the vintagers ſhall be at liberty to ſell the ſaid commodity, for the conſumption of any part of the kingdom, where there is no prohibition thereof; and if it is to be convey'd without the bar, the quality thereof ſhall be marked on the caſks it is conveyed in, and the whole ſhall be accompanied with the company's permit, that the place it is deſigned for may be known; and that it may not be tranſmitted to foreign countries, and become productive of the ill conſequences before mentioned.

Sect. XXXV.

Whereas this company is eſtabliſhed on the ſtock and proper ſubſtance of the perſons therein intereſted, without any mixture of ſtock from the royal revenue; and whereas every one is free to diſpoſe of his own effects as to himſelf may appear the moſt for his own advantage, the ſaid company and the management ſhall be under the immediate ſubjection to the royal perſon of your majeſty, and independent of all the tribunals, as well the greater as the leſſer ones, ſo as that no miniſter or tribunal of your majeſty ſhall in any caſe or accident whatever interfere with it or with what belongs to it, nor ſhall be intitled to hinder or interrupt the ſame in the management of all which belongs to it, nor demand of it any account of it's proceedings, it being the duty of the directors, who quit their office, to lay before thoſe who ſucceed them, in the manner laid down already in ſect. iv. And this is to be underſtood with expreſs inhibition to all the ſaid tribunals and miniſters, and notwithſtanding the right of their reſpective juriſdictions; for though it may ſeem that the management of the ſaid company's affairs ſhould be ſubject to ſuch or ſuch juriſdictions, nevertheleſs, as they do not interfere with your majeſty's royal revenues, but belong wholly to the perſons who put their own ſtock into the ſaid company, it is they who are to have the management thereof entirely to themſelves, with that ſeparate and privative juriſdiction which your majeſty is pleaſed to grant them. In the caſe, however, of a tribunal's wanting to be informed by the board of managers of any thing relative to your majeſty's royal ſervice, it may order it's ſecretary to write to the ſecretary of the ſaid board of managers, who being by him acquainted therewith, will direct him what anſwer to give. If it ſhould be what the board does not think expedient to comply with, the tribunal which ſhall have made the enquiry may addreſs your majeſty, to the intent that, after the ſaid board has been heard upon the ſubject, your majeſty may take ſuch reſolutions as to your great wiſdom ſhall ſeem meet.

Sect. XXXVI.

In caſe the agents and factors of the company in America, or elſewhere, ſhould happen to die, neither the judges for the dead and the abſent, nor the judges for orphans, nor any other than the proper judge appointed by the company to take cognizance of it's affairs in the reſpective places, where ſuch agents or factors ſhall die, ſhall interfere in the ſeizure of the books and effects of the deceaſed; which ſaid judge, or ſuperintendant of the company's affairs, ſhall ſeize the ſaid books and effects, and ſhall give an account thereof to the board of the company in the city of Porto, that the ſame may firſt, and with preference to all other titles, ſeparate what belongs to the company, and then deliver up the remainder to the judges or parties where and to whom it may belong. The ſame is to be underſtood with regard to the coffers and ſuperintendents of the city of Porto, with whom the company ſhall ſettle accounts in the foregoing manner, down to the hour of death, admitting their heirs to be heard, to whom, however, the right of adminiſtering to the deceaſed is not to be transfered, but muſt always remain untransferable.

Sect. XXXVII.

It is your majeſty's royal pleaſure, that the debts due to this company, which have been contracted from effects of the ſame, and not of any other nature, be recovered in favour of the company by it's recorder (or judge conſervator) or by the miniſters every where, who ſhall be required to recover them, the ſame as your majeſty's royal revenue, notwithſtanding any privileges or reſolutions which the debtors ſhall allege to the contrary.

SECT. XXXVIII.

It is alſo your majeſty's royal pleaſure, that all perſons concerned in the trade, whatever be their ſtate or condition, and however privileged they be, on being called before the board of the company for any affair belonging to the management thereof, ſhall be obliged to attend the ſame forthwith, and on failure of ſo doing the recorder (or judge conſervator) ſhall proceed againſt them as to him ſhall appear moſt proper.

SECT. XXXIX.

All perſons who ſhall enter into this company with ſix thouſand cruſados ſtock, and thence upward, ſhall, as long as the ſaid company perſiſts, enjoy the privilege of not being confinable but within their own houſes, in thoſe caſes in which ſuch privilege is uſually granted: and the officers of the ſame, for the time being, ſhall be exempt from bearing arms in any companies, whether of horſe or foot, and from furniſhing recruits, or attending general muſters, in virtue of their reſpective employments. And the trade which ſhall be carried on in the ſaid company as above, or by means of ſtocks, or by employments exerciſed by the board of the company, in the poſt of governor and directors thereof, ſhall not only be of detriment to the nobility of the perſons, who carry it on, but ſhall rather be, on the contrary, a proper means towards attaining to acquired nobility; ſo that the afore-mentioned voting members, conſtituted by your majeſty to ſerve at this firſt eſtabliſhment, ſhall remain habilitated for being inſtalled in the military orders, without any diſpenſation on the ſcore of mechanics, and their child ſhall alſo, without ſuch diſpenſation, be qualified to contend for promotion before the ſenate of Liſbon; on condition, however, that after having exerciſed the ſaid employment, they do not themſelves ſell by retail in warehouſes or ſhops, and that they do not take up any buſineſs degrading to the ſaid poſt, after having filled it: this, nevertheleſs, is to take place upon future elections, only in favour of thoſe perſons who ſhall have filled the poſts of governor and ſub-governor, after having ſerved at leaſt two years compleat, to the ſatisfaction of the company.

SECT. XL.

The offences committed againſt any officer of the company, by deed or word, in matter concerning his office, ſhall be puniſhed by the recorder (or judge conſervator) as if done to your majeſty's officers of juſtice.

SECT. XLI.

No brokers ſhall be allowed to interfere in the purchaſe or ſale of the company's effects; and only when the managers thereof ſhall think fit to make uſe of them in bargaining upon any affair, they ſhall be paid for the ſame, the hire agreed upon between them; which otherwiſe they ſhall not be obliged to undertake.

SECT. XLII.

Though the company be reſolved to act in every thing which relates to preparing and diſpatching it's ladings and ſhipping with the utmoſt mildneſs, and without applying to methods of ſeverity, as nevertheleſs it may find itſelf in abſolute neceſſity of having recourſe to the aſſiſtance of the miniſters of juſtice: it is your majeſty's royal pleaſure, that, to this effect, the board, by means of it's recorder (or judge conſervator) may ſend meſſage to the judges of criminal and to the high bailiffs of the city of Porto, for theſe to execute the orders which ſhall be ſent them; and your majeſty will look upon the good offices done by them on ſuch occaſions, as if done for the advantage of the royal ſervice, that they may receive from your majeſty the reward thereof in their promotions, on preſenting to the ſaid judges for that purpoſe a certificate from the ſaid board: and on the reverſe, if they do not comply with this obligation, it ſhall be matter of complaint, and be imputed to them as a failure of duty in their reſidences.

SECT. XLIII.

Your majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to grant to the governor, directors, ſecretary, and conſultors of this company, the ſpecial favour, that, while they continue to ſerve in the ſaid poſts, they may not be taken up, or confined, by order of any tribunal, military commander, or miniſter of juſtice, in any caſe civil or criminal (unleſs it ſhould be in flagrante delicto) without authority therefore from his recorder (or judge conſervator:) And that their factors and officers, who ſhall repair to the provinces, and other places out of the city of Porto, to make purchaſes and execute the commiſſions with which they may be charged, may make uſe of

all ſorts of ſteel and fire-arms neceſſary for the ſafety of their perſons and the capital they have with them; on condition that they carry with them licences for ſo doing, diſpatched by the recorder (or judge conſervator) of the company, in your majeſty's royal name.

SECT. XLIV.

Whereas the fund, or joint capital ſtock of this company conſiſts of one million two hundred thouſand cruſados, divided into actions of four hundred mil-reis each, as is already eſtabliſhed in ſect. x. every proprietor may have one or more actions, as he ſhall think fit, provided that, on compleating the number to the amount of ten thouſand cruſados, which is the ſufficient ſhare towards qualifying perſons poſſeſſed of actions for poſts in the management thereof, thoſe actions, over and above the ſaid amount, do remain concealed in the books of the company, without being laid down in the public accompts, which are to be diſtributed among the members, who have a right of voting at general elections.

SECT. XLV.

The company ſhall remain open to the reception of the ſums competent for the aforeſaid actions, to wit, for the city of Porto and the whole kingdom, for the ſpace of five months: for the iſlands of Açores and Madeira, for ſeven: and for all the Portugueſe dominions in America, for the ſpace of one year: the ſaid terms to commence from the day of publiſhing the proclamations, that it may reach to every one's knowlege. And after the ſaid terms are ended, or before the expiration thereof, if the abovementioned joint capital ſtock of one million two hundred thouſand cruſados be compleated, the company ſhall be cloſed, ſo as to be no more enabled to admit into the ſame any other perſon whatever: with this declaration, that for every one who ſhall enter into this company, it will be ſufficient to pay down at his entrance one half the amount of the actions he ſubſcribes for, and for the other half a credit will be given him of ſix months, reckoning from the day of fixing up the ſaid proclamations to pay in the ſame, at two different payments, of three, and three months each.

SECT. XLVI.

The perſons who ſhall enter with the aboveſaid actions, whether natives or foreigners, may diſpoſe of the value thereof in that manner, and to that intent, which they ſhall think beſt, whether by way of intail, chaplainſhip, truſt temporal or perpetual, deed of gift to the living, or reverſion in caſe of death, or other ſuch methods, making ſuch adoptions, and applying ſuch diſpoſals and clauſes as they ſhall think fit; all which it is your majeſty's royal pleaſure to approve and confirm, from this inſtant, of your own free will, certain knowlege, and royal plenary and ſupreme power, notwithſtanding any diſpoſitions to the contrary, though naturally requiring to be eſpecially mentioned, ſo, and in the ſame manner, as if the ſaid diſpoſals, adoptions, and clauſes had been written in deeds of gift under ſpecious claims, or in laſt wills, confirmed by the death of the teſtators. Foraſmuch as, ſince the right which every one, in virtue of natural liberty, is entitled to of freely diſpoſing of what is his own, authoriſes donors and teſtators to contract and diſpoſe as above in favour of private families and perſons, much more may the perſons entering with the ſaid actions be authoriſed to act in the ſame manner, when over and above the onerous titles of the contracts they enter into with the company, and the company with your majeſty, they concur to the improvement of the advantages ariſing from this eſtabliſhment to your majeſty's royal ſervice, to the commonweal of your kingdom, and to the preſervation and credit of a commodity, which, though ſo important, is in ſo ruinous a ſituation.

SECT. XLVII.

The money which ſhall be thrown into this company ſhall not be extracted thence, during the time of it's continuance, which ſhall be that of twenty years, reckoned from the day of the departure of the firſt ſquadron it ſhall diſpatch; which term of years may nevertheleſs be renewable for ten more, if the company ſhall requeſt as much, and your majeſty be graciouſly pleaſed to grant it the ſame. However, that the perſons who ſhall enter with their ſeveral capitals may have it in their power to make uſe thereof, they ſhall be at liberty to ſell the whole, or part of the actions they are poſſeſſed of, as if they were abſolute maſters of the ſame, at the prices they ſhall agree for, transferring the ſame actions to the perſons who ſhall be the purchaſers, which contracts the board of the company ſhall be immediately informed of, and the ſame ſhall cauſe the neceſſary minutes to be taken of the ſaid tranſfer, without fee or reward on that account, paſſing new policies in favour of the

new owners of ſuch actions, and entering marginal notes in the old policies of the ſellers thereof, whereby the ſale they have made of the ſame may evidently appear, and taking care to fix to the ſaid actions ſuch neceſſary lights as may ſerve for a full title to the new proprietors. All which is to be underſtood, ſo long as the ſaid company ſhall remain with a mercantile form of management, and veſted with the privileges your majeſty is pleaſed to grant to it as above. For, in caſe of it's mercantile form of government being changed, or of failure of the accompliſhment of the ſame privileges, every perſon poſſeſſed of actions in it ſhall be at full liberty to call out immediately the capital of his actions, together with the intereſt thereof, which till that day ſhall be found due to him. And your majeſty confirms the ſame, with the ſame clauſes, to be literally and inviolably obſerved, without interpretation, modification, or any meanings of fact or law, which can or may be alleged to the contrary.

Sect. XLVIII.

The intereſts ariſing from the funds of this company ſhall be divided for the firſt time in the month of July, of the third year, to be reckoned from the departure of the firſt ſquadron, on board of which the ſaid company ſhall ſhip it's goods for the Brazils, and from thenceforward a dividend pro rata of the ſaid intereſts, ſhall be annually and ſucceſſively made in the month of July aforeſaid; although the directors ſhould happen to have more than a year to remain in their offices.

Sect. XLIX.

Such ſtocks and intereſts as ſhall be found after the expiration of the twenty years, which compleat the term of the company's charter, or after the expiration of the farther term for which it may be renewed, having the nature of an intail, of a chaplainſhip, of a truſt temporal or perpetual, or being the property of the abſent, ſhall immediately be paſſed from the coffers of the company to the general depoſit of the court and city of Liſbon, where they ſhall be laid up with the ſame ſecurity as the ſaid depoſit itſelf is, in order to be diſpoſed of, applied, or delivered up, according to the diſpoſal of the perſons who ſo ſettled them at the time of putting into the company. But thoſe ſtocks which are not under any ſuch reſtrictions, and are perfectly allodial and free, ſhall require nothing more or leſs to entitle their proprietors to receive the full value thereof, than the very policy of the ſame; and the money being paid to the perſon who produces the ſaid policy, this ſhall remain in the coffer, to ſerve as a diſcharge from the ſaid action or ſtocks; for the recovery of which no copies ſhall ever be of uſe, but the originals themſelves ſhall be always required.

Sect. L.

All this ſhall extend to foreigners, and perſons reſiding in foreign countries, whatever quality or condition they be of; and in caſe, that during the above twenty years term of charter, or the farther renewal thereof, this crown (which heaven avert!) ſhould be at war with any other power whoſe vaſſals have thrown their effects into this company, nevertheleſs no arreſt, embarraſſment, ſequeſtration, or repriſal, ſhall affect them, or the intereſts thence ariſing to the owners, but rather they ſhall remain to them as perfectly free, exempt, and ſecure, as if every one had them in their own hands: a ſpecial favour which your majeſty is pleaſed to grant to this company from the motives above-mentioned; and which your majeſty, thus on your royal word, promiſes to fulfil to them.

Sect. LI.

And becauſe in courſe of time many things may occur, which cannot at preſent be expreſſed for want of reflecting on them, your majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to empower the ſaid company, as occaſion ſhall offer, to lay them before your majeſty, by means of the ſecretary of ſtate for the affairs of the kingdom, that your majeſty may determine concerning them as your wiſdom ſhall find beſt for your own royal ſervice, and for the common good of your dutiful ſubjects and of this company. And the company ſhall do ſo accordingly, even in matters relating to it's own advantage, whenever any one of the directors ſhall inſiſt on a caſe being laid before your majeſty, provided the affairs be of moment, and it's conſequences of importance to your royal ſervice, to the common-weal of the kingdom, or to ſome weighty affair of the company.

Sect. LII.

Whereas it is of great uſe to fix a time certain for the departure of the ſquadrons from the city of Porto to the ſtates of Brazil, as well as that the wines may be navigated at a convenient ſeaſon, as that the inhabitants of thoſe governments may make their neceſſary proviſions at a certain period of time: It is your majeſty's royal pleaſure, that the ſquadrons, bound for thoſe governments, do preciſely ſet ſail in the ſpring tides of the month of September, or, at the lateſt, in the firſt of thoſe of October of every year, on pain, that the ſhips which do otherwiſe, ſhall not be impowered to go out till the like time of the following year; and that leave ſhall not be granted to them to lade or to ſail at any other time.

Sect. LIII.

And whereas your majeſty, after hearing the petitioners, has been graciouſly pleaſed to nominate the perſons, whoſe names are hereunder ſubſcribed, to eſtabliſh and govern this company for the firſt three years; they, and every one of them; ſign this writing in the name of the ſaid vintagers and good men of the city of Porto; perſonally binding their own effects with which they enter into the company, and alſo thoſe of the perſons in general, who ſhall enter into the ſame, ſo far only as the portions wherewith they enter therein may extend: that your majeſty may vouchſafe to confirm the ſaid company with all the clauſes, pre-eminence, privileges, and conditions contained in the ſame writing, and with all the ſtrength and force neceſſary for it's validity and ſecurity.

Porto, on the 31ſt of Auguſt, 1756.

Sebaſtian Joſeph de Carvalho e Mello.
Joſeph da Coſta Ribeiro.
Luiz Beleza de Andrade.
Joſeph Pinto da Cunha.
Joſeph Monteiro de Carvalho.
Cuſtodio dos Santos Alvares Brito.
John Pacheco Pereira.
Lewis de Magalhaens Coutinho.
Antony de Araujo Freire de Souſa e Vieiga.
Emanuel Rodrigues Braga.
Francis John de Carvalho.
Dominick Joſeph Nogueira.
Francis Martins da Luz.
Francis Barboza dos Santos.
Lewis Diogo de Moura Coutinho.

I, the king, make known to thoſe who may ſee this charter of confirmation, that having, and with perſons of my royal council, and other miniſters learned, experienced, and zealous for the ſervice of God, of myſelf, and of the common-weal of my ſubjects, whom I thought fit to conſult, maturely weigh the three and fifty chapters and conditions contained in the three and thirty afore written half ſheets, marked by Sebaſtian Joſeph de Carvalho e Mello, one of my council, and ſecretary of ſtate for the affairs of the kingdom, which the principal vintagers of upper Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, therein mentioned, have made and ordained, with my royal approbation, in order to eſtabliſh a company, which may competently ſupport the culture of the vineyards of Alto Douro, and at the ſame time preſerve the growths thereof in their natural purity, to the advantage of domeſtic and foreign trade, as well as of the health of my ſubjects, without any expence to my revenue, but rather to the improvement of that and of the common-weal of my kingdom: and whereas upon examination of the ſaid conditions, with mature counſel, and prudent deliberation, they have been found not only convenient, as well as the company itſelf, which is of manifeſt utility to the ſaid city of Porto, and to the provinces thereto adjoining; but alſo, that the ſaid company is of ſingular ſervice in this particular, as alſo the perſons, who thereby contribute to the advancement of commerce and agriculture, by ſo advantageous and ſolid an eſtabliſhment: it is my royal will and pleaſure to confirm all the ſaid conditions, and every one in particular, as if they were, word for word, here inſerted and declared: and, by this my charter, I confirm to it and them the ſame, of my own free will, and certain knowlege, royal and abſolute power, to the intent that they may be put in execution, and fully obſerved, according to the tenor and meaning thereof. And it is my royal will that this confirmation, in the whole and for every part thereof, be inviolably obſerved, and never be repealed, but do always remain in it's full force and vigour, as firm, valid, and perpetual, without diminution; and that no doubts or demurs be raiſed to obſtruct the accompliſhment of the ſame, either in part or in the whole, in judgment or out of it; and that it be underſtood to be done in the beſt form, and in the moſt perfect meaning which can be expreſſed and underſtood in favour of the ſame company, and it's commerce and the ſupport thereof; ſupplying, and having for ſupplied, (as if inſerted in this charter) all clauſes and formalities of law and practice, which may be requiſite to give it it's full force; and I repeal, and have for repealed, all and every the laws, ſtatutes, ordinations, decrees of courts, proviſions, extravagants, other charters, and opinions of doctors, which by any means, or in any manner whatſoever, may be contrary to the conditions of the ſaid company, or to any one of them, though they ſhould be ſuch as to render it neceſſary to make herein a ſpecial and expreſs recital thereof, word for word,

word, notwithſtanding the ordination of the ſecond book, title forty four, which ordains that no ordination ſhall be deemed to have been by me repealed, unleſs expreſs mention of the ſame be made: and for the greater force and irrevocable exiſtence of this confirmation, I promiſe and give aſſurance, on my royal word, thus to fulfil it, and to cauſe it to be fulfilled and maintained, and not to revoke it, but to ſupport the perſons intereſted in the ſaid company in the preſervation of that and of it's commerce, in the quality of protector thereof, as I am in fact: and this charter ſhall have the force of a law, that the confirmation of the conditions and chapters therein contained may always remain in their full vigour without any alteration. Wherefore I command the ſenate of Liſbon, the courts of requeſts, the court of exchequer, the ultra-marine-council, the board of conſcience, the guild of the city of Porto, and other courts and tribunals, as alſo all the governors, generals of the Brazils, officers majors, intendants of the revenue, auditors general, and guilds of that ſtate, and all the magiſtrates, miniſters, judges, and juſtices of my kingdoms and lordſhips, that they in like manner do fulfil and obſerve it, and cauſe the ſame to be fulfilled and obſerved, without doubt or demur, of any ſort, not admitting any plea which may obſtruct, in the whole or in part, the effect of the ſaid conditions, as whatever relates to the company belongs to the board of the ſame. And it is my pleaſure, that this charter have force as an inſtrument, without paſſing through the chancery-office, and notwithſtanding the ordination, book ſecond, title 39, to the contrary, though it be more than a year before it have it's full effects.

Given at Belem the 10th of September, 1756.

REY.

Sebaſtain Joſeph de Carvalho e Mello.

Charter, by which your majeſty is pleaſed, for the reaſons therein alleged, to confirm the fifty-three chapters, and the conditions contained in the thirty three half leaves aforewritten, which the principle vintagers of Alto Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, have made and ordained, with your majeſty's royal approbation, for forming a company, which, maintaining the culture of the vineyards, may preſerve the produce thereof in it's natural purity, to the advantage of the vintage, of commerce, and of public health.

For your majeſty's inſpection,

Done by JOACHIM JOSEPH BORALHO.

Regiſtered in the office of the ſecretary of ſtate for the affairs of the kingdom, in book I. of the ſaid company, leaf 1. and the following.

The printer, Michael Rodrigues, may print the chapters, and the conditions of the general company for the culture of the vineyards of Alto Douro; I having, by this decree, granted him the neceſſary licence for that purpoſe only.

With his majeſty's royal ſignature.

Regiſtered.

REMARKS ON OUR ARTICLE PORTUGAL, ſince the laſt war, and the treaty of peace of 1763.

The Portugueze being invaded by the Spaniards in the year 1762, we again ſuccoured them at no leſs expence than we did before, and they became a contracting party to the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See AMERICA for the treaty at large. But we have not received or got any grateful returns, ſuitable to all the obligations which Portugal is notoriouſly under to Great-Baitain; though it has been ſaid, we are in daily expectations to receive ſuch in a commercial way, as will make us an ample compenſation for all the expences, which we have been at: but we know there is little gratitude amongſt princes, when their turn is ſerved. However, if Portugal only amuſes and deceives us again; it is to be hoped, that this nation will never more aſſiſt them, without previouſly conſulting her own immediate intereſt by ſo doing: we are no longer in a condition to fight the battles of other nations, without receiving advantages, more than equivalent to the expence, and the attention required by the court of England, when engaged in ſuch enterprizes. The largeneſs of our PUBLIC DEBTS, and the multiplicity of our TAXES, it is to be hoped will be a memento to relinquiſh ſuch ſyſtems, till we have got rid of our national incumbrances, or ſufficiently reduced them.

Let any man of candour and impartiality judge, whether the above wine company is not an eſtabliſhment, calculated to deſtroy and annihilate all the commercial privileges to which the Engliſh are entitled in the kingdom of Portugal: we are perſuaded, that he cannot think otherwiſe, when he compares it with the articles in Oliver's peace, which he will find under our article of TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

However, whether the court of Portugal, will or no think proper not only to ratify and confirm all the ancient privileges of Britiſh ſubjects in that kingdom, but add ſome freſh one to them, in grateful remembrance of the greateſt expence the crown of Great-Britain has been at for the ſupport of that nation, and the diſtinguiſhed attention this nation has lately given to her preſervation; we ſhall ſoon hear, his excellency Count de la Lippe being juſt now charged with a ſpecial commiſſion from our court to Portugal, for that purpoſe, than whom no one could be more acceptable to the court of Portugal, the count having done it ſuch important ſervices, by means of Great-Britain.

PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE. The Portugueze have a great ſhare of the trade to Africa; and, as the Dutch trade thither for gold rather than for ſlaves, ſo the Portugueze trade there rather for ſlaves than for gold, though they have ſome ſhare of the gold alſo, eſpecially on the eaſt coaſt. But this trading chiefly for ſlaves has been, in ſome reſpect, the ſafety of the Portugueze commerce: for as the Dutch, who are every where their rivals in trade, have kept the coaſt where there is moſt gold, ſo the Portugueze quietly poſſeſs their factories in Congo, Angola, and the ſouth coaſt of Africa, where there are ſlaves, but no great quantity of gold.

As the Dutch want but few ſlaves, becauſe they have but few plantations in America, ſo the Portugueze want a great number, becauſe their plantations in Brazil are ſo very great; and they increaſe their trade upon the coaſt of Africa, becauſe their colonies in Brazil increaſe conſiderably every year. See the articles BRAZIL and PORTUGUEZE AMERICA.

In order to ſupply themſelves with negroes, they have a trade with all the factories upon the coaſt of Angola, and the whole kingdom of Congo is, as it were, their own; by which they enjoy all that which geographers call the coaſt of Congo, or the Lower Guinea, from the Portugueze fort on the north of the iſland Fernando, in the latitude of 7 degrees ſouth, to Cape Negro, in latitude 16 degrees, beſides a powerful ſettlement up the country, at St Salvador.

In this vaſt extent of country they have a moſt extenſive and advantageous trade, having made very conſiderable ſettlements; but the principal, and where their governor or viceroy keeps his reſidence, is at Loando in Angola, and Cape Palmerhino, where they have ſtrong garriſons, and are able to bring together, for their defence againſt the natives, 2 or 3000 men at a time, very well armed. See the following particulars of all their ſettlements in that country, with a brief account of the trade they carry on at all of them reſpectively: for they have no ſettlements here like that of the Cape of Good Hope, merely for baiting and refreſhing their ſhips.

The Portugueze ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, with their trade, are as follow:

In GUINEA PROPER, or UPPER GUINEA.

ARCHIEM, a fort upon a ſmall river, near Cape Three Points: their trade here is chiefly in elephants-teeth, ſome gold, but not much.

They once had DEL MINA, a ſtrong caſtle, and now the biggeſt and faireſt fortification in all Guinea. N. B. This caſtle was taken from the Portugueze, who built it, by the Dutch, anno 1631, and the Dutch ſtill hold it, and have made it very ſtrong.

WIDDAW: here they have a ſmall ſettlement, but not much trade; they ſay they pretend to ſettle there chiefly for intelligence.

In CONGO.

FERNANDO PO, an iſland the fartheſt north, and near the Engliſh factories. Here they obtain ſome gold and elephants-teeth, with much bees-wax and civet; but the chief trade here is for freſh proviſions for the Portugueze ſhips out-bound for India.

CAPE LOPOS. Here they have ſuch a ſettlement that the king of the country lives in the fort with them, and they are all confederates; they get here a great many ſlaves, and ſome drugs.

LOANGO: it is a kingdom, and has it's proper king; but the Portugueze may be ſaid to be more properly kings of this whole country, eſpecially the ſea-coaſt, which they are fully poſſeſſed of for 1100 miles together; and they carry from thence yearly 25,000 ſlaves, or negroes, for the Brazils, but little or nothing elſe.

GREAT CASCAIRS, at the mouth of a ſmall nameleſs river, not navigable.

GOANGO, at the mouth of the river Zaire: here alſo they get abundance of ſlaves.

ST SALVADOR, the capital city, above 100 miles within the country.

LOANDO, where the Portugueze governor reſides.

In Angola.

Cape Palmerhino,
Cape Lehdo,
Libolo,
Benguelas, or St Philip.
☞ The Dutch have a ſmall ſettlement here, but the Portugueze drive a very good trade from hence notwithſtanding.
Tortuga,
Angra De Negros.

} Theſe are the places where the bulk of their ſlaves are collected, and where alſo they load their ſhips with what other things they find.

Beſides all theſe, they have ſome ſmall factories on the northern coaſt, about Cape Verd and Rio Grand.

From theſe ſouthern parts they carry a very great number of ſlaves every year to the Brazils; and as their colony there is exceeding great and populous, as well as rich, were it not that they have ſuch extended ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, for the ſupply of negroes, they could not be able to carry on their ſugar-works, their mines, and other planting buſineſs in the Brazils, where the ſlaves are not long-lived.

But this is not all they have to depend upon for ſupplying the Brazils: they have ſeveral conſiderable ſettlements on the eaſt coaſt of Africa, as in the territory of Mozambique, and the whole coaſt of Zanguebar, a country that takes up the ſea-coaſt from the Rio de Ladrones, in latitude 27 degrees ſouth of the Line, where the Portugueze ſay the government of Mozambique begins, to Jubo, which lies directly under the Equator, or within one degree north latitude, and from thence even to the gulph of Moccha, or the Red Sea.

The Portugueze governor of all this territory reſides at Mombaza, in the kingdom of Melinda, where the king of Melinda alſo reſides. They are abſolute maſters of all theſe coaſts, where they are never interrupted by the viſits of any ſhips or company from Europe, except their own, or except they be ſhips in diſtreſs, in their return from India; for in their going they ſteer quite another courſe.

On this coaſt of Africa they poſſeſs vaſt dominion, and have ſeveral powerful people, countries, and even kingdoms tributary to them; of which we muſt take notice, otherwiſe their trade from thoſe places cannot be fully deſcribed.

In Monomotapa.

Inhagua, an iſland near the mouth of the river St Eſprit, where the Portugueze dominions ſouth of the Line begin. Here they get abundance of elephants-teeth, and alſo much gold: here alſo they begin to be full of black cattle, and they furniſh great quantities to the Dutch at Cape de Bonne Eſperance.

St Martin, an iſland alſo, in the mouth of the great river Cumana, where they have a traffic with the natives for European goods, but bring little away but proviſions.

Puado, an iſland in a branch of the ſame river Cumana. By this river the Portugueze carry on a great commerce with the Caffres, or inland negroes, exchanging a vaſt quantity of European goods for ſlaves and gold, to their very great profit.

Mozambique, and therein

The coaſt of Zanguebar, containing two governments:

St John of Mozambique, an iſland with a city in it, which is very populous, and full of trade: it is wholly poſſeſſed by the Portugueze as ſovereigns. They have a ſtrong fortreſs here for protecting their trade, in the nature of a citadel, which commands both the country, the city, and the harbour, which is alſo very good; and here moſt of their ſhips for Goa and Macao call, as well for trade as to refreſh themſelves, as they return from China and India. Here alſo they drive a very gainful trade, trucking the manufactures of Europe for gold and elephants teeth, but not many negroes.

Mongale, an inland town, poſſeſſed alſo by the Portugueze, and garriſoned, and which is the ſtaple of their European goods, manufactures, &c. of which they ſell great quantities to the natives, for ſmall bits or lumps of gold, to very great advantage.

Quilsa: this is a ſtrong fort, built by the Portugueze, but the country is unhealthy, ſo that the factory could not hold it, and they demoliſhed it again: but the king is tributary to them, and pays for their protection, as they call it, 1500 pounds weight of gold per annum, and a great quantity of ivory; and, as the people are cloathed here alſo, the Portugueze ſell them abundance of European goods, manufactures, &c.

Mombaza, a government and ſtrong fortreſs, but loſt to the natives in 1631, who took it by ſtorm, and cut all the Portugueze to pieces in it; but the Portugueze returned it, for they recovered it again, with greater ſlaughter of the inhabitants, and made it very ſtrong. Here they have alſo a very advantageous trade.

Melinda, a large country; ſubject to the Portugueze, though they have a king of their own alſo. The capital city is called likewiſe Melinda, a large populous place, wholly built by the Portugueze in the latitude of 8 degrees, a ſea-port, with a very good harbour, and a ſtrong citadel, which commands the entrance into the port. At this city the Portugueze are ſo numerous, that they have 17 churches, beſides religious houſes. Here they have ſuch large warehouſes for all ſorts of European goods, that they ſupply the whole coaſt and country for 1000 leagues within land; and here they yearly carry off a very great number of ſlaves, as alſo gold, horſes, rich gums and drugs, and ſome oriental pearl.

Adjoining to this country there are five ſeveral kingdoms, all tributary to the Portugueze; ſo that they have the ſovereignty of as much land in this country, as the whole kingdoms of Spain and Portugal take up in Europe; and the merchants of Melinda are immenſely rich.

Brava: ſome call it a republic; whether it be ſo or not matters not much, they are ſubject to the Portugueze, and pay a tribute for carrying the Portugal ſtandard. The Portugueze trade here chiefly for ambergreaſe, elephants-teeth, and gold; and they take off great quantities of European goods, becauſe the people go cloathed after the Portugueze manner.

From hence to the Red Sea the Portugueze have the command of the coaſt, though no ſettlement or trade with the people.

Whoever conſiders the extent of the Portugueze dominions on theſe coaſts, and includes the many nations and kingdoms which are their tributaries, muſt neceſſarily allow their trade to thoſe countries to be exceeding great: and though the people of many of thoſe nations go almoſt naked, or with very little cloathing, and, therefore, conſume not much woollen or ſilken manufactures (the climate being exceeding hot where moſt of them live), yet this is greatly ſupplied by the infinite number or people, who all make uſe of ſomewhat; and the export in the whole, from Portugal to thoſe places, muſt be very great. As for their returns, they are made with great advantage to the merchant, as well as to the nation in general, for they are in ſome of the moſt precious and valuable things in the world; ſuch as,

Slaves,
Gold-duſt,
Elephants-teeth,
Gums of the richeſt kinds,
Oſtrich-feathers,
Bees-wax.
Drugs, { Senna, Aloes, Guinea grains, Civet, Ambergreaſe, Incenſe, Frankincenſe, &c.
Wild beaſts and birds, { Lions, Leopards, Tygers, Civet-cats, Elephants, Oſtriches, Apes, Parrots, Horſes, very fine, of the Arab breed, from Magadoxa.

The Portugueze have alſo ſeveral poſſeſſions, and a great trade, in ſome iſlands in ſeveral parts of the world. For example,

Madagascar, right againſt the ſhore of Mozambique and Kanguebar, on the coaſt of Africa, where they get ſlaves in conſiderable numbers, but no gold.

Madeiras, a body of iſlands near the Canaries, and which carry on a large trade in wine of that dominion alſo.

Terceras, or the Azores, or Westward Isles. Theſe are alſo a ſmall cluſter of Iſlands, ſeven in number, not far off from the coaſt of Africa, and have a ſmall trade with Portugal for European manufactures and corn, but have very little returns to make, except corn and cattle: they lie very convenient for victualling the Brazil ſhips outward-bound. See Azores Islands.

Cape De Verde Islands. From whence they derive their name is eaſy to judge, they lying juſt off Cape de Verde, or, in Engliſh, the Green Cape.

All theſe iſlands are poſſeſſed by the Portugueze, except that of Madagaſcar, and even there they have the people under ſuch command, that it is all one as if they poſſeſſed it. In all theſe they have a very conſiderable trade, but eſpecially to the Cape de Verde and the Madeiras: the latter, in particular, is ſaid to ſend 20,000 pipes of wine a year to the Engliſh and French colonies in the Weſt-Indies, particularly to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and Martinico; and the Cape de Verde iſlands to furniſh ſalt to New England, and the Engliſh colonies on the north of America, for their fiſhing-trade.

☞ The

☞ The Portugueze had once begun a trade into the empire of the Abyſſines, or Ethiopia, but were given out of it again by the Ethiopians, who fancied they intended to ſtop the channel of the river Nile, and turn it into the Red Sea, and ſo cut off their commerce and communication with Egypt.

One thing is to be noted of the Portugal trade, viz. that having no manufacture worth naming in trade, with which to carry on their affairs to all theſe remote ſettlements, and where they have infinitely more people to ſupply than their whole country in Europe contains, all their ſhips therefore go loaded with the product and manufactures of other nations, juſt as the Spaniards do to New Spain, ſuch as thoſe of England, France, Holland, and Hamburgh: and as the Engliſh have the greateſt opportunity to oblige them, by the treaties made between them in trade, ſo the greateſt quantity of Engliſh manufactures have heretofore been ſent to them, which they have again exported to all theſe remote parts of the world.

All theſe things confirm what is ſaid above, viz. how greatly the trade of Portugal is increaſed in a few years, upon the occaſion of the growth of thoſe colonies, and of their intereſt in them; inſomuch that it is apparent Portugal alone has taken off more Engliſh goods yearly, within the laſt 40 years, than both Portugal and Spain took off together any year before.

This is chiefly owing to the increaſe of their colonies in the Brazils, and on the eaſtern African coaſt, which are ſo very much improved of late, and are daily increaſing, by the vaſt number of native Portugueze who go to ſettle there, and who all grow rich, that it is believed Brazil only, in 40 years more, if it goes on as it has done for 40 years paſt, will be the greateſt colony in America, and have more people in it than are in all Portugal and Algarve in Europe.

Remarks.

From this account of the Portugueze ſituation in Africa, the following particulars are obſervable:

1. That as the ſucceſs of the gold and diamond-mines in Brazil, as well as the ſugar-works, belonging to the Portugueze, depends upon the labour of negroes, they conſtantly take care to obtain a competent number for this purpoſe, by virtue of their African ſettlements.

2. That from the greater dominion in ſovereignty, as alſo the greater extent of territory in Africa than any other European power has, they neceſſarily purchaſe the productions in this part of the world at cheaper rates than other powers can do: that is to ſay, they exchange leſs quantities of the merchandizes of Europe for their African ſlaves, their gold, ivory, &c.

3. That their having brought far more of the natives to cloath in the European manner, than all the reſt of the potentates conſidered together who have ſettlements there, the general traffic of the Portugueze in Africa is not of leſs conſideration to them, perhaps, than that of all the other powers of Europe unitedly comprehended.

4. That the policy of the Portugueze in Africa points out, and even demonſtrates, that it is by no means impracticable for the Engliſh in particular, who have ſuch a number of good forts and ſettlements in Africa [ſee English African Company] to make at leaſt as great advancement into the inland commerce of Africa as the Portugueze; and to bring thouſands, perhaps millions, of the natives, ſo to cloath in the European manner, as to add infinitely more to the exports of this nation in that part of the world, than we have ever hitherto done: for, although England has been in poſſeſſion of forts and ſettlements in Africa ſince the time of queen Elizabeth, yet we have never enjoyed any thing but a trifle of the coaſt-trade; we have never yet entered into the heart of Africa, and, conſequently, have not enlarged our commerce there any thing like to the degree it will admit of.—But this, we apprehend, depends upon quite other meaſures than what they have ever yet been taken. See the article English African Company, Vol. I. and ſuch other heads to which from hence we have referred.

PORTUGUEZE AMERICA. The territories belonging to Portugal in America, are the Brazils; which for ſituation, extent, and other advantages derived from nature, have proved unſpeakably beneficial to the poſſeſſor. We ſhall not enter farther back into the hiſtory hereof, than what may be requiſite to our purpoſe. Among the various contentions amidſt ſeveral powers for theſe territories, the Dutch were the laſt who declared war againſt Portugal on this occaſion; but after five years, they were glad to make a peace, under the mediation of our king Charles II. which was ſigned in Auguſt 1660; and the Portugueze have, ſince this time, remained in quiet poſſeſſion of this vaſt country. See the article Brazil.

The trade which the Portugueze carry on to this colony has been ſo great, that ſome have thought that to have been the principal cauſe why they have neglected that of the Indies.—See the article Portugueze East-India Trade.

The trade of the five northern captainſhips of Brazil, viz. Paria, Maragnen, Siere, Rio Grande, and Parayba, is carried on in the laſt mentioned port, which lies on the river of the ſame name, at five leagues diſtance from the ſea.—It is a pretty fair and populous town, and there are annually about 7 or 8 ſhips ſent thither from Liſbon and Oporto, of about 250 tons burden. Their lading conſiſts chiefly in ſugar, of which they make more in theſe northern captainſhips, than in the ſouth; eſpecially ſince the diſcovery of the gold mines, which has made the inhabitants negligent in reſpect to this and all other productions and manufactures.

There was a time when the trade of Brazil ſugar was ſuperior to that of any in the world; for the Brazil ſugar was the firſt known in Europe, and the Portugueze are ſaid to have ſet up their ſugar-works in this country, about the year 1580; and their long poſſeſſion has made them more careful and exact in it, than any other nation; ſo that even at preſent, the clayed ſugars from Brazil are whiter and finer than ours, and yet the method of doing it is no great ſecret. See the article Sugar.

Beſides ſugar, they bring from hence dyeing woods, ſeveral ſorts of drugs, and other valuable commodities from Parayba, which is the leaſt frequented port in Brazil, though theſe northern captainſhips are the beſt peopled, and the inhabitants are eaſy in their circumſtances, notwithſtanding there have been no mines yet wrought in theſe parts.

Tamarca, which lies next to Payraba, and the captainſhip of Fernambuco, carry on their trade from the city of Olinda. It is ſeated on a hill not far from the ſea, which renders the ſtreets uneven and incommodious. The port is but narrow, and entry extremely difficult; yet there is a conſiderable reſort of ſhipping there from the other parts of Brazil, and from the Canaries: and the annual fleet from Liſbon, conſiſts generally of about 30 ſail, eſcorted by a man of war. Theſe merchantmen are generally about the ſame ſize with thoſe ſent to Parayba, and their cargoes are compoſed chiefly of ſugar and Brazil wood, which laſt is ſaid to be the beſt of it's kind in the world. See Brazil Wood.

Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints, is the next captainſhip of Brazil, is about 12 leagues over, but ſcarce navigable in ſeveral places. There are in this bay ſeveral ſmall iſlands, where there are tobacco and ſugar plantations; and they have alſo very good fiſheries on the coaſt of theſe iſlands, and on the banks.

St Salvador city lies in the latitude of 14 degrees ſouth, and is at preſent the center of the Portugueze trade in this part of the world. Authors differ in the accounts they give of the fleets ſent annually hither from Liſbon, ſome making them double what others report; but the reaſon of this is, we apprehend, that the one ſpeak of the whole Brazil fleet, which generally aſſemble in the Bay of All Saints, in order to return together to Europe; and the other of the fleet from Liſbon expreſsly deſtined for the Bay, which is about 30 ſail eſcorted by two men of war, about the month of March commonly.

The commodities they carry are wines, brandies, meal, or flour; oil, cheeſe, cloths, ſtuffs, linen, iron, rough and wrought; paper, all kinds of kitchen utenſils, laces, and moſt kinds of apparel. On the other hand, they bring from thence the beſt tobacco in Brazil, ſo highly eſteemed in Europe; alſo ſugar, indigo, balſam capaiva, ipecacuanha, pareira brava, cinnamon, long-pepper, ginger, woods for dyeing, and ſome for inlaying; ambergreaſe, and other rich drugs and perfumes: beſides theſe, they alſo export from hence raw hides, train-oil, and whale-fins, abundance of theſe creatures being taken upon the coaſt, and, for above theſe forty years laſt paſt, gold, amethyſts, and diamonds.

There are likewiſe ſome ſilver mines in Brazil, which, though not wrought to ſuch profit as to allow the exporting much of this metal to Portugal, yet furniſh ſufficient for home circulation; and of this ſilver that money is coined at St Salvador, which is current through the whole colony; and which bears on one ſide the arms of Portugal, and on the other a croſs charged with a ſphere, with the following motto: Under this ſign will I ſtand.

The reſt of the captainſhips which lie farther to the ſouth, carry on their trade by the Rio Janeiro, ſo called for it's having been diſcovered in the month of January 1515; and which, from being ſcarce known 'till of late years, is, at preſent, become one of the moſt conſiderable rivers in the world. The banks of it are as beautiful and pleaſant as can be imagined, the climate fine, the ſoil extremely fertile, producing ſugar, indigo, tobacco, and cotton, all in perfection.

It has alſo been experienced, that European corn will grow here with little trouble and to great perfection; but for the reaſons aſſigned, this, and all other improvements, have been diſregarded, though independent of the gold mines, which have been diſcovered in this and the neighbouring captainſhips of St Vincent, this might be conſidered as the richeſt part of Brazil. The Portugueze ſettled here are quite a different people from thoſe in the Bay of All Saints; for they are active, induſtrious, well inclined to foreigners, and ſuffer the Indians who live among them, to enjoy as much freedom

as themſelves, which renders the country a paradiſe; and it is not eaſy to imagine, what vaſt cargoes were brought from the Rio Janeiro, before the gold mines in that country were diſcovered.

St Sebastian city is the capital of this country, and ſtands commodiouſly in 23 degrees ſouth latitude on the weſt of the river, about two leagues from the ſea. It is the ſeat of the Portugueze governor, a biſhop's ſea, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St Salvador, and is well fortified.

There are likewiſe ſeveral other conſiderable towns on the Rio Janeiro, all of which have a large ſhare of trade, as may appear from the number of ſhips which compoſe the fleet ſent hither annually from Portugal, and which conſiſts of between 20 and 30 ſail of veſſels, of 500 tons burden, which are uſually eſcorted by two men of war.

The commodities brought from hence are generally the ſame with thoſe from the Bay of All Saints, diamonds only excepted.—In regard to the diamond-mines, it is about forty years ſince, that ſome precious ſtones were brought to the city of St Sebaſtian, taken out of a ſmall river lying weſtward of that city, which were at firſt judged to be very fine pebbles, but it was not ſo ſoon that they were brought over to Europe. About the cloſe of queen Anne's war, theſe fine pebbles were found in greater quantities; and we are told, that ſome rich planters began to employ their ſlaves in digging the black heavy earth, on the ſides of the mountains, from whence this river deſcended, and then theſe ſtones were found in greater plenty: ſome of them were very large, but moſt of a black or yellowiſh caſt, which blemiſhed their luſtre, and ſunk their value; notwithſtanding which, many of the yellow ſtones were brought to Liſbon and ſold for topazes. See the article Topaz.

After the crown of Portugal interpoſed, the working of theſe mines were prohibited; which, however, did not hinder their coming in conſiderable quantities; for it was ſometimes ſaid, they were found in this or that river, and not dug out of any mine; ſometimes they had other names given them, and many were ſent to St Salvador, and from thence exported to Europe, under pretence of their coming from the Eaſt-Indies by the Goa fleet. This involuntary fraud raiſed their value, and at length the crown of Portugal became convinced, that ſuch as pretended to great ſkill in ſtones had deceived them, and that ſome of theſe Brazil ſtones were ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from Oriental diamonds: upon this the court altered their meaſures, and it was permitted to ſend over rough diamonds in the Rio Janeiro fleet, under certain reſtrictions; which licence rendering the value of thoſe jewels ſtill more and more apparent, the king of Portugal reſolved to put this trade under a new regulation. This new order took place in the year 1740, when his Portugueze majeſty let theſe mines to a company at Rio Janeiro, for an annual rent of 138,000 cruſadoes, which is 26,000l. of our money, upon condition that they employed no more than 600 ſlaves at theſe mines.

Theſe ſtones coming into Europe, ſunk the price of diamonds at firſt conſiderably; but this diſcovery has, notwithſtanding, proved highly beneficial to the Portugueze, ſince it has operated in their favour greatly, with regard to the general ballance of their trade; for as they have diſpoſed of theſe ſtones to any nation, upon whom they have already a ballance, they muſt bring money into the kingdom; and if, on the other hand, they have ſold them to ſuch nations to whom they pay a ballance in trade, this has leſſened the ballance in the favour of ſuch nations, and has prevented the exportation of gold in the like proportion; ſo that take it either way, the diſcovery of theſe diamond mines has been of high conſequence, and may prove ſtill of far greater advantage to this nation.

St Vincent captainſhip lies ſouthward from that of Rio Janeiro, which is the richeſt country in Brazil, perhaps in all South America. It is bounded on the north by the captainſhip of Rio Janeiro, on the eaſt by the ocean, on the ſouth by that of Del Rey, and on the weſt by the mountains of La Plata, and countries inhabited by various ſavage nations: it extends from the latitude of 22 degrees to 27 degrees ſouth, and is in length from north to ſouth about 300 miles, and in breadth from eaſt to weſt, in ſome places near 180 miles, but the greateſt part of it is not above half ſo broad.

St Vincent town is ſituated on a fine bay of the Atlantic Ocean, or a kind of peninſula according to ſome, well fortified: a little to the north-weſt lies the town of Santos, which ſome look upon to be the capital of the province; and which has as fine a port as any in the Weſt-Indies, capable of holding the largeſt ſhips.

Remarks.

A ſummary of this trade and poſſeſſion.

The extent of this colony and government is the greateſt at this time in the world, that is adminiſtered by one deputy or viceroy: the dominions of the Spaniards in America are, indeed, greater, but then they are divided into ſeparate governments, and under governors independent of one another, though all ſubject to the ſame ſovereign.

The proper bounds of this colony from north to ſouth, is from the river Amazons to the river Paraguay, or La Plata, [ſee the article Paraguay] above 2200 miles, being from the line, or within half a degree of it, to latitude 37 degrees ſouth, and the breadth above 1000 miles; but of that indeed they poſſeſs very little, for the Portugueze are ſo ill beloved by the natives, and the latter, who are a terrible people, and the moſt furious and bloody of all ſavages, are ſo numerous in the inland parts of the country, that the Portugueze, who are not the braveſt men in the world, dare not venture far among them; that is, dare not plant far from the coaſt. And this is the reaſon, that though the Brazils are ſo exceeding large as above, and that the Portugueze are poſſeſſed of the whole coaſt for above 2000 miles, yet they are hardly any where ſettled above fifty miles from the ſea, except in the Bay of All Saints, and on the ſouth parts to the banks of the Rio de la Plata; which alſo may be called a coaſt, becauſe bounded by the banks of that great river.

The length of the ſea-coaſt entitles them to a great many good ports for trade; and the extent of the land entitles them to many different productions fit for merchandize. As the moſt northern parts are exceſſively hot, being under the line, and conſequently cannot produce corn or maintain cattle; on the contrary, the ſouthermoſt parts produce very good corn and maize, and ſuch an abundance of cattle, that the hides and tallow are very conſiderable articles in their exportations. The produce of the country in general is as follows.

Rice, corn, maize, ſugar, cotton, tobacco, Brazil woods, fuſtic, hides, tallow. Some valuable ſtones and metals, as emeralds, jaſper, cryſtal, diamonds, ſilver, gold: drugs, as balm, lacque, ſaffron, ambergreaſe, caſſavy.

But the chief produce for merchandize beſides the gold and diamonds, are only three of theſe heads, namely, ſugar, tobacco, and hides.

It was many years the Portugueze carried on the trade of this colony, and with ſucceſs too, without knowing any thing of it's ſubterranean wealth: ſilver, indeed, they expected, though they found very little at firſt; and the number of ſhips ſent to the Brazils, was uſually but from nine to twelve ſail in a fleet, and thoſe fleets once a year; one fleet to the Bay of All Saints, and the other to Fernambuco, then newly recovered from the Dutch.

About the year 1680, they diſcovered a great deal of gold in the mountains, at ſome diſtance from the city of St Salvador; and after that they found the like in ſeveral other parts, chiefly in the mountainous country, and remote from the ſea: by this their trade has been ſo enlarged, and the number of their inhabitants ſo wonderfully increaſed, multitudes going over every year, tempted by the good fortune of their countrymen, that it is ſuppoſed the Portugueze in Brazil will in a few years be richer and more numerous than they are in Portugal itſelf.

The increaſe of this commerce may be gueſſed at by this, that they are ſaid to bring yearly from the Brazils to Portugal, the value of five millions ſterling in gold, coined and uncoined, beſides a great quantity of ſugar, tobacco, and hides.

The tobacco is a very conſiderable article, it comes all very fine dreſt, and ſpun up in great rolls, which ſometimes weigh between two and three hundred weight: it is moſt of it made afterwards into fine ſnuff, which is ſomewhat medicinal, and is eſteemed the moſt valuable tobacco in the world.

On the ſouth ſide of the Brazils, towards the Rio Paraguay, there are ſuch multitudes of cattle running wild, that thouſands of them are killed every year for the hides and tallow; and every fleet brings home the hides to Portugal, ſometimes from 17 or 18,000, to 20,000 at a time.

In return for all this wealth, the Portugueze ſend over in every fleet exceeding large quantities of the richeſt European goods, and eſpecially of Britiſh manufactures about 30 years ſince, of which they made ſuch vaſt demands in England, that in the year 1722, Portugal took off more Engliſh goods in one year, than ever Portugal and Spain together had called for in any year before 1700.

This general trade, as has been ſhewn, ſtill continues, and is like to continue and increaſe, among the European powers in general, though it is in a great declenſion with relation to England in particular, if the flux of gold continues in the country; and, as the Portugueze tell us it is inexhauſtible, we may venture to ſay it will increaſe; becauſe, as the wealth of the Portugueze in the Brazils ſhall increaſe, ſo alſo will their numbers of inhabitants: for every fleet carries away multitudes of people, who go thither to plant and ſettle, ſo that the colony ſpreads continually; and as they increaſe, and their wealth increaſes, ſo their expence in living (as it is with all the European nations) will increaſe every year, and conſequently they will make ſtill larger demands of goods from the other European ſtates, and England is entitled to have a ſhare equal to the encouragement ſhe gives to the conſumption of the wines and fruit of that kingdom.

It is for the ſupport of this vaſt colony, and for working in the hills where this treaſure is found, that the Portugueze call

for

for ſo many negroes from Africa; and the number is ſo great which they have now there, that if we may believe the Portugueze, they have above 200,000 in that part only which lies to the ſouth of the Bay of All Saints, and incluſive of the bay and colony adjoining; beſides what they have at Fernambuco, where they may, perhaps, employ one third of the number more.

Nor can it be leſs, if they carry over 50,000, and more, every year from the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, as hath been affirmed to be the caſe by themſelves, when ſpeaking of the Portugueze trade at the city of Melinda on the coaſt of Mozambique.

The Portugueze had not ſhewn any great concern, either for extending or improving their territories in Brazil after the expulſion of the Dutch, 'till a certain ſtateſman adviſed Don Pedro, about the year 1685, to think of improving his American dominions, and more eſpecially the two extremities of Brazil.

That miniſter ſuggeſted, that the climate at the Bay of All Saints, would fruſtrate whatever endeavours might be uſed to render the people active and induſtrious; but that it was otherwiſe, both with the northern and ſouthern extremities of Brazil, where a wiſe government and a little encouragement, might render the country of much greater advantage to the crown of Portugal, than hitherto it had been. This advice was received and followed, which gave birth, on the one hand, to the eſtabliſhing the Portugueze forts and ſettlements towards the river of Amazons; and on the other, to the improvement of the new colony at Santos, which was then but very ſmall.

The method taken for this purpoſe was ſingular enough; moſt of the perſons made choice of were of the mixed herd, or, as the Portugueze call them, Meſtices, who married Brazilian women, and the perſon intruſted with the government of theſe new plantations, were prieſts and monks; but they were ſent expreſsly from Portugal, and care was taken that they ſhould be fit for the purpoſe. The captain-general of Brazil, and all the officers of the ſouthern captainſhips, had orders to treat theſe people kindly, and to give them no diſturbance in their meaſures.

It very ſoon appeared by the effects, that this plan was very wiſely concerted; for they multiplied prodigiouſly, and, in the ſpace of about fifteen years, the prieſts added ſeveral hundreds of families to their colony; extending weſtward fourſcore or one hundred miles, farther than the Portugueze had any ſettlements before that time. By degrees they purchaſed ſlaves, more eſpecially the eccleſiaſticks, whom they employed in the ſilver mines; and, treating the negroes better than moſt of their neighbours, they ſoon became very rich; ſo that ſeveral pariſh-prieſts in the captainſhip of St Vincent were worth from ten to fifteen thouſand cruſadoes; that is, from fifteen hundred to eight thouſand pounds ſterling a piece. They paid the king's fifth very regularly, and this was the beginning of the riches drawn from this part of the world. But when it was once known, that ſo much wealth was to be had in theſe hitherto uncultivated regions, there began very ſoon to reſort thither abundance of adventurers, of all countries and of all characters; when we ſay of all countries, we mean Spaniards as well as Portugueze, free negroes, Mulattoes, and all the different mixtures that are to be met with in Brazil, down to the Caribocos, who are the offſpring of Brazilian ſavages by negro women; and by different characters, we mean monks as well as laymen, ſoldiers, mechanics, broken planters; and, in ſhort, all that ſort of men who are ready to go any where, or do any thing to get a living. As theſe were quite a different race from thoſe of the new colony before-mentioned, it is not to be ſuppoſed that they could dwell together, more eſpecially as the former were the quieteſt and moſt ſimple, the latter the moſt riotous and turbulent, people in the world.

Theſe adventurers, therefore, took care to look out for a new ſettlement, and they found one of the propereſt places in the world for their reception, at no great diſtance. This was the thick and vaſt foreſt of Parnabaccaba, which overſpread all the mountains at the back of this captainſhip, and in which hitherto none but wild beaſts took up their dwelling. They ſoon cleared a part of this wilderneſs for their habitation, in which they eſtabliſhed not only a new town, which they call San Paulo, but a new republic alſo, in which they lived after the manner they liked beſt. At firſt this was overlooked, becauſe the country was judged of no great value, and the adjacent captainſhips were very well pleaſed to be rid of thoſe ſort of folk, who reſorted thither. In the ſpace, however, of a very few years, they grew too ſtrong to be dealt with; for, receiving, as they did, all ſorts of people, they quickly increaſed from two or three hundred, to as many thouſand men; and being a bold, hardy, enterprizing, and daring crew, the governors knew not how to manage them. In the firſt place they took care to fortify the avenues to their territory, which were naturally ſtrong; and they ſeldom ventured abroad, but in bodies of fourſcore or one hundred men, and in ſuch parties they frequently traverſed the whole extent of Brazil. Theſe were the people who firſt diſcovered and wrought the gold mines, which muſt be exceſſively rich, ſince they were able to obtain ſuch vaſt quantities of metal, without any of thoſe aſſiſtances which the Spaniards have in their ſettlements in Chili.

As this required, however, a great number of hands, they ſeized upon all the ſtraggling Indians and negroes they could meet with, and compelled them to undergo ſuch fatigues as they thought proper.

This new and extraordinary commonwealth, was denominated, from the place of it's ſituation, Pauliſts, and they would not ſuffer any of the Portugueze officers to enter their territories; yet they acknowleged the ſovereignty of the crown of Portugal, and paid regularly what they ſaid was the fifth of the gold they obtained; which, in the year 1691, amounted to one thouſand marks, or eight thouſand ounces; which ſhews, that at that time they drew annually from the rivers and mountains in their poſſeſſion, forty thouſand ounces of gold: they took care, however, every time they paid the tribute, to declare, they did it freely, and of their own accord, out of reſpect to the crown of Portugal, and not from any ſort of fear or ſenſe of obligation. The tyranny of the governors of Brazil, and the oppreſſion of the Spaniſh governors in the adjacent provinces, furniſhed this new ſtate with abundance of members, ſo that at laſt it became a very difficult thing to get admittance amongſt them, and the method in this reſpect was ſingular enough to deſerve notice.

They obliged ſuch as preſented themſelves upon their frontiers, which they never ſuffered any ſtranger to enter, to ſubmit to a very ſtrict examination, that they might know whether they were fit for their community, and to be ſure they were not ſpies, or perſons who intended to betray them: upon the bare ſuſpicion of which, they made no ſcruple of beating their brains out: but if, upon this examination, they judged they might prove uſeful members, they obliged them to bring in two ſlaves for their ſupport; aſſigning them a dwelling and plantation, by which they commenced Pauliſts, and were to continue ſo to the end of their lives; for any attempt to deſert, was puniſhed with death without mercy. They made no exception of country or complection; a ſavage was as welcome to them as an European; and every man after his admiſſion, was at liberty to lead what kind of life he liked beſt, provided he did not diſturb the peace of the ſociety. The Jeſuits of Paraguay, either as they pretended out of concern for the ſouls of the people, or rather moved by the report of their great riches, made ſeveral attempts to get amongſt them, but to no ſort of purpoſe; yet they lived upon very fair terms with this ſtrange ſociety; and the Portugueze ſhrewdly ſuſpected, that the reverend fathers furniſhed them with fire-arms and ammunition, becauſe they knew not how they could be furniſhed any other way. See the article PARAGUAY.

How this little republic was ſubverted, we do not ſatisfactorily learn; but it is certain, that all this country is now in the hands of the Portugueze, and as much under the obedience of the king of Portugal, as any other part of Brazil; but the city of St Paul is ſtill looked upon as the center of the mines, and a garriſon is maintained there for their ſecurity. Nor are we well informed, in what manner the gold is wrought or refined there; but, in all probability, their chief works are lavadero's, ſince we do not hear of their uſing quickſilver, as the Spaniards do: but it is very certain, that they are much increaſed in value, ſince the king of Portugal's fifth amounts very commonly to about 300,000 l. per annum: and it appears by the lateſt account, that theſe mines in particular are continually improving.

DEL REY is the only captainſhip to the ſouthward of that of St Vincent, extending from the latitude of 28 to 34 degrees 30 minutes ſouth, being about four hundred miles in length, but not above one hundred broad in any part of it. The country is fruitful and pleaſant, but the Portugueze abſolutely neglected it, 'till the diſcovery of the mines of St Vincent put them upon planting and ſecuring it, by erecting ſeveral forts on the north ſide the river La Plata, to which the Spaniards formerly pretended, and upon which they are ſtill ſuppoſed to caſt a jealous eye.

The country in this province is as pleaſant and fruitful as any in Brazil, and as capable of improvement; but as it has not been ſo long inhabited as the other captainſhips, it is far from being thoroughly peopled. There are only a few villages upon the ſea-coaſt, and ſome fortreſſes upon the river of Plate. The chief advantage which the Portugueze draw at preſent from this province, is a kind of ſmuggling trade, which they carry on with the Spaniards whom they furniſh with rum and tobacco of their own growth, and with wines, brandy, cloths, ſilks, and linens from Europe; which occaſion quarrels and diſputes between the two nations, though in reality the true ground of their contentions is the thirſt of gold in both parties, and the deſire that each has of becoming idle poſſeſſors of the large ridge of mountains, which are the weſtern boundaries of this province and that of St Vincent, and are ſuppoſed to be full of mines.

Some ſpeculative politicians have inſinuated, that it is not impoſſible, that the Spaniards may, ſome time or other, carry their point; but if they do, they muſt begin with the Paraguay Indians who are at preſent ſubject only to the Jeſuits; for

for otherwiſe it is very certain, that they cannot raiſe men enough to give the Portugueze any uneaſineſs, who, though they have not people to ſpare for ſettling this laſt diſtrict in Brazil, have, however, ſuch numbers in the adjacent captainſhip of St Vincent, as would very ſoon repel any invaſion from their neighbours, who, after all, it is very certain, are on this ſide rather weaker than themſelves. So that ſtruggles of this nature, if ever this ſhould happen, may be reputed at a great diſtance; and, if the Portugueze were as free from any apprehenſion of inteſtine diſorders, it might be affirmed, that ſcarce any colony is more ſecure than that of Brazil. But this may one day give ſome other power an occaſion of ſupplanting the Portugueze, if they eſpecially are weak enough to forfeit the good-will of Great-Britain towards them.

The ſmall country of Portugal, which had hitherto made ſo inconſiderable a figure among the kingdoms of Europe, began to take the lead of them all; and, from creeping along the coaſts of Africa with a few little veſſels, her fleets began to ſtretch to the Eaſt-Indies, [ſee the article PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE] and to embrace that trade, which was the object of Alexander's ambition. The Eaſt-Indies by the rout of the Cape of Good Hope, was their proper diſcovery; and, though Columbus had a little the ſtart of them, yet the finding and ſettling of Brazil, plainly proves that America could not have lain long hid from their reſearches.

The fruit of theſe great diſcoveries and conqueſts, was a prodigious trade, immenſe riches, and an amazing naval power, all deduced from a right turn in the government, which eſtabliſhed it's power in the extention of that of it's ſubjects, without exerting a tyrannical authority over them. This created fleets, armies, and a dominion ſuperior to any thing the Europeans had enjoyed, from the deſtruction of the Roman empire. Theſe are the effects of well choſen colonies! But as a true and laudable ambition raiſed the Portugueze to ſuch a height, a falſe and baſtard ambition made way for their ruin. Sebaſtian king of Portugal was a hero, he had all the virtues incident to that character, but they took a wrong turn: he embarked the whole force of Portugal in a war upon the continent for his own glory, and to ſerve no national purpoſe whatſoever; there he periſhed, and all his army with him; which, in itſelf, was a great misfortune to his ſubjects, but in it's conſequences a much greater; for this threw them under the dominion of Spain, which was the greateſt miſchief that could befal them; for after this, there appeared no public ſpirit in the government; all their conqueſts in the Eaſt-Indies were either given to men who had an intereſt at the court of Spain, or to ſuch as that court deſired to get out of their way.

There was no longer any ſpirit of virtue, generoſity, or concern for public good, either left or encouraged; the enriching of private families took place of this, and while a few of theſe carried their point, the Dutch ſtripped them of their empire in the Eaſt-Indies, and bid fair for making themſelves maſters of Brazil; which, if they had, Portugal had remained a province of Spain, and not a very conſiderable province neither.

When the Portugueze recovered their former government, they recovered ſpirit enough to preſerve Brazil; but ſince that time, the court has been infected with the Spaniſh policy; and the deſire of extending their royal power has, in a great meaſure, extinguiſhed that ſpirit which once made them a great people. But, to confine our reflections to Brazil, the great point in the Portugueze councils at preſent is to ſecure this trade, or at leaſt the profits of it, to the crown; in order to which, the ſeveral fleets deſtined for Parayba, Fernambuco, the Bay of All Saints, and Rio Janeiro, ſail as regularly as the Spaniſh galleons, and in the very ſame manner. If this trade had been left more open, the number of ſhips would have been vaſtly greater, and there would have been no need of men of war to eſcort them, or of another ſquadron being ſent to look out for, and bring them home, as is at preſent the caſe every year, and yet the Algerines frequently pick up ſome.

Yet all this policy is far from producing mighty things, as we ſhall ſee from a few examples: Brazil-wood is now a royal commodity, that is to ſay, it is ſold for the advantage of the crown only [ſee BRAZIL-WOOD]; and it produces about 200,000 cruſadoes, which is ſomething better than 30,000l. ſterling annually: we have already ſeen what the diamond-farm brings in: and take the whole of the king's fifth from the gold-mines, and it will never be found to exceed a million of our money.

There was, indeed, a project of quite another kind ſet on foot, for the improvement, as they call it, of this trade in Portugal, of which we ſhall give a very ſhort account. In the year 1709, the king of Portugal, perceiving that the vaſt quantities of gold that came from Brazil did but juſt touch at Liſbon, and then travelled over all the countries of Europe, directed this matter to be very ſeriouſly examined in his council: ſuppoſing, that if a method could be found out to prevent this gold from ſtraying, the buſineſs would be done, and himſelf become, at once, the richeſt prince in Europe. His council accordingly examined this point very carefully, and they reported that the Engliſh and Dutch ran away with all the gold, in conſequence of their furniſhing the goods and manufactures, which ſhould be prohibited in that colony; and that the people ſhould be content with what could be ſent them from Portugal. This was conſidered as a great ſtroke of policy, and was on the very point of being put in execution, when it was prevented by the famous lord Galway, as we have before noticed under the article PORTUGAL.

Further OBSERVATIONS on the nature of this TRADE.

'There is not a place in the world, ſays an ingenious French author, in a voyage to the Brazils in the year 1717, China only excepted, where there is ſo much trouble to get on ſhore, or to know how to act when one is on ſhore, as in Brazil. We came into this bay on the 16th of November, and, when we were within a league of the city of St Salvador, we were reſtrained from proceeding any further, by a gun fired from a little fort, upon which we came to an anchor, and ſent our ſupercargo aſhore in our boat; he was a very ſenſible man, and withal had a great deal of gravity, a quality of all others the moſt neceſſary for one who has any buſineſs to tranſact with the Portugueze. As ſoon as he came aſhore, he was conducted to an audience of the viceroy, who received him with a great deal of ſtate, and yet ſhewed him, at the ſame time, as much civility as he could expect. He told his excellency, That he came on behalf of three French ſhips homeward-bound from the Eaſt-Indies, that were in many reſpects greatly diſtreſſed, and had no hopes of performing their voyage, but from his affording them protection and relief.

The viceroy continued for ſome minutes ſilent, and then gave him his anſwer to this effect: That he was very ſorry for their misfortune, becauſe his maſter's orders were very preciſe againſt admitting any foreign veſſels into any port; and that he was the more concerned to hear that they were French, becauſe it was chiefly on their account that theſe orders were given, becauſe ſeveral veſſels of their nation, that had been admitted into the ports of that country upon the very ſame pretences, had carried on an illegal trade directly contrary to the king's orders, and had ſhipped great quantities of tobacco. He told him further, That the king's orders were to ſeize and confiſcate, without diſtinction, whatever foreign veſſels entered that port, unleſs it plainly appeared they were in ſuch a condition as not to be able to keep the ſea; that therefore they were to have 24 hours given them to conſider whether they would come and anchor under the guns of the fort, in order to be examined, or to put to ſea without receiving any relief at all. He added, That if the caſe was ſuch as our agent repreſented it, he might very freely enter the port, and, upon examination, all the care ſhould be taken to aſſiſt and ſupply him that he could deſire; but that he would do well to remember that the Portugueze were not to be impoſed upon.

As our ſhip was really in ſuch a condition that we had no reaſon to fear any examination, we made ſail immediately on the return of our ſupercargo, and came to an anchor under the fort. The next day the judge came on board, attended by ſeveral ſecretaries, and other officers, all of them very grave ſober-looking people, who examined every thing with all the nicety and ſtrictneſs of an inquiſition. They called for our journals, queſtioned our pilots, mariners, and even the cabbin-boys, particularly as to this point, Whether we had not formed a deſign of touching at Brazil before we were in ſuch diſtreſs? They all anſwered in the negative; but ſtill we had ſo little hopes, that every one in the ſhip, who had it in his power, made them ſome preſent or other, which they took indeed, but ſcarce gave us thanks. At laſt they took their leave, and ſent ſome carpenters on board, to whom our captain made ſuch an application, that they reported our leaks to be ſo dangerous, that the crew were very much alarmed, and were afraid of ſinking before they got out of the ſhip.

As ſoon as this report was made, we had leave to go on ſhore, which was refuſed us before, and we had alſo leave given us to take lodgings where we thought fit in the city, but with ſtrict caution not to attempt any kind of trade on pain of forfeiting both ſhip and cargo. The officers put on board the veſſel talked the ſame language at firſt; but ſeeing the impreſſion it made, and that our people were very exact in that particular, they were ſo kind as to explain themſelves the third day, telling us that this was all a farce; that the judges themſelves knew it; that they underſtood by our preſents, we were a good ſort of people, and that we ſhould have, every night, boats come off with all ſorts of merchandize, and that they would take care we ſhould run no ſort of riſque, either in buying or ſelling. The boats came accordingly, and though at firſt we were a little ſuſpicious, yet, in one week's time, their language was perfectly underſtood, and trade went on briſkly every evening, as ſoon as it was dark.'

PORTUGUEZE EAST INDIA TRADE.

A Short History thereof.

The Portugueze were once the chief navigators of the world, and the firſt Europeans who viſited the Indian coaſt from the new way by the Cape of Good Hope.—Upon their arrival, on their firſt voyage, at Callicut, on the coaſt of Malabar, they found Zamorin, the king of the country, receiving them kindly, and encouraging his people to trade with them, and offering to enter into a league with the king of Portugal, for ſettling a further commerce to mutual advantage.

They found in all the ports of India abundance of ſhipping, of Arabians and Moors: thoſe called Moors were ſuch as Ethiopians or Egyptians, who dwelt on the weſt border of the Red Sea, and traded by their ſhipping between the ſaid ſea and the coaſt of India, Malabar, Ceylon, Coromandel, Golconda, Bengal, &c. as alſo others, who were mere Arabians, from the gulph of Perſia.

Theſe traders, when the Portugueze firſt came, were as civil to them as Zamorin was before: but, when they came to underſtand that theſe Portugueze were Europeans, that they had found a way about by long ſea, from the coaſt of Spain and Portugal, into their Indies, and, returning the ſame way, they would carry the Indian goods directly thither, and withal ſeeing that they were ſtout ſhips, of prodigious burthen, and would carry a great quantity of goods, and that alſo they had more ſhips (for a ſecond fleet of 13 ſail ſoon arrived), they preſently found that all their trade to Suez, and to the Arabian and Perſian gulphs (the way whereby it had been carried on before) would be ruined: upon which they turned firſt the ſecret, and at laſt, the open and implacable enemies of the Portugueze, and of their whole commerce; and they ſhewed it firſt by provoking Zamorin, the king of Callicut, againſt them, and making him, from their friend, become their utter enemy.—This was in the year 1499.

The next year Alvarez de Cabrale, another Portugueze admiral, coming again with ſix ſhips more, the ſame people oppoſed him alſo, not only by engaging the king againſt them, but by engroſſing all the goods, and foreſtalling the markets: ſo that, notwithſtanding the king's orders, the Portugueze could buy nothing.

But the Portugueze were not, in thoſe days, ſo eaſily maſtered as they have been ſince; for on complaint to the king, and his majeſty declaring that it was not with his knowlege, or by his direction, the admiral, Seignior de Cabrale, fell upon the Moors and Arabs ſhips in the harbour [☞ the Arabians were at that time called Saracens] and ſoon beating their ſailors, they diſpoſed of their cargoes much cheaper and better than they might have had them before. This put the Arabians upon a military revenge: for the Portugueze having taken ſeveral houſes on ſhore in the town, the Arabians attacked them in the night, plundered them, and killed ſeveral of the Portugueze.

Cabrale applied for ſatisfaction to the king, concluding, that as he had diſowned the Arabians before, he would abſolutely renounce them now: but the king appearing partial and cold, and the Portugueze not obtaining the ſatisfaction which they demanded, their admiral attacked 10 other Arabian ſhips in the ſame harbour, killed all the men, and unladed the ſhips into his own: and, when he had ſo done, to convince the king that he had not courted his friendſhip out of fear of his power, he turned his broad-ſides upon the city, and furiouſly battered it for ſeveral hours; and, leaving it in that ſhattered condition, ſailed out of the harbour before their faces, for Cochin, where he was kindly received, and all the trading advantages given him that he could deſire.

The next voyage the Portugueze made was not to Callicut, but directly to Cochin: but the Arabians, &c. not forgetting the affront offered them before, fell upon them with 20 ſtout ſhips in thoſe days; but Vaſco de Gama, another Portugueze admiral, gave them ſo warm a reception, that he intirely overthrew them. From this time the Portugueze grew potent in the Indies, and carried on a prodigious commerce, by means of their forts and ſettlements.

It was towards the latter end of the ſixteenth century that the Engliſh and Dutch began to interfere with the Portugueze in theſe parts; and they very ſoon, by the aſſiſtance of the natives, took from them the moſt conſiderable places they poſſeſſed, and ſome of them they abandoned themſelves. It would take up a great deal of room, and, perhaps, anſwer the purpoſe but indifferently, if we ſhould attempt to give a large hiſtory of the manner in which theſe places were reduced, and therefore we ſhall rather take them in the courſe of their ſituation, by which the reader will clearly perceive how the empire of this nation in the Eaſt was diſſolved.

Shah Abbas, when monarch of Perſia, had an earneſt deſire to rid himſelf of the neighbourhood of the Portugueze; but he wanted a maritime force ſufficient to accompliſh his deſign, and, therefore, he applied himſelf to the Engliſh, who had likewiſe ſuffered much by the pride and avarice of the Portugueze; and, by their aſſiſtance, part of his forces were tranſported into the iſland of Ormuz (whereof the Portugueze were poſſeſſed) which was attacked both by land and ſea, on the 20th of January, 1622. The defendants behaved with great bravery and good conduct, and made a noble reſiſtance; but the Engliſh having deſtroyed their fleet, took the garriſon, which ruined the power of the Portugueze on that ſide.

The rich city of Surat, formerly a place of the greateſt trade in the Indies, ſuffered ſeverely from the Portugueze, who burnt it down to the ground, on purpoſe to favour the commerce of their own city of Diu, which ſtands at the entry of the gulph of Cambaya, and which they had rendered one of the ſtrongeſt and fineſt places in the Eaſt, keeping the monarch of that country in abſolute ſubjection. But, notwithſtanding their policy in this reſpect, and that they ſtill remained maſters of Diu *, yet the Indian princes in the neighbourhood traded freely with all Europeans; and Surat, which they took ſo much pains to deſtroy in 1520, is now in as flouriſhing a condition as ever, and the Portugueze are almoſt the only nation that are not benefited by it's traffic.

* This city of Diu ſtands in the latitude of 21 degrees, 20 minutes, upon an iſland about a league in length, and not a third part of a league in breadth. The country about it abounds with all the neceſſaries of life; and the city itſelf is as well built, and as well fortified, as any in the Indies. At preſent, the Portugueze are about to eſtabliſh as well the trade of this city, as of others in the Indies.

On this coaſt they were poſſeſſed of ſeveral ſtrong places, down to Goa; of theſe, Daman is ſtill in their hands, and is a place of pretty good trade; Bacaim is lately fallen into the hands of the Indians. Bombay they yielded to the Engliſh, on the marriage of queen Catherine with king Charles II. and has continued in our hands ever ſince. From Goa to Cape Comorin they had alſo very conſiderable ſettlements, moſt of which they have been diſpoſſeſſed of by the Dutch, who in the year 1663 becoming maſters of Cranganor, Cochin, and Coulan, ſoon after deprived them of Cananor, which was the firſt place they had ſettled at: and thus was their power greatly reduced on the coaſt of Malabar.

Doubling this famous cape, and proceeding along the coaſt of Coromandel, we meet firſt with the port and fortreſs of Nagapatan, which, when the Portugueze came firſt into the Indies, was no more than a village; but they, conſidering the importance of the place, fortified it with great care, and rendered it in every reſpect very conſiderable. But after the Dutch had deprived them of the iſland of Ceylon, they did not long let them reſt here, but, by the aſſiſtance of an Indian prince, beſieged and became maſters of that place, in 1658. From thence all along the coaſt, quite up to Bengal, the Portugueze have loſt all power; and as for ſettlements, they had none of any great conſequence to loſe, having, in the time of their greateſt power, contented themſelves with a ſmall eſtabliſhment at Meliapour, or St Thomas, reſtraining all the reſt of the coaſt by their ſquadrons, which were continually cruizing in the bay of Bengal.

On the oppoſite ſide of the gulph, the Portugueze had once very great power in the kingdom of Pegu [ſee Pegu], in conſequence of their aſſiſting the monarch of that country againſt the king of Siam, who had invaded his territories, and would very probably have made him his tributary, if a body of Portugueze had not come to his aſſiſtance, by whom he was enabled not only to defend himſelf effectually againſt his enemy, but even to purſue him into his own country.

It is very eaſy to diſcern what mighty advantages might have accrued to the Portugueze from this favourable turn, if they had known how to improve it; but what might have turned ſo much to their benefit, proved, by their own ill management, the cauſe of their ruin, and that in a very ſhort ſpace of time. The king of Pegu, it ſeems, was ſo ſenſible of the ſervice they had done him, in driving the king of Siam out of his country, that, in pure gratitude, he made one Seignior Thomas Pereyra, who commanded the Portugueze in the war, generaliſſimo of all his forces, which preferment made the Portugueze ſo inſolent, that, in a few years, they became intolerable to all ranks and degrees of perſons in Pegu. Both kings grew tired of war, but both were too proud to make advances towards peace; ſo that, for many years, they had ſkirmiſhes with ſmall parties, though not ſet battles; and wherever the Portugueze arms went, they had victory to accompany them.

The king of Pegu, to have his forces nearer the borders of Siam, ſettled his court at Martavan, and kept the Portugueze near him, to be ready upon all occaſions, either to repel or aſſault the Siam forces, as opportunity ſerved; and Thomas Pereyra was the great favourite at court: he had his elephants of ſtate, and a guard of his own countrymen to attend him.—But he loſt his life, and the Portugueze were all cut off, from an act of violence committed by him on the wife of one of the natives.

The kingdom, or, as ſome call it, the empire of Siam, lies next to Pegu, and is a country of vaſt extent, the monarch of which was too powerful for the Portugueze to think of making any great conqueſt in his dominions, and therefore they choſe to live with him upon good terms, for the ſake of the vaſt trade carried on in his dominions, which are extremely

tremely well ſituated for commerce, having on one ſide the kingdoms of Laos, Camboya, and Cochin-China, and on the other the countries bordering on the gulph of Bengal. Beſides, there annually reſorted thither a fleet of merchant-ſhips from China, laden with all the rich goods of that empire. They continued to hold a fair correſpondence with this monarch and his ſubjects, as long as their power ſubſiſted in the Indies; but, by degrees, the Dutch have, in a great meaſure, excluded them from their influence here ſince 1630, when they erected their factory here, and have ſince wrought themſelves ſo effectually into the confidence of this prince, that he has granted them an excluſive privilege of purchaſing all the tin in his dominions, which is a branch of commerce of prodigious importance; yet the Portugueze are not wholly ejected, though their trade is greatly fallen from what it was. There are ſeveral ſmall principalities on the iſthmus, before one comes to the country of Malacca, which were all of them formerly under the power of the Portugueze, as appears by their retaining ſtill a mixture of that language with their own. The chief of theſe principalities are thoſe of Ligor on one ſide, and Quedah on the other; but the people are ſo barbarous and perfidious, that the Europeans carry on ſcarce any trade on their coaſts.

The great peninſula of Malacca, at the time the Portugueze came thither, was ſubject to the king of Johore; but the viceroys of the crown of Portugal attacked, and made themſelves maſters of that city. After it came into their hands, it changed it's conditions entirely; and from being a place of ſmall account, in a ſhort time became famous all over India and Europe, lying almoſt in the centre of trade, brought thither by ſhipping from the rich kingdoms of Japan, China, Formoſa, Luconia, Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, and Siam, beſides what Johore produced, and Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Macaſſar, Banda, Amboina, and Ternate Iſlands, that abound in valuable commodities.

After Goa and Ormuz, this was by very far the richeſt city in the Indies, and a great market for all the different commodities that theſe countries produced. The whole was encompaſſed with a ſtrong ſtone wall, regularly fortified with baſtions, the place extremely well peopled, and the garriſon numerous, and well ſupplied, becauſe the Portugueze conſidered it as the eaſtern frontier of their dominions.

In 1605, the Dutch [ſee the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY], who were then become very potent in the Indies, attacked and deſtroyed the fleet of the Portugueze here, conſiſting of thirty-four ſail, on board of which were three thouſand men; but they were not able to take the place. The next year, the king of Johore inveſted it with an army of ſixty thouſand men, in revenge of what the Portugueze had done againſt him three years before, when they took and deſtroyed his capital; however, he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs. But the Dutch well knowing the importance of the place, and the vaſt advantages accruing to the Portugueze from it's ſituation and commerce, the former affording them an opportunity of levying 10 per cent. upon all veſſels paſſing through the Straights, and the latter producing annually a large revenue, they attacked it in the year 1640, ſo vigorouſly, that they became maſters of it, after a ſiege of ſix months. The walls and fortifications they preſerved, and ſome of the churches, and the great hoſpital they have turned into a warehouſe. In the kingdom of Cambodia, or Camboia, the Portugueze have ſtill a conſiderable trade, and they are likewiſe well received in Tonquin.

The troubles in the Low-Countries, which produced a war between the crown of Spain and the republic of the United Provinces, began about 1570, and England interpoſing in favour of the States, their power increaſed to ſuch a degree, that they were not only able to defend themſelves againſt Spain by land, but to give that potent monarchy inexpreſſible trouble by ſea. But this war ſeems to have no relation to Portugal, and we do not hear of their attacking any but the Portugueze ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies. In order to reſolve this difficulty, we muſt remember that the crown of Portugal was united to that of Spain in 1579, by which means Philip II. became maſter of both the Indies, and conſequently the States of the United Provinces were as much at war with the Portugueze, who were ſubjects to the king of Spain, as with any of the reſt of his ſubjects; and conſequently this gave them a right to attack the Portugueze ſettlements, both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, which they proſecuted with ſuch vigour, that they bid fair for becoming maſters of all that the Portugueze had poſſeſſed in either Indies.

We have ſeen what mighty acquiſitions they have made in the Eaſt; but it is neceſſary to our ſubject to obſerve likewiſe, that their Weſt-India company became in that ſpace of time, ſo powerful, as to make almoſt an entire conqueſt of Brazil. It is very evident from hence, that nothing but the union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal could have afforded the Dutch either a pretence for attacking, or an opportunity of reducing theſe countries, both of which, in a ſingular degree, they from this accident obtained. For as, on the one hand, his Catholic Majeſty had enough to do in defending his hereditary dominions, before this acceſſion of the territories of Portugal; ſo he was tempted to apply the revenues of that crown to the immediate wants of the Spaniſh government, which we may conclude were very great, ſince on his death-bed he owned, that the wars of the Low-Countries had coſt him five hundred and ſixty-four millions of ducats, which is upwards of one hundred and twelve millions of our money; whence it is eaſy to perceive, that he could not ſpare as much as was requiſite for the defence of the Portugueze territories. On the other hand, the Portugueze themſelves, though they had always been diſtinguiſhed for their loyalty to their natural princes, were far enough from ſhewing ſo much zeal in the ſervice of the king of Spain; and it is very natural, when the minds of private men are entirely deſpoiled of public ſpirit, for the affairs of the ſtate to fall into confuſion.

But one would have imagined, that after the ſeparation of Portugal from Spain, which happened in the year 1640, things would have taken another turn; becauſe, with king John IV. the Dutch had no pretence of making war. To give the reader a clear idea of this matter, we muſt remember that the Dutch had taken Brazil from the king of Spain, or rather from the Portugueze, while they were his ſubjects; but afterwards, that nation conſidering this as an injury not to be borne, attempted to drive the Dutch out, notwithſtanding the treaty concluded between the States and the king of Portugal, in 1641; which, to ſay the truth, had been but indifferently obſerved on both ſides*; that is to ſay, the Dutch had encroached upon the Portugueze in the Eaſt-Indies, and they, on the other hand, gave the Dutch little or no reſpite in Brazil, out of which, in ten years time, they drove them entirely.

* At the time the Portugueze delivered themſelves from the Spaniſh yoke, the Dutch were employed in reducing the iſland of Ceylon, and made uſe of abundance of artifices, in order to proſecute the advantages they had gained, notwithſtanding the peace concluded between the States-General and the crown of Portugal in Europe; neither did they deſiſt from their hoſtilities, even after the peace was proclaimed in the Indies, but continued to give the Portugueze almoſt as much trouble as while the war continued. This they did under pretence of being allies to ſuch Indian princes as were at war with the Portugueze; and where this pretence was wanting, they took care, by their emiſſaries, to ſtir up new wars, and, under pretence of reſtoring the Indians to their freedom, contrived things ſo as to engage them in long and bloody wars, which had no other end than to oblige them to change their maſters, with this difference only; that whereas the Portugueze endeavoured to keep large countries, and to oblige the Indian princes to pay homage to the king of Portugal, the Dutch contented themſelves with the ſea coaſts, and forbidding thoſe princes to trade with any other nation; ſo that their ſlavery was equally great, though not always equally apparent, which ever ſide prevailed.

About this time died king John IV. and left his ſon Alphonſo VI. a minor, which advantage the Dutch took to declare war againſt the crown of Portugal, from a perſuaſion that this opportunity of regaining what they had loſt in the Weſt, and proſecuting their conqueſts in the Eaſt-Indies, was not to be loſt; the rather becauſe Portugal was at that time engaged in a dangerous war with Spain, and the Dutch had lately concluded a peace with that crown.

It was in conſequence of this new war, that the Dutch attacked the Portugueze again in the Eaſt-Indies, and even endeavoured to deprive them of Goa; but in this they did not ſucceed: and, on the other hand, the Portugueze found means to traverſe all the attempts that the Dutch made to eſtabliſh a trade in China, as alſo to raiſe ſuch a ſtorm, as deprived them of the iſland of Formoſa, which they had conquered, and which was of prodigious conſequence to them.

But, in the mean time, the great fleets they ſent to the Eaſt-Indies, enabled them not only to extend their conqueſts, but in the year 1661, to defeat the whole naval power of the Portugueze in two general engagements. But while the public ſuffered exceſſively from the conſequences of this fatal war, ſome private merchants in Liſbon and in the Eaſt-Indies, fitted out ſo many privateers, and of ſuch ſtrength, that the Dutch ſuffered exceſſively in their trade; and therefore both nations began to be weary of the war, and inclined to a negociation.

The crown of Great-Britain interpoſed it's mediation, in conſequence of the marriage between king Charles II. and the Infanta of Portugal, by which peace was brought about in the year 1661, and thereby the Portugueze were left in poſſeſſion of Brazil, and the Dutch accepted a ſum of money as a ſatisfaction for their pretenſions.

In the Eaſt-Indies things were to remain as they then ſtood, and both parties were to keep what, at the concluſion of this peace, ſhould be in their reſpective poſſeſſions; but the Dutch kept this no better than they did the former treaty; on the contrary, in 1663, they attacked all the places which the Portugueze held on the coaſts of Malabar, particularly Cochin, which they had no ſooner taken, than they deſtroyed all the wild, or baſtard cinnamon, which, after the loſs of Ceylon, had proved an advantageous branch of commerce to the Portugueze. There were high complaints made of this

in Europe to the States-General, who were either deceived by the plauſible accounts given them by their Eaſt-India company, or pretended to be deceived, that they might, with a better grace, protract the negociation relating to this affair, 'till their ſubjects in the Eaſt-Indies had ſo fortified the places they had taken, as to put it entirely out of the power of the Portugueze to attempt the recovery of them. *

* The Dutch, though their Eaſt-India company gained ſufficiently by theſe practices, ſuffered very ſeverely, as a ſtate, from the jealouſies they excited in their neighbours. The Engliſh had ſome experience of a like diſpoſition towards them; and though the French had not, at that time, any grounds of complaint in the Indies, yet they were far enough from being pleaſed with the growth of the Dutch naval power; and therefore readily joined in a war to humble them, as they phraſed it, which was that of 1672; and how far the cauſes of that war were connected with the conduct of the Dutch in the Indies, may appear from a fact charged upon them by Mr Tavernier, who, in his Travels, relates, that the Dutch factory of Gambron in Perſia, publicly burnt the picture of king Charles II. in a fire partly made of cinnamon, which was ſuch an indignity as that prince never forgot, and which gave a very bad impreſſion of the Dutch to the Perſians, who laboured all they could to hinder it.

Theſe proceedings gave the finiſhing blow to the ruin almoſt of the Portugueze, who have never ſince been able to undertake any thing of conſequence in the Eaſt-Indies; but, on the contrary, have exhauſted much of their remaining ſtrength in defending themſelves againſt their Indian neighbours, who, encouraged by the progreſs of the Dutch, and excited thereto by ſome of their agents, have been ſince endeavouring to tear from them the ſmall remains of their poſſeſſions in India, and have often kept Goa itſelf blocked up for many months together.

We have already pointed out many of the cauſes of the declenſion of that mighty power, which, in ſo ſhort a ſpace of time, the crown of Portugal acquired in the Eaſt; but as this is, perhaps, the moſt uſeful part of the preſent article, it may not be amiſs to add a few farther obſervations on this ſubject.

One great cauſe of their ruin was, the circumſtances of their government at home; where, for many years together, they were engaged in a long, expenſive, and dangerous war againſt the crown of Spain, in defence of their independency, which at once employed their whole force, and exhauſted their whole revenue. It is true, indeed, that this was rather the misfortune, than the fault of the Portugueze, ſince it was what they could not avoid; but it was, nevertheleſs, the great cauſe of their loſſes in the Indies.

We may add to this, their ſending over men of too great quality, as viceroys to Goa, with a view rather to better their fortunes than the public ſervice; which is the reaſon that, of late years, we hear nothing more of the Gamas, the Albuquerques, the Pereyras, or the Galvanos; but are forced to ſearch for the names of their viceroys in the private regiſters of the palace, inſtead of the public records of hiſtory: beſides, as theſe men have been, generally ſpeaking, too poor to mind any thing ſo much as mending their own eſtates; ſo they have been too well allied to be called to any account, on their return, for their mal-adminiſtration.

When their affairs began firſt to decline in this part of the world, it was a common thing for a governor of Moſambique, which was eſteemed the firſt viceroyſhip, and with all the other governors in the power of the viceroy, to become immenſely rich. Now, as it is impoſſible that ſuch exorbitant ſums ſhould be made any other way, than by oppreſſing the Indians, and taking large ſums from the merchants, we may eaſily perceive, that all theſe private fortunes were made at the expence of the public intereſt.

The bad examples of the governors, had a bad effect on all the ſubordinate officers; ſo that pride, vanity, luxury, and a pompous diſplay of wealth, attained by illicit means, took place of that diſintereſted public ſpirit, which enabled their anceſtors to lay the foundation of ſo large an empire, with an inconſiderable part of that power, which was in the poſſeſſion of thoſe who loſt it.

The clergy too followed the example of the laity, and inſtead of promoting, as at the beginning, the converſion of the natives to the Chriſtian faith, from the pretended view of ſaving their ſouls, they now proſecuted that work from the motive of making them ſubſervient to their own purpoſes, and enabling them to acquire vaſt riches, FOR THEIR KINGDOM IS OF THIS WORLD. This corruption proceeded ſo far by degrees, that not only many of the Jeſuits at Goa, engaged in trade, contrary to the rules of their order and their duty as miſſionaries, but even deſcended ſo low, as to diſguiſe themſelves in the habits of faquirs, or Mohammedan monks, that they might have an opportunity of viſiting the diamond mines, and purchaſing ſtones there of extraordinary value *.

* We owe this circumſtance to the Hiſtory of Holland, by M. de la Neuville, who tells us, that the Dutch being extremely piqued at the trouble the Jeſuits gave them at China, diſcovered this practice to the governor of the diamond mines at Viſapour, who caught two of the fathers diſguiſed like faquirs, with ſtones about them to the value of twenty-five thouſand pounds, which he took from them, and after whipping them publicly, for profaning the habit of thoſe holy men, took ſuch meaſures as prevented their carrying on that trade in this ſhape ever after.

But what moſt of all contributed to corrupt the inhabitants of the Portugueze ſettlements, was the little care taken to prevent their leaving all things to the care of their negroes and other ſlaves, and their intermarrying with the people of the country; practices ever fatal to all European eſtabliſhments, becauſe it not only effeminates the minds of ſuch as fall into this way of living, but alſo makes them loſe all regard for their country, and inclines them to take ſuch meaſures, as are moſt likely to preſerve them in the enjoyment of ſuch ſervile pleaſures.

The Portugueze at Goa have been, for more than a century paſt, ſo much addicted to this ſenſual kind of life, that provided they might enjoy their magnificent houſes in the city, and their country palaces in it's neighbourhood, they gave themſelves no pain about what happened elſewhere, or how great progreſs the Dutch made in ſubduing their diſtant ſettlements. The natural conſequence of this was, that when ſuch ſettlements were loſt, thoſe who were driven from their habitations, inſtead of repairing to Goa, and taking arms in the king's ſervice, for the recovery of any part of his dominions, went into the territories of ſome Indian prince, and there, for a pitiful ſubſiſtence, entered into his pay, or accepted of ſome low office in his court; ſo that while the fleets and armies of Portugal grew thin and contemptible, for want of ſoldiers and ſeamen, there were many thouſands of that nation ſcattered all over the Indies, diſgracing their country, by the manner in which they got their bread; when, by a proper behaviour, they might have reſtored the affairs of their prince, as well as their own fortunes.

One may ſafely affirm, that all theſe miſchiefs were, at the bottom, owing to the want of a right adminiſtration in Portugal; where, if a council for the Indies had been ſettled [ſee INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN], compoſed of men of real abilities, and competent experience in commercial concerns, who had been intruſted with the ſole power of beſtowing places in that country, and had been charged to look carefully into the conduct of ſuch as were employed by them, might, before things had gone too far, have reſtored diſcipline in their colonies, and recalled ſuch, as from diſcontent or diffidence in their former governors, had taken refuge in other places.

But their attention to other things, and more eſpecially to their ſettlements in Brazil, which have, indeed, accidentally compenſated, in ſome meaſure, their loſſes on this ſide, hindered them from thinking of their affairs in the eaſt, 'till they became almoſt paſt recovery.

In this diſtreſſed and dejected ſtate they lie at preſent, which, however, muſt not excuſe us from giving the reader a view of them, even in this condition, becauſe the Portugueze are ſtill conſidered as having ſome intereſt in the Indies, though it be in a manner nothing in compariſon of what it was; they are, however, at preſent, taking meaſures to revive and eſtabliſh their trading intereſt again in this part of the world, and that, as we have before ſeen, by the means of BRITISH MERCHANTS, BRITISH SAILORS, and BRITISH MONEY.

The dominions at preſent ſubject to the Portugueze viceroy of the Indies are very eaſily deſcribed. The city of GOA, of which we have ſpoken before, is ſtill the capital, the ſeat of the viceroy, the archbiſhop, and the inquiſition, which are heavy burthens on ſo exhauſted an eſtabliſhment. In the neighbourhood of this city they preſerve the iſlands of Salſette, Bardes, Augedive, and ſome others of no great conſequence, farther than that they ſupply the city of Goa plentifully with proviſions, which is hard to ſay whether it be an advantage to that place or not: for as rice comes in great quantities, and very cheap, to Goa, it encourages the citizens to keep a vaſt number of ſervants, eſpecially negroes, who are content with one diſh of this food at noon, and another at night. If theſe were kept for any kind of labour or manufactures, there would be no great objection to it; but almoſt every houſe-keeper has ſix, ſome of them 12, ſome 30 or 40, that have no other buſineſs than carrying their maſter's palanquin and umbrella; ſo that, in reality, they are not kept ſo much for ſervice as for ſtate: and thus they rather exhauſt, than increaſe, the riches of the inhabitants.

DIU, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Guzarat, is the ſtrongeſt place they have, and is, indeed, very well ſituated for commerce. It has a very good port, and, while the Portugueze had any fleets of conſequence, they were generally laid up here; and at this city the Moors, and other traders in thoſe ſeas, were obliged to take out their paſſports, before they proceeded any farther to the Eaſt. At preſent, almoſt all the trade which was carried on here is removed to Surat, and what little ſtill remains at Diu, in the hands of the Portugueze, is carried on under Gentile colours; that is to ſay, the Portugueze think themſelves ſafer under them

than

than under the flag of Portugal, formerly ſo much reſpected in the Indies.

The port of DAMAN, on the gulph of Cambaya, is yet in tolerable good condition, though nothing in compariſon of what it was, the old town being in a manner deſerted, and the new not near ſo well peopled as might be expected from it's extent.

There are, however, ſtill ſome manufactures carried on here, particularly in ſilk, with which they furniſh the market of Goa, and thereby enable the merchants ſettled to carry on what ſmall commerce they have left. CHAOUL ſtands behind the mountains, on the ſame coaſt, and has a very ſafe and good port.

Theſe are all the places that they have on the Malabar coaſt; and in other parts of the Indies they have few factories, and no eſtabliſhments at all, except it be in the iſlands of Innor and Solor, not far from the Moluccas, which they poſſeſs jointly with the Dutch. Once in two or three years they ſend a ſhip from Goa to theſe iſlands, the chief commodities of which are ſandal-wood, much eſteemed in China, very good wax, and a ſort of medicine called ſolor-ſtones, which are very little, if at all, inferior to the beſt bezoar. On the coaſt of China they have the iſland and port of Macao, from whence they carry on a conſiderable trade to China and the Philippines.

All that remains under the Portugueze dominion, from the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, to the city of Macao in China, is governed by a viceroy, with the title of captain-general, who reſides at Goa, as the metropolis of India. There are ſix, and ſometimes eight, deſembargadores, or judges, that attend the government as a ſovereign court, or council, who wear gowns down to their heels, over a caſſock of the ſame length, the gown with wide ſleeves down half way their arms: they wear golillas, and huge perukes of the French faſhion. The chief court theſe gownmen ſit in is called Relacon, which adminiſters juſtice in civil and criminal caſes, having power over all miniſters, and tries all appeals brought from all parts of their dominions. The viceroy ſits as chief of this court, under a canopy; the gownmen ſit on benches placed on the plain floor. The council de Facada is like the court of Exchequer, where one of the gownmen ſit as the viceroy's deputy. Thus the pomp and ſplendor of this government is ſtill kept up, though the extent of it is much leſſened, and the power and credit of it in a manner decayed.

There are ſtill as many governments as ever, that is, in title; for otherwiſe they are of no great conſequence; and thoſe on whom they are beſtowed have the characters of generals. There is, for inſtance, a general of the gulph of Ormuz, who has four ſhips under his command; a general of the notth, who directs the ſmall towns on the coaſt of Malabar; a general of Salſette, who has a territory of about fifteen miles; a general of China, who is, properly ſpeaking, governor of Macao, and an abſolute vaſſal to the Chineſe. There is another general in the iſlands of Timor and Solor, to whom even the Portugueze there ſcarce pay any obedience, and who lives in a miſerable fort, the guns of which are in no condition for ſervice. There is likewiſe a general of Goa, whoſe buſineſs is to take care of the channels between the iſlands, and to reſtrain ſmugglers *.

* There is a very wide difference between theſe titular preferments and the governments formerly in the gift of the viceroy of Goa, which were five; the firſt was that of Moſambique, which is ſtill in their hands, and the only one of the old government that is ſo; the ſecond was that of Maſcat, on the Arabian coaſt, which was of very great importance, and brought in a large revenue; the third was that of Ormuz, on the coaſt of Perſia; the captain-general of the iſland of Ceylon was the fourth, and the governor of the important fortreſs of Malacca was the fifth. Upon each of theſe general governments there depended many others of leſs conſequence, and of which theſe generals had the abſolute diſpoſal; but thoſe who held them, were continued in them for no longer than three years. And it was for this reaſon they were guilty of ſo much extortion, looking upon their governments as leaſes for ſo many years, in which they were to make their fortunes.

But the beſt of all the governments that ſtill belong to the Indies, is that of Moſambique [ſee PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE], which is an iſland ſituated near the coaſt of Africa, in the latitude of 15° ſouth, within half a league of the continent. They have a ſtrong fort there, with four good baſtions, which commands the channel, and in which there are ſeventy pieces of braſs cannon; and here there is always kept a good garriſon, and in tolerable order. The governor is honoured with the title of general of the river of Senna, where he has his lieutenant, which employment was worth to him ſeveral hundred thouſand crowns a year. There are but a few houſes about the fort, the inhabitants keeping their effects on the neighbouring continent: but notwithſtanding the narrowneſs of the place, there are monaſteries of Jeſuits, Dominicans of St John de Dios, beſides the chief church and that of the Miſericordia. The merchandize brought to this place by the ſhips of the company, are bought at a ſet price by the royal factory, which afterwards ſends them to Chelimani; the mouth of the river of Senna running three hundred miles along the coaſt, in galliots and ſmall veſſels, becauſe of the flats from Chelimani; the goods are ſent up the river againſt the ſtream, in almandies or little boats, which are ten days going up and about five coming down. It is very difficult going up, for thoſe who are not well acquainted with the ſhallows and windings of the river. The Caſres, or Blacks, reſort to this port from provinces and kingdoms three or four months journey diſtant, to buy or take up goods upon truſt for ſo much gold, which they never fail to bring punctually the next year, unleſs death prevents them. This trade yields above cent. per cent. ſo that the Portugueze may be ſaid to have another India in Africa.

SENNA is a little town on the right-hand of the river, inhabited by fifty Portugueze families, who make it populous enough, by the great number of blacks they keep. Theſe till the ground, and dig in the mines, and by that means maintain their maſters inſtead of being kept by them.

About fifteen days journey from hence lies Sofala, where the Portugueze have likewiſe an eſtabliſhment, ſubject, however, to the general of Mozambique, and here a prodigious trade is driven on, of which the Portugueze are, or might be, maſters. It conſiſts chiefly in gold, of which there are greater quantities here than in any other country in the world, ſince the annual produce of this market is computed, by the beſt judges, at forty-ſix thouſand ounces. There are vaſt quantities of Spaniſh and Canary wines, oil, ſilks, linens, cottons, coral, and other European goods ſold here, which are carried by the inhabitants of the little kingdom of Sofala, through all the great empire of Monomotapa, which the Portugueze ſtile the empire of gold, from the prodigious quantities of that precious metal which is brought to them from thence. There are likewiſe, ſome other very rich commodities brought hither by the negroes, ſuch as the moſt excellent ebony in the world, great quantities of ivory, abundance of fine mats, which are much eſteemed in the Indies, and a great number of ſlaves; ſo that Goa, and all the reſt of the Portugueze ſettlements, are furniſhed from hence. One may juſtly wonder, that, conſidering the value of this ſettlement, and it's convenient ſituation, the Dutch had not made themſelves maſters of it long ago, as well as of all the other places belonging to the crown of Portugal on this coaſt.

In the year 1605, they attempted Mozambique with very little ſucceſs, which, however, did not diſcourage them; as it muſt be allowed, that where there is a proſpect of gain, the Dutch are not eaſily diſcouraged: and, therefore, in 1607, they attacked it a ſecond time with greater force, but with the ſame ill-luck as before, except that they made themſelves maſters of a rich Portugueze fleet, which, in ſome meaſure, paid the expence of the expedition. This rich trade, notwithſtanding, is much fallen off by the Arabs making themſelves maſters of Monbaza, and other places which gives them an opportunity of ſupplying the Africans with European goods, which they purchaſe in different parts of the Indies.

As for the ſhare which the Portugueze ſtill retain, the gold obtained thereby is ſent to Goa and to Diu, where it is coined into ſmall pieces, called St Thomas's, which are not worth above half a crown of our money; and it is obſerved, that this coin is of a worſe touch, that is, of a baſer allay than any other in the Indies [ſee the article EAST-INDIA TRADE in general] which is another ſign of a declining trade; for the Saracens, which were formerly coined at Ormuz, when in the Portugueze hands, were eſteemed the beſt gold in the Indies; but they are now become extremely ſcarce, and the St Thomas's are coined in leſs quantities every year.

Theſe poſſeſſions are ſaid to produce ſo little to the king of Portugal, that it has been more than once debated in the council of that prince, whether it would not be for the intereſt of the crown to abandon them all together withdrawing their artillery and effects; and we are likewiſe told, that it is not any political, but purely a religious motive, that has hindered this meaſure from being taken, the prieſts having ſuggeſted that, in ſuch caſe a multitude of ſouls would be loſt to the Church. We ſhall the leſs wonder at this, if we conſider, that ſuch as are beſt acquainted with the laſt India trade aſſure us, that a ſingle merchant and a ſingle ſhip of a reaſonable burden, may carry on as great a commerce, as what at preſent ſubſiſts between Liſbon and Goa. This matter, however, deſerves ſome explanation. There are yet a great many ſhips employed from Goa, Diu, and Daman, to the coaſts of Perſia, Pegu, Manilla, and China, but they are moſtly on the account of Indian merchants, there being ſcarce a Portugueze trader at Goa able to furniſh a cargo of the value of 10,000 crowns; and it is very much doubted, whether in the whole of their trade, they employ above two hundred thouſand crowns; ſo that it is not at all ſtrange, that one year with another, there are not above two ſhips ſent directly from Goa to Liſbon, and thoſe not a fourth part ſo rich as when they annually ſent twenty.

Yet

Yet there has been a late regulation made at Goa, for the preſervation and promotion of trade, which thoſe who underſtand that ſubject beſt, agree compleated it's ruin. This is an excluſive company, which has the ſole right to the commerce of Mozambique and Macao, which company has taken upon itſelf the payment of the royal officers, who are alſo two thirds concerned therein: this has given ſuch a blow to the natural commerce of Goa, that the beſt part of the Indian merchants that were left, are now retired from thence. To ſay the truth, it was the great ſhare the viceroys, governors, and other officers, always took in commerce, without contributing any thing thereto, except protecting the merchants from the violence committed by themſelves on ſuch as did not admit them to a ſhare in their trade, that firſt deſtroyed the extenſive commerce they enjoyed. And, upon this ſubject, the wits of the Indies have framed a very pretty allegory: they ſay, that when the Portugueze came firſt there, they had a ſword in one hand, and a crucifix in the other; but that they might fill their pockets the faſter, they quickly diſpenſed with the firſt, and ſoon after laid down the laſt, by which they have loſt all. But though their power and their commerce are ſo much declined, their pride is as great as ever, inſomuch, that they refuſe the natives of the country, who are called Canarians, the privilege of wearing ſtockings, though they employ them as phyſicians, lawyers, and merchants, by which many of them are ſo rich, that they keep a dozen or fourteen ſlaves, and are in much better circumſtances than the Portugueze themſelves.

The revenues of the Church have ſuffered very little by this ſurprizing change in the State; there being hardly a monaſtery that does not receive four or five thouſand crowns out of the treaſury, at the ſame time the ſoldiers ſtarve and mutiny for want of pay; which is ſo much the harder upon the government, becauſe the reverend fathers know very well how to take care of themſelves, inſomuch that it is affirmed, the Jeſuits in Goa have a better revenue than the crown of Portugal. It is not eaſy to know what becomes of the money theſe Popiſh churchmen raiſe, but it is very evident, that the wealth they poſſeſs, together with the eſtabliſhment of the inquiſition at Goa, is ſuch a dead weight on the ſettlement, as muſt ſooner or later deſtroy it, unleſs other meaſures are ſoon taken to prevent it.

The wiſeſt of the Portugueze in Europe underſtand this very well, and would be glad to ſee ſome proper remedy applied, not from any prejudice againſt the Church or Churchmen, which is far enough from being the vice of that nation, but out of pure regard to the crown, and to the nation; and one would think, that the Clergy themſelves, inſtead of graſping at more, ought to be willing to part with ſome proportion of what is already in their hands, in order to render the State more able to protect them in the poſſeſſion of the remainder.

Beſides, there is nothing clearer, than that the erecting of religious houſes is directly oppoſite to the very ſcheme of planting, and muſt always ruin the ſettlements where it prevails, and conſequently the religious houſes themſelves, which is certainly an argument that ought to prevail even with Popiſh princes, to lay ſome reſtraint on the miſſionaries that are ſent abroad, unleſs they prefer the reputation of zeal among ſuch as are no competent judges, not only to maxims of policy and good government, but to the principles of true religion. For, if there be any piety in converting Pagans to the Chriſtian faith, it follows, that there is ſtill greater piety in doing this effectually, and in maintaining for ever the eſtabliſhments neceſſary to ſupport them, which reaſon and experience ſhews, the building monaſteries, and maintaining numbers of idle people in them, will not do, but, on the contrary, will bring on in time the deſtruction of thoſe colonies, in which this humour is ſuffered to prevail.

A few years ſince we had advices from this part of the world, that ſeveral Indian princes were driven from before Goa, which they had blocked up with a numerous army, by the powerful ſuccours ſent by the preſent king of Portugal, and by the excellent condition of the late viceroy, who was the count De Laurical, and behaved there with great reputation. Such expeditions, however, are to be conſidered as expedients only, which may for a time preſerve that ſettlement, but can never reſtore it, or bring the affairs of this nation in theſe parts into ſo good order, as to make them worth the attention of a prince, who has the honour of his crown and the good of his people at heart.

But, it ſeems, the Portugueze are, at preſent, determined to take effectual meaſures for the reſtoration of their Eaſt-India commerce, and they intend to commence the ſame at the port of Diu; which has been long ſince obſerved by M. Tavernier to be well ſituated for trade, and as capable of improvement, as any in that part of the world, or more ſo: and, if put under a proper regulation, that is, if made in ſome meaſure a free port, as it is ſaid the Portugueze deſign, it muſt neceſſarily come in for a large ſhare of that commerce now carried on at Surat, and, in all probability, retrieve much of the Arabian and Perſian traffic that has been ſo long loſt to them. And as the Portugueze have ſtill ſome factories at Biſnagar, and other places on that coaſt, it would be no difficult matter to re-eſtabliſh their commerce in the heart of India, at the ſame time that the port of Macao would furniſh them with the means of ſupplying the China market as cheap, or cheaper, than any other European nation, becauſe their colony at Mozambique is ſo ſituated, as to ſerve them for the ſame purpoſes that the Cape of Good Hope does the Dutch, or the iſland of St Helena the Engliſh.

POSTAGE of LETTERS. Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. an act of parliament paſſed for erecting a general poſt-office in England; and in the 1ſt year of king William III. an act of parliament paſſed in Scotland, for erecting a poſt-office in that kingdom; but in the ninth of queen Anne, after the Union, an act of parliament paſſed for repealing both thoſe ſtatutes, and for uniting both the ſaid poſt-offices, and for erecting and ſettling one general poſt-office throughout all her Majeſty's dominions; by which it is enacted, That there ſhall be one general poſt-office in London, and one poſt-maſter general, who ſhall have the ſole receiving and diſpatching all letters within this united realm, and without, &c. except letters which concern goods ſent by common carriers, and which ſhall be delivered with the goods, without any profit for receiving or delivering them; and except merchants letters, and thoſe of maſters of ſhips; ſo as ſuch letters be delivered to the perſons to whom they are directed, without receiving any profit for them; and except proviſions, affidavits, writs, &c. and any letters ſent by private friends, in their journey, or by any meſſenger about private affairs or buſineſs.

Proviſo, That carriers do not receive letters which do not concern goods then in carrying, nor drivers of ſtage-coaches, nor maſters of paſſage-boats, nor paſſengers therein, nor watermen or bargemen, though without hire or reward.

The poſt-maſter general, and his deputies, and no other perſon, ſhall provide horſes and furniture for any perſon riding poſt, where any poſt-roads ſhall be ſettled, at the rate of 3 d. per mile for every poſt-horſe, and 4 d. for the guide, and ſhall not charge any thing for carrying a bundle, ſo as it does not exceed eight pounds.

And for letters he ſhall take, viz.

For every ſingle letter not coming from, or directed from on ſhip-board, and to and from any place in England, not diſtant above 80 miles from London, 3d. and for every double letter 6d. and for the packets of writs, deeds, and other things 12d. per ounce: for every ſingle letter above 80 miles from London, 4d. and for a double letter, 8d. and for other things, 1s. 4d. per ounce; for every ſingle letter from London to Edinburgh, or vice verſa, 6d. and a double letter, 12d. and for other parcels, 2s. per ounce; for any letter from Edinburgh, to any place not exceeding 50 miles in Scotland, 2d. and a double letter, 4d. and for other parcels, 8d. per ounce; and if above 50 miles, 3d. and for a double letter, 6d. and for other parcels, 12d. per ounce; if above 80 miles, then for every ſingle letter 4d. and for a double letter, 8d. and for other parcels, 1s. 4d. per ounce: and for the poſtage of letters and packets directed on board, or brought from any veſſel riding or ſtopping in any port in England, 1d. over and above the ſaid rates; and for the poſtage of all letters and packets paſſing and repaſſing by the penny-poſt, and to be received and delivered within 10 miles diſtant from the General Poſt-Office 1d.

The poſt-maſter may erect croſs-ſtages, and he or his deputy may demand and receive the ſame rates in any ſuch croſs-ſtages, in proportion to the diſtances of places, as letters to and from London are rated.

He may appoint one to meaſure the roads by the wheel, except ſuch roads where the ſtages are already ſettled; and he who makes ſuch ſurveys, ſhall make oath before ſome juſtice, &c. in each kingdom reſpectively, to perform the ſame according to the beſt of his ſkill, and the juſtice, &c. ſhall certify the ſame in writing, to be kept and entered in the General Poſt-Office, without fee.

Proviſo, That merchants accounts, not exceeding one ſheet, and all bills of exchange and invoices, and bills of lading, ſhall be allowed to paſs without rate in the price of letters; and likewiſe the covers of letters, not exceeding one fourth part of a ſheet, ſent by the way of Vienna, Marſeilles, Venice, or Leghorn, to be ſent to or from Turkey.

None other but the poſt-maſter general, or his deputies, ſhall receive, take, or carry letters, either by land or ſea, or provide horſes for riding poſt, or collect any letters, or ſet up any foot-poſt, horſe-poſt, or packet-boat, or any other conveyance for the carrying or delivering of letters, under the penalty of 5 l. for every offence, and alſo 100 l. for every week that the offender ſhall continue the ſaid offence.

If through the default or neglect of the poſt-maſter, any perſon riding poſt ſhall fail of being provided with ſufficient horſes, after demand, the party offending ſhall forfeit 5 l. one moiety to the crown, the other to the proſecutor, to be recovered in any court of record.

Proviſo, That if the mail be carried out of England in any veſſel which is not a free ſhip, and navigated by ſeamen as by the law is required, that then the poſt-maſter-general ſhall forfeit 100 l. one moiety to the crown, the other to him who will ſue, to be recovered by bill, plaint, or information.

All money due for letters not exceeding 5l. ſhall be recovered in the ſame manner, and under the ſame rules, as ſmall tithes, by complaint in writing before two juſtices, who may ſummon the party complained of, and, on default of appearance, determine the cauſe, and give allowance and coſts, not exceeding 10s.

If the party refuſe to pay in 10 days after notice, the conſtables, &c. are to deſtrain, by warrant from the juſtices, and the diſtreſs to be ſold in three days.

All inland letters muſt pay at the ſtage where laſt delivered, unleſs they are directed to any ſhip or veſſel, or to any perſon in the army, or ſent by the penny-poſt, and unleſs letters going out of Great-Britain, which have uſually paid rates in England.

After the 1ſt of June, 1743, the old rates ſhall be taken for letters again.

Perſons opening, detaining, or delaying any letter, after the ſame is delivered into the General Poſt-Office, except by warrant in writing, under the hand of a ſecretary of ſtate, or unleſs the perſon to whom directed refuſes to pay the poſtage, or where the letter ſhall be returned for want of due or true direction: the perſon ſo offending, or embezelling a letter, forfeits 20l. to be recovered in the courts at Weſtminſter, if in England; if in Scotland, in the court of ſeſſion or exchequer, by ſuch perſons who will ſue, with full coſts, and the offender is diſabled, and rendered incapable of any employment in the Poſt-Office.

Poſt-maſter general, and all in any employment relating to the Poſt-Office, muſt take the oath following, before one juſtice of the peace of the county where ſuch perſon reſides.

I A. B. do ſwear, That I will not wittingly, willingly, or knowingly, open, detain, or delay, or cauſe, procure, permit, or ſuffer to be opened, detained, or delayed, any letter or letters, packet or packets, which ſhall come into my hands, power, or cuſtody, by reaſon of my employment in, or relating to, the Poſt-Office, except by conſent of the perſon or perſons to whom the ſame is, or ſhall be directed, or by an expreſs warrant in writing, under the hand of one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate for that purpoſe; or except in ſuch caſes where the party or parties to whom ſuch letter or letters, packet or packets, ſhall be directed, or who is or are hereby chargeable with the payment of the poſt or poſts thereof, ſhall refuſe or neglect to pay the ſame; and except ſuch packets or letters as ſhall be returned for want of due directions, or when the party or parties to whom the ſame is, or ſhall be directed, cannot be found; and that I will not any way embezzle any ſuch letter or letters, packet or packets as aforeſaid.

It is enacted, by ſtat. 6. Geo. I. cap. 21. That when bills of exchange are ſent wrote on one and the ſame piece of paper with a letter, as alſo ſeveral letters to ſeveral and diſtinct perſons, are ſent wrote on one and the ſame piece of paper, that every ſuch bill, and every ſuch letter, ſhould be rated and paid for as ſo many ſeveral and diſtinct letters, according to the rates 9 Ann. cap. 19.

And whereas by the act 9 Ann. cap. 19. it is provided, That all bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, ſhall be underſtood to be allowed without rate in the price of the letter; and ſome doubts having been made, touching the ſaid proviſo, it is by the ſaid 6th of king Geo. I. cap. 21. declared and enacted, That it was, and is the intent and meaning of the ſaid act, that the ſaid proviſo and allowance ſhall extend only to ſuch merchants accounts, bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, as ſhall be ſent to or from the General Poſt-Office in London to any parts beyond the ſeas not within his Majeſty's dominions; and that all other merchants accounts, bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, ſhall be rated and paid for as ſo many ſeveral letters, according to the rates mentioned in the ſaid act 9 Ann. cap. 19.

By ſtat. 4 Geo. II. it ſhall be lawful for any penny-poſt-man to demand, for every letter originally ſent by the Penny-Poſt, which ſhall be delive ed to, or for any perſon, at any place out of London, Weſtminſter, or Southwark, and their reſpective ſuburbs, one penny beſides the penny paid on putting the letter into the ſaid office; and no penny-poſt-man ſhall incur any penalty for detaining ſuch letter until the payment thereof.

A letter, in which there were bills of exchange, was delivered at the General Poſt-Office in London, to one who was appointed by the poſt-maſter to receive letters, and there it was opened, and the bills taken out; and, in an action brought againſt the Poſt-maſter, three judges, againſt Holt, chief juſtice, held, That it would not lie, becauſe this was an office of intelligence, and not of inſurance, or of conveyance of treaſure; but the chief juſtice held, that the action would lie, becauſe the poſt-maſter hath a reward, which is the reaſon that inn-keepers and carriers are to keep goods ſafely.

By the 26th of Geo. II. every writ is to pay as a diſtinct letter; and letters incloſing ſeveral patterns, not exceeding one ounce weight, to pay only as a double letter.

N. B. The laſt act in relation to poſtage of letters, included in the tobacco-act.

A warrant to take a diſtreſs for money ordered to be paid, by two juſtices, for poſtage.

Eſſex, ſſ. Whereas, on complaint this day exhibited, by A. B. of, &c. unto us, W. B. and J. S. Eſqrs. two of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace for the county aforeſaid, That L. M. of, &c. has refuſed to pay the ſum of, &c. by him juſtly due for the poſtage of letters, and the ſum of, &c. which we awarded for coſts on his refuſal, as aforeſaid: upon examining into, and determining the cauſe of complaint, according to the direction of the ſtatute in that caſe made: theſe are therefore to require you to levy the ſaid ſeveral ſums of, &c. on the goods of the ſaid L. M. by diſtreſs and ſale, if not redeemed in three days; and, for your ſo doing, this ſhall be your ſufficient warrant, Given, &c.

POT-ASH, are the lixivious aſhes of certain vegetables, uſed in the making of glaſs, ſoap, bleaching, dyeing, &c.

Although pot-aſh is a thing daily uſed, and well known even to the vulgar; yet, as the making of it is a mechanic art, practiſed only by the vulgar, and neglected and overlooked by the learned, ſo we have had no ſatisfactory account of it; and they who underſtand it, generally keep it a ſecret, leſt others ſhould learn ſo beneficial an art. But, as it is a commodity that no nation hardly can well be without, either for making ſoap, glaſs, dyeing, or bleaching, ſo the way of making it, is generally underſtood in moſt countries except our own. For, in France and other countries, where they make wine, they make a kind of pot-aſh, in an eaſy manner, from the lees of their wine. In thoſe, and other more ſouthern climes, they have many kinds of herbs hereafter mentioned, either ſpontaneous, or cultivated on purpoſe, which they as eaſily convert into pot-aſh. In Germany, and other more northern countries, they make great quantities of pot-aſh, by extracting the ſalts of their wood-aſhes, in a manner that is well known. But it is only in Ruſſia, Sweden, and other northern nations, where the art of converting their wood-aſhes into pot-aſh, without the tedious proceſs of elixiviation, is either well known to the learned, or practiſed by the vulgar. By this means moſt nations are ſupplied with this neceſſary commodity of their own, except the Engliſh, who might be ſupplied with any quantities of it, from the great plenty of otherwiſe uſeleſs wood they have in their colonies, if not at home, if they knew how to make it. But it ſeems this art is ſo little underſtood among us, that many attempts have all proved unſucceſsful, merely upon that account, ſo as to be intirely laid aſide. This has put us, for ſome time, upon enquiring into the ways of making this commodity, of which ſeveral have been ſuggeſted, from the ſeveral trials and informations hereafter mentioned.

It is well known, that the aſhes of all kinds of vegetables whatever, afford pot-aſh in ſome meaſure or other; although ſome are much more fit for that purpoſe than others, which may be determined from the experiments of Redi, in the Philoſ. Tranſ. No. 243, p. 281. Boerhaave, Merret, and others; ſo that we need not inſiſt upon them here.

As for the trees and herbs of our colonies in North America, moſt of thoſe that are common in their woods are known to be fit for this purpoſe, as the aſhes of them all, burnt promiſcuouſly in their houſes, make a very ſtrong lye fit for ſoap. Of theſe, the fitteſt for that purpoſe is their hiccory, the moſt common tree in their woods, which makes the pureſt and whiteſt aſhes, of the ſharpeſt taſte, and ſtrongeſt lye, of any wood. Their ſtickweed is ſaid to do the ſame, which is as common a weed. For this reaſon, the aſhes of both theſe plants were uſed by our Indians there, inſtead of ſalt, before they learnt the uſe of common ſalt from the Europeans. The aſhes of tobacco likewiſe, when damnified, or not fit for a market; or it's ſtalks, ſtems, and ſuckers, of which great quantities are thrown away, and rot and periſh, are very fit for pot-aſh, as they contain a great deal of ſalts, and are well known to make a ſtrong lye.

On the other hand, pines, firs, ſaſſafras, liquid amber, or ſweet gum, or all odoriferous woods, and thoſe that abound with a reſin or gum, are unfit for pot-aſh, as their aſhes are well known, even to our planters, to make a very weak lye, unfit for ſoap.

Beſides theſe that contain little or no ſalt, there are ſome other vegetables that afford a large quantity of it, but make a bad kind of pot-aſh, at leaſt for many purpoſes, on account of a neutral ſalt with which they abound. This ſeems to have been the caſe of the pot-aſh made in Africa, in a manufacture of that commodity, ſet up there by the late African company, which Mr Houſton (who was chiefly concerned about it) tells us, in his travels, proved ſo bad, on account of a neutral ſalt it contained, that the manufacture was left off on that account; or, perhaps, from their not knowing how to make it right. What thoſe vegetables are, that afford this kind of aſh, is not well known, if it be not fern, and ſome ſea-plants.

Whatever vegetables we make our pot-aſh of, ſhould be freſh or green, and no ways rotten, dried, or decayed. They ſhould

ſhould likewiſe be burnt to aſhes by a ſlow fire, or in a cloſe place; otherwiſe, when they are burnt in the open air, by a ſtrong fire, great quantity of the aſhes is conſumed in ſmoke, by the ſaline and terreſtrial parts being carried up in fumes, before they are ſeparated from theſe exhalable parts, by the action of the fire. For the difference between burning wood in a cloſe place, or the open air, is ſo great, that the quantity of aſhes obtained from one, is more than double the other. This we learn from the experiments of Lundmarck hereafter-mentioned, who tells us, he burnt a quantity of birch in a cloſe ſtove, from which he obtained five pounds of aſhes; whereas, the ſame quantity of the ſame wood, burnt in the open air, yielded only two pounds.

It is for this reaſon, that moſt people who make pot-aſh, burn their wood in kilns, or pits dug in the ground; although the Swedes burn it in the open air, as the author above-mentioned informs us. This firſt ſtep, or the burning the wood to aſhes, ſeems to be taken, by many, for the whole proceſs of making pot-aſh; for they who pretend to have learned this art in Ruſſia, as wells as Lemery, and ſome other authors, hardly give us any other account of it.

But, in order to convert the aſhes, prepared in this or any other manner, to what is called pot-aſh, there are many different ways practiſed in different countries, which make as many different kinds of pot-aſh, that are all to be found in our markets, and have all their reſpective uſes.

1. The firſt of theſe is commonly called pearl-aſhes by our people, who import great quantities of it from Germany. This is no other than the lixivial ſalt of wood-aſhes, extracted by making a ſtrong lye of them, and by evaporating it to dryneſs, in a manner that is well known, and ſufficiently explained by Kenkelius, in his art of making glaſs, Boerhaave, and many others; ſo that we need not inſiſt upon it here: we ſhall take a more fit opportunity to explain it, for the uſe of our people in America.

2. But the art of converting theſe wood-aſhes into pot-aſh, without this tedious proceſs of elixiviation, is only practiſed in Ruſſia, Sweden, and other northern countries, where it has been lately diſcloſed by one Lundmarck, who tells us he had often made it himſelf, in the manner he now deſcribes. This account is contained in an academical diſſertation upon this ſubject at Aboe, in Sweden, and was communicated to Dr Mitchell, by Dr Linneus, profeſſor of botany at Upſal, as a genuine account of this art; which I think has hitherto been generally unknown.

This author tells us, 'They have many large woods of beech in Smoland, and other parts of Sweden, in want of which they take alder: of theſe they are allowed to uſe only the old and decaying trees for this purpoſe, which they cut to pieces, and pile in a heap, to burn them to aſhes upon the ground, by a ſlow fire. They careſully ſeparate theſe aſhes from the dirt or coals in them, which they call raking them; after which they collect them in baſkets of bark, to carry them to a hut built in the woods for this purpoſe. This they continue to do 'till they have a ſufficient quantity of theſe aſhes. Then their whole art follows: for which they chuſe a convenient place, and make a paſte of theſe aſhes with water, by a little at a time, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame inſtruments, as mortar is commonly made of clay or lime. When this is done, they lay a row of green pine or fir logs on the ground, which they plaſter over with this paſte of aſhes: over this they lay another layer of the ſame ſtrait logs of wood, tranſverſely, or a-croſs the others, which they plaſter over with the aſhes in the ſame manner: thus they continue to erect a pile of theſe logs of wood, by layer upon layer, and plaſtering each with their paſte of aſhes, 'till they are all expended, when their pile is often as high as a houſe.

This pile they ſet on fire with dry wood, and burn it as vehemently as they can; increaſing the fire from time to time 'till the aſhes begin to be red hot, and run in the fire. Then they overſet their pile with poles, as quickly as they can; and while the aſhes are ſtill hot and melting, they beat and clap them, with large round flexible ſticks, made on purpoſe, ſo as to incruſt the logs of wood with the aſhes; but which the aſhes concrete into a ſolid maſs as hard as ſtone, provided the operation has been rightly performed.

This operation they call walla, i. e. dreſſing. At laſt they ſcrape off the ſalt thus prepared, with iron inſtruments, and ſell it for pot-aſh; which is of a bluiſh dark colour, not unlike the ſcoriæ of iron, with a pure greeniſh white ſalt appearing here and there in it.'

All the pot-aſh we have from Ruſſia, Sweden, and Dantzick, is exactly like what our author here deſcribes, and ſeems to be made in this manner. It is, however, generally obſerved, that the Ruſſian is the beſt of theſe, on account of the greater quantity of ſalt in it. Now if, in the preceding proceſs, we make our paſte of aſhes with lye, inſtead of water, it is plain the pot-aſh will be impregnated with more ſalt, and make all the difference there is between theſe ſorts of pot-aſh. This then is likely to be the practice in Ruſſia; where their wood may likewiſe be better for this purpoſe, and afford more ſalt. This is well known to be the caſe of different kinds of wood: ſo our author abovementioned tells us, he obtained 2 $\frac{27}{64}$ lb. of ſalt out of eight cubic ells of poplar, which was very ſharp and cauſtic; but the ſame quantity of birch afforded only one pound of ſalt, and that not ſo ſtrong; and fir hardly yielded any at all.

The way of making pot-aſh above deſcribed, may be the more eaſily underſtood by our people in America, for whom this is chiefly intended, as it is the ſame with their way of making lime of ſhells, the only lime they uſe in moſt places. Theſe ſhells they burn to lime between the layers of a pile of wood (inſtead of a kiln) 'till reduced to aſhes, in the ſame manner as is here directed to be done with aſhes, to make pot-aſh. The lime thus made, is reckoned very good; but, as it is impregnated with the aſhes of the wood, and the marine ſalt that is often in the ſhells, it is apt to make the houſes that are built with it very damp in moiſt weather, ſo that the water often runs down their walls in ſtreams; which cannot but be very unwholeſome, in an air that is naturally cloſe and damp: the only way to prevent which, would be to waſh and dry their ſhells frequently, and burn them in dry pine, that afford little or no lixivial ſalt. But to return to our purpoſe:

3. There is another way of making pot-aſh, practiſed chiefly in England, where they make it in the following manner. With their aſhes of fern, or wood of any kind, they make a lye, which they reduce to what they call pot-aſh, by burning it with ſtraw. To do this, they place a tub full of this lye nigh a clean hearth of a chimney, in which they put a handful of looſe ſtraw, ſo as to take up a quantity of lye with it. The ſtraw thus impregnated with lye, they carry as quick as they can to hold it over a blazing fire on their hearth, which conſumes their ſtraw to aſhes, and at the ſame time evaporates the water from the ſalts of the lye. Over the blaze of the firſt parcel of ſtraw, they burn another, dipped in lye in the ſame manner. This they continue to do 'till their lye is all expended. By this means the coals and aſhes of the ſtraw, and ſalts of the lye, are left on the hearth, and concrete together into a hard ſolid cake, of a greyiſh black colour, which they ſcrape off, and ſell for pot-aſh.

This is an eaſy way of making pot-aſh, in want of proper veſſels to extract the ſalt of the lye by evaporation, or in want of wood to reduce aſhes to pot-aſh, in the way above-mentioned, for which it ſeems to be contrived, and for which it is only to be commended. For the pot-aſh made in this manner, is full of the coal of the ſtraw, and it's ſalt is not ſo ſtrong, as our workmen ſay, or ſo ſharp and corroſive as the ſalt of the foreign pot-aſh, that is calcined in an open fire; beſides other differences hereafter mentioned, which makes this pot-aſh unfit for ſome purpoſes, and not above half the value of the foreign.

4. They have a very different way in the north of England of reducing their kelp to pot-aſh, which they uſe for making allum. This is made of the different kinds of fuci, or ſea-weeds, thrown upon the ſhore, or gathered upon the rocks; which they dry a little in the ſun, and afterwards burn in a kiln, built of the ſtones they find on the ſhore, in a cylindrical form, and about two feet or leſs in diameter. In this they firſt burn a ſmall parcel of the herb, and before it is reduced to aſhes they throw on more, 'till the kiln is full, or their materials are expended. This is ſaid to reduce the aſhes to a hard and ſolid cake, by the heat of the kiln, and quantity of ſalt in the herb, which makes what is commonly called kelp-aſhes.

There are ſome other ways of making pot-aſh, ſuggeſted by ſeveral, both authors and others, which appear to be more eaſy and ready than any of the abovementioned; for which reaſon they are apt to be tried, by thoſe who make attempts of this kind. Theſe are deduced from what they reckon the nature and properties of this production: and there is no doubt, but if that was well underſtood, it might afford ſome inſight in the way of making it. For this reaſon we made the following experiments with the beſt Ruſſia pot-aſh, in order to diſcover it's nature and properties, and how they are moſt probably communicated to it; that we might ſee what we are to make, in order to imitate the beſt, or to make what is accounted good pot-aſh.

1. Ruſſia pot-aſh, as it is brought to us, is in large lumps, as hard as a ſtone, and black as a coal, incruſted over with a white ſalt, that appears in ſeparate ſpots here and there in it.

2. It has a ſtrong fœtid ſulphureous ſmell and taſte, as well as a bitter and lixivial taſte, which is rather more pungent than other common lixivial ſalts.

3. A lixivium of it is a dark green colour, with a very fœtid ſulphureous ſmell, and bitter ſulphureous taſte, ſomewhat like gunpowder, as well as ſharp and pungent, like a ſimple lixivium.

4. Although it is as hard as a ſtone, when kept in a cloſe place, or in large quantities together in a hogſhead; yet, when laid in the open air, it turns ſoft, and ſome pieces of it run per deliquium; whilſt moſt other kinds of pot aſh only turn friable, and crumble in the open air.

5. It readily diſſolves in warm water, but leaves a large ſediment of a blackiſh grey colour like aſhes, which is in a fine ſoft powder, without any dirt or coals in it, that are to be obſerved in moſt other kinds of pot aſh.

6. As it is diſſolving in water, there has been ſcummed off from ſome lumps of it, a dark purple bituminous ſubſtance, like

like petroleum or tar, which readily diſſolved in the lixivium.
7. This, or any other true pot-aſh, or a lixivium made thereof, will preſently tinge ſilver of a dark purple colour, difficult to rub off; whilſt a mere lixivial ſalt has no ſuch effect.
8. Pieces of this pot-aſh, boiling in water, make a conſtant exploſion like gunpowder; which was ſo ſtrong, as not only to throw the water to ſome height, but to lift up, and almoſt over-ſet, a ſtone cup in which they were boiled. Theſe exploſions were owing not ſo much to the included air, which ſome perhaps may imagine, as to the ſulphureous parts of the compoſition expanding and flying off: for this boiled lixivium had neither the green colour, nor fœtid ſulphureous ſmell and taſte; at leaſt, in any degree, like what it has, when made of the ſame pot-aſh, by a ſimple infuſion in warm water.
9. We evaporated ſome of the green lixivium, made only by infuſion, and filtered through a double rag: as ſoon as it began to boil, a green powder, to which it's colour is owing, fell to the bottom, and the lye became pale. After it was evaporated to a pellicle, and ſet in a cool place, a ſalt ſeparated from it on the ſides of the cup, in angular cryſtals like tartar. Theſe cryſtals were ſoon formed, and in pretty large quantities, but were difficult to ſeparate from the alkaline lye and ſalt, in which, and the open air, they were apt to diſſolve: but from the pellicle, I obtained ſome pieces of the ſame ſalt that would not diſſolve in the open air.
10. Oil of vitriol makes a ſtrong efferveſcenſe with this green precipitate, with a white fume, and a very ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell. It does the ſame with theſe white cryſtals, although the ſulphureous ſmell is not ſo ſtrong. But with the pure fixed alkali, there was no ſuch ſulphureous ſmell to be diſcerned.
From theſe experiments, we may determine ſomething about the nature and contents of pot-aſh. This we are the better enabled to do, from the accurate experiments and reaſonings of the learned Mr Geoffroy, on a like ſubſtance made of charcoal, and an alkali ſalt calcined together; in which he obſerved all the properties and contents of pot-aſh above-mentioned, particularly related in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy, for the year 1717. This was made of the ſame materials, and had all the properties above-related of our pot-aſh; particularly a green lixivium, a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell and taſte, a ſulphureous green precipitate, cryſtallized ſalts, and ſulphureous fumes, with oil of vitriol. From hence this learned author concludes, that this ſubſtance contained the active ſulphureous parts of the wood, blended with more active igneous particles. Theſe united with the alkaline ſalts, make a kind of ſoap, or ſulphureous ſaponaceous ſalt, reſembling ſoap of tartar, or hepar ſulphuris. The cryſtallized ſalts he attributes to the acid of the wood mixing with the alkaline ſalts. All theſe parts of the wood then are contained in our pot-aſh; and he obſerved the ſame in the common ſoda, or cineres clavellati, although they are in a leſs degree in that than in the Ruſſian pot-aſh.
Beſides theſe, he ſhews that pot-aſh contains a metallic ſubſtance, which affords the Pruſſian blue [ſee BLUE, PRUSSIAN BLUE]. We may add further, that the combination of theſe principles makes many properties in pot-aſh, more than what reſult from them in a ſtate of ſeparation. The moſt remarkable of theſe ſeems to be it's exploſive quality; which we take to proceed from the cryſtallized ſalts approaching to the nature of nitre, and uniting with the ſulphur and charcoal; by which they form, from all theſe ingredients of gunpowder, a kind of that exploſive ſubſtance, whoſe parts are highly rarefied in an intenſe and confined heat, by which they readily explode in boiling lye.
By this we may perceive, that the difficulty in making pot-aſh a-right is, firſt, to reduce the materials to cinders and aſhes, and at the ſame time to preſerve their volatile, ſulphureous, and exhalable acid parts, that are totally deſtroyed in ſuch a degree of heat; and, ſecondly, to calcine theſe aſhes ſtill further, ſo as to flux their ſalts, and vitrify their terreſtrial parts, and at the ſame time to keep them ſeparate from each other, or prevent their running into an indiſſolvable glaſs. To give pot-aſh ſome of theſe properties, ſeems plainly to require a degree of heat that will totally deprive it of others.
The moſt likely way by which it comes to receive all theſe properties, is from the way of making it in Sweden above deſcribed. In that proceſs, the green fir in which the aſhes are burnt, impregnates them with the acid ſaline parts of the wood or tar, which is well known to be in pretty large quantities, and is abſorbed and fixed by the alkaline ſalts, and porous terreſtrial parts of the aſhes in this proceſs; ſo that, beſides the fixed alkaline ſalts of the aſhes, the pot-aſh thus made, muſt likewiſe contain the more volatile ſalts of the pine, which are exhaled in ſmoke, by burning the pine alone in the open air. Beſides theſe, it likewiſe contains the reſinous parts, and ſulphureous fumes of the pine, that are hindered from exhaling by the heap of the maſs.
At the ſame time the alkaline ſalts are fluxed in the open fire, and in a manner vitrified with the terreſtrial parts of the aſhes, which gives them their hard and ſolid conſiſtence; whilſt the ſulphureous and acid parts of the green wood hinder them from turning to a perfect glaſs, or inert calx. All theſe parts united together in the fire, make that ſaponaceous ſubſtance we find in the pot-aſh thus made, which further hinders the vitrification of the maſs, and endows it with many of it's moſt peculiar and active properties.
From hence we may ſee how difficult it is to make a ſubſtance, endowed with all theſe properties, in any other manner. This is the reaſon why we could never before make pot-aſh equal to that of Ruſſia, and the other northern countries, although we have much greater plenty of materials, and perhaps better: for this way of making it has never before been thought of by the learned, or practiſed any where elſe.
Somewhat of the ſame qualities are communicated to the Engliſh pot-aſh, by the way of making it above deſcribed; but in a degree as much inferior, as dry ſtraw, uſed for that purpoſe, is to green wood: accordingly our workmen find that pot-aſh is much inferior to the foreign, for many purpoſes.
From this account of the contents and qualities of pot-aſh, and the way of making it, we may form ſome judgment of the other ways of making it, propoſed by authors, and ſuggeſted by many. Thus Lemery and others tell us, pot-aſh is made in Ruſſia, and all the northern countries, only by calcining the aſhes in pits bricked within, and ſprinkling them well with lye, 'till they become hard and ſolid. But ſuch a calcination of aſhes with a lixivial ſalt, muſt render them whiter inſtead of black, and muſt further deſtroy the active ſulphureous parts of the wood, which we find in pot-aſh rightly made. So that this only leaves the aſhes in the ſtate they were at firſt, or turns them into a kind of indiſſolvable glaſs, as we have found upon trial.
This, and the like miſtakes, about the way of making pot-aſh, ſeem to proceed from a general error concerning the nature of it; for it is commonly ſuppoſed to be only a kind of inert calx, impregnated with nothing but a lixivial ſalt. Some ſuch miſtakes ſeem to have fruſtrated all the attempts hitherto made of making pot-aſh in America; for, upon trial, what they have made there, was found to be no better than common aſhes.
But the moſt general miſtake about the way of making pot-aſh, ſeems to proceed from the accounts we have of making it, from glaſs-wort, and ſome marine plants, which are ſaid to be eaſily converted to this kind of ſubſtance, in the manner above-mentioned. But we apprehend, the way of making it from wood muſt be very different: for theſe herbs are eaſily reduced to aſhes by a ſmall fire, that does not intirely conſume their ſulphureous parts, which wood is not. Theſe aſhes abound with a great quantity of alkaline and ſome neutral ſalts, that readily convert them to a hard and ſolid conſiſtence, which wood does not. They have likewiſe few or no terreſtrial parts, to run them into an indiſſolvable glaſs, when fluxed in the fire, as happens in wood aſhes. Beſides, theſe herbs have few or no ſulphureous or acid parts, like moſt woods; and the pot-aſh made of them has few of theſe principles in it, like what is made of wood.
It is, however, generally ſaid, if we burn our wood in a cloſe place, as a kiln in which we burn lime, or make charcoal, or a pit dug in the ground, we may impregnate the aſhes with the ſulphureous fumes and acid parts of the wood, only by the cloſeneſs of the place, or by ſmothering the fire in it. If at the ſame time, we impregnate them with a greater quantity of lixivial ſalt, it will flux the whole maſs, and make it run into a ſolid hard conſiſtence like pot-aſh. This is commonly directed to be done, by throwing freſh or green wood or herbs upon the others, as they are burning, before they are quite reduced to aſhes; or by ſmothering the fire, as in making charcoal; and at the ſame time to ſprinkle the aſhes, thus burnt with a ſtrong lye, from time to time, in the manner commonly practiſed with glaſs-wort.
This would be a more ready way of making pot-aſh than any of the above-mentioned; but as thoſe who give their advice about it, have neither tried it, nor ſeen it done; and thoſe who have tried this or any other way, find more difficulty in it, than at firſt imagined, we ſhall ſuſpend our judgment about it, 'till we ſee it fairly tried, leſt we ſhould deter ſome from making uſeful experiments of it, or lead others into fruitleſs and expenſive attempts.
By the various ways of making pot-aſh above-mentioned, and the different materials it is made of, there appear to be many different kinds of it, that have as different qualities. It would lead us too far beyond our preſent deſign, to give a particular account of each of theſe; but as they are uſed in many of our manufactures, it ſeems worthy of enquiry, to know what ſorts are generally uſed, and what are the fitteſt to be uſed in them.
The workmen in England make two general kinds of it, which they diſtinguiſh by the names of pearl-aſh and pot-aſh. The firſt is a mere lixivial ſalt, which is ſuppoſed to be the only ingredient of any efficacy in pot-aſh; but, upon trial, there is found to be a great difference between them, eſpecially in making ſoap. The ſalt is ſo weak in the pearl-aſh, that it does not entirely diſſolve and unite with the fat. The reaſon ſeems to be, that theſe ſalts are diſſolved in water, in order

order to extract them; by which they loſe many of their cauſtic igneous parts; whereas in pot-aſh the ſalts are calcined, and fluxed in an open fire, with the ignited terreſtrial parts of the aſhes, which makes them more ſharp and corroſive: they are likewiſe incorporated with the coal and fuliginous parts of the vegetables they are made of, or with the reſinous parts of fir, which gives them the ſulphureous quality above-mentioned, and makes a kind of ſoap of tartar, or hepar ſulphuris, in all pot-aſh; which makes theſe ſalts ſo ready to diſſolve, and incorporate with oil, or other pinguious ſubſtances.

This is, perhaps, the reaſon why the Cineres Ruſſici are ordered for this purpoſe, inſtead of a mere lixivial ſalt, by the College of Phyſicians, in their late Diſpenſatory. The ſoap made of them muſt be impregnated with their heating ſulphureous quality, which will make it more aperient and detergent, but not ſo mild and ſoft as ſome others; by which it may be more fit for obſtinate and indurated obſtructions, but will be more offenſive to the ſtomach; which is much complained of by ſome people, who take large quantities of the ſharper kinds of ſoap.

But, to conſider pot-aſh as a commodity in trade and manufactures, which is it's chief uſe; it appears that the people in England not only have it at a dear rate, but the worſt ſorts of it, at leaſt for moſt purpoſes; which cannot but have a proportional influence on their manufactures: for it is generally of as great, and ſome ſorts of a greater value in their markets, than a pure lixivial ſalt; notwithſtanding the ſmall quantity of ſuch ſalt in aſhes, and the trouble and expence of extracting it; which ſeems to be occaſioned by their not knowing how to convert aſhes into this commodity; for in Sweden, where the art is known, Lundmarck tells us, pot-aſh is ſold for little more than a farthing a pound, which coſt our workmen nigh ſixpence.

But this is not the only inconvenience we labour under for want of this commodity; the ſorts we are chiefly ſupplied with, are perhaps the worſt of any, and unfit for many purpoſes for which pot-aſh is uſed. The only pot-aſh almoſt to be met with here, comes from Ruſſia, Sweden, and Dantzick, or is made in England. Theſe are all made either of wood or fern-aſhes, whoſe ſalts are never ſo pure and white at the beſt, as ſome others: but, by the way of making them and the experiments on them above-mentioned, they appear to be impregnated with coal, ſmoak, and ſoot, which renders them ſtill more foul and impure, makes them of a black, brown, or green colour, and of a peculiar ſulphureous quality. On this account they are entirely unfit for making white glaſs: they make a very coarſe and ſtrong kind of ſoap; they are too foul, ſharp, and corroſive for bleaching, and are as unfit for dyeing, at leaſt many colours.

It is, perhaps, for this reaſon, that the workmen here make all their white glaſs with ſaltpetre; which muſt not only be more coſtly, but Neri, Merret, and others, tell us it is not ſo good, at leaſt for the better ſort of glaſs, as a ſharper lixivial ſalt. See GLASS. It is ſaid they uſe the volatile alkali of urine; but the French pot aſh, made of the lees of wine, is generally allowed to be the beſt for that purpoſe. So likewiſe the Alicant pot-aſh is reckoned much the beſt for bleaching, and making of ſoap; as the Syrian and Egyptian is for making of glaſs.

Theſe purer kinds of pot-aſh are all made of herbs, that grow only in the more ſouthern climates, whoſe ſalts are finer and whiter, and leſs acrid and corroſive than the ſalts of wood, or moſt other vegetables; and by the way of extracting them by calcination in a more open fire, they are more free of coal, ſmoke, and ſoot, or any other heterogenous mixture. On this account they are much better for the purpoſes above-mentioned, than the coarſe and foul kinds of pot-aſh that our people are ſupplied with.

All we have of theſe kinds of pot-aſh, it ſeems, comes only from Spain; for which reaſon our people were obliged to petition, to allow the importation of pot-aſh from thence, during the late war; as appears by an order of the king and council, of the 24th of June, 1742, ſince they could not do without it in many manufactures: ſo that it may be worth our enquiry, to know what it is that produces ſo neceſſary a commodity.

This kind of pot-aſh is commonly called barrilha, from an herb of the ſame name in Spain that produces it. The firſt account we have of this barrilha, is from Amatus Luſitanus, who leaves us much in the dark about it. It is generally ſaid in England, to be a plant pretty well known to the Botaniſts, by the name of Ficoides Neapolitana, flore candido. Hort. Ludg. Bat. but for what reaſon I cannot ſay. We have as little reaſon to believe with John Bauhine, that it is what he calls Kali vulgare; for Monſieur de Juſſieu has ſhewn us, that the true barrilha is a different plant from any of theſe, from his own obſervations of it in Spain, where it is cultivated; of which he has given us a particular account of them, anno 1717, p. 93.

The pot-aſh made of this plant, he tells us, makes the beſt ſoap, the fineſt glaſs, and is the beſt for bleaching of any other; for which reaſon it is much ſought after in all countries, where they value themſelves for theſe manufactures. See BLEACHING. But I queſtion very much, whether our workmen have it either pure and genuine, or in ſufficient quantities for theſe purpoſes. All the uſe I find made of it among them, is to make hard ſoap; although they ſay what they have of it ſpoils their ſoft ſoap, by making it curdle. This is well known to be the effects of ſea-ſalt; and Monſieur de Juſſieu and others tell us, that the true barrilha is often adulterated with ſea-weeds, which contain ſuch a marine ſalt: ſo that it is probably only this adulterated ſort that they have. Accordingly, all the barrilha we have found here, was of a dark brown colour, and very foul and ponderous; whereas, the true ſort is ſaid, by all who know it, to be more porous, pure, and of a blueiſh colour. It is for this reaſon, in all probability, that notwithſtanding all the barrilha our workmen have at ſo dear a rate from Spain, yet they have not been able, 'till very lately, to make ſo good ſoap as what comes from thence, and ſome other places; which is now done as I am informed, by captain Marchant, at his ſoap manufacture near Stepney.

The only way then, by which we are likely to have this commodity, either pure and genuine, or in ſufficient quantities at a reaſonable rate, is from the herb itſelf that produces it. Whether or not it would grow in England, is not known; as I believe it has never been tried: but there is no doubt but it would grow very well in our colonies in America, as I am certainly informed it does in the Spaniſh colonies there, where they have great plenty of it; and a ſort that is indigenous, particularly in Peru, which might probably be found in our colonies, if ſought for by thoſe who knew it. But wherever it will grow in any of the Engliſh dominions, there is no doubt but it would be a conſiderable improvement, where pot-aſh of all kinds is ſo valuable a commodity, and ſo much wanted; for it grows on the ſame ground with corn of any kind, which it does no harm to, as it is a ſmall annual herb, that does not ſpread 'till the corn is ripe, or off of the ground.

There are ſome other plants that are known to make a kind of pot-aſh, commonly called rochetta, which is ſaid to be even preferable to the barrilha, eſpecially for making glaſs. Theſe are the firſt and ſecond kinds of kali, deſcribed by Proſper Alpinus, in his account of the plants of Egypt. The firſt of which is the above-mentioned ficoides that grows in Italy, and all over the Levant, but the other is peculiar to Egypt. Theſe would be fit improvements for our colonies in America, where we ſeem to want nothing more than ſome proper productions for the vaſt tracts of land we are poſſeſſed of there. But theſe plants alone afford a commodity, which Proſper Alpinus, and Rauwolfius tell us they ſaw many large ſhips yearly loaded with in Egypt, and which gives the excellency to the glaſs and ſoap that are made at Venice.

It would be worth while then, at leaſt to make a trial of a production, that is likely to improve both our trade abroad and our manufactures at home.

REMARKS on Pot-aſh ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

In our remarks on the article NORWAY, we have ſhewn the national emolument that would accrue from ſupplying ourſelves, from North America, with every ſpecies of TIMBER our colonies will admit of, as well for every ſort of houſe-building, as that of ſhipping, that we may ſtand in need of. It was too long before the legiſlature could be prevailed on, to admit of the importation of ſow and pig iron from America, and but very lately bar; we were ſo wiſe as to give the preference to foreign iron, as we do ſtill for Norway timber, than give our own people in our plantations due encouragement to attempt thoſe articles. Herein daily experience evinces our egregious impolicy. It has been the ſame by pitch and tar, and continues to be ſo, with regard to other NAVAL STORES, to the great loſs of the nation, all which might have been long ſince prevented.

In regard to the article of pot-aſh, which we have two long alſo taken from Ruſſia, as well as HEMP and IRON, we may amply furniſh ourſelves with this ingredient in the manufacture of SOAP; for as theſe colonies abound with timber of a great variety of qualities, and all proper meaſures are taken for the felling of timber, and ſaw mills erected for the cutting the ſame into boards for every kind of uſe, the very ſaw duſt, and the underwood, and topping will furniſh plenty of material for making pot-aſh, if ſkilful people are employed, who are maſters of the proceſs, to inſtruct our people in the beſt manner of making it; and, when our nation is highly loaded with public debts and taxes, it is neceſſary to make every national ſaving, the better to enable us to leſſen our weighty incumbrances. We can now have no excuſe for neglecting the production of every poſſible material in North America, ſince we have no body to oppoſe us, except the Savages, who will ſoon be reduced. See INDIAN AFFAIRS.

POTTERY, the art of making earthen pots, and other veſſels, or the manufacture of earthen ware.

The perfection of this art conſiſts chiefly in the choice of proper earth, and the right management thereof, ſo as to afford the moſt beautiful matter for veſſels.

REMARKS.

The delicacy of this art ſhould ſeem to depend, rather upon the peculiar preparation of certain kinds of earth, than upon the uſe of them as they are produced by nature: thus we find, that the Dreſden and the Chelſea porcelain exceed the ware of China, although it is allowed, that no part of the world produces earths ſo good for the purpoſe, as that of the eaſtern nations; and yet we do not find that any of the oriental earths are imported into Europe for the works of Dreſden, &c.—If this be the caſe, and Europe affords no earths that will naturally produce wares ſo beautiful as thoſe of the Eaſt; the Europeans who excel herein, muſt do that by art, which the Chineſe do chiefly by virtue of the natural excellency of ſome particular earths.

The end of this art is to produce a matter that will not vitrify and turn into glaſs by fire, and yet will be as beautiful and tranſparent, by proper management, almoſt as glaſs itſelf. Now nature affords divers materials, that ſeem to admit of theſe properties; as oyſter and cockle ſhells, and various other the ſhells of fiſh; which bid fair to anſwer this intent, by due calcination and purification, and by compoſition with other ſuitable materials. Pebbles, bones, pipe-clay, ſpars, and talc, and divers other foſſils, may, in ſome ſhapes be advantageouſly applied to ſeveral kinds of pottery wares: but the due preparation hereof, depends upon the philoſophical application of the active and paſſive principles of nature. By the active principles of nature, in this reſpect, we not only underſtand fire, air, and water, but ſome peculiar kind of foſſil productions; which will eaſily work a great change upon certain bodies, but the ſucceſs of ſuch things depends upon a ſeries of experiments, made with judgment, upon bodies that ſeem proper ſubjects, for the intention, with regard as well to the active, as to the paſſive natures.

For the improvement of the art of pottery many good hints may, perhaps, be derived from what we have ſaid, under the articles PORCELAIN, EARTH, CLAYS, BOLES, and FOSSILS in general; for many of thoſe things, judiciouſly prepared, will afford earthen wares, perhaps, little inferior to thoſe of China; and why we may not, one day, fall upon ſome compoſitions that will produce a porcelain, as cheap and as good as the Indian in general, we ſee no reaſon to deſpair of.

And if we can once obtain the fit materials for the purpoſe, our potters are already ſo expert in the art of moulding, and management of the fire, that there will be no obſtruction on that account to the improvement of the art of pottery in this kingdom to it's laſt perfection.

The art of glazing and painting on fine earthen ware.

Potters who paint with colours on earthen ware, may be ranged in the ſame claſs with painters upon glaſs, ſince they uſe almoſt the ſame materials, and, in many reſpects, the ſame method.

To prepare a white glazing.

Take of lead two pounds, tin one pound, calcine them to aſhes, and melt them together. Of this take two parts, calcined flint or pebble one part, ſalt one part; mix them well together, and melt them in a cake.

The Rotterdam fine ſhining white.

Take of clean tin aſhes two pounds, lead aſhes ten pounds, fine Venice glaſs two pounds, tartar half a pound, and melt them to a cake. Or,

Lead aſhes eight pounds, tin aſhes three pounds, fine clear calcined flint or pebble ſix pounds, ſalt four pounds, melt them into a cake. Or,

Calcine eight pounds of lead and four pounds of tin into aſhes; of theſe take one quart, ſalt and pebble of each one pound, and melt them into a cake.

Another fine white for earthen ware.

Calcine ſix pounds of lead, and three pounds of tin to aſhes; whereof take two parts, ſalt three parts, pebble or flint three parts, and melt them into a cake.

Another white.

Take eight pounds of lead, and four pounds of tin aſhes, among which mix ſix pounds of Venice glaſs and a handful of rock ſalt; melt them into a cake.

A Saltzburg white.

Take three parts of lead, ſix parts of tin; or ſix parts of lead, and three parts of tin, ſalt three parts, tartar one part, and pebble five parts, &c. Or,

Take five pounds of lead, one pound of tin, three pounds of flint, three pounds of ſalt, &c. Or,

Take ſix pounds of lead, one pound of tin; melt and burn them to aſhes, whereof take twelve ſpoonfuls, twelve of flint, and twelve of fine wood aſhes.

To lay a ground upon earthen ware, on which the white glaſs will better ſpread.

Take calcined tartar one pint, flint and ſalt of each one pint; mix them together, and uſe them for a layer or ground over your earthen wares, before you glaze them.

The right Dutch maſtirat for white porcelain.

Take calcined pebble, flint or ſand, 100 pounds, ſoda 40 pounds, wood aſhes 30 pounds. This mixture is by the Dutch called maſtirat; of this take 100 pounds, tin and lead aſhes together 80 pounds, common ſalt 10 pounds, and melt them three times in a cake.

The tin and lead aſhes are made of 100 pounds of lead, and 30 pounds of tin.

The common ware is thus glazed.

Take 40 pounds of clear ſand, 75 pounds of litharge or lead aſhes, 26 pounds of pot-aſhes, and ten pounds of ſalt; melt them three times into a cake, quenching it each time in clear cold water. Or,

Take clean ſand 50 pounds, lead aſhes 70 pounds, wood aſhes 30 pounds, ſalt 12 pounds; melt them to a cake.

With this mixture they glaze fine and coarſe ware and ſet it in an earthen glazing pan, which is round; the ware is ſet on them upon three cornered bars, that go through the like holes in the pan, and the ware is kept aſunder from touching one another.

The opening before, is only left in the figure to ſee how the wares ſtand, otherwiſe the pan muſt be entirely cloſed up.

Of ſeveral colours for potter's glazed-work.

A fine yellow.

Take red lead three pints, antimony and tin of each two pounds; melt into a cake; grind it fine, and melt it again. Repeat this ſeveral times, and you will have a good yellow. Or,

Take 15 parts of lead ore, three parts of litharge of ſilver, and 15 parts of ſand. Or,

Take eight parts of litharge, nine parts of calcined flint, one part antimony, and a little iron filings; calcine and melt them to a cake.

Fine citron yellow.

Take ſix parts of red lead, ſeven parts of fine red brick duſt, two parts of antimony; melt them to a cake.

A green colour.

Take eight parts of litharge, eight parts of Venice glaſs, four parts of braſs-duſt; melt them for uſe. Or,

Take ten parts of litharge, twelve parts of flint, or pebble, one part of æs uſtum, or copper-aſhes.

Blue colour.

Take lead-aſhes one pound; clear ſand, or pebble, ſalt two pounds; white calcined tartar, one pound; Venice, or other glaſs, 16 pounds; zaffer half a pound: mix them well together, and melt them; quench them in water, and melt them again; repeat this ſeveral times: but, if you will have it fine and good, it will be proper to put the mixture in a glaſs-houſe furnace for a day or two. Or,

Take litharge four pounds; clear ſand two pounds; zaffer one pound; calcine and melt it together.

Take 12 pounds of lead, one pound of tin, and one pound of zaffer, five pounds of ſand, and three pounds of ſalt, tartar and glaſs one pound; calcine and melt it into a cake. Or,

Take two pounds of litharge, a quarter of a pound of ſand, one pound of zaffer, and one pound of ſalt; melt them. Or,

One part of tartar, one part of lead-aſhes, one part of zaffer, one part of ſand, and two parts of ſalt; melt it as before.

A brown colour.

Take of common glaſs and manganeſe, or brown ſtone, of each one part, lead-glaſs twelve parts.

A fleſh colour.

Take twelve parts of lead-aſhes, and one of white glaſs.

Purple brown.

Take lead-aſhes 15 parts, clear ſand 18 parts, manganeſe one part, white glaſs 15 meaſures, and one meaſure of zaffer.

Iron grey.

Take 15 parts of lead-aſhes, 14 parts of white ſand, five parts of copper-aſhes, one of manganeſe, one of zaffer, and one of iron filings.

A black.

Take lead-aſhes 18 meaſures, iron-filings three, cooper-aſhes three, zaffer two meaſures; this, when melted, will-make a brown black; but if you would have it blacker, put ſome more zaffer to it.

Brown on white.

Manganeſe two parts, red-lead and white glaſs one part; melt them well together.

A fine red.

Take antimony two pounds, litharge three pounds, ruſt of iron calcined one pound; grind it to a fine powder.

To glaze with Venice glaſs.

When your ware is well dried, and ready to bake, ſtrike it all over with white-wine lees; then lay on the Venice glaſs (ground fine, and mixed with ſalt of tartar and litharge) and bake it as directed.

A green.

Take copper-duſt two parts, yellow glaſs two parts; melt them twice. Or,
Two parts of copper-filings, one of lead-aſhes, and one of white glaſs; melt them to a cake.

Yellow.

Menning three parts, brick-duſt two parts, lead-aſhes two parts, antimony two parts, ſand one part, of the above white glaſs one part, well calcined and melted. Or,
Red-lead four ounces, antimony two ounces; melt them to a cake.

Gold yellow.

Take of antimony, red-lead, and ſand, an equal quantity, and melt it to a cake.

A fine blue glaſs to paint with.

Take lead-aſhes one pound, clear ſand two pounds, ſalt two pounds, white calcined tartar one pound, flint-glaſs half a pound, zaffer half a pound; melt them together, and quench them in water; then melt them again, and repeat this ſeveral times.
Zaffer finely ground by itſelf makes good blue, to paint white glazed earthen ware.

A liver colour.

Take twelve parts of litharge, eight of ſalt, ſix of pebble, or flint, and one of manganeſe.

A ſea-green.

Take five pounds of lead-aſhes, one pound of tin-aſhes, three pounds of flint, three quarters of a pound of ſalt, half a pound of tartar, and half a pound of copper duſt.

To lay gold, ſilver, or copper, on earthen ware, ſo as to reſemble either of theſe metals.

Make an utenſil of fine potter's earth, form and ſhape it thin' neat, and ſilver-faſhion; then bake it, and, when baked' glaze it: but before you bake it again, if you will ſilver, gild, or copper it, take a regulus of antimony, melt your metal with it, and beat it to a powder, grind it with water very fine, and glaze it therewith; then bake it, and, when done, the whole utenſil will look like ſilver; for, when it comes into the fire, the antimony evaporates, and leaves the ſilver, &c. behind. But if you will ſilver or gild it only for ornament-ſake, and keep it from any wet, then you may lay on the gold or ſilver leaves with brandy, and afterwards poliſh and finiſh it in the beſt manner, after the common method.

REMARK.

In regard to the glazing of the earthen or porcelain ware, on the inſides, we would, by all means, recommend to the workmen the leaving out of lead and it's litharge, acids diſſolving them, and their nature being inſalubrious and ſometimes poiſonous: and this we conceive, may be eaſily done, by proper experiments.

PRINTING, the art of taking impreſſions with ink, from certain types, or characters, upon paper, parchment, vellum, or the like matter.

It's ORIGIN and PROGRESS, eſpecially in EUROPE.

1. At Haerlem I obtained, ſays the judicious Mr Ellis, the ſight of the firſt book printed by Coſterus: it was not Donatus, as the Inſcriptiones Hollandicæ ſay; nor Virgil, nor Tully's Offices, as others have acquainted the world; but a Dutch piece of Theology, printed on one ſide only of the paper; and after this is a ſingle page of Latin, intitled, Liber Vitæ Alexandri Magni, which made ſome believe it to be Q. Curtius, but it is a monkiſh Latin of that time. This and the theology were printed in the year 1430; whereas the Inſcriptions, and ſome other authors, have told us, from Coſterus's picture, that printing was by him invented but anno 1440; but a picture of Coſterus before another Dutch piece (bound up in the ſame volume, and printed 1432) bears the date of 1430; under which picture is the inſcription mentioned by Mr Ray (only the date is ten years ſooner) and the tetraſtich which is tranſcribed by the author of the Inſcriptions, from an effigies of Coſterus, which was then extant in a garden at Haerlem, but is not now to be found.
2. What Mr Ellis ſays about the books printed at Haerlem by Laur. Coſter, agreeing ſo well with the account given by Theodore Schrevelius and others, leaves us little or no room to doubt (who muſt needs take it for granted, that his obſervation is accurate, and the dates to be true) whether the honour of the invention be due to this or the other cities, whoſe writers have ſo eagerly contended for it, ſince none of them have pretended to ſhew any book printed ſo ſoon as A. D. 1430, or 1432, or near that time. But the difficulty lies either in ſhewing why the practice of this art ſhould be at a ſtand from A. D. 1432, to the noted reviving of it at Mentz, by John Fuſt and Peter Schoeffer, who, as it has been vulgarly, but erroneouſly ſaid, did print the firſt printed book there, A. D. 1465, namely, Tully's Offices; or elſe, in giving any tolerable account of the progreſs of this invention during an interval of above 30 years.
Boxhornius (as I remember) as well as Schrevelius, and other authors, do expreſsly ſay (and, if they had not, it might well be imagined) that Coſter could not advance this invention ſo far as to print ſo large a work as the Speculum Salutis, without gradual improvements, and that his firſt eſſays were on looſe and ſmall leaves of paper, before he attempted whole books; theſe being looſe and ſingle, are ſuppoſed to be all loſt; but I once obſerved a looſe leaf of paper in octavo, lying in an old MS. breviary in her Majeſty's royal library at St James's which I then thought (and am ſtill of the ſame opinion) that it was one of Coſter's firſt pieces, done when he had attained to ſome experience in the art, and to get money. It is a little rude wooden cut, of the five wounds of our bleſſed Saviour, and the inſtruments of his paſſion, with a Latin inſcription at the bottom, to this purport, That thoſe who ſhould ſay ſo many Ave Maria's before it, ſhould have ſo many thouſand years of pardon. In this cut, or print, the ink which made it was writing-ink, and it was all black, without thoſe other colours with which Coſter ſeems afterwards to have adorned his books.
In the abovementioned Boxhornius's book de Origine Artis Typographicæ, it is ſaid, That Hadrianus Junius had a book printed by Coſter, and like that kept in the cheſt at Haerlem: now amongſt thoſe bequeathed to the Bodleian library at Oxford, by Mr Francis Junius (who was a kinſman of Hadrianus's) there is a thin book in ſmall folio (numbered 31) which may probably be the ſame, and which Mr Foſs, a learned and curious Daniſh gentleman, did aſſure me was very like to that of Haerlem. This contains the ſum of the hiſtory of the Old Teſtament, all repreſented in rude wooden cuts, coloured with divers colours without ſhadows, like to our cards (which, with ſheet-ballads, are remains of the old manner of printing) and ſtamped upon one ſide only; the white ſide of two leaves being paſted together, the black both in the pictures and inſcriptions, which ſhew the meaning of them, being writing-ink * (as the aforeſaid leaf) inartificially ſpread upon the wooden block, here thick, there thin, ſpreading and yellowiſh; the letters extremely rude, and altogether manifeſtly ſhewing that art was yet in it's infancy. The ſtamping of this book on one ſide only, was not (as ſome think) becauſe the printer did not know how to diſpoſe the pages in ſuch manner as might be proper and eaſy for the bookbinder's uſe, for it has it's ſignatures all along, in minuſcule letters (ſet in the middle of the page, which is remarkable) but becauſe it was thought that the paper would not bear a ſecond impreſſion on the backſide; juſt as the book-writers of thoſe times (when paper began to be cheap, and to be made up into books) would yet have the firſt and laſt leaf of each quarternio, ſenio, &c. to be of parchment,

* It is to be wiſhed that Mr Ellis, when he had Coſter's books in his hands, had obſerved whether the black ink was printing ink or not; whether Coſter's picture was ancient, and coloured or not; or if there were more in either of the books: whether the whole was cut upon wood, or compoſed with printing letters; whether there were ſignatures for the bookbinders, &c.

for

for ſtrength ſake. This book (as I remember) is imperfect, and has no date now appearing, and perhaps never had any; neither has ſuch another book as this, which contains the hiſtory of St John, and the Apocalypſe, in ſuch like wooden coloured pictures and inſcriptions: this is inſcribed LAUDE 65, in the ſame Bodleian library, and has it's ſignatures alſo in majuſcule letters (as indeed I have obſerved ſignatures in many MSS. of different ages, as high as a thouſand years ago, and upwards, expreſſed either by letters or numbers); this book, though printed on one ſide, and paſted as the former, is yet more elegant, and ſhews that the art was much improved.

And here it may not be impertinent to obſerve, that in the ſame library (Arch B. Bodl. 88.) is an antient MS. with the ſame figures and inſcriptions, though the habits of the figures be different, thoſe of the MS. being of the older faſhion; and it is very likely there is another copy of this book in the emperor's library at Vienna; for Lambecius, Comment. de Biblioth. Cæſ. lib. xi. page 772, reckons amongſt thoſe which he brought away from the archducal library at Inſpruck, a book of which he gives this account, Apocalypſis S. Joannis apoſtoli & evangeliſtæ, Latino-Germanica, chartacea in folio, una cum vita ipſius, & multis figuris ligno inciſis quæ propter vetuſtatem ſuam ſpectatu ſunt digniſſimæ; and in this book at Oxford, beſides the printed cuts, alſo a commentary upon the Apocalypſe, in High Dutch. Beſides theſe two moſt antient printed books, Mr Bagford told me, That in the manuſcript library of Corpus Chriſti, or Bennet College, in Cambridge, he ſaw a third, containing the hiſtory of our Saviour, printed on one ſide only of the paper, with ſuch like wooden cuts, but yet more neatly than either of the former which I had before ſhewn him at Oxford. And theſe three books being, as is aforeſaid, ſtamped but on one ſide of the leaf, the whole wrought or cut upon wood, not ſet or compoſed with printing-letters, and printed with writing-ink, do ſufficiently demonſtrate, that the art was as yet in it's infancy, and may, though they bear no workman's name, be very reaſonably aſcribed to Coſter, not only becauſe no body elſe lays claim to them, but becauſe, in divers circumſtances, they agree with the hiſtory of the man, and with what remains of his workmanſhip.

If it be aſked, Why Coſter did not ſet his name and the year to theſe books, as well as to that at Haerlem, mentioned by Mr Ellis? it may be anſwered, That Schrevelius tells us, that Coſter bound Fuſt abovementioned by oath of ſecrecy, and not to betray the art to any perſon whatſoever; wherein it is likely that his deſign was not ſo much to let the world think that he had a new way of multiplying the copy of a book much quicker than the quickeſt penman, but that he had deſigned to impoſe upon the world, by ſelling his printed books for new written copies, whereby the book-writer and illuminator muſt (as he might well pretend) be ſo paid for their work as to maintain themſelves and families. This trick might be long undiſcovered in and about Haerlem, becauſe there was no other printing whereby this might be condemned; but at length, as Boxhornius and Schrevelius write, Fuſt ran away with all his maſter's tools and materials, and, in proceſs of time, ſet up a printer's ſhop at Mentz, being aſſiſted by his ſervant Peter Schoeffer (a young man of a good genius) who afterwards married his daughter, and became his partner in the buſineſs.

The ſtory goes, that this John Fuſt went to Paris (but whether before or after his ſettling at Mentz I cannot tell) and that he there offered a great number of printed Bibles to ſale, as if they were manuſcripts. But the French were not to be ſo caught; they conſidered the number of theſe books, and their exact conformity to one another throughout the whole, to a line, a word, a letter, a point, and that the beſt of book-writers could not be thus exact; and, therefore, by indicting him of diabolical magic (or threatning him with it) they at once gave birth to the ſtory of Dr Fauſtus, and cauſed him to diſcover the art. And I doubt not but about this time very many books were printed and ſold for manuſcripts, I have ſeen divers ſuch books without dates, which looked rather older than any I have ſeen with them. I ſpeak now of thoſe that are ſet, or compoſed of letters, which, with printing-ink of lamp-black and oil, and the printing-preſs, is ſaid to be the improvement of Schoeffer abovementioned, though Schrevelius, with leſs reaſon, aſcribes the two former to his countryman Coſter.

When Fuſt and Schoeffer began firſt to work at Mentz is uncertain; but the firſt mention I find of him, as a printer at Mentz, is in Schrevelius, Haerlem, p. 272. where he ſays, That this Fuſt (or Fauſtus as he calls him) publiſhed Alexandri Doctrinale, cum Petri Hiſpani tractatibus, A. D. 1442; but this, and ſome other books mentioned by writers on this ſubject, are never ſaid to be extant in any particular place, in order to be conſulted upon occaſion, and, therefore their titles and dates are not ſo much to be relied upon. But another date, which, though not ſo old, is more authentic, may be found in the above-cited book of Lambecius, p. 989, where he ſays, he brought away from Inſpruck, amongſt other choice volumes, and placed in the imperial library at Vienna, a Pſalter printed upon parchment, with this inſcription at the end: Præſens Pſalmorum codex venuſtate capitalium decoratus, rubricationibuſque ſufficientur diſtinctus, ad inventione artificioſa imprendi ac charecterizandi, abſque calami ulla exaratione ſic effugiatus, & ad Euſebiam Dei induſtria eſt conſummatus per Johannem Fuſt, civem Moguntium, & Petrum Schoeffer, de Gernzheim, Anno. Dom. Milleſimo CCCCLVII. in vigilia Aſſumptionis. From this time there are conſtant remains of the induſtry of thoſe men; and I can mention more books printed by them than the Durandus (in the library of Baſil in Switzerland) printed (as a gentlemen who ſaw it told me) A. D. 1458. Joannes Joanuenſis's Catholicon (in her Majeſty's and the lord biſhop of Norwich's libraries) printed 1460; the Latin Bible of 1462, yet extant in the French king's library, and in divers monaſteries beyond the ſeas, and perhaps in England; the Tully's Offices, printed both in 1465 and 1466 (if both theſe be not the ſame edition, the laſt ſheet or leaf being compoſed afreſh): ſo on 'till Schoeffer worked for himſelf, after the death of Fuſt, and Schoeffer's poſterity after him.

I add alſo, that upon the firſt diſcovery of the art by Fuſt at Paris, or at his firſt ſettlement or public profeſſion of it at Mentz, it quickly ſpread over the beſt parts of Europe †, and was commonly uſed in other countries before it was known in England (notwithſtanding what ſome writers do affirm to the contrary) the firſt book that we pretend to have been printed here being Hierom (or rather Rufinus) on the Creed, printed at Oxford, A. D. 1468.

† From theſe places, and from books, or parts of books, where, or wherein ſuch ſorts of letter were uſed, the printers do ſtill call their letter Italic, Roman, Engliſh, &c. auſtin, canon, pica, primer, brevier, &c.

To prove this in ſome meaſure (not to mention the progreſs of printing in other countries) I inſtance in Italy, and particularly Rome. Here, not to inſiſt on the large catalogue of printed books deſcribed in an epiſtle to pope Xyſtus IV. publiſhed at the beginning of the fifth tome of the Bible, printed, with Lyra's commentaries, at Rome, A. D. 1472, and tranſcribed by Boxhornius, I ſhall only relate the ſum of what I meet with in Bernard Montfaucon's Diarium Italicum, tom. i. p. 255, 256; it is, That Joannes Alericenſis, in a flattering epiſtle to pope Paul II. (who was elected A. D. 1464) congratulates him becauſe printing was firſt uſed at Rome under his pontificate: which, if ſpoken of the very firſt practiſe of the art at Rome, and not of an eſtabliſhed imprimery, ſeems to be falſe, becauſe this learned monk, in the ſame place, ſays he ſaw a Lactantius in the muſæum (or ſtudy) of Monſ. de la Thuliere, which has theſe words at the end: Lactantii firmiani inſtitutiones cauſæ in venerabili monaſterio Sublacenſi, anno 1461, antepenultima Octobris. Now unleſs a man will ſuppoſe printing to be invented in this monaſtery, he muſt believe it to be brought hither from Rome, which is but about 20 miles diſtant from it; and the ſame author ſays, That Floravantes Martinellus, in his Roma Sacra, affirms, that printing was practiſed at Rome, in the palace of the Maximi, A. D. 1455, under pope Nicolaus V. by Conrad Sweynheim and Arnold Parnartz, who were both Germans, and continued printers there for many years after.

The cuſtom of putting the dates of printed books at the end of them, was taken up in imitation of divers of the middle-aged and recenter manuſcripts (for I never ſaw or heard of any ancient manuſcript in capital letters, either Greek or Latin, which has a profeſſed date written in the firſt hand); but here the inſpector ought to be cautious, leſt he be led into an error, for ſeveral manuſcripts at the end have a date, which may be by ſome underſtood of the time when thoſe individual copies were written, when as they only notify the time when the author finiſhed his work; and ſome of theſe dates, being printed from the manuſcripts, have deceived many curious men: for example, the firſt edition of Lynwood, Paulus à Sancta Maria, and others which I could name; beſides ſome dates in ancient printed books, being not corrected are falſe: ſuch as a book printed in the beginning of the 16th century, in the library belonging to the Aſhmolæan muſæum at Oxford, which thus pretends to 400 or 500 years of age: Julius Hyginus, once ſhewed to me by Mr Millington the bookſeller, printed at Paris (as there put down) Ann. Dom. MCCCCXII, inſtead of MCCCCCXII; for the printer is mentioned as then living in L'Origne de l'Imprimerie de Paris. I have indeed a book, wherein, amongſt other tracts, is one of an old print, at the end of which there ſeems to be ſuch a miſtake, though not ſo eaſily rectified as the former: the words are theſe, Expliſcit opuſculum Enee Sylvii de duobus amantibus in civitate Leydenſi, Anno Domini Milleſimo CCCC quadrageſimo tertio Leien. Now though Leyden ſeems to be the place where it was printed, yet 1443 cannot be the time when: for juſt before Sylvius ſays himſelf, Vale, ex Vienna quinto nonas Julias Mo CCCC quadrageſimo quarto. Sylvius was elected pope by the name of Pius I. A. D. 1458, and died A. D. 1464: now it may ſeem probable, that, if this tract was printed after his election (as ſuppoſe A. D. 1463) or even after his deceaſe, his papal

papal dignity might have been remembered; if it be judged to have been printed before his election, I know of none that will allow of printing at Leyden (or even in Lyons) ſo very early.

One objection may be urged againſt what is ſaid of Coſter's or the old printed books abovementioned, being printed upon paper about A. D. 1430, or ſoon after: for ſome authors are of opinion, that paper made of linen rags was firſt made at Baſil, by ſome Greeks who fled out of their country after the ſackage of Conſtantinople, A. D. 1452, in imitation of the cotton paper, commonly uſed in the Levant. But this can have no force, our paper being much older: for I have a piece, the writing upon which ſeems to be about 350 years old, and agrees very well with a charter which I have ſeen of Thomas Beauchamp earl of Warwick, bearing date, A. D. 1358, and 32 Edward III. In the archives of the library belonging to the R. R. dean and chapter of Canterbury, I ſaw an inventory of the goods of Henry, prior of Chriſt's Church there, taken upon his deceaſe (as I remember) the 20th year of king Edward the IIId, and this is written upon paper in the Cottonian library, though ſearching after other matters, I could not but obſerve ſeveral writings upon our paper, in the time of moſt of our kings and queens, as high as the 15th of king Edward IIId. and I doubt not but there are others more antient in the ſame place. But in the Eaſt the uſe of cotton paper is much more ancient; and I have, in the Bodleian library, ſeen an Arabic manuſcript (amongſt thoſe which the univerſity bought out of Dr Huntingdon's) written in the 427th year of the Heigra, A. D. 1049; and others in the ſame place, without dates, ſeem older.

The proximity of the ſubject cauſes me here to take notice, that, though the invention of the rolling-preſs is commonly aſcribed to Lipſius, yet it ſeems older than his time, from a printed book in the Bodleian library, placed Laudi D. 138. this is a Miſſale ſecundum uſum eccleſiæ Herbipolenſis (i. e. Wurtzburgh in Germany): Rodolfus, archbiſhop of that church, ſets forth, in an inſtrument at the beginning of the book, the reaſons why he cauſed this Miſſal to be publiſhed, which inſtrument bears date the 8th of November, 1481; by which time he orders all the copies to be finiſhed by Jorius Ryſer, his printer, who ſeems to have done ſo, ſince his name, and this year 1481, is written at the end of the book.

Inſtead of a ſeal to this inſtrument, is an engraven print, being the arms of the ſee, ſupported by two angels, and St Kilian (it's firſt biſhop and protector) behind; as alſo this prelate's own arms, with thoſe of the ſee, in another eſcutcheon, and a very fine mantling. This is extremely well engraven for the time, and equals the performances of ſome of our beſt workmen at preſent. The evident marks of preſſure by the plate, with ſome touches of ink at the edges, the roughneſs of the print, and other circumſtances concurring, I thought this muſt needs be wrought off at the rolling-preſs: but being unwilling to rely too far upon my own judgment, I ſhewed it to divers very knowing and curious gentlemen, to ſeveral printers, engravers, and others working conſtantly at the rolling-preſs, who all concurred (though at different times, one not knowing what another had ſaid) that it was not only excellently well engraven (and this before Albert Durer's time) but that it was certainly pulled from the rolling-preſs, and could be done no other way. And that this print was not done after that time, appears from ſeveral notes written here and there in the book: one of them ſpecifies that William Keuſth, vicar of Bartholomew's church in Wurtzburgh, bought this book the ſame year 1481, paying 18 florins for the parchment, printing, rubrication, illumination, and binding. By another it appears, that he gave it to his church for ever; and by ſome others it appears, that it remained there during the time of his ſeveral ſucceſſors, 'till the laſt age, when, as I ſuppoſe, the Swedes under Guſtavus Adolphus, plundered the church, and brought it out.

3. The antiquity of printing, and the firſt inventors, having been treated of by many authors, I ſhall now only give a ſhort account of the obſervations I have made in many years, from old books of ſeveral ſorts and kinds. The general notion of moſt authors is, that we had the hint from the Chineſe; but I am not in the leaſt inclined to be of that opinion, for, at that time of day, we had no knowlege of them. I think we might more probably take it from the ancient Romans, their medals, ſeals, and the marks, or names, at the bottom of their ſacrificing-pots, which antiquities we had amongſt ourſelves in Europe, rather than fetch it ſo far.

But if it be certain, that cards are as old as our king Henry the VIth, nothing, that I have ſeen or conſidered of, ſeems to give ſo fair a hint for printing as the making of cards; as is evident by the firſt ſpecimen of printing at Haerlem, and by ſome books in the Bodleian library at Oxford, one in Junius's collection, another in archbiſhop Laud's, and a third in the ſame, being the lives of the Ruſſian ſaints, in a thin folio: the leaves are not paſted together, as the former two, but cut on wooden blocks, and illuminated. There is alſo another rare ſpecimen of the firſt, in that valuable collection of archbiſhop Parker, in Bennet college library at Cambridge, bound up with a MS. book. This was ſhewn me at firſt by Mr. Bullord, and differs very much from them at Oxford; it is the life of Chriſt, in figures, or rather the types, of the Old and New Teſtament. They have not ſo many ſpecimens of the firſt printing at Haerlem, as we have in England; and I am apt to believe, that, if ſome curious perſons had the liberty of looking over the libraries in both univerſities, and that of the Royal Society, there might be found other ſpecimens of the ancient printing, the aforementioned books being taken notice of but of late.

The cutting of the moulds or blocks for making our playing cards, is after the ſame manner as thoſe of the books printed at Haerlem. They lay a ſheet of moiſt or wet paper on the form or block, being firſt lightly bruſhed over with ink, made of lamp-black mixed with ſtarch and water; then they rub it off with a round liſt with their hand, which is done with great expedition: this is for picture or court cards: after which they paſte them together threefold, the coarſeſt in the middle. They colour them by the help of ſeveral patterns or ſtanefiles, as they call them; they are card-paper cut through with a penknife, for every colour, as red, &c. (for at the firſt printing the card has only a mere out-line:) theſe patterns are painted with oil-colours, to keep them from wearing out with the bruſhes; they lay it upon the picture, and by ſliding a bruſh that is full and looſe gently over the pattern, it fixes the colour into the cut holes, and leaves it on the print that is to be a card, and ſo goes through all the colours you ſee on cards; but this cannot be ſo well underſtood by a deſcription, as by ſeeing them perform it. This I humbly conceive to be their way of printing firſt at Haerlem, and thoſe books abovementioned. This, methinks, might have been conſidered before now, if they would have put themſelves to the trouble of inſpecting the old manuſcripts 900 years old; for the great letters are done by the illuminators, the ſame way as card-making.

The next form of printing at Haerlem was by cutting whole forms in wood from manuſcripts exactly written, and without pictures: ſuch I take the Donatus to be, mentioned in Hiſtories; and this might bear date in 1450, ſome ſay 1440. This may be as plainly demonſtrated as the former, from copy-books which we have ſeen printed at Rome, Venice, Switzerland, and England, as high as 1500; and, if I miſtake not, there is a block cut in box in the collection of the Muſæum of the Royal Society. This writing is harder to perform than either the Roman, Italic, or any other letters uſed in printed books.

The third way of printing was with ſingle types made of wood, but to whom the honour of the invention is due, is not very evident; it was then eſteemed ſo great a rarity, that the printers carried their letters in bags at their backs, and got money at great mens houſes, by printing the names of the family, epitaphs, ſongs, and other ſmall pamphlets.

The fourth improvement of this noble art, was the invention of ſingle types made of metal. Here we muſt entirely give the honour to Peter Schœffer of Grenſchen, ſervant, and afterwards ſon-in-law, to Fauſt, who entertained him to work in his houſe at Mentz: he obſerving how induſtrious his maſter was every day to improve this art, undertook it himſelf, and with much ſtudy and induſtry brought it to perfection. After he had made ſeveral eſſays, at laſt he ſhews it to his maſter Fauſt, who having tried ſome experiments with his new invented ſingle types, finding that it would anſwer his expectation, was ſo tranſported with joy, that, for his reward, he promiſed he ſhould marry his daughter, whoſe name was Chriſtian, which ſome time after he performed; and continued together improving this art with great ſecrecy, 'till it became known, and ſpread itſelf over all Europe. Sometimes you have their names to the books they printed at the end, and ſometimes not; ſometimes with dates as high as the year 1457, as the Pſalms printed by them, now in the emperor's library, which Lamberius mentions in his Bibliotheca, and as low as the year 1490; and for this we have the authority of Eraſmus, in a preface to Livy, printed at Baſil by Froben, in 1500.

As for John Guttenburgh, though by abundance of authors he is ſaid to be the firſt inventor of printing, we cannot find one book with his name and printing.

We may rationally conjecture, that printing with plates of pewter, braſs, or iron, either graved, or eat with aqua fortis, was firſt practiſed by the working goldſmiths; for they have a way of taking off the impreſſion of their work by the ſmoke of a lamp, which, perhaps, gave the hint to the graving on braſs. We have a dark ſtory of it in ſome authors.

Having treated of printing, to ſatisfy the curious, I ſhall ſay ſomething of the ſeveral advances and improvements it hath received.

The Haerlem printing at firſt was a book with pictures; they took off the impreſſion with a liſt coiled up, as the card-makers uſe the ſame to this day.

But when they came to uſe ſingle types, they made uſe of ſtronger paper, with vellum and parchment: then they made uſe of a preſs, although they afterwards contrived and made it more uſeful.

Neither was their ink for printing brought to the perfection it is at the firſt, but improved by degrees.

Rolling-preſs printing was not uſed in England, 'till king James I. and then brought from Antwerp by our induſtrious John Speed.

Now, as printing itſelf is but another way of writing, and brought to perfection by degrees, as other arts; and as pictures either painted, cut in wood, or graved, were called the laymens books, for every one could read a picture, and ſay this is an houſe, and that a tree; ſo I may ſay, that the pictures or drawings of the Antients, gave the firſt hint of printing: and if the ſcribes in proceſs of time, had not brought their art of writing into the decorum and uniformity, and rule in their ſeveral volumes, the printers could not have followed them ſo exactly in the imitation of their letters and pages of their books. Pictures firſt were thoſe of devotion; then the making of cards was another introduction to the invention of printing: the making of cards I take to be very ancient.

For the firſt ſpecimen of printing was on one ſide only, as that at Bennet College, moſt in figures, with ſome few words only on the ſide in labels, like that at Oxford.

The next ſtep is that book at Haerlem; the deſigns of the prints are better performed; and then they came to have not only lines, but whole pages of words, beſides the pictures on a page.

The next ſtep was ballad-printing, with the like pictures, and them but on one ſide.

The next improvement of this noble art, was the cutting of whole pages on wooden blocks or moulds, and printing on both ſides of the page; and the firſt ſpecimen of this nature was a Donatus, and, as authors ſay, was printed at Haerlem and at Mentz, although ſome ſay a Bible was printed the ſame way 1457.

Since arts and ſciences, eſpecially ſtatuary and ſculpture, were arrived at ſo great perfection, when the Roman empire was in it's glory, as the many beautiful ſtatues, the exquiſite intaglia's, and fine medals, which time hath handed down to us, do ſufficiently evince; it is much to be wondered at, that they never hit upon the method of printing books.

The dies they made for their coins, and the ſtamping them on the metal, was in reality printing on metal; their ſeals cut in cornelians and agates, and their preſſing them on dough and ſoft wax, was another ſort of printing; and a third ſort was their making their earthen veſſels, while the clay was ſoft, with the name of the potter, or the owner the veſſel was made for. Theſe being of a larger ſize, were properly called ſigna; the ſeals cut in ſtone were called ſigilla; ſigillum being a diminutive of ſignum, as tigillum is of tignum: but the later and more barbarous Latiniſts, have formed the diminutive of ſignum into ſignetum; and if a very ſmall pocket-ſeal, they have called it ſignaculum. *

* See Joh. Mich. Heinecius de Sigillis. Francof. 1709. fol. p. 16, & ſeq. Vol. IX. Part. IV.

Montfaucon, in his Antiquité expliquée, Tom. III. part 2. chap. 12. gives us the figures and deſcriptions of ſeveral of theſe larger ſigilla or ſigna, whereon he ſaith, the names were all cut in hollow in capital letters, Domini patronique nomen majuſculis literis inſculptum, which he expreſſes in French, imprimé en creux; and he imagines their uſe to have been to mark earthen veſſels, particularly thoſe great earthen jars, wherein the Romans uſed to keep their wines. If any of them had occured to him with the letters exciſæ, exſculptæ, protuberant or ſtanding out, as the types in our modern way of printing are made, ſo accurate a deſcriber of antiquities could not have paſſed ſuch an one over, without having mentioned it, and that the rather, becauſe of it's being a greater rarity: though ſeveral lumps of terra cocta are ſtamped with letters impreſſed or hollow, from ſuch protuberant letters as in the following deſcribed ſtamp, but the greater number have the letters raiſed, or ſtanding out.

The laſt ſort of ſtamps, where the letters are exſculptæ or protuberant, as is likewiſe the edge or border round the whole ſtamp, is made of the true ancient braſs, and is covered over with a green ſcale or coat, ſuch as is uſually ſeen on ancient medals. There was one found in or near Rome. On the back is faſtened a ring, whereof the hole is $\frac{27}{40}$ of an Engliſh inch one way, and $\frac{23}{40}$ the other way; the plate itſelf is two inches long, wanting $\frac{1}{40}$, and it's breadth exactly $\frac{33}{40}$ of an inch: the ſides are parallel to one another, and the ends are likewiſe parallel to each other, but they are not upon an exact ſquare with the ſides, varying about one degree and an half from an exact rectangle. On the under ſide ſtand two lines or rows of letters $\frac{7}{40}$ of an inch in height, and well formed Roman capitals: the faces of them ſtand up all upon an exact level with one another, and with the edge or border of the ſtamp; their protuberance or height above the ground is different, the ground being cut uneven; for cloſe to moſt of the letters the ground is cut away only $\frac{2}{40}$, cloſe to ſome near $\frac{3}{40}$, and cloſe to the edges full $\frac{3}{40}$. The firſt line contains theſe letters, CICAECILI, with a ſtop or leaf to fill up the line; in the ſecond line, HERMIAE SN. which is judged to be read Caii Julii Cæcilii, Hermiæ Signum. Who this Caius Julius Cæcilius was, we cannot find, he being probably a man in a private ſtation, and ſo his name hath not been handed down to us in any monuments, but only accidentally in this ſtamp. In Gruter occur two of the name of Hermias, and ſeveral of the Cæcilii, but none with theſe two names joined together.

The uſe of this ſtamp ſeems to have been for the ſignature of the above-mentioned private man, to ſave him the trouble of writing his name, as ſome people have now a-days. It was certainly uſed on paper or membranes, being firſt dipped into ink, or ſome ſort of paint, becauſe of the protuberance of the letters, the hollow letters being fitter for ſoft ſubſtances, on which they leave the impreſſion ſtanding up, and conſequently more eligible. Another argument that this ſtamp was not to be uſed on any ſoft ſubſtance, into which it might be preſſed quite down to the ground, is the unevenneſs and roughneſs with which the ground is finiſhed; which, was it to have made part of the impreſſion, the workman would have finiſhed it with more accuracy; but he, knowing that the ſurface of the letters was to perform the whole work required, was only attentive to finiſh them with that accurate evenneſs that theſe have.

Mr Mattaire, in his Annales Typographici, Hægæ 1719, in 4to, p. 4. concludes from the beſt authors, that our modern art of printing was firſt thought of about the year 1440. A copy of the book he mentions, ib. p. 13. called Speculum noſtræ ſalutis, being pictures of ſtories out of the Bible, with the verſes underneath in Dutch, is to be ſeen in the Stadthouſe at Haerlem. Each page was printed from a block of wood, like a ſorry wooden cut; and this was the firſt eſſay of printing, which hint was taken from engraving, and is what he means, p. 4. by typi fixi; after which they ſoon improved to uſe ſeparate types, as we now do, which he terms, ibid. typi mobiles. This ſtamp is, in reality, a ſmall frame of fixed types and prints, with our modern printer's ink, which is only a ſort of black paint, as readily as any ſet of letters, cut in the rude manner theſe are, can be expected to perform.

By the foregoing deſcribed ſtamp of two lines, we may ſee that the very eſſence of printing was known to the Romans, and they had nothing to do but to have made a ſtamp with lines three or four times as long, and containing twenty inſtead of two lines, to have formed a frame of types that would have printed a whole page, as well as Coſter's wooden blocks, which he uſed in printing the Speculum Salutis, which we have in his hiſtory.

In the firſt volume of a Collection of ſeveral pieces of Mr John Toland, printed London 1726, in 8vo, p. 297. is a ſmall tract of his, entituled, Conjectura veroſimilis de primæ Typographiæ Inventione, which is founded upon the following paſſage in Cicero, in cap. 20. lib. ii. De Natura Deorum; where Balbus the Stoic uſes the following words in an argument againſt Velleius an Epicurean.

Hic ego non miror eſſe aliquem, qui ſibi perſuadeat, corpora quædam ſolida atque individua vi & gravitate ferri; mundumque effici ornatiſſimum & pulcherrimum, ex eorum concurſione fortuita? Hoc qui exiſtimet fieri potuiſſe, non intelligo cur non idem putet, ſi innumerabiles unius & viginti formæ literarum (vel aureæ vel quales libet) aliquo conjiciantur; poſſe ex his in terram excuſſis annales Ennii, ut deinceps legi poſſint, effici; quod neſcio anne in uno quidem verſu poſſit tantum valere fortuna.

He conjectures, that this very paſſage gave the firſt hint to the inventors of printing, about the year 1445, becauſe they retained even Cicero's name for their types, calling them formæ literarum, and made them of metal, as he ſays, aureæ vel quales libet. Moreover, in cap. 10. lib. iii. De Divinatione, Cicero hath the very phraſe imprimere literas.

Brands for making cattle were in uſe in Virgil's time, Georg. lib. iii. ver. 158. where he ſays,

Continuoque notas, & nomina gentis inurunt.

Procopius, in his Hiſtoria Arcana, ſays, the emperor Juſtinus, not being able to write his name, had a thin ſmooth piece of board, through which were cut holes in form of the four letters JUST. which, laid on the paper, ſerved to direct the point of his pen; which being dipped in red ink, and put in his hand, his hand was guided by another. Poſſibly this may likewiſe have given the hint to the firſt of our card-makers, who paint their cards in the ſame manner, by plates of pewter or copper, or only paſteboards, with ſlits in them in form of the figures that are to be painted on the cards.

The advantage of printing above writing, has prevailed with the Grand Seignor to permit a printing-preſs to be ſet up at Conſtantinople. It was obtained upon a memorial preſented to him by the Grand Vizier, with the conſent of the Mufti: the privilege was firſt granted to Zaid, the ſon of Mehemet Effendi, ambaſſador in France, above 20 years ſince, and Ibrahim Mutaſarrica, the author of a ſmall tract. The licence extended to the printing all ſorts of books written in the oriental languages, except ſuch as treated of the Mahomedan

medan religion: this book ſeems to be one of the firſt that ever was printed there. For, though Gianhauri's Arabic Dictionary tranſlated into Turkiſh, was what the Turks deſigned, for particular reaſons, to begin withal, yet the manuſcript from which they printed off the firſt ſheets, was found to be ſo incorrect, that the Grand Seignor ordered the printing of it to be ſtopt, 'till a more correct copy could be procured.

During this ſtop, the book I am to give a brief account of was printed, containing about 150 leaves. The language of it is not Arabic, as was ſuppoſed, but Turkiſh, though it has ſeveral words and ſome ſentences that are ſo.

The title, or what may ſerve as ſuch, is TUHHFAT ILKIBAR, or, A PRESENT TO THE GREAT, containing an account of ſeveral engagements at ſea. The author is Hagi-Caliba, ſtiled Chelebi Almurhhum, i. e. A gentleman who has obtained mercy or deceaſed. It conſiſts of two tracts, a large, and a very ſmall one. The latter is done by the publiſher, Ibrahim Mutafarrica; Mutafarrica is a title of honour, ſignifying a horſe-ſoldier, obliged to go to the wars when the Grand Seignor goes in perſon, but not elſe. It is a ſhort account of geographical meaſures of diſtances, &c. particularly of the circumference of the earth. The principal treatiſe is partly hiſtorical, and partly geographical; the latter treats of the nature of the terreſtrial globe, the uſe of maps, and ſituation of places, particularly of Venice, Corfu, Albania, &c. and ſuch as border upon the Turkiſh dominions. The hiſtorical part is an account of ſeveral naval expeditions and battles between the Turks and Chriſtians, eſpecially during the Holy War in the Mediterranean Sea, with their conqueſt of the iſlands and places of note upon the ſea-coaſts. It is an abridgment of the hiſtory of their admirals, from the taking of Conſtantinople to the year 1653; gives a deſcription of the Grand Seignor's arſenal at the Porte, with the charges of maintaining it, and concludes with ſome directions to the Turkiſh officers.

Beſides a general map of the world, there are three others; one of the Mediterranean, or White Sea, as the Turks call it; another of the Archipelago, and the third of the Venetian Gulph: they have each ſcales of Turkiſh, French, and Italian miles annexed; but what is ſomething ſurprizing, theſe maps have the degrees of latitude, but not of longitude, marked upon the ſides. The laſt plate has two mariner's compaſſes, the one containing the Turkiſh names of the ſeveral points, the other, beſides the Turkiſh, has the Arabic names, which are taken from certain ſtars ſuppoſed to riſe and ſet upon or near theſe points.

The book ends with words to this ſenſe: this treatiſe was done by the perſons employed in the buſineſs of printing, at the printing-houſe erected in the noble month of Dulkaadah, in the year 1141 (i. e. 1728) in the good city of Conſtantinople. May God, &c. I forgot to obſerve, it has the imprimature or commendations of a Turkiſh divine, and three effendies, prefixed; and at the end an index of the errata, with their emendations, in three pages. The whole is done upon ſhining or gummed paper, ſtamped with three creſcents in pale and an imperial crown, proper to the Turks.

Thoſe who would enter into the hiſtory of printing in England, may conſult the TYPOGRAPHICAL ANTIQUITIES: Being an Hiſtorical Account of Printing in England: With ſome Memoirs of the Antient Printers, &c. By the curious and judicious Mr Joſeph Ames, F. R. S. and Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries.

The method of printing with metallic types, is ſo well deſcribed by others, and ſo generally underſtood, that we ſhall not dwell upon this matter. The art, at preſent, is brought to as great perfection in England, as in any part of Europe.

PRINTING OF CALLICOE. See CALLICOE-PRINTING.

PRINTING FROM COPPER-PLATES.—The ink being duly prepared, they take a ſmall quantity of it on a rubber, made of linen rags, ſtrongly bound about one another; and therewith ſmeer the whole face of the plate, as it lies on a grate over a charcoal fire. The plate being ſufficiently inked, they firſt wipe it coarſely over with a foul rag, then with the palms of the hand; and to dry the hand, and forward the wiping, rub it from time to time on whiting, which is no advantage to the beauty of the work.

In cleanſing the plate well, yet without taking the ink out of the engraving, conſiſts a good part of the addeſs of the workmen. The French printers uſe no whiting, as being detrimental to the colour of the ink; nor do they lay the plate on the grate to warm, 'till after inking and wiping it.

The plate thus prepared, is laid on a thick paper, fitted upon the plank of the preſs: over the plate is laid the paper, firſt moiſtened to receive the impreſſion; and, over the paper, two or three folds of blanketing, ſmoothly laid.

Thus diſpoſed, the arms of the croſs are pulled; and, by that means, the plate, with it's furniture, paſſed through between the rollers; which pinching very ſtrongly, yet equably, preſſes the moiſtened paper into the ſtrokes of the engraving, whence it licks out the ink. See the articles ENGRAVING, DESIGN, and PAINTING.

Some works require being paſſed twice through the preſs, others only once, according as the graving is more or leſs deep, or the greater or leſs degree of blackneſs the print is required to have.

It muſt be obſerved, that the ſtronger and thicker the ink is, the ſtronger muſt the rollers pinch the plate: this tempts many of the workmen to uſe a thinner oil, in order to ſave labour; which proves prejudicial to the impreſſion.

The wetting of the paper ought to be done two or three days before printing it, to render it the more ſupple and mellow: as the prints are drawn off, they are hung up to dry.

After the number of prints deſired have been wrought off from the plate, they rub it over with olive oil, to prevent it's ruſting, and ſet it by againſt a new impreſſion. If the ſtrokes of the graving be perceived full of ink, hardened therein in the courſe of the printing, they boil it well in lye, before the oil be applied.

Plain inſtructions for limning and colouring prints, maps, &c. with water colours

Of the colours generally uſed in that art.

For White, uſe,	1 White lead.	Yellow	1 Yellow oaker.
	2 Flake white.		2 Maſticot.
	3 Muſſel ſilver.		3 Pale maſticot.
Blue	1 Indigo.		4 Dutch pink.
	2 Blue lake.		5 Gamboge.
	3 Blue verditer.		6 Naples yellow.
	4 Smalt.		7 Shell gold.
	5 Ultramarine.	Brown	1 Brown oaker.
	6 Latinus.		2 Chimney ſoot of a wood fire.
	7 Pruſſian blue.		3 Cologne earth.
Red	1 Vermillion.		4 Umber.
	2 Red led.	Black	1 Lamp black.
	3 Red oaker.		2 Ivory black.
	4 Lake.		3 Sea-coal black.
	5 Carmine.		4 Indian ink.
Green	1 Sap green.		
	2 Verdigreaſe.		
	3 Terra verde.		

Out of theſe colours you may temper all the reſt which your work may require.

Some colours are to be waſhed and ground; as for inſtance. 1. White lead. 2. Brown oaker. 3. Dutch pink. 4. Umber. 5. Cologne earth. 6. Ivory black.

Some are only to be waſhed, which are, 1. Red lead. 2. Maſticot. 3. Blue biſe. 4. Smalt. 5. Ultramarine. 6. Vermillion.

Others are only ſteeped in fair water; as, 1. Gamboge. 2. French yellow, to which you muſt add a little allum. 3. Sap green. 4. Blue lake. And 5. Latinus.

And others again are only ground, viz. 1. Flake white. 2. Indigo. 3. Lake. 4. Diſtilled Verdigreaſe.

Grind all your colours with fair water, on a hard ſtone, or on a piece of looking-glaſs, which fix with white pitch and roſin upon a flat board, having alſo a muller of that kind.

Of the colours (after you have ground them very fine) you may take as much as will ſerve your preſent occaſion, and temper them in a gallipot, or ſhell, with gum water, in which you have alſo diſſolved ſome ſugar-candy. You muſt obſerve, that colours which are very dry, require a ſtronger gum-water; in others it muſt be uſed very ſparingly.

If your colours will not ſtick, or the paper or print be greaſy, mix a very little ear-wax, or a little drop of fiſh or ox gall amongſt your colour; you may dry your fiſh or ox gall, and dilute it when you have occaſion for it, with a little brandy.

If your paper or print ſinks, then with clean ſize and a ſponge wipe it over, after you have faſtened the edges round upon a board, and let it dry.

You ſhould be provided always with phials, containing the following liquids, which are very neceſſary and uſeful in painting or colouring with water colours.

1. A phial with water, in which allum had been diſſolved. This you uſe in wiping over the table, parchment, or paper, before you begin to lay on your colours; it will cauſe them to lay ſmooth, and with greater a luſtre.

2. A phial with lime-water; you diſſolve or ſlacken ſome quick lime with fair water, then take the water from off the ſettled lime, and put it up for ſervice; this is of great uſe in tempering of ſap green and litmus, which colours being apt to turn yellow, are preſerved thereby.

3. Gum-water is made of gum-arabic diſſolved in fair water; if you add a little white ſugar-candy to it, that will keep the colours from cracking, and flying off the parchment or paper.

4. Ox gall, or the gall of eels, boiled up in a little water, and ſcummed, then put up in a phial; this is of great uſe in painting of water colours, where the parchment or paper happens to be greaſy, by only touching the point of your pencil, to touch it therewith, and to temper it with your colour.

5. White

5. White wine vinegar; this is of uſe in grinding of diſtilled verdigreaſe, as preſerving that colour from changing upon the yellow.
6. A little phial of ſpirit of hartſhorn, a little drop whereof, mixed among the carmine, adds to the beauty thereof.
You muſt chuſe pencils of ſeveral ſizes, agreeable to the work you are to uſe them for; as for laying on a ground, a ſky, or clouds, chuſe a larger ſize than thoſe that you uſe for drapery, trees, &c. wherein you muſt follow your own reaſon: thoſe pencils of which the hairs, after you have wetted them between your lips, and turned them upon your hand, keep cloſe together, are the beſt.

To paint or colour a clear ſky.

Take clear blue verditer, mixed with a little white: with this begin at the top of your landſkip or picture, and having laid on the blue for ſome ſpace, break it with a little lake or purple, working it with a clean pencil, one colour imperceptibly into another; apply more white and maſticot, in order to make it fainter and fainter towards the horizon, working all the while the colours imperceptibly one into another, from the horizon to the blue ſky; after which, you may lay ſome ſtronger ſtrokes of purple over the light, ſo as to make them appear like clouds at a diſtance.
For a fiery red ſky, uſe red lead, and a little white inſtead of the purple ſtreaks or clouds, working them, according to art, imperceptibly one into another.
Clouds you are to lay on with white and black, ſometimes mix a little purple therewith; but the beſt and ſureſt direction you can have, is from nature herſelf.

To lay a ground for walls of chambers, halls, &c.

You muſt uſe for a common wall, which is of reddiſh hue, brown, red, and white, and temper your colour according as it is old or new; ſhade it with brown or red, only mixed with a little biſtre or ſoot.
Other walls lay on with black and white, and ſhade it with the ſame colours; ſometimes mix a little purple with it, and then you ſhade it with black and lake.
For waniſcotting, that is embelliſhed with carved mouldings, and figures, you muſt uſe one colour, for both the plain and the carved work, ſhading and heightening it with judgment and care.
To paint a fore ground, in imitation of ſand or clay, lay on the darker parts with brown oaker; to what is in their diſtance, add a little white, and ſo on in proportion, ſhading it with brown oaker, and the ſtrong ſhades with ſoot.

Of carnation, or fleſh colour.

In carnation, or fleſh colour, uſe for young women and children flake white, burnt oaker, and a little vermillion; ſome add a little lake, but that muſt be but ſparingly: having laid on the colour for the carnation, you ſhade the lips, cheeks, chin, knees, and toes, with fine lake and vermillion, and the naked parts, with ſea-coal and a little lake, or brown red, or with brown oaker and lake, or elſe with Indian ink or lake; for a browniſh complexion, mix a little brown oaker among the carnation colour.
Some artiſts lay the dead colouring of the carnation for young women on with white; they ſhade it with paper black, and bring in the carnation colour where it is required.

The paper black is made in the following manner.

Take the paper in which the leaves of gold have lain, burn them quick one after another, and let them drop into a baſon of clean water; then take them out and grind them on a ſtone to a fine paſte, form it into little tents, and let it dry; when you uſe it, temper it with gum-water as you ſee meet.
For ancient people uſe vermillion, brown oaker, and white; ſhade it with biſtre and lake.
A dead corpſe of a young perſon, paint with flake white, brown oaker, and a little indigo, or ſea-coal, and ſhade it with biſtre or ſea-coal.
For an old dead corpſe, leave out the indigo, but ſhade it as before.
For dead bones, take white lead, mixed with a little biſtre or chimney ſoot, with which you ſhade and heighten it with white lead.
For the hair of young women and children, lay them with light oaker, ſhade them with deep oaker, and heighten them with maſticot and white.
Grey hair, lay on with black and white; ſhade them with black, and heighten them with white; and thus proceed in painting any other coloured hair.
Drops of blood, lay on with red lead, ſhade it behind, where the light falls, with carmine and lake.
Trees are laid on, ſome white, black, and biſtre, ſhaded with brown oaker, and heightened with the ſame colour, with more white in it. Thoſe that ſtand at a diſtance, are laid on with indigo blue, brown oaker and white, and ſhaded with indigo and brown oaker. Thoſe that are further diſtant lay on faint, and ſhadow them but ſlightly; which order you muſt obſerve in colouring of ſhips, houſes, and other buildings.
In thatched houſes, paint the thatch or ſtraw, when new, with Dutch pink, and ſhade it with brown oaker; and, to heighten the ſtraw, uſe maſticot and white. Old ſtraw, lay on with brown oaker, ſometimes mixed with black and white; heighten the ſtraw with brown oaker and white.
In colouring cities, caſtles, or ruins, you muſt obſerve nature, for no rules can well be given; however, to give a little light to a young practitioner, it muſt be obſerved, that thoſe houſes which lie neareſt the fore ground, are coloured with vermillion, white, and a little brown oaker, ſhading it with that and ſome biſtre; the heightenings are done with more vermillion, and more white.
Houſes further diſtant, are laid on with lake, and a little blue and white, ſhaded with blue and lake, and heightened with adding more white.
Such buildings as lie ſtill further, are laid on with a faint purple, and a little blue, ſhaded ſoftly with blue, and heightened with white; and the further they are off, the fainter and ſlighter muſt be your colour.
Flames and ſmoke, are laid on with a pale yellow; ſhade the ſmoke with paper black, or ſoot; the flames ſhade with red lead, or vermillion, and heighten them with Naples yellow.
In colouring of rocks, hills, &c. that are at a great diſtance, obſerve the ſame rule. Such as lay nearer the fore ground, you are to imitate according to nature. Trees that are upon the fore ground, you paint with ſeveral ſorts of greens, the better to diſtinguiſh one from the other; ſuch as are on diſtant hills, muſt be done with the ſame colour as the hills.

Of a fine collection of prints.

A collection of this kind may be divided into hiſtorical and moral ſubjects, the progreſs of arts, and mixed ſubjects.
The hiſtorical will contain the hiſtory of the world, according to it's ages, monarchies, and nations, repreſented by maps, battle-pieces, medals, ſtatues, baſs-reliefs, portraits, &c.
The moral part will comprehend emblems, devices, enigmas, of the religion, manners, and politics of different nations, with repreſentations of their virtues and vices.

Remark.

I have often thought that it would prove greatly ſerviceable to the cauſe of liberty and proteſtantiſm, if ſome of our beſt artiſts for deſign and engraving, would oblige the world with a ſett of curious prints, repreſenting the progreſs of Popery and Slavery, in all it's various lights. Nothing, we are inclined to think, could have a more general and happy tendency to diſcountenance, and indeed, in time, eradicate, if poſſible, thoſe deſtructive principles, from among mankind. The Papiſts we know, ſtudy every deluſive art to captivate, by their paintings and idolatrous images, the minds of the vulgar, and inſtigate them to become bigots in their cauſe: and will it not well become the Proteſtant intereſt, to baffle the wiles of ſuch deceivers, with artillery of the like univerſal power and prevalence? Certain I am, that ſomething of this kind, executed in a maſterly manner, would greatly contribute to root out of the minds of the maſs of the people, thoſe deteſtable notions, and not only ſtrengthen the Britiſh conſtitution in particular, both in Church and State, but tend to the univerſal propagation of the Proteſtant intereſt throughout the world.—Such prints would alſo be of great uſe among our Indian allies in North America, and give them, in general, a more lively idea of the happineſs which attends living in conſtant friendſhip with the friends to liberty, than with thoſe of ſlavery and arbitrary power.

The progreſs of arts, will take in the different ſtiles; by comparing the antique remains with the works of the Gothic ages, and of thoſe eminent maſters who have flouriſhed within theſe 250 years; in order to obſerve their original increaſe and declenſion, and their re-eſtabliſhment, to the degree of excellency to which they are now arrived.
The mixed ſubjects may contain volumes of portraits of celebrated perſonages, hunting-pieces, and groteſque ſubjects, &c.
In relation to the hiſtory of the world, the 1ſt, ſhould contain the account thereof, as given us in the Pentateuch.—The 2d, ought to be the ſequel of the ſacred hiſtory, as we find it in Joſhua, Judges, Kings, &c.—The 3d, the remainder of the hiſtory of the Old Teſtament, according to Eſdras, Tobit, &c.—The 4th, may exhibit an abridgment of nature, according to the antient poets and philoſophers.—The 5th, ſhould ſhew the fabulous hiſtory of the Heathen Deities.—The 6th, the hiſtory of the heroic times, the voyage of Argonauts, the war of Thebes, and alſo Ovid's Metamorphoſes; the wars of Troy, voyages of Eneas and Ulyſſes, with the laſt

laſt acts of the heroic ages.—The 7th, ſhould contain maps and actions of the firſt and ſecond monarchies of the Aſſyrians and Perſians, with other Aſiatic, Egyptian, and African hiſtories.—The 8th, the third monarchy of the Macedonians, comprehending the acts of Alexander the Great, and his ſucceſſors.—The 9th, the commencement of the 4th monarchy of the Romans; the reign of their 7 kings: under Numa Pompilius may be ranged, thoſe peices which relate to their religion, ſacrifices, ceremonies, and burials of the Romans: under Tullius Hoſtilius, every thing that relates to their militia: under Tarquinius Priſcus, whatever gives an idea of their habits, ornaments, magnificence and triumphs, with the pomp of their public ſpectacles, feaſts, and baths.—The 10th, may take in part of the tranſactions of the Roman republic, from the expulſion of their kings, under their conſuls and dictators, 'till the time of Julius Cæſar; to which ſhould be added, a collection of medals, and other monuments of the antient Roman families.—The 11th, may contain what we have of the reigns of their emperors, Julius Cæſar and Auguſtus.—The 12th, might ſhew the manner of the wars of the Greeks, Romans, and antient barbarians.

From the Chriſtian Æra, ſhould be ſhewn, 1. The ſubjects of the birth, life, and miracles of our Saviour, who appeared in the 42d year of the Roman Empire, under the reign of Auguſtus: alſo the death and ſufferings of Chriſt, and a collection of holy parables —2. The reigns of the emperors Tiberius, Caligula, and Claudius; under which will be included the hiſtory and purity of the infant Chriſtian Church.—3. What paſſed under Nero and his ſucceſſors, to the end of the reign of Trajan, with regard both to ſacred and profane hiſtory.—4. The hiſtory of the Dacian war, as repreſented in the column of Trajan.—5. The ages and reigns of the emperors, from Adrian to the government of Alexander, the ſon of Mammæa.—6. The emperors, from Alexander to the time of Conſtantine the Great.—7. The empire of Conſtantine and his children, to the end of Theodoſius's reign, which may be called the laſt period of the Roman grandeur; at the end of which volume ſhould be placed, the eccleſiaſtical geography of the partriarchates.—8. The diſſipation of the diviſion of the Roman Empire, which began to be uſurped by the barbarous nations in the times of Arcadius and Honorius, and ended in the Eaſt, by the taking of Conſtantinople, in the year 1453—9. The dreadful concluſion of the eaſtern affairs in Africa, by the conqueſts of Mahomed, and other Ottoman emperors, by the ſophies of Perſia, and the kams of Tartary.—10. Should be a ſeries of Mahommedan princes, and Egyptian ſultans; the cherifs of Morocco, and kings of Barbary: with which may be connected, a collection of hiſtorical pieces to this third part of the globe; the Aſſyrians, the kingdoms of Congo, and ſeveral others.—11. Should contain the habits and ornaments of the Chriſtian Greeks, and other ſubjects of the Grand Seignor, with thoſe of the Turks and Romans; of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations: alſo a collection of ſome cruelties, and executions.—12. Should be the commencement of the religious orders, which were inſtituted in the Eaſt; ſuch as thoſe of St Anthony, St Baſil, the Croſs-Bearers, the Jeromites, and the Carmelities.—13. Some hiſtorical pieces of the knights of Malta.—14. The inſtitution of the weſtern religious orders, as thoſe of St Auguſtin and St Bennet.—15. The different orders that have flouriſhed in the Eaſt, ſince St Bennet, to the time of St Dominic and St Francis; i. e. of the Carthuſians, Premonſtratenſes, of the Shady-Valley, the Mathurins, and of the order of the Ciſtercians.—16. The order of the Dominicans, and hiſtorical pieces of the Holy Roſary; a collection of the images of the Virgin Mary, held in veneration by Papiſts.—17. Whatever can give an idea of the life of St Francis, and of the moſt remarkable male and female ſaints, of his three orders: alſo a deſcription of his deſert of Aveſne.—18. Should be the ſequel of the order of St Francis, with ſome pieces relating to the order of the Capuchins.—19. Whatever relates to the religious confraternities that have aroſe in the Romiſh Church ſince St Francis and St Dominic, to the preſent time.—20. A collection of all the whimſical habits and ornaments of eccleſiaſtical perſons, and of the orders of monks and nuns.—21. The repreſentations of religious ceremonies, and of the magnificence of the court of Rome.—22. The ceremonies practiſed at the interment of Chriſtians, and of the ancient Pagans, and barbarous nations.—23. Public rejoicings, entries, triumphs, tournaments, fire-works, comedies, dances, and maſquerades.

1. Of the chronological hiſtory of the Papacy, divided into centuries, from the time of Leo III. to the preſent Pontificate.—2. The ſequel of the hiſtory of the Weſt, containing a deſcription of the modern city of Rome, it's churches, palaces, public buildings, villas, ornaments, and monuments of it's ancient grandeur.—3. Of the temporal ſtate of the Popes, as now within and out of Italy.—4. Of the ſovereign States of Italy, wherein ſhould be a collection of what chiefly relates to the Republics of Venice, Genoa, Lucca, Raguſa, and St Morino.—5. The ſequel of Italy, including the dominions of the kings of the Two Sicilies and Sardinia, the grand duke of Tuſcany, duke of Modena, and of the houſe of Auſtria, and other princes in Italy, and thoſe of New Spain; and all that relates to America.—6. The hiſtorical ſubjects relating to the kingdom of Old Spain.—7. Thoſe of the kingdom of Portugal.—8. Hiſtorical pieces relating to the houſe of Auſtria in the Low Countries.—9. The dominions of the king of Spain in Aſia; under which ſhould be comprized what relates to the Eaſt-Indies, China, Japan, India Proper, and the reſt of the Indian princes.—10. A collection of what concerns the republic of the United Provinces. 11. An hiſtorical collection of whatever regards the kingdoms of England and Ireland, to the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth.—12. What relates to the kingdom of Scotland, and to the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, ſince the union of thoſe crowns in the perſon of king James the VIth of Scotland, and Iſt of England, with a deſcription of this monarchy.—13. What regards the northern States, as Ruſſia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, and other northern countries.—14. Should contain the ſtate of the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, the archduchy of Auſtria, the county of Tirol, and other hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria.—15. Hiſtorical ſubjects concerning the emperors of Germany, from Conrad, duke of Franconia, who transferred the empire from the French to the Germans, to the late emperor.—16. What relates to the ſeveral electors of the empire, as well the eccleſiaſtical as ſecular.—17. What concerns the other German princes.—18. Of the free cities of the empire.—19. What relates to the Republics of Switzerland, Geneva, the Griſons, the principality of Neufchatel, and the other allies and ſubjects of the Switzers.—20. What concerns the duchies of Burgundy, Normandy, Lorrain, and Britany, before they were united to the French monarchy.—21. The antiquities of the Gauls, and portraits of their illuſtrious perſons, before the coming of the Franks, under their firſt king Pharamond.—22. What regards the hiſtory of the French, during the firſt race of their kings, after their arrival in Gaul, under the conduct of Pharamond.—23. What regards the ſecond race of their kings, from Pepin to Louis the Vth.—24. Should begin with the third race of their kings, and contain all materials that relates to them, from Hugh Caput, to the end of the reign of Charles the Fair, where the right line of the eldeſt branch ended.—25. What concerns their kings of the third race, from Philip of Valois, to the death of Louis XI.—The reigns of their kings Charles the VIIIth, Louis the XIIth, Francis the Iſt, and Henry the IId; and as by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian, Europe has been divided into the two families of Auſtria and Bourbon, to avoid confuſion, thoſe pieces relating to the foreign wars of the French, with the portraits of the eminent men who have been either their allies or enemies, may be put under the reigns of their kings.—26. May contain the reigns of their kings, Francis the IId, Charles the IXth, and Henry the IIId.—27. What relates to the order of the Holy Ghoſt, inſtituted by Henry the IIId: here may be added the names and arms of all the commanders and knights of the order, from it's firſt inſtitution to the laſt creation.—28. What relates to the reign of Henry the IVth —29. May contain the beginning of the reign of Louis XIII. his portrait, thoſe of the queen, the princes and princeſſes of the blood, with the arms and portraits of the cardinals, biſhops, and great officers of the crown.—30. The arms and portraits of diſtinguiſhed eccleſiaſtics, religious, and ſeculars, who lived during the reign of Louis the XIIIth; to which may be joined Vandyke's portraits.—31. Pieces of the magnificent ceremonies, rejoicings, and other feſtivals that paſſed in France, during the reign of Louis the XIIIth.—32. What paſſed of the ſame kind in foreign countries, in this reign.—33. Pieces repreſenting the warlike exploits of the French nation, from the beginning of the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the year 1629, when all the cautionary towns of the Proteſtants were reduced to his obedience.—34. The military actions that paſſed in Europe, from the time of Louis the XIIIth, to the rupture of the peace with Spain, in the year 1635.—35. The military actions of the treaty of peace at Treves, to the death of Louis the XIIIth.—36. May contain the habits and ornaments of the ancient and modern French, from the eſtabliſhment of that monarchy to the preſent time; to which may be added, thoſe of the conquered provinces, with the cries of Paris, Callot's beggars, and the rural ſports of the French.—37. A ſeries of the military actions during the reign of Louis the XIVth, the regency of the duke of Orleans, and the reign of Louis the XVth, now living.—38. A ſeries of the magnificent ceremonies, feſtivals, public rejoicings, fire-works, &c. during the ſame period.—39. Geographical deſcription of the French monarchy, as divided into provinces, parliaments, generalities, &c. to which may be added, charts of the coaſts, plans, or profiles, of the fortified towns and fortreſſes, of the principal churches, royal palaces, and public buildings, &c.—40. Maps of the States and Provinces, with plans, or profiles, of the principal towns and fortreſſes which have been added to the French monarchy, from the beginning of the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the preſent time.—[☞ This would convince all Europe of the ſtrides of the French to UNIVERSAL EMPIRE.]—See our article FRANCE.—41. Suitable repreſentations of the

unchangeable treachery and perfidiouſneſs of the French, in regard to treaties, down to the preſent times.—[See our article PLANTATIONS.]—42. Portraits of all the eminent men in the kingdom of France, either for arts or arms, ſince the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the preſent time; to which may be added, thoſe of Flanders and other countries.—43. Portraits of thoſe people who ought to be avoided; ſuch as the authors of different ſects of religion, of men noted for impiety or libertiniſm, &c. to which may be added, the repreſentations of monſters in the brute creation, by way of contraſt.—44. Portraits of ſaints and martyrs, and their perſecutors, with repreſentations of the various tortures inflicted on them, to the preſent time.

Pieces which illuſtrate the fine arts of painting, ſculpture, and engraving, and curious matters of antiquity, will compoſe many volumes.—The firſt may contain the origin of the art of painting, in the Egyptian hieroglyphics, ſome bas-relievo's, trophies, rings, cameo's, vaſes, urns, ornaments of architecture, ancient inſcriptions and epitaphs.—2. Pieces relating to the ancient Hebrews, with a collection of feſtivals, medals, and antique ſtatues.—3. May regard the two books of the marquis Juſtiniani's gallery, which are full of antique pieces, and the Trajan column, the moſt entire piece of antiquity extant.—4. May ſhew the decline of painting and ſculpture, during 1100 years, that the empire was on the decline, from Conſtantine to the end of the fifteenth century; which ſhould be compoſed of pieces in the Grecian, Egyptian, and Gothic ſtiles, taken from the old paintings, tombs, medals, ſeals, and tapeſtry.—5. May be the books intitled Roma Subterranea, filled with pieces in the decline of the empire, of the Gothic ſtile.—6. Should be the ſequel of the decay of arts, with ſeveral pieces from wooden plates, which ſhew the rudeneſs of their deſigns, ſince the invention of printing.—7. May be the origin of the art of engraving, about the year 1490, containing pieces of the moſt ancient artiſts; as of Iſrael and Martin Tederco, the maſter of Albert Durer; of Daniel and Jerom Hopfer, and others.—8. The works of Albert Durer, the reſtorer of painting, and great perfecter of engraving, in Germany and the Low-Countries, about the year 1520.—9. A ſequel for the works of the German and the Low-Country maſters, containing pieces of Lucas of Leyden.—10. May be filled with pieces engraven on wood, done in Germany ſince 1500, to this time, as well by Lucus Cranis, Jacob Pens, Holbeins, Hans Schanflig, as others.—11. May be a ſeries for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing pieces of the leſſer maſters, ſuch as George Pentz, Aldegraef, Lebalde, John D'Hiſpanien, &c.—12. Should be compoſed of the works of Francis Flora, who is called the Flemiſh Raphael, and thoſe of Martin Hemſkirk.—13. A ſequel for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing ſome pieces of Lambert Serave, Lambert Lambard; of Peter Brughel, John Mabuſe, M. Quintin, George Behan, Gilles Maſſart, and Gilles Coignet; of Otho Venius, Cornelius Cort, and Theodore Bernard, of Amſterdam; of Francis Klein, a Dane, and of John Strada.—14. Should be ſtill a ſequel for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing ſome pieces of Charles Mander and Francis Pourbus, of Diterlin, and Lambert Lenoir, H. Utouch, Denis Calvaert, Abraham Janſſens; of Paul Morelſer, Nicholas Hoey, Geldorp, Goltzius, Joſhua of Monpre, John Hæfnaghel, Gerard of Groningen, Cornelius Vanſichem, John Bol, David Van Boons, and Peter Vander Borcht.—15. Should contain ſome of the works of Henry Hubert, and James Julius Goltzius.—16. The works of William and Criſpin de Pas of Magdalen and Barbara de Pas, and of ſeveral others of that name.—17. A ſuit for Germany and the Low-Countries, compriſing ſome of the works of Nicholas le Bruyn, of Theodore de Bry, and of James de Gehin.—18. The works of John, Raphael, Juſtus, and Gilles Sadalaer, and alſo thoſe of Martin de Vas.—19. A ſuit for Germany and the Low-Countries, and to contain ſome pieces of Anthony and Jerom Wierx, of Lucas Veſterman, Valder, John Saenredam; of John and Herman Muller, James Mathan, Simon Phrygius, Bartholemew Dolende of Mireuelt, and the Balſwert's; of Michael Synders, Baptiſt Urintz, Hans Bel, Peter and Gerard de Sade; of Aſſuerus Londerſeel, and of Adrian Collaert.—20. Another ſuit of maſters that flouriſhed in Germany and the Low-Countries, in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, viz. of Joſeph Heintz, John of Vingth, John Abhac, John Rottenhamer; of M. Kager, Peter Candide, and Dominic Cuſtos; of Chriſtopher Schuvarts, John Speccard, and Gerard Seghers; of Bartholomew Sprangers, Abraham Bloemaert, Anthony Van Dyck; of Abraham Brower, Gerard Hontherſt, James Jordeans, and of Robert prince Palatine.—21. Should be the works of Sir Peter Paul Rubens, a famous painter of the Low-Countries.—22. The repreſentations of night, and other dark gloomy pieces, of various maſters of all nations: as of L. Genth, J. Velde, Wittembrouck, Rembrant, Vamuliet, and others.—23. A collection of divers landſkips, done by maſters of different nations; that is to ſay, of Paul and Matthew Bril, of the Sadalaers, Peter Stephano, Cornelius Corneli, Roeland Savery of Monperche, Claude of Lorrain; of Fouquieres, Perelles; of Frederic Scalberge, Som, and the Nains, and ſeveral others; to which may be added, the pieces of ruins of Henry of Cleves, Michael Colyns, and Newland; with ſome ſea-pieces and maritime proſpects.—24. Should be another ſuit of different landſkips, viz. by Peter and John Brughel, Londerſeel, J. Velde, Tobit Verdach, Vanderloons, Merian, and others.—25. In order to ſee the re-eſtabliſhment of the art of ſculpture and engraving, ſhould contain ſome pieces of the firſt painters and engravers, as of Anthony Pollarolo, Andrew and Benedict Montegna; of Dominic Campagnola, John of Breſia, and James of Verona; as alſo of ſeveral ancient engravers, whoſe pieces are only known by their marks: as the maſters of the name of Jeſus, Mercury, the crab-fiſh, the bird, the ſtar, and ſeveral others; to which may be added ſome pieces of the firſt Italian painters, as of Giotto, Chirlandaio, or Hercules of Ferrara; of Peter of Perugia, the maſter of Raphael, and of Giorgine, the maſter of Titian. 26. Should be a ſuit of the Italian maſters, containing only ſome of the works of Raphael of Urbin, and thoſe engraven only by Mark Antonio, and Auguſtine of Venice.—27. A ſuit of the works of Raphael, engraved by the ancient maſters, from 1530 to 1560; that is to ſay, by Julius Bonaſone, Sylveſter, and Mark of Ravenna, Beatrix of Lorrain, and others.—28. Should contain ſome pieces of Michael Angelo.—29. Another ſuit of the works of the Italian maſters, containing ſome pieces of Anthony of Correggio, Francis Matzuolo, ſirnamed Parmigiano, and Polydore of Caravagio.—30. The works of Titian.—31. Should contain the works of Julio Romano, the Caracci, and Perin del Vaga, engraved by John B. of Mantua, and Diana his daughter, as alſo by Theodore Ghiſi, and George Julius of Mantua.—32. The works of the painters and ſculptors that were contemporaries of Raphael and Michael Angelo, to the end of the ſixteenth century, viz. of Baccio Bandinelle, the Salviati; of Balthazar of Peruzzi, Dominico Beccafumi; of Sodom of Sienna, Pordenone, Marcellus Venuſto, and Baptiſt, a monk of the order of Camaldoli.—33. Should contain ſome pieces of Thaddeus and Frederick Zucchero, of Daniel of Volaterra, Mark of Sienna, and Baptiſt del Moro.—34. Some pieces of Paul of Verona, Paul Farinate, the Baſſans; of Tintoret, Baptiſt Franco of Mutiano, and the elder and younger Palma.—35. Some pieces of thoſe who flouriſhed between the year 1550 and the end of the ſixteenth century, viz. of Æneas Vico, Martin Rota, and Reverdino; of Camillo Proccacini, Baptiſt Fontaner; of Cornelius Cort, Paſſaro, and Sebaſtian of Venice.—36. A ſuit of the works of the Italian engravers who flouriſhed towards the latter end of the ſixteenth, and the beginning of the ſeventeenth century; that is to ſay, of Cherubino Alberto, Villamena, of Raphael Shiaminoſa, and the Tomaſini.—37. Should contain the pieces of Francis Vanius, Ventura, Salembeni; of Civoli, Michael Angelo, Caravagio, and the three Caracci.—38. Should be a ſuit of the works of the Italian painters of the ſeventeenth century, viz. of the Capuchin friars, Piazzo, and Coſmo of Caſtel Franco; of Hippolitus Scarzelin of Schiavone, Cangiage Borgian, Charles of Venice, Paſqualin of Verona, Alexander Ceſalani, Bernard Caſtello, Veſpaſian Strada, Anaſtaſius Fontebuono, Francis of Virterbo, Luke Ciamberlani, Andrew of Ancona; of Anthony Pomerange, of Matthew and Frederic Greuter; of Philip of Naples, and Stephen Dellabella.—39. A ſuit alſo of the works of the painters and ſculptors that flouriſhed during the ſeventeenth century, viz. of Cavalier Joſepino, Guercino, Cirano, Francis the Fleming, and Marcel of Provence, the reſtorer of moſaic painting; of Gentilique, Valentin, Edward Fialetti; of Peter Beretino of Cortona, Dominichino and Guido Rheni.—40. Should be to ſhew the re-eſtabliſhment of painting in France, and contain ſome pieces of René, king of Sicily, of Leonard da Vinci, Andrew del Sarto, and Roſſo.—41. A ſuit of ſome of Primaticio's works, engraved by Leo of Aveſennes, and Anthony Jantus, his engravers; as alſo ſome pieces of Jeffrey of Montiers, Leonard of Limogues, Stephen of Loſne, René Boivin, Luke Penis, Dominic of Florence, and Leonard Thury.—42. May be filled with the works of John Courſin, John Genet, of Swiſs, of Little Bernard, Peter of Latour, Laurence the glazier, Juſtus of Egmont, and of ſeveral others engraved in France ſince the commencement of the ſixteenth century.—43. Should contain ſome pieces of thoſe maſters who flouriſhed at the latter end of the ſixteenth century, and during the reign of Henry the IVth and Mary of Medicis, viz. of Freminet de Breuil, Burnet, Caron, du Bois Lallemand, Thomas de Leu, Leonard Gaultier, and others.—44. The works of thoſe maſters who flouriſhed about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, that is to ſay, of James Blanchard, de Rabel, Ferdinand, Iſaias Fournier, John Lis Faber, and Mallerac; of Ruelle, Bellango, and James Callot.—45. Should alſo be compoſed of the works of James L'Homme, of Little Francis, Vanmol, Mellin, Queſnel, St Igny, Joſſelin, Rouſſellet, and Peter Brebiette.—46. May be filled with the works of the beſt French engravers, viz. Claudius Mellan, Gregory Huret, Peter Daret, Gilles Rouſſellet, Michael Laſne, and many others.—47. With the works of the moſt eminent French painters; that is to ſay, of Simon Voüet, Nicholas Pouſſin, James Stella, Champagne Bourbon,

Bourdon, de la Hire, Vignen, Loir, Charles de Brun, and Peter Mignard, engraved by the beſt maſters.—48. May be filled with the fineſt pieces of the moſt celebrated engravers of the ſeventeenth century.—49, 50, &c. may contain a collection of pieces of different maſters of all narions, who have been either omitted or forgotten in the preceding account, or have flouriſhed ſince the end of the ſeventeenth century, as well as of others now living, whoſe names we ſhall not ſpecify, having an equal veneration for them all.

The ſubjects of morality will alſo form ſeveral volumes, viz. 1. May contain ſome emblems of the Chriſtian worſhip.—2. May be the repreſentations of the virtues and the vices, with their ſymbols.—3. A collection of different emblems, fables, and enigmas.—4. A collection of devices of popes, king's, prelates, princes, noblemen, and others.—5. May be compoſed of a collection of hiſtorical emblems, devices, and enigmas, relating to love and death.

The mixed ſubjects will compoſe ſome volumes, viz. 1. May be a collection of the remarkable women mentioned in the Old and New Teſtaments.—2. Of holy virgins, martyrs, female ſaints, beatified nuns, &c.—3, 4. May alſo be collections of Chriſtian empreſſes, queens, and illuſtrious women of different nations.—5. The repreſentations of Roman ladies, taken from the antique ſtatues, buſto's, bas-relievo's, &c.—6. A collection of the goddeſſes of the ancient pagans, with ſome illuſtrious Egyptian, Grecian, Aſiatic, Perſian and Mahometan ladies.—7. May be filled with the portraits of women, both ancient and modern, who were either imperfect, mad, or proſtitutes.—8. May comprehend a collection of all ſorts of hunting, fiſhing, and fowling-pieces; to which may be added, a collection of remarkable animals that are treated of in the aforeſaid pieces.—9. May be filled with a number of groteſque pieces; to which may be added, a collection of all ſorts of maſquerades.

Remarks.

Our principal reaſon for enumerating the preceding particulars is, with a view to give the reader a general idea how extenſive a ſubject the article of prints may be rendered, what ſcope there is for the genius of the greateſt artiſts, and how conſiderable a branch of trade is derivable therefrom. See our articles Design, Engraving, and Painting. For theſe reaſons, it is certainly good policy to give all reaſonable public encouragement to all our own ſubjects who ſhall excel herein, that the catalogue may be ſwelled as well with the names of Britons as of foreigners; for, in that caſe, we may become exporters as well of the productions of our own celebrated maſters, as importers of thoſe of other countries. Beſides, to excel in the refined arts in general, gives a reputation and dignity to a nation in all it's commercial concerns; and, indeed, where theſe arts do not flouriſh, commerce can never arrive to that height it will do in nations where they do, they being the foundation of multitudes of other dependent trades.

It is needleſs to ſay a word in favour of an art ſo apparently uſeful in other reſpects, it tending to communicate an univerſal knowlege of nature and hiſtory, men and things, in general, in the moſt familiar manner, and greatly to aid and aſſiſt the memory in the retention of what we may have read for the embelliſhment of the mind, and the improvement of the underſtanding.

The elegancies of life, to a polite and wealthy people, become neceſſaries; the very natural wants of a refined Briton and a ſavage Indian are not the ſame. Artificial deſires, by long habit, work themſelves into our conſtitution, and in the next generation become, as it were, innate. A new refinement creates a new deſire, as importunate as any of the immediate calls of nature, when we once perceive the gratification within the reach of a little more induſtry.

Hence a peculiar paſſion ariſes, uſeful, like all the reſt, under proper regulation, and productive of much ſocial good, ſerving both to excite our own induſtry and that of others, to carry the ſtandard of genius, and rational invention ſtill higher, and to find endleſs employment for an increaſing people. Luxury, if the name were not in ill repute, might be diſtinguiſhed into virtuous and vicious: ſo far as it partakes of invention, and diſcovers the application of the higher gifts of God in the creation, it is virtuous; and grows vicious only, when we are tempted by it to an abuſe of theſe improvements.

The lower branches of manufacture, wherein the price is paid chiefly to labour, contribute moſt to the increaſe of labouring hands. The trades of refinement are no ways comparable to theſe, for the number they employ. The arts of elegance are in next eſteem, wherein we are an age behind our neighbours; what theſe may want in merit, as to increaſe of numbers, they make up in that of wealth, the price of art riſing above labour, in proportion as genius is a ſcarcer commodity than ſtrength.

There is nothing incompatible in the arts of ingenuity and thoſe of labour; and all the plainer trades may be retained, notwithſtanding the higher arts are introduced, in which caſe we ſhould be both a richer and a greater people.

This art is the parent of many others: it is the parent of Design in general, and that is the great parent of numberleſs uſeful and elegant arts and trades. An academy for the fine arts under a royal charter has been long talked of in this nation, and why it ſhould be ſo long neglected is matter of concern.

In the liberal ſciences in the knowlege of nature, and the means of conveying it, we are not inferior to any other nation in Europe. He that deſigns, as well as he that writes, muſt find his advantage in this; ſince the learning of the hiſtorian, poet, and philoſopher, are as requiſite to the accompliſhed painter, as to him that is diſtinguiſhed by either of thoſe particular appellations. At leaſt, the painter cannot univerſally excel without a tincture of all thoſe ſciences, in which the profeſſors of literature are ſeverally and diſtinctly excellent.

But the greateſt pre-requiſite, the moſt eſſentially neceſſary of all qualifications, is ſkill in drawing. Without this, neither the genius nor learning of the deſigner, painter, or ſculptor, can be diſplayed to advantage. It is the ſine quâ non, after all other accompliſhments are obtained.

Monſieur de Voltaire obſerves, that the Italians, on the revival of the liberal arts and ſciences, gave them the name of Virtue. From this word was derived the term Virtuoſo, which has been accepted throughout Europe, and is of daily uſe in England. Should not this appellation intimate, to thoſe who aſſume it to themſelves, that the ſtudy of what is beautiful, in nature or art, ought to render them more virtuous than other men?

That theſe ſtudies have really ſuch a tendency, when not perverted to laſcivious or immoral purpoſes, is undeniable: and whether, when thus perverted, they ought to be ranked among the ornaments of life, I very much doubt. We are certain that the poets, artiſts, and philoſophers, who have acquired the higheſt ſeats in the temple of Fame, are not thoſe who proſtituted their genius or ſkill to the gratification of the ſenſual and culpable paſſions.

The painter, the ſculptor, the architect, (who, with the muſician, are properly diſtinguiſhed from other artiſts by the epithet liberal added to their profeſſions) have ſo near an affinity with the poet, the philoſopher, the orator, and the geometrician, that there needs no apology for the frequent parallel we have made betwixt them. A noble and admired author, no leſs an one than the earl of Shafteſbury, has done the ſame; and whilſt he preſers the artiſt of genius, to the mere ſcholar by profeſſion, gives ſuch reaſons for it, as I ſhould do myſelf an injury not to tranſcribe.

'Hardly can I forbear, ſays his lordſhip, making ſome apology for my preſent recourſe to the rules of common artiſts, to the maſters of exerciſes, to the academies of painters, ſtatuaries, and the reſt of the virtuoſo tribe. But in this I am ſo fully ſatisfied I have reaſon on my ſide, that, let cuſtom be ever ſo ſtrong againſt me, I had rather repair to theſe inferior ſchools to ſearch for truth and nature, than to ſome other places, where higher arts and ſciences are profeſſed.

I am perſuaded that to be a virtuoſo (ſo far as befits a gentleman) is a higher ſtep towards the becoming a man of virtue and good ſenſe, than the being what in this age we call a ſcholar; for even mere nature itſelf in it's primitive ſimplicity, is a better guide to judgment, than improved ſophiſtry and pedantic learning. The faciunt, næ, intelligendo, ut nihil intelligunt, will be ever applied by men of diſcernment and free-thought to ſuch logic, ſuch principles, ſuch forms and rudiments of knowlege, as are eſtabliſhed in certain ſchools of literature and ſcience. The caſe is ſufficiently underſtood, even by thoſe who are unwilling to confeſs the truth of it. Effects betray their cauſes. And the known turn and figure of thoſe underſtandings, which ſpring from nurſeries of this kind, give a plain idea of what is judged on this occcaſion.

To imitate nature agreeably, is undoubtedly the perfection of art; but this can be done only by a good eye, which makes a beautiful choice among the objects that nature preſents.' This is well explained by the ſame noble author, whoſe thought, attentively conſidered, might reconcile thoſe who diſpute concerning the propriety and juſt extent of that imitation.

'A painter, ſays his lordſhip again, if he has any genius, underſtands the truth and unity of deſign; and knows he is even then unnatural, when he follows nature too cloſe, and ſtrictly copies life. For his art allows him not to bring all nature into his piece, but a part only. However, his piece, if it be beautiful and carries truth, muſt be a whole by itſelf, complete, independent, and withal, as great and comprehenſive as he can make it. So that particulars, on this occaſion, muſt yield to the general deſign, and all things be ſubſervient to that which is principal. In order to form a certain eaſineſs of ſight, a ſimple, clear, and united view, which would be broken and diſturbed by the expreſſion of any thing peculiar or diſtinct.'

An

An act for the encouragement of the arts of deſigning, engraving, and etching hiſtorical and other prints, by veſting the properties thereof in the inventors and engravers, during the time therein mentioned.

Whereas divers perſons have by their own genius, induſtry, pains, and expence, invented and engraved, or worked in mezzotinto, or chiaro oſcuro, ſets of hiſtorical and other prints, in hopes to have reaped the ſole benefit of their labours: and whereas printſellers, and other perſons have of late, without the conſent of the inventors, deſigners, and proprietors of ſuch prints, frequently taken the liberty of copying, engraving, and publiſhing, or cauſing to be copied, engraved, and publiſhed, baſe copies of ſuch works, deſigns, and prints, to the very great prejudice and detriment of the inventors, deſigners, and proprietors thereof; for remedy thereof, and for preventing ſuch practices for the future, may it pleaſe your Majeſty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the twenty-fourth day of June, which ſhall be in the year of our Lord 1735, every perſon who ſhall invent and deſign, engrave, etch, or work in mezzotinto, or chiaro oſcuro, or, from his own works and invention, ſhall cauſe to be deſigned and engraved, etched, or worked in mezzotinto or chiaro oſcuro, any hiſtorical or other print or prints, ſhall have the ſole right and liberty of printing and reprinting the ſame for the term of fourteen years, to commence from the day of the firſt publiſhing thereof; which ſhall be truly engraved with the name of the proprietor on each plate, and printed on every ſuch print or prints; and that if any printſeller, or other perſon whatſoever, from and after the ſaid 24th day of June, 1735, within the time limited by this act, ſhall engrave, etch, or work, as aforeſaid, or in any other manner copy and ſell, or cauſed to be engraved, etched, or copied and ſold, in the whole or in part, by varying, adding to, or diminiſhing from the main deſign, or ſhall print, reprint, or import for ſale, or cauſe to be printed, reprinted, or imported for ſale, any ſuch print or prints, or any parts thereof, without the conſent of the proprietor or proprietors thereof firſt had and obtained in writing, ſigned by him or them reſpectively, in the preſence of two or more credible witneſſes, or, knowing the ſame to be ſo printed or reprinted without the conſent of the proprietor or proprietors, ſhall publiſh, ſell, or expoſe to ſale, or otherwiſe, or in any other manner diſpoſe of, or cauſe to be publiſhed, ſold, or expoſed to ſale or otherwiſe, or in any other manner diſpoſed of, any ſuch print or prints, without ſuch conſent firſt had and obtained, as aforeſaid; then ſuch offender or offenders ſhall forfeit the plate or plates on which ſuch print or prints are or ſhall be copied, and all and every ſheet or ſheets (being part of, or whereon ſuch print or prints are or ſhall be ſo copied or printed) to the proprietor or proprietors of ſuch original print or prints, who ſhall forthwith deſtroy and damaſk the ſame; and further, that every ſuch offender or offenders ſhall forfeit 5s. for every print which ſhall be found in his, her, or their cuſtody, either printed or publiſhed, and expoſed to ſale, or otherwiſe diſpoſed of contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act; the one moiety thereof to the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety thereof to any perſon or perſons that ſhall ſue for the ſame, to be recovered in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in which no wager of law, eſſoign, privilege, or protection, or more than one imparlance ſhall be allowed.

Provided nevertheleſs, That it ſhall and may be lawful for any perſon or perſons, who ſhall hereafter purchaſe any plate or plates for printing from the original proprietors thereof, to print and reprint from the ſaid plates, without incurring any of the penalties in this act mentioned.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced or brought againſt any perſon or perſons whatſoever, for doing or cauſing to be done any thing in purſuance of this act; the ſame ſhall be brought within the ſpace of three months after ſo doing; and the defendant and defendants, in ſuch action or ſuit, ſhall or may plead the general iſſue, and give the ſpecial matter in evidence; and if upon ſuch action or ſuit a verdict ſhall be given for the defendant or defendants, or if the plaintiff or plaintiffs become nonſuited, or diſcontinue his, her, or their action or actions, then the defendant or defendants ſhall have and recover full coſts, for the recovery whereof he ſhall have the ſame remedy, as any other defendant or defendants in any other caſe hath or have by law.

Provided always, and be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced or brought againſt any perſon or perſons, for any offence committed againſt this act, the ſame ſhall be brought within the ſpace of three months after the diſcovery of every ſuch offence, and not afterwards; any thing in this act contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And whereas John Pine of London, engraver, doth propoſe to engrave and publiſh a ſet of prints copied from ſeveral pieces of tapeſtry in the houſe of lords, and his majeſty's wardrobe, and other drawings relating to the Spaniſh invaſion, in the year of our Lord 1588; be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That the ſaid John Pine ſhall be intitled to the benefit of this act, to all intents and purpoſes whatſoever, in the ſame manner as if the ſaid John Pine had been the inventor and deſigner of the ſaid prints.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that this act ſhall be deemed, adjudged, and taken to be a public act, and be judicially taken notice of as ſuch by all judges, juſtices, and other perſons whatſoever, without ſpecially pleading the ſame.

Remarks.

This act has given ſome little encouragement to thoſe artiſts, but is no way equivalent to the difficulties and diſcouragements under which they have long laboured, by printſellers and others, as I could inſtance, though it is apparent that they have manifeſted talents no way inferior to the artiſts of any other nation: ſo great is this merit, that they ſtand in need of nothing but the effectual patronage of the great to render them ſuperior to any other artiſts in all Europe. See the articles Engraving and Design.

PRISAGE and BUTLERAGE.

I. * Priſage is a certain taking or purveyance of wines to the king's uſe, out of every ſhip bringing in wines, belonging to the natives of England, except thoſe particularly hereafter exempted, being the only duty or cuſtom that was anciently payable for the ſame to the kings of England: † and that the king's butler might not take more than was really neceſſary for the king's uſe, the ſteward of the king's houſe, and treaſurer of the wardrobe, were to ſend the certain quantity to all the ports of England, the which he was to take within ten days.

* 40 Hen. III. 28 Edw. I. 6 Edw. III. 20 Rich. II.
† 20 Edw. III. cap. 21. 43 Edw. III. cap. 3.

This duty is not due 'till the unlading or breaking of bulk, for the words are, De qualibet nave importante vina & diſonerante inde, ſo that the breaking of bulk, or the landing of any part of the cargo, ſubjects the ſhip to the whole duty, according to the quantity on board, though there be not more than one ton landed; therefore, when there are any wines on board, deſigned for foreign parts, the maſter ſhould diſtinguiſh them in his report, from thoſe which are to be landed in England: and when priſage is taken at any one port, and the ſhip proceeds to another, the collector of that port ſhould be acquainted thereof, by noting it on the back of the maſter's report, which he is to carry with him, to prevent it's being taken again.

This duty is either ſingle or double.

Single priſage is one ton, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 10 tons, but is under 20 tons: for if under ten tons, there is not any priſage due.

Double priſage is two tons, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, twenty tons, which is the moſt due out of any one ſhip: one ton to be taken before the maſt, and the other behind the maſt, at the pleaſure of the king's butler or priſage-maſter; who may taſte the whole cargo, and chuſe the beſt wines, and fill up the veſſels, or chuſe thoſe that are the fulleſt, and take them away, allowing only * 20s. per ton for freight; or if the owners had rather, he may compound with them for the whole quantity at a certain price, as is the practice in London, and moſt other ports.

* 28 Edw. I. cap. 2.

But note, if any merchant brings in, to the quantity of above nine or nineteen tons, be it but a tierce or upwards, whereby to evade the payment of priſage, he is liable to the ſame, as if the full quantities of ten or twenty tons had been imported; or if any ſhip brings into the quantity of priſage at ſeveral times within the compaſs of the ſame vintage, this duty is due as if all thoſe quantities had been imported all together; or if any merchant enters any quantity of wines in ſeveral bottoms at the ſame time, or at ſeveral times within the compaſs of the ſame vintage, in the whole quantity amounting to priſage, the ſame is due, as if imported in one bottom, and at one time.

But king Edward III. by his charter, dated 6 Martii, anno regno primo, granted a diſcharge from priſage to the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, in hæc verba, quod de vinis civium, nulla priſa fiat, ſed perpetuo inde eſſent quieti, &c. which was afterwards allowed in the Exchequer. Though it is not every citizen that is capable of this exemption, but only thoſe that are reſident within the city, being freemen and houſekeepers, paying ſcot and lot; for he that would

would claim the benefit of this diſcharge, ought to be civis & incola commorans: for upon complaint that the lord mayor of London made ſtrangers citizens, it was declared by an act of the 4th of Henry VI. (a private act) that the diſcharge from priſage ſhould not extend to ſuch citizens as were donati, made free, but only to ſuch as commorant, incolant, and are reſident in the city: and not only the merchants of London, but alſo of the Cinque Ports, Southampton, and Cheſter, are exempted from priſage by particular charters; yet if an inhabitant of any other place, ſhould conſign wines to be delivered and landed at any of thoſe places, the bare diſcharge of the goods will not acquit the importer; for it is not the party's importation, but his domicil that exempts him.

II. * Butlerage is a duty of two ſhillings for every ton of wines, for which freight is to be paid, brought into this realm by merchant-ſtrangers; being a compoſition (in lieu of the duty of priſage payable in kind by Engliſh only, and from which ſtrangers were exempted) in conſideration of the liberties and freedoms firſt granted by king John, and afterwards by king Edward the Iſt, to all merchant-ſtrangers by theſe words, in a charter called † charta mercatoria; Conceſſerunt de quo libet doleo vini quod adducent, vel adduci facerent, infra regnum, &c. ſolvent nobis & hæredibus noſtris, nominæ cuſtumæ, duos ſolidos, &c.

* Book of Rates referred to by 12 Car. II. cap. 4.
† 31 Edw. I. cap. 1 & 2. 27 Edw. III. cap. 26.

With regard to thoſe duties of priſage and butlerage, it muſt be obſerved, That if * wines are entered in another man's name, in order to defraud the king of the duty, the penalty is double the value of the priſage, and all the offender's goods and chattels perſonal for ever, provided the proſecution be within three years: and that the † collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, are not to take any man's entry of wine, 'till he hath produced the butler's or his deputy's bill, teſtifying that he hath ſeen the ſame.

* 1 Hen. VIII. cap 5. §. 6, 7. 2 & 3 Edw. VI. cap. 22. §. 3, 4, 5. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6.
† In Rot. Scac. Term. Sanct. Hil.—7 Eliz.

And though by the * act of tonnage and poundage, a ſubſidy and additional duty were laid upon all ſorts of wines imported, yet as the priſage of wines, or priſe wines were exempted from thoſe duties, the duties of priſage and butlerage were ſtill continued and confirmed to be paid in like manner as before.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 15.
† 12 and 27 Rules of the Book of Rates.

Though priſage and butlerage (which were originally the only duties due upon the importation of wines) were taken and received for the proper uſe of the crown; yet for many years paſt, the kings of England have been pleaſed to grant the ſame to ſome nobleman, who by virtue of his patent or grant, is to enjoy the full benefit and advantage thereof, and may cauſe the ſame to be levied and collected in the ſame manner as the kings themſelves might, and were formerly wont to do, and under the ſame pains and penalties.

The patentee or proprietor of theſe duties, appoints a deputy in every port (uſually the collector of the cuſtoms) to levy and collect the ſame for him, in the beſt manner he can, by taking the priſage either in kind, or by making a compoſition, the latter whereof is the moſt uſual method.

And when priſage is compounded, it is by paying a certain rate per ton, according to agreement made with the priſage-maſter, for all the wines on board each ſhip, liable to this duty: but as there is a difference in favour of the priſage-maſter, between the cuſtoms and other duties due to the crown, which are to be paid by him and the merchant; ſo that if the merchant compounds, and enters the quantity for priſage, which, if taken in kind, muſt have been entred by the priſage-maſter, he will pay leſs duty to the king for the ſaid quantity; therefore, in this caſe, over and above the compoſition aforeſaid, ſuch difference in the duties muſt be allowed to the priſage-maſter, unleſs the compoſition be at ſuch an high rate as ſhall be equivalent.

Some law caſes relating thereto.

King Edward I. having laid ſome impoſitions on the merchants, which in the twenty-fifth year of his reign were taken away, with promiſe that neither he nor his ſucceſſors ſhould do the like, without aſſent of parliament, in the 31ſt year of that king they granted him an increaſe of cuſtoms: in lieu of which, he granted to ſome places divers immunities, as releaſe of priſage, &c. And king Edward III. by his charter, dated the 6th of March, in the firſt year of his reign, granted to the mayor, commonality, and citizens of London, that they ſhould be for ever diſcharged from priſage of wine; which charter was afterwards allowed in the Exchequer. 44 Eliz. It has been held, that it is not every citizen of London that is capable of this privilege, but only thoſe citizens that are reſident within the city; ſo it was ruled in the caſe of one Knowles, who being a citizen and free grocer of London, removed with his houſhold to Briſtol, where he dwelt, but yet kept his ſhop in London; and a ſhip of his arriving with wines at London, and being unladen, the priſage was demanded: he claimed the benefit of diſcharge as a citizen, theſe being his own proper goods. It was adjudged he was not intitled to the ſame; for he who claims the benefit of his exemption, ought to be a citizen and inhabitant there. In this caſe, it was ſaid for the defendant Knowles, that if a perſon unlade his wines before priſage paid, then the king's officer cannot have his election. Trin. 4. Hen. VI.

If a ſhip bound for the port of London, ſhould by ſtreſs of weather or otherwiſe, be forced into any other port, in ſuch caſe the citizens are to enjoy their privilege, as well as if the ſhip had arrived at London. Hardr. 311. In caſe ſeveral ſhips of burden import wine into a port in ſmall parcels, as where only nine tons and three hogſheads were imported in each veſſel; this was held to be fraud, and that priſage ſhould be paid for them: and, in equity, it hath been the uſual cuſtom to cauſe ſingle priſage to be paid for nine tons and a half; but not if it be only nine tons imported. Hardr. Rep. 218, 477.

The king granted to a Venetian merchant, that he ſhould be quit of all cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, and all other ſums of money, debts and payments, for any merchandizes whatſoever imported, and that he ſhould be as free as the citizens of London; notwithſtanding theſe particular words in the grant, it was reſolved in the Exchequer, that by that grant he was not diſcharged from priſage, becauſe the priſage is not ſpecially expreſſed therein, although the city of London were, by a ſpecial charter, free of priſage. The lord mayor of London cannot make ſtrangers-citizens to be diſcharged from payment of priſage. Davis's Rep. Hil. 43 Eliz. B. R.

Priſage is not due and demandable 'till the bulk is broken: but if a foreigner brings a ſhip, laden with wines, to a port with intent to unlade, and before the goods are entered, or bulk broke, he ſells them to a citizen, priſage ſhall be paid; for the kings grant ſhall not diſcharge any citizen in ſuch a manner. If the king, by grant, diſcharges a certain ſhip of A. being at ſea, particularly naming the ſame, from paying priſage, and the owner dies before the ſhip arrives, no duty can be demanded; it is otherwiſe if a particular perſon has a grant to him to be diſcharged of his goods, and he dies before the arrival there, the duty ſhall be paid. Hil. 13. Jac. I.

An information being brought by Sir Thomas Waller, chief butler to king James I. againſt Frances Hanger, widow, for detaining eight tons of wine due for priſage, ſetting forth that two ſhips laden with wines, belonging to George Hanger, came to the port of London, and afterwards two more, in which four ſhips there were 124 tons of wine, whereof eight tons were due to the king, and that the defendant, who was the widow of the ſaid George Hanger, refuſed to deliver them: the defendant confeſſed that the four ſhips did arrive in the port of London; two in the life time of her huſband, and two after his death, and that he was poſſeſſed of the ſaid wines ut de bonis propriis; and being ſo poſſeſſed thereof, made her his executrix, and died: that ſhe proved her huſband's will, and took upon her the executorſhip, and did unlade thoſe two ſhips which arrived after the death of her huſband; then ſhe pleaded the grant, Old 3. unto the mayor, &c. of London, quod de vinis civium, of citizens wine, no priſage ſhall be taken, but that they ſhall for ever be diſcharged of the ſame, and denied that theſe wines were her goods; for that ſhe had nothing in them, but as executrix to her huſband, and that he was a freeman and citizen of London. Upon this plea, it was a queſtion, whether priſage was due for thoſe wines, and adjudged, that the huſband was a citizen of London at the time of his death, and that the wines were bona civi, and ſo within the grant; and by conſequence diſcharged from the payment of priſage in the hands of the executrix, who repreſented his perſon. Trin. 11. Jac. Bridgm. 1, 2. Bulſt. 250.

This great caſe was ſeveral terms, and in divers courts depending, wherein there was a diverſity of opinions among the judges; ſome inſiſted, that priſage ought here to be paid unto the king, eſpecially for the two laſt ſhips, for the widow and executrix has the wines in another's right. And as to the p ivilege of diſcharge, the difference ought to be, where the goods are attached in the life of the huſband, and where after his death; when it is in his life-time, and he dies the ſame day, yet the diſcharge ſhall continue; but here the ſame was after his death: and theſe are not the wines of George Hanger now, for that he is dead, and he hath no goods, nor is he now a citizen; and the diſcharge here ſhould go only to the perſon of a citizen. But the lord chief juſtice Coke held, that this privilege, to be exempt from priſage, is not ſo much tied to the perſon, but alſo to the wines of citizens, and the charter itſelf goeth unto them; and the diſcharge is of wines as of a chattel, and then a repreſentative ſhall be within the compaſs of a grant; alſo an executor ſhall not forfeit the goods which he hath as executor; and the reaſon is, becauſe they ſtill are the goods of the dead: here George

Hanger was a complete citizen in every reſpect, and ſo continued 'till his death; and theſe wines, in the hands of his executrix, are bona civium, and therefore within the extent of this grant, to be freed from priſage. 3 Bulſt. 2, 23, 26. By the act of tonnage and poundage, 12 Car. II. c. 4. it is declared, that the priſage of wines ought not to pay tonnage or cuſtom, and ſhall not be charged with the payment of any cuſtom, ſubſidy, or ſum of money, impoſed upon wines by this ſtatute, or any thing therein contained. But in the 1 Jac. II. c. 3. there is a proviſo, that no merchant ſhall be charged with any duty granted by this act for the priſage of wine, which he imports in any ſhip or veſſel; but that it ſhall be received and taken from the perſon who hath the benefit of the ſaid priſage wine, who is hereby appointed to pay the ſame. And by a late * act, which makes allowances to merchants importers, out of the ſeveral duties laid on wines for ſuch wine as is damaged; it is enacted, That the ſaid allowances ſhall be made, not only to the merchant at importation, but alſo to the priſage-maſter, or proprietor of the duties of priſage: though it is here declared, that any thing in this act contained, or to be done in execution thereof, ſhall not extend to diminiſh or leſſen the duties of priſage and butlerage of wine, due upon the importation of the ſame; but that the ſaid duties ſhall be collected and received, in the ſame manner as if this act had never been made.

* The ſtatute 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 2 & 7.

In a late caſe, where an action was brought for money received to the uſe of the plaintiff, a ſpecial verdict was found by the jury; that king Charles I. gave to J. S. and his heirs, the duty of priſage of all wines imported, to hold the ſame, diſcharged of all aids and taxes; and the queſtion was, Whether the grantee ſhould pay tonnage or not? It was here obſerved, that the duty of tonnage was firſt impoſed by 12 Car. II. viz. 4 l. 10 s. on all French wine; then comes 1 Jac. II. c. 3. and impoſes 8 l. per ton on French wines, with a clauſe, that the grantee of priſage ſhould pay the duty: after this the 7 and 8 W. III. c. 20. impoſes 25 l. a ton; and then comes 9 & 10 W. III. c. 23. which grants an additional duty of 4 l. 10 s. per ton, to be levied as by the ſtatute 12 Car. II. On this remarkable cauſe in the court of exchequer, it was there adjudged, that the ſaid grantee of the priſage wine ſhould not pay the duty of tonnage: but, upon this, a writ of error was brought in the Exchequer Chamber, and the judgment was there reverſed. Hil. Term 8 Ann. Paul againſt Shaw.

It was argued, that the grantee of priſage was an antient and royal revenue, and if the crown had not granted it away, tonnage could not be due to the queen, for ſhe could not pay that duty out of her own priſage; therefore the grantee claiming under the crown, ought to have the ſame privilege and exemption, and the rather, becauſe it was granted to him with this immunity. To this it was anſwered, and accordingly reſolved, that tonnage ſhould be paid for priſage wines, by the grantee of priſage; becauſe, immediately on importation, this duty attaches upon the wines, and therefore, whatever part the grantee receives for priſage, he takes it charged with the duty; otherwiſe it would be raiſed on the people to enrich a private man, which could never be the intent of the law-makers: it is true, the queen could not be charged with a duty to herſelf, but the duty revives when priſage comes to a ſubject; and as to the covenants of diſcharge, in this grant of Charles I. they could only extend to the tonnage then in being, and which he then had, and not to what he had not, or might afterwards be given to his ſucceſſors. 2 Salk. Rep. 617. 1 Nelſ. Abr. 585. See the end of every letter relative to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

PRIVATEERS and PRIZES. A privateer is a kind of a private man of war, though the commiſſion be not reckoned very honourable: the uſe of them is not very antient, and ſome perſons account thoſe but one remove from pirates; who, without any reſpect to the cauſe, or having any immediate injury done them, or not being ſo much as hired for the ſervice, ſpoil men and goods, and innocent traders, making a traffic of it, amidſt the calamities of a war.

That privateers in general are lawful when under right conduct, there is no room to queſtion; for if a war be entered into on a juſt foundation, they cannot be unjuſt: all ways of bringing an enemy to reaſon, which are not againſt the laws of nations, are allowed; and it is no matter whether a perſon ſo commiſſioned is paid by the prince, or content to pay himſelf out of the ſpoils of the enemy; or if he acts for no pay at all, but out of love to his country, and loyalty to his prince.

It has therefore been cuſtomary, ſince the trade of Europe hath been ſo extenſive, for princes and ſtates, in caſe of a rupture with other princes, to iſſue forth commiſſions to private men, to equip ſhips of war; and the perſons concerned in privateers, adminiſter at their own coſts a part of a war, by providing ſhips of force, and all other military utenſils, to endamage the enemy; and they have, inſtead of pay, leave granted to keep what they can take from an enemy, allowing the admiral his ſhare, &c.

Beſides the common private commiſſions, there is mention of ſpecial commiſſions granted to perſons that take pay, who are under diſcipline; and if they do not obey orders, may be puniſhed with death. And the wars in later ages, have generally given occaſion for the iſſuing commiſſions to annoy the enemies in their commerce, and hinder ſuch ſupplies as might ſtrengthen them, or lengthen out the war; and likewiſe to prevent the ſeparation of ſhips of greater force from their fleet.

By a law made in the 6th year of queen Anne, the lord high admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty, during the war, were empowered to grant commiſſions to commanders of Britiſh ſhips (on their giving ſecurity as uſual, upon granting ſuch commiſſions, except for payment of the tenths to the lord admiral) for the ſeizing and taking ſhips and goods belonging to enemies, in any ſea or river in America, &c. and perſons ſerving on board privateers, &c. are not to be impreſſed by any ſhip of war, under 20 l. penalty.

Privateers may not attempt any thing againſt the law of nations; as to aſſault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be he friend, ally, or neuter; for the peace of ſuch places muſt be kept inviolably. When theſe private commiſſions are granted, there is always great care to be had and taken, by caution to preſerve the leagues of our allies, neuters and friends, according to their ſeveral treaties; and therefore, by a marine treaty, between king Charles II. and the ſtates of Holland [ſee the article MARINE TREATY], made at London in the year 1674, before a commiſſion ſhall be granted to any privateer or caper, the commander is to give ſecurity in 1500 l. and if ſuch ſhips have above one hundred and fifty men, then in 3000 l. &c. that they will make ſatisfaction for all damages, which they ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to treaties with that State; upon pain of forfeiting their commiſſions, and anſwering ſuch damage, for which the ſhip is made liable.

By other articles in the ſaid treaty, if torture, cruelty, or any barbarous uſage, after a caption, be done to the perſon taken in the prize, the ſame ſhall diſcharge ſuch prize, although ſhe was lawful; and the captains ſhall loſe their commiſſions, alſo both they and the offenders be ſubject to puniſhment. This agreement between the Engliſh and Dutch, is fit to be a ſtandard to all nations whatſoever; and by the treaty of Utrecht, there is an article with France to the ſame purpoſe.

Ships carrying powder, ſhot, and other warlike inſtruments and proviſions of armature for ſea or land, bound for an enemy from a neuter nation, or a ſtate in amity with both the warring ſtates, ſhall be taken as prize, and ſo may money, victuals, &c. But this muſt be in a time of neceſſity, when the war is ſo bad, that a prince cannot poſſibly defend himſelf or damage the enemy, without intercepting of ſuch things. And, according to ſome treaties, thoſe goods which may be uſed out of war as in war, (except ſhips) ſhall not be called prohibited, nor liable to condemnation, unleſs carried to places beſieged: and goods made uſe of for pleaſure and luxury only, are free, and not reckoned among ſuch as are prizable in neutral ſhips. Molloy Jur. Marit. 29.

If a part of the cargoe of a ſhip, taken by a privateer, be prohibited goods, and the other part not prohibited; but ſuch as, according to the neceſſity of the war, ſhall be ſo deemed, that may draw on a conſequential condemnation of the ſhip as well as lading.

In caſe part of the lading is prohibited, and the other part merely for pleaſure, the goods prohibited only ſhall be adjudged prize, and the ſhip, and the reſt of the cargo be diſcharged; which may proceed in the voyage, on delivering up the other goods, without being brought into port: but if a ſhip be wholly laden with contraband goods, both the ſhip and goods may be made prize. Ibid. 30.

If any ſuch ſhips ſhall be attacked, in order to be examined, on their refuſing to ſubmit they may be aſſaulted; and if the perſons on board do not ſurrender themſelves, the ſhips may be entered by force, and the perſons reſiſting be ſlain. But where a commander of a privateer wilfully commits any ſpoils on the ſhips or friends of neuters, or on the ſhips of their fellow ſubjects, according as the circumſtances of the crime are more or leſs heinous, he is liable to puniſhment by death or otherwiſe, and the ſhip to be forfeited. Trin. 3 Jac. in B. R.

The owners of privateers are not to convert any part of their captures to their own uſe, until they are condemned as prize: and whether a ſhip be prize or not ſhall be tried in the admiralty, and no prohibition ſhall be granted: as was reſolved, where in time of war between us and Denmark, a privateer belonging to Scotland took a Daniſh ſhip, and ſhe was condemned by the admiralty of Scotland, and ſold; whereupon a perſon ſuggeſted in the admiralty of England, that ſhe was not a Daniſh veſſel, but a ſhip of London, which belonged to an Engliſh merchant, and being to diſpute the property, it was inſiſted, could not be tried there: the court held that the

defendant

defendant had no property but by the ſale, and the only queſtion was, prize or no prize; therefore they would ſtay nothing, nor award a prohibition. 2 Keb. Rep. 158, 176.
In an action of trover for a ſhip, tackle and furniture, whereof a Dutchman born, but a denizen of England, was the owner; it appeared, that in the war between France and Holland ſhe was taken as a Dutch prize, and condemned in the court of admiralty in France, and there ſold to the plaintiff: after which, the defendant, as ſervant to the owner, took her from the plantiff to whom ſhe was ſold: it was here adjudged, that the ſentence of the admiralty of France ſhould not be examined in this action, and the plantiff had judgment. Raym. 473.
Our laws take not much notice of privateers; but the diligence of enemies hath, times paſt, obliged us to be alſo diligent in this way, and therefore ſome acts of parliament have been made for the encouragement of privateers, and ordering of prizes; as particularly the ſtatute 4 & 5 W. & M. cap. 25. which enacted, that all veſſels with their ladings, and all goods and merchandizes that ſhall be taken and ſeized as prize, ſhall be brought into ſome ports of this kingdom; and, before breaking of bulk, put into the poſſeſſion of the commiſſioners of prizes, or their agents, who, with two or more perſons, as the officers and mariners of the reſpective ſhips ſhall intruſt, and ſuch as ſhall be appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, are to preſerve the ſame, 'till they ſhall be adjudged prize, except where it ſhall appear to the judge of the admiralty, that the goods are periſhable; in which caſe bail ſhall be taken for them, yet ſo as to be ſubject to ſale and diſtribution, as provided by this act.
After ſuch goods and merchandize ſo taken, ſhall be adjudged prize, they ſhall, as ſoon as conveniently it may be done, be ſold by the commiſſioners for prizes, &c. in the preſence of perſons entruſted by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and the owners, officers, and mariners of the ſhips of war, publickly by inch of candle, notice being given fourteen days before, of the quantity and quality of the things to be ſold, and of the time and place of ſale; and the proceed of ſuch ſale, after the cuſtom duties are paid and deducted, in caſe ſuch prize were taken by a private man of war, ſhall be divided into five parts; four parts whereof to be anſwered to the perſons intereſted in the privateer, and the fifth to their Majeſties; and the ſhip, with it's furniture, is to be enjoyed by the perſons intereſted in the privateer.
And if the prize be taken by any of the king's ſhips, the nett proceed ſhall be divided into three parts; one third to be anſwered to the commander, officers, and mariners, taking the ſame, according to the cuſtom of the ſea for ſharing prizes, &c. (a third of which is to be diſtributed among the ſhip's crew) one third part to be paid to the treaſurer of the navy, for the relief of ſick and wounded mariners, and the widows, children, and impotent parents, of perſons ſlain at ſea, in their Majeſties ſervice, and the other third part to the uſe of their Majeſties: and in caſe a prize be taken by a merchant's ſhip, employed in the ſervice of the crown, the proceed thereof ſhall be divided in like manner, as ſhips taken by men of war.
If any perſons, who ſhall take ſuch prize or prizes, ſhall embezzle or conceal any parts of the goods or merchandize, or put the ſame on ſhore, in any other place than their Majeſties warehouſes, they ſhall forfeit their ſhare of ſuch goods, upon proof made of it by one or more witneſſes upon oath before the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in the port of London, if the offence be committed within the ſaid port; and before the chief magiſtrate of the place, in the preſence of the chief officer of the port, in any other ports; one moiety whereof to be to the uſe of the informer, and the other to their Majeſties; and ſeamen, and others concerned in prizes, ſhall be permitted to ſee and peruſe the accounts of any prize.
Where any ſhips or goods ſhall be taken by any privateer, by colluſion, on proof made thereof in the court of Exchequer, or court of admiralty, they ſhall be adjudged lawful prize, and one moiety ſhall be to their Majeſties, and the other to him that ſhall diſcover the ſame; and the bond given by the captain of ſuch privateer is declared to be forfeited; and if ſuch ſhips or goods ſhall be taken by colluſion, by any man of war, the commander ſhall forfeit 1000 l. alſo his command or employment, and be incapable of any office under their Majeſties during ſeven years.
In all caſes where ſuch prize ſhall not be taken by any private men of war, one-tenth part, after deduction of their Majeſties cuſtoms, and before any diviſion is made of the proceed thereof, ſhall be paid to the treaſurer of the navy, and by him kept apart, to be diſpoſed of by warrant from the commiſſioners of the admiraly, or lord high admiral, for medals, and other rewards for officers and ſeamen, who ſhall do any extraordinary ſervice. And if any man of war, or privateer, ſhall take or deſtroy any French man of war, or privateer, they ſhall receive for every piece of ordnance, in any ſhip ſo taken or deſtroyed, 10 l. reward, to be paid by the commiſſioners for the prizes, out of their Majeſties ſhare of prizes.
And if the commiſſioners do not pay the ſame, or give a bill for it, payable out of the firſt monies that ſhall come to their hands, within three days after the ſame ought to be paid, and demand thereof made, the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall be incapable to hold any office in their Majeſties ſervice for the future. And, by another clauſe in this act, if the commiſſioners for prizes, or of the cuſtoms, ſhall detain the ſhares belonging to perſons intereſted in privateers, two days after they ought to be paid, &c. free from all deductions, except for warehouſe-room, and 2 l. per cent. for all other charges, they ſhall forfeit double the ſum ſo detained.
When any veſſel ſhall be taken as prize by a privateer, having no goods on board of the growth and manufacture of France, the perſons intereſted in ſuch privateer ſhall have the whole in their own uſe, after condemnation and payment of cuſtoms, and other duties, without deduction for tenths, or any other parts to their Majeſties, or the lord high admiral. If any ſhip, whereupon wool is laden to be tranſported, contrary to law, be taken by any privateer, on proof thereof in the Exchequer, the perſons concerned in the privateer ſhall have a moiety of the ſhip and goods, and their Majeſties the other moiety. But where any veſſel ſhall be taken within any of their Majeſties ports, rivers, or havens, by any privateer, ſuch prize ſhall belong to their Majeſties, as a perquiſite of the admiralty of England, and the captors to have only ſuch a part as their Majeſties ſhall think fit to allow, by way of encouragement.
If any ſhip or veſſel taken as prize, or any goods therein, ſhall appear to belong to any of their Majeſties ſubjects, continuing under their protection and obedience, which were before taken by their Majeſties enemies, and now retaken, ſuch veſſels and goods, and every part thereof ſhall be reſtored, by decree of the court of admiralty, to the former owners, they paying in lieu of ſalvage, if retaken by a man of war, an eighth part of the value, which ſhall be anſwered to the captains, officers, and ſeamen in the ſaid man of war, to be divided as in this act is directed, touching the ſhare of prizes belonging to them, where ſuch prizes are taken by any of their Majeſties ſhips of war: and, if taken by a privateer, or other ſhip, after having been in poſſeſſion of the enemy twenty-four hours, an eighth part of the value ſhall be paid; if above twenty-four hours, and under forty-eight, a fifth part; if above forty-eight hours, and under ninety-ſix, a third part; and, if above ninety-ſix hours, a moiety; all which payment to be made without any deduction. And if ſuch retaken ſhip appears to have been ſet forth by the enemy as a man of war, the former proprietors ſhall pay the full moiety of the value.
The lord high admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty, ſhall expreſs all things by this act directed to be obſerved concerning prizes, &c. in the inſtructions by them to be given to captains and commanders of their Majeſties ſhips of war, and to commanders of privateers.

An order of council to releaſe ſhips, and exempt them from moleſtation by men of war and privateers.

At the court at Windſor, Auguſt 13, 1705.

Preſent the Queen's moſt excellent Majeſty in council.

Her Majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed this day to order, that all ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the States-General of the United Provinces, which have been taken by any of her Majeſty's ſhips of war, or privateers, or which are now under arreſt in any of her Majeſty's ports, together with their loadings, be forthwith releaſed; and that, for the future, no ſhips having paſſes from the ſaid States-General to trade with France, be taken or moleſted in their voyage, by any of her Majeſty's ſaid ſhips of war, or privateers, her Majeſty having already opened the trade with the dominions of Spain, for the advantage of her own ſubjects. And her Majeſty is pleaſed futher to declare and order, that the inſtruction be now given for the future to the commanders of her Majeſty's ſhips of war and privateers, not to bring up or moleſt either the ſhips of her own ſubjects, or thoſe of the ſubjects of the States-General, furniſhed with proper paſſes from her Majeſty or the ſaid States reſpectively, ſo as they do not carry any goods or merchandize which are contraband. And all commanders of her Majeſty's ſhips of war, as well as privateers or merchant-ſhips, having letters of marque, are to conform themſelves hereunto, notwithſtanding any commiſſions or inſtructions heretofore given to the contrary. And for their more particular direction for the future, his royal highneſs the lord high admiral is forthwith to order ſuch inſtructions to be prepared, as may be proper for the commanders of ſhips of war and privateers in this behalf, to be delivered to them as ſoon as may be.

CHRISTOPHER MUSGRAVE.

By the ſtatute 6 Ann. cap. 37. for encouragement of the trade to America, all prize-offices are ſuppreſſed and taken away, and the flag, and other officers and ſeamen of every ſhip of war, ſhall have the whole intereſt in ſhips and goods they ſhall take there (being firſt adjudged prize in any of the courts of admiralty) ſubject to the duties to her Majeſty for ſuch goods, and to be divided as her Majeſty and ſucceſſors ſhall direct.

The

The judge of the admiralty ſhall, in five days after requeſt, finiſh the preparatory examinations, in order to enquire of prizes, and the uſual monition ſhall, on requeſt, be executed in three days; and, in caſe no claim be made and atteſted on oath, giving twenty days notice after execution of ſuch monition, &c. then the judge of the admiralty, upon producing the ſaid examination, or copies thereof, and alſo all papers and writings taken in or with the capture, upon oath (or oath that no ſuch papers were found) ſhall immediately proceed to ſentence, either to acquit or condemn the ſame.

If claim ſhall be made, and ſecurity given by the claimant, to pay double coſts to the captors, in caſe the ſhip or goods be adjudged prize, and there ſhall appear no occaſion to examine witneſſes, other than ſuch as are near the court, then the judge ſhall cauſe ſuch witneſſes to be examined, and, in ten days after ſuch claim and ſecurity given, proceed to ſentence. But if it appears doubtful whether it be lawful prize, and it is neceſſary to have an examination of witneſſes remote, and if it be deſired, the ſaid judge ſhall cauſe the ſame to be forthwith appraiſed, by perſons named on the captor's part, and ſhall, after the appraiſement, and in fourteen days after claim, take ſecurity for the claimants to pay the captors the value of the appraiſement, if the ſame be adjudged lawful prize; and, after ſuch ſecurity taken, the judge ſhall order the releaſing or delivering the ſame to the claimants. And in caſe any claimant refuſe to give the ſaid ſecurity, the ſaid judge is to require ſecurity from the captors, to be approved by the claimant, to pay the value of the appraiſement, in caſe ſuch capture ſhall not be adjudged prize, and thereupon the ſaid judge ſhall make an order to releaſe and deliver the ſame to the captors, or their agents.

There ſhall not be paid to the judge and officers of the court of admiralty, for condemning of captures as prize, above 10l. if the prize be above 100 tons, nor above 15l. if of greater burthen. And if any judge, or officer, ſhall delay proceeding relating to the condemning, diſcharging, releaſing, or delivering of prizes, as aforeſaid, within the time limited, or as ſoon as the ſame ought to be done by this act, he ſhall forfeit 500l. one moiety to the queen, and the other to the informer.

The parties may appeal to her Majeſty and council, ſo as it be made in fourteen days after ſentence, and ſecurity be given to proſecute the appeal, anſwer the condemnation, and pay treble coſts, in caſe the ſentence be affirmed; and ſo as execution be not ſuſpended by ſuch appeal.

By ſtatute 9 Ann. cap. 27. all prize goods and merchandizes taken by ſhips of war, and imported into Great-Britain, &c. ſhall be liable to the payment of the ſaid cuſtoms and duties as thoſe goods would have been had they not been prize.

PRIZES.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating to PRIZES.

The officers and ſeamen of the king's ſhips, and of other Britiſh ſhips having letters of marque, are intitled to the ſole intereſt and property of all ſhips and goods by them taken, and adjudged lawful prizes by the court of admiralty. Stat. 13 Geo. II. cap. 4. §. 1 and 2.

The prize is to be divided among the officers and ſeamen of the king's ſhips, as he ſhall appoint by proclamation. Among privateers, the diviſion is according to the agreement between the owners. Ibid.

The court of admiralty are to finiſh the examination of the perſons to be examined, to prove the lawfulneſs of the prize, in five days after requeſt for that purpoſe made: the monition is to be executed in three days. And in caſe no claim of the capture be duly entered, giving twenty days notice after the execution of the monition; or if there be a claim, after the claimant does not give ſufficient ſecurity to pay double coſts to the captors, if the prize be adjudged lawful, then the court are to proceed to ſentence in ten days. Ibid. §. 3.

In caſe of doubt, or of writings being remote, the court may releaſe the prize, on the claimant's giving good ſecurity to the captor for the payment of the full appraiſed value, in caſe the prize be adjudged lawful. Ib. §. 3. fin.

Judges and officers, on failure of their duty in reſpect to the condemnation of prizes, forfeit 500 l. with full coſt of ſuit, one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer. Ib. §. 6.

The judges and officers of the court of admiralty in the king's plantations or dominions abroad, ſhall not receive above 10 l. in caſe the prize be under an hundred tons burthen; not above 15 l. if it be of greater burthen. Ib. §. 7.

Commiſſioners of appeals, in cauſes of prizes, are to be appointed under the great ſeal, and appeals may be made to them within fourteen days after ſentence. Ib. §. 8.

Agents for prizes are to be choſen by the captors. Ib. §. 10.

The treaſurer of the navy is to pay to the officers and ſeamen on board ſhips of war, or privateers, in an action where any ſhip of war, or privateer, ſhall have been taken from the enemy or deſtroyed, 5 l. for every man on board ſuch prize or ſhip deſtroyed in the beginning of the engagement. Ib. §. 15.

The captures of flota ſhips, or galleons, or regiſter-ſhips, bound from Buenos-Ayres, or Honduras, can be tried only in the high court of admiralty. Ib. §. 17.

This ſtatute enacts ſeveral penalties and forfeitures for taking prizes by colluſion. Privateers forfeit the prize, half to the king, and half to the informer; and the commander of a man of war forfeits 1000 l. to be divided between the king and the informer. Ib. §. 19. See PRIVATEERS.

PRIZE-SHIPS. The duty of poundage is alſo payable (after the rate of 5 per cent. of the value upon oath) for ſhips taken as prize, and regularly condemened in the court of admiralty: but it is the practice not to charge them with any other duty whatſoever.

No goods to be imported into, or exported from thence, in any other but ſhips of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners, are of the ſaid places (except ſhips taken as PRIZES, and legally condemned, navigated by the maſter and three fourths of the mariners Britiſh, or of the ſaid plantations, and owned by Britiſh) upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods, one-third to his Majeſty, one-third to the governor, one-third to the ſeizer and informer.

Prize-goods not to be exempted from duties, &c. but the goods may be unladen and brought on ſhore, in the preſence of the officers of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in proper warehouſes, under the ſeparate locks of the collector, comptroller, and agent of the captors. 'till they are appraiſed and ſold; and after they are ſold, before delivery to the buyer they are to pay the cuſtoms and exciſe. 6 Ann. cap. 13. §. 9.

Prize-goods of the growth and product of foreign plantations, condemned in, and imported from, the Britiſh plantations in America, are, upon proper certificates and oaths, to pay the ſame duties as if the produce of the ſaid Britiſh plantations. 10 Ann. cap. 22. §. 2. and 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 6.

Foreign-built ſhips, or ſuch not built in any of his Majeſty's dominions of Aſia, Africa, or America, are not to enjoy the privilege of ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, although owned or manned by Britiſh (except ſuch ſhips as are taken at ſea by letters of marque or repriſal, [ſee MARQUE LETTERS of MARQUE, and REPRISAL] and condemned as lawful prize in the court of almiralty) but are to be deemed aliens ſhips, and to be liable to aliens duties. See the article PRIVATEER.

The LAWS of FRANCE relating to PRIZES.

Art. I. No perſon ſhall fit out a ſhip for war without a commiſſion from the admiralty.

II. Such as obtain commiſſions for equipping ſhips for war, ſhall be obliged to cauſe it to be recorded at the admiralty-office where the ſhip is fitted out, and to give ſecurity for the ſum of 15,000 livres, which ſhall be received by the lieutenant, in preſence of our attorney.

III. We forbid our ſubjects to take commiſſions from any foreign kings, princes, ſtates, to arm ſhips for war, and ſail under their flags, except it be by our order, under pain of being treated as pirates.

IV. All veſſels belonging to our enemies, or commanded by pirates, buccaneers, and others, ſailing without the commiſſion of any ſovereign prince or ſtate, ſhall be good prize.

V. All veſſels fighting under another flag than that of the nation whoſe commiſſion they carry, or having commiſſion from two different princes or ſtates, ſhall likewiſe be good prize; and, if they be armed for war, the captains and officers ſhall be puniſhed as pirates.

VI. All veſſels, and their lading, in which there are no charter-parties, bills of lading, nor invoices, ſhall be likewiſe good-prize: and we forbid our captains, officers, and ſeamen of ſhips taking them, to divert them, under pain of corporal puniſhment.

VII. All ſhips having effects on board belonging to our enemies, and the goods of our ſubjects or allies on board of enemies ſhips, ſhall likewiſe be good prize.

VIII. If any of our ſubjects ſhips be retaken from our enemies, after having been four-and-twenty hours in their hands, they ſhall be good prize; and, if it is before four-and-twenty hours, they ſhall be reſtored to the owners, with all that is in them, and one-third ſhall be given to the ſhip that retakes them.

IX. If the ſhips, without being retaken, be abandoned by the enemy, or if by tempeſt, or any other accident, they return into the poſſeſſion of our ſubjects, before they have been carried into any enemy's ports, they ſhall be reſtored to the owner, who ſhall reclaim them within the year and day, though they have been more than four-and-twenty hours in the enemy's poſſeſſion.

X. The ſhips and effects of our ſubjects and allies, retaken from pirates, and reclaimed within a year and a day after the declaration made to the admiralty, ſhall be reſtored to the owners, they paying one-third of the value for the charges of the retaking.

XI. The

XI. The arms, powder, ball, and other munitions of war, even the horſe and furniture, tranſported for the ſervice of our enemies, ſhall be confiſcated, in whatever veſſels they be found, and to whoſoever they belong, whether they be our ſubjects or our allies.

XII. All veſſels refuſing to ſtrike and bring to, upon the ſummons of our ſhips, or thoſe of our ſubjects armed for war, may be compelled thereto by artillery, or otherwiſe; and, in caſe they reſiſt and fight, they ſhall be good prize.

XIII. We forbid all captains of veſſels armed for war to detain thoſe of our ſubjects or allies who have brought to, and ſhewed their bills of lading and charter-parties, or to take, or ſuffer any thing to be taken from them, under pain of death.

XIV. No veſſel taken by foreigners may remain above four-and-twenty hours in our harbours, except they be detained there by tempeſt, or be taken from our enemies.

XV. If in the prizes brought into our ports by foreigners, here be found goods belonging to our ſubjects or allies, thoſe belonging to the former ſhall be reſtored, and thoſe of the latter ſhall not be put in warehouſes, nor bought by any perſon, under any pretence whatſoever.

XVI. As ſoon as the captains of armed veſſels ſhall render themſelves maſters of any ſhips, they ſhall ſeize their licences, paſſports, ſea-letters, charter-parties, bills of lading, and all other papers concerning their lading and voyage, together with the keys of their cheſts, trunks, and chambers, and ſhall cauſe to be ſhut the hatches, and other places where there is any goods.

XVII. We enjoin all captains that take prizes, to bring or ſend them, with the priſoners, to the ports where they are armed, under pain of loſing their rights, and of an arbitrary fine, except they be obliged, by tempeſt or enemies, to put into ſome other port, in which caſe, they ſhall forthwith acquaint the concerned.

XVIII. We forbid, under pain of death, all captains, ſoldiers, and ſeamen, to ſink the ſhips they take, and put aſhore the priſoners upon remote coaſts or iſlands, in order to conceal the prize.

XIX. And where the takers are not in a condition to take the charge of the ſhip taken, and of the priſoners, and only take out the goods, or agree for a ranſom, they ſhall be obliged to ſeize the papers, and bring with them at leaſt the two principal officers of the prize, under pain of being deprived of what may belong to them therein, and of corporal puniſhment, &c.

XX. We forbid them to open any cheſts, bales, ſacks, pipes, barrels, caſks, or trunks, or to tranſport or ſell any goods of the prize; and we likewiſe forbid all perſons to buy them, before the prize be condemned, or 'till it be ordained by authority, under pain of reſtitution of four-fold, and corporal puniſhment.

XXI. As ſoon as the prize is brought into any road or port of our kingdom, the captain that has taken her, if he be there, and, in his abſence, the perſon that is intruſted with her, ſhall be obliged to make his declaration to the officers of the admiralty, to ſurrender into their hands the papers and the priſoners, and declare to them the day and hour, place and degree of latitude, in which the veſſel was taken, whether the captain refuſed to ſhew his commiſſion or his paſſport; whether he attacked, or only defended himſelf; what flag he bore; and all the other circumſtances of the taking and voyage.

XXII. After the delivery of the declaration, the officers of the admiralty ſhall immediately go aboard of the prize, whether ſhe be in the road or in the port, and ſhall draw up a verbal proceſs of the quantity and quality of the goods, and of the condition in which they find the cabbins, trunks, hatches, and hold; which they ſhall afterwards cauſe to be ſhut, and ſealed with the ſeal of the admiralty; and they ſhall there eſtabliſh a watch, to take care of what they have ſealed, and prevent the embezzlement of the effects.

XXIII. The officers of the admiralty ſhall make their verbal proceſs in preſence of the captain, or maſter of the prize, and, in his abſence, before the two principal officers and ſeamen belonging to him, together with the captain or other principal officers of the ſhip that took the prize; and likewiſe in preſence of the reclaimers, if any be.

XXIV. They ſhall hear, concerning the matter of the prize, the maſter or commander thereof, and the principal men of his company, and likewiſe ſome of the officers and ſeamen of the ſhip that took her.

XXV. If the ſhip be brought in without priſoners, charter-party, or bill of lading, the officers, ſoldiers, and ſeamen of the ſhip that took her, ſhall be examined ſeparately upon the circumſtances of the prize, and how the ſhip came to be brought in without priſoners; and the ſhip and goods ſhall diſcover, if poſſible, to what nation they did belong.

XXVI. If by the depoſition (or oath) of the company, and the ſearch and view of the ſhip and goods it cannot be diſcovered of whom they have been taken, an inventory ſhall be taken of the whole, and it ſhall be appraiſed, and put into ſafe cuſtody, to be reſtored to whomſoever it may belong, if reclaimed within a year and a day; and if otherwiſe, it ſhall be divided as a wreck between us, the admiral, and the * armateur.

* Armateur is the deſignation given in France to merchants or others concerned as owners, in the arming of privateers &c.

XXVII. If it be neceſſary before the condemnation of a prize to take the goods out of a ſhip, to prevent their being damnified, an inventory ſhall be made in preſence of our attorney, and of the parties concerned, who ſhall ſign it if they can write; and afterwards the goods ſhall be delivered into the hands of ſome ſufficient perſon, or in warehouſes locked with three different keys; of which one ſhall be given to the armateur, another to the receiver of the admiral, and the third to the reclaimer, if any be; and if none, to our attorney.

XXVIII. Goods which cannot be kept, ſhall be ſold at the deſire of the parties concerned, and adjudged to the faireſt offerer, in the preſence of our attorney, at the ſhutting up of the court, after three delays of the ſale, from three days to three days; the port ſales, or publication being duly made beforehand, and the placards affixed in the uſual places.

XXIX. The price of the ſales ſhall be conſigned in the hands of a ſufficient merchant, to be delivered after the adjudication of the prize, to whom it ſhall belong.

XXX. We enjoin the officers of the admiralty to proceed inceſſantly to the execution of decrees and ſentences given concerning prizes; and to cauſe the veſſels, goods, and effects, for which a replevy ſhall be ordained, to be delivered immediately, and without delay, under pain of interdiction of a fine of five hundred livres, and of all coſts, charges, and damages.

XXXI. Before the repartition, the charges of the unlading, and of the keeping of the ſhip and goods, ſhall be deduced, according to the account which ſhall be ſtated by the lieutenant of the admiralty, in the preſence of our attorney and the parties concerned.

XXXII. After the aforeſaid deduction, the tenth of the price ſhall be delivered to the admiral, and the charges of the court ſhall be taken out of the remainder; which ſhall be afterwards divided amongſt the parties concerned, according to the conditions of their partnerſhip.

XXXIII. If there be no contract of partnerſhip, two-thirds ſhall belong to them that have furniſhed the veſſel, with munitions, arms, and proviſions; and the other to the officers, ſeamen, and * ſoldiers.

* By ſoldiers, in this and ſeveral other articles of the French marine, is only meant ſuch land-men as enter themſelves on board of privateers, only for fighting; and thoſe go for the moſt part, no purchaſe no pay; for they have no regular and diſciplined troops on board their privateers in France, no more than elſewhere.

XXXIV. We forbid the officers of the admiralty to become directly or indirectly the parties to whom veſſels, goods, or effects, belonging to prizes are adjudged, under pain of confiſcation, a fine of fifteen hundred livres, and interdiction of their offices.

PRIZES, under what regulations in SPAIN.

Of the manner of diſpoſing of prizes taken by the armada's or flota's trading to the Weſt-Indies.

1. The inſtructions given to Peter Arias Davila in the year 1513, when he was ſent governor and captain-general of the province of the FIRM LAND, which was then that of DARIEN, and the country about, ſpoke to the matter thus: That of whatſoever he ſhould take with the fleet he went over in, of which the ſhips and proviſions were his Majeſty's beſides the fifth, two parts ſhould come to the king, the one for his ſhip and the other for his proviſions; but if there went with the fleet any ſhip belonging to private perſons, and upon their own charge, and they ſhould take any prize, his Majeſty ſhould have only his fifth, and the reſt be divided among all the fleet, becauſe it was to be ſuppoſed the prize had been taken by the aſſiſtance of it, and the diſtribution ought to be according to every man's pay and allowance.

2. The emperor Charles V. afterwards declared, That though when any prince was taken in war, his ranſom and moveables were his Majeſty's undoubted right, yet in conſideration of the great fatigues his ſubjects endured in the conqueſt of the Indies, he required only the ſixth part of the ranſom of any cazique taken, or the treaſures belonging to him, and all the reſt, after deducting the king's fifth, to belong to the conquerors; but if the cazique were ſlain in the battle, his Majeſty ſhould have one half of his treaſure, and the other half, after deducting the fifth, be equally diſtributed.

3. In 1558, the admiral Peter de Roelas having taken a French ſhip, and recovered a Spaniard's taken by that privateer, it was ordered, that the admiral ſhould have the king's fifth of what belonged to the Frenchman, and the reſt of it to be divided for that time between the ſaid admiral and his men;

men; and as for the ſhip retaken, the one half ſhould be for the admiral and men, and the other reſtored to the owners. In 1570, ſome doubts ariſing between two prizes taken, the king decided the controverſy thus, That the admiral ſhould have the fifth belonging to his Majeſty, and all the reſt to be divided betwixt the officers, ſoldiers, and ſailors, belonging to the fleet: but if any ſhips coming from the Indies were retaken from pirates, they ſhould be reſtored entire to the owners.

4. If there ariſe any controverſy about prizes taken, the court of the India-Houſe is to decide it; but if it be above 600,000 marvadees value, there lies an appeal from it to the committee of war for the Indies, as was practiſed in the year 1649, in the caſe of an Engliſh ſhip, which, though taken in time of peace, was condemned as lawful prize, becauſe it had Weſt-India commodities aboard. D. Francis de Soto-major coming from Potoſi by the way of Buenos-Ayres, was taken by the Dutch, and carried to Baia de Todos or Santos in Brazil, which place being recovered by D. Frederic de Toledo, D. Francis pretended, that as much of his plate and goods as could be found ought to be reſtored him; becauſe the war pirates make being unjuſt, they could not deprive him of the juſt dominion over what was his own, though it had been above 24 hours in their hands, and he had judgment given for him. In the year 1584, orders were given to all the commanders in the Indies, that when prizes were taken from pirates, if there were any goods found belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects, they ſhould be delivered as they were found, without diminiſhing, to the owners.

PROJECTOR, one who contrives, ſchemes, or forms any public deſign.

Remarks.

Man is the worſt of all God's creatures to ſhift for himſelf; no other animal is ever ſtarved to death; nature without, has provided them both food and cloaths; and nature within, has placed an inſtinct that never fails to direct them to proper means for a ſupply: but man muſt either work or ſtarve, ſlave or die; he has, indeed, reaſon given him to direct him, and few who follow the dictates of that reaſon come to ſuch unhappy exigencies; but when by the errors of a man's youth he has reduced himſelf to ſuch a degree of diſtreſs, as to be abſolutely without three things, money, friends, and health, he dies in an hoſpital.

Ten thouſand ways there are to bring a man to this, and but very few to bring him out again. Death is the univerſal deliverer, and therefore ſome who want courage to bear what they ſee before them, hang themſelves for fear; for certainly ſelf-deſtruction is the effect of cowardice in the higheſt extreme.

Others break the bounds of laws to ſatisfy that general law of nature, and turn open thieves, houſe-breakers, highwaymen, clippers, coiners, &c. 'till they run the length of the gallows, and get a deliverance the neareſt way at St Tyburn.

Others, being maſters of more cunning than their neighbours, turn their thoughts to private methods of ttick and cheat, a modern way of thieving, every jot as criminal, and in ſome degree worſe than the other, by which honeſt men are gulled with fair pretences to part from their money, and then left to take their courſe with the author, who ſculks behind the curtain of a protection, or in the Mint, or Friars, and bids defiance as well to honeſty as the law.

Others, yet urged by the ſame neceſſity, turn their thoughts to honeſt invention, founded upon the platform of ingenuity and integrity. Theſe two laſt ſorts are thoſe we call Projectors; and as there were always more geeſe than ſwans, the number of the latter are very inconſiderable, in compariſon of the former; and, as the greater number donominates the leſs, the juſt contempt we have of the former ſot, beſpatters the other, who, like cuckolds, bear the reproach of other people's crimes.

A mere projector then is a contemptible thing, driven by his own deſperable fortune to ſuch a ſtraight, that he muſt be delivered by a miracle or ſtarve; and when he has beat his brains for ſome ſuch miracle in vain, he finds no remedy but to paint up ſome bauble or other, as players make puppets talk big, to ſhow like a ſtrange thing, and then cry it up for a new invention, gets a patent for it, divides it into ſhares, and they muſt be ſold; ways and means are not wanting to ſwell the new whim to a vaſt magnitude; thouſands, and hundreds of thouſands are the leaſt of his diſcourſe, and ſometimes millons; 'till the ambition of ſome honeſt coxcomb is wheedled to part with his money for it, and then

— — — Naſcitur ridiculus mus.

The adventurer is left to carry on the project, and the projector laughs at him. The diver ſhall walk at the bottom of the Thames; the ſalt-petre-maker ſhall erect a dunghill into a palace; the engineers build models and windmills to draw water, 'till funds are raiſed to carry it on, by men who have more money than brains, and then good night Mr Patent and Invention; the projector has done his buſineſs, and is gone. But the upright and honourable projector is he, who having by fair and plain principles of ſenſe, honeſty, and ingenuity, brought any contrivance to a ſuitable perfection, makes out what he pretends to, picks no body's pocket, carries his project in execution, and contents himſelf with the real produce of his uſeful invention.

Neceſſity has ſo violently agitated the wits of men within half a century paſt, that it ſeems not at all improper, by way of diſtinction, to call it the projecting age. For though in times of war and public confuſions, the like humour of invention has ſeemed to ſtir, yet, without being particular to the preſent, it is, I think, no injury to ſay, the paſt ages have never come up to the degree of projecting and inventing, as it refers to matters of negoce and methods of civil polity, which we ſee this age arrived to.

For the improvement of the deſtructive art of war, there has been project after project; eſpecially in conducting armies, and in offenſive engines; witneſs the new ways of mines, fougades, entrenchments, attacks, elodgments, and a long et cetera of new inventions, which want names, practiſed in ſieges and encampments: witneſs the new ſorts of bombs and unheard-of mortars, of ſeven to ten and twenty tons weight, with which our fleets ſtanding two or three miles off at ſea, can, in ſome degree, imitate the ſupreme Being himſelf, and rain fire and brimſtone out of heaven, as it were, upon towns built on the firm land: witneſs alſo our new invented child of hell, the machine which carries the thunder, lightning, and earthquakes in it's bowels, and tears up the moſt impregnable fortifications.

But if we ſhould ſearch for a cauſe, from whence it comes to paſs that this age ſwarms with ſuch a multitude of projectors more than uſual, who, beſides the innumerable conceptions which die in the bringing forth, and (like abortions of the brain) only come into the air and diſſolve, do really every day produce new contrivances, engines, and projects to get money never before thought of: if I ſay, we would examine whence this comes to paſs, it muſt be thus:

The loſſes and depredations which wars occaſion will not only fall upon private traders, but bring incumbrances on the nation in general; and theſe have prompted men by neceſſity, to rack their wits for new contrivances, new inventions, new trades, ſtocks, projects, and any thing, to retrieve the deſperate credit of their private fortunes, and ſupport the credit of the nation. That this is probable to have been the cauſe, will appear further; thus, France has, without queſtion, felt it's ſhare of loſſes by war as well as Great-Britain; but the poverty there falling chiefly on the poorer ſort of people, they have not been ſo fruitful in inventions and practices of this nature, 'till the Miſſiſſippi affair [ſee Mississippi], their genius being quite of another ſtrain. As for the gentry and more capable ſort, the firſt thing a Frenchman flies to in his diſtreſs is the army; and he ſeldom comes back from thence to get an eſtate by painful induſtry, but either has his brains knocked out, or makes his fortune there.

If induſtry be in any buſineſs rewarded with ſucceſs, it is in the MERCHANDIZING PART OF THE WORLD, who indeed may MORE TRULY BE SAID TO LIVE BY THEIR WITS, THAN ANY PEOPLE WHATSOEVER. All foreign negoce, though to ſome it is a plain road by the help of cuſtom, yet it is in it's beginning ALL PROJECT, CONTRIVANCE, AND INVENTION. Every new voyage the merchant ſchemes, is a project; and ſhips are ſent from port to port, as markets and merchandize differ, by the help of ſtrange and univerſal intelligence; wherein ſome are ſo exquiſite, ſo ſwift, and ſo exact, that a merchant ſitting at home in his counting-houſe, at once converſes with all parts of the known world. This and travel, MAKE A TRUE BRED MERCHANT, THE MOST INTELLIGENT MAN IN THE WORLD, and conſequently the moſt capable, when urged by neceſſity, to contrive new ways to live: and from hence we conceive, may be very properly derived the variety of projects wherewith we have abounded.

And from this ſort of men, it is eaſy to trace the origin of BANKS, STOCKS, STOCK-JOBBING, ASSURANCES, FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, LOTTERIES, AND THE LIKE.

To which may be added likewiſe, the long ANNUAL ENQUIRY of the houſe of commons FOR WAYS AND MEANS, which has been a particular movement to ſet all the heads of the nation at work. And I appeal, with ſubmiſſion, to the gentlemen of that honourable houſe, if the greateſt part of the beſt ways and means to raiſe public money, out of the common road of land-taxes, polls, and the like, have not been handed to them from the MERCHANT.

Projects of this nature have been doubtleſs in general of public advantage, as they have tended to the improvement of TRADE, AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE POOR, and the CIRCULATION AND INCREASE OF THE PUBLIC STOCK OF THE KINGDOM; but this is ſuppoſed of ſuch as are built on the honeſt baſis of ingenuity and improvement; in which though I'll allow the author to aim primarily at his OWN ADVANTAGE, yet with the circumſtances of PUBLICK BENEFIT added.

Wherefore it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh among the projects of the preſent times, between the honeſt and the diſhoneſt.

There

There are many fair pretences of fine diſcoveries, new inventions, engines, and I know not what, which having been advanced in notion, and talked up for great things to be performed, when ſuch and ſuch ſums of money ſhall be advanced, and ſuch and ſuch engines are made, that have raiſed the fancies of credulous people to ſuch a height, that merely on the ſhadow of expectation, they have formed companies, choſe committees, appointed officers, ſhares, and books, raiſed great ſtocks, and cried up an empty notion to ſuch degree, that people have been betrayed to part with their money for ſhares in a NEW NOTHING: and when the inventors have carried on the jeſt, 'till they have ſold their own intereſt, they have left the cloud to vaniſh of itſelf, and the poor purchaſers to quarrel with one another, and go to law about ſettlements, transferrings, and ſome bone or other thrown among them by the ſubtlety of the authors, to lay the blame of the miſcarriage upon thoſe, who have been their bubbles. Thus the ſhares at firſt begin to fall by degrees, and happy is he that ſells in time, 'till like braſs money it will go at laſt for nothing at all. So have I ſeen ſhares in JOINT STOCKS, PATENTS, ENGINES, AND UNDERTAKINGS, blown up by the air of great words, and the name of ſome man of credit concerned, to 100 l. for a 500th part or ſhare, ſome more, and at laſt dwindle away, 'till it has been ſtock-jobbed down to 12, 10, 9, 8 l. a ſhare, and at laſt there has been no buyer; that is, in ſhort, the fine new word for nothing worth, and many families ruined by the purchaſe. If we ſhould name linen manufactures, ſaltpetre-works, copper-mines, diving-engines, and the like, for inſtances, we ſhould do no wrong to truth, or to ſome perſons that have been too viſibly guilty of forming ſuch like deceitful projects.

We might go on upon this ſubject to expoſe the FRAUDS AND TRICKS OF STOCK-JOBBERS, PATENTEES, COMMITTEES, WITH THOSE MOUNTEBANKS WE VERY PROPERLY CALL STOCK BROKERS; but we have not gall enough for ſuch a work: as a general rule of caution to thoſe who would not be tricked out of their eſtates by ſuch pretenders to enrich others, let them obſerve, that all ſuch people who may be ſuſpected of deſign, have aſſuredly this in their propoſals, to get a ROUND SUM TO themſelves, before any one elſe can hope to GET ANY THING.

But this is no reaſon why inventions upon honeſt foundations and to fair purpoſes, ſhould not be encouraged; no, nor why the author of any ſuch fair contrivances ſhould not reap the harveſt of his own ingenuity: our acts of parliament for granting patents to FIRST INVENTORS FOR FOURTEEN YEARS, is a ſufficient acknowlegment of the due regard which ought to be had to ſuch as find out any thing which may be of public advantage, new diſcoveries in trade, in arts and myſteries, of manufacturing goods, or improving of land, are, without queſtion, of as great benefit, as any diſcoveries made in the works of nature, by the ſeveral academies and royal ſocieties in the world.

There is, it is true, a great difference between new inventions and projects, for the improvement of manufactures or lands, which tend to the immediate benefit of the public, and employing of the poor, and thoſe framed by ſubtle heads, with a ſort of a deceptio viſus and legerdemain, to bring people to run needleſs or unuſual hazards: and we give a due preference to the firſt, and yet ſucceſs has ſo ſanctified ſome of thoſe other ſorts of projects, that it would be a kind of blaſphemy againſt fortune to diſallow them; witneſs Sir William Phipps's voyage to the wreck; it was a mere project, a lottery of a hundred thouſand to one odds; a hazard, which if it had failed, every body would have been aſhamed to have owned themſelves concerned in: a voyage that would have been as much rediculed as Don Quixote's adventure upon the windmill. Bleſs us! that folks ſhould go three thouſand miles to angle in the open ſea for pieces of eight! why they would have made ballads of it, and the merchants would have ſaid of every unlikely adventure, it was like Phipps's wreck voyage: but it had ſucceſs, and who reflects upon the project?

However, this ſort of projects comes under no reflection as to their honeſty, ſave that there is a kind of honeſty a man owes to himſelf and to his family, that prohibits him throwing away his eſtate in improbable and impracticable adventures; but ſtill ſome hit even of the moſt unlikely, of which this was one of Sir William Phipps's, who brought home a cargo of ſilver of near two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, in pieces of eight, fiſhed up out of the open ſea remote from any ſhore, from an old Spaniſh ſhip which had been ſunk above forty years.

REMARKS on our Article PROJECTOR.

A ſhort hiſtory of ſome remarkable projects.

The invention of arts with engines and handicraft inſtruments for their improvement, requires a chronology as far back as the eldeſt ſon of Adam, and has to this day afforded ſome new diſcovery in every age.

The building of the ark by Noah, ſo far as you will allow it a human work, was the firſt project we read of; and no queſtion ſeemed ſo rediculous to the graver heads of that wiſe, though wicked age, that poor Noah was ſufficiently bantered for it; and had he not been ſet on work by a very peculiar direction from heaven, the good old man would certainly have been laughed out of it, as a moſt ſenſeleſs and ridiculous project.

The building of Babel was a right project; for, indeed, the true definition of a project, according to modern acceptation, is a vaſt undertaking, too big to be managed, and therefore likely enough to come to nothing; and yet as great as they are, it is certainly true of them all, even as to the projectors propoſal; that according to the old tale, if ſo many eggs are hatched, there will be ſo many chickens, &c. Thus it was moſt certainly true, that if the people of the old world could have built a houſe up to heaven, they would never have been drowned again on earth, and they only had forgot to meaſure the heighth; that is, as in other projects, it only miſcarried, or elſe it would have ſucceeded.

And yet when all is done, that very building, and the incredible heighth to which it was carried, is a demonſtration of the vaſt knowlege, of that infant part of the world, which had no advantage of the experiments or invention of any before themſelves.

A very diverting account might, perhaps, be given of this, but I ſhall not attempt it. Some are apt to ſay with Solomon, No new thing happens under the ſun, but what is, or has been; yet I made no queſtion, but ſome conſiderable diſcoveries have been made in their later ages, and inventions of human original produced, which the world was ever without before, either in whole or in part; and I refer only to two cardinal points, the uſe of the load-ſtone at ſea, and the uſe of gun-powder and guns; both which, as to the inventing part, I believe the world owes as abſolutely to thoſe particular ages, as it does the working in braſs and iron to Tubal Cain, or the inventing of muſic to Jubal his brother.

As to engines and inſtruments for handicraft men, this age, I dare ſay, can ſhew ſuch as never were ſo much as thought of, much leſs imitated before; for that is not a real invention, which has ſomething before done like it, it is more properly an improvement. For handicraft inſtruments, I know none owes more to true genuine contrivance, without borrowing from any former uſe, than a mechanic engine contrived in our time, called a knitting-frame, which being contrived with admirable ſymmetry, works really with a very happy ſucceſs, and may be obſerved by the curious to have a more than ordinary compoſition, for which I refer to the engine itſelf, to be ſeen in every ſtocking-weaver's work-ſhop.

I ſhall trace the original of the projecting humour that has reigned more particularly in England, and ſome other parts of Europe, no farther back than the year 1680, dating it's birth as a monſter then, though it had indeed ſomething of life in the time of the late civil war. We allow, no age has been altogether without ſomething of this nature: and ſome very happy projects are left to us as a taſte of their ſucceſs, ſuch are the water-houſes for ſupplying of the city of London with water, and ſince that, the New-River, both very conſiderable undertakings, and perfect projects, adventured on the riſque of ſucceſs.

In the reign of King Charles the Firſt, infinite projects were ſet on foot for raiſing money without a parliament; oppreſſing by monopolies and privy ſeals; but theſe are excluded our our ſcheme, as irregularities: for thus the French are as fruitful in projects as we, and theſe are rather expedients or ſtratagems than projects.

After the fire of London, the contrivance of an engine to quench fires, was a project the author was ſaid to get well by, and we have found to be very uſeful. But about the year 1680, the art and myſtery of projecting began viſibly to creep into the world. Prince Rupert, uncle to king Charles II. gave great encouragement to that part of it which reſpects engines, and mechanical motions; and biſhop Wilkins added as much of the theory to it, as writing a book could do: the prince has left us a metal called by his name, and the firſt project upon that was caſting of guns of that metal, and boring them; done both by a peculiar method of his own, and which died with him, to the great loſs of the undertaker; who, to that purpoſe, had, with no ſmall charge, erected a water-mill at Hackney-marſh, known by the name of the Temple-mill, which mill very happily performed all parts of the work: and there were of theſe guns on board the Royal Charles, a firſt rate ſhip, being of a reddiſh colour, different either from braſs or copper. There might be ſome reaſons of ſtate, for laying that project aſide. After this there was a floating machine ſet on foot, to be wrought with horſes for the towing of great ſhips, both againſt wind and tide; and another for the raiſing of ballaſt, which, as unperforming engines, had the honour of being made, expoſed, tried, and laid by, before the prince died.

If thus we introduce it into the world under the conduct of that prince, when he died, it was left a hopeleſs brat, and had hardly any hand to own it, 'till the wreck voyage before noted, performed ſo happily by Capt. Phipps, afterwards Sir William; whoſe ſtrange performance ſet a great many heads at work, to contrive ſomething for themſelves; he was immediatley

mediately followed by my lord Mordaunt, Sir John Narborough, and others from ſeveral parts, whoſe ſucceſs made them ſoon weary of the work.

The project of the penny-poſt, ſo well known, and ſtill practiſed, I cannot omit; nor the contriver, Mr Dockwra, who had the honour to have the injury done him in that affair repaired, in ſome meaſure, by the public juſtice of parliament. And the experiment proving it to be a noble and uſeful deſign, the author muſt be remembered, to his great reputation.

It was, no queſtion, a great hardſhip for a man to be maſter of ſo fine a thought, that had both the eſſential ends of a project in it, public good and private advantage; and that the public ſhould reap the benefit, and the author be left out; the injuſtice of which, no doubt, diſcouraged many a good deſign; but ſince an alteration in public circumſtances recovered the loſt attribute of juſtice, the like, we hope, is not to be feared in future. Mr Dockwra had the ſatisfaction to ſee the former injury diſowned, and an honourable return made, even by them who did not the injury, in bare reſpect to his ingenuity.

A while after this, ſeveral people, under the patronage of ſome great perſons, had engaged in planting of foreign colonies; as William Penn, the lord Shaftſbury, Dr Cox, and others, in Penſilvania, Carolina, Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, and the like places; which we do not call projects, becauſe it was only proſecuting what had been formerly begun: but here began the forming of public joint ſtocks, which, together with the Eaſt-India, African, and Hudſon's-Bay companies, before eſtabliſhed, begat a new trade, which we call by the new name of STOCK-JOBBING; which was at firſt only the ſimple occaſional transferring of intereſt and ſhares from one to another, as perſons alienated their eſtates; but, by the induſtry of the STOCK-BROKERS, who got the buſineſs into their hands, it became a trade; and one, perhaps, which has been managed with the greateſt intrigue, artifice, and trick, that ever any thing which appeared with a face of honeſty could be handled with; for, while the brokers HELD THE BOX, they made the whole exchange THE GAMESTERS, and raiſed and lowered the prices of ſtocks as they pleaſed; and always had both buyers and ſellers, who ſtood ready, innocently to commit their money to the mercy of their mercenary tongues. This upſtart of a trade having taſted the ſweetneſs of ſucceſs, which generally attends a naval propoſal, introduced the illegitimate wandering object I ſpeak of, as a proper engine to find work for the brokers. Thus ſtock jobbing nurſed projecting, and projecting in return has very diligently pimped for it's foſter parent, 'till both are arrived to be public grievances; and, indeed, are now almoſt grown ſcandalous to the nation.

Ever ſince the ſuperlative art of fund-projection hath been cheriſhed in this kingdom, we have had PROJECT UPON PROJECT, AND BUBBLE UPON BUBBLE, IN ORDER TO RUN US INTO DEBT, AND MULTIPLY OUR TAXES THE FASTER; whereby the millions upon millions that we have gained by SOLID COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, HAVE BEEN TRANSFERRED TO FOREIGNERS FOR THE PAYMENT OF INTEREST OF OUR NATIONAL INCUMBRANCES, AND OTHERWISE SQUANDERED AMONG USURERS AND MONEY-MONGERS, WHO HAVE INDOLENTLY SUBSISTED ON THEIR INCOME FROM THE EXCHEQUER, inſtead of employing their capital IN TRADE, for the employment of the INDIGENT, FOR THE SUBSTANTIAL RICHES OF THE STATE, and the permanent ſupport of the PUBLIC CREDIT. To ſuch a pitch of projecting have theſe meaſures brought the nation, that in the year 1720, the whole kingdom became PROJECTORS AND BUBBLE-MONGERS, OUR COMMERCE SUSTAINED AN UNIVERSAL TEMPORARY STAGNATION, AND THE PUBLIC CREDIT WAS SUNK TO AN EBB ALMOST PAST RECOVERY. This has already once proved the fatal effect of fund-projects: and as the harpies of thoſe times were for a time ſucceſsful, in this their moſt ſuperlative ſcheme of iniquity, with intent to draw all the TREASURE OF THE NATION into thoſe FEW HANDS, who were in the SECRET; ſo tribes of inferior projectors afterwards broached ſcheme after ſcheme, in order to plunder the public of what little the South-Sea blood-ſuckers had left them poſſeſſed of. See our articles ACTIONS, and BUBBLES, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

After the bleſſed æra of 1720, and the dreadful wound which the nation had received from that deteſtable South-Sea project, was ſkinned over, we had another cardinal project offered to the nation, for the payment of the NATIONAL DEBTS, and the infallible ſupport of the PUBLIC CREDIT: this was the eſtabliſhment of a SINKING FUND, in order gradually to ſink or diminiſh the public debts: and this was to be the SOVEREIGN SPECIFIC to cure the nation of all it's maladies; but what has been the end of this project? Why truly, inſtead, of this SACRED FUND being inviolably applied to the gradual payment of our PRINCIPAL MONEY-DEBT, it has been made ſubſervient to the increaſe thereof, from 50 to 80 MILLIONS! and from 80 to 140 MILLIONS! See the aaticles INTEREST of MONEY, CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS.

And although it coſt the nation ſeveral millions of money in the public accounts, to bring the IRREDEEMABLE public debts into a ſtate of REDEMPTION, in order to amuſe the public with a notion of the gradual payment thereof; yet have we not had project after project ſince, to render our debts again IRREDEEMABLE? Are not theſe retrograde meaſures a certain indication and proof, that our funds have hitherto been only tampered with by SUPERFICIAL PROJECTS, which have ſwelled inſtead of leſſened the NATIONAL INCUMBRANCES? Has the reduction of intereſt in the public funds hitherto proved any thing more than a TEMPORARY EXPEDIENT (which is no better than a time-ſerving PROJECT) to raiſe a fund to pay INTEREST-MONEY FOR MORE AND MORE PUBLIC DEBTS; and the more theſe national incumbrances increaſe, will not the whole property of the MONEYED-INTEREST become more and more PRECARIOUS? And what may one day be the inevitable conſequence of ſuch fund-bubbles, ſee our article MONEYED-INTEREST.

The grand project upon which the credit of our funds ſeems to be bottomed at preſent, is that only of the continued REDUCTION OF INTEREST, 'TILL THE PRINCIPAL MONEY-DEBT SHALL AT LENGTH BECOME TO BE WORTH NOTHING; and if this project is our only reſource in times of exigency, muſt not the property of the public creditors be reduced to an intereſt of 2 per cent. and at length to one, and from thence may not this reducing project abſolutely annihilate the whole 140 millions of money now due to the public creditors?

But if this ſcheme of reduction, carried to extremity, is to be the nation's whole dependance, muſt it not, in the end, defeat itſelf; for what is it that ſupports theſe funds, whoſe ſurpluſſes conſtitute the SINKING FUND, but the SPENDING-MONEY of the nation, which ſupports the whole public revenue? And if the SPENDING-MONEY, or the INTEREST-MONEY of the FUND PROPRIETORS is once reduced to little or nothing, what will become of the AGGREGATE FUND, THE SOUTH-SEA FUND, AND THE GENERAL FUND, the ſurpluſages of which conſtitute ſo great a proportion of the Sinking fund? Does not this conſideration alone, demonſtrate the truth of what we have endeavoured to ſhew in many other lights, viz. that the PRESENT CONSTITUTION OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF THIS KINGDOM, IS NOT FOUNDED ON A NATIONAL BASIS, and that the PUBLIC CREDIT, and the COMMERCE of the kingdom, cannot be upheld, and advanced by ſuch PROJECTING EXPEDIENTS? For really they are no better, the effects thereof having hitherto proved it beyond contradiction, however plauſible and artfully ſome people may attempt to ſhew the contrary, to anſwer ſuch temporary purpoſes only, as will tend to plunge the nation into greater and greater debts and difficulties, inſtead of extricating it from thoſe under which it manifeſtly labours.

Does not this ſtate to which the public revenue is now reduced, prove the rectitude of that meaſure, THAT THE ANNUAL EXPENCE OUGHT NEVER TO EXCEED THE ANNUAL REVENUE; and that, conſequently, when an increaſe of the former becomes neceſſary for ſecuring or vindicating the honour or rights of a nation, the latter ought to be increaſed in proportion, if neceſſary, even to the utmoſt the people can ſpare from their daily ſubſiſtence?

For ſuch honeſt and honourable projects, that will ſolidly and permanently ſupport and uphold the true intereſt, and the honour and glory of the kingdom, ſee our articles ARTIFICER, DUTIES, MANUFACTURER, LABOUR, LAND, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, MUSÆUM, PARLIAMENT, [MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT], PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, POOR, ROYAL SOCIETY, REVENUE, SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, TAXES, WAR.

PROVENCE, in France, is bounded on the north by Dauphine, on the eaſt by the Alps, and the river Var parts it from the dominions of the duke of Savoy; on the ſouth it has the Mediterranean Sea, and on the weſt it incloſes the ſtate of Avignon, and is ſeparated from Languedoc by the Rhône.

The trade of this province is very conſiderable, for almoſt all the trade of France to Italy, Spain, and eſpecially the Levant, is carried on at Marſeilles; and if we may credit an account publiſhed ſome time ago, they ſend into Italy for above three millions and fifty thouſand livres of merchandize, viz. of cloth and other woollen ſtuffs manufactured in Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Province, to the value of two millions of livers; almonds, plumbs, figs, honey, capers, olives, anchovies, oil, brandy, cotton, linen, &c. all which articles amount to above a million more.—They take in return, hemp, wheat, rice, ſulphur, manna, and ſilk. Their trade to Spain is more conſiderable ſtill, ſince it amounts to nine millions, one hundred and ſeventy thouſand livres. The merchandizes are all ſorts of linens made in France, gold and ſilver lace, fine ſilks, manufactured at Avignon, hats, toys, cottons, all ſorts of drugs, &c.

They drive alſo a conſiderable trade to the Levant, whither they ſend above one hundred veſſels of more or leſs burden, viz. to Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Candi, Aleppo, Cairo, Alexandria, &c. [See the article LEVANT TRADE.]

The climate and ſoil is not the ſame over all Provence. In the upper part the air is temperate, and the country abounds in paſtures and cattle, and produces corn, apples, pears, and very little wine, but what there is of it, is very good. In Lower Provence the air is exceſſive hot, and would be more ſo along the ſea-coaſt, were it not for the wind that blows generally from ten in the morning 'till nine at night. The north-weſterly wind alſo cools this part of the country, and ſometimes dries the ground prodigiouſly. This part of the country does not produce half the quantity of corn neceſſary for the uſe of the inhabitants, and it's dry and ſandy ground is covered with pomegranates, orange, lemon, and olive-trees, cypreſs-trees, palm-trees, fig-trees, and ſeveral others peculiar to the country. There is here a great deal of wine, but it is ſtrong, heady, and ſweet. The fiſh they take in the Mediterranean, is not by a great deal ſo good as that of the ocean.

It is believed that there are in this country, eſpecially in an eſtate belonging to the marquis de Lue, mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and lead: and, notwithſtanding the exceſſive heat of this country, there are here many woods, which afford a great quantity of timber for ſhipping and other uſes. In the wood of the county of Salt, there are ſeveral glaſs-houſes.

There are no conſiderable rivers in this province; thoſe of ſome note are the Durance, the Sorgue, the Largens, the Lore, the Verdon, the Hubaye, the Baune or Weaume, and the Var.

Provence is uſually divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower. We ſhall, however, enlarge only on the chief places of commerce in this county.

AIX, the metropolis of Provence. There is here a parliament, which judges, in the laſt reſort, all the cauſes of the province; a court of aids and finances, a court or chamber of accounts, a generality, an office of treaſurers of France, and a court of the mint. The other conſiderable places in this dioceſe, are St Maximine, Brignole, and Barjols.

RIEZ, ſituated on the rivulet Auveſtre, about 9 leagues from Aix to the north-weſt, in a pleaſant country, which abounds in excellent wines, and moſt ſorts of fruit.

SENEE', ſituated in a cold and barren country amongſt mountains.

COLMARS, in the Alps, on the river Verdun, on the borders of the county of Nice. They make here a great quantity of coarſe cloth, which they ſell to the inhabitants of the mountains of Provence and Piedmont.

CASTELLANE, ſituated in a fruitful and agreeable vale.

ARLES, ſituated on the eaſtern bank of the river Rhône, over which, it has a timber bridge. The city was formerly the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, and is at preſent a fair and ſpacious city, dignified with a metropolitan ſee, and an academy of men of letters, known by the name of The Royal Academy of Sciences and Languages.

MARSEILLES, one of the richeſt, moſt populous, and moſt ancient cities of France; was founded, they ſay, 500 years before Chriſt, by a colony of merchants from Phocis in Ionia. They flouriſhed in the time of Julius Cæſar, when they lived under a republican government, and had a famous academy, much frequented by the young gentlemen of France, and even of Rome. But as they followed Pompey's party, againſt Cæſar, they were ſubdued by the latter. Having thus loſt their power, they applied themſelves to get riches, and even gave themſelves up to pleaſure, to ſuch a degree, that the manners of the Marſeillians became a common proverb, to expreſs all kind of luxury and diſſoluteneſs, as we learn from Athenæus. However, they had acquired much reputation in former times, on account of their learning and courteouſneſs, according to the teſtimony of Cicero: they now excel chiefly in the knowlege of maritime affairs, for the capital gallies of France are laid up here, and it is the uſual rendezvous of all the Levantine ſhips, and the whole Turky trade of France. See LEVANT TRADE, with regard to the regulations made thereof in France, as the ſame reſpect this city.

The city is ſituated on a little hill, and has a very capacious and ſafe harbour on the coaſts of the Mediterranean Sea, at the diſtance of about ſeven leagues from Aix to the ſouth, aud fourteen from Arles to the ſouth-eaſt. The port, which is defended on one ſide by a fortreſs, and the abbey of St Victor, is flanked on the other with a wall above 1300 paces long, it's mouth being ſhut up with a chain, lying at a certain diſtance, on three pillars of ſtone, leaving a ſpace open for the paſſage only of one large veſſel. This harbour is very long, and runs far into the land, taking in almoſt the whole length of the city, but is not very broad, nor deep enough for the largeſt veſſels. The city itſelf enjoys at preſent great privileges, and is one of the fineſt in France, ſince it has been enlarged by Lewis XIV, ſo that it's citadels, new ſtreets, public places, ſtately edifices, magnificent churches, monaſteries, colleges, ſeminaries, hoſpitals, courts of judicature, havens, arſenal, gallies, &c. are well worth a ſtranger's particular obſervation.

TOULON is extremely well ſituated, being open to the ſouth, and ſheltered on the north by very high mountains, which render it's port one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the world. The city is pretty large, but very dirty almoſt every where; it is diſtant about ten leagues eaſt from Marſeilles, twenty-four from Nice to the ſouth-weſt, and thirty from the borders of Dauphiné to the ſouth, and about 125 from Paris. It is a ſtrong city, adorned with ſeveral churches, monaſteries, and other public edifices. King Henry IV. fortified it with ſtrong walls, and built two large moles, each whereof is 700 paces long, incloſing almoſt the whole port; near them is alſo erected an arſenal, furniſhed with all ſorts of naval ſtores, whence the largeſt ſhips of the royal fleet of France are uſually fitted out; and for their ſecurity, the fortifications have been very much increaſed by Lewis XIV. On two ſides of the city, viz. north-eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, at a very ſmall diſtance, lie very ſteep and inacceſſible hills: that of St Anne's, on the north-eaſt, perfectly commands the town, and ſinks with a declivity on that ſide, but on the country ſide it is a perpendicular rock. On the ſea-ſide it is extremely well defended by batteries of cannon flanking all the avenues. In the mouth of the haven lies a ſtockade or boom, between which and a little neck of land, there is a paſs of good deep water; but that is ſecured by a great tower, whereon are mounted 30 guns, which carry 24 pound balls. This tower our fleet, under Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, endeavoured to gain, and had in effect done it, if an unlucky ſhot had not blown up the magazine of gunpowder in fort St Laurence.

The port is one of the fineſt in Europe: you enter firſt into a large and very ſafe road, defended by ſeveral batteries and forts. At one of the extremities of this road lies the port, the entrance of which is ſo narrow, that the ſhips cannot enter it, but one by one, and it is defended by ſeveral batteries well mounted with guns.

The dioceſe of Toulon is of a very ſmall extent, comprehending in all but 25 pariſhes. One of the principal places in this biſhopric, is the city of

HIERES, which was formerly a conſiderable place, being a ſea-port town; but the harbour is at preſent filled up, and the ſea retired above 2000 paces from this place. The ſoil here is very good and fruitful, and produces excellent fruit. This place gives the name to the iſland of Hieres.

FREJUS, or FREJULS. There is here a ſmall harbour, at the mouth of the river Argents, from which this city is a league diſtant; it is 14 leagues from Toulon to the north-eaſt, 10 from Antibes to the north-weſt, and 20 from Aix to the eaſt.

PRUSSIA. This country is divided into Pruſſia Royal and Ducal; extends from 52, 50, to the 56th degree of north latitude, and from 16, 50, to 23, 54 degrees of eaſt longitude. It is bounded by the Baltic Sea on the north, by Lithuania and Samogitia on the eaſt, by Poland Proper and Maſovia on the ſouth, and Pomerania on the weſt. It is about 1250 miles in length, and in breadth above 140 in the weſt part, and in the eaſt part more than 170; though ſome extend it 30 miles more, both in length and breadth. It contains a vaſt number of fine trading towns, beſides many populous villages equal to ſome cities, has the moſt inland navigation of any country in Europe of it's bigneſs, except the Netherlands, and is ſaid to be the richeſt ſoil, and the moſt plentiful in produce.

It abounds with cattle, wild beaſts, and fruits of all ſorts, and is ſaid to be watered with above 2030 rivers and lakes, which ſupply the inhabitants with all kinds of fiſh. It has a conſiderable trade by many convenient ports, towards the Baltic, as well as by the Veiſſel, which falls into the Baltic at Dantzic, after having divided itſelf into ſeveral branches, and made the three iſlands called the Werder: ſo that the inhabitants are richer, and live better than in any other province of Poland. It's woods furniſh plenty of veniſon, and it's ſea-coaſts a great quantity of amber, which is tranſported all over Europe. It flows on the ſea like oil, and after being expoſed to the air, grows hard. The people take it up with hoſe-nets, faſtened to long poles, when the tide flows, and ſometimes catch pieces as big as one's fiſt.

A great deal of glaſs is made in this country, of the aſhes of wood, and largeſt ſort of pebbles: theſe they boil twelve hours, before they will vitrify. When they would have their glaſs clearer than ordinary, they mix a certain earth with the aſhes, of the colour and hardneſs of tartar; which renders the glaſs of different colours, according to the quantity of this earth which is mixed with it. See GLASS.

Though the eaſtern part of this country, which was all along called Ducal, to diſtinguiſh it from the Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia, is now alſo termed Royal, ſince his preſent Pruſſian Majeſty's grandfather firſt took on him the title of king of Pruſſia, and was recognized as ſuch by the reſt of the powers of Europe; we ſhall, nevertheleſs, treat of it according to the antient diviſion of it, by geographers, into the Royal and Ducal.

The ROYAL, or POLISH PRUSIA, which is the weſt part, and ſubject to the king of Poland, has Ducal Pruſſia on the eaſt, Brandenburgh and Pomerania on the weſt, Poland on the ſouth, and the Baltic on the north, and is 130 miles from

east to weſt, and 110, where broadeſt, from ſouth to north. It is divided into the four palatinates of Pomerellia, or Poliſh Pomerania, Culm, Marienburg, and Pomerania, and the caſtellans of Elbing and Dantzic.

The palatinate of POMERELLIA, or POLISH POMERANIA, has Brandenburg Pomerania on the weſt, the river Veiſſel on the eaſt, the Baltic on the north, and Great Poland on the ſouth.

DANTZIC ſtands on a branch of the Veiſſel, about four miles above where it falls into the Baltic Sea, 24 miles north-weſt of Marienburg, 35 weſt from Elbing, 84 north from Thorn, 175 eaſt from Stetin, and north from Gneſna, 154 north-weſt from Warſaw, and 256 north from Cracow. It is a free imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns. [See the article HANS-TOWNS.] In the 9th century it was reckoned the chief place in the world for fiſhing up amber.

This city is now the chief ſtaple of Poland for import and export, the greateſt emporium of the Baltic Sea, and perhaps one of the greateſt granaries in Europe; it being ſuch a famous mart, that vaſt fleets of ſhips come hither every year from Holland to fetch corn, there being little elſe uſed, either in the province of Holland or Zealand. In ſhort, if we only except London and Amſterdam, it may be ſaid to equal, if not to excel, any other city in thoſe parts of Europe.

The chief export of the place is in corn brought from Poland: it is computed that 730,000 tons, or 365,000 laſts of wheat are ſhipped from hence one year with another. The citizens have the ſole privilege of buying up the corn, as ſoon as it enters the harbour. The magiſtrates ſet a price upon it, but that the country people, who are the ſellers, may not be impoſed upon, and delayed, the citizens are obliged to buy up the whole quantity which the boats bring in, let it be what it will.

Though this city takes off a great quantity of the woollen manufactures of Great-Britain, yet the Dutch ſending ſo many ſhips for corn to Dantzic, which muſt return empty if they have no goods to carry, the freight thereby coſting them nothing, have the chief trade of courſe. Alſo all the heavy goods of Great-Britain, ſuch as tobacco, ſugar, rice, &c. are ſupplied much cheaper by the Dutch; ſo that, in a word, the Engliſh trade to this city is much leſs profitable than formerly; and yet the Engliſh goods are imported to Dantzic, and ſent up into Poland, as much, and perhaps, more, than ever. Dantzic is the chief market to which the Dutch, and alſo the Scots ſend their pickled herrings; which are ſo good a merchandize in Poland, that, it is ſaid, the Dutch fell at Dantzic, Elbing, and Koningſberg, 14000 tons or laſts of herrings every year, beſides the great quantities which Scotland alſo ſend thither.

The Dutch alſo ſend juniper ſpirits hither, together with ſalt, ſulphur, whale-fins, and train-oil; and would ſend more of the latter, were it not for the great quantities of oil which the Dantzickers raiſe from the ſmaller ſort of ſturgeon, and other fiſh, and from linſeed, rape-ſeed, &c. Beſides corn, of which there is not ſuch quantity exported any where as here, the Dantzickers export pot-aſhes, ſturgeon, Poliſh linen, fail-cloth, and great quantities of ſpruce canvas, which is uſed for ſails for ſmall ſhipping in England, and even in Spain and Italy. See the article CANVAS.

The Dutch, who bring herrings hither, beſides their Eaſt-India goods, fetch great quantities of Poliſh ſheeps-wool from hence, which is the beſt in all the northern world, the Engliſh and Iriſh only excepted, and which they employ in their cloth manufacture. The French alſo bring ſome of it away, and would bring more, if they did not find means to get it upon eaſy terms from England and Ireland. The Poliſh wool is alſo exported to Germany and Sweden.

The Dantzickers have a wine of that ſort they call tockay, but it is no other than the Poliſh wines of the mountains of Cracow and Podolia.

Some of the beſt Eaſt-country plank, as we call it, or oaken plank for building ſhips, is brought from this city, as well as Koningſberg and Stetin, and comes down the Viſtula and Oder, out of the Great Poland. The Dutch cargoes, beſides thoſe already mentioned, generally conſiſt of Engliſh woollen manufactures, and the ſugar and tobacco of the Engliſh colonies, with the French ſilks, wines, and brandy.

The harbour is not deep, ſo that large ſhips can ſcarce come up to the city.

They have no men of war, but abundance of merchant-ſhips, of 300] tons, and 30 or 40 guns a-piece. They have 200 ſoldiers in pay, can eaſily maintain 12,000, and have ſometimes had an army of 60,000 men.

There is an iſland ſea, or bay here, called the Friſchaff, which lies parallel with the Baltic coaſt for 60 miles in length, but is of an uneven breadth, being from 5 to 10 miles over. It begins at the territory of Dantzic, where is a very large inlet from the Dantzic branch of the Viſtula, aud which makes the port of Elbing, juſt oppoſite to the mouth of the river Elbing, ſtanding on another entrance of it, a little farther eaſt. This bay is famous for ſturgeon, a vaſt quantity of which is taken here, cured at Koningſberg and Dantzic, and ſent to all the trading ports of Europe, eſpecially England and Holland.

CULM, the ſecond palatinate of Royal Pruſſia, lies on the eaſt ſide of the Veiſſel, betwixt that river, Great Poland, and Ducal Pruſſia.

The city of this name is 23 miles north of Thorn, 60 ſouth of Dantzic, and 43 north-weſt of Uladiſlaus. It is pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, at the foot of which runs the Veiſſel, and has ſtill the name of a Hanſe-Town, but has loſt it's trade.

THORN, 24 miles ſouth of Culm, 72 from Marienburgh, 84 from Danizic, 20 north-eaſt from Uladiſlaus, 60 north from Lencieia, and 93 north-weſt from Warſaw. It is a Hanſe-Town, divided by the Veiſſel into two parts: it is the fineſt and beſt built in all Royal Pruſſia, the ſtreets being much broader, and the houſes ſtatelier, than at Dantzic. Cluverius ſays it was a famous mart long before Dantzic.

MARIENBUGH, the third palatinate of Poliſh Pruſſia, on the eaſt ſide of the Veiſſel, and north of Thorn. It is bounded on the north partly by the Baltic and the Friſchaff, and on the weſt by the palatinate of Pomerellia. It is a champain level country, like Holland, as fruitful as that province is, and as populous as any part of it, Amſterdam excepted.

MARIENBURGH ſtands on the Nogat, a branch of the Veiſſel, 18 miles ſouth-weſt of Elbing, 25 ſouth-eaſt of Danzic, and near 72 north of Thorn. The adjacent ſoil is fruitful and well cultivated, as is the neighbouring iſland of the ſame name, formed by the river.

ELBING, on a river of the ſame name, that riſes out of the lake Drauſen, and falls here into the Friſchaff, is four or five miles from the Veiſſel, 18 miles to the north-eaſt of Marienburgh, 35 eaſt of Dantzic, 95 north of Uladiſlaus, and 133 north-weſt of Warſaw. It is the metropolis of the palatinate, the chief town of Hockerland, and the only port, except Dantzic, in all Poliſh Pruſſia. It is a fair, neat, rich, ſtrong, well-built, and populous city, in a delightful ſituation, and a place of great trade, the inhabitants being wholly addicted to buſineſs and commerce. It's principal trade is in ſturgeon, butter, cheeſe, mead, and corn.

WARMIA, the fourth palatinate of this country, which joins to that of Marienburgh, and lies north-eaſt from Elbing, being ſurrounded in a manner by the Ducal Pruſſia and the Friſchaff.

The chief town of this palatinate is BRAUNSBERG, or BRAUNSLAW, on the river Paſſar, near the bay of Friſchaff, 25 miles north-eaſt of Elbing, and 50 eaſt of Dantzic. It is a populous place, much frequented and eſteemed, and is noted for a good trade.

The DUCAL PRUSSIA has Poliſh Pruſſia on the weſt; Lithuania on the eaſt; Samogitia, and the bay of Courland, on the north; and the palatinate of Warſaw on the ſouth. It is about 130 miles from north to ſouth, where longeſt, and 120 from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt; ſo that it is much larger than Poliſh Pruſſia, but not ſo fruitful, nor conſiderable for trade and towns. It is divided into the three following circles, or provinces.

The province of SMALZAND; the capital of which, and indeed of the whole kingdom of Pruſſia, is

KONINGSBERG, at the mouth of the river Pregel, where it falls into the Friſchaff, 55 miles north-eaſt from Elbing, 84 from Dantzic, and 153 from Warſaw. It is a Hanſe-Town, large, well built, and divided into three parts by the river; one part, called Lebenicht, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, that commands the harbour, and makes it a great emporium of trade, which is chiefly in yellow amber, found on the coaſt, honey and wax, corn, naval ſtores, ſturgeon, train-oil, linen-yarn, cordage, and ſeveral other things, of ſuch univerſal uſe, that this, like Dantzic, is always full of ſhips, from moſt parts of the trading world, even from Spain and Portugal. In ſhort, it is a rich city, and a place of vaſt buſineſs, the exportation here being the ſame as it is upon all this coaſt from Stralſund on the weſt, to Narva on the eaſt.

PILAW, a very ſafe port on the Baltic, at the mouth of the Friſchaff, 30 miles weſt of Koningſberg, is noted for ſturgeon-fiſhing.

Of the EXCHANGES of DANTZIC and KONINGSBERG.

Uſance of Dantzic for Germany is as for Koningſberg, at 15 days ſight; for Amſterdam, at 40 days after date, or a month after ſight; and at Koningſberg 41 days. In both theſe places there are allowed 10 days of grace after the expiration of the time mentioned in the bill of exchange.

They keep their accounts in rixdollars, gros, and fenings; or in florins, gros, and fenings. The rixdollar=3 florins, or 90 gros, the florin=30 gros, the gros=18 fenings.

DANTZIC and KONINGSBERG

Gives	To receive	
72 rixdollars, more or leſs,	in France,	100 crowns d'or ſol.
270 gros Poland,—idem	in Holland,	1 livre gros banco.
100 rixdollars	at Breſlaw,	103 rixdollars, more or leſs.
84 gros Poland, more or leſs,	at Frankfort,	1 rixdollar current.
110 dittos—idem	at Hamburgh,	1 rixdollar banco. [money.
100 rixdollars	at Leipſic,	101 rixdollars, more or leſs, current
56 gros Poland more or leſs,	at Nuremberg,	1 florin current money.

REMARKS

REMARKS on the article PRUSSIA before the laſt war.

The Pruſſian monarch has great forces, large revenues, a genius capable of conducting both, and a moderation that will reſtrain him from attempts ſuperior to theſe. He knows perfectly well, that the grandeur of the ſovereign muſt be eſtabliſhed upon the welfare of the ſubject, and this has excited him to ſhew the ſame regard for the happineſs of his people, as for the extenſion of his own power; or rather has induced him to make the latter always ſubſervient to the former. He is known to have an inclination to become a maritime power, or which is the ſame thing in other words, to enable his ſubjects to encreaſe their wealth by their induſtry, through the channels of foreign trade.

Now though there are many, and, amongſt them, ſome ſtateſmen, who treat this as a chimera, yet we are told the direct contrary, and are inclined to think that this monarch, and his ſucceſſors, will actually carry that point; and we think ſo, becauſe there is no great improbability in ſuppoſing that they may be, ſome time or other, maſters of a ſea-coaſt four or five hundred miles in extent. It would require more time and room than we have at preſent to beſtow, to endeavour the explanation of this, ſo as to bring it within the reach of every capacity: but whoever will conſult the maps, conſider the preſent ſtate of things, and the vaſt improvements in the power of an abſolute monarch to make, who knows what he is doing, and what is to be done, in carrying a favourite point, which is at the ſame time, his people's point, as well as his own: I ſay, whoever will reflect upon theſe things, will not conſider what we have advanced as a viſionary deluſion.

His views might certainly have been altered, his meaſures changed, and his deſigns otherwiſe directed than they have been. But then this did not depend intirely upon him, there muſt have been a concurrence in other powers to have brought this about; for, to manage a wiſe prince, true to his own intereſts, he muſt be ſhewn, that thoſe who deſire to have him for a friend and ally, have no intention to reſtrain, no inclination to defeat, the meaſures he takes for that purpoſe, while they are not deſtructive or dangerous to themſelves.

To manifeſt a diſpoſition contrary to this, is ſufficient to give another biaſs to his councils; and, when we ſee a prince of the king of Pruſſia's turn continue, as it were, always armed at an immenſe expence, we muſt conclude that he has ſome great enterprize in view, which whenever time ſhall diſcloſe, it will alſo diſcover that he took proper meaſures for carrying that point, whatever it is, which thoſe armaments have been intended to compaſs.

The ſituation of his preſent Majeſty's territories is ſuch, as obliges him to have a conſtant eye to the affairs of the North, where no power was ever predominant, but his predeceſſors ſuffered for it, and their dominions and eſtates. With reſpect to the dukes of Courland, they have been, generally ſpeaking, cloſely allied to the houſe of Brandenburgh by marriage, which, as it ſhews the antient connection of their intereſts, diſcovers alſo the reaſon why this prince is ſtill ſo attentive to the choice which the Courlanders may make of a new duke.

The province of Samogitia in Poland, with the duchy of Courland, divide the Ducal Pruſſia from the territories of the Czarina; and, therefore, in the preſent ſtate of things, it is but natural that the king of Pruſſia ſhould deſire to ſee the hands of the Polanders ſtrengthened, and the inhabitants of Courland ſet entirely free; becauſe he might then flatter himſelf, that, in caſe at any time hereafter the troubles of Germany ſhould revive, his territories would be ſafe from any ſudden invaſion by the Ruſſians, with which he was threatened but a few years ago, when his concerns were in a very critical poſture.

It is alſo very likely, that he would be glad to annex what the Swedes ſtill retain in Pomerania, to the reſt of that country which is already in his poſſeſſion, not from any jealouſy of the Swedes, or from a deſire of aggrandizing himſelf at the expence of his neighbours and allies, but on the ſcore of convenience, and the better connection of his eſtates. We may from thence infer, that he will never ſeek to procure this in any other than an amicable way, and with the conſent of the Swedes, in conſideration of ſome kind of equivalent or other. It may be, this acquiſition is ſtill at a great diſtance; and it may be, alſo, that the meaſures which this great monarch has concerted in reference to the affairs of the North, will bring this about ſooner than is generally imagined. But be that as it will, there is no queſtion that, whenever it is effected, the power of Pruſſia will be very much augmented thereby, and the liberties of the Empire will then ſtand in need of no guardian without the limits of Germany.

While theſe deſigns attract the thoughts, and employ the hands of this active prince, he will certainly maintain a good correſpondence with all thoſe powers that are neighbours to him, in reſpect to the reſt of his dominions, which will leave the inhabitants of the United Provinces at full liberty to redreſs their own grievances in their own manner, and to recover the antient ſtrength and vigour of their government, in conſequence of reſtoring that form under which it was firſt conſtituted, and for a long ſeries of years happily flouriſhed.

But whenever thoſe ſtruggles for power which have embarraſſed and diſtracted the potentates of the North, ſhall be by negociation or otherwiſe compoſed, we have very little room to doubt that his Majeſty of Pruſſia will again turn his views towards the countries of Cleves and Guelders, and the principality of EAST FRIESLAND, where he has the very important and commodious port of EMBDEN, to facilitate the ſchemes he may form in favour of the commerce of his ſubjects, to which he ſeems to apply himſelf with equal induſtry and ſpirit, as that he has no reaſon to ſuſpect his neighbours may force him ſuddenly into a war, while his councils are wholly taken up in cultivating the arts of peace and traffic.

He will by that time have ſerved himſelf to the utmoſt, of whatever aſſiſtance France may have found it her intereſt to give them, for more than that ſhe will never give; and his ſenſe of this will engage him not to perſiſt any longer in the proſecution of meaſures acceptable to the court of Verſailles, than they are conducive to the extenſion or eſtabliſhment of his power and influence. He will then ſee that indepency, and being at the HEAD OF THE PROTESTANT INTEREST IN GERMANY, is ſufficient to gratify his utmoſt ambition, and to raiſe him to the higheſt point of authority, by making him courted and reſpected by all his neighbours, and, as occaſions offer, the umpire of all their differences.

Theſe are, indeed but ſuppoſitions, but then they are built upon ſolid and rational foundations; whereas thoſe who fancy that he will, ſome time or other, be ſwallowed up by a confederacy of powerful neighbours, or deſpoiled of a great part of his territories, are not able to offer either facts or arguments to counſel their opinion, ſince hitherto we have never ſeen him attempt beyond his ſtrength; nor has it appeared in all his military regulations, freſh eſtabliſhments, new diſcipline, &c. that the power moſt concerned, or which thinks herſelf moſt concerned to traverſe the deſigns of Pruſſia, has been able to do it with any great effect, even in conjunction with a very uſeful ally, who, after being once ſacrificed, will moſt certainly take care to prevent being involved again in the like quarrel.

REMARKS on our article PRUSIA, ſince the laſt war and peace.

Beſides his Pruſſian majeſty giving all encouragement to trade, uſeful arts, and ſciences, we have recent accounts that his majeſty propoſes to render the DUCHY OF CLEVES, and the other places he poſſeſſes in it's neighbourhood, the flouriſhing receptacles of induſtrious perſons of all nations; in order to which, all the fortifications, except thoſe of WESEL, are to be entirely demoliſhed, no troops are to be quartered in them, the TAXES REDUCED, all the high roads improved, as well as repaired, ſeveral new canals made, and every encouragement given, that may invite manufacturers to ſettle in thoſe countries.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS continued, from the end of LETTER O.

With reſpect to the PLANTATIONS in general.

PLANTATIONS, Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America.

———No goods to be imported into, or exported from thence, in any other but ſhips of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and whereof the maſter, or at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners, are of the ſaid places (except ſhips taken as prize, and legally condemned, navigated by the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners Britiſh, or of the ſaid plantations, and owned by Britiſh) upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods, one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor, one-third to the ſeizer and informer, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 1. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2, 3.

———— Admirals and other commanders of ſhips of war, are to ſeize as prize all ſhips offending, and to deliver them to the court of Admiralty, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

———— Ships not to be deemed or paſs as of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or the Britiſh plantations, ſo as to be qualified to trade, 'till regiſtered by the owners, and proof of the built and property be made upon oath of one or more of them, before the collector and comptroller of the port of Great-Britain or Ireland, to which they then belong,

long, or before the governor and principal officers of the revenue in the plantations, Guernſey or Jerſey, if the ſhip belongs to thoſe places, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 17.

——— Such oath to be regiſtered by the perſons who adminiſtered it, and atteſted under their hands and ſeals, and then delivered to the maſter, and a duplicate thereof immediately tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 18.

———For want of ſuch proof, ſhips trading thither are liable to forfeiture, as if they were foreign ſhips, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 18.

——— But prize ſhips legally condemned muſt be ſpecially regiſtered, mentioning the capture and condemnation, inſtead of the time and place of building; with proof upon oath, that the entire property is Britiſh, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 19.

——— The name of a ſhip changed after regiſtering, or the property transferred to another port, ſuch ſhip to be regiſtered de novo, and the former certificate thereof to be cancelled; and if the property be altered in the ſame port by the ſale of any ſhare, it muſt be acknowleged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 21.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America—Ships lading and unlading any goods there, and the maſter and their lading are ſubject to the ſame rules, viſitations, ſearchers, penalties, and forfeitures, as in Great-Britain (except under the regulations in the ſequel) 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6.

——— Sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtick or other dying wood, rice (except under the ſebſequent regulations) melaſſes, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins or other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards and bowſprits of the growth, production and manufacture of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, may not be carried from thence, unleſs to ſome other Britiſh plantations, or to the kingdom of Great-Britain only, to be there landed, upon forfeiture of the ſaid goods, or their value, with the ſhip and furniture, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 18. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 10, 11. 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 5. §. 12. and cap. 10. §. 7. and 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 25. and cap. 18. §. 22. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 4. and 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 6. and cap. 35. §. 17. and 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1.

——— And if upon any pretence whatſoever, any goods of the Britiſh plantations in America be landed in Ireland, without being firſt landed in Great-Britain, and the duties thereof there paid, they are forfeited with the ſhip, three fourths without compoſition to his majeſty, and one fourth to the ſuer; unleſs ſtranded or driven in by leakneſs, &c. in which caſe, the goods muſt be delivered into the cuſtody of the chief officer of the port, there to remain 'till re-ſhipped for Great-Britain, for which good ſecurity muſt be taken, 7 and 8. Will. III. cap. 28. §. 14, 15.

——— N. B. Now to extend only to ſugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, ſpeckle-wood, or Jamaica-wood, fuſtick or other dying wood, rice, melaſſes, beaver-ſkins, and other furs, copper-ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, and bowſprits of the growth product, or manufacture of the ſaid plantations. All other goods of the growth, product, and manufacture of any of the ſaid plantations, may be imported from thence into Ireland (except hops, which are to continue under the regulations of 9 Ann. cap. 12. and 1 Geo. I. cap. 12.) provided it be in Britiſh ſhipping, whereof the maſter and at leaſt three fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, 4 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1, 2. and 5 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 1.

——— But rice may be ſhipped in Carolina, or Georgia in America, by Britiſh ſubjects, on board any ſhip built in Great-Britain, or belonging to Britiſh ſubjects reſiding in Great Britain, and legally navigated, that has cleared outwards, in any port of Great-Britain, for Carolina or Georgia; and may be carried directly to any part of Europe, lying ſouthward of CAPE FINISTERRE, without being firſt carried to any other Britiſh plantations, or to Great-Britain, provided the maſter before clearing takes out a licence, under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, for the loading and carrying of the rice accordingly; which licence muſt be granted upon a certificate of the collector and comptroller of the port, that bond has been given, that none of the other enumerated goods ſhall be taken on board, at any Britiſh plantation, unleſs for the ſhip's uſe, and that the ſhip ſhall proceed directly with the rice according to the licence, and there land it, and then proceed to Great-Britain, before ſhe returns to any Britiſh plantation, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1, 2, 6. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— The maſter, within four months after arrival, not producing a certificate of the regular diſcharge of ſuch rice, under the hand and ſeal of the Britiſh conſul, or of two known Britiſh merchants, the bond muſt be put in ſuit, 3 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1, 2, 6. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— Before rice may be ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, the licence and certificate of bond being given, muſt be produced to the collector; and before the maſter's departure, he muſt make oath in writing, whether he intends to load any rice, and to what place bound, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— Before rice may be ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, the exporter muſt make entry thereof with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, and take out a cocket, whereon he muſt indorſe, before ſhipping, the true quantity intended to be ſhipped, mentioning the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk, and deliver the ſame to the ſearcher, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— If upon weighing and examining of the rice by the ſearcher, either before or after the ſhipping, the quantity be found to exceed the indorſement, or the rice be laden before entry, &c. it is forfeited, with treble the value, beſides the veſſel, one third whereof to the king, one third to the governor, and one third to the informer, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— Before the ſhip's departure, the maſter is to receive back the licence, with the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk, indorſed thereon by the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, who are to make two copies of ſuch licence and indorſement; which are to be atteſted by the maſter, and left with the officers, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— The maſter, on his return to Great-Britain, muſt produce the licence ſo indorſed, to the officer of the port where bond was given, and likewiſe a certificate of the conſul or of two Britiſh merchants, teſtifying the due landing of the rice, and that they verily believe that no other enumerated goods have been there landed 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— Officers in Carolina or Georgia muſt tranſmit one of the copies of the indorſment, to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms; and upon receipt thereof, or of the indorſed licence, and the half ſubſidy for the rice ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, muſt be demanded of the perſon who gave the bond; and in caſe of non-payment within thirty days, the bond muſt be put in ſuit, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 5. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America.—For every ſhip bound to the ſaid plantations, ſailing from Great-Britain or Ireland, ſufficient bond muſt be there given, with one ſurety, to the chief officer of the cuſtoms, to the value of 1000l. if under 100 tons, and to 2000l. if above that burthen, that if any of the aforeſaid enumerated goods are taken on board, they ſhall, by the ſaid ſhip, be brought to ſome port in Great-Britain, and there landed: and for all ſhips coming to the ſaid plantations from any other place, before they begin to load any of the ſaid enumerated goods, the like bond muſt be given to the governor, that ſuch goods ſhall be carried to ſome other Britiſh plantation, or to Great-Britain: the condition of ſuch bond to be, to produce a certificate, within eighteen months, of the legal diſcharge of the goods; and the ſurety in ſuch bond named muſt be of known reſidence and ability, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 11. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 13.

——— Ships taking in goods, before a certificate of bond being given in Great-Britain, is produced, or bond be given in the plantations, or carrying the goods contrary to the tenor of the bond, are forfeited, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 11. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 13.

——— Governors are to return yearly, at leaſt, a liſt of all ſhips, which have taken in any of the aforeſaid goods, and alſo true copies of all the bonds by them taken, to the cheif officers of the Cuſtoms in London, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 12.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America.—Ships belonging to the ſaid plantations, landing any of the aforeſaid enumerated goods in any place in Europe, except Great-Britain, are forfeited with their furniture, &c. 22 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 12.

——— Such ſhips may be proſecuted by any perſon in any court of admiralty in Great-Britain, 22 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 13.

——— Ships coming to the ſaid plantations to take in any of the following enumerated goods, with intent to carry the ſame to ſome other Britiſh plantation, bond not having been firſt given to bring the ſame to Great-Britain, only there muſt be paid for ſuch goods the following duties, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Sugar, white, the hundred weight	0	5	0
Sugar, brown, and muſcovadoes, the hundred weight	0	1	6
Tobacco, the pound	0	0	1
Cotton-wool, the pound	0	0	0½
Indigo, the pound	0	0	2
Ginger, the hundred weight	0	1	0
Logwood the hundred weight	5	0	0
Fuſtick and all other dying wood the hundred weight	0	0	6
Cocoanuts, the pound	0	0	1

And ſecurity muſt be taken to carry them to ſuch plantations, or to Great-Britain, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 3. and 7 and 8 Will. and Mary, cap. 22. §. 8. and 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 4.

——— But if the proprietor has not money to pay the ſaid duties, the officers may take ſuch a proportion of the goods as will amount to the value of the duties, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 5.

——— The

——— The aforeſaid duties to be under the management and direction of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 4.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. Proſecutions for the breach or non-performance of the conditions of bonds, to bring the enumerated goods to Great Britain, or to ſome other plantations, not commenced within three years after their date, or judgment not obtained within two years after the commencement of the proſecution, the ſaid bonds are void, and muſt be delivered up to be cancelled, 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 23, 25.

——— Officers, upon demand, refuſing or neglecting to deliver up ſuch bonds to be cancelled, are to anſwer to the party grieved all his damages, with treble coſts of ſuit, 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 23, 25.

——— Ships from Ireland may not break bulk, 'till the maſter has ſignified his arrival, and delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, to the governor, with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expreſſing the particulars of the ladings, &c. and has made oath that the goods are the ſame which he took on board by virtue of ſuch certificate, and the ſhip be viſited and ſearched by an officer, upon forfeiture thereof, and of all woollen manufactures found on board, not having been laden in Great Britain, and of any linen goods, not laden in Great Britain, nor of the manufacture of Ireland; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor (if they are ſeized, or ſued for, otherwiſe that third alſo to his majeſty) and one-third to the ſuer, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 2, 3. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

——— But ſuch ſhips to be ſubject to the ſame rules, ſearchers, penalties, forfeitures, &c. as ſhips coming from Great Britain to the ſaid colonies, 3 and 4 Ann, cap. 8. §. 2, 3. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

——— Ships coming to any Britiſh plantations, &c. may not lade or unlade any goods, 'till the maſter has declared his arrival to the governor, with his own and veſſel's names, and has ſhewn him that his veſſel is Britiſh built, or was taken as prize, and is navigated with a Britiſh maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners Britiſh men, and has delivered him a true and perfect inventory or invoice of the lading, with the places where taken in, upon forfeiture of the ſhip, &c. and all the European goods that were not laden in Great Britain, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 8. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2.

——— No goods of the product of Europe may be imported there, unleſs ſhipped in Great Britain, and carried directly from thence in Britiſh built ſhipping, or ſhips taken as prize, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor (if ſeized or ſued for there, otherwiſe that third alſo to his majeſty), and one-third to the ſeizer or informer, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 6. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2.

Except { Salt from Europe for the fiſheries of New-England, Newfoundland, Penſilvania, and New-York, wines of and from the Madeiras and Azores, and horſes and victuals of and from Ireland, by Britiſh, and in Britiſh ſhips, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 1. and 13 Geo. I. cap. 5. §. 1. and 3 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 1.

Except { Iriſh linen cloth from Ireland, by Britiſh or Iriſh, ſo long as Britiſh linen is permitted to be imported into Ireland duty free, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. Wool, woolfells, ſhortlings, mortlings, woolflocks, worſted, bays, or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſies, ſayes, ſrezes, druggets, cloth, ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery, ſtuffs or woollen manufactures of the product or manufacture of the Britiſh plantations in America, may not be there laden on board any ſhip, nor upon any horſe, &c. with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods, and 500 l. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 2, 19.

——— The treaſury and the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, may appoint officers of the cuſtoms in any port of the Britiſh plantations, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 11.

——— The officers of the revenue there are to have the ſame powers and authorities, and to be ſubject to the ſame penalties and forfeitures, and to have the like aſſiſtance, as the officers of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6. and cap. 8. §. 3.

——— Naval-officers, within two months after entrance, or as ſoon as conveniently they can, are to give ſufficient ſecurity to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, for the faithful performance of their duties, upon pain of diſability to execute their employments, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 5.

——— Governors there, before entrance upon their governments, or within ſix months after, are to take a ſolemn oath to do their utmoſt, that every thing enjoined by theſe acts ſhall be obſerved, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. and 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. §. 69.

——— Neglecting their duty accordingly, are to be removed, rendered incapable of any other government, and to forfeit 1000 l. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 2. and 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 8. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 4.

——— Aliens, or perſons not born within his majeſty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, may not be merchants, or factors there, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattels; one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the informer, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 2.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. Wharfingers, lightermen, bargemen, watermen, porters, &c. and the boats, veſſels, &c. are ſubject to the ſame pains, penalties, and forfeitures, for any frauds or offences, as in Great Britain, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6. and 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 3.

——— Laws, by-laws, uſages, or cuſtoms, in force or practice in the plantations, repugnant to the laws of Great-Britain, are null and void, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 9.

——— Upon actions, ſuits, and informations upon laws concerning his majeſty's duties, or ſhips or goods to be forfeited for unlawful importation, or exportation, the jury to conſiſt only of natives of Great Britain or Ireland, or perſons born in the plantations, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 11.

——— Penalties and forfeitures by this act, not particularly diſpoſed of, are to be, one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the ſuer, 7 and 8 Will. cap. 22. §. 7.

——— Certificates of having given bond in Great Britain or Ireland, ſuſpected to be falſe or counterfeit, the governor, or officers of the cuſtoms, may take ſufficient ſecurity there, for the due diſcharge of the lading in Great Britain; and if certificates of the diſcharge of any ſuch lading are ſuſpected, the bond there given may not be cancelled, 'till they are informed of the truth of ſuch certificate from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 10.

——— Certificates, cockets, returns, or permits counterfeited, razed or falſified, or afterwards knowingly ſo uſed, the offender to forfeit 500 l. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 22. §. 10.

——— Hats or felts are not to be ſhipped on board any veſſel, or loaded on any horſe, cart, or other carriage, in order to be conveyed out of any of the Britiſh plantations, to any other of the Britiſh plantations, or to any other place whatſoever, upon forfeiture of the hats or felts, and alſo 500 l. by every offender for every ſuch offence, 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 1, 2.

——— Any maſter of a veſſel, mariner, porter, carrier, waggoner, boatman, or other perſon, knowingly aiding and aſſiſting in ſuch offence, forfeits 40 l. 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 1, 2.

——— No commiſſioner, or officer of the cuſtoms, or farmer of the cuſtoms in the Britiſh plantations, is to take any entry outwards, or ſign any cocket, &c. for the exporting any hats or felts, or knowingly permit, or contrive the ſame to be done, upon forfeiture of his office, and alſo 500 l. 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 4.

——— Any perſon may ſeize and convey to his majeſty's next warehouſe all ſuch hats and felts, which he ſhall find in any ſhip or boat, or laid on, or near the ſhore, or in any navigable river, or upon any horſe or carriage, with intent to be exported and conveyed as above, 5 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 5.

——— Every offence committed againſt this act, may be tried in any place in Great Britain, or the plantations, either where the offence was committed, or the offender or goods are found, 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 5.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America.—Rum or ſpirits, molaſſes or ſyrups, ſugars or panneles of the product of any plantation in America, not in the poſſeſſion of his majeſty, imported into any Britiſh plantations in America, are to pay the following duties, in money of Great Britain, according to the value of 5 s. 6 d. per ounce in ſilver, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Rum or ſpirits, the gallon - - -	0	0	9
Molaſſes or ſyrups, the gallon - - -	0	0	6
Sugars and panneles, the hundred weight -	0	5	0

and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity, to be paid down in ready money before landing, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 1, 2.

——— Any of the ſaid goods landed before due entry and payment of the duty, or without warrant from the proper officer, are forfeited, and may be ſeized by the governor, or any perſon authorized by him, or by warrant of a juſtice, or other magiſtrate, or by any cuſtom, impoſt, or exciſe officer, or their aſſiſtants, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 3.

——— Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing, or receiving into their cuſtody any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble the value; and for moleſting the officer in the execution of his duty, 50 l. and to ſuffer three months impriſonment, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

——— Officers conniving at the ſaid offence are to forfeit 50 l. and be rendered incapable of holding any employment under his majeſty, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

——— Maſters of ſhips, being his majeſty's ſubjects, receiving on board any of the aforeſaid goods, in order to land the ſame contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit 100 l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

——— Such offences and forfeitures may be proſecuted, within two years after the offence, in any court of admiralty, or record, in his majeſty's plantations where the offence was committed;

committed; and the forfeiture is to be divided, one third to his majeſty, which (the expences of proſecution being firſt paid thereout) is to be applied for the ſupport of the government of the colony where it ſhall be recovered) one third to the governor, and one third to the informer, or proſecutor, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 3, 11, 12.

——— In all ſuch proſecutions for illegal landing the ſaid goods, the onus probandi is to lie on the claimer, or owner thereof, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. Any of his majeſty's ſubjects in any veſſel built in Great Britain, and belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, of which the major part reſide in Great Britain, and the reſidue either in Great Britain, or in ſome of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, or in any veſſel belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in Great Britain, and navigated according to law, that ſhall clear out wards from Great Britain to any of the ſaid colonies, may ſhip ſugars of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the ſaid colonies, to carry to any foreign part of Europe, provided a licence be firſt taken out for that purpoſe, under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſubject to the regulations, and on the conditions following, viz. 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2. and 14 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The maſter or owner of the veſſel muſt give notice in writing to the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port where the veſſel lies, of his intention to proceed to the ſaid colonies to lade ſugars, for ſome other part of Europe than Great Britain, and enter into bond, with one or more ſufficient ſecurities, in the ſum of 1000l. if the ſhip be of leſs burthen than 100 tons, and 2000l. if ſhe be of that, or a greater burthen, on condition that, if a licence be granted, the ſhip ſhall proceed to the ſaid colonies; that he ſhall deliver the licence to the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer there, if he intends to make uſe of the liberty granted by it, which he ſhall declare in writing to them, before he takes any goods on board; and that no tobacco, molaſſes, ginger, cotton, wool, indigo, fuſtick, or other dying wood; tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, maſt, yards, bowſprits, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins, or other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, ſhall be taken on board, unleſs for neceſſary proviſions in the voyage; that, before the veſſel proceeds to any foreign part, ſhe ſhall touch at ſome port in Great Britain, and that the maſter ſhall deliver to the cuſtomer, or collector, and comptroller, a true manifeſt, atteſted upon oath, of the whole lading, with the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and produce the licence, with a certificate of the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and ſorts of ſugar on board, that the veſſel ſhall return to Great Britain, within eight months after delivering the lading in any foreign part, and before ſhe returns to any of the plantations in America; and that, if ſhe takes any goods on board before her return to Great Britain, they ſhall be entered and landed as other ſhips are obliged to do by the laws of the cuſtoms. Then a licence is to be granted for that voyage only, to load and carry ſugars of the growth and production of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, to any foreign part, according to the purport and intention of this act; provided the maſter makes oath as preſcribed 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2, 3. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— Sugars, or other goods put on board any veſſel licenſed by this act, being the property of any other perſon than ſome of his majeſty's ſubjects, and ſuch as ſhall be laden on their proper riſque and account, to be carried to foreign parts, are forfeited, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 4. and 12 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— Before any ſugars are taken on board, the maſter is to deliver to the collector of the port where the veſſel is to take in her lading, the licence, with a certificate of bond, having been given in Great Britain; and to declare in writing, whether he intends to load ſugars purſuant to the licence, otherwiſe the licence is invalid, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The exporter of the ſugars, or other goods not enumerated, before they are put on board, is to make an entry of them in writing with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, expreſſing the name of the ſhip and maſter, and where ſhe lies, and the place where they are to be laden, or firſt water-born, muſt be ſuch only, where an officer is appointed to attend; or ſuch as is mentioned in the warrant to be taken out for that purpoſe from the collector and comptroller, whereon is to be indorſed by the exporter the marks, numbers, and contents, ſorts, and proper denominations of the ſugars, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The warrant ſo indorſed is to be delivered to the officer appointed to examine and ſhip the ſame; and the ſugars are to be ſhipped in the preſence of the officer, or at the place mentioned in the warrant, that the officer may attend, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The officer is to examine the ſame before ſhipped, and if the number of caſks is greater than is indorſed on the warrant, or if there be found any other ſugar than what is indorſed, or any goods before enumerated; or if any enumerated goods, except ſugar, have been put on board, or brought, or put into any lighter or other veſſel in order to be put on board before entry, &c. contrary to the directions of this act, the ſaid ſugars, or other goods, are forfeited, together with the lighter or veſſel, employed in ſhipping or attempting to ſhip the ſaid enumerated goods, and the ſhip or veſſel on which they are laden; and the owner to forfeit double the value, to be recovered in the court of vice-admiralty, or any court of record in the plantations, at the election of the informer or proſecutor; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor of the colony, and one-third to the informer or proſecutor, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The maſter of the veſſel before he departs, is to receive the ſaid licence from the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, with a certificate under their ſeals of office, and ſigned by them, containing an account of the marks, numbers, contents, and ſorts of each caſk of ſugar ſo ſhipped. Two copies are to be taken of the ſaid licence and certificate, and atteſted under the hand of the maſter of the veſſel before he receives back his licence, and to be left with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, who are to tranſmit one of them to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The maſter of the veſſel muſt proceed directly to Great Britain, without putting into any other place, except by ſtreſs of weather (unleſs he is bound to the ſouth of CAPE FINISTERRE), and upon his return, is to deliver his licence, with the certificate, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or the collector and comptroller of the port, where he arrives, and alſo a manifeſt, atteſted upon oath, of the marks, and numbers, with the tale, and ſorts of caſks, of all his lading, and make an entry of the quantity and ſorts of all the ſugars, which were laden and then remaining on board, and declare upon oath to what foreign part he is bound (the entry to be paſſed by the collector and comptroller without receiving any cuſtom or duty for the ſugars, mentioning in their accounts that it was paſſed by virtue of this act). Then the maſter to proceed, taking with him his licences and a certificate under the ſeals of office, from the collector and comptroller, that he had touched at ſuch a port, and in all reſpects complied with the directions of this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— If any ſuch veſſel proceeds to foreign parts without touching at ſome port in Great Britain (except as before) and complying with the directions of this act, and having the ſame certified as above; or if any goods before enumerated, are found on board, or carried to foreign parts, the liberty granted by this licence is void, and the veſſel, maſter, and all others concerned, are liable to the ſame penalties and forfeitures, as if this act had not been made, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— If upon information upon oath there is reaſon to ſuſpect, that any enumerated goods, beſides ſugars, are on board, any officer of the cuſtoms, or perſon employed by them, may enter on board and unlade the veſſel, as far as they ſhall judge neceſſary, to enable them to examine any part of her, and the goods on board, and detain her as long as is neceſſary, and open cabbins, lockers, and any concealment, and ſeize all goods found on board not mentioned in the maſter's manifeſt, which are forfeited, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 6. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— If no other goods are found on board, the officer is to be at the charge of damage done by landing, unloading, or unpacking, but not for demurrage, or on any other account. But if other goods are found on board (except neceſſary proviſions for the voyage), the maſter is to be at all charge, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 6. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— If the owners are deſirous to enter and pay the duty, and land any goods out of ſuch veſſel, they may do it; the maſter firſt making report of his whole lading, as required by law before this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 7. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The maſter, upon his return to Great Britain, after landing his ſugars in foreign parts, is to deliver to the commiſſioners, or the collector, or comptroller of the port where he arrives, the licence, with a certificate, from the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants of good credit, of the place where they are landed, of the landing thereof, with the number of caſks of ſugar there landed, the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk, with the name of the ſhip, and maſter, and that no tobacco, or other goods before enumerated, except ſugars, have been landed out of her, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. If a maſter of a veſſel, who has taken out a licence as above, ſhall, upon his arrival in the ſugar colonies, deliver it to the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, with the certificate of bond having been given in Great Britain; and before he lades any goods, declare in writing upon oath, that the ſugars he intends to load are to be carried to ſome place ſouthward of CAPE FINISTERRE, he may, in caſe he has complied with the directions of this act, proceed thither directly, without touching at Great Britain, taking with him the licence, and oath indorſed thereon, together with an account of the marks, numbers, package, contents, and ſorts of ſugars taken on board,

and

and may there land the ſame, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 8. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— In ſuch caſe the maſter, within eight months after landing his ſugars, and before he goes again to the plantations, is to return to Great Britain, and deliver his licence as before directed, with the oath indorſed thereon, and an account of the lading, together with a certificate from the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants of good credit, of the place where the ſugars were landed, of the landing thereof, with the number of caſks of ſugar landed, and the mark, number, and contents of each caſk, with the name of the ſhip, and maſter; and that they verily believe no tobacco, or other goods before enumerated, have been there landed out of her; and the maſter to make oath of the truth of the certificate, and that none of the goods before enumerated, except ſugars, were taken on board at the colonies, or landed at the place mentioned in the certificate. The maſter alſo is to make an entry with the collector, and comptroller, of all the ſugars taken on board, and landed as above, on forfeiture of 100 l. which entry is to be paſſed by them without receiving any cuſtom, or duty for it, mentioning in there accounts that it was paſſed by virtue of this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 8, 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. Upon performing the requiſites abovementioned, the bond is to be diſcharged, and delivered up, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— If any ſuch ſhips, after unloading her ſugars, takes on board other goods before her return, all remaining on board at her arrival in Great Britain, are to be entered and landed before her departure from thence, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— This act not to excuſe ſhips being regiſtered according to 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 12. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— The maſter, or owner of ſuch veſſel, may not advance to the ſeamen, or mariners, while in parts beyond the ſeas, any money or effects, on account of wages, more than one moiety of their wages due from their departure, to their return to Great Britain, on forfeiture of double the money ſo advanced, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 12. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— Granting a falſe certificate, or counterfeiting, erazing, or altering any licence, oath, or certificate, made purſuant to this act, the penalty is 500 l. forfeit, and the licence, oath, or certificate, rendered invalid, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 15. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— This act not to extend to granting a liberty to carry any ſugars from the ſugar colonies to Ireland, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 16. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

——— No ſhip, required to be regiſtered by 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. may be permitted to trade, or deemed qualified for that purpoſe, within the intent of the ſaid act, until the maſter make oath, before the governor, or collector of the cuſtoms of the plantation where he arrives, as preſcribed by act of parliament, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 1.

——— Any ſhip loading, or unloading, any goods in the plantations, before ſuch proof, is forfeited, and may be proſecuted, recovered, and divided in like manner, as if ſhe had not been regiſtered, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 2.

——— Britiſh in Aſia, Africa, or America. Any ſhip duly qualified to trade to, from, and in his majeſty's plantations in America, being there, and the certificate of the regiſter loſt or miſlaid, the maſter is to make oath before the governor, or collector of the cuſtoms where ſhe is, as preſcribed by act of parliament, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 3.

——— And to give 500 l. ſecurity if the ſhip be 100 tons burthen, or under, and ſo in proportion, if of a greater burthen, with condition, that the ſhip has been duly regiſtered, and that the certificate of the regiſter, if found, ſhall be delivered up to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms to be cancelled, and no illegal uſe has been, or ſhall be made thereof; and that it has not, nor ſhall be fraudulently diſpoſed of; and that the ſhip does wholly belong to his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects, and that no foreigner has any ſhare, property, or intereſt therein. And then the governor, and collector of the cuſtoms are to give the maſter a certificate under their hands and ſeals, of his having given ſuch bond, and made ſuch oath; and thereupon the ſhip is to have liberty to trade for that voyage only. The officer, who takes the bond and oath, is to tranſmit an account thereof to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 3.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, in Africa, or America. The certificate of the regiſter being loſt, the ſhip may be regiſtered de novo, upon the maſter and one of the owners making proof upon oath (before the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, if any of the owners reſide in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, or before the governor, and collector of the cuſtoms reſiding in the plantations in America, if ſhe was regiſtered there, and none of the owners reſide as above), of the loſs, and likewiſe of the name, burthen, built, property, and other particulars, required by 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. before the ſame perſons, and in the ſame manner, as required upon original regiſters, and giving 500 l. ſecurity, if the veſſel be of the burthen of 100 tons, and in proportion for ſhips of greater burthen, to the collector of the port to which ſhe belongs, that the certificate has not been, nor ſhall be, fraudulently diſpoſed of, or uſed contrary to law; and that when found, it ſhall be delivered to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms to be cancelled; and a certificate of the regiſter is to be delivered to the owner by the proper officer, as directed by the ſaid act of 7 and 8 Will. III. mentioning the name by which ſhe was former regiſtered, and that this certificate is granted in purſuance of this act, inſtead of the former certificate, which appears, by ſuch proof as this act requires, to be loſt, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 4.

——— A duplicate of the certificate is to be tranſmitted, by the officer who granted it, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 4.

——— All bonds, commonly called plantation bonds, taken in Great Britain (in purſuance of 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. or any other law), whereby the goods therein enumerated are to be brought to Great Britain, are to be with condition, that within eighteen months from the date (the danger of the ſeas excepted), a certificate ſhall be produced from the collector and comptroller of the port where the goods are delivered, that they have been there landed and diſcharged; otherwiſe the bond to be forfeited, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 5.

——— But not to extend to bonds given to ſhips which lade rice at Carolina, or Georgia, purſuant to 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. or which lade ſugars in any of the ſugar colonies in America, purſuant to 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 5.

——— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. --- No mariner or perſon ſerving on board any privateer or trading veſſel, employed in any of the Britiſh ſugar colonies in America, or being on ſhore there, or at ſea in any of thoſe parts, ſhall be liable to be impreſſed by any officer belonging to a man of war (unleſs ſuch mariner ſhall have deſerted from ſuch ſhip of war) under the penalty of 50 l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1.

——— Every maſter of a trading veſſel or privateer in thoſe parts, before he receives any mariners into his ſervice, is to make deligent enquiry, whether ſuch mariner hath deſerted from any of his majeſty's ſhips of war; any maſter receiving a mariner, who hath deſerted, without reaſonable endeavourment to diſcover the ſame, to forfeit 50 l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2.

——— Every maſter of ſuch trading veſſel or privateer before departure from any port in the ſaid ſugar colonies, is to deliver, to the chief officer of the cuſtoms an exact liſt of all his men, containing names, ages, and deſcription of perſons: on neglect thereof; the maſter to forfeit 10 l. for each man ſo omitted; the officer of the cuſtoms to return to the ſaid maſter an atteſted copy of ſuch liſt: on the death or alteration of any ſeaman, ſuch liſt to be immediately altered accordingly, and delivered to the naval-officer or chief officer of the cuſtoms in any port where the ſhip may arrive. All ſuch liſts to be produced and ſhewn to the captains and other officers of his majeſty's navy, 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 3, 4.

Q.

QUACK, a bold and confident pretender to the practice of the art of medicine.

A SHORT ANTIDOTE AGAINST GENERAL QUACKERY.

Every one of common ſenſe will allow, that he who is beſt acquainted with the ſtructure and uſe of any machine, will be beſt able to repair it's diſorders; and that he who ignorantly goes about to rectify any diſorder therein, will make but a contemptible work, in compariſon with one who has made it the buſineſs of his life to be well acquainted with all the parts, and various uſes of it's motions and ſprings: and the more exquiſite this machine is, the greater degree of ſkill will be required for the rectifying it's diſorders. This is plain to the meaneſt apprehenſion. Who, in his right ſenſes, would ſend for a bricklayer to mend a clock?

I. The human body, may be properly conſidered, as a moſt perfect and noble machine, whoſe parts are extremely well configurated, whoſe ſymmetry is moſt beautiful, and whoſe actions reſulting from theſe admirable compages are reciprocally carried on by ſolids and fluids, of which the whole is conſtituted. And as many of it's motions are eaſily demonſtrated by the conſequences of it's ſtructure, ſo it's diſeaſes, are only the irregular motions or diſorders of this complicated machine: nor is the caſe the leaſt altered, by our having a principle within us, not ſubject in itſelf to the laws of motion.

II. It is, therefore, incumbent on every one, who would attain the due knowlege of the art of healing, that he make himſelf very well acquainted with this admirable piece of mechaniſm. That knowing well the part, the natural actions, and ſecretions of the human body, he may be enabled to judge, when and how theſe natural actions are perverted: all the ſymptoms of diſeaſes, being the neceſſary conſequences of the alteration of the animal œconomy; and without the knowlege of the ſecretion, we cannot underſtand the nature of diſeaſes, that principle being the great ſpring of all the animal functions.

III. It is a maxim univerſally received among phyſicians, That medicine ſhould begin where philoſophy ends. It is, undoubtedly, a neceſſary qualification in a phyſician to be knowing in philoſophy; and the natural actions and ſecretions of the human body, is that part of philoſophy, which is more eſpecially conducive to the knowlege of the practice of phyſic, and therefore ought carefully to be ſtudied by every phyſician. And he is a true phyſician, who moreover attends, as much as may be, to all poſſible conſequences, who does not heal one diſeaſe, by procuring a worſe, but reſtores ſuch a life as a man can enjoy.

The human ſpirits and blood, are the principal ſeats of health as well as diſeaſe. As to thoſe parts of the body deſigned for ſtrength and motion, they indeed fall not improperly under a ſurgeon's ſkill. But the humours, ſpirits, and blood, which are the ſeats of life, theſe and the animal ſecretions are peculiarly under the conſideration of phyſicians; but are not yet ſo perfectly underſtood, even by the moſt learned, as we could wiſh; and until they are, there will be one fundamental deficiency in phyſic.

IV. Experience is doubtleſs of great uſe in promoting the art of curing diſeaſes, if directed by a knowlege in the parts of the human body and the animal ſecretions; foraſmuch as it is only by a juſt reaſoning on experience, that we can come at the full knowlege of any phænomenon of nature. So that experience, or the knowlege of the hiſtories of diſeaſes, added to that of the animal œconomy, is what can only make a phyſician; aud, wherever the hiſtory of a diſeaſe is exactly known, if the right method of curing it cannot be deduced, it muſt be, becauſe the knowlege of the parts of the human body, of their uſe, and of the animal ſecretion, are not ſufficiently underſtood: for the ſkill of phyſicians in curing diſeaſes, whoſe hiſtories are exactly known, is, for the moſt part, proportional to their knowlege of the animal œconomy: for in order to find out the ſeat and nature of a diſtemper, and from thence to deduce a right method of cure, it will be abſolutely neceſſary to reaſon on thoſe hiſtories; which we cannot do as we ought, if we are ignorant of the ſtructure, uſe, and diſorders of the machine we are about to rectify.

V. Deſcriptions and diagnoſtic ſigns of diſeaſes, are the proper buſineſs of obſervation and experience; but indications of cure, ariſe from reaſoning upon thoſe obſervations. Diagnoſtics are properly a collection of particular ſymptoms only, but indications are thoſe concluſions, which our knowlege of the parts of the body and their uſe, enables us to make on theſe obſervations and deſcriptions. So that the hiſtories of diſeaſes, and the knowlege of the parts of the body and their uſe, muſt always go hand in hand, in order to the obtaining the due knowlege of the practice of phyſic. He therefore, who is ſufficiently knowing in philoſophy and the animal œconomy, and makes a proper uſe of this knowlege, by reaſoning on REAL FACTS, grounded on repeated experience and obſervation, may juſtly be ſaid to uſe his philoſophy aright; and may then reaſonably hope for ſucceſs, in finding out the genuine indications of cure, in which the practice of phyſic chiefly conſiſts. And without this caution, our reaſonings will certainly be to very little purpoſe; for what is not deduced from genuine appearances, is mere hypotheſis.

VI. The great Hippocrates has this aſſertion, That nature cures diſeaſes. The truth of it phyſicians of this day may experience, if they will carefully keep up to his excellent directions and method; it being his only aim to relieve nature when oppreſſed, in the very way and manner he obſerved her endeavouring to expel diſeaſes. And it was by a conſtant diligence of this kind, joined to his ſuperlative ſagacity, that he arrived to that high degree of perfection in the knowlege of phyſic. Hence he perceived, that nature herſelf judges diſeaſes; and, indeed, does all, being properly aſſiſted; nay, and ſometimes without any aſſiſtance.

VII. Hippocrates alſo informs us, and experience cannot but confirm it, that thoſe people who have fevers, and are left to themſelves, and take no medicines, if they do recover, get rid of their fevers by ſweating, a looſeneſs, an hæmorrhage, diabetes, or the like. Hence Hippocrates, and the ancient practitioners in phyſic, took their firſt intimation to provoke ſweat and the other evacuations. And from their repeated obſervations and ſucceſſes, they have formed a moſt rational method of cure. This affords a very ſtrong confirmation of the neceſſity of a careful and diligent obſervance of the tendencies of nature in all her diſorders, and the method ſhe takes to get rid of diſeaſes, when left to herſelf; and alſo a very good caution, not to be over haſty, or too buſy in the adminiſtration of remedies, leſt we ſhould be found to ruffle and diſturb, rather than aſſiſt nature, with the untimely uſe or multitude of medicines. The ne quid nimis in the practice of phyſic, is a matter of no ſmall conſequence: he therefore is moſt likely to prove the beſt, moſt prudent, and rational phyſician, who moſt diligently obſerves, and conſtantly follows, the motions and dictates of nature herſelf.

VIII. The many accurate and charming deſcriptions of diſtempers, delivered down to us by Hippocrates, in his Hiſtories of Diſeaſes, wherein the phœnomena of each diſtemper, even in it's minuteſt circumſtances, are obſerved, preſent us with an exquiſite delineation of nature: and, if duly attended, will always be found of the greateſt ſervice for advancing the progreſs in the art of healing. Becauſe, from his diagnoſtics in particular, though not excluding others of the Ancients, nor ſuch among the Moderns, who have cloſely copied after his manner, we readily diſcover the nature of the diſeaſe. And as, whenever we arrive at the exact hiſtory of any diſtemper, we may, at all times, by the right application of the method of inveſtigating diſeaſes, moſt likely diſcover the immediate cauſe; ſo may we likewiſe, on thoſe principles, eaſily come at the nature of the diſeaſe; when, having that given, it will be no difficult matter to find out remedies to cure, in all curable caſes, and to adminiſter relief, even in thoſe which are incurable.

IX. This unwearied diligence in obſervation on nature, in the ſagacious Hippocrates, and others of the Ancients, might probably be heightened in them, from the ſcantineſs of their

Materia

Materia Medica, and the exceeding ſeverity of the then known remedies, however much to our benefit; ſince the excellent deſcriptions of diſeaſes they had given us, cannot only never be exceeded, but will always remain invariably true, while human nature continues what ſhe is. And had thoſe of later ages, which have been ſo happily provided with a more copious and ſalutary Materia Medica, and which, it muſt be allowed, have been greatly improved in the knowlege of the animal œconomy: had theſe conſtantly perſevered in the uſe of Hippocrates's great diligence and manner of obſervation, they might, doubtleſs, long ago, have brought the practice of phyſic to a conſiderable degree of perfection, though they had not been bleſſed with his extraordinary ſkill: for that, indeed, is a peculiar happineſs, and the lot of very few; in which particular, we may, perhaps, ſay of the phyſician, as is commonly done of the poet, Naſcitur, non fit.

X. Should we of this age, flushed with our ſuperior knowlege in the animal œconomy, and the variety of our Materia Medica, neglect to make uſe of that prudence and diligence, which are neceſſary in attending the motions of nature, and inſtead of endeavouring to aſſiſt her on theſe principles, when oppreſſed, become too precipitate, in the adminiſtration of medicines; the conſequence will inevitably be, that we ſhall only obſcure the diſeaſe, by multiplying, rather than taking off, the ſymptoms; and this to the perſonal confuſion of phyſicians, the manifeſt injury of their patients, and the great diſrepute of the profeſſion. Whereas, would we conſult the true and proper uſe of the many happy improvements of our own age, it cannot be done more effectually, than by keeping cloſe to that moſt ſkilful leader Hippocrates, together with the other ancient practitioners in phyſic, in their manner of obſerving, and in their method of healing; founded upon the knowlege of the conjunct cauſe of diſtempers, from whence alone, the curative indications are to be taken. And by a careful perſeverance in theſe methods, we may reaſonably hope for the greateſt ſucceſs; and may, perhaps, in a few ages, arrive at the higheſt perfection in the practice of phyſic, that human nature is capable of attaining.

XI. In order to cure any diſeaſe, it is neceſſary to have a thorough knowlege of the diſeaſe itſelf, and of the remedy peculiarly adapted to it; it being impoſſible to cure a diſeaſe according to art, if the nature of the diſeaſe be hid from the artiſt. And for want of this knowlege, the care and pains of many phyſicians have proved ineffectual. Theſe phyſicians, making little other uſe of the diagnoſtic ſymptoms than the mere naming the diſtemper only, have injudiciouſly taken their indications of cure from ſecondary and caſual ſymptoms: whereas the true nature of a diſeaſe is ever beſt found out, from the diagnoſtic ſigns or marks alone; and from thence alſo, the true indications of cure muſt always be drawn, in order to the beſt and moſt effectual method of treating the diſeaſe. And as theſe indications wholly ariſe from our reaſoning upon the obſervations we make of the appearance of nature; therefore, the greater our knowlege of the parts of the body and their uſe is, the better we ſhall be enabled to find out the nature of the diſeaſe. For it is this knowlege which muſt enable us, by reaſoning upon the cauſes, ſigns, and ſymptoms of diſeaſes, to find out their nature, and to deduce true and juſt indications of cure.

XII. Thus far in general. But now more expreſsly, to come at the true method of inveſtigating and finding out the nature of all diſeaſes incident to the human body, and from thence proceed to the moſt effectual methods of treating and curing them, the following particulars are abſolutely requiſite, viz. that we be well acquainted with,

1. The next and ever concomitant cauſe of the diſeaſe.
2. The ſeat and part affected.
3. The ways and paſſages through which the evil takes it's courſe.
4. The inſeparable ſigns of the diſtemper.
5. The ſymptoms which commonly accompany the diſeaſe. And
6. That the ſymptoms of the diſeaſe are rightly diſtinguiſhed.

If the phyſician errs not in theſe eſſential points, he may be judged to be in the right way of arriving to an happy cure of the diſeaſe.

XIII. It is very neceſſary at all times, carefully to diſtinguiſh between the diſeaſe itſelf, and the ſymptom. An inadvertence in this article, has been the ſtumbling-ſtone of ſome, even learned men, in all ages. Since it is to be imputed to the want of this diſtinction, as a principal (if not the only) obſtacle, that phyſicians have been ſo much at a loſs for the true cauſe of the diſeaſe, and have therefore ſo often taken the ſymptom for the diſeaſe itſelf: not rightly diſtinguiſhing the next and immediate conjunct cauſe, from it's ſymptoms or accident; which may not be occaſioned by the next and always accompanying cauſe of the diſeaſe, but by ſome other ſymptom; and what is ſo far from being the mark of the diſeaſe, that it is a ſymptom of a ſymptom only.

XIV. In the common malady of the tooth-ach, for example, when it does not proceed from a caries or rottenneſs, the genuine eſſence of this diſeaſe is, the violent diſtention or ſtretching of the perioſteum, by ſome ſort of humour; by which means this membrane, being forced out of it's natural form and ſituation, excites a moſt exquiſite pain; which pain is not the diſeaſe, but the true mark of the diſeaſe; and the humour occaſioning this pain, the cauſe of the diſeaſe. The inflammation, fever, ſwelled face, &c. which may ſucceed, are none of them the true marks, but proceed from the pain, which is the true diagnoſtic, ſign, or mark of the diſeaſe, each of the above-mentioned being the ſymptom of a ſymptom only.

XV. The true marks or ſigns of a diſeaſe are ſuch, as are preſent from the beginning, and, as it were, born with the diſorder; they grow up therewith to it's height, abate alſo and vaniſh with it. Theſe are the only ſure marks or ſigns. Other ſigns or ſymptoms which do not immediately follow the diſeaſe, nor any proper effects of it, and which do not always appear in the diſeaſe, are therefore deceitful ſigns, and not to be truſted to; though ſuch as have inadvertently miſled ſome ſagacious men.

Theſe deceitful ſigns are not to be reckoned among the proper ſymptoms of the diſeaſe, being only ſuch as proceed from ſome proper ſymptom of the diſeaſe; and are, indeed, ſymptoms of ſymptoms only. For the true and proper diagnoſtic marks or ſigns of the diſeaſe, muſt always begin, grow up, decline, and vaniſh with the diſeaſe itſelf; and from ſuch marks only, we muſt ever draw our indications of cure.

XVI. As to the ſymptoms of any diſeaſe, the firſt buſineſs is to diſtinguiſh the ſymptoms in general from the diſeaſe itſelf, and then to make a diſtinction between the ſymptoms themſelves: that is, the ſymptoms which ariſe and vaniſh with the diſeaſe, are to be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which are bred, not from the diſeaſe itſelf, but from the ſymptoms of the diſeaſe: and the ſymptoms as we before obſerved, which immediately accompany the diſeaſe, and are born and die with it, are the only ſure marks or ſigns of the diſeaſe.

XVII. To illuſtrate this by our former familiar inſtance of the tooth-ach: here the pain is the chief and moſt grievous ſymptom, but is neither the diſeaſe itſelf, nor the cauſe of the diſeaſe; nor yet is it a ſimple ſymptom only, foraſmuch as it is the cauſe of other ſymptoms which ſucceed; as the fever, inflammation, ſwelled face, &c. eſpecially when the pain is violent. Theſe ſeveral accidents now mentioned, are cauſed only by the raging pain of the tooth-ach (the true mark of the diſeaſe) and are ſymptoms of a ſymptom only. And farther, theſe accidents of fever, inflammation, ſwelled face, &c. are neither in whole nor in part the cauſe of the tooth-ach; neither are they inſeparable companions of the tooth-ach; for the tooth-ach may be, and often is, where theſe never appear: as to the ſwelled face in particular, that neither begins nor ends with the diſeaſe, nor does it always accompany it; nor is it of the ſame nature with the humour occaſioning that violent pain, but is merely a ſymptom of the tooth-ach, being raiſed by the pain, and bred by conſent of parts from an afflux of humours.

XVIII. Thus we ſee plainly the method of finding out the nature and cauſes of a diſeaſe, it's ſeat and part affected, it's diagnoſtic and caſual ſymptoms, and the neceſſity of diſtinguiſhing theſe latter, not only from the diſeaſe itſelf, but alſo from one another: all which will make way to judge the better of a fit remedy to cure the diſeaſe, for we cannot reaſonably hope for a cure, before the diſeaſe be thoroughly underſtood. And in this manner we muſt come at the nature, cauſe, and cure, of all diſeaſes.

XIX. From this method alſo of finding out the diſtemper, is diſcovered, at the ſame time, the only way of making a right and true prognoſtic, which is no more than a declaration of a phyſician's expectation in curing a ſick perſon. And this expectation can no otherwiſe be truly framed, than from the nature of the diſeaſe, the quantity and intenſeneſs of it, the natural ſtrength of the ſick, and the power of medicines conjunctly. The knowlege, therefore, of prognoſtics is not otherwiſe to be acquired, than by rightly inveſtigating the diagnoſtic marks of a diſeaſe, whereby it's nature is diſcovered, with that of the quantity of the diſeaſe, and the ſtrength of the patient, at the ſame time: and as by this method, we are alſo led into the nature and power of medicines themſelves; ſo here again, the very medicine reflects light, and, in ſome meaſure, confirms the knowlege of the diſeaſe: as Hippocrates well obſerves — Medicina indicat morbum.

XX. This then is the method, by which the nature of all diſeaſes, to which human bodies are or may be liable, is diſcovered. And ſhould ever any altogether new and unheard-of diſeaſe, at any time appear amongſt mankind, this will be found the ſure way of coming at it's nature, by only thus carefully recollecting, examining, and diſtinguiſhing it's ſymptoms. This will of conſequence direct to the moſt proper method of curing, the knowlege of a diſeaſe being the firſt ſtep towards it's cure.

'All the difficulty of philoſophy,' ſays the great Sir Iſaac Newton, 'ſeems to conſiſt in this, from the phænomena 'of motions to inveſtigate the forces of nature; and then, 'from theſe forces, to demonſtrate the other phænomena.' Agreeable to which, we obſerve, that the ſymptoms of any diſeaſe being given, it's nature may readily be diſcovered.

XXI. The method of curing diſeaſes, by drawing indications from the evident and conjunct cauſes, has always met with approbation, as from the beſt, ſo from the body of the moſt learned phyſicians in general. And as to the knowlege of theſe cauſes, it is allowed, that can only be attained by a cloſe and aſſiduous obſervation of all the appearances in the ſeveral ſtages of the diſtemper. Whoever, therefore, has obtained an exact knowlege of the hiſtories of diſeaſes, if he has alſo due regard to the diagnoſtics, as by the method directed, may readily inveſtigate their nature.

Natural philoſophy and the hiſtory of diſeaſes, as we obſerved above, muſt always contribute their joint-aſſiſtance in improving the art of healing; it not being poſſible to make any uſe of the latter, without a degree of knowlege in the former: and the greater our knowlege is of the parts of the human body, of their uſe, and of the animal ſecretions, the better the nature of diſeaſes will be known.

XXII. We ſaid before, that the ſymptoms of any diſeaſe being given, it's nature may be diſcovered.

Now the ſymptoms of every diſeaſe are no other than the effects of ſome cauſe, or cauſes, which pervert and overturn the natural actions of one or more parts; for which reaſon, by explaining theſe ſymptoms, we become apprized of the perverted action, or diſcover the diſeaſe: for nothing can be the cauſe of a diſeaſe, that does not produce the ſymptoms, in which the nature of the diſeaſe conſiſts.

XXIII. Wherefore, the ſymptoms of any diſeaſe being given, it's nature may thence be diſcovered; and the nature of a diſeaſe being aſſigned, we have alſo the methods of curing it. Farther, having the nature and cauſes of any diſeaſe, we ſhall be able to determine how far the diſeaſe is curable or incurable; the probabilities of curing any diſtemper, and the methods and medicines proper to be uſed in attempting it.

XXIV. The Ancients, as before obſerved, have moſt accurately deſcribed the diagnoſtic ſigns and marks of diſeaſes, together with their moſt natural and ſimple appearances. Whoever, therefore, is thoroughly acquainted with the hiſtories, as delivered down to us by them, and is well verſed in the ſtructure and nature of the fluids and ſolids of the human body, may, from their diagnoſtic ſigns, be able to diſcover the nature and ſeat of the diſeaſe, and the productive cauſe of it. By the ſame means alſo, he will have it in his power to ſhew in what manner the ſymptoms, attending the diſeaſe, flow from it's nature, thus found out from it's ſymptoms; and likewiſe be capable of perceiving how theſe ſymptoms are cured, by changing the diſtempered condition of the parts affected.

XXV. But, in this examination of the nature of the diſeaſe from it's ſymptoms, we muſt be moſt careful, that every caſual and foreign ſymptom be ſeparated from thoſe which are conſtant and permanent, in the manner the method more at large directs; it being eaſy, by obſerving the rule there laid down, to diſtinguiſh the conſtant and inſeparable ſymptoms from thoſe, which are merely caſual and ſecondary.

XXVI. The principal ſymptoms are, for the moſt part, eaſy to be explained. The falſe ſymptoms are moſt commonly found among the ſecondary ſort, and are the ſymptoms of ſymptoms only; for which reaſon they ought to be rejected from the number of ſymptoms properly belonging to the diſeaſe.

XXVII. Indications of cure muſt be drawn from the nature of the diſeaſe, and not from their precarious ſuppoſed cauſes, nor from their adventitious and caſual ſymptoms: and there muſt run an uninterrupted chain, from the diagnoſtic ſigns of the diſeaſe, through it's nature and cauſes, 'till it ends in a rational method of cure.

XXVIII. Thus we ſee, that in order to cure any diſeaſe, the natural and practical way, is firſt to collect the moſt conſtant ſymptoms and effects of the diſeaſe. But in doing this, we muſt always remember, that our utmoſt diligence will be neceſſary, rightly to diſtinguiſh the ſymptoms: that in our collecting the genuine diagnoſtic ſigns of any diſeaſe, we never ſuffer the ſecondary ſigns or ſymptoms of ſymptoms, to creep into the number of the genuine diagnoſtic ſigns; for if we do, we ſhall certainly render our enquiries into the true nature of the diſeaſe, almoſt fruitleſs and impracticable; whereas, by ſtrictly obſerving this caution, we ſhall readily diſcover the diſeaſe and it's ſymptoms, together with the cauſes of both. And if we can come at the nature of the diſeaſe we are about to cure, there remains no difficulty as to the way of curing, be the appearances of the ſymptoms never ſo complicated.

XXIX. The direct method of cure being thus obvious, the probabilities of ſucceſs muſt be, as the nature of the diſtemper we come to cure, and the efficacy of the medicines we adminiſter, reſpectively. And if we already diſcover by reaſon and practice, the peculiar ways in which the medicines made uſe of will act, we ſhall be thereby inſtructed, when medicines are moſt properly adminiſtered, and why they muſt be continued or laid aſide, which is the ſum and ſubſtance of phyſic.

The application of theſe ſentiments to the public benefit.

XXX. In conſequence of what has been urged by the moſt learned phyſicians, it muſt appear to every man of common ſenſe, to be a ſad miſtake, that has at preſent ſeized on many people, to imagine, That, if they are but well furniſhed with books of recipes, or are poſſeſſed of a powerful medicine, they have every qualification fit for commencing Doctor; becauſe in theſe books and theſe medicines, as they think agreeable to the common ſaying, they are ſure to find a ſalve for every ſore. But, alas! theſe baſe empirical books, recipes, and medicines, the peſt of the preſent age, will greatly deceive them. They are by no means to be confided in, but, on the contrary, are to be looked upon as very injurious, foraſmuch as they only furniſh all ſorts of people with great opportunities of deſtroying each others health.

XXXI. And ſhould any perſon pretend to ſet up to practiſe phyſic on this deceitful foundation, he would ſoon find himſelf miſerably miſled, to the manifeſt injury of himſelf, as well as of his patients. For it is moſt certain, that every medicine, be it never ſo good, muſt always be adminiſtred in the moſt proper doſe, and at the moſt proper times of the diſeaſe, to make it of any advantage to the patient. This knowlege can no otherwiſe be come at, than in the arduous and diligent manner of ſtudying above-mentioned, joined with the method of inveſtigating the nature of diſeaſes. Nor is this the ſole advantage which follows on the doctrine of inveſtigation, ſince it not only leads us into the true nature of the diſeaſe, and the certain method of cure, but alſo, at the ſame time, into the very nature and power of medicines themſelves, if rightly attended to and applied. For the virtue of any medicine, is no other than it's power of eradicating the immediate cauſe of the diſeaſe; which effect is diſcovered, from knowing firſt the nature of the diſeaſe, and the different powers of medicine, are but the degrees of the ſame virtue thus diſcovered: from whence we have conſequently the direct and indirect actions of medicines, with their poſitive and comparative powers. And were it poſſible, even to find out an univerſal remedy for all diſtempers, it muſt ſtill be ſubject to the true doſing and timing: the accurate knowlege of which can no otherwiſe be obtained, than by the manner and method here laid down. And this, indeed, is the only true ARCANUM in the practice of phyſic. All your PANACEAS, NOSTRUMS, SPECIFICS, and the like, without this perfect knowlege of adminiſtering them in the moſt proper doſe, and at the moſt proper times of the diſeaſe, will, for the moſt part, prove very miſchievous. And, indeed, theſe remedies can only, by the greateſt hazard and chance imaginable, ever prove of good effect, in any diſeaſe of conſequence. It is true, that in many caſes, let the medicine given be ever ſo improper in itſelf, or ever ſo unſeaſonably adminiſtered, the ſtrength of nature may ſometimes get the better of both, and the patient by that means luckily eſcape: but this is by no means curing, nor can nature's ſucceſsful effort be any excuſe for ignorance and quackery.

XXXII. From what has been advanced, it is natural to conclude, that it is no eaſy matter to become a ſkilful phyſician. Much reading, much thought and pains, will really be required: many things are neceſſary to be learnt, much diligence in enquiry, and much aſſiduity in obſervation, are to be uſed, before any one can be duly qualified (either with peace of mind to himſelf, or relief to his patients) to undertake a truſt, in which the lives of his fellow-creatures are ſo nearly concerned.

XXXIII. If this be a juſt ſtate of the caſe, what ſhall we ſay of thoſe perſons, who boldly take upon them the practice of phyſic, without the leaſt previous knowlege of the requiſites abſolutely neceſſary for the regular diſcharge of this important office! Certainly, it can be no other than the higheſt preſumption, for thoſe to expect ſucceſs, or hope for a bleſſing on their endeavours, who are altogether ignorant of the province in which they engage. Would ſuch perſons but ſeriouſly conſider the great conſequence of phyſic, in the practical part of it, where life itſelf is ſo immediately at ſtake, if they had any compaſſion for their fellow-creatures, they would not thus raſhly venture to adminiſter medicines, before they had acquired the proper and neceſſary qualifications. But at preſent, by melancholy experience, it is too well known, that this nation ſwarms with remorſeleſs and cruel deſtroyers, who daily delude and impoſe on weak and credulous people, with their never failing remedies, for every body, every caſe, and at all times, alike; to the infinite damage of the PUBLIC HEALTH. And were the ſame art and induſtry uſed to diſcover the real miſchief done by this practice, as are uſed to publiſh an accidental ſucceſs, the ballance, on the whole, would appear formidable. But who can expect, that the crafty ſhould bewray and ruin their own craft? Theſe, indeed, are wiſe in their generation: but, that the ſuffering patients ſhould zealouſly ſupport theſe deceivers, to cover their own folly, is a ſtrange infatuation; yet ſo it is. No wonder, therefore, that a few accidental cures ſhould be ſo much noiſed abroad, when the deceivers and the deceived join in the cry to propagate the fatal deluſion.

XXXIV. In order to qualify the phyſician to collect the ſymptoms of diſeaſes from his patients, in a judicious and uſeful manner, it will be abſolutely neceſſary, beſides an accu-

rate

rate acquaintance with the ſtructure of the human body, that he be alſo well read in the hiſtories of diſeaſes, delivered down to us by the Antients: for the great difficulty of collecting ſigns and ſymptoms from the ſick patients; ſuch, we mean, as ſhall direct to the nature of the diſeaſe; ariſes not barely, either from want of perſonal ſagacity, or ignorance in the animal œconomy; but more eſpecially, from being but ſuperficially acquainted with the learning of the Antients in the particulars above: and, it is greatly to be feared, whenever the phyſician fails in diſtinguiſhing one diſeaſe from another, and the diſeaſe itſelf from their ſymptoms in their patients; it is from their not being ſufficiently acquainted with that moſt perfect knowlege, which reſults from the admirable deſcriptions of antient phyſicians.

XXXV. This method, therefore, of inveſtigating the nature of diſeaſes, taken from the beſt and moſt antient phyſicians, and leading to the moſt ſucceſsful ways of curing all curable diſeaſes, and relieving the incurable, being the moſt natural and certain rule of attaining the above-mentioned extenſive knowlege; we think it may not improperly be eſteemed the very maſter-key to the judicious, and moſt ſucceſsful practice of the art of phyſic. And, if thoroughly underſtood, and properly applied, together with the knowlege of the great improvements made in our own times, with regard to the animal œconomy and Materia Medica, it will ſafely conduct the phyſician from the threſhold of medicine, to it's conſummation; and that with much greater expedition and ſucceſs, than any other hitherto known method. As what has been ſuggeſted on this argument will be of uncommon ſervice to the beginner, ſo likewiſe will it continue to be the moſt uſeful and neceſſary companion we can aſſociate withal, through the whole courſe of medicinal practice, by a right application in all the diſeaſes, and the varieties of them, which may at any time be met with in authors, or obſerved from experience, whereby practitioners may moſt likely come at the cauſe and cure of diſeaſes.

XXXVI. But here it may be objected; why all this pains-taking; why all this great diligence in enquiry, and great aſſiduity in obſervation; when the generality of mankind are ſo weak as to prefer every bold pretender, before the regular phyſician? This, indeed, at firſt view, ſeems very diſcouraging, and ſomewhat aſtoniſhing too! But then, let us conſider, whether the phyſicians be not blameable as well as the people, that QUACKERY is at preſent ſo much in faſhion; for, if the phyſician neglects the neceſſary qualifications, and fails of ſucceſs among his patients, for want of proper knowlege and obſervation, which can only be acquired by the conſtant and diligent pains-taking abovementioned; is it to be wondered at, that his patients ſhould ſeek elſewhere for aſſiſtance, and thereby become a prey to every pretender and noſtrum-monger? Whereas, when due care is taken that the phyſician be properly qualified, a reaſonable ſucceſs will, for the moſt part, attend his practice; and, in that caſe, the patient would be much leſs liable to fall into the hands of impoſtors and quacks. But alas! at preſent it is our great misfortune, through want of proper regulations, to have in this nation many more Doctors than Phyſicians; and which is, indeed, one main reaſon of the great increaſe of quackery amongſt us; for, was the practice of thoſe who called themſelves doctors, attended with any reaſonable ſucceſs, their patients would not ſo readily apply to quacks and pretenders, in preference to the accompliſhed phyſician: in all times, indeed, there has not been wanting a fatal fondneſs, more or leſs, among weak and ignorant perſons, in favour of noſtrums and infallibility; but that diſorder in theſe preſent times is ſo increaſed, that it calls loudly for the utmoſt care and compaſſion of our legiſlature.

XXXVII. Many medicines given as noſtrums, and advertiſed as infallible, we very well know, are taken from the preſcriptions of EMINENT AND LEARNED PHYSICIANS; which the quacks, thoſe deſtroyers of health, in ſome meaſure diſguiſe, and then call them after their own names, in order to deceive the people into an opinion of their ſkill, and to intitle themſelves to patents and rewards. But who ſees not, that theſe remedies, excellent, and of great efficacy in the cure of diſeaſes, if judiciouſly adminiſtered; may yet prove (by a promiſcuous and unſkilful uſe) of the very utmoſt hurt and damage to mankind? Thus are the inſtruments of health wickedly wreſted out of the phyſician's hands: and what was contrived and deſigned by them for the public good, by this great abuſe, becomes a public miſchief, and a falutary remedy is turned into a poiſon, by the random uſe and improper application of it. Now if medicine has ever been, or can be brought to be of real uſe to mankind, it is moſt likely to become ſo, when in the hands of diſcreet and learned phyſicians; and a very little reflection, cannot but convince every man of common ſenſe and humanity, that to ſuffer an unſkilful and promiſcuous uſe of medicines, muſt needs be of dangerous conſequences to the public, and productive of great evil. But againſt this great evil, the prudent phyſician has no other remedy, than the duly qualifying himſelf and others, to the beſt of his power, for that important office, the practice of phyſic; and it is only from the wiſdom of the legiſlature, that an effectual redreſs of ſo pernicious a diſorder, as the quackery now reigning among the weaker ſort of people, muſt be expected; if ſuch a one can be found out. Nor can it be doubted, that the weakeſt among the people have a juſt right to all that protection and preſervation, which the guardians of their lives and properties can equitably procure them: and would the legiſlature, at the ſame time, be pleaſed not to ſuffer any perſon to adminiſter medicines, until they had given proper teſtimonials of their qualifications for that important office, the benefit of his majeſty's ſubjects, from ſuch a regulation, would be unſpeakable.

REMARKS.

QUACKERY having in our days become a branch of traffic in this nation, of as pernicious and dangerous a tendency to the lives of his Majeſty's ſubjects as a general plague; we have thought proper to take notice of it, hoping that ſome effectual remedy may one day be taken by the parliament, to prevent a deſtructive trade, that ſtrikes at the root of all others.

QUARANTINE, i. e. forty, a denying entrance into a healthful place for 40 days, to thoſe perſons that are ſuppoſed to come from any infected place.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating thereto.

An act to oblige ſhips more effectually to perform their quarantine; and for the better preventing the plague being brought from foreign parts into Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man.

Whereas it is neceſſary that ſome proviſion be made by parliament, for obliging ſhips and perſons coming from places infected with, or frequently ſubject to, the plague, to perform quarantine in ſuch manner as hath been, or ſhall be, ordered by his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors; and for puniſhing offenders therein, in a more expeditious manner, than can be done by the ordinary methods of law; be it enacted, by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That all ſhips and veſſels arriving, and all perſons, goods, and merchandizes whatſoever, coming, or imported into any port or place within Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, from any place from whence his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, by and with the advice of his or their privy council, ſhall judge it probable that the infection may be brought, ſhall be obliged to make their quarantine in ſuch place and places, for ſuch time, and in ſuch manner, as hath been, or ſhall, from time to time, be directed by his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, by his or their order or orders, made in his or their privy council, and notified by proclamation, or publiſhed in the London Gazette; and that until ſuch ſhips, veſſels, perſons, goods, and merchandizes, ſhall have reſpectively performed, and be diſcharged from ſuch quarantine, no ſuch perſon, goods, or merchandizes, or any of them, ſhall be brought on ſhore, or be put on board any other ſhip or veſſel, in any place within his Majeſty's dominions, unleſs in ſuch manner, and in ſuch caſes, and by ſuch licence, as ſhall be directed or permitted by ſuch order or orders made by his Majeſty, &c. in council as aforeſaid; and that all ſuch ſhips and veſſels, and the perſons or goods imported in, or being put on board the ſame, and all ſhips, veſſels, boats, and perſons, receiving any goods or perſons out of the ſame, ſhall be ſubject to ſuch orders, rules, and directions, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as have been, or ſhall be made by his Majeſty, &c. in council, and notified by proclamation, or publiſhed in the London Gazette as aforeſaid.

And it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if the plague ſhall appear on board any ſhip, being to the northward of Cape Finiſterre, the maſter, commander, or other perſon having charge thereof, ſhall immediately proceed to the harbour of New Grimſby in the iſlands of Scilly, where being arrived, he ſhall make known his caſe to ſome officer of the cuſtoms there, who ſhall immediately acquaint ſome cuſtom-houſe officer of ſome near port of England thereof; and the ſaid cuſtom-houſe officer ſhall, with all poſſible ſpeed, ſend up the intelligence thereof to one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State, that ſuch meaſures may be taken for the comfort and ſupport of the crew of ſuch ſhip ſo infected, and ſuch precautions uſed to prevent the ſpreading of the infection, as the caſe ſhall require; and the ſaid ſhip ſhall remain at the ſaid iſlands of Scilly, 'till his Majeſty's pleaſure be known; nor ſhall any of her crew go on ſhore; but in caſe the ſaid maſter, commander, or other perſon having charge of the ſaid ſhip ſo infected, ſhall not be able to make the ſaid iſlands of Scilly, or ſhall be forced by ſtreſs of weather, or otherwiſe, to go up either of the channels, he ſhall not preſume to enter with ſuch ſhip into any port, but ſhall remain in ſome open road, 'till he receives orders from his Majeſty, or his privy council, and ſhall take care to prevent any of his ſhip's company from going out of his ſhip, and to avoid all intercourſe with other ſhips or perſons;

ſons; and the ſaid maſter, or any other perſon on board ſuch ſhip as aforeſaid, who ſhall be diſobedient herein, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy; and every ſuch offence ſo made felony, ſhall, and may be enquired of, heard, and determined, in the county where the offence ſhall be committed, or elſe in the county where the offender ſhall be apprehended.

And to the end that it may be better known whether any ſhip or veſſel be actually infected with the plague, or whether ſuch ſhip or veſſel, or the mariners or cargo coming and imported in the ſame, are liable to any orders touching quarantine; be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That when any country or place is, or ſhall be, infected with the plague; or when any order or orders is, are, or ſhall be made by his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforeſaid, as often as any ſhip or veſſel ſhall attempt to enter into any port or place in Great Britain or Ireland, or of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, the principal officer of his Majeſty's cuſtoms in ſuch port or place, or ſuch perſon as ſhall be authorized to ſee quarantine duly performed, ſhall go off, or cauſe ſome other perſon, to be by him appointed for that purpoſe, to go off to ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and ſuch officer, or other perſon authorized to ſee quarantine performed, as aforeſaid, or the perſon ſo by him appointed for that purpoſe, ſhall, at a convenient diſtance from ſuch ſhip or veſſel, demand of the commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and ſuch commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall, upon ſuch demand, give a true account of the following particulars: that is to ſay, the name of ſuch ſhip or veſſel: the name of the commander, or perſon having charge thereof; at what place or places the cargo was taken on board; what place or places the ſhip or veſſel touched at in her voyage; whether ſuch places, or any, and which of them were infected with the plague; how long ſuch ſhip or veſſel had been in her paſſage; how many perſons were on board when the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſet ſail; whether any, and what perſons, during that voyage on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, had been, or ſhall be then infected with the plague; how many died in the voyage, and of what diſtemper; what ſhips or veſſels he, or any of his ſhip's company, with his privity, went on board, or had any of their company come on board his ſhip or veſſel in the voyage; and to what place ſuch ſhips or veſſels belonged; and alſo the true contents of his lading, to the beſt of his knowlege: and in caſe it ſhall appear upon ſuch examination, or otherwiſe, that any perſon then on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall at the time of ſuch examination be actually infected with the plague, or that ſuch ſhip is obliged to perform quarentine, in ſuch caſe it ſhall and may be lawful to and for the officers of any of his Majeſty's ſhips of war, or any of his Majeſty's forts or garriſons, and all other his Majeſty's officers whom it may concern, upon notice thereof given to them, or any of them reſpectively, and to and for any other perſon or perſons whom they ſhall call to their aid and aſſiſtance, and they are hereby required to oblige ſuch ſhip or veſſel to go and repair to ſuch places as has been, or ſhall be appointed for performance of quarantine, and to uſe all neceſſary means for that purpoſe, be it by firing of guns upon ſuch ſhip or veſſel, or any other kind of force or violence whatſoever; and in caſe any ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall come from any place viſited with the plague, or have any perſon on board actually infected, and the commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall conceal the ſame, ſuch commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy; and in caſe ſuch commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall upon ſuch demand made, as aforeſaid, not make a true diſcovery in any other of the particulars aforeſaid, ſuch commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, for every ſuch offence ſhall forfeit the ſum of 200 l. one moiety thereof to the king, and the other to him or them who ſhall ſue for the ſame, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts, of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively.

And be it further enacted, That every maſter, commander, or other perſon having charge of any ſhip or veſſel, which ſhall be ordered to perform quarantine as aforeſaid, ſhall, after his arrival at the place appointed for the performance of his quarantine, deliver on demand to the chief officer appointed to ſee quarantine duly performed there, ſuch bill of health, and manifeſt, as he ſhall have received from any Britiſh conſul during his voyage, together with his log-book and journal, under penalty of forfeiting 500 l. one moiety thereof to the king, the other moiety to him or them who ſhall ſue for the ſame, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively.

And be it further enacted, That if any commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of any ſhip or veſſel liable to perform quarantine, having notice thereof, ſhall himſelf quit, or ſhall knowingly permit or ſuffer any ſeamen or paſſenger coming in ſuch ſhip or veſſel, to quit ſuch ſhip or veſſel, by going on ſhore, or by going on board any other ſhip, boat, or veſſel, before ſuch quarantine ſhall be fully performed, unleſs in ſuch caſes, and by ſuch proper licence, as ſhall be directed or permitted by ſuch order or orders made, or to be made, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforeſaid; or in caſe any commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall not, within convenient time, after due notice given for that purpoſe by the proper officer, cauſe ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and the lading thereof, to be conveyed into the place or places appointed for ſuch ſhip, veſſel, and lading, to perform quarantine reſpectively; then, and in every ſuch caſe, every ſuch commander, maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, for every ſuch offence ſhall forfeit 500 l. one moiety thereof to the king, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or them who will ſue for the ſame; and alſo if any perſon ſhall ſo quit ſuch ſhip or veſſel, by going on ſhore, or by going on board any other ſhip or veſſel, contrary to the true meaning of this act, it ſhall and may be lawful for all perſons whatſoever, by any kind of force and violence, to compel ſuch perſon to return on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and every ſuch perſon ſo quitting ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall, for every ſuch offence, ſuffer impriſonment for the ſpace of ſix months, and ſhall alſo forfeit the ſum of 200 l. one moiety to the king, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, the other moiety to him or them that will ſue for the ſame; the ſame reſpective penalties and forfeitures to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively.

And be it further enacted, That, whenever his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by and with the advice and conſent of parliament, ſhall direct houſes or lazarets to be provided for the receiving and entertaining of perſons obliged to perform quarantine, or for the depoſiting, opening, and airing of goods and merchandizes liable to perform quarantine as aforeſaid, it ſhall and may be lawful to erect the ſame, either in any waſte ground or commons, or where ſuch waſte ground or commons are not ſufficient, in the ſeveral grounds of any perſon or perſons whatſoever, not being a houſe, park, garden, orchard, yard, or planted walk, or avenue to a houſe, paying ſuch rate, rent, or conſideration for the ſame, to the perſon intereſted therein reſpectively, according to their ſeveral intereſts in the ſame, as ſhall be agreed on between the perſons ſo intereſted, their guardians or truſtees, and any two perſons to be appointed for that purpoſe by his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, under his or their ſign manual; and in caſe of any difference concerning ſuch rate, rent, or conſideration, between the perſons ſo intereſted, their guardians, or truſtees, and ſuch perſons ſo to be appointed by his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, as aforeſaid; then, and in ſuch caſes, the ſaid perſons ſo to be appointed by his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, may, and are hereby authorized, thirty clear days before any general quarter ſeſſions of the peace to be holden for the reſpective counties or diviſions where ſuch grounds ſhall reſpectively lie, as aforeſaid, to give, or cauſe to be given, to the occupier or occupiers of ſuch ſeveral grounds, or to be left at their laſt places of abode reſpectively, a notice in writing, deſcribing the quantity of ground ſo directed by his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by and with the advice and conſent of parliament, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, and purporting that the rent or conſideration of ſuch ground will be adjuſted and ſettled by a jury of the ſaid ſeſſions; and the juſtices at their ſaid ſeſſions, upon proof to them made that ſuch notices have been given, ſhall, and are hereby authorized and required to charge the jury which ſhall attend at the ſaid ſeſſions, or ſome other jury of twelve honeſt and ſubſtantial men (to be then and there impannelled and returned by the ſheriff of the county, without fee or reward) and cauſe to be ſworn, well and truly on their oath, to aſſeſs the value of the ground comprized in the ſaid notices, and the rent or conſideration to be given for the ſame to the reſpective owner or owners thereof, according to their reſpective intereſts therein; which oath the ſaid juſtices are hereby required to adminiſter to the ſaid jury, and to which ſaid jury the ſaid perſons to be appointed by his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the parties intereſted in ſuch ground, ſhall have their lawful challenges; and the ſaid jury being ſo ſworn and charged as aforeſaid, after proper evidence on oath given to them, ſhall by their verdict aſſeſs the rent or conſideration to be given for ſuch ground to the reſpective owner or owners thereof, according to their reſpective intereſts therein; which verdict of the ſaid jury, and judgment of the ſaid juſtices thereupon, ſhall be concluſive and finally bind all parties; and that from and after ſuch verdict and judgment, his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall and may hold and enjoy ſuch ground, for and during all ſuch time and terms as his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall judge neceſſary for

the purpoſes aforeſaid, paying for the ſame ſuch rate, rent, or other conſideration, as ſhall be agreed upon, or aſſeſſed and adjudged, as aforeſaid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That the proper officers authorized to put in execution ſuch orders made, or to be made, as aforeſaid, ſhall, and they are hereby empowered and required to cauſe and compel all perſons obliged to perform quarantine, as aforeſaid, and all goods and merchandizes comprized within any ſuch orders made, or to be made, as aforeſaid, reſpectively to repair, or be conveyed to ſome of the ſaid houſes, or lazarets, or to ſuch other places as ſhall be provided for the reception of ſuch perſons, goods, or merchandizes, or for the opening and airing of ſuch goods and merchandizes, according to ſuch order or orders made, or to be made, as aforeſaid.

And be it further enacted, That if any perſon obliged to perform quarantine, as aforeſaid, ſhall wilfully refuſe or neglect to repair, within convenient time after due notice for that purpoſe given to him, her, or them, by the proper officer, to the houſe, lazaret, or other place duly appointed for him, her, or them, or, having been placed in ſuch houſe or lazaret, or other place, ſhall eſcape, or attempt to eſcape out of the ſame, before quarantine be fully performed, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for the watchmen, and other perſons appointed to ſee quarantine performed, by ſuch force as the caſe ſhall require, to compel every ſuch perſon ſo refuſing or neglecting as aforeſaid, and every ſuch perſon ſo eſcaping, or attempting to eſcape, as aforeſaid, to repair or return into ſuch houſe, lazaret, or other place ſo appointed for him or her, as aforeſaid; and every ſuch perſon ſo refuſing or neglecting to repair, within convenient time after ſuch notice, as aforeſaid, into ſuch houſe, lazaret, or other place appointed for him or her, as aforeſaid; and alſo every perſon actually eſcaping, as aforeſaid, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

And whereas diſobedience, or refractory behaviour in perſons under quarantine, may be attended with great danger and inconvenience, be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That all perſons liable to perform quarantine, whether in ſhips, lazarets, or elſewhere, ſhall be ſubject, during the ſaid quarantine, to ſuch orders as they ſhall receive from the proper officers authorized to ſee it duly performed; and the ſaid officers are hereby impowered and required to inforce all neceſſary obedience to their ſaid orders, and may, in caſe of neceſſity, call in others to their aſſiſtance, and all perſons ſo called are hereby required to aſſiſt accordingly.

And be it further enacted, That if any perſon, not infected with the plague, nor liable to perform quarantine, ſhall enter any houſe, lazaret, or other place ſo appointed, as aforeſaid, whilſt any perſon or perſons infected with the plague, or being under quarantine, ſhall be therein, and ſhall return, or attempt to return from thence, unleſs in ſuch caſes, and by ſuch licence as ſhall be directed, or permitted by ſuch order or orders, made or to be made, as aforeſaid, it ſhall, and may be lawful to and for the watchmen, or other perſons appointed to guard or ſecure ſuch houſe, lazaret, or other place ſo appointed as aforeſaid, by ſuch force as the caſe ſhall require, to compel ſuch perſon ſo returning, or attempting to return, to repair into ſuch houſe, lazaret, or other place ſo appointed as aforeſaid, there to continue and perform quarantine; and, in caſe ſuch perſon ſhall actually eſcape out of ſuch houſe, lazaret, or other place, where he or ſhe ſhall be ſo placed for performance of quarantine, before he or ſhe ſhall have fully performed the ſame, he or ſhe ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

And it is hereby further enacted, That if any officer or officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, or any other officer or officers, perſon or perſons whatſoever, to whom it doth or ſhall appertain to execute any order or orders made, or to be made, concerning quarantine, or the prevention of infection, and notified as aforeſaid, or to ſee the ſame put in execution, ſhall be guilty of any wilful breach or neglect of his or their duty in that behalf, every ſuch officer and perſon ſo offending, ſhall forfeit his office or employment in the cuſtoms, or any other office or employment, and ſhall become from thenceforth incapable to hold or enjoy the ſame, or to take a new grant thereof, and forfeit the ſum of one hundred pounds, one moiety thereof to the king, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or them who ſhall or will ſue for the ſame, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively, and if any ſuch officer or perſon ſhall embezzle, or ſhall knowingly and willingly damage any goods performing quarantine under his direction, he ſhall be liable to pay treble damages, and full coſts of ſuit.

And whereas certain ſpecies of goods and merchandizes are more eſpecially liable to retain infection, and may be brought from places infected into other countries, and from thence imported into his Majeſty's dominions in ſhips not obliged to perform quarantine, be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That all ſuch goods and merchandizes as are or ſhall be particularly ſpecified for that purpoſe, in any order or orders made or to be made concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforeſaid, which ſhall be imported into any of his Majeſty's dominions from any foreign country or place, in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever, ſhall be ſubject and liable to ſuch order or ordets made or to be made, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection as aforeſaid.

And it is hereby further enacted, That, after quaratine ſhall have been duly performed by any ſhip or veſſel, perſon or perſons, obliged to perform quarantine, according to ſuch order or orders made as aforeſaid, and the act, and upon proof to be made upon the oaths of the maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and of two of the perſons belonging to ſuch ſhip or veſſel, or upon proof to be made by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes, before the cuſtomer, comptroller, or collector of the port where ſuch quarantine ſhall be performed, or the next port thereunto, or before any of their deputies, or any juſtice of the peace living near to ſuch port, or where ſuch quarantine ſhall have been performed, within any of the ſaid iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, before any two jurats or magiſtrates of any of the ſaid iſles reſpectively (which perſons are hereby authoriſed and required to adminiſter ſuch oath) that ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and all and every ſuch perſon and perſons reſpectively, have duly performed quarantine as aforeſaid; and that the ſhip or veſſel, and all and every ſuch perſon and perſons, are free from infection; and after producing a certificate to that purpoſe, ſigned by the chief officer who ſuperintended the quarantine of the ſaid ſhip: then, and in the ſaid reſpective caſes, ſuch cuſtomer, comptroller, or collector, or any of their deputies, together with the ſaid juſtice of the peace, or ſuch jurats or magiſtrates as aforeſaid reſpectively, are hereby required to give a certificate thereof; and thereupon ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and all and every ſuch perſon and perſons, ſo having performed quarantine, ſhall be liable to no further reſtraint or detention upon the ſame account for which ſuch ſhip or veſſel, perſon or perſons, ſhall have performed quarantine as aforeſaid.

And it is hereby further enacted, That the officer before whom ſuch oath ſhall be made, and by whom ſuch certificate ſhall be given, ſhall, for ſuch reſpective oath and certificate, demand or take no fee or reward whatſoever.

Provided nevertheleſs, and it is hereby enacted, That all goods, wares, and merchandizes, liable to quarantine, as aforeſaid, ſhall be opened and aired in ſuch place or places, and for ſuch time, and in ſuch manner, as ſhall be directed by his Majeſty, by ſuch order or orders to be made as aforeſaid; and after ſuch orders ſhall have been duly complied with, and a certificate thereof given by the chief officer appointed to ſuperintend the quarantine and airing of ſuch goods, wares, and merchandizes, and proof ſhall be made thereof, by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes, before the cuſtomer, comptroller, or collector of the port lying next to ſuch place or places where ſuch goods, wares, or merchandizes, ſhall have been opened and aired as aforeſaid, or any of their deputies, or any juſtice of the peace living near the ſame, or before any two jurats, or magiſtrates of the ſaid iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively (who are hereby authorized and required to adminiſter ſuch oath) upon certificate and return of ſuch proof by ſuch cuſtomer, comptroller, or collector, or any of their deputies, or ſuch two jurats, or magiſtrates, as aforeſaid (who are hereby reſpectively required to make ſuch certificate and return to the commiſſioners appointed for the management of the cuſtoms of Great Britain or Ireland, or to the governor or commander in chief, being upon the place, in the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively) ſuch goods, wares, and merchandizes, ſhall be forthwith diſcharged from any reſtraint or detention upon the ſame account, by order of the ſaid commiſſioners, or any two of them, or of the ſaid governor or commander in chief of any of the ſaid iſles as aforeſaid, reſpectively; for every of which oath, certificate, and order, no fee or reward whatſoever ſhall be demanded or taken.

Provided always, and be it enacted, That if any officer, or other perſon, ſhall demand or take any fee or reward whatſoever for any ſuch oath, order, or certificate, to be adminiſtered or made in purſuance of this act, every perſon ſo offending ſhall forfeit the ſum of one hundred pounds, one moiety whereof to his Majeſty, and the other to him or them who ſhall ſue for the ſame, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively; in which caſe treble coſts ſhall be allowed to either party, as in other caſes.

And be it further enacted, &c. That if any officer, or other perſon appointed to ſee quarantine duly performed, or any perſon placed or appointed as a watchman upon any houſe, lazaret, ſhip, or other place for performance of quarantine, in purſuance of this act, ſhall deſert from their duty, when employed on the ſame buſineſs of quarantine, or ſhall knowingly

ſingly and willingly permit or ſuffer any perſon, ſhip, goods, or merchandizes, to depart or be conveyed out of ſuch houſe, lazaret, ſhip, or other place reſpectively appointed for performance of quarantine, unleſs in ſuch caſes, and by ſuch licence, as are or ſhall be directed or permitted, by ſome order or orders made, or to be made, as aforeſaid; or if any perſon, directed as aforeſaid to give a certificate of a ſhip's having duly performed her quarantine, or airing, ſhall knowingly give a falſe certificate, then, and in every of the ſaid caſes, every ſuch officer and perſons ſo offending, ſhall ſuffer death, as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy.

And be it further enacted, &c. That if any perſon or perſons ſhall knowingly or wilfully conceal from the officers of quarantine, or ſhall clandeſtinely convey any letters, goods, wares, or merchandize, from any ſhip under quarantine, or liable to perform quarantine, by any ſuch order to be made as aforeſaid, or from any lazaret, or other places where goods ſhall be performing quarantine, every ſuch perſon ſo offending, ſhall ſuffer death, as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy.

And whereas it is notorious that, notwithſtanding the many good laws made to prevent the clandeſtine importation of cuſtomable and prohibited goods and merchandizes, a pernicious trade of that kind is ſtill carried on, for the moſt part in open boats or veſſels, of ſmall burthen, which privately, and in the night, put into creeks and ſecret places on the coaſt, thereby eſcaping the obſervation of the officers of the cuſtoms, which practices may prove highly detrimental to the ſafety of theſe kingdoms during a time of infection; for prevention thereof, be it enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That, when any part of Great Britain, Ireland, or the iſlands of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or France, Spain, Portugal, or the Low-Countries, ſhall be infected with the plague, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for his Majeſty, &c. by his or their proclamation, to prohibit and reſtrain all ſmall boats and veſſels, under the burthen of 20 tons, from ſailing or paſſing out of any port or place of Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of them, until ſecurity be firſt given by the maſter of every ſuch boat or veſſel reſpectively, to the ſatisfaction of the principal officers of the cuſtoms, or the chief magiſtrate of the port or place from whence ſuch boat or veſſel ſhall ſail, by bond taken to the king, his heirs or ſucceſſors, with ſufficient ſureties, in the penalty of 300 l. with condition, that if ſuch boat or veſſel ſhall not go to, or touch at, any country, port, or place, to be mentioned for that purpoſe in ſuch proclamation, and if the maſter, or other perſon having charge of ſuch boat or veſſel, and all and every mariner and mariners, paſſenger and paſſengers, going in ſuch boat or veſſel, ſhall, during the time aforeſaid, not go on board any other ſhip or veſſel at ſea; and if ſuch maſter, or other perſon, having charge of ſuch boat or veſſel, ſhall not permit or ſuffer any perſon or perſons to come on board ſuch boat or veſſel at ſea, from any other ſhip or veſſel, and ſhall not, during the time aforeſaid, receive any goods and merchandizes whatſoever out of any other ſhip or veſſel, then ſuch bond ſhall be void, or to ſuch effect; for the making of which bond, no fee or reward whatſoever ſhall be taken; and in caſe any boat or veſſel for which ſuch ſecurity ſhall be required by ſuch proclamation, ſhall ſet ſail, or paſs out of any port or place of Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſlands of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or any of them reſpectively, before ſuch ſecurity be given as aforeſaid, every ſuch boat or veſſel, ſo ſailing, or paſſing out of any port or place, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, ſhall be forfeited to the king, &c. and ſhall and may be ſeized, ſued for, and recovered in his Majeſty's court of Exchequer at Weſtminſter, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or in the proper courts of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, reſpectively, to the uſe of his Majeſty, &c. and the maſter of, and every mariner ſailing in any ſuch boat or veſſel, being thereof lawfully convicted, upon his or their appearance or default, upon the oath or oaths of one or more credible witneſs or witneſſes, by one or more juſtice or juſtices of the peace, where ſuch offender ſhall be found (which oath ſuch juſtice or juſtices of the peace are hereby impowered and required to adminiſter) ſhall forfeit the ſum of 20 l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh where ſuch offender ſhall be found, the ſame to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant under the hand and ſeal, or the hands and ſeals of ſuch juſtice or juſtices before whom ſuch offender ſhall be convicted, as aforeſaid; and, for want of ſufficient diſtreſs, every ſuch offender ſhall, by ſuch juſtice or juſtices, be committed to priſon, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, for the ſpace of three months; and, in caſe any ſuch offender ſhall be found in any of the ſaid iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and ſhall be lawfully convicted of ſuch offence, in any action or ſuit to be founded on this act, in the proper court of any of the ſaid iſles where he ſhall be ſo found, ſuch offender ſhall forfeit the ſum of 20 l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh or place where ſuch offender ſhall be found; and, in default of paying ſuch penalty, ſhall ſuffer impriſonment, without bail or mainprize, for the ſpace of three months.

And, to the end that all perſons may know how to demean themſelves in the premiſes, be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That when and as often as his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, ſhall make any order or orders concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, and notify the ſame by proclamation, or cauſe the ſame to be publiſhed in the London Gazette, as aforeſaid, ſuch proclamation, or order or orders in council, as aforeſaid, ſhall be publickly read upon the next Sunday on which divine ſervice ſhall be performed after the receipt of the ſame, and the firſt Sunday in every month afterwards (during the time ſuch orders ſhall continue in force) immediately after the prayers, in all pariſh churches, and other places ſet apart for divine worſhip, within ſuch counties and places as ſhall be ſpecified for that purpoſe in ſuch proclamation or orders reſpectively.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced againſt any perſon or perſons, for any thing done in purſuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in ſuch action or ſuit, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, and the ſpecial matter in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the ſame was done in purſuance, and by the authority of the ſaid act; and if it ſhall appear ſo to have been done, then the jury ſhall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff ſhall be nonſuited, or diſcontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants ſhall have appeared, or if judgment ſhall have been given, upon any verdict or demurrer, againſt the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants ſhall and may recover treble coſts, and have the like remedy for the ſame, as the defendant or defendants hath or have in other caſes by law.

Provided always, and it is hereby enacted, That no attainder of felony, by virtue of this act, ſhall extend to work any corruption of blood, or forfeiture of any goods, chattels, lands, tenements, or hereditaments.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That this act, and the ſeveral clauſes and proviſions therein contained, ſhall commence and take effect from and after the 1ſt day of March, 1754.

QUARRY, a ſubterranean place, from whence are dug free-ſtones marble, ſlate, lime-ſtone, &c. proper for building.

In the digging of quarries of free-ſtone, they firſt open a hole in the manner of a well, but conſiderably bigger in diameter, and the rubbiſh is drawn out with a windlaſs, in baſkets.

As the hole increaſes, and their common ladder becomes too ſhort, they apply a larger for the purpoſe.—When they have got through the rubbiſh, and are arrived at the firſt ſtratum *, they apply their windlaſs and baſkets to diſcharge the ſtones, as faſt as they dig through them.

* Strata, in Natural Hiſtory, are the ſeveral beds, or layers, of different matters, whereof the body of the earth is compoſed. It has been ſuppoſed by ſome, that the ſtrata lie in the earth according to the laws of gravitation; but experience hath proved the contrary, it having been obſerved by Dr Leigh, in his Natural Hiſtory of Lancaſhire, ſpeaking of the coal-pits, that the ſtrata there are firſt a bed of marle, then free ſtone, next iron-ſtone, then coal, or channel mire, then ſome other ſtrata, then coal again, &c.—And Mr Haukſbee was ordered by the Royal Society, to try the ſtrata of a coal-pit, which he did to the depth of 30 ſtrata: the thickneſs and ſpecific gravity of each whereof, he gives us in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; and from the whole makes this inference, that it evidently appears the gravities of the ſeveral ſtrata are in no manner of order, but purely caſual, as if mixed by chance.

They uſually find ſeven of theſe different ſtrata of ſtones, of different heights, and ſerving for different purpoſes, though the number, as well as order wherein they follow, is various.

As to the extracting of the ſtone from the bed wherein it lies, they find that common ſtones, particularly the ſofter kinds, as they lie, have two grains, a cleaving grain, running parellel with the horizon, and a breaking grain, perpendicular thereto.—After clearing the earth from off it, they obſerve by the grain where the ſtone will cleave, and there drive in a number of wedges, 'till they have thus cleft it from the reſt of the rock.

This done, they proceed to break it: in order to which, applying the rules at both ends, 10 or 12 inches apart, according to the uſes for which the ſtone is intended, they ſtrike a line, and by this cut a little channel with their ſtone-ax, and in the channel ſet five or ſix wedges (ſuppoſing the ſtone three or four feet) driving them in very carefully, with gentle blows, and ſtill keeping them equally forward.—Having thus broke the ſtone in length (which they are able to do to half an inch of any ſize) applying a ſquare to the ſtraight ſide, they ſtrike a line, and proceed as before, to break it in breadths.

This method of drawing is found greatly preferable to that of breaking the ſtones at random; but this cleaving grain being generally wanting in the harder ſtones, to break up theſe, they have great heavy ſtone axes, wherewith they work down a deep channel into the ſtone, and into this channel, at top, lay two iron bars, driving their iron wedges between thoſe bars.

Some in drawing of ſtone, eſpecially the very hard kind, make uſe of gun-powder with good effect, in the nature of blaſting in Minerology. In order to which, making a ſmall perforation pretty deep into the body of the rock, ſo as to have that thickneſs of rock over it judged proper to be blown up at once; at the further end of the perforation they diſpoſe a convenient quantity of gun-powder, filling up all the reſt with rubbiſh, ſtrongly rammed in, except a little ſpace for the train.—By this means the rock is blown in ſeveral pieces, moſt of them not too unweildly for a workman to manage.

For free-ſtone, that dug in the peninſula of Portland, and thence called Portland ſtone, is much uſed in buildings, being ſofter and whiter than Purbec ſtone, and is commonly raiſed out of the quarries in bigger blocks than that.

Some alſo call Ryegate, or fire-ſtone, free-ſtone. Mr Boyle obſerves, that a competent knowlege of the nature of the ſap, or juice, found in ſtones uſed in building, is of the laſt importance; the ſame ſtone, dug out of the ſame quarry at one ſeaſon, being found to moulder away in a few winters, which dug out at another ſeaſon, will brave the weather for many ages: and there are others, which, though dug at the proper ſeaſon, yet make but ruinous buildings, if uſed at an improper ſeaſon.

The ſame author adds, that, as there are ſome ſort of ſtones which will decay in a few years, there are others will not have attained their full hardneſs in 30 or 40 years, or even much more.

In regard to quarries of marble, there are a great variety of ſorts of this kind of ſtone, and theſe are uſually denominated either from their colour, their country, their grain, their degree of hardneſs, their weight, or their defects: ſome are of one ſimple colour, as white or black; others ſtreaked, or variegated with ſtains, clouds, waves, veins, &c. but all opake, excepting the white, which, when cut into thin ſlices, becomes tranſparent.

Ancient marbles are thoſe whoſe quarries are judged to be loſt, or inacceſſible, and whereof we have only ſome ſamples remaining.—Modern marbles are thoſe whoſe quarries are ſtill open, and out of which blocks continue to be dug.—African marble is either of a reddiſh brown, ſtreaked with veins of white, or of a carnation, with veins of green.—Engliſh white marble is veined with red.—Derbyſhire marble is diverſified with colours of brown, red, yellow, &c.—Marble of Auvergne in France is of a pale red, mingled with violet, green, and yellow.—Marble of Brabançon, in Hainault, is black, veined with white.—Marble of Breſſe, in Italy, is yellow, with ſpots of white.—Brocatella marble is mingled with little ſhades of Iſabella yellow, pale, and grey; it comes from Tortoſa, in Spain, where it is dug out of an ancient quarry: there is alſo another kind of ancient brocatella, dug near Adrianople.—Marble of Currara, on the coaſts of Genoa, is very white, and the fitteſt of all others for works of ſculpture.—Marble of Champagne reſembles the brocatella, being mixed with blue, in round ſtains like partridges eyes.—Cipollino, or Cipollin marble, is of a ſea-green colour, mixed with large waves, or clouds of white or pale green.—Scamozzi takes this to be the ſame with that which the Ancients called Auguſtum & Tiberium marmor, becauſe diſcovered in Egypt in the times of Auguſtus and Tiberius.—Marble of Dinan, near Liege, is of a pure black, very beautiful, and very common.—Marble of Guachenet, near Dinan, is of a reddiſh brown, with white ſpots and veins.—Marble of Languedoc, is of a vivid red, with large white veins, or ſtains, and is very common; there is ſome, whoſe white borders pretty much upon the blue, but this is of leſs value.—Lumachello marble is ſo called, becauſe mingled with ſpots brown, black, and white, wreathed ſomewhat like periwinkle-ſhells: this is ancient, and it's quarry is loſt.—Marble of Margoſſa, in the Milaneze, has a white ground, with browniſh veins, reſembling the colour of iron ruſt: this is very common, and extremely hard.—Marble of Lavé, in Maine, has a black ground, with little narrow veins of white; there is another kind of it red, with veins of a dirty white.—Marble of Namur is black, like that of Dinan, but leſs beautiful, as inclining a little to the blue, and traverſed with little ſtreaks of grey: this is very common, and is frequently uſed in paving.—Parian marble is antique, and much celebrated in authors; it is of a beautiful white: the greateſt part of the Grecian ſtatues were made of it: Varro calls it lychnites, becauſe the workmen dug it out of the quarry by lamp-light.—Marble of Porta Santa, at Rome called Sama, is mingled with large clouds and veins of red, yellow, and grey.—Portor marble has a black ground, with clouds and veins of yellow: it is dug out of the foot of the Alps, towards Carrara.—Marble of Rance, in Hainault, is of a dirty red, mixed with blue and white clouds and veins: this is pretty common, but is different in degree of beauty.—Marble of Savoy is a deep red, mixed with other colours, each piece whereof ſeems cemented on to the reſt.—Marble of Sicily is a browniſh red, ſtained with oblong ſquares of white and Iſabella, like ſtriped taffety: the ancient has very vivid colours, and the modern comes pretty near it.—Marble of Signam, in the Pyrenees, is ordinarily of a greeniſh brown, with red ſtains, though this is ſomewhat various in it's colours.—Marble of Theu, near Namur in Liege, is a pure black, ſoft, and eaſy to work, and receives a more beautiful poliſh than thoſe of Namur and Dinan.—Marble Bigio Nero, or black-grey, is antique.—White veined marble has large veins, with grey and blue ſtains, on a white ground: it comes from Carrara.—White marble; that dug out of the Pyrenees, on the ſide of Bayonne, is inferior to that of Carrara, it's grain being coarſer, and ſhining like a kind of ſalt; it is ſomething like the ancient white Greek marble, whereof their ſtatues were made, but is not ſo hard or beautiful.—Ancient black and white marble is now very rare, it's quarries being intirely loſt; it is divided between a pure white and a bright black, in laminæ.—Blue Turquin marble is mixed with a dirty kind of white, and comes from the coaſt of Genoa.—Marble Fior di Perſica, comes from Italy, conſiſts of red and white ſtains, ſomewhat yellowiſh.—Yellow marble is a kind of yellow Iſabella, without veins; it is antique, and now very rare.—Black antique marble is of a pure black, without ſtains, and ſofter than the modern black: there was ſome of it brought from Greece, called mamor luculleum, but not ſo much prized as that from Ethiopia.—There are divers other ſorts, needleſs to enumerate.—Porphyry alſo is a precious kind of marble, of a browniſh red colour, often interſperſed with ſtains, brought formerly from Egypt, and exceeding all other kinds of ſtone in hardneſs; yet Dr Huntingdon aſſures us, that there is no quarry or rock of ſuch ſtone in all the lower parts of Egypt, ſo far as the Nile overflows being perfect ſoil.

Remarks.

There are three different ways of petrification that we are acquainted with, which being eaſily obſervable and conceivable by us, may aſſiſt us in making a pretty exact diſcovery how all others are performed.

Of the firſt kind is the ſtalactites, or the cylindrical congelation which is formed in the ſhape of an icicle, in the perpendicular fiſſures of vaults and caverns, out of the ſparry, ſandy, and other matter that is drained out of the ſtrata, by the water paſſing through them into thoſe fiſſures *, and theſe do gradually increaſe, in proportion as they are covered with freſh coats of the ſame matter.

* See Woodward on Foſſils, page 18.

Of the ſecond ſort of petrification are thoſe cruſts of ſtone which the water of certain ſprings leaves ſticking to the pipes it paſſes through, as is obſervable in thoſe which convey the water from Bongis and Arcueil to Paris. Now it is very plain that this petrified matter, of what nature ſoever it be, is impelled by the water towards the ſides of the pipe: the reaſon of it's incruſtating in irregular lumps, or clods, one upon another, is the irregular action of the water upon this ſtony matter, which it caſts ſideways from the center of it's courſe, to force itſelf a free paſſage.

Of the third kind of petrification that we are thoroughly acquainted with, are thoſe pieces of wood, ſhells, and other ſubſtances, which are found petrified under-ground, or in certain fountains, ſtill retaining their natural figure and lineaments. Now the manner in which theſe three different petrifications are performed, we will ſuppoſe to be thus: the firſt by thin leaves or teguments, the ſecond by little lumps, the third by inſertation.

We have no acquaintance with any other elements than thoſe of water, ſalt, oily juices, ſand, loam, and clay. The water itſelf is no ingredient in the compoſition of ſtones, but is only that which brings together and mixes the materials of which they are compoſed. The natural formation of ſtones is performed nearly in the ſame manner with the artificial ſtructure of houſes, in which the water ſerves to unite and fix the materials, after which they harden, and conſolidate as the water diſſipates. Our walls are compoſed of hard maſſes of matter and cement; the cement of itſelf would never form a durable firm wall, and the maſſes, whether of brick or ſtone, laid one upon another, without any mortar between them, would eaſily be ſhaken down, whereas the interpoſition of the cement produces theſe two effects; firſt, by filling up the interſtices between the maſſes, it keeps them fixed in their places; and ſecondly, by inſinuating itſelf into the pores of thoſe maſſes, it incorporates with them, ſo as to conſtitute, when thoroughly dry, one intire compacted body. So likewiſe our three different ways of petrification are performed by little maſſes, and a very fine cement: the maſſes to be joined together are the ſand, the clay, and the loam; the ſtrongeſt cement are the ſalts, and the different ſorts of bitumen: ſometimes the ſalt and clay ſerve as a cement to the ſand, ſometimes either the clay or loam does of itſelf conſtitute the maſs, and, from the different quantities and proportions of theſe matters, differently mixed together, reſults an almoſt infinite variety of productions; but then it is the water that performs all the ſeveral offices of collecting, conveying, and aſſociating all the different particles of matter, which afterwards condenſe into aggregates of a hard durable nature.

Under the firſt kind of petrification may be ranged the talcs, ſlates, the amianthus, and plaſter.

Cryſtal is nothing elſe but an aggregate of ſand, either of a pyramidal or triangular figure, which the water incruſtates ſucceſſively upon one another, by a cement of ſalt and very fine loamy earth: and this appears the more probable, for that, when cryſtal is reſolved by fire into it's conſtituent parts, we can diſcover nothing but a calcined ſand together with a little earth and ſalt. Nor is it at all to be wondered at, that ſuch a beautiful tranſparent maſs ſhould be formed out of ſand, ſeeing the particles of the ſand itſelf, when viewed through a microſcope, appear like ſo many pellucid cryſtals: the reaſon of their not being bright and clear in their natural ſtate, like the diamond, is becauſe of the earth that is mixed with them. See the article STONE.

QUARTATION, a peculiar method of ſeparating gold from ſilver.

Make a mixed maſs of gold and ſilver, and melt it along with three or four times it's own weight of pure ſilver; beat the whole lump, when cold, into a thin plate; put it into a glaſs of proof aqua fortis, and ſet the ſame in warm ſand, whereby the ſilver will ſoon diſſolve, and the gold fall in a black powder to the bottom.

Pour off carefully the ſolution of ſilver, and uſe a ſomewhat ſtronger heat than before, in order to diſſolve any remains of ſilver in the gold powder. Then the aqua fortis [ſee the article AQUA FORTIS] being again decanted, waſh the gold well, in ſeveral parcels of fair water. And put the gold-powder into a little ſay-cup [ſee the article ASSAY] and place it under the muffle in the teſting-furnace, 'till it becomes yellow. You may otherwiſe melt it with borax, which will bring it to it's true colour and form. Weigh the gold, to determine the proportion it bears to the ſilver. Laſtly, Precipitate the ſilver out of the aqua fortis, by ſuſpending a copper-plate therein; then waſh the calx, and reduce it to it's metalline form, in the ſame manner.

OBSERVATION.

The reaſon for adding three or four times the quantity of ſilver, in proportion to the mixed maſs is, for fear the maſs ſhould contain too much gold to be fit for the operation; or to ſpread the gold contained in the maſs, and diffuſe it ſo thinly, that it may not defend the ſilver, as it otherwiſe would do, from the action of the aqua fortis. And upon account of this addition it ſeems to be, that the operation is called QUARTATION.

This method of ſeparating gold and ſilver was unknown to the Ancients, who therefore ſeparated ſilver from gold by calcination, and ſo loſt all the ſilver that was mixed with the gold. And, indeed, the method by quartation is expenſive and laborious, ſo as not to be very advantageouſly practiſed in the large way of buſineſs; though the whole has been divided into ſuch a number of hands, as to make the ſeveral parts come cheap: ſome operators being wholly employed in making the aqua fortis; others in purifying it, or bringing it to proof; others in laminating the ſilver, and diſſolving it; others in ſeparating and reducing the calx of the gold; others in precipitating the ſilver with copper; and others again in ſeparating the copper from the aqua fortis. And hence the whole operation has been found to anſwer the trouble, ſo long as they can recover about a drachm of gold from a pound of ſilver.

But there are certain ingenious workmen, who have the method of ſeparating gold from ſilver to much greater profit, without the uſe of aqua fortis, or aqua regia, and barely by a dextrous application or management of the FIRE, at leaſt without any coſtly additions. This method is kept as a ſecret, but may, perhaps, be no other, than that publiſhed by M. Homberg; which conſiſts in fluxing the mixed maſs of gold and ſilver with equal parts of rough nitre and decrepitated ſalt, placed at the bottom of the melting-pot; whereby the operation in the large way, may be finiſhed in a quarter of an hour; the gold thus falling to the bottom, and leaving the ſilver ſuſpended in the ſalts.

Another way of effecting this ſeparation may depend upon a dextrous uſe of common ſulphur, which has the power of making ſilver melt away from a metalline mixture almoſt as eaſy as lead.

But, to obtain either gold or ſilver in abſolute purity, is no eaſy taſk. For the common uſes, indeed, the methods above delivered may ſerve; but for the more curious chemical and philoſophical purpoſes, better ways than are commonly known and practiſed ſhould be diſcovered.

To refine gold by melting and teſting it with antimony, or glaſs of antimony, is generally, and even by the metallurgical chemiſts, thought a perfect way; but M. Homberg has ſhewn, that even this criterion, as alſo quartation, cupelling with lead, fluxing with borax, &c. may fail, in caſe the gold be mixed with emery, or poſſibly ſome other things.

When gold is eager, as the workmen call it, that is, brittle, they hold it as a ſecret to melt it with mercury ſublimate. But, perhaps, no gold can be proved to be perfectly pure, 'till it has gone through all the trials hitherto known; or even ſome of a more curious nature, particularly melting with crude antimony, and afterwards cupelling the regulus with lead; and, at laſt, fuſing it with borax. Which proceſs we recommend to thoſe who require gold in abſolute purity for any ſtandard, or curious operation.

QUICKSILVER, ſee MERCURY.

Of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, continued.

With regard to the QUAKERS.

QUAKERS. Their affirmation and declaration, allowed by the 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 34. and 13 and 14 Will. III. cap. 4. to be accepted inſtead of an oath, in all caſes where by law an oath is required, 1 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 1, and 2. The affirmation or declaration to be in theſe words, I, A. B. do ſolemnly, ſincerely, and truly declare and affirm, That, &c. 8 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 2. Such ſolemn affirmation or declaration is to be adjudged to be of the ſame force and effect in all caſes, as if an oath had been taken in the uſual form. Convicted of a wilful, falſe, and corrupt affirmation or declaration, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 34. §. 3.

QUARANTINE. See that article at large.

R.

RADNORSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the eaſt with Shropſhire and Herefordſhire, with Brecknockſhire and Cardiganſhire on the ſouth and weſt, and with Montgomeryſhire on the north. It is, according to ſome, about 29 miles in length and 18 in breadth, and has an area of 385 ſquare miles. Others make it 90 miles in circumference, containing 310,000 acres, four market-towns, ſix hundreds, fifty-two pariſhes, and about 3200 houſes, with 19,000 inhabitants, thirteen rivers, five caſtles, and three foreſts, all in the dioceſes of Hereford and St David's.

The air is ſharp and piercing. The eaſt and ſouth parts are well cultivated, and pretty fruitful in corn; but the ſoil elſewhere, eſpecially in the north and weſt parts, is ſo rocky and mountainous, that it is only fit to feed cattle and ſheep, though it is well ſtored with woods, and watered with rivulets, and in ſome places ſtanding lakes.

The chief commodities are cheeſe and horſes. The river Wye, which divides it from Brecknockſhire, croſſes the weſt angle of the county, and in its rapid courſe through the rocks, forms ſeveral cataracts, and receives the Ithon, Weverly, and other ſtreams. It is parted from Shropſhire by the river Ternd, but the river which it has peculiar to itſelf, is the Ithon, into which run the Dulas, the Clowdock, and the Cameran. It riſes among the hills in the north ſide of the ſhire, and forming its courſe ſouthward, falls into the river Wye, a little below Dyſſart, on the Llanhadem: it winds about ſo ſhort, that it runs near ſix miles in a mile and a half diſtance from that town. In theſe rivers are plenty of ſalmon and other fiſh. It ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the chief town, viz.

NEW RADNOR, a very ancient borough by preſcription, from whence the county takes its name.

PRESTEIN, or PRESTAIGN, or ST ANDREW's, ſtands on the river Lug, in a rich and pleaſant valley, near its entrance into Herefordſhire, and is the place where the aſſizes and the county gaol are kept, on which account it is pretty populous, and well frequented. Here is a very good market for grain, eſpecially barley, of which they make good ſtore of malt.

KNIGHTON, the only town of note in the hundred of its own name. It ſtands in a valley on the river Teme, over which it has a bridge. It is a well built borough, of good trade and reſort, and its market is well ſerved with cattle, corn, iron ware, hops, ſalt, linnen and woollen cloth, and other commodities.

RAISINS making a conſiderable article in traffic, we muſt not omit it.

They are the fruit of the vine, ſuffered to remain on the tree 'till perfectly ripened, and then dried, either in the ſun, or by the additional heat of an oven. Grapes of every kind preſerved in this manner are called raiſins, and are diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral kinds, according to the ſpecies of grape. What we have at preſent differ, as they are better or worſe dried, and are all called raiſins under different appellations, except the ſmall kind, which are called currants.

The difference between raiſins dried in the ſun, and thoſe dried in ovens, is conſiderable and obvious. The former are ſweet and pleaſant, the others have a whitiſhneſs and a latent acidity with the ſweetneſs, that renders them much leſs agreeable. The raiſins of the ſun, or what we call jar raiſins, from their being imported in earthen jars, are of the former kind, all dried by the ſun's heat only.

The fineſt and beſt raiſins, are thoſe called in ſome places Damaſcus and Jube raiſins; theſe are the fruit of the vitis Damaſcena, and are diſtinguiſhable from the others by their largeneſs and figure; they are flat and wrinkled on the ſurface, ſoft and juicy within, near an inch long, and ſemipellucid when held againſt a good light: they have a ſweet, agreeable, and vinous taſte, and when freſh and growing on the bunch, are of the ſize and ſhape of the large olive.

The common raiſins are the fruit of ſeveral ſpecies of grape, which are better or worſe, according as they have been more or leſs carefully cured.

The common way of drying grapes for raiſins at preſent, is to tie two or three bunches of them firmly together, while yet on the vine, and dip them into a hot lixivium of wood-aſhes with a little oil olive in it. This diſpoſes them to ſhrink and wrinkle, and after this they are left on the vine three or four days, ſeparated on ſticks in an horizontal ſituation, and then dried in the ſun at leiſure, after cut from the tree.

The currants are the fruit of a vine differing from the common kinds, in the ſmallneſs of its grapes, and in the largeneſs of its leaves, which alſo have fewer and ſlighter diviſions than thoſe of any other kind. They are gathered in when ripe, and ſpread thin upon a floor 'till tolerably dried; they are then put up in parcels where their own weight and remaining humidity form them into cakes, that are hardly to be broken without ſome inſtrument. They are not produced now in the place where they originally were, but in the iſlands of Zant and Cephalonia, where the vines that produce them are cultivated in great abundance, and to conſiderable advantage. They are packed up in caſks and trod firmly down, and if the air be kept out, will remain good a long time in them.

All the kinds of raiſins have much the ſame virtues, they are nutritive and balſamic, but they are very ſubject to fermentation with juices of any kind; and hence, when eaten immoderately, they often bring on cholics. They are allowed to be attenuant, and are given in caſes where the humours are too thick and viſcid, and they are ſaid to be very good in nephritic complaints; they are, however, too familiar in our foods, to be much regarded at preſent as a medicine. They are an ingredient, indeed, in our pectoral decoctions, and in ſome other medicines of that intention; in which caſes, as alſo in all others where aſtringency is not required of them, they ſhould have the ſtones carefully taken out. They are uſed in ſome compoſitions, rather with an intent of taking off the nauſeous taſte of other ingredients, than of doing any extraordinary ſervice themſelves.

Of wine made with raiſins.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take a quarter of a hundred of whole or unbruiſed Malaga raiſins, and put to them ſeven gallons of cold ſpring-water, in a wooden veſſel or caſk, which ſet looſely covered in a warm place, that the contents may ferment for ſome weeks. The water you will find ſoaked through the ſkins of the raiſins, and their internal ſweet or ſaccharine ſubſtance diſſolved, and will become impregnated therewith as a menſtruum; the liquor will manifeſt an inward ſtruggle and commotion of its particles, throwing up numerous ſmall bubbles to the ſurface, with a conſiderable hiſſing noiſe: and after the fermentation is finiſhed, the liquor will become an actual new wine; as will appear by the taſte, ſmell, and effects, and depoſit a large quantity of groſs, earthy ſediment, called lees, at the bottom, different from the huſks, or ſkins, and ſtones of the raiſins.

The application of this experiment.

This experiment is univerſal, and ſhews the general manner of making wines, and indeed all other ſpirituous potable liquors, by fermentation. For, with a ſlight change of circumſtances, it is applicable to the brewing of beer from mead or metheglin, and hydromel from honey [ſee the article BEES]; cyder and perry, from apples and pears reſpectively; artificial or made wines, as they are vulgarly called, from cherries, gooſeberries, currants, elder-berries, black-berries, plums, oranges, or other fruit: alſo from the tappings of certain trees, as the birch, the maple, the ſycamore, &c. and more eminently from the juice of the ſugar-cane, treacle, or direct ſugar and water: [ſee the articles SUGAR and WINE.] For any of theſe vegetable juices, being duly fermented and judiciouſly prepared, afford as real and perfect wine, according to their ſeveral natures, as the richeſt grapes of the beſt wine countries.

OBSERVATION.

To bring any of theſe juices into a ſound wine, the rule is, to evaporate them, if they are naturally too thin, 'till they become of equal richneſs with the juice of the grape in wine countries, and good wine years. This may be commodiouſly done, by means of the common water-poiſe *, which ſhews the ſtrength or richneſs of ſolutions to the eye. And in general, any vegetable juice or ſolution, is accounted ſufficiently rich for making a ſtrong wine, when it will ſupport a new-laid egg on its ſurface.

* A water-poiſe is an inſtrument made of ivory, glaſs, &c. hollow-bellied, ſo as to float, higher or lower, in liquids, according as the ſpecific gravity thereof is more or leſs: which inſtrument being graduated or divided by lines on the ſtem, readily ſhews to the eye, the difference betwixt the ſpecific gravities of any liquids propoſed, though not with the utmoſt accuracy.

The wines made in England, lie under a diſrepute; the reaſon whereof ſeems chiefly owing, (1.) To the inartificial manner wherein they are uſually prepared; and (2.) To a certain rumour ſpread about them, as if they were unwholſome, crude, indigeſtible, too luſcious, too tart or griping, and apt to occaſion the head-ach, &c.

Thoſe who have never been in wine-countries, nor otherwiſe made themſelves acquainted with the nature and common preparation of wines, proceed in their judgment of them according to report and popular notion. Thus, for inſtance, red-port wines, to pleaſe the common palate, muſt be bright, deep coloured, rough, rich, and racy, two or three years old, &c. and when this, or any other notion comes once to be eſtabliſhed as the criterion of wine, the cooper is thence directed how to hit the general taſte, and make a ſaleable commodity.

Upon the ſame foundation philoſophical chemiſtry [ſee the article PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY], inſtructs us to imitate the wine-cooper, and from almoſt any ſweet and tart vegetable juice, to make ſaleable wines; even canaries, mountains, ſherries, or ports: all which, by the way, are uſually mixed liquors, though the baſis of them all is the juice of the grape.

This juice of the grape being chemically examined, proves to be no more than a large proportion of real ſugar diſſolved in water, with an addition only of a certain flavour in the juice of the grape, according to the nature of the vine. Whence we may lay it down as an axiom, and the reſult of a careful enquiry, that a ſaccharine ſubſtance is the baſis of wines. For ſugar is not peculiar to the ſugar-cane, but obtainable, as we have obſerved, alſo from grapes; and accordingly, we often find large grains thereof in dried raiſins; particularly thoſe of Malaga, that have laid for ſome time, and ſweat together, whereby they run into candy, a ſaccharine efflorescence, and actual grains of ſugar. So again, it is cuſtomary in France to evaporate the juice of the grape, 'till it becomes coagulable in the cold, and in this ſtate to uſe it as a moiſt ſugar, under the name of reſiné. The ſame thing is to be underſtood as practicable in malt or wort, and the ſweet juices of all vegetables that afford a wine by fermentation. See the articles BREWING, DISTILLATION, ELÆOSACCHARUM, SUGAR, WINE.

Hence we may derive a ſet of rules, for boiling down, or otherwiſe procuring the eſſential matter of wines in a ſmall bulk, and preſerving it ſound and ſerviceable for many years, in order to the making of all kinds of wines, vinegars, and brandies, even in countries where no vines grow. This diſcovery likewiſe affords great light into the true nature and uſes of vinous and acetous fermentation.

And ſo much for the uſe of the preceding experiment, with regard to trade and œconomy; its philoſophical uſes are no leſs conſiderable [ſee our article PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL]. And firſt, it ſhews that the proper fermenting matter of every fermentable ſubject is but ſmall, compared with the quantity of wine it affords. Thus, for example, four pounds of raiſins may be diluted and fermented with eight pounds of water, into what is accounted a tolerably ſtrong wine. Yet even raiſins themſelves contain a large proportion of water, beſides their direct ſaccharine ſubſtance, which is reducible to a dry form, as we find in ſugar.

And whoever would thoroughly enquire into the nature, the uſes, and means of improving vinous and acetous fermentation, cannot, perhaps, do better, than to chuſe ſugar for his ſubject; a chemical analyſis whereof, will ſhew the principles neceſſarily required in this operation; which appear to be an acid ſalt, an oil, and earth ſo united together, as to be capable of diſſolving perfectly in water.

This experiment alſo ſhews the cauſe of vegetable matters running into a fermenting ſtate, as raiſins do by the addition of water. Nor do all fermentible bodies require ferments, to begin their motion of fermentation. Raiſins we ſee require none, much leſs does the freſh expreſſed juice of the grape, or other vegetable juices, in the ſummer-ſeaſon, or in a warm air. But all ſweet vegetable juices, that have felt much of the fire, as treacle or wort high boiled, rob of malt, rob of alder, or the like, uſually require a conſiderable proportion of a vinous ferment, to make them work. And, in general, ferments are no more than matters already in the act of fermentation, or that ſoon run into this ſtate: of the firſt kind are the flowers of wine, yeaſt, fermenting beer, or fermenting wine, &c.—Of the ſecond kind are the new expreſſed vegetable juices of ſummer-fruits, &c.

Water, we find, is abſolutely neceſſary to begin and procure a fermentative motion in vegetable ſubſtances: for raiſins or ſugar being kept dry, will never ferment. And this holds univerſally, of all the ſubjects of vinous and acetous fermentation. Whence water is an inſtrument that muſt be neceſſarily employed in theſe kinds of fermentation, whether natural or artificial.

As the water, which naturally and in large quantities perſpires from the ſurface of vegetables, eſpecially in hot climates, does not go off pure, but carries along with it a conſiderable proportion of fermentable matter into the atmoſphere; there may be an actually vinous fermentation, begun and carried on in certain parts of that region, eſpecially where the winds are ſtill, or the air ſtagnant. At Schiedam in Holland, a larger quantity of inflammable ſpirit is ſaid to be obtained from malt, than in any other place where there are fewer malt-diſtillers. This is probably owing to the air of that place being impregnated with the fermenting vapours, that continually exhale from their numerous fermenting bakes and ſtills. The ſame is found to hold proportionably of wines fermented in large vaults or cellars, where many caſks of wine are at once, or ſomewhat ſucceſſively ſet to work. Wherefore it ſhould ſeem, that artificial wines ſet to work in large quantities, is the beſt way to produce them of a good quality, and with greater expedition.

Warmth, with the free admiſſion of the external air, is neceſſary to expedite the action of fermentation; for if our raiſins and water were to ſtand either in a very cold place, or be kept entirely from the acceſs of the common atmoſpherical air, either no fermentation, or a very ſmall and ſlow one would enſue, as has been experienced.

The lees remaining at the bottom of the caſk in our preſent experiment, are, if uſed freſh, a true kind of ferment, and will ſet any leſs fermentable ſubject at work, and determine its fermentation for the vinous kind. They contain a large proportion of eſſential oil, and ſome tartar. Hence we ſee, that vinous fermentation conſiſts, (1.) In an inteſtine ſtruggle, or commotion of the fluid; and (2.) In a ſeparation of a groſſer part, which did not appear in that form before.

EXPERIMENT II.

Take the ſkins of the raiſins, and the ſediment left behind, after a wine is made in the manner of the preceding experiment, and pour three or four times their own quantity of boiling water upon them, ſo as to make a thin aqueous mixture. Then ſet the containing caſk, looſely covered, in a warmer place than was uſed for the wine, and you will, in few weeks time, find the liquor become a clear and ſound vinegar; which being drawn from off its ſediments, and preſerved in another caſk, well ſtopped down, will long continue perfect, and fit for uſe.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment ſhews us a cheap and ready way of making vinegar from refuſe materials; ſuch as the huſks of grapes, decayed raiſins, the lees of wine, grounds of ale, beer, &c. which are frequently thrown away as uſeleſs. Thus in many wine countries, the marc, rape, or dry preſſings of the grapes are thrown in heaps, and ſuffered to putrefy unregarded, though capable of affording as good vinegar as the wine itſelf. In ſome places, they bury copper-plates in theſe huſks, in order to make verdigreaſe, but this practice ſeems chiefly confined to the ſouthern parts of France. Our preſent experiment ſhews us how to convert them to another uſe, and the direction extends to all the matters that have once undergone, or are fit to undergo, a vinous fermentation, for that all ſuch matters will afford vinegar. From the ſame principle, all our ſummer fruits in England, even blackberries, all the refuſe waſhings of a ſugar-houſe, cyder-preſſings, or the like, will make vinegar by means of water, the open air, and warmth. See the article VINEGAR.

(2.) The whole proceſs, whereby this change is effected, deſerves to be attentively conſidered. And firſt, the liquor to be thus changed, being kept warmer than in vinous fermentation, it in a few days begins to grow turbid, and without throwing up bubbles, or making any conſiderable tumult, as happens in vinous fermentation, depoſits a copious ſediment. The effect of this ſeparation begins to appear firſt on the ſurface of the liquor, which gathers a white ſkin, that daily increaſes in thickneſs, 'till at length it becomes like leather; and now, if continued longer in this ſtate, the ſkin turns blue or green, and would at laſt grow ſolid and putrefy: therefore, in keeping down this ſkin as it grows, and thruſting it gently down to the bottom of the veſſel, conſiſts much of the art of vinegar-making, eſpecially from malt.

(3.) It

(3.) It is to be particularly obſerved, that if the wine of our firſt experiment were not bunged down when arrived at its vinous ſtate, but ſuffered ſtill to remain open and expoſed to a warm air, it would ſpontaneouſly become vinegar; and the ſooner, if a ſomewhat greater degree of heat than ſerved for the making of wine, were employed. Whence we might have uſed the wine of our firſt experiment for this purpoſe, as well as have added water to the huſks and ſediment, or lees; but we choſe the latter way, to ſhew that even ſuch refuſe matters will afford vinegar; and again, to intimate how far the art of vinegar-making may be ſtill improved, both in England, where they brew a wort from malt for it, and in ſome wine countries, where they frequently make their beſt wines into vinegars.

(4.) What we would chiefly remark for the preſent is, that acetous fermentation requires a ſtronger heat than the vinous; and that wines having once finiſhed their fermentation, as wines, do not naturally ſtop there, but unleſs prevented by the care of the operator, proceed directly to vinegars; where again they make no ſtop, but unleſs prevented here alſo, ſpontaneouſly go on to vapidity, ropineſs, mouldineſs, and putrefaction. From which larger obſervation we would deduce this axiom, that, to ſpeak philoſophically, The intention or tendency of nature, is to proceed from the very beginning of vinous fermentation, directly, in one continued ſeries, to putrefaction, and thence again to a new generation: which appears to be the GRAND CIRCLE, WHEREIN ALL NATURAL THINGS ARE MOVED, AND ALL THE PHYSICAL, OR RATHER CHEMICAL, PHÆNOMENA OF THE GLOBE PRODUCED.

(5.) Hence we ſee, by the interpoſition of the ſagacity of man, how this general proceſs of the uniform law of nature may be ſtopped at different times, with different views, ſo as to procure to ourſelves wines, vinegars, and, as will appear hereafter in the Experiments VI. and VII. particularly ſalts and oils.

(6.) Another corollary, deducible from the larger obſervation above laid down, is, that the word Fermentation has been uſually applied to ſignify only a ſmall part of this grand operation of nature: thus one limits the word to the production of wines; another, to the production of wines and vinegars; and ſome would diſtinguiſh it from putrefaction: whereas either the term FERMENTATION, or ſome other, ſhould be made general, and denote the GENUS, or UNIVERSAL FERMENTATION, whereof vinification, acetification, and putrefaction, are only SPECIES. At leaſt, we ſhould thus attempt to follow and expreſs nature in the FACTS that are obſerved, and not proceed, in an arbitrary, narrow, or inadequate manner, to impoſe words, and dreſs out nature according to particular hypotheſes and conceits. But the obſervation itſelf, whereon this doctrine is founded, being of moment to the right underſtanding of the whole affair of fermentation and putrefaction, upon which the advancement of many parts of PRACTICAL COMMERCIAL PHILOSOPHY doth depend; we ſhall proceed to illuſtrate and confirm the laſt part of it by an experiment, as the two former parts have been already by Experiments I. and II.

EXPERIMENT III.

That wines and vinegars, or all fermented vegetable juices, have a natural tendency to putrefaction.

(1.) Take a gallon of thick muddy vinegar, produced after the manner of the ſecond experiment; letting it ſtand open, in a hotter place than was required to make it vinegar, it will become, in a few days, a vapid, nauſeous, and putrefied liquor, throwing up a large quantity of a dry powdery ſubſtance to the top, and depoſiting a leſs quantity of a groſſer matter at the bottom; ſoon after which, the body of the liquor will become clear again.

(2.) We might ſhorten the preſent experiment, or ſave the trouble of making either a wine or a vinegar to ſhew it: for, if a quantity of MUST * were ſet in an open veſſel, in a hot ſervice-room, where the air had free acceſs, the work would ſoon be performed, and the putrefied liquor be produced almoſt at once, without ſtopping at the ſtate either of wine or vinegar, according to the larger obſervation delivered above.

* MUST is the unfermented juice of the grape, or any other liquid fermentable ſubſtance, before it enters the act of fermentation; and STUM is MUST clarified by ſtanding and racking, and then put up into matched caſks, that is, caſks impregnated with the fume of burning brimſtone, ſo as to be preſerved ſound in an intermediate ſtate.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This latter experiment has a conſiderable philoſophical uſe; and, (1.) It gives us the phyſical reaſon why wines and vinegars, unleſs made exceeding ſtrong, will not keep, but corrupt and putrefy in hot countries: for the heat being there ſo great, as to keep the lighter feculent parts of thoſe liquors ſuſpended for ſome time in the body of the liquor, corruption (which proceeds from a tumultuary motion of all the different parts of a compound body together) neceſſarily enſues *.

* See §. (1.) of the laſt experiment, and hereafter Experiments VI. and VII.

(2.) Hence we learn alſo the phyſical reaſon why wines and vinegars require to be racked from their lees, in order to preſerve them ſound, or keep them from running into putrefaction, to which we find they are ſtrongly inclined, the tendency of nature being ever conſtant in urging them to that ſtate; and the caſe appears to be much the ſame in animal, and even in mineral ſubſtances, as we ſhall ſee hereafter.

(3.) This experiment, therefore, furniſhes us with a rule for preſerving vegetable liquors from the laſt ſtage of fermentation, that is, putrefaction, or corruption; viz. by firſt clarifying, and afterwards ſecuring and defending them from the open air, and too much heat. Thus, for example, we can preſerve the natural juices of quinces, oranges, lemons, plants, &c. ſound and uncorrupt, by firſt clearing them of their groſſer parts by the filter, or, in ſome caſes, by boiling and common ſtraining, then putting them up in common glaſſes, pouring oil on the top, and ſetting them in a cool place. In the ſame manner we find ſome of the more delicate and curious wines are long preſerved ſound and ſprightly: for, the groſſer feculencies being firſt removed, the oil poured on the top prevents the external air from entering, and, by keeping the glaſſes from the ſun, or day, too much heat does not come at them.

(4.) It is alſo remarkable, what a large quantity of ſolid earthy matter is naturally contained in all fermentable liquors. Thus, though a pellucid ſolution of the fineſt ſugar in water were expoſed to vinous fermentation, it ſoon grows turbid, throws an earthy ſkin to the top, and depoſits much terreſtrial matter at the bottom, in the form of lees. If the wine be now drawn off clear, and expoſed to acetous fermentation, here again it throws off much terreſtrial matter, both in the form of a ſkin at top, and lees at the bottom. Thirdly, If tranſparent vinegar be expoſed to putrefactive fermentation, here again it ſeparates a conſiderable quantity of earth, both at the bottom and top; which ſhews that the ſeparation of a groſs matter is eſſential to theſe ſeveral kinds of fermentation, and that a copious earth may lie concealed in fermentable juices and tranſparent fluids, 'till it finds an occaſion of manifeſting itſelf to the ſenſes.

(5.) The change wrought upon vegetable ſubjects by vinous and acetous fermentation, will appear by comparing MUST, or a bare ſolution of raiſins in water, with the wine and vinegar which the ſame MUST, or raiſins in water, afford, in vinification and acetification; and in this light they may be compared by the direct uſe of the ſenſes: but the internal and eſſential differences will better appear by a chemical analyſis, or diſtillation.

(6.) MUST, or a ſolution of raiſins and water only, which makes a kind of muſt, correſponding to the natural juice of the grape, is a ſweet, clammy, and ſomewhat odorous fluid, which, when committed to diſtillation, affords not the leaſt inflammable ſpirit; but, after having paſſed through the ſtate of vinous fermentation, it acquires ſeveral properties it had not before. For example: it is more tranſparent and thin, loſes of its ſweetneſs, has ſome degree of acidity and roughneſs, proves more odorous, and affords a large proportion of INFLAMMABLE SPIRIT; as appears by the following

EXPERIMENT IV.

That vinous fermentation produces an inflammable ſpirit.

Take three gallons of new wine, procured from raiſins and water, in the manner of the firſt experiment, and commit it to the alembic or ſtill; which being made to work gently, 'till the liquor that comes over being thrown upon the hot ſtill-head will no longer take fire, by applying the flame of a candle to the riſing vapour; you will thus obtain a conſiderable proportion of brandy, and a weaker ſpirit. See the article BRANDY.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment ſhews the common method of making brandies in wine countries, or a ſpirit, from malt, melaſſes, cyder, &c. in others; for the fineſt French and Rheniſh brandies, the rums and the arracs of the Indies, are obtained in the manner of this plain experiment, all of them being uſually diſtilled a ſecond time over, and made up, as they call it, with water, or the weak aqueous liquor of the ſecond running, as in the preſent experiment, to a certain ſtrength, or ſuppoſed ſtandard, termed ſaleable-proof.

(2.) The philoſophical uſe of the experiment is to ſhew, that an inflammable ſpirit is produced, by the action of vinous fermentation, from a vegetable ſubject and water, wherein no ſigns of any ſuch ſpirit before appeared: inſomuch, that this may be juſtly eſteemed the criterion, or inſeparable effect of vinous fermentation.

(3.) This ſpirit being rediſtilled, to deprive it totally of its aqueous parts, is the ſpirit of wine, or alcohol; and this method is the only one that is known of procuring it: for no ſubjects but thoſe of the vegetable kingdom are found to afford it, and that only by means of a previous vinous fermentation.

(4.) It ſhould likewiſe be obſerved, that this alcohol is one of the moſt eſſential parts of wine, ſo that, when abſent, the wine loſes its nature, as we ſee by the remains of the preſent experiment;

experiment: and, when properly uſed, it is a certain remedy for moſt diſeaſes incident to wines, as keeping them ſound, and free from corruption: whence we have another rule for preſerving vegetable and animal ſubſtances from putrefaction; for this liquor proves a kind of balſam to them all, and is accordingly uſed, with ſucceſs, for preſerving even animal ſubſtances, as we ſee in anatomical preparations, &c.

EXPERIMENT V.

That acetous fermentation aboliſhes the inflammable ſpirit produced by vinous fermentation.

Put a quart of ſharp vinegar into a glaſs retort; diſtil in a ſand-heat, with degrees of fire [ſee DISTILLATION] into a glaſs receiver, and you will not find the leaſt inflammable ſpirit come over; there will ariſe only an acid aqueous liquor, commonly called diſtilled vinegar, which, inſtead of burning, quenches fire.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) Hence it appears, that acetous fermentation has a very different effect from the vinous, and that the inflammable ſpirit produced in the former is either concealed, altered, exhaled, deſtroyed, or ſome way aboliſhed, in the latter. A part of this ſpirit is unqueſtionably exhaled by the heat employed in acetification, yet part alſo remains behind, under a different modification, ſo as to be recovered by art, in an inflammable form, as we find by diſtilling the ſugar of lead, which is only lead diſſolved in ſpirit of vinegar. See the article LEAD, Vol. II. page 23.

(2.) This experiment affords a criterion of acetous fermentation, as before we had of the vinous: for if an acid uninflammable liquor comes firſt by diſtillation over from a vegetable ſubject, after fermentation, this will determine that fermentation to have been of the acetous kind.

(3.) Thus, therefore, we are plainly led to allow of two very different kinds of fermentation, in the ſame vegetable ſubject; and we conceive that ſome other ſpecies may be found, upon due enquiry.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Take a large quantity of freſh and green cabbage leaves, preſs them hard down with weights in an open tub, bored full of holes on the ſides, and ſet in a warm place. By ſtanding in this ſtate for ſome days, the leaves will conceive a heat in the middle, which will ſpread to the more external parts, 'till, at length, nearly the whole will be converted into a pappy putrefied ſubſtance, whoſe conſiſtence will not well ſuffer it to ſeparate into a thicker and a thinner part.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment is general, and ſucceeds alike in all tender, juicy, vegetable ſubſtances, ſo that both the acid and alkaline tribe of plants, the ſweet and the bitter, the aſtringent and emollient, &c. reſolve into this ſame pappy putrefied ſubſtance: we obſerve it alſo in hay that is ſtacked wet, in horſe-litter thrown in heaps, in the grape-huſks, or apple-pumice, after preſſing for wine or cyder; and the larger the heap, and the greater the weight the matter it ſuſtains, the greater the heat, provided the acceſs of the air be not prevented.

(2.) Hence we ſee the way employed by nature for changing all vegetable into animal ſubſtances, or of reducing the matters of both kingdoms to a ſimilarity, ſo that the one may be uſed for ſeveral purpoſes, inſtead of the other. Thus nature annually makes large quantities of compoſt from the refuſe weeds, leaves, traſh of fields, woods, and gardens; [ſee the article MANURE] for this vegetable matter thus putrefying, and becoming ſoft and pulpy, is eaſily diluted by the falling rains, and thence diſperſed over the face of a field, and carried into the pores of the earth. Thus the chemiſt, from ſuch putrefied vegetable ſubjects, may, by diſtillation, procure volatile ſalts and volatile ſpirits, hardly to be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of hart's-horn, &c. at leaſt, the volatile ſalt and ſpirit ſo obtained, might ſerve for the making of ſal-armoniac, along with ſea-ſalt: for it appears, that the matter of the fixed ſalt in vegetables is by this operation truly volatilized [ſee the article VEGETABLES]; whence not a grain of fixed ſalt can be procured from the largeſt quantity of this putrefied matter, provided the operation were compleatly performed.

(3.) This experiment has various uſes, not only in trades, but in Natural Philoſophy and Medicine. And firſt, it ſhews an artificial, as well as natural method of converting any, or all of the different ſubjects of the vegetable tribe into the ſame undiſtinguiſhable ſubſtance, thus totally deſtroying all the ſpecific differences which before diſcriminated that great variety. The ſame obſervation reaches alſo to animal bodies, as we ſhall ſee preſently.

(4.) The principle of fermentation leads to an extenſive enquiry into many things of nature, from whence important hints may be derived, for the advancement of uſeful philoſophy; wherefore ſince we are upon that ſubject, we ſhall here juſt take notice only of another experiment, as having an affinity with ſome things that we ſhall have occaſion to refer to, as being no way repugnant to the ſpirit of our ſubject, which is far more extenſive than many have been wont to imagine.

EXPERIMENT VII.

If any large animal body, as that of a horſe or a dog, for example, be expoſed, in a dead ſtate, to the open air and the ſummer's ſun, it, in a few days, begins to ſwell, purge, and emit a nauſeous ſtench: at length the form of the carcaſs is deſtroyed by the commotion, and reſolved into a putrid, fetid, ſtercoraceous matter, a large part, in the mean time, flying off into the air, ſo as to leave but a ſmall proportion of a mucilaginous pappy ſubſtance, which ſoon grows dry, or turns to a kind of earth. But if a quantity of this matter were to be collected before it grows dry, and diſtilled, it is ſaid to afford the burning phoſphorus, as putrefied urine, and many other things, are known to do.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment will be found univerſal, and holds equally in relation to all animal natures. And this putrefied animal matter appears to be in itſelf a kind of poiſon, infecting the air wherein it ſpreads, ſo as to occaſion peſtilential diſeaſes near the places where great battles have been fought: whence this ſeems to be another particular SPECIES of fermentation, and from whence, perhaps, may be derived many more uſeful diſcoveries into the works of nature, than ſeem yet ever to have been duly attended to.

(2.) Whence it ſhould ſeem that there is a proper ſpecies of fermentation peculiar to the animal ſubjects, as there is one peculiar to the vegetables; and if ſo, we ſhould not lay down vegetable fermentation as the teſt and ſtandard of fermentation in general, and judge of all other kinds according as they approach to, or recede from, this ſtandard. But, perhaps, were the enquiry into fermentation proſecuted in its full latitude, and not arbitrarily confined to any ſingle ſpecies, many natural and artificial operations would prove to be actual fermentations, and exhibit ſuch phænomena as few imagine.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

That there may be a kind of fermentation in mineral and metallic bodies.

Take an ounce of lead, and as much biſmuth, and melt them together in an iron ladle; then heating two ounces of quick-ſilver in another ladle, mix the three metallic matters together, as an amalgama; which, when cold, will appear perfectly uniform, or homogeneous, and totally paſs through the pores of leather, in a running form. This mixture being ſuffered to cool, and ſtand quiet for ſome hours, a groſs matter will ſeparate from it by degrees, and float upon the reſt, which will be left ſo thin and fluid, as to paſs through leather, and leave the groſs metallic matter behind.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) Hence it ſhould ſeem, that even metallic matters may have their peculiar fermentation, as well as vegetable and animal ſubjects: for, when this experiment comes to be carefully conſidered, it appears to have all the requiſites of fermentation. For here is, (1.) A fluid form. (2.) An uniform matter. (3.) An inteſtine motion; and, (4.) An actual ſeparation of a groſſer matter, leaving a thinner behind. All which particulars we have found to hold in the ſeveral ſpecies of fermentation above conſidered.

(3.) There are many more inſtances of an apparent fermentation in mineral bodies, one or two whereof it may be proper to mention. Thus, if an aqueous ſolution of the common green vitriol be, in ſummer-time, expoſed to the air, and kept ſupplied with freſh water, as the former exhales, the groſſer metallic part of the vitriol will ſubſide, and the reſt gradually ſhoot upwards all round the veſſel, in form of an unctuous cruſty matter, 'till the whole body of the vitriol is thus ſucceſſively altered; ſo as that the part ſhot into the cruſty unctuous form will never become vitriol again, nor corrode any freſh metal; and, in all other reſpects, it appears a different thing from vitriol. Hence ſeem to proceed the complaints of the makers of vitriol, that in rainy, windy, and cloudy weather, their vitriol ſtones, which lie open to the air, will not ſometimes yield a ſolid cryſtalline vitriol, but only an unctuous matter. This may, therefore, appear to be a fermentation in all its forms, as being attended with a ſpontaneous inteſtine motion, a ſpontaneous ſeparation of conſtituent parts, and a remarkable alteration of the ſubject.

It alſo makes to the preſent purpoſe, that ſolid and hard pyrites, [ſee PYRITES] or vitriol-ſtones, being expoſed to the air, and moiſtened with water, will, like a vegetable ſubject *, grow hot, fume, and even take fire, and afterwards afford vitriol, a thing very different from the ſtones themſelves [ſee VITRIOL]: ſo that, upon the whole, we may conclude, that, in a proper ſenſe, there is an actual fermentation exerciſed, not only in the vegetable and animal, but alſo in the mineral kingdom. From what has been obſerved, may be deduced the following principles:

* See above, Experiment VI.

1. All the inſtances being duly conſidered, and a large view of things taken in, we may define fermentation, in general, a ſenſible internal motion of the conſtituent particles of a moiſt, fluid, mixed, or compound body; by the continuance of which motion, theſe particles are gradually removed from their former ſituation, or combination, and, again, after ſome viſible ſeparation is made, joined together, in a different arrangement. And thus the whole proceſs of fermentation conſiſts of two different operations, viz. an analytical one, whereby the particles are reſolved, and a ſynthetical one, whereby they are new ranged and conjoined; and that, whenever theſe two different effects are found to be produced, in direct ſequence, with the circumſtances above deſcribed, we need not ſcruple to call the operation by the name of fermentation *.

* See Experiments I, and VI.

2. That all ſeparable, mixed, or compound bodies, may be the ſubjects of this general operation; but that the eaſier they are ſeparable by means of water, air, and heat, the more readily they ferment. Thus the ſweet or ſaccharine part of malt, more readily diſſolving in warm water, ferments eaſier than unmalted corn, which is more clammy, and will not diſſolve ſo ſoon. And hence the fleſh of animal bodies putrefies ſooner than the bones; and this appears to hold in all inſtances *.

* See Experiments I, VI, and VII.

3. That this general fermentation is diviſible into many diſtinct ſpecies, particularly into vegetable, animal, and mineral: the vegetable kind again into vinous, acetous, and putrefactive; the vinous again into mucilaginous, mouldy, and putrefactive; and ſo of the acetous, &c. Whence we may deduce a rule for adjuſting all the different ſpecies of fermentation; which being once done, might put an end to infinite hypothetical diſputes upon this ſubject, and lead to farther diſcoveries, both in nature and art.

4. That it is in the power of man to prevent, ſtop, and regulate theſe natural operations, at any point of time aſſigned. For it is thus we come by our wines and vinegars; it is thus that men have diſcovered the art of embalming; it is thus we preſerve many vegetable and animal juices in their natural or unfermented ſtate; it is thus we preſerve yeaſt and winelees, ſubjects extremely apt to putrefy; it is thus we can at any time ſtop the courſe of vinous fermentation, and produce a ſweet or half-fermented wine; [ſee the articles WINE and YEAST]; it is thus we cure the frettings or other diſeaſes of wines; and thus that we ſtop mortifications in the body, and caries in the bones: and moſt of the artifices employed for theſe purpoſes depend upon a knowledge and regulation of the phyſical cauſes and inſtruments that produce that change; which cauſes and inſtruments, as we have above diſcovered, are chiefly heat, moiſture, and the external air.

5. That a ſaccharine matter is the baſis of wines, vinegars, and inflammable ſpirits.

6. That a great variety of ſound, perfect, and wholeſome wines may be made, in countries that do not naturally afford grapes, by a prudent uſe of ſugar, or raiſins and water *.

* See Experiment I.

7. That the matters called ferments are of uſe in beginning, regulating, and determining the ſpecies of fermentation *. Thus freſh yeaſt determines the fermentation of wheat-flour, to make our common bread, which would prove of another kind, with the flowers or lees of vinegar: and thus ſpecific or determinate ferments have their correſpondent effects. If ſugar, honey, manna, treacle, or new wine, be added to vinegar, themſelves are ſoon changed into vinegar, without ſtopping to make wine, becauſe the acetous ferment, or vinegar, over-rules them. And ſo vinegar is ſooneſt made in a caſk that has before contained the ſame liquor. And if the beſt wine were put into a caſk that had held putrefied vinegar, the wine would not now make vinegar, but immediately run into corruption: ſo great over-ruling a power have ſpecific ferments; the uſe whereof is therefore evident, and may afford conſiderable rules in chemiſtry, practical philoſophy, and commercial arts.

* See Experiment I.

8. That the degrees of fermentation differ with the degrees of heat employed *. Thus we have ſeen that vinous fermentation requires a leſs degree of heat than the acetous, the acetous a leſs than the putrefactive, which latter may even conſiſt with a degree of ignition †.

* See Experiments I, II, III, IV, and VI.
† See Experiment VI.

9. That a particular kind of fermentation may be carried on in the living bodies of animals and vegetables, which are largely ſupplied with the requiſite inſtruments of fermentation, viz. water, air, and heat; and, in fact, both vegetables and animals appear to have an inteſtine motion in all their circulating fluids, which continually depoſit a groſſer matter in the canals and parts they move through. Whence, by our definition of fermentation, this natural act may be accounted a ſpecies of fermentation, producing a change in the nutrimental matter of vegetables and animals, and converting it into their own ſubſtance.

10. That when vegetables or animals die, there ſoon begins a different kind of fermentation in all their parts, tending not now to the repair, but to the intire deſtruction, of their organical veſſels, the confuſed mixture of their ſolid parts and juices, and a volatilization of their whole ſubſtance *.

* See Experiments V and VI.

11. That dry or ſolid bodies cannot, in that ſtate, undergo a proper fermentation: for though they may, in that ſtate, be ſeparated into minute particles, yet they cannot range themſelves together in any new order, nor depoſit a groſſer part, without being agitated by ſome fluid, or for ſome time ſuſpended therein. And hence, in over-heated mines, the ore is thus analytically deſtroyed, and cannot range itſelf into a metalline, or any other regular order again, for want of the requiſite moiſture or fluidity; whence the matter appears like a heap of rotten earth, or what the miners call dead metal *, of which we have a remarkable inſtance in the over-heated or fired mixture of ſulphur and iron filings.

* See Experiment VIII.

12. And that, in imitation of nature, by a thorough knowledge of the natural agents that produce theſe grand effects, art likewiſe may produce extraordinary changes in bodies.

RASBERRY, a well-known fruit, of a delicate flavour.

Of RASBERRY WINE.

For the method of making, ſee the article RAISINS.

Of the uſefulneſs of this wine.

Of all our made wines, thoſe of ſtrawberries and raſberries are moſt delicious to the taſte; they lightly and pleaſantly ſtimulate the nerves of the mouth and noſe with a moſt agreeable ſmell and taſte, which proceeds from a mixture of their eſſential ſalt and fine oil, for the principles of both thoſe berries are very near the ſame, only raſberries contain more fine oil, and the other more phlegm; therefore we ſhall briefly conſider their qualities promiſcuouſly.

Theſe wines are very proper and reviving in ſyncopes, faintings, or ſwoonings, becauſe they gently and pleaſantly tickle the nerves; their mature and attenuated oil, and eſſential ſalt, being by fermentation reduced to a ſubtile ſpirit, pierce the interſtices of the veſſels, raiſe the ſpirits, afford ſpeedy ſupply of ſome nervous juice, which invigorates their ſprings. In ſcorbutic diſorders, the uſe of theſe purify and ſweeten the blood, dilute or obtund its ſalts, give the fibres a better tenſion to promote a due mixture of the juices.

In nephritic pains, they ſweetly ſtimulate the ſecretory ducts of the renal glands, lightly prick the membranes of the ſmall renal baſons, whereby they being excited and invigorated, ſhake off their ſtagnating, attracting, and cohering load, and free the parts from pain; the phlegm of the wine, at the ſame time, has no ſmall ſhare in diluting and attenuating the ſlime or ſand in the kidneys.

In rawneſs, weakneſs, and indigeſtion of the ſtomach, the agreeable titillation of theſe wines gives its coats a better tenſion, elevates their ſpring, and fortifies it. Their ſlight aſtringency, together with their ſweetly warming ſpirit, make them proper in looſeneſſes, and too great diſcharge of the menſes. They are more cooling and moiſtening than other wine, therefore are they preferable in thirſt. As they are cordial and cooling, they and water mixed make a good reviving draught in ardent fevers; as they cool and moiſten, they are very proper for warm weather, young people, bilious conſtitutions, in too ſharp a ſtate of the blood, or where the animal juices are too much agitated. They have no bad effects, except they be drank to exceſs, which is rarely the caſe in drinking of made wines; but here we would be underſtood as ſpeaking only of ſmall wines of this ſort.

RATEEN, or RATTEN, in commerce, a thick woollen ſtuff, quilled, wove on a loom with four treddles like ſerges and other ſtuffs that have the whale or quilling.—There are ſome prepared like cloths, others left ſimply in the hair, and others where the hair or nap is friſed.

REFINING, the art of purifying a thing, or of rendering it finer and purer.

Refining is chiefly applied in ſpeaking to the art of rendering the more precious metals ſo pure, as to anſwer the purpoſes of traffic and gain made by the refiner. — In relation to the refining metals, we ſhall ſpeak firſt to that of gold. — See the articles GOLD and ASSAY, METALS and METALLURGY, MINERALOGY and ORES.

The refining of gold is chiefly performed three ways; either with antimony [ſee the article ANTIMONY, Vol. I.] with ſublimate [ſee the article MERCURY] or with aqua fortis [ſee the article AQUA FORTIS].

Refining of gold with antimony—To this intent they uſe a wind-furnace, and crucibles of ſizes ſuitable to the quantity

of gold to be refined, obſerving that the gold and antimony together do not above half fill it, when in fuſion.

The gold being melted, the antimony in powder is then gradually thrown in. The proportion of the antimony to gold, is about a pound to eight ounces, if the gold be between 22 and 16 carats fine: if it be under 16 carats fine [ſee CARAT], they uſe about a pound and a quarter to eight ounces of gold of ſuch a degree of fineneſs: the coarſer the gold, the greater the quantity of antimony is requiſite. See ANTIMONY.

So ſoon as the antimony and gold are in the crucible, the crucible is covered with an earthen cover that will ſtand the fire without cracking.—Then the furnace is properly charged with charcoal, and the matter continues in fuſion 'till the crucible is left quite bare: then the cover being taken off, and the crucible left to cool in the furnace, it is taken out and broke to get out the calot, which is a maſs of fine gold remaining at the bottom, with the fæces of the antimony, the ſilver and copper alloy, and ſometimes ſmall particles of gold over it.

Though the gold thus prepared, by a due degree and continuance of fuſion be very fine, yet it is brittle or eager, as workmen term it; and its perfect toughneſs and malleability muſt be reſtored by fuſion, with ſaltpetre and borax. See SALTPETRE and BORAX.

For this operation, the refiner prepares coppels or teſts, made of the earth of crucibles that have long ſuſtained the fire, ground to a powder, and made up for the purpoſe; for theſe will not imbibe ſo much as thoſe made of fern and bone-aſhes mixed, which are uſed by ſome.

Such teſts being ſufficiently nealed, as the workmen call it, in the refining-furnace, they put the brittle gold therein, and cover it with charcoal.—As ſoon as the gold is in fuſion, as it will ſoon be by means of the adheſive antimony, they blow it with bellows to evaporate the antimony, in the manner they do for the refinement of lead for its ſilver. [See the article LEAD.] After which they add a competent quantity of ſaltpetre and borax in powder, which imbibe the remaining impurities, and fix the gold on the teſt: and, to render it quite pure, it is melted afreſh in a crucible, with an addition of ſaltpetre and borax; and as ſoon as it ceaſes to fume, the maſs is caſt into ingots, which upon trial is found to be above 23 carats fine gold. See GOLD.

As to the particles of gold, which may have been left behind with the alloy in the fæces of the antimony, they diſentangle and purify them, with the ſame meltings and ingredients as have been uſed in the former operations.—And when they are aſſured by the aſſay [ſee ASSAY] of the ſhare of gold that matter contains, they refine it to ſeparate the copper, and afterwards make the depart.

With regard to the gold that may adhere to the coppels, teſts, or crucibles, wherein it has been melted, it is got out by pulverizing them and waſhing them in the manner as they manage their ſweeps, which is as follows.

To make one of theſe waſhes, the refiners not only pound at proper times their coppels, teſts, and pots, but alſo collect together the aſhes of their furnaces, the ſweepings of their workhouſes, and the very bricks whereof their furnaces are built, little particles of gold, &c. being found to ſtick to them, by the crackling natural to thoſe metals, when in their laſt degree of fuſion and purification.

Theſe matters being well ground and mixed together, are put in large wooden bowls, wherein they are ſeveral times waſhed, and in ſeveral waters, which run off by inclination into troughs underneath, carrying with them the earths, and the inſenſible particles of the metals, leaving only behind the larger and more conſiderable ones, which are viſible to the eye, and taken out with the hand without much trouble.

To get out the finer particles gone off with the earth, they uſe quickſilver and a waſhing-mill. The mill conſiſts of a large wooden trough, at bottom of which are two metalline parts, ſerving as grind-ſtones; the lower being convex, and the upper, which is in form of a croſs, concave.

At top is a winch, placed horizontally, which turns the upper piece round; and at bottom a bung, to let out the water and earth, when ſufficiently ground. To have a general waſh, the tub is filled with common water; into which they caſt 30 or 40 pounds of quickſilver, and two or three gallons of the matter remaining from the lotion.—Then turning the winch, they give motion to the upper grind-ſtone; which grinding the matter and the quickſilver violently together, the particles of gold and ſilver become the more eaſily amalgamated therewith: this work they continue ſome hours, when opening the bung, the water and earth run out, and a freſh quantity is put in. See the article AMALGAMATION.

The earths are uſually thus paſſed through the mill three times, and the ſame quantity of mercury uſually ſerves all the three times.—When there is nothing left in the mill but the mercury, united with the gold or ſilver which it has amalgamated, they take it out, and waſhing it in divers waters, they put it in a ticken-bag, and lay it in a preſs to ſqueeze out the water and the looſe quickſilver: the remaining quickſilver they evaporate by fire, in a retort or an alembic. The metal which remains is refined with lead, or parted with aqua fortis.

Of the REFINING of GOLD by aqua regia. [See the article AQUA REGIA.]

Ercher, from conſidering that aqua regia does not diſſolve ſilver, is of opinion that gold may be refined to the greateſt perfection, by being diſſolved in that menſtruum. What led him to be of this opinion, was doubtleſs the common perſuaſion, that all the kinds of aqua fortis, howſoever prepared, did ſtill leave ſome ſilver along with the gold; as antimony on the other hand, when uſed in the refining of gold, commonly ſteals away, as is ſuppoſed, a ſmall quantity thereof. And as ſomething of moment ſeems to be concealed in this affair, it deſerves to be carefully examined.

The leading or fundamental queſtions of the enquiry are theſe. (1.) Does the aqua fortis in reality leave any ſilver yet mixed with the gold? (2.) Would it not prove too expenſive, thus to refine gold with aqua regia? (3.) In what ſenſe can antimony be ſaid to ſteal away gold?

The firſt queſtion is reſolved in the affirmative, by Faſchius *, in treating of the ſediment of depart waters; where he ſays, that if gold by quartation be mixed with ſilver [ſee the article QUARTATION], and again ſeparated from it by aqua fortis, it will conſtantly be found to have increaſed its weight. Which increaſe he attributes to the ſilver adhering to the gold: but it ſtill remains for experiment to decide, whether this additional weight be truly owing to the ſilver, or whether it be an increaſe of real gold †.

* See Probier Buchlein, page 64. Ed. 1678.

† It is an old tradition, that the red colour which ſpirit of nitre manifeſts in its diſtillation, proceeds from the ſulphur of nitre; and Becher endeavours to exhibit this ſulphureous ſubſtance to the eye (a), where he treats of the ſoul of nitre. And this ſubſtance Becher ſtill further attempts to render profitable, and to demonſtrate its metallic increment; where he recommends the digeſtion of a ſolution of ſilver, made with ſpirit of nitre, from whence a ſmall portion of the contained ſilver will daily be depoſited, in form of a black calx, or almoſt golden ſubſtance (b). But as a particularly prepared ſpirit of nitre is required for this purpoſe, and alſo a particular purification thereof, it is proper to conſult the ſeveral places of the author, where theſe things are mentioned (c), and what Faſchius ſays in his Treatiſe of Aſſaying.

(a) Phyſic. Subterr. lib. V. cap. 2. §. 118, 119, &c.
(b) See Miner. Arenar. page 877.
(c) See Concord. Chem. page 418, 723, 726, 736, 737, 739, 741.

With regard to the ſecond queſtion, it is to be obſerved, that ſuch a method of refining gold by aqua regia, is ſcarce practicable in the larger work, on account of the great charge that would attend it. Nor is ſo rigorous a proof of gold at any time required, as not to admit of the leaſt particle of ſilver. But in the ſmall work, or the buſineſs of aſſaying, it cannot be admitted for two reaſons, viz. (1.) Becauſe ſo much of the gold is eaſily diſſipated by the aqua regia, or ſo much of the ſubſtance of this menſtruum remains fixed to the calx, even after ignition, as may cauſe errors in both caſes. (2.) Becauſe aqua regia, on account of the great ſharpneſs and violence wherewith it groſsly diſſolves the gold, at the ſame time tears away more particles of the ſilver, than the aqua fortis leaves among the gold. A proper experiment or proof, might, however, after this manner, be made with great care, in order to determine whether the above-mentioned increaſe of weight proceeds from the aqua fortis, or not.

The ſolution of the third queſtion is principally to be derived from an examination of the ſuſed antimony upon its cooling, becauſe it is eaſy for antimony, in its frothy ebullition, to tear away a few grains of the ſubſtance of the gold, whilſt detained in thin fuſion, and lodge them in the form of bubbles.

REFINING of GOLD by means of ſublimate.

The proceſs is begun like that with antimony, i. e. in the ſame furnace, with the ſame coal, the ſame fire, and the ſame crucibles.—The gold being melted, they caſt in the ſublimate unpulverized, and only broken in pieces.—To 8 ounces of gold to be refined, they put from an ounce to two ounces if the gold be 22 carats, 3 ounces if 20 carats, and 4 or 6 ounces if it be only 18 or 20 carats fine. In which latter caſe, they part the ſublimate into two, putting half at a time with the gold into a new crucible, which, when the operation is over, leaves the gold from 18 to 23 carats, according to its fineneſs before.—After this, they raiſe it farther by the fire, as follows:

The broken ſublimate being put into the crucible with the melted gold, the crucible is immediately covered up, to ſmother the mineral: which done, the furnace is filled with charcoal, and the head put on.—A quarter of an hour afterwards they take off the head, lay the crucible bare, and blow off all the aſhes, and other impurities that may be floating on the liquid gold, with a pair of bellows, whoſe nozzle is crooked.

This

This they repeat again and again, 'till all the impurities of the gold being carried off, by virtue of the ſublimate, it be found of a bright glittering colour: after which, the gold is caſt from the crucible into an ingot.

The method of refining by ſublimate, is both more complete, and indeed cheaper than that by antimony or aqua regia; but theyare all dangerous, by reaſon of their ſulphureous and arſenical exhalations.

Refining of Silver.

There are two ways of refining ſilver, the one with lead, the other with ſaltpetre. The beſt and cheapeſt is that with lead; but both the one and the other of theſe methods are tedious and troubleſome, when performed on large quantities. This occaſioned M. Homberg to endeavour to ſhorten the operation, which he effected with good ſucceſs.—His method is, to calcine the ſilver with half its weight of common ſulphur, and after melting the whole together, to caſt a quantity of ſteel filings upon it at ſeveral times: upon this the ſulphur quits the ſilver, and joins itſelf to the iron, and both are converted into ſcoria, which ſwim on the ſilver, and the metal itſelf is found pure at the bottom of the crucible.

The aſſay of ſilver is alſo made by the coppel or ſmall teſt, in the ſame manner as in the refining by lead. See Lead.

When gold and ſilver are mixed together, ſee the article Quartation for their ſeparation and refining.

Aqua fortis, or the ſpirit of nitre, is the menſtruum for ſilver. See Aqua Fortis and Silver.

EXAMPLE.

Take two drachms, we'll ſuppoſe of the fineſt ſilver reduced into filings, and pour upon it twice its weight of proof aqua fortis, then ſet the containing glaſs in a ſoft heat under a chimney, 'till the ſolution is perfectly made.

Note, the aqua fortis for the ſolution of ſilver ſhould be made proof, that is, it ſhould be capable of diſſolving half a grain, or a grain of ſilver immediately, without growing in the leaſt turbid; as it would do, if it contained any ſea-ſalt, in which caſe it is a kind of aqua regia. See thoſe articles.

Refining with ſaltpetre is performed in a wind furnace.—The ſilver to be refined being granulated into the ſize of peaſe, by pouring it, when melted, in a circular motion, pretty briſkly, into a tub of common water, and it is heated over again in a boiler.—After this they put it in a crucible, and along with it, to every eight ounces of metal, two of ſaltpetre.—The crucible being now covered with a lid of earth that will ſtand the fire, in the form of a dome, well luted, which lid muſt have an aperture in the middle.—The crucible being ſecurely placed in the furnace, and covered with charcoal, the operator gradually gives the matter the full force of fire, in order to put the metal into a ſtate of fuſion. This is ſucceſſively repeated, at the interval of about a quarter of an hour.—After the third fire, the furnace is uncovered, and the crucible cools; at length it is broke to get out the ſilver, which is found collected to the bottom, and proves with ſkilful management to be fine ſilver; and the top is mixed with the fæces of the ſaltpetre and the alloy of the ſilver, and generally with particles of fine ſilver.

The bottom being ſeparated from the impurities, is melted in a crucible, and into the diſſolution is thrown charcoal-duſt, and the whole briſkly worked together. Then the crucible being covered again, and the furnace charged with coal, a ſecond fire is given it.—This done, the impurities are blown from the top of the metal, 'till it appear as clear as a looking-glaſs, and then about an ounce of borax in pieces is gradually thrown upon it.—Laſtly, the crucible being covered up again, they give it the laſt fire; after which it is caſt into ingots, which are found with dexterous management, 11 penny-weights and about 16 grains fine.—To recover the ſilver that may be left in the ſcoria, they give the ſame repeated lotion in freſh water, as we have deſcribed before, in relation to the refining of gold.

OBSERVATION.

If the ſilver, employed in the ſolution with aqua fortis, as before deſcribed, were abſolutely pure, the liquor will be pellucid: but if any alloy or copper remain mixed therewith, the ſolution will have a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt. If a ſolution of perfectly pure ſilver be diluted with fair water, it will ſtill remain pellucid, without letting any thing precipitate. But if any ſaline matter be contained in the water, the whole will now turn thick or milky.

The ſolution of fine ſilver has an intolerable bitter taſte, though by the eye it be not diſtinguiſhable from fair water. Whence we have an eminent inſtance how metals may lie concealed from the ſight, or remain lodged in unſuſpected liquors, and thence be introduced inviſibly into other ſubſtances. Whence the greater caution is to be uſed, with all pretenders to the melioration and tranſmutation of metals.

This ſolution of ſilver is the foundation of ſeveral medicinal and chemical preparations, as the vitriol of ſilver, the lunar cauſtic, the ſilver pill, &c.

The ſilver is recoverable from this ſolution, barely by ſuſpending copper-plates therein: for copper being more eaſily diſſolved by aqua fortis than ſilver, the ſilver is therefore precipitated to the bottom, in the form of a powder; and being waſhed and melted, comes into a metalline lump again. And this alſo is to be underſtood of the ſolution of gold.

The methods of obtaining ſilver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the ſilver is mixed or allayed. If copper be the allay, the beſt and cheapeſt way to purify the ſilver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common ſulphur, according to the method before preſcribed by M. Homberg.

Thus much for the refining of the ſuperior metals, which is the buſineſs of him who is called the Refiner.

Refining of copper is performed by repeated fuſions, with well-adapted fluxes. See the articles Copper and Flux.

Refining of tin is managed much after the ſame manner as that of copper. See Tin.

Refining of iron begins likewiſe with the fuſion of it into caſt iron from the ore. See Iron.

Steel is only iron refined to a greater degree by heating it, with ſome other ingredients, which cloſe up the pores and ſoften its grain.

Refining of lead. See Lead.

Refining of ſugar. See Sugar.

Refining of ſaltpetre. See Saltpetre.

REGISTER Ships of Spain.

Of the regiſter or entries, loading and delivery of the flota's, and ſhips trading to the Weſt-Indies, and of goods run and ſeizures, in relation to the commerce of Spain.

(1.) As it was requiſite for the ſupport of navigation, according to the Spaniſh polity, that there ſhould be builders of ſhips, and others to take the dimenſions, and gauge them to know their content, either to man them for war, or load them for merchants; and as it was convenient to preſcribe rules for the freight, and to know the bulk of the commodities, ſo it is neceſſary, that the loading may be according to the laws and ordinances, that there be regiſters or entries, with reſpect to theſe particulars. The law of Spain gives this definition of the regiſter, that it is a written memorandum of what paſſes every year; but as to what concerns this book, it is ſo to be underſtood, that the regiſter or entry is a memorial of what is put aboard every fleet, as ſhall be made out. Theſe regiſters, or entries, are carefully preſerved in the office of the contador or comptroller of the India-Houſe [ſee India-House of Spain]; and it is to be obſerved, that every particular man's entry goes under the ſame name, as well as the total that is made of all the goods aboard a ſhip.

(2.) There are two ſorts of regiſters or entries uſed in the trade to the Spaniſh Indies; the one is of all that is carried out of Spain to thoſe provinces and iſlands; the other of all the ſilver, gold, pearls, emeralds, and other commodities, brought from thence. The difference between them is, that thoſe brought from the Indies are authentic copies, of the original inſtruments made there by the maſters of plate, or of ſhips, before the proper notaries, ſpecifying the commodity, quantity, quality, and freight it is to pay, and perſon or perſons to whom to be delivered. But thoſe made at Seville and at Cadiz, when part of the fleet is loaded there, are plain notes, though upon ſealed paper, the content of them being to this effect, That N. made entry that he has put aboard ſuch a ſhip, which is one of ſuch a fleet, commanded by admiral O. whereof P. is maſter, the commodities hereafter ſpecified, naming to whom they are conſigned, where they are to be delivered, upon whoſe account and hazard they go. After this preamble, he underwrites the number of bales, cheſts, or any other ſort of parcel, and places alſo their marks in the margin, and having paid the duty for convoys, cuſtom, and other taxes, payable at the cuſtom-houſe, he delivers in this paper to the proper officer of the contador or comptroller of the India-Houſe, without being ſigned by him that delivers it, or the maſter or owner of the ſhip, or any other perſon whatſoever, but only the officers that received the duty; ſo that it appears, this inſtrument was rather contrived to ſecure the payment of the duties, than for any advantage of the parties concerned; for beſides theſe the maſters ſign bills of lading, upon ſight whereof they are to deliver the goods to the ports they are conſigned for; but, though there were none of theſe bills of lading, the regiſters or entries ought to be a ſufficient authority to demand of the maſters the goods therein contained; for it being requiſite for the getting of cockets in the India-Houſe, that the maſter gives a note under his hand, to anſwer that thoſe commodities he gives the ſame for, ſhall be duly entered, the entries being compared, when made, with thoſe notes, and then tacked to the reſt that belong to the ſhip; this certifies that the maſter had ſigned bills of lading [ſee Bills of Lading]; and all the entries together have the authority of the preſident and commiſſioners, to the end that there ſhould be no doubt but they are legal inſtruments, to oblige the maſters to deliver what they carry, and the factors to pay the freight. See the article Factor.

Of theſe two ſorts of regiſters, one only is in being at preſent, which are thoſe of all that is ſent from Spain to the Indies, but what is brought from thence is free from this incumbrance ever ſince the year 1660: it is neceſſary, however, to ſhew what the practice was, in order to compare it with the other.

The Spaniſh law directs, that all goods ſhipped for the Indies be entered in the India-Houſe, upon forfeiture of the goods, the third part to the informer, and the reſt to the king: the ſame was in practice as to all commodities brought from the Indies.

It being ſo difficult a matter to prove the frauds committed in bringing gold or ſilver that is not entered, or carrying it out of the kingdom, it was therefore ordered, that witneſſes of 14 years of age ſhould be allowed of in this caſe, and the tranſgreſſors to enjoy no privilege they might be entitled to. Afterwards it was added, that the informations of perſons in public employments, that deſerve to be credited, ſhould be ſufficient evidence for the judges upon ſuch trial to convict the perſons accuſed, and ſubject them to the ordinary or extraordinary penalties, according to the evidence and circumſtances relating thereto.

The captain or other officer that brought over any commodity not entered, was to loſe his employment for four years, and if it were any mean perſon that brought goods concealed, to be condemned to the gallies for four years. The owner of commodities not entered forfeited them, and his own goods; if a mean perſon, he was condemned to the gallies for ten years, and if of any quality, baniſhed the Indies, and excluded that trade for ever. Officers and commanders that are concerned therein forfeit their employments; but he that informs, if he be the owner, to be free; if any other, beſides impunity, to be intitled to one third part of the value. The maſter, mate, boatſwain, or purſer, that brings any thing unregiſtered, to be ſent to the gallies for ten years, forfeit all goods, and be excluded for ever ſailing to the Indies; but this is not to be underſtood of ſuch commodities as may ſerve for ballaſt, and lie in the bottom of the hold, which may be put on board with leave from the admiral, vice-admiral, chief pilot, and maſter, all together.

As for the form of making the entries, it is ordered, that the bulk be ſpecified, whether it be bale, cheſt, or any other parcel, as alſo the cuſtom it paid proportionably to the ſaid bulk. Nor may the entry be made at St Lucar, or any other place but at Seville, upon forfeiture of the goods. Gold and ſilver, and all other commodities, are forbid to be entered under any name but the right owners, upon penalty of forfeiting the whole, and four times its value, and being looked upon as a robber of the public. It was alſo ordained, that the merchants, before the general regiſter or entry was made, ſhould give in particulars of their loading to the comptroller, time enough for them to go aboard the fleets, upon forfeiture of the goods; theſe particulars to be ſigned, ſpecifying the ſhip, and to whom the goods are conſigned, and that the comptroller receive and place them to the general entry. That regiſters or entries be perfect and correct, the comptroller of the India-Houſe [ſee INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN], or ſuch perſon as ſhall have the care of the books of licences for loading at Seville or Cadiz, ſhall caſt up with every merchant what that entry makes, and deliver a copy to the commiſſioners, to be ſent to the Indies, for the officers there to ſee whether the cargo and entry agree. It was enacted alſo, that the admirals ſhould have copies given them of the regiſters, or entries, to the end they might ſeize all goods they found not mentioned in them, which they were to deliver as forfeited, without diſpoſing thereof, to the king's officers at the port they went to, and to charge them with it, and bring certificates that they had ſo done. But this has been out of uſe, it not being practicable for the admiral to ſearch into the hold, and examine what goods were entered, what not. So that now the entries are ſent ſealed, and there is only a copy of the laſt viſit, or ſearch open, for the admiral to compare when he makes his at ſea. Several laws direct, that only the king's officers break open the regiſters or entries, with a prohibition to the governors, admirals, veedores [i. e. overſeer, inſpector, or comptroller] maſters of ſhips, or the court of Panama.

The regiſters or entries of gold, ſilver, or other commodities, were to be made in the ports they came from, and if any were taken not entered, though going but to Callao, to Panama, or from Nombre de Dios to New Spain, it was all forfeited; but afterwards, all that was declared forfeited which was not entered before it came to the Havannah. All the entries of ſhips coming from the Indies, are to be made before the king's officers, and the eſcrivano or notary, whoſe buſineſs it is; and they are charged to be very particular in mentioning the ſeveral commodities and their ſpecies, particularly in cocheneal [ſee COCHENEAL], the value ſet upon that of Meſteca being 41,250 marvadees [ſee the article SPAIN], that of Flaſcala 37,500, and the wild at 8000; and if any that was fine came as wild, it ſhould be forfeited. Every ſhip was ordered to bring two regiſters or entries, that is, its own, and that of another ſhip, to prevent the confuſion that happened when any ſhip was caſt away, or taken by pirates, that the owners might upon theſe regiſters, either come upon the inſurers [ſee the article ASSURANCE], or if any part was ſaved, know whoſe it was, yet this ordinance has not been executed. The regiſters or entries of maſters of plate, are brought into a cheſt with three locks, the admiral to keep one key, the veedor another, and the maſter the third, to prevent falſification.

The kings of Spain have at all times been pretty favourable to their ſubjects in diſpenſing with the rigour of the laws in theſe caſes, forgiving the forfeiture of goods, which for want of being duly entered, were already his Majeſty's right, upon the owners making the diſcovery themſelves; and ſeveral times ſeizures already made have been reſtored, only laying a ſmall mulct on the owners. In 1560, there was a general pardon for all that was brought that year in the fleet not entered, provided the owners came in and declared it, and for all that came before, though it had been ſent to foreign nations, provided it were brought back within the term of four months; but for the future, it was made death and forfeiture of goods, to carry gold, plate, pearls, or precious ſtones, out of the kingdom, or bring them unregiſtered. Yet for ſeveral years after, there were ſtill freſh orders to ſuſpend the rigour of the law, upon the owners diſcovering their goods, 'till in 1618, this repeated goodneſs not availing, it was ordained, that the laws ſhould be ſeverely put in execution; notwithſtanding which, mercy was ſtill exerciſed towards delinquents, either receiving the owner's declarations, or taking off all by indulto's. See the article INDULTO.

To inſtance in the caſe of goods run and ſeizures made, king Philip II. ordered a conſiderable parcel of cocheneal and hides to be reſtored to the owners, upon paying a fourth part over and above the uſual duties, and the ſame in another ſeizure of plate, he being uſed to ſay, That thoſe perſons who had goods ſeized, muſt be treated like robbers of their own. King Philip III. ordered 176 bars of ſilver ſeized, to be reſtored, the owner paying 16,000 pieces of eight penalty above the duty; but for 2578 marks brought over, which had not paid his fifth in the Indies, that he directed to be confiſcated. Another time a ſeizure of 400,000 ducats of plate being made, he ordered the one half to be reſtored, and the other to be forfeited. In 1563, the ſollicitor of the India-Houſe ſearched a boat, in which was the admiral Peter Menendez his equipage, and took out three bars he brought not entered, for which the ſaid admiral was brought priſoner from Madrid to the India-Houſe. In 1585, 519 pipes of wine, beſides a great number of jars of wine, oil, and olives, were taken from aboard the admiral and vice-admiral of the New-Spain fleet. The ſame has been done upon other occaſions. Whoſoever makes the ſeizure of India goods, it belongs to the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe to take cognizance of the matter, and condemn them. In 1648, it was ordered, That when the officers of the India-Houſe made a ſeizure, they ſhould not be obliged to carry it to the India-Houſe, but to ſuch ſtorehouſe as they think fit, paying the cuſtom; and that thoſe made by the officers of the cuſtom-houſe pay the duty for convoys. Hereupon there was an officer created to take care that nothing be exported without paying the ſaid duty, and to take bond of merchants that they will make entry, and pay the ſaid duty.

9. There are ſeveral laws concerning the diſpoſal of ſeizures, one, that they be ſold by public outcry for their full value, which is to be paid in to the king: that the owners be not entruſted with the cuſtody of ſuch goods: that the king's officers be obliged to proſecute in caſe the informers ſhould not: that two-thirds of the forfeiture go to the king, the other between the judge and the informer: that the king's duties be firſt deducted out of ſeizures, before the informer's part: that the king's officers in the Indies acquaint the governors with what ſuits there are depending about ſeizures: that all the ports of the Indies follow the ſame rule that is obſerved at Carthagena: that the ſeizure be not put into the owners hands, though it be upon ſecurity: that the produce of ſeizures in the Indies be put into the hands of the king's officers, and not of treaſurers or truſtees: that when information is made of things of great value, and only notice of them given, the informer's ſhare be retrenched, and what is cut off added to the revenue: that the courts of the Indies do not aſſume to themſelves the deciſion of cauſes depending before the king's officers: that in trials of ſeizures of ſlaves, or other goods made in the ports of the Indies, the governor and king's officers, act jointly, and not apart, though it be upon pretence of having been firſt in the ſeizure; and that the part of the fine the law allows the judges, be equally divided among them all, upon penalty of forfeiting their employments, and being ſubject to other fines, beſides the profit of what they have defrauded.

10. Beſides, in the common ordinances of the India-Houſe, it is expreſſed, That any gold or ſilver wrought, or in bars or ingots, brought from the Indies, that has not the king's mark, be forfeited, and the bringer fined four times the value to the king, the third part to be given to the informer, and that the offender be baniſhed the kingdom for ever. But as for jewels, pearls, or precious ſtones, which cannot be marked,

marked, that he be obliged to bring a certificate from the officers in the Indies, that he entered and paid the fifth, ſpecifying what they were valued at, their ſhape, weight, and marks. Another ordinance directs, That no ſlaves, men or women, be carried over to the Indies, without the king's licence exhibited before the commiſſioners, upon pain of forfeiting ſuch ſlave to the king; and if the ſlave be of the coaſt of Barbary, or of the race of Moors, Jews, or Mulattoes, that he be brought back into Spain, at his expence who carried him over; and he that carries a ſlave of Mooriſh race, be fined 1000 pieces of eight of gold, to be equally divided between the king, the judge, and the informer; or if he be a mean perſon, to receive 100 laſhes. If the commiſſioners of the India Houſe, in the execution of their office, diſcover what is not entered, the fifth part of the forfeiture ſhall be their own. Of what is put aboard after the regiſter, or general entry is ſealed, three fourth parts are for the king, the other for the informer, or if there be none, for the viſitor; or if the commiſſioner of the India-Houſe find it, there is no doubt but the fourth part belongs to him.

11. The laſt order concerning the diſpoſal of ſeizures directs, that the third part be laid aſide for the informer, and the third part of that deducted for the judge, before whom the information is given, ſo he be no commiſſioner or judge of the India-Houſe; the ſame to be done as to the private informers, giving them their due without expoſing their names, or making any further delay than ſecuring the effects. But this does not cut off the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe from their fourth or fifth parts, in the caſes before-mentioned.

12. Paſſengers are alſo to be regiſtered, and their ages and marks ſet down, but they may be admitted after the regiſter or entry of the merchandize is ſealed. If the admiral take up any money of the maſter of plate, his bill ſhall ſtand good to make up the ſum entered upon the regiſter. The commiſſioners of the India-Houſe are directed to diſcharge the king's plate that is upon the regiſters, as private perſons do theirs. The regiſters in the Indies for ſhips that go from the Canaries, or carry ſlaves, are to mention how many they carried, and to certify their being viſited: and if the ſhip be ſold there, he that buys it is obliged to bring back the ſame regiſter the ſhip carried, and the king's officers to ſend a memorandum apart of the men, and an account who it was ſold to. The gold and ſilver ſent to Spain from the South Sea, is to be twice regiſtered, once in that ſea, and the other time at Porto bello, or elſe it is forfeited; and all that is ſent from port to port in the Indies, either in the North or South Sea, is to be regiſtered under the ſame penalty. Among the laws concerning regiſters, there is one that declares ſhips or merchandize, coming to the Indies by the way of Guinea, forfeited. Any goods entered upon the regiſter, though they cannot be found, are to pay the duties, unleſs it be made appear they were thrown overboard in ſtreſs of weather, and of things broken or damaged, only the cuſtom is to be received proportionably to their value, when they come to the ports in the Indies; and of ſuch goods as are carried from St Domingo to other ports, the remaining part of the cuſtom is to be received, which is due in the place they go to, more than is paid at St Domingo.

13. All that remains concerning this ſubject, is of the loading and unloading of ſhips, that nothing be landed without leave, and that all be carried to the cuſtom, or India-Houſe; but this, as has been ſaid, is taken off all things brought from the Indies by the indulto. That no goods be landed in the river Chagre but only at Panama. One of the king's officers at Panama is to receive the Firmland fleet at Portobello. If the New Spain fleet happens to touch at Ocoa, a port in the iſland of Hiſpaniola, one of the king's officers is immediately to repair thither. The ſhips that put into the river of Tabaſco, are forbid landing their goods on its banks, but they are all to be carried from the veſſel directly to the warehouſes. It is a general rule, that the ſhips which are to return to Spain, be unloaded before thoſe that are to remain in the Indies, and the king's officers are commanded to aſſiſt in lading the gold and ſilver aboard the armada's and flota's. To conclude, All that comes from the Indies, conſigned to private perſons, is to be delivered immediately to the owner, he putting his hand to the regiſter; or elſe one of the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe, in the preſence of one of the eſcrivano's or notaries of the ſaid India-Houſe; and if it were requiſite for delivery of any parcel, that the party concerned ſhould give ſecurity, he being a ſtranger in Seville, ſuch as he ſhould give in his own country, with the approbation of the magiſtrates ſhould be admitted, becauſe giving it at Seville, they uſed to leave that money in the ſureties hands, or ſpend a conſiderable part of it to find any.

REMITTANCE, the traffic or return of money from one place to another, by bills of exchange, orders, or the like. See the articles BILLS of EXCHANGE, and EXCHANGE.

A remittance is properly a bill of exchange, ſent to a correſpondent, and the contents thereof to be received by him of ſome other perſon, on whom ſuch bill is drawn.

We ſay that ſuch a merchant has remitted, or made a remittance of ſo many thouſand pounds in bank notes to his correſpondent at London. — I will remit you, or make you a remittance of, 1200 crowns, in three bills of exchange, of 400 crowns each, drawn on A. B. banker in your city, payable at ſight, at 20 days after ſight, or at uſance, &c.

By means of remittances by the circulation of bills of exchange, prodigious ſums of money are returned, not only from one city to another in a trading nation, without danger, and without carriage, but immenſe ſums are thereby perpetually circulating throughout all the European ſtates.

REMARKS.

Remittances of money to diſtant parts, by the means of bills of exchange, neceſſarily imply a correſpondence at thoſe parts, and the authority of drawing upon ſome perſon, by whom ſuch remittance muſt be diſcharged, to the perſon to whom the bill is made payable.

The nature of draughts and remittances, and the manner whereby ſuch kind of negotiations are carried on, cannot be better explained and illuſtrated, than by exhibiting the outlines of the accountantſhip requiſite to be obſerved on ſuch occaſions, by the parties therein concerned. And as money-remittances are either of a domeſtic or of a foreign kind, we ſhall ſtate the caſe familiarly in both lights, with relation to real practical buſineſs.

I. With regard to domeſtic remittances, or ſuch as are carried on through the ſeveral trading towns and cities in the ſame ſtate or empire.

Suppoſe C. D. of London, for example, is a trader, and has dealings with other traders of Briſtol, Liverpool, and Exeter, and that he hath occaſion to remit 200l. to his correſpondent, E. F. of Briſtol.—For this purpoſe he is preſumed to have ſome correſpondent, ſuppoſe G. H. of Briſtol, who is indebted to C. D. of London 500l. in the way of traffic-able, or any other concerns;—and that, by virtue thereof, he, the ſaid C. D. hath the liberty to draw upon G. H. to the amount of 500l. for the diſcharge of the ſaid debts. — Now, if G. H. is indebted to C. D. 500l. G. H. ſtands in his book indebted for the ſaid ſum, to ſome proper account, ſuitable to the occaſion on which the ſaid debt was contracted.—Upon which he (C. D.) draws, in the following manner and form, upon G. H. 200l. payable to C. D.

London, September 1, 1754.

One month after date pay to E. F. or order, the ſum of 200l. and place it per advice to the account of

To Mr G. H. merchant of Briſtol.

Sir, Your humble ſervant,
C. D.

This draught of 200l. thus made by C. D. of London, on his correſpondent G. H. of Briſtol, payable to E. F. of Briſtol, one month after date, is ſent incloſed in a letter to E. F. who ſends it, on receipt thereof, to G. H. of Briſtol, for acceptance; which if he does not refuſe, and duly pays, this draught thus made upon G. H. is a remittance made, at the ſame time, to E. F. in diſcharge of the 200l. due by C. D. of London, to E. F. of Briſtol.

As G. H. ſtood a debtor in the books of C. D. for what he owed him, ſo E. F. was a creditor in the accounts of C. D. for what the latter owed him. Quere, In what manner ought the ſeveral parties herein concerned ſtate this tranſaction in their reſpective books, according to the true principles of accountantſhip, by the Italian method of double entry?

We will ſtate the accounts of C. D. of London, which are ſuppoſed to ſtand thus in his ledger (in regard to this affair) previouſly to the commencement thereof.

LEDGER.

	G. H. of Briſtol - - Dr	l.	s.	d.		Cr	l.	s.	d.
(1)	To caſh, if money lent, &c. -	500	—	—	(3)	By E. F. for draught on E. F. remitted G. H. - - - -	200	—	—
	Cash - - - Dr					Cr			
(2)	To E. F. money borrowed - -	200	—	—	(1)	By G. H. for money lent - -	500	—	—
	E. F. of Briſtol - - Dr					Cr			
(3)	To G. H. for draught remitted him	200	—	—	(2)	By caſh, money borrowed, or otherwiſe, &c. - - - -	200	—	—

EXPLANATION.

The foregoing is the practical ſtate of the caſe in the ledger of C. D.

1. The reader will obſerve, that G. H. ſtands debtor for the 500 l. to CASH, on ſuppoſition it was money lent, and CASH a creditor for the ſame, which exhibits theſe two accounts in their right ſtate: if the money had been due on a legacy, G. H. muſt have been made debtor to CAPITAL STOCK, and CAPITAL STOCK creditor by G. H. in which caſe, alſo, thoſe accounts would appear in their juſt light; but, if the money had been due upon any other occaſion, the credit muſt have been adapted accordingly. See the articles ACCOUNTANTSHIP, BANKING, BOOK-KEEPING, LEDGER, MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

2. Upon making the draught on G. H. payable to E. F. E. F. is made debtor to G. H. and G. H. creditor by E. F. which debiting the one, and crediting the other, keeps the accounts of C. D. in an equitable ſtate, and ſhews how draughts and remittances are adjuſted, in conformity to the nature of the tranſaction.

II. Let us now take a view of the accounts of G. H.

As G. H. ſtands a debtor in the books of C. D. for what he owes him, ſo muſt C. D. ſtand a creditor for the ſame in the books of G. H. Thus:

L E D G E R.

		l.	s.	d.			l.	s.	d.
	C. D. of London - - Dr					Cr			
(2)	To E. F. for the draught accepted	1200	—	—	(1)	By caſh, money borrowed of him	500	—	—
	CASH - - - - Dr					Cr			
(1)	To C. D. money borrowed -	500	—	—	(3)	By E. F. paid C. D. draught of — day	200	—	—
	E. F. - - - - - Dr					Cr			
(3)	To caſh, paid him C. D's draught of	200	—	—	(2)	By C. D. for draught accepted	200	—	—

EXPLANATION.

1. CASH is debtor, and C. D. creditor by CASH, for what G. H. owes him.—When C. D. draws on him, in order to make a remittance to E. F. then he makes C. D. debtor to E. F. and credits E. F. 'till paid.—When he pays E. F. then E. F. is made debtor to CASH, and CASH creditor by E. F. By which method of charge and diſcharge, according to the way of double-entry accountantſhip, every diſtinct account is preſerved in its true ſtate.

☞ Many who deal any thing conſiderably in draughts and remittances, keep diſtinct INTERMEDIATE ACCOUNTS of DRAUGHTS and REMITTANCES, or a BILL-BOOK, wherein are entered all bills payable and receivable; by the means of which intermediate accounts of BILLS RECEIVABLE, and BILLS PAYABLE, the perſonal accounts of all with whom you have tranſactions by way of draught or remittances, are adjuſted.

III. We ſhall now ſee how the accounts of E. F. will ſtand in regard to this tranſaction.

As E. F. in the books of C. D. ſtands creditor, by CASH, for money C. D. borrowed of him; ſo CASH muſt ſtand debtor, and C. D. creditor, in the books of E. F. for the ſame. Thus:

L E D G E R.

		l.	s.	d.			l.	s.	d.
	CASH - - - - Dr					Cr			
(1)	To C. D. of London, borrowed of him	200	—	—	(3)	By G. H. paid C. D's draught of	200	—	—
	C. D. of London - - Dr					Cr			
(2)	To G. H. a draught payable to G. H. of	200	—	—	(1)	By caſh borrowed of him - -	200	—	—
	G. H. - - - - - Dr					Cr			
(3)	To caſh, paid C. D's draught, when due, of	200	—	—	(2)	By C. D's draught, payable to G. H.	200	—	—

But if C. D. of London had no one at Briſtol that owed him money, in order to conveniently diſcharge his creditor E. F. at that city, E. F. muſt either have drawn upon C. D. of London, or C. D. of London muſt have paid the money in London, and procured a bill, payable to E. F. in Briſtol, and ſent him the ſame, which would have anſwered the end equally as well.—Or, if it had been convenient for E. F. to have the ſaid ſum paid to his order in Exeter, or elſewhere, and it had ſuited C. D. ſo to have returned the ſame, by a draught upon any correſpondent, in this way likewiſe the money may be paid to the order of E. F. Hence we find, that the tranſaction of money-concerns, by the means of draughts and remittances, is infinitely more facilitated than can be by the perpetual ſending of ſpecie backwards and forwards, at a great hazard and expence: and, with regard to bills of Exchange that are not payable at ſight, the robbing of the mail does not, in this reſpect, affect them in the manner that it does bank-bills. There is, indeed, frequently hazard run by taking bills that may be proteſted, and this proves a great diſappointment to the principal parties: this induces many rather to tranſact their inland affairs by the means of bank bills, than by that of bills of exchange.

Nor is the trading intereſt only thus accommodated in their draughts and remittances, by the means of paper circulation, but the landed men alſo; and the public revenue itſelf is commodiouſly remitted to the exchequer, by virtue thereof: whereby this method of drawing and remitting money, proves of no leſs eaſe and advantage to the government, than to the ſubjects in general.

There are many bankers, and others who are not profeſſedly ſo, that make a very handſome income, at $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, &c. by accommodating people with bills for their returns of monies.

EXPLANATION.

Whoever diſcerns the reaſon of what has been already ſaid, will need no farther explication in relation to the accounts of E. F. which he will obſerve are in conformity with the preceding. The whole of the matter, in a word, lies here: if a merchant of London has owing to him 500 l. by one in Briſtol, and he owes 200 l. alſo to one in Briſtol, he orders his debtor there to pay the ſame to his creditor; which order being executed in the manner before repreſented, is called a DRAUGHT made upon his debtor, and a REMITTANCE to his creditor; and the method of ſtating the accounts by the perſons concerned, ſhews the eſſential points of the accountantſhip neceſſary to be performed by the ſeveral parties therein concerned.

Theſe plain principles being well underſtood, in relation to the nature of domeſtic draughts and remittances, the ſame will be eaſily applied to thoſe in foreign countries, and in foreign monies.

EXAMPLE I.

Suppoſe Meſſ. Cliffords and ſons, merchants of Amſterdam, are indebted to Meſſ. Henry and Peter Muilman, of London, merchants, 5000 guelders, bank money of Amſterdam, and that ſaid Cliffords and ſons remit the ſame to ſaid Muilmans, by a bill of exchange, drawn at uſance, on John Gore, merchant of London, who is indebted to them, exchange at 34 : 6. Quere, how muſt this tranſaction be ſtated in the books of the ſeveral perſons therein concerned, according to the principles of accountantſhip, as practiſed by thoſe eminent traders?

I. With regard to the accounts of CLIFFORD and SONS of AMSTERDAM.

If they are indebted to Meſſ. Muilman a balance of 5000 florins, banco of Amſterdam, Meſſ. Muilman will of courſe have credit in their books for that ſum; and, when they remit the ſame to ſaid Muilmans of London, the tranſaction is managed in the following manner: as Clifford and ſons owe money in London to ſome perſons, ſo we may preſume, in the courſe of their tranſactions, they may have monies due to them from Mr Gore, in the ſame trading city: in which caſe, they make a draught upon their debtor, payable to their creditors, and thereby make the remittance required, and ſtate their accounts by way of debtor and creditor, according to the principles before given in the domeſtic tranſaction: taking care to diſtinguiſh the different monies of the two countries, and what they may gain or loſe by the exchange. Theſe great remitters always have an open account in their ledger of DRAUGHTS and of REMITTANCES, and are extremely accurate in diſtinguiſhing MY ACCOUNT from HIS ACCOUNT, as well as their COMPANY ACCOUNTS from their PROPER ACCOUNTS. See our article LEDGER.

But if it ſo fall out that Clifford and ſons of Amſterdam have no MONIES due to them in London, and yet are obliged to pay the ſaid ſum to Muilman and Co. within a certain time, the affair may be managed in one or the other of the following ways: either Muilman and Co. may draw upon Clifford and Co. or Clifford and Co. muſt purchaſe a bill, or bills of

exchange, on the Bourſe of Amſterdam, of thoſe who may have monies due to them in London, or any other trading city in England; and this bill, or theſe bills of exchange, are ſent over by the packet to the ſaid Muilman and Co.

Suppoſe ſuch bill of exchange be furniſhed to Clifford and Co. by the houſe of PELTZ and SONS of Amſterdam, drawn upon SIR JOSHUA VANECK, BART. and Co. merchants of London, payable at uſance, or two uſance, to Meſſ. Cliffords: in this caſe, Cliffords indorſe the ſaid bill of exchange, and ſend it over to Meſſ. Muilman, who preſent the bill for acceptance, and receive the contents of Sir Joſhua Vaneck and Co. according to the tenor thereof. If the tranſaction be thus conducted, and if Meſſ. Clifford immediately pay for the bill furniſhed them by Meſſ. Peltz, they may make BILLS OF EXCHANGE, or REMITTANCES, debtor to CASH for the money ſo paid; and when they hear of Meſſ. Muilman's receipt of the bill in England, and that it is accepted, they then debit MESS. MUILMAN to REMITTANCES, for the amount thereof. This method of ſtating the accounts in the books of Clifford of Amſterdam, will keep their account of caſh right, as well as their account with Meſſ. Muilman.

What is a remittance to Meſſ. Muilman, is a draught upon Sir Joſhua Vaneck and Co. by Meſſ. Peltz; and, upon the receipt of money by Peltz and Co. of Cliffords, for the ſaid draught of Sir Joſhua Vaneck and Co. the ſaid Peltz debits their account of caſh, and credit Sir Joſhua Vaneck and Co. for the ſaid draught.

And Sir Joſhua Vaneck and Co. in order to keep his accounts in conformity with thoſe of Peltz and Co. do, upon the acceptance of the draught aforeſaid, debit Peltzs and Co. in their proper account, which gave birth to the occaſion, and credit Meſſ. Muilman for their ſaid remittance; for, upon Sir Joſhua and Co's acceptance of the bill, they, from that time, become debtor to Meſſ. Muilman for the ſame: but if Sir Joſhua chuſes ſo to have his books kept, that his intermediate account of DRAUGHTS may manifeſt all draughts that have been made upon him, then he debits Peltzs and ſon to the account of DRAUGHTS, and, when he pays ſuch draught, according to the tenor of the bill, he then debits draught, and credits his account of caſh; which is the method that moſt great remitters practiſe.

In the like manner, with regard to the remittance made to Meſſ. Muilman, he debits the account of REMITTANCES to Meſſ. Clifford, and credits Meſſ. Clifford for the ſame, in conformity: and, when Meſſ. Muilman receive in money the amount of the ſaid bill, of Sir Joſhua Vaneck, he debits his account of caſh, and credits that of remittances; whereby the accounts of Muilman are kept in conformity with thoſe of Cliffords of Amſterdam.

But as our remitters, or merchants of conſideration, keep their caſh either with the bank of England, or with bankers of eminence, the buſineſs of receiving or paying bills is made mighty eaſy to them; for the bills receivable being depoſited either in the bank, or the bankers hands, their runners receive them when due, the merchant having the receipt thereof acknowledged in his bank-book: and, when ſuch merchants have bills to pay, they draw upon the Bank or bankers for the ſame, which ſums are wrote off in their bank-book accordingly.

Upon the whole, the reader will eaſily obſerve, that any bill of exchange whatſoever is properly a DRAUGHT, with regard to the drawer, and to the perſon upon whom the ſame is drawn, and who is to pay the contents; and, at the ſame time, it is properly a REMITTANCE, with regard to the perſon who buys the bill, and pays the value, as well as to the perſon to whom the bill is ſent, or remitted, and who conſequently receives the contents.

In relation to the general laws, cuſtoms, and uſages, which concern bills of exchange, ſee the article BILLS of EXCHANGE; and, with reſpect to the method of ſtating accounts of this nature, ſee the articles BANKING, BOOK-KEEPING, DEBTOR and CREDITOR, LEDGER, and MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP; under which ſeveral heads will he find very ample inſtructions whereby to capacitate him for the ſtating of any kind of accounts whatſoever, be they either of a foreign or domeſtic concernment.

Further REMARKS upon this article of REMITTANCES and DRAUGHTS.

As in inland trafficable affairs it may, as we have obſerved, frequently ſuit the convenience of the parties to remit money in one city, payable to the order of a correſpondent who reſides in another at a conſiderable diſtance in the ſame country; ſo it often happens, eſpecially among the general and more ſkilful merchants, that they order a correſpondent of London to draw upon their correſpondent of Paris, who may be debtor to him in Amſterdam, for their account, inſtead of drawing upon him of Amſterdam: and ſo in divers other places. For if A of Amſterdam be indebted to B of London, and C of Paris be alſo indebted to A of Amſterdam; and if A of Amſterdam orders B of London to draw upon C of Paris, inſtead of himſelf of Amſterdam, it may, and often does, not only prove mutually agreeable and convenient, but ſometimes an additional advantage is the motive, either to the one, if not both, ſo to do; and what theſe advantages may be at ſuch conjuncture, is judged of by the courſe of exchange between Amſterdam and London, Amſterdam and Paris, and London and Paris; and the method whereby ſuch buſineſs is tranſacted, by the means of draughts and remittances, with a view to profit to be made by the exchange, is called the arbitration of the foreign exchange. See the article ARBITRATION in matters of the foreign exchange; ſee alſo the articles ENGLAND, HAMBURGH, HOLLAND, and the chief trading cities of Europe, under their reſpective provinces.

REPRIZALS, a right, according to the civil law and that of nations, which princes have to retake from their enemies ſuch things as they unjuſtly detain from them, or other things equivalent thereto. — It is uſed alſo for a permiſſion given by a prince ſometimes to a ſubject, upon a full cognizance of the cauſe, authorizing him to retake, from the firſt perſon he meets with of the adverſe party, as many effects as make an equivalent to what have been violently forced from him, and for which the oppoſite prince has refuſed to do him juſtice.

Theſe permiſſions are alſo called letters of mark, mart, or marque.—Thus we ſay, This merchant has ſeized the effects of the Spaniard Don ———, by way of reprizal, becauſe the Spaniard has ſeized his, and no redreſs could be had at the court of Madrid.

Under the articles MARQUE, [LETTERS of MARQUE], PRIVATEERS, PRIZES, we have given the principal laws relating thereto: as they have ſome affinity with the preſent ſubject, we ſhall here give what may be further neceſſary; according to the laws of England, in particular, to the underſtanding what elſe may have a connection with the preceding ſubjects.

A copy of letters patent for eſpecial reprizals, from the king of Great-Britain (under the great ſeal of England) againſt the States of Holland, and their ſubjects; inrolled in the high court of Chancery, 19 May, 15 Car. II.

Charles the Second, &c. Whereas our loving ſubjects, Sir William Courteen, Knt. deceaſed, and his partners, anno 1643, by the depredation and hoſtile act of one Gailard, commander in chief of two ſhips belonging to the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands, was, between Goa and Macao, in the ſtreights of Malacca, deprived and moſt injuriouſly ſpoiled of a certain ſhip called the Bona Eſperanza, and of her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and all the goods and lading in her, upon a very hopeful trading voyage to China; which were carried to Batavia, and there all de facto, without due proceſs of law, confiſcated. And alſo in the ſame year, another laden ſhip of our ſaid ſubject, called the Henry Bonadventure, being come on ground near the iſland of Mauritius, was there, both ſhip and goods, ſeized upon by ſome of the officers and miniſters, and others under the command of the ſaid Eaſt-India company, and utterly detained from the right owners. And whereas the ſaid Sir William Courteen, and his aſſigns, in his life-time, uſed all poſſible endeavours to recover the ſaid ſhips and goods, and to procure further juſtice againſt the maleſactors, and yet could obtain no reſtitution or ſatisfaction; whereby they came to be much diſtreſſed, and utterly undone in their eſtate and credit: and thereupon, and upon the moſt humble ſupplication and addreſſes of Francis earl of Shrewſbury, and William Courteen, Eſq; grandſon and heir of the ſaid Sir William, deceaſed, Sir John Ayton, and Sir William Turner, Knts. and George Carew, and Charles Whitaker, Eſqrs. (on the behalf of themſelves, and divers others intereſted in the ſaid two ſhips, Bona Eſperanza, and Henry Bonadventure, and in the eſtates of the ſaid Sir William Courteen, deceaſed) Sir Edward Littleton, Bart. and Sir Paul Pindar, Knt. that we would take their caſe into our princely conſideration: we, out of a juſt ſenſe we then had, and ſtill have, of their unjuſt ſufferings in that buſineſs, both by our own letters, under our ſign manual, to the States General of the United Provinces, and by Sir George Downing, Knt. and Bart. our envoy extraordinary, to whom we gave ſpecial command ſo to do, required ſatisfaction to be made, according to the rules of juſtice, and the amity and good correſpondence which we then deſired to conſerve with them firm and inviolable. And whereas, after ſeveral addreſſes made to the States General by our ſaid envoy, and nothing granted effectual for the relief of our ſaid ſubjects (whom we take ourſelves, in honour and juſtice, concerned to ſee ſatisfied and repaid) we lately commanded the ſaid Sir George Downing to intimate, and ſignify to the ſaid States, that we expected their final anſwer, concerning ſatisfaction to be made for the ſaid ſhips and goods, by a time then prefixed, and ſince elapſed, that we might ſo govern ourſelves thereupon, that our aforeſaid ſubjects might be relieved according to right and juſtice; and yet no ſatisfactory anſwer hath been given; ſo that we cannot but apprehend it to be, not only a fruitleſs endeavour, but a proſtituting of our honour and dignity, to make further application, after ſo many denials and ſlightings. And whereas John Exton, doctor of laws, judge of our high admiralty court of England, upon our command to certify to us the

the value of the loſſes and damages ſuſtained by the ſaid Sir William Courteen, and partners, whoſe intereſt is now veſted in our loving ſubjects Sir Edmund Turner, Knt. and George Carew, Eſq; and partners, hath, upon full examination and proof thereof, made by witneſſes in our high court of admiralty, reported and certified under his hand, that the ſame do amount to the ſum of One hundred fifty-one thouſand, ſix hundred, and twelve pounds.

Now KNOW YE, That for a full reſtitution to be made to them for their ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, of which the ſaid Sir William Courteen, Knt. and partners, were ſo deſpoiled as aforeſaid, with all ſuch coſts and charges as they ſhall be at for the recovery of the ſame: we, by the advice of our privy council, have thought fit, and by theſe preſents do grant licence and authority, under our great ſeal of England, unto our ſaid ſubjects, Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators and aſſigns, for and on the behalf of themſelves and other perſons intereſted, as aforeſaid, to equip, victual, furniſh, and to ſet to ſea, from time to time, ſuch and ſo many ſhips and pinnaces as they ſhall think fit; provided always, that there be an entry made and recorded in the admiralty courts, of the names of all ſhips and veſſels, and of their burthen and ammunition, and for how long time they are victualled, and alſo the names of the commanders thereof, before the ſame or any of them be ſet forth to ſea; and with the ſaid ſhips and pinnaces by force of arms to ſet upon, take, and apprehend any of the ſhips, goods, money, and merchandizes belonging to the States-General, or any of the ſubjects inhabiting within any of their dominions or territories, whereſoever the ſame ſhall be found, and not in any port or harbour in England or Ireland, unleſs it be the ſhips and goods of the parties that did the wrong. And the ſaid ſhips, goods, money and merchandizes, being ſo taken, and brought into ſome port of our realms and dominions, an inventory thereof ſhall be taken, by authority of our court of admiralty, by the judge or judges thereof for the time being, upon proofs made before him or them that the ſaid ſhips, goods, wares, merchandizes, or money, did belong to the States General, or any of their ſubjects, as aforeſaid: that they ſhall be lawful prize to the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, to retain and keep in their or any of their poſſeſſions, and to make ſale and diſpoſe thereof in open market, or howſoever elſe, to their and every of their beſt advantage and benefit, in as ample manner as at any time heretofore hath been accuſtomed by way of reprizal, and to have and enjoy the ſame as lawful prize, and as their own proper goods: ſo that neither any captain, maſter, nor any of their company, that ſhall ſerve in perſon, or ſhall promote and advance the ſaid enterprize, in manner and form aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner or wiſe be reputed or challenged as an offender againſt any of our laws. And that it ſhall be lawful for all manner of perſons, as well our ſubjects as any others, to buy the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, ſo taken and apprehended by the ſaid captains, maſters, and others, and adjudged as aforeſaid, without any damage, loſs, hindrance, trouble, moleſtation, or incumbrance to befal the ſaid buyers, or any of them, in as ample and lawful manner as if the ſhips, goods, wares, and merchandizes, had been come and gotten by lawful traffic of merchants, or of juſt prizes in time of war. Provided always, that all ſhips, goods, and merchandize, taken by virtue of this our commiſſion, ſhall be kept in ſafety; and no part of them waſted, ſpoiled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken, until judgment hath firſt paſſed as aforeſaid, that they are the ſhips and merchandize of the States General, or ſome of their ſubjects, as aforeſaid. And if, by colour of this our commiſſion, there ſhall be taken any ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, of any of our loving ſubjects, or the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate in good league or amity with (except the States General, or their ſubjects, as aforeſaid) and the goods therein laden, ſold and embezzled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken in any place, before they ſhall be adjudged to belong to the States General, or ſome of their ſubjects, as aforeſaid, that then this commiſſion ſhall not be of ſufficient authority to take the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, or to warrant or ſave harmleſs ſuch as ſhall receive, buy, or intermeddle therein; but that both the prizes ſo taken, and the ſaid ſhips of war, ſhall be confiſcated to our uſe.

And further we do hereby declare, That it is our will and pleaſure that this our commiſſion ſhall remain in full force and power to all intents and purpoſes, until the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, ſhall, by virtue thereof, have by force of arms apprehended, taken, ſeized, recovered, and received from the ſaid States General, or their ſubjects, One hundred fifty-one thouſand, ſix hundred and twelve pounds, according to the appraiſement to be made, by appraiſers upon oath, nominated and authorized in our ſaid court of admiralty, of ſuch ſhips, goods, wares, or merchandizes, as ſhall be taken from the ſaid States General, or any of their ſubjects, by virtue of this commiſſion, or ſhall otherwiſe receive ſatisfaction of the debt aforeſaid, by compoſition to be made between thoſe of the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands, and the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid: notwithſtanding the preſent difference between us and the ſaid States General, depending upon general reprizes, may be agreed and compoſed, and that, in the interim, a good correſpondence may be renewed between us and the ſaid States General: in which caſe, nevertheleſs, it is our will and pleaſure, that, in the execution of this our commiſſion, no violence ſhall be done to the perſons of the ſaid ſubjects of the ſaid States General, but only in caſe of reſiſtance; and that after in cold blood, the ſubjects of the States General, if hurt or wounded, ſhall be uſed with all convenient offices of humanity and kindneſs, &c.

A proclamation for revoking the foregoing letters of marque and reprizals, publiſhed Auguſt 30, 1680.

Whereas George Carew, Eſq; had formerly granted to him letters of marque againſt the States General of the United Provinces, for ſatisfaction of a certain demand which Sir William Courteen and others had againſt the ſaid States, and to which the ſaid George Carew was intitled, which ſaid demand has ſince, by treaty of peace between his Majeſty and the ſaid States, been totally aboliſhed and extinguiſhed, and all letters of marque and reprizals by the ſame treaty diſcharged accordingly: and whereas his majeſty has ſince recalled and ſuſpended the ſaid letters of marque, to the end that no perſon may be miſled, under pretence of any letters of marque and reprizal heretofore granted to the ſaid George Carew, and thereby incur the danger of the law as pirates, his Majeſty is pleaſed, by this his proclamation to declare, that the ſaid George Carew has now no authority and commiſſion, by virtue of any ſuch letters of marque, to equip or ſet out any veſſel whatſoever; and that all perſons that ſhall preſume to be aiding to him in ſetting forth any ſuch ſhip, or ſerve under him, by colour of any ſuch pretended authority, ſhall be proceeded againſt as pirates, according to the utmoſt ſeverity of the law.

REVENUE, [PUBLIC REVENUE]. REVENUE, in its ordinary acceptation, is the yearly rent, or profits, ariſing to a man from his lands, poſſeſſions, &c. The public revenue of this kingdom is the yearly income, or ſums raiſed, at preſent, by the authority of king, lords, and commons, for the ſupport of the ſtate.

The ſucceſs of a kingdom, ſays a judicious writer, depends upon a wiſe regulation of its REVENUES. When taxes are not levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of the ſubject, a moth in the treaſury, the univerſal lamentation of a kingdom, and the intereſt and joy of foreigners. But a prudent diſpoſition of them is the ſoul of a ſtate, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and diſtreſs to foreigners, and a perpetual fountain of the richeſt bleſſings to human life.

As not only the intereſt of trade, but the maintenance of the liberties of theſe kingdoms, will ever conſiſt in keeping princes dependent on the parliament for the money that ſhall be exacted from the people; it may be uſeful to give a ſhort hiſtory how the public money has been levied, from the Conqueſt to the Revolution in 1688, and from that æra to the preſent time.

KING WILLIAM I.

Having conquered England, his WILL became a law, and he looked upon all the land and treaſure of the nation as his own. He diſtributed the greateſt part of the Engliſh lands among his NORMANS, and others, who helped him in the conqueſt; whereby he ſecured their attachment, and effectually depreſſed the natives.—He alſo divides the lands into baronies and knights fees.—He cauſes an exact ſurvey to be taken of all the lands; by which he knew diſtinctly every acre of arable, meadow, paſture, common, wood, marſh, and every other ſort, and taxed them all to their value.—He rated, in like manner, all towns, cities, boroughs, and villages.—This ſurvey is preſerved in the Exchequer, in the Doomſday-Book.—He eſtabliſhed the duty of Danegeld, on account of pirates, but exempted the church from the payment of it, yet he cauſed all the monaſteries to be plundered of their money.—He brings under military ſervitude all the biſhoprics and abbies that held baronies—Makes inquiry in every county how many acres were ſufficient yearly for one plough, &c.—Cauſes inquiſition to be made what aſſeſſment each city, caſtle, &c. paid yearly——Takes 6s. of each plough-land, or hide, throughout the kingdom, and extorts immenſe ſums from all people promiſcuouſly.

REMARKS.

What all theſe incomes of the Conqueror might amount to is not poſſible to be known, there being no eſtimates extant even of thoſe ſums which he raiſed by way of tax; nor can there be any account of all the other profits he made by the ſeveral ways above mentioned.—He ſtood not in need of parliaments to ſupply his wants, who had it in his power to take all that his ſubjects poſſeſſed.—However arbitrary and lawleſs this abſolute monarch and conqueror was, yet, it has been ſaid, that he did not abſolutely aboliſh the rights, laws, and

cuſtoms of the Engliſh people, but ſubmitted himſelf, in ſome meaſure, to thoſe contained in the Doomſday Book.

After the Saxons were ſettled in England, their ſilver coins were generally all of a ſize, and ill-minted, which they called pennies, worth about three-pence of our money, and alſo half-pennies and farthings, and half-farthings, called ſtica's. After the Norman conqueſt, a pound of gold being divided into 24 carats, and every carat into 4 grains, the old ſterling, as it was afterwards called, or right ſtandard of gold, conſiſted of 23 carats and 3 grains and a half of fine gold, and half a grain of allay of copper or ſilver. Alſo, a pound of ſilver being divided into 12 ounces, and every ounce into 20 pennyweights, and every pennyweight into 24 grains, a pound weight of old ſterling conſiſted then, as it does at preſent, of 11 ounces 2 pennyweights of fine ſilver, and 18 pennyweights of allay.

King William Rufus,

Son and ſucceſſor to the Conqueror, ſpared no manner of rapine or ſimony.—Holds moſt of the church-lands in his own hands, and farms them out to the laity.—Extorts 5000 marks from the cathedral of Lincoln.—Exacts 10s. a man from 20,000 foot.—Seizes all the effects of the archbiſhop and church of Canterbury.——Demands Danegeld of all the barons.—Draws the wealth of the church into his own treaſury.—In ſhort, he flayed the people with taxes and exactions in every ſhape; and having oppreſſed and ruined his ſubjects, he was ſnatched away with a violent death.

REMARKS.

This prince not only governed as his father had done, in a deſpotic manner, as inheriting all that he did, and, conſequently, had the ſame property in all the lands and all his revenues; but he oppreſſed both clergy and laity without mercy, laying the moſt unreaſonable impoſitions on their lands, houſes, and effects of every kind, inſomuch that no man could call any thing his own; and in this manner he reigned, or raged, for the ſpace of near 13 years.—At the time of his death, this king held in his own hands the archbiſhopric of Canterbury, the biſhoprics of Wincheſter and Saliſbury, and 12 abbies, which he was wont to ſell, or let out to farm, or keep them to himſelf: he had all the vices of his father without his virtues.—Ranulph Flambert, a man of oppreſſive principles and mean birth, was his treaſurer, and the projector of moſt of the unjuſtifiable ways practiſed by the king to extort money from his ſubjects.

The two firſt kings after the Conqueſt coined only pennies: they agree, as near as can be judged, in weight and goodneſs, with the pennies of the Saxon kings, their immediate predeceſſors. It is therefore reaſonable to think that king William introduced no new weight into his mints; but that the ſame weight uſed there for ſome ages after, and called the pound of the Tower of London, was the old pound of the Saxon monies before the Conqueſt. This pound was lighter than the Troy pound by three quarters of an ounce Troy, and did not very ſenſibly differ from 12 ounces of the weight ſtill uſed in the money affairs of Germany, and there known by the name of the Colonia weight. And whereas the preſent ſtandard of England, of 11 ounces 2 pennyweights fine, to 18 pennyweights of allay, is called, in the oldeſt accounts of the Mint extant, the old ſtandard, or the ſtandard of the old ſterlings, it is moſt probable that theſe pennies were of that ſtandard, and that the pound of the Tower of ſuch ſtandard ſilver was then cut into 240 of theſe pennies: whence the weight of the penny will be found 22 Troy grains and a half; and the intrinſic value of 20 ſhillings, or of 240 ſuch pennies of full weight, was the ſame as the value 58 Shillings and one-penny half-penny of our preſent coined money.

Of the payment of the king's revenue in thoſe ancient times.

At firſt, the tenants of knights fees anſwered to their lords by military ſervices; and the tenants of ſocage lands and demeſnes, in great meaſure, by work and proviſions: afterwards, the revenue of the crown was anſwered in gold and ſilver, and ſometimes in horſes, dogs, and birds of game, and the like, and ſometimes in both together. When a man paid money into the Exchequer, it was ſaid, in Theſauro liberavit ſo much; and the ſame phraſe continueth to this day. Theſe payments were made Ad ſcalam & ad penſum, and in blank ſilver and numero, by tale. Ad ſcalam was by paying ſix-pence over and above each pound, or 20 ſhillings, which at firſt was thought ſufficient to make good the weight; ad penſum was the perſon's making good the deficiencies of weight, though it was more than ſix-pence per 20 ſhillings. But as the money might be deficient in fineneſs, as well as weight, a third way of payment was by melting down part of the money paid in, and reducing it to plate of a due fineneſs; when the ferm was melted down, it was ſaid to be dealbated, or blanched. As ſuppoſe a ferm of a hundred pounds was paid into the Exchequer, after the melting, as before obſerved, it was ſaid to be a hundred pounds blank: frequently the twentieth part of one ſhilling was accepted in lieu of melting, to ſave trouble and charges. The payment by numero, or tale, needs no explanation. Payments, or at leaſt computations, were made by marks and half marks, ounces and half ounces of gold; and in pounds, marks, half marks, ſhillings, pence, &c. of ſilver. The mark of gold was equal to 120 ſhillings of ſilver; the ounce of gold was equivalent to 15 ſhillings of ſilver; the pound of ſilver by tale was 20 ſhillings; the mark 13 ſhillings and four-pence; and the ſhilling conſiſted of 12 pence; and a penny was the twentieth part of an ounce, equal to our three-pence.

King Henry I.

Succeeds his brother William in the fulneſs of the ſovereign prerogative. The firſt impoſition he laid was three ſhillings on every hide of land, to marry his daughters.—Anno Dom. 1104, he exacted a prodigious ſum of money of this kingdom, and the land lay under grievous and exorbitant oppreſſions, the diſcord being revived between him and his brother Robert, earl of Normandy.—He alſo ſeizes the archbiſhopric of Canterbury into his own hands, and left 100,000l. at his death, beſides plate and jewels.—The charter this prince granted the nation upon his acceſſion to the crown, is one of the moſt remarkable particulars of his reign, during which England enjoyed a prodigious plenty of all things: for a ſhilling, at this time, might be bought as much corn as would ſerve 100 men a day; and for a groat, which was alſo the price of a ſheep, as much hay and oats as 20 horſes could eat in the ſame time. This was owing to the ſcarcity of money.

The coined pennies of this prince, the firſt Henry, were like thoſe of his father and brother, to which, as the hiſtorians very particularly tell us, he added half-pennies alſo.

The manner of paying in and computing the king's money being ſhewn at the end of William Rufus's reign, it may not be amiſs briefly to ſhew here how the royal revenue was levied, and the manner of iſſuing it. (1.) As to the levying, the perſon principally intruſted was the ſheriff of each county, who, in thoſe days, was an officer of great authority; however, there were ſeveral other ſtated collectors and accountants, namely, the eſcheators, the farmers, (or cuſtodes of ſuch towns and burghs as were not within the ſheriff's receipt) the cuſtodes cambii, or cuſtomers, the keepers of the wardrobe, and, in general, all perſons who held bailiwicks from the king, or received any of his treaſure or revenue by impreſt, or otherwiſe, were obliged to render an account thereof, and, in ſucceeding times, the collectors of tallages, diſmes, quinzimes, &c.

But, in caſe theſe officers could not inforce the king's debtors to make payment, the ſheriff was armed with ſufficient power to do it. The moſt ancient proceſs made uſe of was the ſummon of the Exchequer, which iſſued twice a year into all the counties of England, and was returnable againſt the times of holding the Duo ſcaccaria, namely, the Scaccarium Paſchæ, or Exchequer of Eaſter, and the Scaccarium St Michaelis, or Exchequer of Michaelmas, which were the general terms for the ſheriffs and other accountants, to pay in their farms or rents, and other iſſues of their bailiwicks. This was the ordinary proceſs; but, upon urgent occaſions, the king ſometimes iſſued ſpecial writs to the ſheriff, and others concerned in collecting the revenue, commanding them to levy debts, &c. with all ſpeed.

(2.) As to the manner of iſſuing the king's money: this was done ſeveral ways. Whilſt the money remained in the hands of the ſheriffs, farmers, or others, it was uſual for the king, his chief juſtices, great officers of his court, treaſurer, or barons of the Exchequer, to order them by writ to make proviſions and payments out of the money in their hands. This writ was ſometimes called the ſheriff's warrant; for, upon producing it, he had allowance made to him de tanto upon his account. Sometimes the king's money was iſſued by way of preſt, or impreſt, either out of the receipt of Exchequer, the wardrobe, or other the king's treaſuries. Impreſt ſeems to have been of the nature of a concreditum, or accommodatum, and when a man had money impreſſed to him, he became accountable to the crown for the ſame. In the 5th year of king Stephen, an account was rendered at the Exchequer of certain monies impreſſed to the accountant, when the empreſs came into England. Mag. Rot. 5 Steph.

According to ancient uſage, the king's treaſure was to be iſſued, by virtue of a writ or mandate, under the great and privy ſeal, and directed ſometimes to the juſtices and barons of the Exchequer, but commonly to the treaſurers and chamberlain of the receipt; and the writ was founded upon a bill or certificate from the Exchequer, or Wardrobe, or other matter of record. But the uſual writ for iſſuing of the king's money out of the Exchequer was the Liberate (ſo called from that word uſed in it) directed to the treaſurer and chamberlain. This writ was of two ſorts: a liberate for paying a ſum hac vice only, and a liberate current, or dormant, for paying in continuance, or more than once. The reader may ſee inſtances of theſe things in Madox's Hiſtory of the Exchequer, ch. 6, 10.

King Stephen

Impoſes no regular taxes, but raiſes all monies by plundering and robbing.—Seizes on all his predeceſſor's, king Henry's,

treaſure.—Raiſes Danegeld, contrary to his ſolemn promiſe, and ſeizes on the treaſures left by the biſhop of Saliſbury.

REMARKS.

The whole time that Stephen held the crown was one continued ſcene of blood and devaſtation; the government being quite unhinged, and all brought into confuſion, the ſword decided all controverſies, and taxes in general were raiſed by lawleſs oppreſſion.

I. Having ſhewn, in the former reigns, how the money was paid in, and iſſued out of the Exchequer, it may not be amiſs now to repreſent the particular branches of the royal revenue, namely, 1. The demeſns of the crown. 2. Eſcheats. 3. Feudal and other profits, ariſing out of the demeſns and eſcheats. 4. The yearly ſerms of counties and towns. 5. Fines and amerciaments. 6. Aids, ſcutages, tallages and cuſtoms. 7. Caſual profits of divers kinds.

Theſe particulars give great light to ſeveral parts of the Engliſh hiſtory. Firſt, of the ancient demeſn of the crown, it appears, at the time of the Conqueſt, and afterwards, the demeſn lands were conſiderable for extent and income. Doomſday-Book ſhews what they were in the reign of Edward the Confeſſor, and ſerves to diſtinguiſh the king's demeſns from his eſcheats, and other lands, and from the lands of other men.

II. The ſecond branch of the revenue aroſe by eſcheats, under which term are comprehended not only thoſe lands moſt properly ſo called, but thoſe alſo which at ſundry times after the Conqueſt became veſted in the crown, either by devolution, forfeiture, ſeizure, or, perhaps, by ſome other title.

By the revenue-rolls of the Pipe of the reigns of Stephen and Henry II. (which, next to Doomſday, are the moſt ancient rolls of records now extant) and likewiſe by thoſe of the next ſucceeding kings, we find the crown then in poſſeſſion of ſeveral great honours, baronies, and lands, of that ſort which are uſually ſtiled honor, baronia, or terra of ſuch a one, with the addition ſometimes of Quæ eſt in manu regis, without expreſſing by what title they became veſted in the crown. Theſe great eſcheats were anciently committed uſually by the king to certain perſons in ferm, or cuſtody, who anſwered at the Exchequer yearly for the iſſues, or ferm thereof. Beſides the ſe greater fees, the lands of lower perſons, and ſometimes of hereditary offices and ſerjeantries, with the lands appertaining thereto, became forfeited to the crown.

As the king had the full dominion in all theſe eſcheats, after they had been long veſted in the crown, they were hardly to be diſtinguiſhed from the king's ancient demeſn. About the latter end of king Henry the Second's reign, they began to form an eſcheatry, which, in ſubſequent times, was managed by officers called at firſt cuſtodes eſcaetriæ, and afterwards eſcators: however ſome of the ſmaller eſcheats were uſually holden by the ſheriffs. When eſcheats came to the crown, the juſtices itinerant took care, within their ſeveral circuits, to have them ſeized to the crown, and put in charge to the ſheriffs, and other officers, to the king's profit.

III. Some revenues likewiſe accrued to the crown from vacant biſhoprics, and abbies of royal foundation and patronage: for in ancient times, when ſuch biſhop or abbot happened to die, the king uſed to ſeize the temporalities into his hands, and receive the profits till the vacancy was filled.

King Henry II.

Lays a tax called eſcuage, or ſcutage.—Impoſes ſcutage again, in the 5th year of his reign, and again in the 7th inſtant.—Obliges the Jews to pay a tallage or donum.—Lays twopence in the pound upon all arable lands and wines; as alſo upon goods, houſes, and employments, one year.—Lays a penny in the pound for four years after.—Raiſes an aid for marrying his daughter, of one mark for each knight's fee throughout England.—Lays another ſcutage in his 18th year, and another in the 33d year.—Takes of the Jews a fourth part of their chattels, by way of tallage.—Levies a tenth throughout all his dominions.—Levies a tenth of all moveables in his 35th year.—Keeps the biſhopric of Lincoln vacant 17 years, and ſix others for a long time, as well as 12 abbies.—Keeps alſo the archbiſhopric of York vacant 10 years, and leaves behind him 900,000l.

REMARKS.

1. The two firſt branches of the royal revenue being ſpoken of already, namely the demeſns of the crown and eſcheats, the third branch is the feudal, and other profits ariſing from thence, as reliefs; upon the death of his anceſtor, every heir that held his lands by barony, or knights ſervice, was obliged to pay a ſum of money to the king, on his taking poſſeſſion of the inheritance. Theſe reliefs were at firſt uncertain, till Magna Charta, when an earl paid an hundred pounds, a baron one hundred marks, a knight, for one fee, five pounds.

Here it muſt be obſerved, that ſome baronies were much larger than others, and ſo of the knights fees. This difference aroſe from the reſpective charters of the ſeoffment; for, if the king enfeoffed a man of forty knights fees, to hold by barony, or ten knights fees, to hold by barony, the tenure was barony in each caſe. So, alſo, if the king enfeoffed a man of twenty carues of land, to hold by the ſervice of one knight, or forty carues, to hold by the ſervice of one knight, the ſeoffee had, in each caſe, one knight's fee. For this reaſon, at certain times, a diſtinction was made between the baronies and fees of the old, and thoſe of the new feoffment, the old being commonly larger than thoſe of the new; notwithſtanding this difference, the relief of the barony, or fee, whether it was greater or leſſer, was the ſame. But when two baronies came to be veſted in one man, he was charged with a relief for each.

IV. Another feudal profit was wardſhip and marriage. During the nonage of the heirs of the king's tenants in capite, the king could diſpoſe of the cuſtody and marriage of them to whom he pleaſed, which raiſed him a great revenue.

A fourth branch of the revenue, was the yearly ſerms of the counties. From the reign of king William I. the king uſed to let out the ſeveral counties, upon a yearly ferm or rent, or commit them to cuſtody. The fermer, or committee, was uſually ſtiled ſheriff. Moſt, if not all the counties, as appears by the revenue-rolls, were thus lett at ferm in king Stephen's reign. When a county was lett for more than formerly, the improvement was called crementum, the increment; which was ſometimes anſwered in palfreys, hawks, &c. 2. The yearly ſerms of the towns, burghs, and gilds. It is to be remembered, that from the time of the Conqueſt, the cities and towns were inveſted either in the crown, or the clergy, or the baronage. Some of theſe towns the king was poſſeſſed of, as part of the original inheritance of the crown, others by antient eſcheat, juſt as his other lands. When the king was ſeized of a city or town in demeſn, he was lord of the ſoil, viz. of all the land within the ſite and precinct thereof, of all the burgage-houſes, ſheds, ſtalls, and buildings, herbage, profits of fairs and markets, plea and perquiſites of courts; in a word, of all iſſues, profits, and appurtenances, of the city or town, of any kind, that was not alienated by himſelf or anceſtors. For ſometimes the crown thought fit to grant ſome part, or profit, to a private perſon or monaſtery.

Such a city or town was commonly ſtiled civitas regis, villa regis, burgus regis; and the men homines or burgenſes regis. The yearly profit made by the king of his cities and towns, was paid him ſeveral ways. The iſſues of ſome were included in the general ſerms of the county where they lay, and were anſwered by the ſheriff. Sometimes the king committed them to fermers, or cuſtodes, diſtinct from the ſheriffs. In a word, ſometimes the king lett his town to the townſmen, at ferm for years, or in fee-ferm, that is, perpetual ferm for ever: ſince feodum, fee, was uſed in England, to ſignify a perpetual eſtate, it has been uſed to denote perpetuity in office and in rent. Thus inheritable offices have been rendered offices in fee.

When a town was put to fee-ferm, the tenure was burgage, particular burgage, tenements lying in the town, as well as the town itſelf, were ſaid to be ſo holden. In proceſs of time, moſt of the towns and burghs came to be lett to the reſpective townſmen or burgeſſes, at fee-ferm.

To the ſerms of the towns, may be referred the ſerms or yearly payments to the crown, by the gilds and meſteres. The word gild ſignifies a company, ſociety, brotherhood, by which laſt name the religious gilds were called, that were founded for devotion and almſdeeds, as the ſecular gilds were chiefly for trade and almſdeeds. Theſe gilds could not be ſet up without the king's warrant. The gilds of goldſmiths, bochers, and others, were amerced in London to the crown as adulterine, in the reign of Henry II.

There was alſo in former times a ſecular gild, called gilda mercatoria, a merchant gild. From theſe gilds, perhaps, ſprung the practice of gildating or embodying whole towns. In time, the ſeveral gilds of goldſmiths, ſalters, &c. were ſtiled corporations, or companies. All theſe gilds paid a yearly ferm to the king. As for the meſteres, it is to be obſerved that this word has no relation to the word myſtery, as if there was, it is vulgarly ſaid, ſome myſtery in every trade. For though myſtery has been uſed for many years paſt for a craft, or occupation, the true derivation is from the Gallic miſtera, meſtera, or meſtier, ſignifying a trade. Thus we find in Edward III. the miſtere of taylors, armourers, and others. The other three remaining branches of the revenue, will be given in the ſucceeding reign.

The pennies of the ſecond Henry were the ſame in value as the foregoing, and they were alſo of different forms; ſuch a regularity in this particular, as afterwards took place, not being yet eſtabliſhed in the mints.

King Richard I.

Levies a land-tax, in order for his expedition to the Holy Land.—Raiſes money by fining ſeverely thoſe who were convicted of corruption.—Sells the whole county of Durham to the biſhop for an immenſe ſum.—Takes 1000 marks of the ſame biſhop, to make him chief juſtice.—He raiſes a large

ſum

ſum of the citizens of London, which was the price of their liberties, which he granted them at that time.—He makes a new GREAT SEAL, and raiſes money by renewing of old grants.—Impoſes a tax of a fourth part of the revenues of all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, for one year; and likewiſe a fourth part of all their moveables, and 20s. of every knight's fee, beſides all the wools of the Ciſtercians, &c. and abundance of church plate.—He reaſſumes all his grants, and levies a tax of 2 l. on every hide of land.—Raiſes 5 s. on every hide of land.—Takes 2 s. on every carucate of land, and raiſes 1,100,000 marks by his chief-juſtice the archbiſhop of Canterbury, in two years.

REMARKS.

This ſum of 1,100,000 marks is the only poſitive ſum we hear of raiſed in this king's reign, all the others being no where expreſſed. The 1,100,000 marks, amount to 753,333 l. for the two years, that is, 376,666 l. per ann. a ſum then thought very grievous.

The next great branch of the revenue was, V. Fines, oblatas, and amerciaments of many kinds, in civil and criminal caſes, and for the foreſts. It is ſurpriſing to ſee, how numerous the fines and amerciaments, appearing upon the revenue-rolls of the antient times, were. As to fines for the profit, it ſuffices to obſerve, that by the revenue-rolls of Henry II. and Richard I. and king John, an ancient revenue was raiſed, by treſpaſſes, defaults, purpreſtures, &c.

As to the fines in civil and criminal caſes, they may be reduced to theſe three general heads; fines for liberties, fines in law proceedings, and fines of a mixed nature. But firſt, it may be obſerved, after a fine was preferred and accepted, if the party could not have the thing for which he was fined, he was then acquitted of the fine, in ſuch like words, Sed non debet inde ſummoneri quia non habuit rectum nec habere potuit. However, a ſmall fine was ſometimes paid for ſuch acquital. When the party obtained the thing for which he fined, he was wont to have the king's charter made to him. If the party fining failed in payment of his fine, he could not have his charter for the thing deſired.

When a fine was preferred and refuſed, if the party offered an addition, it was called crementum finis. 1. As for fines of the firſt ſort, for grants and confirmations of liberties, franchiſes, and exemptions, there are numberleſs inſtances on the revenue-rolls. 2. The fines in law proceedings were likewiſe very numerous, and brought in a very conſiderable revenue. The ſeveral inſtances may be reduced to theſe heads: fines to have juſtice and right, fines for writs, pleas, trials, and judgments; fines for expedition, or ſpeeding their right; fines for ſtopping, or delay of pleas, trials and judgments.

Sometimes the parties litigant preferred the crown a certain portion out of the debts which they recovered. Moderate fines for having juſtice were conſtantly paid, as well after the great charter as before. 3. Fines of a mixed nature. Many were made to hold or quit certain offices or bailiwicks, for divers licences, eſpecially to marry, &c. Many fines were laid relating to trade or merchandize. Hither refer the fines and diſmes, paid by merchants upon ſeveral occaſions, of which hereafter. Beſides fines for licences, there were others of divers kinds: as for the concord of a duel, for opening a mine, &c.—There were alſo fines for the king's favour, and to remit his diſpleaſure.—For his protection and aid.—To obtain his mediation in his ſubjects affairs.—To have ſeizin or reſtitution of their lands or chattels, and that they might not be diſſeized.—That men might be diſcharged out of priſon, or bailed to the cuſtody of lawful men.—For acquitals in divers caſes.—Concurrent fines were when the parties fined to obtain the ſame thing: counter fines, when they fined, the one for a thing, the other againſt it.—For reſpite of knighthood.

And, as it was uſual to ſet amerciaments for not taking knighthood after ſummons, ſo the king often ſeized the lands of military tenants for the ſame reaſon.—The revenue ariſing from miſericordia's or amerciaments, which in ancient times are ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from fines. It is likely, however, there was ſome difference between them. For inſtance, it was called an amerciament, after it was reduced to a certain ſum, and a miſericordia, both before and afterwards. When a miſericordia was reduced to a certain ſum, it was ſaid to be admeaſured or affeered, e. g. Warnius de quedic debet C. Marcas de miſericordia, ſed poſtea ammenſuratus fuit per juſticiarum et baronos ad LX marcas. Mag. Rot. 9 Joh.

By Magna Charta, earls and barons are not to be amerced, unleſs by their peers, and according to their treſpaſs. It was frequent for ſome perſons to be amerced for the defaults of others.—When general amerciaments were ſet upon hundreds, towns, &c. for murders, or the like, ſo much thereof as was charged upon lands, within the ſaid hundred, &c. which the king held in demeſn, was charged of courſe. Lands holden by the queen, and by ſeveral barons and lords of ſeigneuries, were free from common amerciament. Barons of the Exchequer were exempt here from fees for their lands and tenants. Eccleſiaſtical fees were likewiſe exempt from the ſame, and other perſons by virtue of charters. Divers lords of ſeigneuries were, by charter, entitled to have to their own uſe the amerciaments ariſing within their ſeigneury. However, the lords were to claim the ſame at the Exchequer, which is frequently done to this day. See Madox's Hiſtory of the Exchequer, &c.

The next great branch of the revenue was, VI. Aid; ſeutages tallages, and cuſtoms. In former times the payments to the king were called by the names of danegelt, aid, donum, ſcutage, tallage, &c. and in ſucceeding times, ſubſidy, quinzieme, vintiſme, &c. ſeveral of the former then continuing in uſe.—There were three ſorts of aids due to the crown of common right, or by reaſon of ſeigneury.—Aid to make the king's eldeſt ſon a knight, to marry his eldeſt daughter, and to ranſom his perſon when taken in war. Theſe aids were rendered by all perſons, who held of the king in capite.—All the king's tenants were to pay aid, whether they held of the king immediately, by barony, or knight's ſervice, or by ſerjeantry, with knight's ſervice annexed; and by perſons who held of the king immediately, either by rent ſervice, ſocage, or other ſervice, that was not military, whether they lived on the lands that were ancient demeſn, or on honours and lands eſcheated to the king, and on lands of his wardſhips and purchaſes. King William I. took 6s. of each hide through England, king Henry I. 3s. as aid pur fille marier. But, for want of requiſite notices concerning theſe aids, nothing diſtinctly can be learnt of their produce.

The firſt that gives any inſight into theſe matters, is an aid levied by Henry II. for marriage of his daughter Maud, to the duke of Saxony, namely one mark per fee. It was paid by the ſeveral barons and knights, holding in capite, according to the number of their reſpective fees. For the due levying this aid, the barons and tenants in capite were commanded to certify to the king what fees they had, how many of the old, and how many of the new feoffment, and of whom the ſame were holden.—The fees of the new feoffment were ſmall, and paid by 12s. per fee, when thoſe of the old paid 20s. Several eccleſiaſtical perſons, beſides the aid for their fees rendered a farther ſum, under the terms de promiſſione ſuâ. Madox obſerves the ſame was paid alſo by laics, and therefore thinks, when paid by them it was a donum; and when by eccleſiaſtics, donum prelatorum. The vacant biſhoprics and abbeys of royal foundation rendered aid, being reckoned among the eſcheats. It was alſo paid by the towns and manors, or lands, which the king held in demeſn, and was aſſeſſed by the juſtices itinerant, or with their approbation.

King Richard I. levied an aid for the ranſom of his perſon. It was paid by the tenants in capite, under the name of ſcutage, at the rate of 20s. per fee. Another part of this aid was anſwered at the Exchequer, by the name of hidage, or an aid charged on lands holden by other ſervice, than that of the ſhield. The carucage paid for the ſame ranſom, is alſo called an aid. Henry III. had an aid to make his ſon a knight, 40 s. of every knight's fee. This aid was paid by tenants in capite, and to the king's tenants in capite, by ſuch as ſo held of them, by knight's ſervice. When tenants in capite paid aid to the king, he granted that they might receive aid pro rata of their tenants in capite.—The aid to make a ſon a knight, or for marrying a daughter, was not demandable from lands held either in frankalmoigne or ſocage. Beſides theſe three noted aids, there were others. In the 5th of Stephen an aid was paid to the crown by the burghs and towns. This ſeems to have been a yearly payment. An aid of the like kind was rendered at this time alſo, as it ſeems, by the counties, aſſeſſed by the juſtices itinerant. Richard I. took 5 s. out of every carue, or hide of land, through all England. In proceſs of time the word aid came to be uſed in a large indefinite ſenſe, and there came into uſe a new word, ſubſidium, which was rarely uſed in the more ancient times. A ſubſidy was granted to Edward II. for his war with Scotland. It is called a donum. The city of London paid 2000 marks. Beſides the general aids, or thoſe extending through the whole kingdom, there were certain ones impoſed upon the demeſns, eſcheats, &c. of particular counties and places, for certain purpoſes relating thereto. An aid by way of hidage, was laid on Devon and Cornwall, for the ſiege of the iſle of William de Mariſco. Inferior lords of ſeigneuries had their tenants, the three notable aids, to make his ſon a knight, marry his eldeſt daughter, and to ranſom his perſon. They had alſo of their tenants other occaſional aids, as to enable them to pay their relief for ſeizin, or other fine, and alſo to pay their debts. This was done by the king's letters patent, directed to the tenants. But theſe were only letters of requeſt. For it is provided by king John's charter, that the king ſhould not, for the future, grant leave to take an aid of his freemen, ſave in the three caſes above-mentioned.

As king Richard I. reigned almoſt ten years, it can hardly be doubted but he muſt have coined ſome money in that time, and that it was of the ſame ſort and value as that of his predeceſſors, and of his immediate ſucceſſor. It is reaſonable alſo to think, that the king's long abſence out of England, his expedition to the Holy Land, his captivity, and the large

ſums

ſums paid abroad for his ranſom *, together with his wars in France after his releaſe, muſt have occaſioned great ſcarcity of money at home, and ſmall coinages during all the time of his reign.

* King Richard's ranſom to the emperor, was ſettled at 150,000 marks of ſilver, after the Colonia weight; and of theſe 100,000, being all he could then get raiſed, were carried over by the queen-mother in perſon, and at once paid down before he could obtain his liberty. An immenſe ſum for that age, amounting to no leſs than 194,000l. ſterling of our preſent ſilver money.

King John

Takes a ſeventh part of the moveables of all his ſubjects.—Raiſes two marks and a half on every knight's fee.—Seizes on all the temporalities of the clergy.—Tortures the Jews in order to extort money from them.—Takes an eſcuage of two marks per fee.—Has an aid from the prelates.—Fines the city of London in 1000l.—Lays a tallage upon the Jews of Briſtol.—And lays new exactions upon the people every year of his reign, but three.

REMARKS.

Having ſpoken under the preceding reign, of the revenue ariſing from Aids, we proceed to ſcutages and tallages. Eſcuage, or ſcutage, was a ſervice ariſing out of baronies and knights fees. It denoted the ſervice of the ſhield, and was rendered for every knight's fee, the ſervice of one knight; for every half fee, the ſervice of half a knight; and ſo in proportion. Baronies were charged after the like manner, according to the number of knights fees whereby the barony, by its original enfeoffment, did conſiſt. This ſervice of ſcutage was performed either perſonally in the king's army, or by pecuniary commutation.—Theſe eſcuages, pro exercitu, were wont to be paid by the king's tenants in capite, by knights ſervice.—A man might hold of the king in capite, either by barony or by knights ſervice, or by ſerjeantry, ſocage, or fee-farm; conſequently, it is a miſtake made by ſome great men, that a baron and a tenant in capite was all one: for though every baron, properly ſo called, was a tenant in capite, yet every tenant in capite (there being ſome of half, or quarter, or a tenth part of a knight's fee) was not a baron. The firſt ſcutage, ſays Alexander de Swereford, was aſſeſſed 2 Henry II, for the army of Wales, 20 ſhillings for each knight's fee, and only upon thoſe prelates who were bound to military ſervice.—The ſecond ſcutage, ſays he, was for the ſame, 5 Henry II, but aſſeſſed not only upon the prelates, but others, according to the number of their fees: this ſcutage is intitled de dono. He obſerves, that the donum of the prelates makes a ſum anſwerable to the number of fees held of the king in capite, and therefore a real ſcutage: this was two marks per fee.—In the 18th of Henry II, the eſcuage of Ireland came to be put in charge. To this ſeveral are charged under this title, as the eſcuage of knights who did not go into Ireland, nor ſend any knights or money.

As eſcuage was rendered for fees holden of the king in capite by knights ſervice, ut de corona, ſo it was rendered for fees holden of honours, and eſcheats, which were in the king's hands, and for fees holden of the lands purchaſed by the king, and for fees holden of the king's wards: for the tenants holding of the king's wardſhips and eſcheats, were immediate tenants of the king, whilſt they reſted in him. It is to be underſtood, that in general, eſcuage was paid according to the ſum that was aſſeſſed; ſuppoſe at the rate of one, two, or three marks for each fee. Yet it was ſomething doubtful of how many knights fees a man or his anceſtors were enfeoffed, conſequently, what ſum he was to pay for eſcuage.—This frequently happened in the caſe of eccleſiaſtical perſons, by reaſon of the antiquity of their endowments, ſo that the form of their enfeoffment could not be eaſily known in ſucceeding times, and becauſe it was many times doubtful whether they held ſome of their lands by barony and military ſervice, or in frankalmoigne.—In the caſe of other perſons, ſome honours or baronies conſiſted of more knights fees than others did, and ſome fees were larger than others; inſomuch that it was doubtful, whether a man held by barony, or knight's ſervice, whether by the ſervice of one knight's fee, or of more, or of how many knights fees.—On the other hand, ſome knights fees were remarkably ſmall; ſuch were the fees of the honour of Moreton. As eſcuage was paid out of knights fees, ſo there were alſo ſome ſerjeantries paid the ſame. Eſcuage-money was in lieu of perſonal ſervice: but perſonal ſervice was required more ſtrictly, if not ſolely of the tenants holding by knights ſervice in capite ut de corona.

If the barons and knights holding in capite did not go in perſon with the king in his army, they ſometimes ſent knights in their ſtead, and ſometimes made fine with the king. As the lord who held of the king in capite by knights ſervice, paid eſcuage for his knight's fee, ſo the ſervants of ſuch lord who held the ſame fees by knights ſervice, paid eſcuage to their lord, according to the quantity of their tenure. The tenant paid eſcuage to their lord, to enable him to pay eſcuage to the king, or reimburſe him when he paid it.

Having thus given a general idea of eſcuage, we ſhall briefly ſpeak of Danegeld, which was different from either aid, eſcuage, or tallage. It was firſt ſet on foot in the Anglo-Saxon times: however, it continued many years after the Conqueſt. In the reign of Henry I, in the year 1114, it was paid throughout the kingdom. In Stephen's reign it was accounted for in every county, as if it were a ſettled yearly revenue, which, however, is matter of doubt.—The famous author of the Dialogue concerning the Exchequer, ſeems to have thought it a yearly revenue before, but not after the Conqueſt. It may be traced by the rolls to the reign of Henry II, though it does not appear to be paid in the latter part of his reign, nor in thoſe of Richard I. and John.

Tallage and cuſtom we ſhall deſcribe in the ſucceeding reign.

Pennies, half-pennies, and farthings, were coined by king John in Ireland, where it ſhould ſeem his principal mint was.

King Henry III.

Levies 15 ſcutages, and innumerable other taxes.—Takes a fifteenth of all moveables.—Levies a ſcutage of three marks per fee on all baronies, and a fourth of all moveables.—Seizes the treaſure of his late chief-juſtice Hubert.—Levies a thirtieth of all moveables.—Raiſes 20,000 marks of the Jews at one time, and another heavy ranſom ſoon afterwards; inſomuch that, to omit others, Aaron of York alone paid 4 marks of gold, and 4000 marks of ſilver. The king received the gold of every Jew, whether man or woman, with his own hand; the ſilver was received by others.—He alſo extorted gifts from the abbots and priors, in ſuch manner, that, if what they offered did not pleaſe him, he rejected it, and they were obliged to enhance their offering, rather than incur his diſpleaſure.—Anno Dom. 1244, the lords ſpiritual and temporal (for no mention is yet found of any commons) granted to the king, for marrying of his eldeſt daughter, 20 ſhillings ſcutage of all that hold of the king in capite.—Extorts by his own authority, from the Londoners, 15,000 marks.—Fines all that had incroached upon his foreſts.—Again compels the Londoners to pay 1000 marks tallage, and demands further new years gifts of all the wealthy citizens.—He fines Walter Clifford 1000 marks.—He compels the Londoners again to pay 1000 marks.—The clergy grant the king a tenth of all the church revenues for 13 years, for his journey to the Holy Land.—They again grant him 42,000 marks.—He arbitrarily fines the citizens of London.—Impoſes tallages on the Jews, the one of 20,000, another of 60,000 marks, raiſes an aid for maintaining his eldeſt daughter.—Receives divers ſums for their knights fees, of ſeveral biſhops.—Has a vintiſme granted him.—Has an aid to marry his ſiſter.—Likewiſe another to make his ſon a knight.—Levies a ſcutage of two marks upon each knight's fee.—Has two ſhillings on every carucate in England.—Levies a tax of the fifteenth of all moveables and chattels.—Levies the ſame again the enſuing year.—Again extorts from the Jews a third of all they have.—Compels the Jews again to ranſom themſelves at 20,000 marks.—Takes a tenth of all the church revenues for three years.—Takes away forcibly the money depoſited at Durham.—The Londoners again compelled to purchaſe their peace, at the price of 20,000 marks.—A thirtieth penny levied through all England, for the prince's expedition to the Holy Land.

REMARKS.

There were two ſorts of tallage, one paid to the king, the other to a ſubordinate lord. That raiſed to the king was on his demeſns, eſcheats, and wardſhips, and on the burghs and towns of the realm. When it was paid out of knights fees, it was ſcutage; when by towns and burghs, tallage; when out of lands not of military tenure, it ſignified hidage. So that the general word donum ſignified, according as it was applied, either aid, ſcutage, or tallage.

Tallage was called aſſiſſa, as well as donum, the former ſignifying, among other things, an aſſeſſment. Thoſe manors were properly talliable to the king which he had of his own hands. Hence tallages are ſtiled, commonly, Tallagies maneriorum & terrarum regis quæ tunc erant in manu ejus, Tallagi à dominicorum, and the like. Under the terms Quæ erant in manu ejus, were comprehended the king's eſcheats and wardſhips, the king holding them tanquam in dominico. In fact, the king's eſcheats and wardſhips were wont to be tallaged, when tallage was aſſeſſed upon his demeſns. Some ſerjeantries, alſo, of an inferior kind, and ſuch as had no military ſervice annexed to them, were wont to be tallaged with the king's demeſns; but the king's ſerjeantries were not to be tallaged without a ſpecial precept. Thoſe who were not the king's immediate tenants were tallageable, not to the king, but to their immediate lord. When a town was tallaged, the ſame was raiſed upon the men of the town who belonged to the gild, and made merchandize in the town. If the king granted away a demeſn manor or town (that was wont to be tallaged) una cum tallagiis hominum, then ſuch manor or town became tallageable to the grantee.

To the head of tallage (or to that of aid) may be referred the none, diſme, quinzime, vintiſme, trentiſme; which were ſo

called from the quantity or proportion of the payment, as their names import. The form of taxes, and levying the nones, &c. with the oaths taken by the taxers, and the commiſſions of the collectors, are to be ſeen upon the revenue-rolls. In theſecaſes, the goods of the chief taxers were to be taxed by the treaſurer and barons of the Exchequer, and the robes and ſociates of the citizens and burgeſſes were not uſually taxed with their other goods and moveables. Tallage was wont to be aſſeſſed upon the men of the demeſns and towns, ſometimes in groſs, in communi; ſometimes by poll, per capita, or per ſingulos; at other times partly one of thoſe ways, and partly the other. If the aſſeſſors of tallage overrated any man, he uſed to obtain a writ formed upon his caſe, directed to the barons of the Exchequer, who, by virtue thereof, would relieve him, according to equity. Sometimes men were admitted to compound for the tallage impoſed on them, by a fine to the king. As the king had tallage of his demeſn-men, ſo ſome ſubordinate lords had tallage of theirs. Theſe latter tallages were moſt ſeigneurial. — As the king had divers ways of raiſing money upon his demeſn-men, ſo inferior lords dealt with their demeſn-men after the like manner.

We proceed to the revenue ariſing by cuſtoms.—It was anciently called conſuetudo & cuſtuma: the former ſignified regal, epiſcopal, and other eccleſiaſtical dues, or payments, and exactions of many kinds. There was a cuſtom or duty paid to the king for wines, called priſa, and recta priſa: the proportion was one dolium before the maſt, and another behind it. Priſe, indeed, ſometimes ſignified captures taken in war, ſometimes for purveyance, impoſt, or capture of other kinds. In ancient times, the duty for wines called priſa, was received for the king's uſe by divers officers. Beſides the cuſtom paid the king for wines, there were other duties payable to him by merchants, or traders, for their merchandizes imported or exported, and for commodities conveyed along the river Thames. The duties paid by merchants were anciently called diſme, quinzime, &c. the duty paid for trafficking along the Thames, at leaſt one ſort of that duty, was called avalagium Thamiſiæ. In the 6th of king John, William de Wroteham, and others, accounted for the quinzime of merchants at the ſeveral ports of England, except Len. The quinzime of London was 836 l. &c. of Boſton, 780 l. &c. of Len, 651 l. &c. of Southampton, 712 l. &c. Avalage was a ſort of toll. To theſe may be added, the duties paid to the king's chamberlain of London, for his uſe, the duties ariſing at Billingſgate, and by tonnage, &c. The 9th of Henry III, Andrew Buckeral and John Travers had Ripa Reginæ, or Queen-Hithe, in ferm, at 40 l. per annum. In proceſs of time, the king's cuſtoms came to be generally called cuſtuma. The 26th of Edward I, there was payable to the king for cuſtoms, for every ſack of wool exported from Len, half a mark, for every 300 pelles lanutæ half a mark, and for every laſt of leather one mark. Cuſtomers were appointed for Len, and other parts, as Newcaſtle, Kingſton upon Hull, Briſtol, London, &c. If merchants defrauded the king of his cuſtoms, they forfeited their goods uncuſtomed.—The VIIth branch of the royal revenue was the caſual revenue, which accrued to the king ſeveral ways: of this ſort were treaſure-trove, waif, wreck, chattels of fugitives and felons, of outlaws, uſurers, recreants, perſons executed, &c. The king had, in ſome caſes, the lands of perſons condemned, for a year and a day after condemnation. If felons died after the fact, and before conviction, his chattels were not, by the common law, forfeited to the king. By the ancient revenue-rolls it appears, that, in thoſe times, many branches of the king's revenue were charged with alms for pious uſes; to which may be added the decimæ conſtitutæ. Theſe the accountant conſtantly paid out of the revenue. Divers orders of monks had theſe yearly alms, or decimæ. Several penſions alſo were wont to be paid to certain of the king's ſervants, when diſabled by age or ſickneſs, viz. a penny, three halfpence, two pence a day.

When perſons made fine to the king, they paid to the queen, beſides, a duty called aurum reginæ, which her majeſty ſometimes reſpited, or diſcharged the debt, at pleaſure: for every 100 marks paid the king, the queen had one more of gold.

Having thus touched upon the ſeveral branches of the royal revenue, we ſhall conclude this reign with a ſuccinct account of the exchequer of the Jews. The king of England was wont to draw a conſiderable revenue from theſe people reſiding in this realm, by tallage, and fines relating to law-proceedings, by amerciaments for miſdemeanors, and by fines, ranſoms, compoſitions, which they were forced to pay for the king's protection, for licence to trade, for diſcharges, for impriſonment, and the like. He would tallage the whole body at pleaſure, and compel them to anſwer the tallage for one another. The king ſeemed to be abſolute lord of their eſtates and effects, of their perſons, their wives and children. They were a numerous body (being ſettled chiefly in the great towns of the realm) and by traffic, uſury, and mortgages, they became very wealthy, both in money and land; but, as they fleeced the ſubjects, ſo the king fleeced them. The place appointed for the management of the revenue of Judaiſm, was a part of the great Exchequer, where they had their records, wherein the writs and proceedings of the Judaiſm were entered; and ſummonſes were iſſued out of the exchequer of the Jews for the king's debts, like as out of the great Exchequer. There was alſo a wardrobe of the Judaiſm, near the exchequer of the Jews. Certain perſons were aſſigned to be curators of this revenue, who were uſually ſtiled cuſtodes & juſticiari Judæorum. The Jewiſh charters, as thoſe of other men, were called chartæ and chirographa; ſome of which were a kind of releaſes, others obligations to the Jews by others. The chirographers were, in ancient times, commonly Chriſtians and Jews, acting together, though afterwards Chriſtians only, and were planted in towns where there was a conſiderable number of Jews, as at London, Oxford, &c. If a charter made to a Jew was loſt, or could not be found in the cheſt at the Exchequer, it was uſual for the Jew to whom it was made, when he was ſatisfied the money was due upon it, to make an acknowlegement in the Exchequer, by way of releaſe to the party. The having one part of the Jewiſh chirographs depoſited in the king's treaſury, was chiefly to prevent the falſity of the Jews, and to enable the king to recover the eſtates and credits of the Jews, and to get them into his coffers, whenever they ſhould become, as they often did, forfeited, or devolute to the crown.

By the aſſize of the Judaiſm, the Jews might have a moiety of the lands, rents, and chattels of their Chriſtian creditors in execution, 'till they were ſatisfied for the debt due to them. The Jews paid relief for their lands and for their chattels. A Jew's wife might have dower, or thirds, out of her huſband's credits and chattels. In the 37th of Henry III. it was provided, that no Jews ſhould remain in England without doing the king ſome ſervice: that there ſhould be no ſchool for Jews in England, except in places where ſuch ſchools were wont to be in king John's reign: that every Jew ſhould be anſwerable to the rector of his pariſh for all parochial dues chargeable on his houſe: that no Chriſtian ſhould ſuckle the child of a Jew, nor any Chriſtian man or woman ſerve any Jew or Jeweſs, nor eat with them, or abide in their houſe: that no Jew ſhould have ſecret familiarity with a Chriſtian woman, nor any Chriſtian man with a Jeweſs: that no Jew or Jeweſs ſhould eat or buy fiſh in Lent: that every Jew ſhould wear a badge upon his breaſt: that no Jew ſhould enter into any church or chapel, unleſs in paſſing to and fro: that no Jew ſhould hinder another, who was willing to turn Chriſtian: and that no Jew ſhould be ſuffered to abide in any town without the king's licence, except in ſuch where Jews were formerly wont to reſide.—Theſe articles were to be obſerved by the Jews, under pain of forfeiting their goods. Clauſe 77 Hen. III. m. 18.

Though the exchequer of the Jews was, to ſome purpoſes, diſtinct from the great Exchequer, yet both the exchequer of the Jews, and the acts and proceedings of the juſtices and chirographers of the Jews, were ſubject to the controul of the chief juſticiary, and treaſurer and baron of the Exchequer. The debts due from Chriſtians to Jews were ſubject to ſuch orders as the king thought fit to make. Sometimes the king would grant reſpite for the payment of ſuch debts, and ſometimes would diſcharge the debts thereof. In general, the king was wont to uſe the Jews with great ſeverity when refractory, and ſhewed them favour when obedient.

King John, in the ſecond year of his reign, granted a charter of liberties to the Jews of England and Normandy, which the curious reader may ſee in Madox's Hiſtory of the Exchequer, page 74. Henry III, for the ſupport of ſuch Jews as embraced the Chriſtian religion, and were deſtitute of livelihood, founded a houſe at London, called Domus Convenorum, and endowed it with a competent revenue.

Although the Jews were permitted to ſettle in ſeveral populous towns, they were not welcome to the inhabitants. In the year 1290 (18 Edward I.) the growing or renewing revenue of Judaiſm, and the exchequer of the Jews, ceaſed, the Jews being, about that time, expelled out of England; but, by their expulſion, many eſcheats, both of lands and chattels, came into the king's hands.

King Edward I.

Edward, Henry IIId's ſon, ſucceeding to the crown, impoſed the firſt year a tallage per capita, appointing commiſſioners to ſee it levied.—The next he took a tenth from the clergy, exiling all uſurers, under confiſcation of goods, and corporal impriſonment. —Of the Jews he levied for tallage 5000 marks, the year ſucceeding.—In the fourth year he taxed his ſubjects at one fifteenth, and the Jews at 5 d. per head a tallage.—A tallage through Wales he aſſeſſed the ſixth year, and 40 s. ſcutage the next. Communia 7 Edward I, 40 s. he took of every knight's fee.—On the Jews he again impoſed 12,000 marks for redemption of their uſury.—The next year he ſearched all the religious houſes, and took to his uſe the money and plate.—The lords by themſelves, without the commons, aſſeſſed for the king, the 18th year, ſuch a levy as king Henry III. raiſed for marriage of his daughter.—In the 12th the king charges the clergy with a tenth, for ſix

ſucceeding years.—The abbies are again ſearched in the 22d, and the lands of the priors aliens ſeized into the king's hands. —The nobility grant him the fifteenth penny.—The Jews are obliged to pay yearly 3d. poll-money.—A tenth is granted throughout England, for the relief of the Holy Land.—He forces Lewellyn, prince of Wales, to buy his peace at 50,000l. in ſilver, and 1000 marks a year.—Takes 40s. upon each fee ſcutage.—Quits all claim to Normandy for 30 Pariſian livres a year, &c.—A fifteenth of ſpiritual goods are granted to him by the clergy.—He takes up money by way of loan, for his war againſt the Welch.—He takes 50 marks for each knight's ſervice.—Has the thirtieth penny granted by the people, upon all moveables, horſes, armour, treaſure, and apparel excepted.—Seizes on the treaſure granted for relief of the Holy Land.—Takes 40s. ſcutage upon every knight's fee.—Impriſons all the Jews 'till they pay him 12,000l. Seizes on all the money depoſited in monaſteries.—Has an aid granted him for his wars in Gaſcony.—Has a tenth of all ſpiritual profits granted for one year.—The fifteenth penny granted for expelling the Jews.—A fifteenth of all goods granted for the relief of the Holy Land.—The tenth of all the temporals of religious perſons granted by the pope.—The fifteenth of all temporals and ſpirituals granted.—Cauſes all the money in monaſteries to be brought to London, &c. —Seizes into his hands all religious houſes that were ſubordinate to foreign chapters.—Compels all the Engliſh prelates to pay him half of their ſpiritualities and temporalities.—The laity grant him a tenth of all their goods.—The biſhop of Bath and Wells obliged to buy his peace, by paying 2000l. —Receives the ſeventh penny of his boroughs and demeſns, for carrying on his wars.—The common ſort of the laity grant him the twelfth penny of their eſtates, and the burgeſſes the ſeventh penny.—The clergy refuſe him any aid, on pretence of an order from the pope to the contrary.—He ſeizes the temporalities of the clergy.—They grant him a tenth of their ſpiritualities and temporalities the next year. Has the fifteenth penny granted by the laity, for ſealing Magna Charta.—Has the thirtieth penny granted by the clergy and laity.—Has a ſubſidy of a twentieth granted to him. —Has a thirtieth granted by the laity, and a twentieth by the clergy.—Baniſhes the Jews, and ſeizes their effects.—Receives the ninth penny of the people, the tenth of the clergy of the province of Canterbury, and the fifth of thoſe of York, for confirming MAGNA CHARTA and CHARTA FORESTA.—Receives divers advantages from certain ſilver mines found in Devonſhire.

REMARKS.

The reader is to obſerve, that the hiſtory of the royal revenue under the foregoing reigns is all matter of fact, taken from the revenue-rolls, and other records, and confirmed by Mr Madox, in his Hiſtory of the Exchequer, and other good authorities.

The Exchequer was a court greatly concerned in the conſervation of the prerogatives, as well as of the revenue of the crown. The authority and dignity of this court was eſteemed ſo great, that the acts thereof were not to be examined or controuled in any other of the king's ordinary courts of juſtice. The Exchequer was a great repoſitory of the king's records. Edward I. is ſuppoſed to be the firſt of our kings that perfectly fixed the ſtandard of our coin. In the third year of his reign, the matter was thus ordered by Gregory Rockley, then mayor of London, and mint-maſter, That in a pound of money there ſhould be 11 two-pence farthings, pure leaf-ſilver, and only ſeventeen pence half-penny farthing allay; and this pound was to weigh 20 ſhillings and three-pence in account, each ounce two-pence, and every penny 24 grains and a half.

In 28 Edward I. an indented trial-piece, of the goodneſs of old ſterling, was lodged in the Exchequer; and every pound weight Troy of ſuch ſilver was to be ſhorn at 20 ſhillings and three-pence; according to which, the value of the ſilver in the coin was one ſhilling and eight-pence farthing an ounce. The king ſent for foreign mint-maſters, in the 18th year of his reign, to inform him of the manner of making and forging money. For the coining this money, the mint-maſters had 30 furnaces in London, eight at Canterbury (beſides three the archbiſhop had there) 12 at Briſtol, 12 at York, and more in other great towns; in all which places the ſame hammered money of ſilver, ſupplied by the king's changers, who, according to certain rites preſcribed them, took in the clipped, rounded, and counterfeited monies, to be recoined, and bought gold and ſilver of the merchants, to be fabricated into new monies; at the ſame time it was ordained, 'Quod 'proclametur per totum regnum quod nulla fiat tonſura de 'nova moneta ſub periculo vitæ & membrorum, & amiſſi-'onis omnium terrarum & tenementorum, &c.'

This hammered money continued through all the reigns of ſucceeding kings and queens, 'till about the year 1663. There are no indentures with the mint-maſters, by which one can certainly judge of the proportion of the fineneſs and alloy, to be obſerved in the fabrication of the monies 'till the reign of Edward III, as will be ſeen hereafter.

The pennies, half-pennies, and farthings of Edward the 1ſt are pretty common.—In his 7th year he made a great reformation in the money, and ſeveral new regulations, as we have ſeen, for the better trying and preſerving of his coin. It was now made more uniform than it had been, the names of the ſeveral monies were omitted, and only the name of the town or city where coined, preſerved on the reverſe.—In his 28th year, as obſerved, an indented trial-piece, of the goodneſs of the old ſtandard, was lodged in the Exchequer; and every pound weight of the Tower of ſuch ſilver was then to be ſhorn at 20 ſhillings and three-pence; whereby the weight of the penny was to be ſomewhat leſs than 22 Troy grains and a quarter, and 240 ſuch pennies of full weight, making 20 ſhillings, or a pound ſterling in tale, were to contain as much ſilver as, in our preſent coin, is of the value of 57 s. 5 d. nearly. See a table of Engliſh ſilver coins, by Martin Folkes, Eſq; 1745.

KING EDWARD II.

Has two ſubſidies granted him.—Impoſes two ſhillings over and above the ancient cuſtom.—Has a tenth granted him by the pope of church revenues for one year.—Has a great ſubſidy granted him by the temporality, and 5 d. in the mark of the clergy of the province of Canterbury, and 4d. of thoſe of York.

REMARKS.

The further account of the buſineſs of the Exchequer may be diſpoſed under three general heads: 1. Affairs of the revenue. 2. Cauſes. 3. Buſineſs of various kinds. Under the firſt of theſe may be included fines impoſed of divers kinds, and amerciaments. It was the buſineſs of the treaſurer and barons to ſpeed the levying and getting in the king's debts, and manage the crown revenue to the beſt advantage.—Under the ſecond head we take in pleas and cauſes. After the ſeparation of the Common Pleas from the king's court, it was forbidden, by the great charter, and a ſubſequent ordinance, to hold common pleas in the Exchequer: yet ſome were, and the king gave leave ſometimes for particular perſons to bring their ſuits there; in which the king granted preference to one perſon, that he ſhould be paid, in the adjudication, before other creditors. Under the third head, of buſineſs of various kinds, may be placed conventions and recognitions made in the Exchequer, and the admiſſion of officers. See Madox for theſe particulars.

We come now to the accounts of the Exchequer. As the ſheriffs were the moſt conſiderable accountants to the crown, the method of accounts at the Exchequer may be beſt learned from them. The ſheriffs generally accounted from Michaelmas to Michaelmas. Edward I. ordered, that the ſheriffs ſhould be eſcheators in their reſpective counties; the ſtated accounts were rendered regularly in courſe every year. In general, accountants were obliged to come in perſon, to render their accounts; if by attorney, it was by the king's leave, and afterwards by warrant from the treaſurer, chancellor, or barons, or one of them. Accounts were rendered upon oath, or by their faith or allegiance. Where one was indebted to the king, and alſo to another perſon, the former was to be preferred in payment. No debtor to the crown could make a will, to diſpoſe of his chattels to the king's prejudice.—If doubtful whether the deceaſed's effects would ſatisfy the crown debt, the king ſeized the chattels.—If the debtor was unable to ſatisfy the debt, the king betook himſelf to thoſe who were indebted to his debtor. The heir of the king's debtor was not to be diſtrained for the debt, in caſe the chattels of the debtor were ſufficient to anſwer it.—The widow of the king's debtor was not to be diſtrained by her dower, to anſwer the debt, in caſe the heir could anſwer it: neither were ſureties to be diſtrained, ſo long as the principal debtor had wherewithal to anſwer the debt.—By ancient uſage the king's debtors, or accountants, were wont to have writs of aid to recover debts of ſuch as were indebted to them, to enable them to anſwer the king's debts.

If an accountant did not render his accounts, or in due manner, he was puniſhed by ſeizure of land, and amerciament, or committed to the Marſhal or Fleet Priſon, or the Tower of London.—When the Chancery was ſeparated from the Exchequer, and the charters, writs, and precepts of the great ſeal came to be entered by themſelves in the charter-rolls, patent-rolls, &c. about the beginning of king John's reign, then commenced the method of ſending eſtreats from the Chancery to the Exchequer. If theſe eſtreats were not brought in due time, writs were iſſued to the perſons or juſtices before whom they lay, to bring them in.

Tallies were of a great and conſtant uſe in the Exchequer: the word is French, and ſignifies cutting. Theſe tallies were pieces of wood, cut in correſpondency. A ſtick, or rod of hazel, or other wood, well ſeaſoned, was cut ſquare and uniform at each end; and in the ſhaft, the ſum of money which it bore was cut in notches in the wood, by the tally-cutter, and likewiſe written upon two ſides of it. The tally was cleft in the middle by the deputy chamberlains, thro' the ſhaft and the notches: a notch of ſuch a largeneſs ſignified

fied Ml. of another largeneſs Cl. &c. It being thus divided, one part of it was called a tally; the other a counter-tally, or a tally and a foil: however, theſe were in effect one tally, or two parts of one thing: and, if they were genuine, they fitted exactly: their uſe was to prevent fraud: they had a ſuperſcription for what purpoſe given.

Counters were ſometimes uſed at the Exchequer, in the way of computation: in which caſe they were laid in rows upon the ſeveral diſtinctures of the chequered cloth, viz. one row for pounds, another for ſhillings, &c.

The principal officers of the ſuperior Exchequer were, the two remembrancers, the engroſſers of the great roll, the uſher, the conſtable, the marſhal, the auditors, the clerks of the eſtreats. See Madox for a deſcription of their reſpective duties.—We ſhall conclude with a few inſtances only of the allowance made to ſeveral miniſters of the receipt of Exchequer for their liveries and corrodies, and other neceſſaries. In 9 Hen. III. the liveries of the miniſters of the Exchequer for fourſcore days, from the feaſt of St Michael, 'till Monday next after the feaſt of St Lucius, were: to three ſcribes, c *s.* to the two knights of the chamberlains, viii marks; to John de Windeſore, iiii *l.* to John the fuſor, or melter, ii marks and a half; to Simon Druel, ii marks and a half; to the four tellers, iiii *l.* to the vigil, and for light, x *s.* for a hutch to lay up the memoranda, vii *d.* for rods for the tallies, v *s.* for parchment for the uſe of the chamberlains, and the chief-juſtice's clerk, iiii *s.* for ink, during the whole year, iii *s.* for litter for the chamber of the barons, and houſe of receipt, xii *d.* for neceſſaries for the ſaid chambers, xx *d.* for ten dozen of hutches, xx *s.* for wax, ii *s.* for leather for the tallies, ix *d.* for a hutch to put the inquiſitions in, ii *d.* for the marſhal's hutch, xii *d.* for a ſack to put the allowed tallies in, xiiii *d.* for carrying and recarrying the hutches, v *s.* for a tonel to put in the d marks, ſent to the king at Oxford by R. biſhop of Chicheſter, xii *d.* for locks, bolts, and other ſmall expences, iiii *s.* Total, xxiv *l.* xiii *s.* viii *d.* Ex pelle receptæ de anno 9 Hen. III. Rot. ult. indorſo pen. Theſ. & Camer.

King Edward the IId's pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, were the ſame with thoſe of the king his father, and are not with certainty to be diſtinguiſhed from them. The common opinion, which gives thoſe pieces with EDW. to the firſt Edward, and all thoſe with EDWA. or EDWAR. to the ſecond, is at moſt but a probable conjecture; and ſhould it be allowed that all thoſe of the firſt ſort, which are by far the moſt plentiful, were really ſtruck by the firſt king of the name, who certainly coined a great deal more money than his ſon, we ſhould ſtill be at a loſs for arguments to prove, that he did not coin ſome of the others alſo: to which I ſhall only add, that I have ſeen ſome of theſe pennies of the laſt ſort, upon which the letters were braced into one another, much like thoſe on the pennies of king Henry III. and which therefore ſeem to have been minted but little after his time.

King Edward III.

Impoſes tallage through all his domains.—The people grant him the fifteenth penny, and the cities, boroughs, and clergy, one tenth.—Has 40 s. of Engliſh merchants for every ſack of wool, and 60 s. of ſtrangers.—Seizes on all the effects of the merchants of Lombardy, then in London.—The laity grant him one half of their wool.—The lords in parliament grant him the tenth ſheaf of corn of their demeſns, the tenth fleece of wool, and the tenth lamb for two years.—The commons give him 30,000 ſacks of wool.—The parliament grant him the ninth of all grain, of wool, and of lambs.—They again confirm the ſaid grant.—The clergy grant him a diſme for three years.—Two fifteenths given him, and 40 s. of every knight's fee.—The parliament grants three fifteenths, to be paid in three years.—Has the ſubſidy of wool granted for three years.—The ſame granted for ſix years, at 50 s. the ſack.—They grant 26 s. 8 d. for three years on every ſack of wool.—They grant 36 s. 8 d. for two years on every wool-pack.—They grant 43 s. 4 d. for three years, &c.—The king ſeizes the lands of religious aliens.—The clergy grant him 50,000 l. and the laity as much.—Has two fifteenths granted him.—The parliament again grant the ſubſidy of wool for three years.—The lords and commons grant him a poll-tax, of 4 d. per head for every one above 15, beggars excepted.—The king borrows great ſums of the clergy, and of every county in England.

REMARKS.

By a charter-mint to the abbot of Reading, it ſeems that there was not any greater piece of money coined, 'till after the 12th year of Edward III. than a penny. The firſt pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, of king Edward III. were the ſame as thoſe coined by his grandfather and his father; and we know of no alteration that he made in the coin, 'till his 18th year, when 22 s. 2 d. and his 20th year, when 22 s. 6 d. were ordered to be coined out of the pound Tower of old ſterling ſilver; by which laſt regulation the weight of the penny was brought down to 20 Troy grains, and the pound ſterling or 240 ſuch pence of full weight, contained as much ſilver as is now coined into 51 s. and 8 d.

In the 27th year of this king, were firſt coined groſſes or groats, running for four pence each, with half groſſes, and ſterlings or pennies, 75 of thoſe groſſes being coined out of the pound Tower: from whence the weight of the groſſe appears to have been 72 Troy grains; and the ſilver contained in 20 s. or in 60 ſuch groſſes of full weight, was the ſame in quantity, as what is now contained in 46 s. and 6 d. of our preſent money.

King Richard II.

Has two tenths granted him for one year.—Has a mark granted him on every ſack of wool for one year.—Has a ſubſidy granted him to be laid on the great men of the land, that the commons might be ſpared.—Has another ſubſidy granted him,—and another, which occaſions Wat Tyler's rebellion.—Has 2 s. granted him upon every ton of wine.—Has a ſubſidy granted him by the merchants.—Has a moiety of one fifteenth granted him by the temporality, and ſoon after a moiety of a tenth by the clergy.—Has another half of one fifteenth of the laity, and a half of one tenth of the clergy.—Has one tenth of the clergy, and one fifteenth of the laity.—The parliament gives him 40 s. on every ſack of wool.—One half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth, given to defray the charges of an embaſſy.—The king would borrow 100000 l. of the Londoners, but was refuſed.—Again half of one tenth and half of one fifteenth given to defray the charges of an embaſſy.—The clergy give the king one tenth conditionally.—The clergy again give a tenth, and the laity one fifteenth.—The king obtains half of one tenth of the clergy.—Borrows great ſums of the chief of the clergy, and the laity.—Two fifteenths and two tenths granted him.—A ſubſidy of wools and ſtaple were granted him.—Another ſubſidy granted him.—One fifteenth and a half granted out of cities, &c. and a diſme and a half within.—The ſubſidy of wools and ſtaple wares again granted conditionally.—One fifteenth and one tenth granted by the lords and commons.—The ſame granted by the laity.—Two fifteenths granted conditionally.—Half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth granted.—A ſubſidy of wool-ſkins, wool-fells, &c. granted.—Subſidies granted for three years conditionally.—A diſme, and half, and one fifteenth and a half, granted conditionally.—A ſubſidy granted for three years, with half a diſme, and half a fifteenth.—The lords and commons grant the king a ſubſidy of all ſtaple ware during life, with one diſme and a half, and one fifteenth and a half.

REMARKS.

In the 18th of Richard II. a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard was to make by tale 45 nobles, amounting to 15 l. or a proportionable number of half or quarter nobles: and a pound weight of ſilver of the old ſterling, to make by tale 75 groſſes or groats, amounting to 25 s. or 150 half groſſes, or two pence a-piece, or 300 ſterlings at a penny a-piece, or 600 half ſterlings: he coined groſſes, half groſſes, ſterlings, and half ſterlings, together with farthings alſo.

King Henry IV.

Receives an aid of the moiety of all fees, &c.—Receives ſubſidies for kerſies.—The lords and commons grant one diſme, and one fifteenth, &c.—A ſubſidy of wools, &c. granted for three years.—Two diſmes, and two fifteenths, &c. granted conditionally.—One diſme and one fifteenth, &c. granted conditionally.—One diſme and half, with one fifteenth, &c. granted conditionally.—The ſame ſubſidies granted again conditionally.—The king receives a tenth of the clergy.—He receives a ſubſidy of 20 s. on every knight's fee.—Exacts half a mark of every ſtipendiary prieſt and friar mendicant.—Impoſes tonnage and poundage every year of his reign but two.

REMARKS.

Henry the IVth coined groſſes, half groſſes, ſterlings, and half ſterlings, or mailes; the ſame as thoſe of his predeceſſor, as alſo farthings. By an act of parliament in his third year, it was ordered, 'That one third part of the money of 'ſilver that ſhould be brought to the bullion ſhould be made 'into halfpennies and farthings:' and by another act in his 13th year, it was directed, 'That by reaſon of the great 'ſcarcity of money at that time in the realm of England, 'the pound Tower might from the feaſt of Eaſter then next 'following be coined into 30 s. by tale.' By which regulation the weight of the groat was brought down to 60 Troy grains, and the pound ſterling, conſiſting of 60 ſuch groats, was to contain ſo much ſilver only, as in our preſent coined money is of the value of 38 s. and 9 d.

This new money being of the ſame weight as that of the two following reigns, is probably ſo blended amongſt it, as not to be now diſtinguiſhed: nor are we indeed certain, that we rightly know the coins of Henry V. and Henry VI. from each other.

Henry IV. by the indenture of his third year, contracted, That

That a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard was to make by tale 45 nobles, amounting to 15 l. or a proportionable number of half or quarter nobles: and a pound weight of ſilver of the old ſterling, to make by tale 75 groſſes, or groats, amounting to 25 s. or 150 half groſſes, going for two pence a-piece; or 300 ſterlings, going for pence a-piece; or 600 half ſterlings, or halfpence, called here mailes.

King Henry V.

Receives tonnage and poundage all his life.—Has a ſubſidy granted him.—Has two tenths granted by the clergy.—Has another tenth granted by the clergy, and a fifteenth by the laity.—Has ſix times whole tenths and fifteenths.—Has two tenths from the clergy, and one from the laity.—Pawns his jewels, even thoſe of the crown.

REMARKS.

King Henry V. and VI. coined groſſes, half groſſes, ſterlings, mailes, and farthings; the ſame as the laſt of king Henry IV. the groſſes weighing, as has been before ſaid, 60 Troy grains each.

In the 9th of Henry V. a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was to make by tale 50 nobles, or 100 half nobles, or 200 quarter nobles, amounting to 16 l. 13 s. and 14 d. in tale. And a pound weight of the ſame old ſtandard, was to make by tale, 90 groſſes or groats, or 180 half groats, or 360 ſterlings, or 720 mailes, or 1440 farthings, amounting to 30 s.

King Henry VI.

Receives a ſubſidy of ſtaple ware, with tonnage and poundage, &c.—He again receives tonnage and poundage.—Has one tenth and one fifteenth.—Again, he has one tenth and one fifteenth, and one third part of both.—Has half one tenth, and half of one fifteenth granted.—A ſubſidy of 6 d. in the pound on all lands and offices.—Alſo one tenth and one fifteenth and a half.—One tenth and a half of one fifteenth, excepting 2000 l. to certain poor towns; and the ſame excepting 6000 l. to relieve certain waſted towns.—A ſubſidy of wools granted, 33 s. 4 d. the ſack of denizens, and 53 s. 4 d. of aliens.—Half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth of the laity, &c.—A ſubſidy of 12 d. in the pound on all freeholds, copyholds, and offices, under 2000 l. and 2 s. for all above the ſum.—One tenth and one fifteenth, with tonnage and poundage, and a ſubſidy of wools, &c. during the king's life.

REMARKS.

In the firſt year of Henry VI. a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was coined into 45 rials of 10 s. or a proportionable number of half rials, and quarters, or farthing rials, at 5 s. and 2 s. 6 d. By the ſame indenture, inſtead of nobles and half nobles, were coined 67½ to the pound, angels, at 6 s. 8 d. or a proportionable number of angelets, at 3 s. 4 d. Conſequently, the pound Troy was coined into 22 l. 10 s. by tale.—By the indenture of the ſame firſt year of Henry VI. the ſilver money was of the old ſtandard, 112 groats to the pound, making in tale 37 s. 6 d. as a proportionable number of half groats, ſterlings, halfpence, and farthings.—They were moſt coined at London, but there were other mints at York, Briſtol, and Dunwich, Dublin, Canterbury, and at York, with the keys.—By indenture, the 4th of this reign, the value of gold was brought down again to 16 l. 13 s. 4 d. and the ſilver to 30 s.—By another indenture of the laſt year of this reign, it was raiſed again to 37 s. 6 d. and ſo continued for near 50 years.

King Edward IV.

Reſumes the grants of former kings.—Gains an immenſe ſum by attainders.—Has an aid of 3700 l. granted out of counties, cities, &c.—Has two tenths and two fifteenths from the laity, except 12,000 l.—Has another tenth and fifteenth, except 6000 l.—Has a tenth and one fifteenth, and 51,117 l. for the pay of archers, &c.—Has a tenth and one fifteenth of the laity, except 6000 l.---Has a yearly ſubſidy upon all ſtrangers, granted by parliament.---Has a benevolence of the clergy, and another of his people.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the 4th of Edward IV. a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was to make by tale 20 l. 16 s. 8 d. and a pound weight of ſilver old ſterling, was to make 37 s. 6 d. By other indentures of the 5th, 8th, 11th, 16th, and 22d of the ſame king, a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was to make 45 nobles, going for 10 s. a piece, or 90 half nobles, or 180 quarter nobles, or 67½ of the pieces impreſſed with angels, going for 6 s. 8 d. each, and conſequently was coined into 22 l. 10 s. by tale; and the ſilver monies were ſhorn at 37 s. 6 d. the pound weight Troy.

King Edward V.

Has no taxes raiſed in his name.

King Richard III.

Levies but one tax, which was a tenth, granted by the clergy of both provinces.

REMARKS.

That Richard III. coined money, appears by an indenture, whereby he contracts for the coinage both of gold and ſilver, of the ſame value and denomination with the money of the 5th of Edward IV.

King Henry VII.

Reſumes the grants of moſt offices made by Richard III.---Aſſeſſes one aid upon land.---Has the one tenth penny out of goods and lands.---Has three tenths and five fifteenths, beſides one tenth and one fifteenth, ariſing to 120,000 l.---Takes three ſubſidies, whereof the laſt was not above 36,000 l. and one benevolence, the proportion of every alderman being 300 l. and the entire ſum of the city of London 9688 l. 17 s. 4 d.---Has twice the tenth of the clergy, and 25,000 l. by way of ſubſidy, and of them and the commons two loans, the city of London rated at 6000 l. the other not definite in proportion, but ſo aſſeſſed as the commiſſioners and the lenders could agree.—Has two tenths and one fifteenth, and a ſubſidy.---Advances the tonnage to 3 s. and the poundage to 12 d.---Has a voluntary gift * of all his ſubjects in his 7th year, and impoſes an aid at the pope's requeſt.---Raiſes an immenſe ſum, by putting the penal † laws in execution.

* The way of free-gift, or benevolence, we have ſeen practiſed before, and particularly by king Edward IV; and though it appears, as it were, voluntary, yet it always carried with it ſome ſort of compulſion, either through fear of being ill looked upon, and the more ſeverely treated upon any occaſion that ſhould offer, or in hopes of finding favour in preſenſion; for fear and hope are the two prevailing inducements to do thoſe things, which otherwiſe we are not inclined to. Many at this time were very generous in ſupplying the crown at the expence of others, not out of any affection, or becauſe they thought it neceſſary, but becauſe they were, in ſome ſhape, well paid for oppreſſing their neighbours.

† Henry VII. being exceſſively avaritious, his adviſers, Empſom and Dudley, practiſed every art of oppreſſion of this kind to ſatiate his thirſt after money. It appeared that many penal laws and pecuniary ſtatutes, had long lain unregarded and diſuſed, and thought obſolete, though not repealed, and ſtill in the ſame force as they had ever been. When enquiry came to be made into the obſervation of ſuch laws, it appeared that there were very few conſiderable perſons but what had ſome way tranſgreſſed againſt them, and conſequently were liable to the fines and mulcts impoſed by them. When firſt this courſe was taken, it went on ſmooth enough, ſmall penalties being impoſed; which being legal and not too heavy, made little noiſe. Soon after the ſweets hereof appearing, thoſe offences were more narrowly looked into, and more grievouſly fined; by which means, together with the ſale of offices, and diſpenſing with the laws, he raiſed an immenſe ſum to the unſpeakable detriment of his ſubjects.

REMARKS.

King Henry VII. coined the ſame pieces, and of the ſame weight, as thoſe of Edward IV. and Richard III. He firſt placed upon his money the arched or imperial crown, with a globe and croſs on the arch, like that uſed by our princes at this day. This king did alſo, about the 18th and 19th year of his reign, make a great alteration in the form of his coin, upon which his head was now repreſented crowned, but in profile, and with a good reſemblance of his other pictures: whereas the heads of all our former kings had conſtantly been drawn in front upon their money, ever ſince the time of king John.

It appears, by an indenture of the 9th of Henry VII, that a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was coined into as many, and the ſame pieces, as in the 5th of Edward IV. The gold coins of Henry VII. were a ſovereign, half ſovereign, rial, half rial, and quarter rial, angel, and half-angel. His ſilver money was groats, half-groſſes, or two-penny pieces, pennies, halfpennies, and farthings.

King Henry VIII.

Takes, within the compaſs of 34 years, three tenths, four fifteenths, and ſix ſubſidies of the commons, whereof that anno 4 amounted to 160,000 l. and that in anno 7, to 110,000 l.—Tonnage he had, and poundage once for a year, and afterwards for term of life.—Of the clergy he takes ſeven tenths, four tenths by one grant, and three by ſeveral, every of them not leſs than 25,084 l.—Of ſubſidies, he had one of the province of Canterbury, another of both; the ſtipendiary miniſters thereto being taxed according to the rates of their wages.—Anno 22, they granted a moiety of all their goods and lands, payable by equal portions in five years, every part ariſing to 95,000 l.—Adds 150,000 l. a year to the revenues of the crown by the ruin of popiſh monaſteries and charities, &c.—Has divers benevolences and loans from the clergy and commons.—Demands a contribution from his

people, which he calls an annual grant.—He obtains a large revenue by the diſſolution of popiſh monaſteries, abbies, and the alienation of the church-lands, belonging to that ſyſtem of eccleſiaſtical tyranny and oppreſſion; which, 'till this period, made the princes as well as the people too ſubſervient to their dominion. This laid the foundation of Proteſtantiſm, and that liberty, which we at preſent enjoy in this kingdom, and which is the moſt invaluable of all terreſtrial bleſſings, if Britons are but wiſe enough not to abuſe ſo glorious a privilege, which myriads of the human ſpecies are deprived of, by the wiles and artifices of deſigning prieſts, who act in concert with the civil tyrants of the earth to enſlave mankind, and keep them in ignorance of their true ſpiritual as well as their temporal intereſts. The favourers of eccleſiaſtical dominion have thought this coſt the church too dear: but can any price be too great, for what is ineſtimable?

REMARKS.

The firſt ſilver coins of king Henry VIII. were groats and half groats, of the ſame weight and form as the laſt pieces of thoſe denominations coined by the king his father. By indenture of the 1ſt and 23d of Henry VIII. a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, was to be coined into 27l. by tale; viz. into 24 ſovereigns, at 22s. 6d. a-piece, or 48 rials at 11s. 3d. a-piece, or 72 angels at 7s. 6d. a piece, or 81 George nobles at 6s. 8d. a-piece, or 162 forty-penny pieces at 3s. 4d. a-piece; and a pound weight of gold, of the fineſt of 22 carats only, was to be coined into 100 crowns and a half of the double roſe, or 201 half-crowns, making by tale 25l. 2s. 6d.; and a pound weight of ſilver of the old ſterling, was coined into 135 groats, or 270 half-groats, or 540 ſterlings (or pence), or 1080 halfpence, or 2160 farthings; ſo that every pound weight of ſterling ſilver was coined into 45s. by tale.—In the 34th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 23 carats fine, and one carat allay, was coined into 28l. 16s. by tale; by which indenture there were coined ſovereigns at 20s. a-piece, half ſovereigns at 10s. angels at 8s. and quarter angels at 2s. a-piece; and a pound weight of ſilver of 10 ounces fine, and 2 ounces allay, was coined into 48s. by tale, viz. into teſtoons, which were 12d. a-piece, groats, half groats, pence, halfpence, and farthings.—In the 36th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, viz. into 30 ſovereigns at 20s. a-piece, or 60 half-ſovereigns at 10s. a-piece, or 120 crowns at 5s. or 240 half-crowns: and the king had 2 carats of fine gold for coinage, which yielded him 50s. Silver was coined by the ſame indenture 6 ounces fine and 6 ounces allay, into 48s. by tale. It was coined into teſtoons, groats, half groats, pence, halfpence, and farthings.—In the 37th of this reign, a pound weight of gold of 20 carats fine and 4 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, as in the laſt; and the king had 4 carats, which yielded him 5l. 2s. And a pound weight of ſilver, of 4 ounces fine and eight ounces allay, was coined into 48s. by tale; which raiſed the pound weight of fine gold to 36l. and the pound weight of fine ſilver to 7l. 4s.

The gold coins of Henry VIII. are ſovereigns, rials, half ſovereigns, angels, George nobles, half and quarter angels, 40-penny pieces, crowns, and half-crowns: and the ſilver coins, teſtoons, groats, half groats, ſterlings, halfpence, farthings; to which may be added crown pieces of ſilver, which were coined by this king.

KING EDWARD VI.

Has an aid granted by parliament of 12d. in the pound for three years, on the goods of his natural born ſubjects, and 2s. in the pound of ſtrangers.—Has 3d. granted on every ewe, and 2d. on every wether kept in paſtures, alſo 1d. on every ſheep on the common.—Has 8d. in the pound on all woollen cloth for three years.—Has a ſubſidy and two fifteenths.—Has tonnage and poundage for life.—Has ſix fifteenths of his lay ſubjects, and three ſubſidies of both clergy and laity.

REMARKS.

The tonnage and poundage ſaid above to have been given to this king for life, was thus: of every ton of wine 3s. Of every ton of ſweet wine 3s. over and above the aforeſaid 3s. that is in all 6s. Of every aulne of Rheniſh wine 12d. The poundage was 12d. in the pound of the value of all goods imported or exported; and 12d. in the pound over and above the aforeſaid 12d. to be paid by merchants aliens, for all tin and pewter by them exported: excepting out of this ſubſidy all manner of woollen cloth of Engliſh make to be exported, and all manner of wool, wool fells, and hides, and backs of leather exported, and all manner of wines, freſh fiſh, and cattle imported.

The ſubſidy from wool was 33s. 4d. of every ſack of wool, and for every 240 of wool-fells, 33s. 4d. and for every laſt of hides and backs 3l. 6s. 8d. For every ſack of wool exported by ſtrangers, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every 240 of wool-fells, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every laſt of hides and backs, 3l. 13s. 4d.

The ſubſidy granted by the clergy in the ſecond year of this king's reign, was of 6s. in the pound, according to the value of every ſpiritual promotion.

The relief granted by the laity in his third year, to continue for the ſpace of three years, was, of every perſon worth ten pounds or upwards, in money, goods, cattle, &c. 12d. in the pound. And of every alien worth 20s. and under 10l. 12d. for every pound.

Thus it appears, that this king, though he took as much as he could from churches of what his father had left, yet the kingdom ſaved nothing by it, the taxes being laid every year of his reign, and for his life.

By indentures of the 1ſt and 2d of Edward VI. a pound weight of gold of 20 carats fine and 4 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, out of which the king had a great profit; and a pound of ſilver, of four ounces fine and eight ounces allay, was coined into 48s. after which rate, every pound of fine ſilver made in current money 7l. 4s. and the king's profit on every pound weight was 4l. 4s.—In the 3d year of this king, a pound weight of gold 22 carats fine, and two carats allay, was to be coined into 34l. by tale, into ſovereigns 20s. a-piece, half ſovereigns at 10s. a piece, crowns at 5s. and half-crowns at 2s. 6d. a piece: and a pound weight of ſilver, ſix ounces fine and ſix ounces allay, was to be coined into 72s. which were to go for 12d. a-piece by tale; of which the merchant, for every pound weight of fine ſilver, received 3l. 4s. and the king above 4l. gain.—In the 4th year of this reign a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard, of 32 carats and 3 grains and a half fine, was coined into 28l. 16s. by tale, viz. into ſovereigns at 24s. a-piece, half ſovereigns at 12s. angels at 8s. and half angels at 4s. a-piece.—In the 5th of this reign, a pound weight of ſilver of 3 ounces fine, and 9 ounces allay, was coined into 72s. at 12 a-piece; and the merchant received, for every ounce of fine ſilver which he ſhould bring to the mint, 10s. of ſuch money; by which means, 12 ounces of fine ſilver was exorbitantly raiſed to 14l. 18s.—In the 6th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of the old ſtandard aforeſaid, was coined into 36l. by tale, viz. 24 ſovereigns at 30s. a-piece, 72 angels at 10s. a-piece, or 144 half angels: and a pound weight of crown gold of 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33l. by tale, viz. 33 ſovereigns at 20s. a-piece, or 66 half ſovereigns at 10s a-piece, or 132 crowns, or 264 half crowns: and a pound weight of ſilver, conſiſting of 11 ounces one pennyweight fine, and 19 pennyweights allay, was coined into 3l. by tale, viz. 12 crowns, or 24 half-crowns, or 60 ſhillings, or 120 ſixpences, or 240 three-pences, or 720 pence, or 1440 halfpence, or 2880 farthings.

In king Edward the VIth's journal, ſtill preſerved in the Cotton library, written with the king's own hand, and printed at large by biſhop Burnet in his Hiſtory of the Reformation, is the following paſſage. ‘1551, 6 Sept. Deliberation concerning the coin. Memorandum, that there were diverſe ſtandards, nine ounces fine, a few, eight ounces fine, as ill as four, becauſe, although that was fine, yet a ſhilling was reckoned for 2 ſhillings, 6 ounces, very many 4 ounces, many alſo 3 ounces, 130,000l. now of late.’ From which words I collect, that in this reign, beſides the monies of four ounces fine, 6 ounces fine, and 3 ounces fine, which are all that are mentioned in the indentures and commiſſions that we know of; there were alſo ſome others of 8 ounces and 9 ounces fine; and that in the monies of 8 ounces fine in particular, one ſhilling was of no more value than another only of four ounces fine, as being of only half the weight, though it was as fine again. Now as the ſhillings of four ounces fine were, by the table of the weight of 120 grains each, the others of 9 ounces fine and 8 ounces fine, and which were of the ſame value, muſt have weighed 53 grains and one third, and 60 grains reſpectively. If therefore, among the ſhillings we have of the firſt five years of this reign, there are really ſuch found as agree ſufficiently with theſe weights, we may reaſonably conclude, that ſuch ſhillings are of the ſtandards above mentioned, and that they are ſome of the above pieces to which the king alludes in the above-cited paſſage of his journal.

It was found by experience in this reign, that gold and ſilver had, by the common conſent of all people throughout the civilized parts of the world, acquired certain real and proper values: and that in ſuch a nation as this, not deſtitute even then of all commerce with ſtrangers, it was impoſſible that the arbitrary value ſet upon pieces of baſe metal could, for any conſiderable time, ſupply the want of the ſilver that uſed to be contained in the pieces of the ſame denominations.

Whatever names were given to theſe pieces of baſe metal, or by whatever authority their imaginary value was ſupported, the people would either not bring their proviſions at all to the markets to exchange them for ſuch money, or would there ſell them at much higher rates than before; as the nominal ſums they received for their goods would not now purchaſe them the ſame conveniencies elſewhere, as the ſame nominal ſums of better money had formerly done. It was therefore judged abſolutely neceſſary, to reform and amend the coin; the affair was very ſeriouſly conſidered, and the work was undertaken and carried on with ſo much diligence

and vigour, that within a few months a reformation of the money was brought about, truly memorable, and no leſs remarkable than the former abuſes of it had been: for the new pieces that were coined before the end of this year, 1551, were of more than four times the value of thoſe of the ſame denominations, that had been coined in the former months of the ſame.

It is obſervable from the king's journal, that on the 6th of May this year, 'the teſtoon was cried down from 12d. to '9d. &c.' And this ſeems to have been the firſt ſtep that was taken towards the amendment of the evil: by which I ſhould only underſtand, that it was that day reſolved to make ſuch a reduction in the value of preſent money, without either then carrying it into immediate effect, or even fixing the day when that intended reduction ſhould firſt take place. For we find that it was not 'till the 2d of July following, that 'there was a proclamation ſigned for ſhortening of the 'fall of the money to that day; in which it ſhould be pro-'claimed and deviſed, that it ſhould be in all places of the 'realm within one day proclaimed:' and accordingly we read, that there was, on the 9th of the ſame month, 'pro-'clamation made, that a teſtoon ſhould go at 9d. and a groat 'at 3d. in all places of the realm at once.' The ſame particular is alſo recorded by Mr Stowe in his Chronicle, who tells us, 'That on the 9th of July, the baſe monies coined 'in the time of king Henry VIII. and king Edward VI. 'were proclaimed, the ſhilling to go for 9d. the groat for '3d. which took effect immediately after the proclama-'tion made:' which cannot, however, be properly underſtood of all the baſe monies of king Henry VIII. but of thoſe only of his 37th year, and which were of the ſame value as thoſe of the firſt four years of king Edward VI.

Although this reduction of the coin was neceſſary, and that it proved in the end beneficial, yet were very many great ſufferers by it at the time. The people naturally looked upon it as the real loſs of a full fourth part of whatever caſh they had by them *; and, indeed, the price of things to be bought, could not immediately follow the new rate of the money. They were alſo greatly apprehenſive of the further changes that might ſtill be intended, and of the manner in which they might yet further be affected by ſuch changes: inmuch that upon their diſcontents it was thought neceſſary to have, on the 19th of the ſame month of July, 'another pro-'clamation made for puniſhment of them, that would blow 'rumours of abaſing and enhanſing of the coin, to make 'things dear withal.'

* Biſhop Fleetwood, in his Chronicon Precioſum, p. 57. obſerves, that he had then by him, 'an account of that time, 'wherein, by the firſt proclamation, dated July 9, a college 'loſt out of 118l. 6s. 11d. 29l. 11s. 8d. ob. q. And 'by the ſecond proclamation, dated Auguſt 17, immedi-'ately following, out of 45l. 3s. the college loſt 15l. 1s. 'which was a 4th and a 3d part of every one's caſh, in the 'ſpace of two months.'

There was, however, a further reduction of it within a month; for on the 17th of the following Auguſt, 'the teſtoon was 'cried down from 9d. to 6d. the groat from 3d. to 2d. 'the 2d. to 1d. the 1d. to an halfpenny, the halfpenny 'to a farthing:' and this ſecond reduction is alſo taken notice of by Mr Stowe in his Chronicle, where he ſays, that on the ſame 17th of Auguſt, 'the ſhilling which of late 'was called down to 9d. was called down to 6d. the groat 'to 2d. the half groat to one penny, the penny to one 'halfpenny.'

About this time alſo propoſals were made to the king and council concerning the new money to be from henceforward coined: and it ſeems to have been agreed on the 6th of September, that the new pieces ſhould be minted of ſilver ten ounces in the pound weight fine, which it was thought might then be done without any further great loſs, as the teſtoons were already reduced to the value of only ſix pennies each. For it was judged that a pound weight of teſtoons, 6 ounces in the pound fine, added to another pound weight of thoſe four ounces fine, would together furniſh a pound of bullion ten ounces fine: and again, that a pound weight of the teſtoons of 8 ounces fine, together with two ninth parts of a pound weight of thoſe of 9 ounces fine, and which were fewer in number than the others, would, in like manner, without further loſs, furniſh a pound of bullion alſo ten ounces fine. But it was further intended that the new pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, ſhould ſtill be coined of ſilver, only four ounces in the pound fine: and that, as it was apprehended, there would ariſe a conſiderable profit to the king; that profit would ſerve to pay the extraordinary charges of this recoinage, and to make good the loſs that might ariſe from the want of a ſufficient number of the teſtoons of nine ounces fine, as alſo the loſs upon ſuch of the coins, particularly upon many of thoſe of ſix ounces fine, as were ſuppoſed to have been really made baſer than their appointed ſtandards.

We learn alſo from the king's journal, that the lords of the council having had all the ſeveral ſorts of the baſe money aſſayed before them at London, on the 20th of the ſame September, the king himſelf being then at Windſor, they had found that the ſeveral ſorts of teſtoons, which were apprehended to have been coined baſer than even the ſeveral indentures and commiſſions allowed, were really better than was expected, and that they had ſeverally anſwered to their reſpective valuations: and that further, upon taking of the ſeveral pieces mixed together as they run, they had found that 400 pounds in tale, reckoning the teſtoon at ſix pennies, did truly contain as much ſilver as was ſufficient to coin 400l. in tale of new money, as heavy, or heavier, than the laſt, and of the goodneſs of 11 ounces fine in the pound weight *. 'Whereupon they reported the ſame to the king, on the '22d, and then it was concluded that the teſtoon ſhould be '11 ounces fine, the proportion of the pieces according to 'the gold; ſo that 5s. of ſilver ſhould be worth five of 'gold.'

* 'The lords at London having tried all ſorts of ſtamping, 'both of the fineneſs of 9, 8, 6, 4, and 3, proved that, 'without any loſs but ſufferable, the coin might be brought 'to 11 ounces fine: for whereas it was thought before that 'the teſtoon was, through ill officers and miniſters, cor-'rupted, it was tried that it had the valuation, juſt by 'eight ſundry kinds of melting; and 400l. of ſterling mo-'ney, a teſtoon being but 6d. made 400l. 11 ounces fine, 'of money ſterling.' King's Journal of the 20th of September, 1551.

On the 24th of the ſame month it was 'agreed, that the 'ſtamp of the ſhilling and the ſix-pence ſhould be, on one 'ſide, a king painted to the ſhoulder, in parliament robes, 'with the chain of the order. Five ſhillings of ſilver, and 'half five ſhillings, ſhould be a king on horſeback, armed 'with a naked ſword, held to his breaſt. As alſo, that the 'fine monies ſhould be coined at the mints in the Tower, 'and in Southwark; and the ſmall pieces of a baſer ſtandard, 'at Canterbury and York.'

On the 1ſt of the next month of October, 'The commiſſion 'for the making of five ſhillings., half five ſhillings, groats, 'and ſix-pences, 11 ounces fine; and pence, with half-'pence and farthings, four ounces fine, was followed and 'ſigned.' So far the king: and we further learn from Mr Stowe, that the pieces themſelves were accordingly publiſhed and proclaimed on the 30th of the ſame month. But by the indentures made immediately after with the maſters and workers of the ſeveral mints, it appears that theſe finer coins were really 11 oz. 1 dwt. fine, or only 1 dwt. worſe than the old ſtandard; and that the pound weight Troy of ſuch ſilver was then agreed to be cut into three pounds by tale, in crowns, or pieces of 5s. half-crowns, ſhillings, half-ſhillings, quarter-ſhillings, pennies, half-pennies, and farthings: according to which regulation, the crown-piece was to weigh an ounce Troy, and the ſhilling 96 grains: and the pound ſterling, conſiſting of four of theſe crowns, or 20 of theſe ſhillings, was to be intrinſically worth about 6d. $\frac{3}{4}$ more than 20s. of our preſent coin.

In this indenture, fine ſilver is valued at 5s. 5d. the ounce nearly; and whereas, in the gold coin directed by the ſame, fine gold is valued at 3l. the ounce, it follows that what was then thought the true proportion of the value of gold to that of ſilver, was the proportion of 11 to 1. See GOLD.

QUEEN MARY

Has tonnage and poundage for life.—[The ſubſidy of tonnage was thus: of every ton of wine coming, or that ſhall or is come into this your realm by way of merchandize, the ſum of 3s. and ſo after that rate. And of every ton of ſweet wine, as well Malmeſy as other, 3s. over and above the 3s. afore-granted; and of every aulne of Rheniſh wine, 12d. The other ſubſidy, called poundage, was of all manner of goods and merchandizes of every merchant, denizen, and alien carried out of the realm, or brought into the ſame, by way of merchandize, of the value of every 20s. of the ſame goods and merchandizes, 12d. and of every 20s. in value of tin, and pewter veſſels, carried out of the realm by any and every merchant alien, 12d. over and above the 12d. aforeſaid.] ☞ Out of this act of ſubſidy is excepted all woollen cloth made in England, and all wool, wool-fells, and hides and backs of leather, carried out, and all wines, and freſh fiſh and beſtial, coming into the realm.—At the ſame time was granted another ſubſidy, of all manner of wool, wool-fells, and leather, carried out of the realm; that is, of every merchant denizen, for every ſack of wool, 33s. 4d. and for every 240 wool-fells, 33s. 4d. and for every laſt of hides and backs, of every merchant denizen, 3l. 4s. 8d. and alſo of every merchant ſtranger, as well as thoſe already made denizens, or that ſhall be made denizens, for every ſack of wool, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every 240 wool-fells 3l. 6s. 8d. and alſo for every laſt of hides and backs, 3l. 13s. 4d.—She has alſo a ſubſidy of 6s. in the pound granted by the clergy, in conſideration of what ſhe had given up to the church before. ☞ The univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge were exempted from this ſubſidy.—Has 8d. in the pound granted by the temporalities, with certain exceptions.—Has a ſubſidy of 8s. in the pound, granted by the clergy

clergy of the province of Canterbury, to be levied in four years, that is, at 2s. in the pound every year.—Has 1-fifteenth granted by the temporalities.—Has a ſubſidy granted of 2 s. 8 d. in the pound, on every perſon ſpiritual and temporal, worth 5 l. and 5 s. 4 d. of every alien.—She has likewiſe 4 s. in the pound on the lands and real effects of natives, and 8 s. of aliens.—This bigoted, cruel, and vindictive queen, attempted to undo all that had been done towards the Reformation.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the firſt of Queen Mary, a pound weight of gold, of the old ſtandard, was coined into 36 l. and a pound weight of ſilver, 11 ounces fine, was coined into 3 l. by tale. The gold coins of this queen are, ſovereigns, at 30 s. half-ſovereigns, at 15 s. angels, at 10 s. and half-angels, at 5 s. a piece.

QUEEN ELIZABETH

Has likewiſe the firſt-fruits and tenths inveſted in the crown.—Has 2 s. 8 d. in the pound granted by parliament on moveable goods, and 4 s. on land.—Seizes on ſeveral religious houſes.—Has tonnage and poundage granted for life.—Has a ſubſidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Has 6 s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has a ſubſidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Has a ſubſidy of 4 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Has 1 ſubſidy, 1 fifteenth, and 1 tenth, from the temporality.—Has a ſubſidy of 6 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Has two-fifteenths, and 1 tenth, and a ſubſidy, from the temporality.—Has 6 s. in the pound from the ſpirituality.—Has three-fifteenths and tenths, and one ſubſidy, from the temporality.—Has 6 s. 8 d. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has another ſubſidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Another ſubſidy of 6 s. in the pound from the temporality.—Two ſubſidies of 6 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Two ſubſidies and four-fifteenths from the temporality.—A tax laid on every pariſh, for the relief of ſick, wounded, and maimed ſoldiers.—Has two ſubſidies of 4 s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has three ſubſidies, ſix-fifteenths and tenths from the temporality.—Another tax for the relief of ſoldiers and mariners.—Three ſubſidies granted by the clergy. Three ſubſidies, and ſix-fifteenths and tenths, granted by the temporality.—Another tax for the relief of the poor.—Four ſubſidies of 4 s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Four intire ſubſidies, eight-fifteenths and tenths, by the temporality.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the 2d of Elizabeth, a pound weight of gold, of the old ſtandard of 23 carats 3 grains and a half fine, was coined into 36 l. by tale: namely, into 24 ſovereigns, at 30 s. a piece, or 48 rials, at 15 s. or 72 angels, at 10 s. a piece, or 144 half-angels, at 5 s. a piece. And a pound weight of crown gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33 l. by tale: namely, 33 ſovereigns, at 20 s. a piece, or 60 half-ſovereigns, at 10 s. a piece, or 132 crowns, at 5 s. a piece, or 264 half-crowns. And a pound weight of the old ſterling ſilver, viz. 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. allay, was coined into 3 l. by tale, of half-ſhillings, groats, quarter-ſhillings, half-groats, three-half-penny pieces, pence, and farthings.—In the 19th of her reign, a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard was coined into 72 angels, at 10 s. a piece, 144 half-angels at 5 s. a piece, or 288 quarter-angels, amounting in tale to 36 l. And a pound of old ſterling ſilver into half-ſhillings, three-pences, three-half-penny, or three-farthing pieces, to make 3 l. by tale.—And in the 25th, into 60 s. or into 3 l. by tale.—In the 26th, a pound Troy of old ſtandard gold was coined into 48 nobles, at 15 s. a piece, or 24 double-nobles, at 30 s. a piece, making 36 l.—In the 35th year of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33 ſovereigns, at 20 s. a piece, or 66 half-ſovereigns, or 132 crowns, or 264 half-crowns, making 33 l. by tale.—In the 43d, the pound weight of old ſtandard gold was coined into 73 angels, at 10 s. a piece, or 146 half-angels, or 292 quarter-angels, making 36 l. 10 s. in tale; and the pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, into 33 ſovereigns and an half, at 20 s. a piece, or 67 half-ſovereigns, or 134 crowns, or 268 half-crowns, making 33 l. 10 s. in tale; and the pound weight of old ſtandard ſilver into 3 l. 2 s. by tale; viz. into crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, two-pences, pence, and half-pence.

The corruptions which the laſt year of Henry VIII. had brought into the Engliſh money, were not quite rooted out 'till queen Elizabeth's reign; but her firſt buſineſs was to mark all the beſt pieces either with a greyhound, portcullis, lion, harp, roſe, or fleur-de-lis. Her gold coins, as appears from the foregoing indentures, were ſovereigns, half-ſovereigns, or rials, nobles, double-nobles, angels, half-angels, pieces of an angel and a half, and three angels, crowns, and half-crowns.

An account of all the monies of gold and ſilver coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, with the true value thereof in current money.

	l.	s.	d
Coined in ſterling ſilver money in the mint in the tower of London, from the year 1558 to the year 1572, in the time of Tho. Stanley and T. Fleetwood, under-treaſurers, in weight 549,644 lb. 18 dwts. making, at 3 l. the pound weight	1,648,932	2	6
More from 1572 to 1581, in the time of John Loniſor, maſter and worker, in weight 255,338 lb. 2 oz. 8 dwts. 7 grs. making, at the ſame rate -	766,014	12	0¾
More from 1581 to 1601, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, maſter and worker, in weight 670,331 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwts. making, at the ſame rate -	2,010,993	12	6
More from Septem. 1601, to 31 March, 1603, in the time of the ſame maſters, in weight 63,890 lb. 7 oz. making, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight - -	198,060	16	2
Coined in March 3 Eliz. in Iriſh monies, of 11 oz. fine, in weight 2977 lb. making, at 3 l. the pound weight -	8,931	0	0
The whole ſum of ſterling ſilver coined in the queen's time, was in weight 1,542,181 lb. 8 dwts. 7 grs. making, in money - - - -	4,632,932	3	2¾
Coined in baſe Iriſh money, in March 1 Eliz. of 3 oz. fine ſilver, and 9 oz. of allay, in weight 19,828 lb. worth, in ſterling money - - -	15,541	10	3¼
More of the like baſe money, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, in weight 89,844 lb. 10 oz. 15 dwts. worth, in ſterling money - - -	70,105	9	2½
So that the whole value of the ſilver money coined in the queen's time, amounted to - - - - -	4,718,579	2	8½
Coined in fine gold money, in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 12,201 lb. 8 oz. 22 gr. which made in current money, at the rate of 36 l. the pound weight	439,260	2	9
More from 1601 to 1603, in weight 35 lb. 4 oz. 17 dwts. 8 grs. which made in current money, at 36 l. 10 s. the pound weight - - -	1,292	6	0¾
The ſum total of all the fine gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 12,237 lb. 18 dwts. 6 grs. and made in current money - - -	440,552	8	9¾
Coined in crown-gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 10,086 lb. 3 oz. 18 dwts. 17 grs. which made in current money, at 33 l. the pound weight	332,848	16	5½
More from 1601 to 1603, in weight 643 lb. 10 oz. 8 dwts. 21 grs. which made in current money, at 33 l. 10 s. the pound weight - - -	21,737	3	1½
The ſum total of all the crown-gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 10,730 lb. 2 oz. 7 dwts. 14 grs. and made in current money - -	354,585	19	7
And the true value of all the gold and ſilver money coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, amounted to - -	5,513,717	11	1¼

REMARKS.

Queen Elizabeth is celebrated by our hiſtorians for the reſtoring of the old ſtandard of the coin in her ſilver monies, and no leſs for the aboliſhing and recoining of the baſe monies minted in the times of her father and brother; in which, however, ſhe can only be ſaid, with truth, to have given the laſt finiſhing to a work already brought near its perfection: for king Edward, as we have obſerved, had reduced the baſe money nearly to the intrinſic value, and coined down the greateſt part of it, into money very little inferior in goodneſs, and not at all inferior in weight, to any that has been minted ſince.

We ſhall here give an account of this matter in the words of the old chronicle of Raphael Hollinſhed, with whom Stowe and Camden perfectly agree.

'The queen's majeſty, by advice of her moſt honourable 'council, meaning to aboliſh all corrupt, baſe, and copper 'monies then current in the realm of England, coined in the 'times and reigns of king Henry VIII. and king Edward VI. 'to the great hindrance and decay of the commonwealth of 'this realm, and therewith to reſtore to all her ſubjects fine 'and pure ſterling monies, both of gold and ſilver, to the

'great

'great honour and benefit of the whole realm, publiſhed a 'proclamation on Michaelmas even before noon, that the 'teſtoon, coined for twelve-pence, ſhould new forthwith, 'that of the beſt ſort marked with a port-cullis, be current 'for four-pence half-penny; the ſecond, marked with the 'grey-hound, for two-pence farthing; the third and worſt 'ſort, not marked as afore, not to be current at all, nor re-'ceived for any value: the groat to be current for two-pence, 'the former piece of two-pence for a penny, &c. It was not 'long after this, but that her grace reſtoring to her ſubjects 'fine ſterling money, called all the ſaid baſe and corrupt coins 'into her majeſty's mint, allowing to them therefore, after 'the rate before mentioned, ſo much of the ſaid fine monies 'as they brought in of the ſaid baſe monies.'

The following proclamation alſo ſhews what care was taken of the coin in this reign.

A proclamation iſſued at Richmond, the 12th of October, 29 Eliz. intitled, A proclamation for reforming the deceits in diminiſhing the value of the coins of gold current within the queen's Majeſty's dominions, and for remedying the loſſes that might grow by receiving thereof, being diminiſhed. The former part of which ran as followeth:

'Foraſmuch as great part of our monies of gold of our realm 'of England, and ſuch gold of foreign countries which now 'are current within our ſaid realm, are, by the ſiniſter and 'unlawful doings of wicked perſons, not only carried out of 'our realm to foreign parts, and there, by divers means, di-'miniſhed of their value, and from thence returned hither, 'and paid, in lieu of lawful coin, for the commodities of our 'countries, and ſome other of them embaſed, by clipping, 'ſouthering, or other unlawful practices, of their due fine-'neſs, ſo that both the one ſort and the other, by the means 'aforeſaid, are brought much inferior to their firſt and true 'value and goodneſs: but beſides that, many falſe pieces lie 'counterfeited in foreign parts, of the ſaid coins, whereby 'great and intolerable loſs and diminution of the riches of our 'realm doth daily grow and increaſe: wherefore we minding, 'as neceſſity requireth, the ſpeedy remedy of the premiſſes, 'do ſtraightly forbid, charge, and command, that no man-'ner of perſon or perſons within this our realm of England, 'from and after the proclamation hereof in any county of 'our realm, do take or receive, or deliver in payment, any 'falſe counterfeit pieces of any coin of gold current within 'our ſaid realm, or any piece of the ſame coin being ſouthered, 'or otherwiſe unlawfully embaſed, or lacking of the juſt 'weight thereof, over the remedies and abatements ſeverally 'expreſſed, and to be allowed in that behalf. And if any 'ſuch piece of coin, lacking of its true weight above the re-'medies and abatements hereafter expreſſed: and if any ſuch 'counterfeit piece as is aforeſaid, or any piece of coin of gold 'ſouthered, or unlawfully embaſed, ſhall be offered in pay-'ment: we will that it ſhall be lawful to every perſon and per-'ſons to whom ſuch offer in payment ſhall be made, not only 'to refuſe to take the ſame in payment, but alſo to ſtrike a hole, 'at his pleaſure, in every of the ſaid pieces ſo offered in pay-'ment, which ſhall be ſouthered or unlawfully embaſed, or 'which ſhall lack of their juſt weight above the remedies 'hereafter following, and to cut every of the ſaid counterfeits 'into pieces; rendering thoſe ſo ſtricken through, and the 'pieces of the others ſo cut in ſunder, then preſently after-'wards to the owners thereof again. And if any controverſy 'ſhall happen to ariſe betwixt the parties, or any of their 'friends or favourers then preſent, in or about ſuch ſtriking 'through, or in cutting in pieces any of the premiſſes, that 'then forthwith he that ſhall offer any of the ſaid unlawful 'and forbidden monies in payment, and he that ſhall receive 'the ſame, ſhall peaceably repair together to our next juſtice 'of the peace, mayor, bailiff, or other chief officer of that 'place, who then without delay, taking one other aſſiſtant 'of knowledge unto him, ſhall judge of the monies in con-'troverſy, and ſhall allow of thoſe that are allowable, and, 'on the contrary, ſhall preſently execute that which is here 'above appointed.'

The remaining part of the proclamation contains directions for ballances and weights, to be provided by the warden of the Mint, for the uſe of ſuch as ſhould have occaſion to examine the coins before ſpoken of.

King James I.

The parliament grants him tonnage and poundage for life.—The tonnage is 3 s. for every ton of wine imported, and 3 s. more for every ton of ſweet wines, as well Malmſey as other, imported by aliens; and 12 d. in the pound of the value of all goods imported or exported, excepting woollen cloths, &c. as in the former reigns.—Has four ſubſidies granted by the clergy of 4 s. in the pound each.—The temporality grant three intire ſubſidies, and ſix fifteenths and tenths.—Alſo another ſubſidy of 6 s. in the pound, granted by the clergy.—One intire ſubſidy, and one fifteenth and tenth, by the temporality.—Three intire ſubſidies granted by the ſpirituality, and two by the temporality.—Four intire ſubſidies again granted by the ſpirituality.—Three intire ſubſidies, and three fifteenths and tenths, by the temporality.—The king borrows money of ſome of the wealthieſt citizens of London, and the cuſtoms of all goods imported and exported were raiſed and let out to farm.—Raiſes large ſums of money by fining ſeveral in the Star-Chamber.—Levies an aid for making his eldeſt ſon a knight.—Has a benevolence throughout the realm, which occaſioned a general diſcontent.—Raiſes further ſums, by inſtituting the order of baronets.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the 1ſt of James I. a pound weight of gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carrats allay, were coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale; namely, into 10 s. 20 s. 40 s. and 5 l. pieces. And a pound weight of ſilver, of the old ſtandard, into 62 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, ſixpences, groats, two-pences, and pence: which ſtandard, both for gold and ſilver, hath continued ever ſince.

The ſcarcity of ſilver, during that reign, was the ſubject of much conſideration and enquiry at the time: ſeveral proclamations were iſſued againſt the exportation of it, and ſeveral ſchemes were propoſed for drawing it into the mint. It was particularly adviſed, that the weight of the money ſhould be leſſened: and this proceeded ſo far, that directions were actually given to the attorney-general, the 21ſt of February 1619, to prepare new indentures of the mint, whereby the pound weight Troy of ſtandard ſilver ſhould be coined into 66 s. But theſe directions were ſoon after recalled, and the deſigned alteration of the ſilver coin was ordered to be ſuſpended for twelve months, upon a report made to the council, the 25th of the following April, by ſeveral eminent merchants, whoſe advice had been deſired in a conſultation with the miniſters on that occaſion. This intended alteration does not appear after this, to have been thought of any more: and, indeed, ſilver about the ſame time began to come again to the mint, in greater plenty than it had done for ſome years * before.

* It does not appear what was the occaſion of this change, but the fact was this; that in the four years from the 1ſt of April, 1617, to the 4th of February, 1620, there was only coined at the Tower in ſilver money to the ſum of 1070 l. 15 s. 4 d. and that in the four following years to the 31ſt of March, 1625, there was coined the ſum of 205,500 l. 16 s. 2 d. This laſt ſum is, however, little more than was coined in the laſt year and a half of queen Elizabeth: during whoſe whole reign, there was coined in ſilver above 100,000 l. a year, one year with another.

There was a good quantity of money coined in this reign, of the ſilver refined from the lead of the mines in the principality of Wales: and all the pieces of this money, of which I have ſeen the crown, the half-crown, and the ſhilling, were ſeverally diſtinguiſhed by the repreſentation of the Welſh feathers, placed over the royal arms on their reſpective reverſes; as thoſe were alſo that were coined of this ſilver, during the firſt twelve years of the following reign before the mint was purpoſely ſet up for the coinage of the ſame †.

† The whole quantity of the money coined in the reign of king James the Iſt, cannot, as Mr. Lowndes has obſerved in his Eſſay, be known directly from the books of the mint; by reaſon that many of the records and papers of that office having been deſtroyed or embezzled during the time of the great rebellion, the memorials of all tranſactions there, older than the reſtoration of king Charles the IId, are now either loſt, or remain in a very imperfect condition. Yet may a tolerable account be collected of this matter, by the aſſiſtance of other materials: and I have accordingly drawn out a memorandum, which will, I hope, be found ſufficiently exact; partly from a paper of archbiſhop Williams, wherein an account is given of the coinage during the firſt 13 years of the king; partly from a certificate delivered to the council the 27th of November, 1618, in which is contained an account of the weight of the gold and ſilver coined in the ſeveral years from his 9th to his 15th; and partly from ſome extracts of the comptroller's accounts of his later years, communicated to me formerly by the late John Conduit, Eſq; then maſter and worker of his Majeſty's mint. By which ſeveral particulars it appears, that there was coined from the 31ſt of May, 1603, to the 31ſt of March, 1625,

	l.	s.	d.
In angel gold, at the ſeveral rates of 36 l. 10 s. 40 l. 10 s. 44 l. 11 s. and 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, to the value of - - -	32,093	17	9
In crown gold, at the ſeveral rates of 33 l. 10 s. 37 l. 4 s. 40 l. 18 s. 4 d. ¾ and 41 l. the pound weight, to the value of - - -	3,634,296	1	2
	3,666,389	18	11
In ſterling ſilver, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight - - - -	1,641,004	13	3
In like ſilver for Ireland, to the ſterling value - - - -	124,957	1	7
	1,765,961	14	10

	l.	s.	d.
And the total value of all the gold and silver monies coined in the reign of king James, exclusive of some base monies coined for Ireland, and of which I have seen no account, amounted to the value of	5,432,351	13	9

Martin Folkes, Esq;

King Charles I.

Has three entire subsidies granted him by the spirituality, and two by the temporality, and double from the Roman catholics.—In his third year, five subsidies from the spirituality, and as many from the temporality.—Has tonnage and poundage granted him, as also money for disbanding the armies.—Borrows money by way of loan.—Obliges all who were possessed of a knight's fee, to take upon them the order of knighthood, or to fine for avoiding.—Raises ship-money without the consent of parliament.—Demands aid of the clergy, and of the Roman catholics.—Obliges the several counties to raise an army against the Scots.—Makes void all grants of monopolies.—Again raises ship-money.—Obliges the northern counties to raise a considerable number of forces.—The parliament grant him a poll-tax, and 300,000 l. to pay the Scots.

REMARKS.

By an indenture, in the 2d year of king Charles I. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, of 23 carats, 23 grains and a half fine, and half a grain allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale; namely, into rose-rials at 30 s. a-piece, spur-rials at 15 s. a-piece, and angels at 10 s. a-piece. And a pound weight of crown gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, into 41 l. by tale; namely, into unites at 20 s. double crowns at 10 s. or British crowns at 5 s. a-piece. And a pound of silver of the old standard, of 11 ounces 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. allay, into 62 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half-crowns, shillings, half-shillings, two-pences, pence, and half-pence.

The gold coins of this king (as appears by the indenture above) are, rose-rials, angels, unites, double and British crowns.

By an account which Mr Lowndes has published in his Essay, the silver money coined in the reign of king Charles the 1st, and by which we must only understand the silver money regularly coined in the Tower of London, amounted to the sum of 8,776,544 l. 10 s. 3 d. But of the gold there also coined during the said time, I am not able to give so exact an account. All I can say is, that, by a paper I saw in the hands of the late Mr Conduit, the weight of the angel gold coined from the beginning of the king's reign to the 25th of November 1642, and which was coined into angels only, was that of 284 lb. 5 oz. 9 dwts. 9 gr. which made in money then current, at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the sum of 12,658 l. 5 s. 9 d. ob. And it appears by the accounts of the pix, that there has been no angel gold coined in England since that time. It also further appeared by the same paper, that there was coined in crown gold from the king's accession to the 31st of March 1641, in weight, 68,832 lb. 11 oz. 11 dwts. 4 gr. and by two other papers purporting to be the accounts of Sir Ralph Freeman and Sir Thomas Aylesbury, from the 1st of August 1641, to the 5th of May 1643, and of Sir Robert Harley, from the 6th of May 1643, to the 31st of March 1646, that there was coined during that time in crown gold, the weight of 7052 lb. 2 oz. 11 dwts. 1 gr. To which last weight, if we add proportionably for the four months elapsed between the 31st of March and the 1st of August 1641, and for the 34 months between the end of these accounts and the 30th of January 1648, we cannot very greatly mistake in supposing the weight of the crown gold, coined from the 1st of April 1641, to the time of the king's death, to have been of about 11,826 lb. Which added to the former quantity, will make, for the whole weight of the crown gold coined in this reign, about 80,659 lb. and which, reduced into money, at the rate of 41 l. to the pound weight, produces of the same 3,307,019 l. To which if we add the value before given of the angel gold, and of the silver coined in the same time, we shall find that the whole sum in gold and silver coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles the 1st, did not in current money amount to less than about 12,096,220 l. sterling. Folkes.

The Commonwealth of England, Oliver Cromwell, Protector.

The city of London give their money and plate, even to the servant-maids bodkins and thimbles, towards carrying on the good old cause, as some called it.—An account of the several sums of money raised by the long parliament, is as follows, viz.

A general abstract of money raised in England by the Long Parliament, from Nov. 3, 1640, to Nov. 1659.

	l.	s.	d.
Subsidies	600,000	0	0
The armies	32,780,721	13	0
Tonnage and poundage	5,700,000	0	0
Captives	102,000	0	0
Sale of Irish lands	1,322,500	0	0
Contributions for Irish Protestants	180,000	0	0
Forces for defence of particular counties	4,141,088	8	0
Excises	10,200,000	0	0
Duty on coals	850,000	0	0
Ditto on currants	51,000	0	0
Sequestrations of estates	6,044,924	17	0
Postage of letters	301,000	0	0
Wine licences	312,200	0	0
Composition for court of wards	1,000,000	0	0
Offices to public service	850,000	0	0
Vintners delinquency	4000	0	0
Compositions for estates	1,277,226	0	0
Sale of English lands	25,380,687	3	11½
Settled out of gentlemens estates, to pay P. Palatine	85,000	0	0
Compound with Irish delinquents	1,000,000	0	0
Charge of justice, 6 years	1,200,000	0	0
To the house of commons 14 years, comes to	754,472	0	0
Free gifts to the saints, viz. in money	679,800	0	0
In offices	306,110	0	0
In estates per annum	189,365	0	0
Total	95,312,095	1	11½

Mr. Walker, no less concerned in the usurpation than those he rails at in his History of Independency, having run through all the rebellion with them, 'till they turned him off, and therefore well acquainted with their methods of raising money, and the amount thereof, sums up the same after this manner:

Nor is it a small artifice to raise money by so many several and confused taxes, whereas one or two ways would have done the work: 1. Royal subsidy of 300,000 l. 2. Poll-money. 3. The free loans and contributions upon the public faith, amounted to a vast incredible sum of money, plate, horses, arms, &c. 4. Irish adventure for the sale of lands, the first and second time. 5. The weekly meal. 6. The city loan after the rate of fifty subsidies. 7. The assessment for bringing in the Scots. 8. The five and twentieth part. 9. The weekly assessment for my lord general's army. 10. The weekly or monthly assessment for Sir Thomas Fairfax's army. 11. The weekly assessment for the Scots army. 12. The weekly assessment for the British army in Ireland. 13. The weekly assessment for my lord of Manchester's army. 14. Free quarter (at least) connived at by the state; because the soldiers having for a time subsistence that way, are the less craving for their pay, whereby their arrears growing stale, will at last either be frustrated by a tedious committee of accounts, or forgotten; in the mean time the grand committee of accounts discount it out of the commander's arrears, whereby the state saves it. 15. The king's revenue. 16. Sequestrations and plunder by committees, which, if well answered to the state, would have carried on the work, which thus I demonstrate: one half of all the goods and chattels, and (at least) one half of all the lands, rents, and revenues of the kingdom have been sequestered; and who can imagine, that one half of the profits and goods of the land will not maintain any forces, that can be kept and fed in England for the defence thereof? 17. Excise upon all things. This alone, if well managed, would maintain the war: the Low-Countries make it almost the only support. 18. Fortification money, &c. By these several ways and taxes, about 40 millions in money and money-worth, have been milked from the people. A vast treasure, and so excessive, as nothing but a long peace could import, and nothing but much fraud and many follies could dissipate; and we ought not to wonder if it be accounted inter arcana novissimi imperii, to be always making, yet never finishing an account thereof.

It is here to be observed, that the 40 millions he here speaks of, were only to the year 1647, so that they had not been above five years raising and expending them. Nor is it less remarkable, that Walker had gone hand in hand in the parliament with the extorters and consumers of all this treasure, being himself as deep concerned as any other in the villainy, and yet never saw into it, 'till the Independents thrust him and his party from having any share in the cheat.

REMARKS.

The parliament, on April 25, 1649, agreed upon a new sort of coin, whereof there were coined, crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six pences, pence and half-pence.

In the year 1656, Oliver Cromwell, who had on the 16th day of December 1653, been invested with the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and

Ireland, and who was every day acquiring new powers, adventured to coin money with his own head and ſtyle. But whether the monies of this ſort were, either then or afterwards, ever publiſhed, as true, lawful, and current monies of England, I have not been able to learn. All his 20 s. pieces of gold that I have ſeen are of this date, and ſo are a very few of his ſilver half-crowns, one of which is in the valuable collection of the worthy Robert Bootle, Eſq; one of the directors of the Eaſt-India company: but in general the ſilver coins which we have with the head and ſtyle of the protector, do not bear an earlier date than that of the year 1658. I have alſo been informed, by my very ingenious friend Mr George Vertue, who has examined all the works of Simon, chief engraver to the mint, with the exactneſs of an artiſt; and from whom we may expect an accurate account of the ſame, when he ſhall have leiſure to publiſh the curious collections he has made upon that ſubject, that he has obſerved half-crowns of this ſort, where the laſt figure of the date had been altered from a 6 to an 8 upon the die: which would lead one to conjecture, that thoſe dies, though prepared in 1656, were not really uſed before the year 1658, and after the ſecond ſolemn inauguration of the protector, which was on the 26th of May 1657 *. When it is even probable that the pieces coined, were rather looked upon as proofs, and given away as medals or counters among his friends, than publickly diſperſed as common money throughout the kingdom.

* There was, I find, a trial of the pix, on the 3d of December 1657, which is ſaid, in the books of the mint, to have been of the monies coined in the Tower, from the 9th day of November 1649, to that time: and that the money then tried conſiſted of unites, double crowns and crowns, of new ſtandard gold; and of crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, half-ſhillings, two-penny pieces, pennies, and half-pennies, of old ſterling ſilver; all marked with the ſun, and agreeable to the indenture made with Aaron Guerdien, M. D. maſter and worker, the 27th of July 1649, whereby it appears, that this trial was of monies of the Commonwealth only. The trial was made before the commiſſioners of the great ſeal, and the commiſſioners of the treaſury, by virtue of a warrant from the lord protector: which warrant I ſhall here tranſcribe a copy of, as the ſame is inſerted in the book from whence I took theſe particulars, and as it was in all probability the only one of the ſort.

OLIVER P.

'Whereas amongſt other weighty affairs of the Commonwealth, the care of the aſſaying and trying of the monies thereof by the ſtandard of England, according to the ancient cuſtom of the realm, is not the leaſt: we judging it neceſſary, that the trial and aſſay of the ſaid money and coin be forthwith made, do therefore hereby ſignify ſuch our will and pleaſure to be; commanding you forthwith to cauſe a trial and aſſay to be made of the pix now being in the mint within the Tower of London, by a jury of goldſmiths of our ſaid city of London, of integrity and experience, to be impannelled and ſworn on a day certain, to be by you in that behalf appointed, in the place accuſtomed within our palace of Weſtminſter: and that the lords commiſſioners of our treaſury, the juſtices of the ſeveral benches, and barons of the Exchequer, or ſome of them, be then there preſent, and counſelling and aſſiſting you in the due execution of this our ſervice.

Given at Whitehall this 9th day of November, 1657.'

To our truſty and well-beloved Nathaniel Fiennes and John Liſle, lords commiſſioners of our great ſeal of England.

The trial of the pix laſt preceding this, was made on the 9th of November 1649, before the lord preſident of the council of ſtate, the commiſſioners of the great ſeal, and others of the council of ſtate, and committee of revenues; by virtue of an act of the 7th of the ſaid month of November 1649, to try the monies coined from the 15th day of February 1646. Theſe monies are ſaid to have been marked with a ſceptre, and were therefore all coined before the king's death. This was conſequently that ſame trial of the pix that is mentioned from Whitlocke, in the 95th page of theſe papers, and that was ordered to be made at the charge of Sir Robert Harley, when he was put out of his place: and Dr Guerdien's pix was therefore not opened, before the above-mentioned 3d of December 1657.

What quantity was coined in all of this money of the Commonwealth, I have never been able to learn. All the papers I have ſeen relating to that ſubject, were only ſome extracts Mr Conduit had of Dr Guerdien's accounts, for about four years and a half elapſed between the 16th day of May 1649, when he entered upon his office, and the 30th day of November 1653. By which it appeared, that there was coined at the Tower during that time, in crown gold, the weight of 1768 lb. 7 oz. 17 dwts. 16 gr. making in tale, at 41 l. the pound weight, the ſum of 72,514 l. 18 s. 8 d. ¼; and in ſterling ſilver, the weight of 123,644 lb. 1 oz. 8 dwts. 12 gr. making in tale, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of 383,294 l. 15 s. 4 d. ¼: ſo that the whole coinage, both in gold and ſilver, during the ſaid time, amounted to the value of 455,809 l. 14 s. 0 d. ½. Folkes.

KING CHARLES II.

Has a ſubſidy granted him of tonnage and poundage, &c.—Has poll-money granted to pay off the armies and navy.—Has 140,000 l. more granted for the compleat diſbanding the army.—Has the grant of an exciſe upon beer, ale, &c. during life.—Paſſes an act for erecting and eſtabliſhing a poſt-office.—Has a grant of 1,260,000 l.—Has a grant of chimney-money.—Has four entire ſubſidies granted by the temporality, and as many by the clergy, for carrying on the war againſt the Dutch.—Has 2,477,500 l. granted for the ſame.—Has a ſupply of 1,250,000 l. granted him at Oxford.—Raiſes 1,256,347 l. 13 s. by a poll-tax.—Raiſes 316,000 l. by an exciſe upon wine and other liquors.—Has another impoſition granted upon all wines and vinegar imported for a certain term of years.—Sells his fee-farm rents.—Has a land-tax granted him.—Has a grant of an additional exciſe upon beer, ale, &c.—Paſſes an act for laying impoſitions on proceedings at law.—Paſſes an act for raiſing the ſum of 1,238,750 l.—Paſſes an act for raiſing 584,978 l. 2 s. 2 d. ½, and an act for an additional exciſe on beer, &c. for three years.—Paſſes an act for raiſing money by a poll, &c.—Paſſes an act for a ſupply of 619,380 l. 11 s. 9 d. for diſbanding the army.—Has a grant of a farther ſupply of 260,462 l. 17 s. 3 d. for the ſame uſe.

REMARKS.

By an indenture in the 12th of Charles II. gold and ſilver monies were coined into the ſame pieces, and at the ſame rates, as in the 2d of Charles I. By another indenture in the 22d of king Charles II. crown gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale; namely, into pieces to go for 10 s. 20 s. 40 s. or 5 l. a-piece; and a pound of ſilver of the old ſtandard, into 3 l. 2 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, groats, three-pences, two-pences, and pence.

The money of king Charles II. was of three ſorts: the hammered, which was the only current coin 'till 1665; the milled upon the ſide; and that with the graining or letters upon the edge.—The firſt money that bore the name of this king, was coined at Pontefract-Caſtle.

By the duplicates and atteſted copies of the controllment-rolls and other books remaining in his majeſty's mint, it appears, that there were coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles the IId, and after his reſtoration, the ſeveral ſums mentioned in the following account: that is to ſay,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, of 22 carats fine and 2 carats of allay, from the 20th day of July 1660, to the 31ſt day of December 1662, the weight of 918 lb. 8 oz. 3 dwts. the which, being coined into unites, commonly called broad-pieces, double crowns, and Britiſh crowns, and into milled unites of the ſame weight as the others, made in money then current, at the rate of 41 l. the pound weight, the value of	37,665	16	11
In like gold from the 1ſt of January 1662, to the 6th day of February 1684, the weight of 93,024 lb. 8 dwts. 13 gr. the which, being coined into 20 s. pieces, commonly called guineas, pieces of 10 s. 40 s. and 5 l. made in money then and ſtill current, at 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	4,139,588	2	6
Tot. of gold in weight, 93,943 lb. 10 oz. 11 dwts. 13 gr. making in money - - -	4,177,253	12	5

Note, That although the warrant for the cutting the pound weight of gold into 44 guineas and a half, was not ſigned until the 24th of December 1663, yet the weight of 27 lb. 8 oz. coined ſome time before, and which was the only gold minted ſince the laſt day of the preceding December, was really coined into guineas; and as ſuch delivered, on the 31ſt of the following December 1663.

	l.	s.	d.
In ſterling ſilver, of 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. of allay, from the 20th day of July 1660, to the 5th day of February 1662, the weight of 175,691 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwts. the which being coined into hammered money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, made, in the coin then current, the ſum of	544,642	14	11

In

	l.	s.	d.
In like silver, from the 6th of Feb. 1662, to the 6th of Feb. 1684, the weight of 1,025,012 lb. 0 oz. 14 dwts. 14 gr. the which being coined into milled money, at the same rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, made in the coins, then and still current, the sum of -	3,177,537	7	9¼
Total of the silver in weight 1,200,703 lb. 3 oz. 4 dwts. 14 gr. making in money -	3,722,180	2	8¼
And the total value of all the monies both of gold and silver coined in this reign, according to the foregoing rates, amounted to the sum of - - - - -	7,899,434	2	1¼

It may here be noted, that part of the silver above mentioned was the produce of 1,500,000 French crowns, or 4,500,000 livres Tournois, received for the sale of Dunkirk; which produced in standard silver the weight of 108,636 lb. 9 oz. 3 dwts. 2 gr. and made in coined English money by tale 336,773 l. 3 s. 9 d. ½. As also, that other part of the same silver was the produce of what were called the crown and harp money, which Sir Thomas Vyner, Knt. and Bart. Francis Meynell, Esq; then sheriff of London, and Edward Backwell, Esq; contracted with his Majesty on the 6th of December 1661, to take in by tale, and to coin with all convenient expedition, at their own charge, into English current monies: receiving for the same a consideration of 1 l. 10 s. for every 100 l. in tale, in lieu of want of weight and expence of coinage. Upon which there was accordingly recoined of the said cross and harp monies, the sum of about 500,000 l. in tale.

King James II.

Passes an act for settling the same revenue on himself for life, which was settled on his brother for his life.—Has an imposition granted upon all wines and vinegar imported for a certain term of years.—Has an imposition granted upon all tobacco and sugar imported for a certain term of years.—Has the grant of an imposition on all French and East-India linens, &c.

REMARKS.

By an indenture in the first of James II. a pound weight of gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale, namely, into 10 s. 20 s. 40 s. and 5 l. pieces; and a pound weight of silver of the old standard into 62 s. by tale, namely, into crowns, half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, three-pences, two-pences, and pence; which standard, both for gold and silver, hath continued ever since. There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king James II. that is to say, from the 7th day of February 1684, to the 13th day of February 1688,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 47,497 lb. 6 oz. 1 dwt. which being coined into 20 s. pieces called guineas, &c. made at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of - -	2,113,638	18	8½
In sterl. silver, the weight of 167,198 lb. 10 oz. 6 dwts. 20 gr. making in money at the rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of - -	518,316	9	5¼
Total value of both the gold and the silver	2,631,955	8	1¾

The king landing with French forces at Kinsale in Ireland on the 12th of the following March, the greatest part of that kingdom submitted to him, and he made his entry into Dublin on the 24th of the same month. He there by proclamation raised, for his present occasions, the value of all the coins both of gold and silver, that were then current in Ireland: but his wants a few months after greatly encreasing, he was reduced to such distress, that he was forced to coin old brass guns and other utensils of base metal into pieces of money, made also current for half-crowns, shillings, and half-shillings, by proclamation of the 18th of June 1689.

General Remarks on this article of the Public Revenue, from the Conquest to the end of the Reign of king James II. in relation as well to the state of the Civil and Religious Liberties of the nation, as to its Trade and Commerce.

I. Of liberty, both civil and religious.

Let men make ever so slight reflections on the manner in which this kingdom has been governed from the Conquest to this day, let them but run through the dynasties of the English kings, and sum up the account of the annals of each reign, and then let any candid and judicious commentator say whether liberty was ever at any former period of time more amply exercised and enjoyed, than at the present hour.

REV

'Till the Restoration there was no such thing as liberty: that after the Restoration was nothing, compared to the strength it gained at the Revolution; and the strength it then acquired, is so far, in my opinion of things, from being now impaired, that it never flourished in such full vigour as in the reign of his present most gracious Majesty, king George II.

From the Restoration let any one cast their eye backward to the Conquest, and they will find whatever changes happened in the government, those changes were nothing more than from one tyrant, or one kind of tyranny, to another. With regard to the persons of tyrants, there were glorious and inglorious, slothful and active, successful and unsuccessful tyrants, but there never was a cessation from one sort or other. With regard to the form of tyranny, there was only the same melancholy vicissitude in the manner of oppressing the people, without any suspension of the thing itself; sometimes it was the regal tyranny of the prince, sometimes the aristocratic tyranny of the barons; sometimes (as in the reigns of Harry the IId and queen Mary the Ist) the ecclesiastical tyranny of the clergy; and sometimes all together, in their different jurisdictions. By which means, between monarchical, oligarchical, or hierarchical oppression, there was no change but from this tyrant to that, or from one to many; and so little appearance of liberty of any kind among the people, that to recur to what I have already said, I never hear any body harangue with enthusiastic encomiums on the liberty of Old England, that I am not either ashamed of my ancestors for deserving those encomiums so little, or of my contemporaries for bestowing them so ignorantly.

As to the liberty of this country during the domination of the Norman line, every body knows it was none; the right of conquest, the apprehensions of the conqueror, and the depression of the conquered, made him eager to secure and fix his title, and the other too much weakened with intestine disputes, not to submit to any thing rather than re-expose themselves to the recent mischiefs of struggling: this disposition of both made tyranny easy to be exercised by the masters, and hard to be resisted by the slaves; their purses, we have seen, were drained, as also their numbers thinned, and their spirits broken: foreign families were called in to lord it over the natives: and whatever was imposed or required, the people were unable to dispute, or afraid to refuse.

From William the Ist to Harry the IId, the crown was worn by three successive kings, who had no other pretence to the crown, than the having a mind to wear it, and finding means to obtain it: during these reigns, it was force only prevailed, and the people enjoyed their right, no more than the lawful prince did his.

It is true, that every one of these three princes did successively promise the people, in order to make them acquiesce under this usurpation, that they would re-establish the Saxon form of government, and restore all those privileges and immunities to the people, which were enjoyed before the Conquest; but as they all three made this promise to facilitate and plan their way to the throne, so they all three broke it when they were seated and fixed there.

During the reign of Henry the IId (the first king of the Plantagenet line) it is true, the crown was less powerful, but the people were not more free; their condition was not better for their king's being worse; ecclesiastical disputes and family quarrels broke and bounded his power, without enlarging his subjects privileges; and whilst he mourned the loss of the one, they still groaned under the privation of the other.

To him that royal Don Quixote, and warlike enthusiast, Richard the Ist succeeded, who exhausted the treasure of his kingdom, to raise his fame upon earth, and spilt the blood of his subjects, to purchase glory in heaven.

In the next reign, a struggle for liberty was again made, but not for the liberty of the people; the struggle lay between a king who had a mind to be sole tyrant, and the barons who had long tyrannized in their particular districts over their inferiors, and now wanted to tyrannize over their superior too.

During the long subsequent reign of Harry the IIId (that is, after the king was of age, and the regency of the earl of Pembroke determined) the contest was the same as in the preceding reign; and though by the conduct of the earl of Leicester, the people afterward seemed to have got some ground, by chusing representatives who were instituted with a pretence of taking care of their rights, yet this was but a seeming acquisition, and no real advantage in present gained; for whilst the pretence of this institution was only the security of the rights, liberties, and privileges of the people, the true reason of their institution was only like the popular affectation of patriotism, that prevailed a few years ago in this kingdom: the great abuse of which, has proved so detrimental to the state, that the attempts of others since, to shew the real spirit of patriotism, have been stifled, misrepresented, or ridiculed; for the people having been so often made the dupes of a party instead of a patriot spirit, it is no wonder they distrust all pretensions of that kind, 'till they have incontestible conviction of uprightness and public spirit. Of this weak and corrupt ministers may make no little advantage to support their power; for if all attempts to manifest a real concern for the public weal are to be laughed at,

at, no one will have reſolution to oppoſe the worſt deſigns; and therefore the abuſe of the ſpirit of liberty will render it of no uſe when we ſtand moſt in need of it. Thus falſe patriots pave the way to ſlavery, under pretext of contending for liberty.

The long reign of Harry the IIId was a ſhifting ſcene of various turns, ſome in favour of an oppreſſive king, others of a turbulent nobility, or one ambitious man; but for the people, whatever ſpoke of this wheel was uppermoſt, their liberties, like the earth, were always beneath its revolutions, and cruſhed by its weight.

To Henry III. ſucceeded Edward I. a great man, and a great king; but though his people grew more conſiderable under him, they became not more free: the conqueſt of Wales, and the progreſs the Engliſh arms made in Scotland, increaſed the conſideration of the Engliſh nation, but it reſtored no privileges to the people; and, though the national boundaries of the Engliſh dominions were ſtretched, the limits of Engliſh freedom were ſtill unenlarged, the gates of liberty were as cloſely ſhut, and as ſtrongly barred as ever; and the only comfort of the people in this reign was, not that the power of the crown was bounded, but that it was not abuſed.

As no body will ſay the reign of his weak and unfortunate ſon, Edward II. was a reign of liberty, and as I mention no reign but with regard to that ſingle point, I ſhall paſs it over without any farther comment.

King Edward III, and his ſon, who never was king, were both of them great and able men, great in action, and able in council; England too was great under them, but not free; and even its grandeur under theſe princes, as well as under Harry the Fourth and Fifth, was a dangerous grandeur, which, though it raiſed the reputation of this country in preſent, would, if it had gone on a little longer, ended in its ruin: for the only difference ultimately between France being conquered by England, or England conquered by France, muſt be, whether an Engliſh or a French king ſhould rule both; ſince, in either caſe, the ſeat of empire would have been in France, and England, conſequently, in either, would have become a province to France, as in two poſſeſſions under the ſame prince, the leſſer muſt always be a province to the greater.

In the beginning of Richard the Second's tyrannical and ſimple reign, one tumultuous mob, indeed, under a raſh intoxicated leader, made a ſhew of ſtruggling for liberty; but the ſubſequent part of his reign was confuſion and oppreſſion, which ended in his depoſition, and the eſtabliſhment of as able a tyrant as ever ſat on this throne.

The gentler diſpoſition of this ſagacious uſurper's great and wiſe ſon, Harry the Fifth, the ſucceſs of his arms abroad, and the calmer ſituation of his ſubjects at home, leſs irritated by domeſtic oppreſſion, and leſs torn by inteſtine diviſions, made the people more happy, but made them in no one particular more free: for, though the expences of his rapid and extenſive conqueſts were defrayed with leſs charge than ſuch atchievements uſually are, yet this was entirely owing to the wiſe frugality of his own œconomy, to the bounds he himſelf ſet to his demands, and not the limits the people preſcribed to his diſburſements, or to their donations.

In the ſubſequent reign began the fatal diſputes between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, which terminated, after four reigns, and about 60 years, in the eſtabliſhment of Harry VII. During all this conteſt, the people were ſo far from enjoying any freedom, that they never ſo much as graſped at it; they fought not for liberty, but for a maſter, and never aimed at ſtriking off one chain, but in order to put on another; as if it were material, in chains of equal weight and ſtrength, whoſe name was engraved on the rivets by which they were faſtened.

Harry VII, a prince not wanting underſtanding, but wanting many good qualities, biaſſed by the utmoſt oppreſſions, and meaneſt cruelties, found a diſpoſition in his people to bear them patiently; he knew they would ſubmit to almoſt any thing he would impoſe upon them, rather than venture, by new reſiſtance, to open thoſe wounds again which were yet hardly ſkinned: and having ſenſe enough to diſcern this to be their caſe, without benevolence or juſtice, he choſe, inſtead of making himſelf ſafe in their affections, to try how far they would ſuffer, and, by a ſeries of rapacious and cruel acts of injuſtice, violence, and treachery, made his reign as uneaſy to himſelf as it was oppreſſive to his ſubjects.

This man, however, by a little dirty cunning ſhewn in ſqueezing the rich, and deceiving every body that truſted him, got the title of the Engliſh Solomon; to have called him the Engliſh David would have been more appoſite, as he died much more like the one, than he lived like the other, by ordering his ſon, on his death-bed, to do by the unfortunate earl of Suffolk as David ordered his ſon to do by Shimei, when after having promiſed to ſpare his life, he commanded it, by an unjuſt and cruel equivocation, to be taken from him by another.

In Harry VIII. centered the two different claims of York and Lancaſter to the crown; and as he had of courſe an indiſputable right, by this union of the two claims, to aſcend the throne; ſo he ſeemed to think he had an equal privilege to do whatever he thought fit, when he was placed there, and that the people in general had no more right to object to any violences his caprice and cruelty put him upon acting as king, than any particular perſon had to object to his being ſo.

As his father and mother conveyed to him the titles both of the York and Lancaſter families, ſo he ſeemed likewiſe to inherit, through them, all the vices of both thoſe houſes; he had all the diſſoluteneſs and luxury of his mother's family, in the early days of his reign, and, in the more advanced part of it, all the rapaciouſneſs and cruelty of his father.

During the reign of this butcher of his wives, this terror of the nobility, this dupe abroad, and tyrant at home, there was in England neither civil nor religious liberty, neither liberty of acting, ſpeaking, or thinking; intimidated ſervile parliaments were often the proxies of his tyranny, but never checks to it; they made and unmade, enacted and abrogated laws backward and forward, juſt as his fluctuating diſpoſition and lawleſs will (under the appearance of law) dictated and ordained.

In religious matters his conduct was not leſs deſultory and tyrannical than in regard to the ſucceſſion; reſentment to the power of Rome produced ſuch medly work in his councils, that notwithſtanding a diſpoſition in the people, through fear, to embrace any opinion which he had a mind to recommend, and profeſs any belief he wiſhed to impoſe upon them; yet his ordinances were often ſo contradictory and unintelligible, that many miſerable wretches were put to death for ſaying they believed, and many for ſaying they diſbelieved the ſame thing, whilſt others were burnt for profeſſing, contrary to his will, what they had only profeſſed becauſe they thought thoſe profeſſions conformable to it.

During the ſhort reign of his ſon Edward VI, the pride and weakneſs of the protector Somerſet, and the ambition and wickedneſs of Dudley duke of Northumberland, ſucceſſively harraſſed the kingdom with all the calamities attending a people ſqueezed by oppreſſive taxes, and forced into civil wars: and though the bad conduct of theſe two aſpiring men ended in their own mutual ruin, yet the ceſſation of their ſway gave not to the people any relief from thoſe miſeries cauſed by their authority whilſt it laſted.

It is true, we owe, in a great meaſure, the benefits we at this day enjoy from the Reformation, to the duke of Somerſet: but that this country ſhould owe ſuch a benefit originally to one of the worſt kings, and, ſecondly, to one of the weakeſt miniſters that ever governed it, is a reflection that makes one wonder at the very beneficial effects ſometimes collaterally produced from very unreſpectable cauſes, but gives us very little reverence for ſuch caſual benefactors.

To Edward VI. ſucceeded his ſiſter Mary, a devout but execrable ſovereign; for the cruel piety of that holy tyrant expoſed this kingdom to as many misfortunes, under a bigoted woman, as it ever felt under the worſt man; her whole authority was conſigned to the hands of eccleſiaſtical governors, who embrued them every day in the blood of her unhappy ſubjects: the uſurpation of the lady Jane Grey, and the ſubſequent rebellion of Wyat, made, perhaps, ſome executions neceſſary to ſecure queen Mary on the throne; but to theſe many more, very unneceſſary, were added, by the inexorable ſpirit of perſecuting Churchmen, who ſacrificed, like the moſt barbarous idolators, whole hetacombs of Proteſtant victims to their edible god, and his infallible ambaſſador.

Chriſtians, profeſſing charity, inflicted on Chriſtians all thoſe cruelties which the early followers of Chriſt complained of receiving at the afflictive hand of the moſt hardened infidels.

In a reign then where abſolute power both in Church and State, urged by revenge and enthuſiaſm, under the maſk of loyalty and devotion, perſecuted and condemned the offenders againſt an injured queen, and what they called an injured God; in ſuch a reign, what privileges and freedom were allowed to the people, even thoſe who are moſt unacquainted with the hiſtory of theſe times may eaſily imagine, from the nature of ſuch circumſtances.

At the concluſion of this bloody melancholy ſcene (which cloſed not 'till the death of the weak bigot that opened it) came queen Elizabeth, a woman as different from her ſiſter and predeceſſor in underſtanding as in religion; and one whoſe great and glorious reign can never be unjuſtly extolled, but when it is called a reign where the people enjoyed the leaſt ſhadow of liberty. Every ſtep ſhe took tended to the public welfare, the honour of the nation, and the intereſt of the collective body of her people; but was taken as abſolutely without their conſent, as the moſt prejudicial meaſures of any of her moſt arbitrary predeceſſors or ſucceſſors.

She often ſent for the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Commons, and told him not only what ſhe would and would not ſuffer to be done, but alſo what ſhe would or would not allow to be ſaid; told him ſhe wanted money, and would have it, and that Yea or Nay ſhould only be uttered when it was propoſed to be given; that the Commons underſtood not ſtate affairs; that ſtate affairs were not their buſineſs; and that it behoved them only to meddle with what was properly within their province. She, by her lord chancellor, told the ſpeaker, and by the ſpeaker told the Commons, that they had no right to judge

of returns in elections, but that her lord chancellor ſhould be the ſole judge, and determine in thoſe caſes.

She impriſoned members of parliament merely by her own authority, forbid ſome bills to be read in the Houſe, others to be debated there, and refuſed the royal aſſent twice to above 30 bills each time, that had paſſed both Houſes.

Never were the reins of prerogative held with a ſtricter hand, or the yoke of ſlavery faſter bound upon the people's necks, than at this period of time; and though the people were driven where they ought to have choſen to go, yet they were ſtill driven; and the ſame power that forced them into foreign glory and domeſtic proſperity, might, in the hands of a leſs ſkilful, or worſe-diſpoſed driver, have forced them into the paths of contempt abroad, and deſtruction at home; the ſame method of government purſued in the ſubſequent reign, and the effects of that method, on different maxims and policy, verify this aſſertion.

All, therefore, that can be ſaid with regard to the liberty enjoyed in the reign of queen Elizabeth, is, that ſhe who allowed her ſubjects none, knew their intereſt ſo well, and purſued it ſo ſteadily, that under her they poſſeſſed every good, but that of being able to make the good they poſſeſſed, the effects of their own election.

To queen Elizabeth ſucceeded the original of that unhappy race of Stuarts, king James I. His reign and his ſon's were one continued ſeries of folly and injuſtice; for theſe princes imagining they had a right to keep up the prerogative at the mark they found it, thought of nothing but their prerogative, and vainly imagined the nation would ſubmit to the ſame ſtretch of the prerogative, when exerciſed to their infamy and ruin, under which it had acquieſced when employed for their glory and proſperity.

In like manner did theſe proud, vain, ambitious, weak kings, endeavour to tread the paths of queen Elizabeth, without either her head to conduct them in ſuch paths, or ſuch miniſters as ſhe made uſe of to aſſiſt them.

I ſhall enter into no particular detail of the oppreſſion and deſpotiſm of theſe two reigns, the notoriety of the facts makes it needleſs; and with regard to the ſtruggle made for liberty, when the people could bear no longer the lawleſs oppreſſive conduct of king Charles I, though that ſtruggle freed them from his tyranny, it was far from procuring them that freedom for which it commenced: their deliverer became their undoer, and an abſolute ſtratocracy was the only exchange they made for an abſolute monarchy. I cannot help here obſerving, that when the patriot reformers of thoſe days, called Levellers, poſted up their declaration at Banbury, three of the four articles of which, according to Whitlocke, that declaration conſiſted, were theſe:

Firſt, Againſt the preſent parliament, and their proceedings.

Secondly, Againſt the council of ſtate.

Thirdly, Againſt the council of the army.

I muſt add too, that this declaration was made juſt after theſe Levellers, in modelling the government, had agreed that no exciſe ſhould ſubſiſt above four months after the commencement of the next parliament.

No public officers of ſalary ſhould be capable of being choſen at the next election.

No members of one repreſentative to be choſen of the next.

The next and future parliament to be annual.

Not to depend longer on the uncertain inclination of parliament.

Tythes not to continue longer than the next repreſentative.

Every pariſh to chuſe their own miniſter, and no pariſh to be forced to pay him.

And no one to be exempted from offices on account of religion.

How little liberty ſuch contenders for liberty procured for this country, is too well known to need animadverſion; we ſhall therefore conclude our remarks on the well-known events of theſe times, by ſaying, that thoſe who pretended at firſt only to reduce and bound the power of the Crown, and to curb him who had abuſed it, became themſelves, after they had deſtroyed the King, ſuch intolerable oppreſſors of the people, that they ſtraightened every chain they pretended to looſe, and doubled every evil they pretended to cure; and thus (according to Rapin) one may with great truth affirm that England was never leſs free than during the long parliament, and the adminiſtration of Cromwell; and how profuſely the public money was exacted at that time, we have ſeen.

Such exceſſes brought the affairs of this country into the utmoſt confuſion, and that confuſion ended in recalling from long baniſhment the Son of that oppreſſor whom theſe patriots had depoſed.

Upon this reſtoration of king Charles II, all the grievances complained of in his father's reign (or at leaſt the ſource of them, which was arbitrary power) were by miracle only prevented from being again eſtabliſhed in this country, and even by law.

For had it not been for that great and upright miniſter, lord Clarendon, that faithful ſervant to an ungrateful Maſter, that true patriot and real benefactor to an unthankful people, the form of this government had been entirely altered, the Engliſh had been, for ſome time at leaſt, as abſolute ſlaves as the Turks or the Perſians; for the King had two millions a year ſettled upon him, to defray all the expences neceſſary for the ſupport of his government; parliaments had been made uſeleſs, and conſequently laid aſide, whilſt the regal authority had been the ſole legiſlative, as well as principal executive power in this country.

That this oppoſition of lord Clarendon to the ſervile ſchemes of the Tory reſtoration men of this æra, was no proof of his love to his Maſter, though it was a great one of his zeal for the public, was the way of reaſoning which the enemies of this great man made uſe of to deſtroy him, and which prevailed at laſt with his unfeeling, blinded, and cruel Maſter, to give him up and diſcard him. But, in truth, this conduct of lord Clarendon was as much for the real intereſt of the King, as the people: he thought, and thought rightly, that it was the intereſt of the King to have his government eſtabliſhed on that foot which the bent of the nation would quickly ſubmit to, and not ſuch as they would be tempted afterwards to reſiſt, from the ſame motives that had before provoked reſiſtance; he imagined, from the examples of Charles I, Richard II, Edward II, and Harry III, who had been ruined by graſping at abſolute power in this country, that it was much more prudent for a king here to content himſelf with a bounded authority, which he might make permanent and ſecure, than to make his whole authority precarious, by trying to extend it beyond its proper limits. which had in all times made the people ſo uneaſy whenever it was attempted, that rebellion and civil wars had generally been the conſequence of ſuch weak and impolitic meaſures.

When the Ephori were eſtabliſhed in Sparta, by the conſent of Theopompus, who then reigned there, his wife aſked him, If he ſhould not be aſhamed to leave the regal authority to his ſons in a worſe condition than he found it! To which he anſwered, He ſhould leave it in a better, as it would be more ſecure, in being more tolerable, and more permanent, from being liable to fewer abuſes. Had lord Clarendon been reproached for ſuffering any boundary to be put to the power of his maſter, I dare ſay he would have returned juſt ſuch an anſwer.

And that this way of arguing in lord Clarendon was ſalutary for the king, as well as becoming a lover of his country, the effect of different reaſonings and meaſures in the next reign plainly ſhewed.

But to return to the account propoſed to be given of the ſtate of liberty, we acknowledge there was, by the upright conduct of lord Clarendon on the Reſtoration, for ſome time, the dawning appearance of liberty, in ſome wiſe and beneficial laws that were then made; but this dawning was ſoon overcaſt, other meaſures were purſued; this witty man and ſilly king was governed by his ſtill more ſilly brother; and not only the liberty, but the religion of the people, were ſtruck at and invaded.

To theſe domeſtic grievances was added the infamous management of our foreign affairs; the parliament grew refractory on account of both; and though, for ſome time, the duke of York and the parliament got the better alternately, yet, at laſt, the duke's ſcale prevailed, and the king, for the three laſt years of his reign, governed without calling any parliament at all.

Had king Charles lived much longer, it is hardly to be doubted, from the circumſtances in which we then were, but that the government, by degrees, had ſunk into the moſt abject ſtate, and, in all probability, into abſolute ſlavery. A vicious court, a corrupt king, a profligate nobility, no Houſe of Commons, the growth of Popery, and the decay of ſpirit among the people, were ſymptoms that ſeemed to preſage the end of all ſort of freedom being near at hand. But his weak, bigotted, impetuous brother, not contented to let our liberties die gradually of that chronical malady under which he found them languiſhing, and by which they muſt at laſt have expired, grew in haſte for their diſſolution, and by endeavouring to precipitate their ruin drew on his own. Nay, had he been ſatisfied with the total ſubverſion of our civil liberties, even that, perhaps, he might have obtained; to that alſo, poſſibly, he might ſubſequently have added the ſubverſion of our religious rights: but nothing would content this hot injudicious man, but doing both at once; and, by aiming at both, he was prevented from accompliſhing either.

And as ſimple people will always do ſimple things, and in a ſimple manner, ſo the recent example of king Charles I. before his eyes proved no warning to deter king James from the like practices: he proceeded to the ſame violences, without dreading the ſame fate, and the incautious ſon ſplit on that very rock by which the father had been ſhipwrecked.

For as king Charles I. had certainly carried all the conteſted points of his prerogative, had it not been for the injudicious ſtep he took with regard to the liturgy in Scotland, which commenced a rebellion there, that ſoon ſpread its contagious nature here: ſo king James, had he ſuffered the change he had a mind to make in our religion to be poſtponed 'till what he contended for in prerogative had been ſettled, I fear, by degrees, he had been able to compleat his whole ſcheme; but, by endeavouring to execute it all at once, he ruined himſelf, and involuntarily ſaved the conſtitution, which he had otherwiſe deſtroyed.

From king James the IId's baniſhment, abdication, depoſition, or whatever people pleaſe to call it, we may date the

birth of real liberty in this kingdom, or at leaſt the eſtabliſhment, if not the commencement, of every valuable privilege we now enjoy. The bill of rights aſcertained all thoſe diſputable points of prerogative and liberty that had hitherto been inſiſted on, either by the crown or the people, juſt as the power of the one or the other, at different æra's, had prevailed.

For notwithſtanding the Great Charter, 'till this explanatory renewal of it, or rather 'till this ſupplemental engraftment on the Great Charter, the bounds of liberty and prerogative were ſo indiſtinctly marked out, and ſo indeterminately known, that the names of liberty and prerogative were made uſe of both by prince and people, juſt as opportunity favoured the arbitrary views of the one, or the licentious diſpoſition of the other.

No body knew the juſt degrees of either; tyranny often wore the plauſible title of the one, and rebellion as often took the ſpecious form of the other, according as occaſion offered, and as the temper and circumſtances of the times gave handle and colour to favour the ſchemes and pretenſions of one or the other of theſe exceſſes.

On the one hand, the prince had called every thing his prerogative that his ambition induced him to wiſh was ſo; every thing that his reſolution made him attempt, or his ſtrength enabled him to acquire; every thing that either the weakneſs of his people was obliged to ſubmit to, or their ſervility was ready to allow.

On the other hand, whatever encroachments were made by the people on the prerogative, went under the denomination of maintaining their liberties; every point they gained on the crown, ſtimulated by their own ſpirit and vigour, or encouraged by the indolence and ſupineneſs of their prince, was only called reviving former rights, and aſſerting ancient privileges: and thus both king and people were ever acting like thoſe two parties deſcribed by Davila, who, jealous of each other, and mutually fearing encroachments might be made upon them, if they continued quiet, were always guilty of injuſtice themſelves, to avoid ſuffering it from others; Come faſſe ſempre neceſſario o offendere o eſſere ofeſſo; as if it was always neceſſary to injure, or be injured.

The prince and people in this country were, by theſe means, formerly juſt in the ſame ſituation in which Livy deſcribes the patricians and plebeians of Rome, who, ſays he, inſtead of being joint ſupports to the commonwealth, thought of nothing but how to impair the ſtrength of one another, 'till their mutual jealouſies of each other, and their immoderate deſire of preſerving their rights, was the cauſe that, when either party was prevalent, it employed its whole power to oppreſs the other.

The greateſt misfortune, therefore, that can happen to a country that is under a mixed government, like ours, is to have the diſtricts of the chief parts of that government ſo indiſtinctly known, that thoſe who ſhould be joint-adminiſtrators of the good of the whole, are more concerned about having the power to adminiſter it, than about the good itſelf, and are ſtriving for the one, when they ſhould be promoting the other.

To ſuch ſort of contention, ſays Machiavel, is owing the ruin of moſt ſtates; Perche fra gli huomine, parte deſidenando havere di piu, parte temendo di perdere Pacquiſtato, ſi viene alle inimicitie, alle contenzione, & alle guerra, della qual naſce la rouina di quella provincia; becauſe one party deſiring to gain, and another fearing to loſe what it has gained, enmities are bred, contention enſues, and then civil war, by which the country is undone.

Upon the whole, it is apparent that, as this nation enjoyed neither civil nor religious liberty 'till the Revolution, to the whole property of the people was either at the mercy of princes or prieſts, or both; the public revenue was raiſed in an arbitrary and oppreſſive manner, and what the civil power could not wreſt from the nation, the eccleſiaſtical did, as we ſhall ſee by the following ſtate of the REVENUES OF THE CHURCH before the Reformation was ſettled.

As far as we can collect, ſays Burnet, the religious houſes in England and Wales are, in all, to the number of 1041; of theſe, only 653 are of known values, while there remain 388 of which we have no eſtimate. The only fair method of computing the value of the latter, will be by conſidering the proportion they bear to the former in number. Common arithmetic will inform us, that, if 653 houſes were eſtimated at 171,314 l. 18 s. 1 d. then 388 houſes may reaſonably amount to the ſum of 101,792 l. 0 s. 2 d. ½, which added together, make 273,106 l. 18 s. 3 d. ½. Now one penny, in thoſe days, was equivalent to a ſhilling at preſent, as doth undoubtedly appear from the obſervations that may be made upon the proportion that labourers wages *, the price of wheat †, and the ſubſidies * granted in parliament then, bear to thoſe of our time. For this reaſon, you ought to multiply the above-mentioned ſum of 273,106 l. 18 s. 3 d. ½, by 12, which will give you the real value at this day, and amounts to the ſum of 3,277,282 l. 19 s. 6 d. Now although this may appear to be almoſt an incredible ſum, yet we are not to imagine that it was the only income of theſe religious houſes: for it was only the reſerved rent of their manors, and the yearly produce of their demeſns, without computing fines, herriots, renewals, deodands, &c. which would have, perhaps, amounted to twice as much. But, to be more exact in our calculations, let us, from this yearly income of the monaſtic houſes, deduct a ſixth part for demeſns, and then the remainder will be merely their reſerved rents: if, therefore, from 3,277,282 l. 19 s. 6 d. you will ſubtract 546,213 l. 6 s. 7 d. there will exactly remain, for their rents, 2,731,069 l. 12 s. 11 d. Now the reſerved rent being, in all church tenures, at leaſt a fifth part of the eſtate, it will follow, that the lands which the monks had out upon lives, in all amounted to the ſum of 13,655,345 l. 4 s. 7 d. and if to this you add their demeſns, we may fairly affirm that the whole land which the monks were lords of, came to 14,101,558 l. 11 s. 2 d. How great a part of our land this muſt be, you may learn from the following calculation. The land-tax is paid ſo unequally, that when it is nominally four ſhillings in the pound, though in the midland counties they are kept up to the rigour, yet in the north and in the weſt, in many diſtricts, only one and a half, in others two, but in almoſt no place above two and a half is paid. We may therefore fairly affirm, that, when the land-tax is aſſeſſed for four, it brings in but full two ſhillings in the pound, or a tenth part of the income of our eſtates, reckoning one place with another. The land-tax is ſuppoſed, one year with another, to bring in two millions, and this may be accounted, when multiplied by 10, to be the value of all the lands in England, which is 20 millions per annum †; of which only 14,101,558 l. 11 s. 2 d. was dependent on our poor and humble clergy; which is, in other words, that the monks were maſters of above fourteen parts out of twenty of the whole kingdom; and out of the ſix parts which were thus kindly left dependent on king, lords, and commons, were the four numerous orders of Mendicants to be maintained, againſt whom no gate could be ſhut, to whom no proviſion could be denied, and from whom no ſecret could be concealed.

If this calculation ſhould appear greater than what our reader can eaſily give credit to, we muſt adviſe him to look into Popiſh countries, where he will diſcover that their clergy are to the full as rich in proportion as ever ours were here. A flagrant inſtance of which we have from a calculation taken by the Great Duke of Tuſcany himſelf, in his own dominions, wherein the prieſthood were found to enjoy ſeventeen parts in twenty of the whole land; which, had it not been for that ſeaſonable ſtatute of mortmain, they would ſoon have poſſeſſed here. See A Summary of all the Religious Houſes in England and Wales, &c. printed in 1717.

* The wages of an hay-maker, in the reign of Henry the VIIth, was ſettled at one penny, and, in the reign of Henry the VIIIth, never exceeded three half pence: whereas twelve-pence now is their loweſt daily hire. Vid. ſtat. 11 Hen. VII. and ſtat. 6 Hen. VIII. concerning artificers.

† We have no direct account of the price of corn in Henry the VIIIth's time, but we may ſuppoſe it the ſame as it was in that of his predeceſſor and ſucceſſor. In the 2d year of Henry the VIIth, wheat was ſold for three ſhillings the quarter; in his ſeventh year, when a terrible dearth happened, it did not riſe to above twenty-pence the buſhel; and in his tenth and fifteenth years, was ſold for four ſhillings the quarter. In the reign of queen Mary, unleſs in time of famine, wheat was commonly ſold for five ſhillings the quarter in London, and for four ſhillings the quarter in the country. So that we may fairly compute the price of wheat, in Henry the VIIIth's time, to have been four ſhillings the quarter; which, multiplied by twelve, amounts to two pounds eight ſhillings, which is but a reaſonable price for wheat at this day. Vid. Baker's Chron. Vit. Hen. VII. and queen Mary I.

* In the 10th year of king Henry the VIIth, 120,000 l. was granted by parliament for the Scotch wars, which was looked upon to be ſo exorbitant a tax, that 16,000 men roſe in rebellion to oppoſe its being levied. This aid (which was granted but 38 years before the diſſolution of the abbies) were we to multiply it by 12, would make but a trifling ſum, compared with the ſubſidies that have been yearly raiſed for the late wars. Vid. lord Verulam's Hiſtory of Hen. VII. page 163, 164.

† Gregory King's calculations, publiſhed by Dr. D'Avenant, compute the whole rents of lands in England to be but 14 millions; and Sir William Petty's calculations, which were much older, do only compute them at eight millions a year. The latter of theſe wrote in the middle of the reign of king Charles the IId. and the former in the reign of king William; and the vaſt difference between them as to the annual value of all the lands and houſes in England, we may chiefly attribute to our trade, the increaſe of which has, in half a century, much more than doubled the rents of our eſtates in this nation.

Of the STATE of the TRADE of ENGLAND, from the CONQUEST, to the time of the REVOLUTION in the reign of king WILLIAM III.

The Engliſh nation remained much in the ſame ſtate reſpecting trade and navigation, from the time of William the Conqueror to the acceſſion of queen Elizabeth to the crown of England, which then conſiſted chiefly in tranſporting tin, lead, wool, ſome leather, iron, and other productions ſufficient to purchaſe what foreign commodities they wanted.

King Edward the IIId was the firſt prince from the Conqueſt to his time, that we find took any notice of trade; for in the parliament held at Weſtminſter, in 1338, the tranſportation of wool out of the kingdom was prohibited; and, for the encouragement of foreign clothworkers and other manufacturers to come and ſettle here, a great many privileges were granted, and an allowance from the king 'till they were fixed in a competent way of living: and it was enacted, That no ſubject ſhould wear any foreign cloth for the future. From his reign to the acceſſion of queen Elizabeth, we do not find any one prince, during that ſpace of time, had much regard for trade, except what was done by Henry the VIIth, which looks rather like policy of ſtate for cruſhing Perkin Warbeck; for though he removed the mart from Antwerp to Calais, yet two years after the prohibition was taken off, and the trade was again opened to Antwerp, as formerly. About ten years after a law was made, prohibiting the importation of manufactures of ſilk wrought by itſelf, or mixed with any other thread. 'This, ſays the lord Bacon, points at a true prin-'ciple, viz. where foreign materials are but ſuperfluities, fo-'reign manufactures ſhould be prohibited, for that will either 'baniſh the ſuperfluity, or gain the manufacture.'

In queen Elizabeth's time, many and great advantages were added to trade. In the year 1579, a Turkey * company was eſtabliſhed: the ſame year Sir Francis Drake returned to England, after three years voyage round the world, and many wonderful adventures and diſcoveries, he arrived at Plymouth, bringing with him a vaſt quantity of gold and ſilver taken from the Spaniards. In her reign, alſo, a treaty was ſettled with the duke of Muſcovy, for a trade to Archangel, in which ſeveral advantages were granted to the Engliſh nation.

* However unneceſſary, and even detrimental to the ſtate, many may judge ſome of our trading companies at preſent; yet we ſhould be wanting in candour and impartiality if we ſhould ſuggeſt that their primary eſtabliſhment was uſeleſs and prejudicial to our general trade; for certainly joint ſtock trading companies were the firſt means of cutting out many of the moſt conſiderable branches of the commerce we at preſent enjoy: notwithſtanding which, it may one day prove as good policy to lay them aſide, as it was firſt to incorporate them. But, methinks, before companies are abſolutely laid aſide and diſſolved, they ſhould be rendered as beneficial to ourſelves as they will admit of; for, if they are regulated upon national principles, ſome may, perhaps, be ſtill made no leſs inſtrumental to advance our preſent trade, than they were, at their firſt inſtitution, to promote and extend it. Therefore we ſhould be certain, before we annihilate companies, to reap all the advantage that we promiſe ourſelves thereby, leſt our policy ſhould irrecoverably turn the channel of ſome trades into the hands of our competitors, inſtead of cutting them deeper in our own favour in general. See our articles COMPANIES, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and all the principal trading companies of Europe, by the Index, and our other references.

Sir Walter Raleigh, and others in her reign, diſcovered the plantations; and though the firſt planters met with almoſt inſuperable difficulties, and were often forced to quit what they had already ſettled; yet the greatneſs of their ſouls ſurmounted all difficulties, and, though often baffled in their attempts, they renewed them again with indefatigable zeal and induſtry, 'till at laſt tobacco and ſugar came to be planted, a great many ſhips built, and, in a ſhort time, not only ſupplied ourſelves with ſugar and tobacco from America, but with very large quantities to ſend abroad, and ſupplied the Baltic, Germany, Holland, Flanders, and France, with thoſe commodities, which brought in very great riches to us, and, by degrees, beat the Portugueze out of the trade of thoſe parts of Europe.

We do not find that her ſucceſſor, king James the Iſt, concerned himſelf much in trade; yet in imitation of Henry the IVth of France (who was wonderful aſſiduous in promoting all ſorts of manufactures, and, amongſt the reſt, that of planting mulberry-trees, and raiſing ſilk) made ſome eſſays towards ſuch a deſign here; and he and his courtiers ſeemed to be very fond of the undertaking, and letters were writ to Virginia, to promote that manufacture. Some ſmall progreſs was made there, and letters paſſed between the planters and gentlemen here; but, as ſoon as they thought they had engaged the planters to begin upon it, inſtead of promoting it heartily, and ſending ſome able and ſkilful perſons to direct the undertaking, they threw all upon the planters, and that noble deſign came to nothing: whereas that in France ſucceeded, to the immenſe profit of that kingdom.

King Charles the Iſt had too many things upon his hands, to concern himſelf with trade: as he was unacquainted therewith, he was eaſily impoſed on; the conſequences of which make us labour under many inconveniencies at this day; one of which was, his giving leave to the French to fiſh upon the banks of Newfoundland, to ſupply an Engliſh convent in France in time of Lent. See our article BRITISH AMERICA.

Cromwell and the Rump had ſome excellent notions of trade; they ſettled the act of navigation, beat the Dutch, forced them to a treaty, in which they were to deliver up the iſland of Pellarone, and to pay large ſums for the violences exerciſed upon the Engliſh at Amboyna; but, upon the reſtoration of King Charles the IId, the Dutch thought themſelves ſecure enough, and ſince have never made any ſatisfaction. They took Jamaica with vaſt expence, which has been repaid ſince with intereſt. The favour granted by king Charles the Iſt to the French, to fiſh upon the banks of Newfoundland, by length of time, and afterwards by the eaſier temper of king Charles the IId, gave them an opportunity of claiming a right to that part they had ſeized. It is ſaid king James II. ſhewed great uneaſineſs upon that occaſion, but nothing was done, in order to obtain ſatisfaction. The ſhort time he reigned, and his other views for eſtabliſhing the Popiſh religion, did not give him time to do any thing for trade.

In a word, from the time of the Conqueſt to the Revolution under king William III, the public revenue was, in the general, raiſed in an arbitrary and lawleſs manner; and ſcarce any other trade went on, 'till the reign of queen Elizabeth, than that between the church and the civil power, to the end that the one might the more effectually fleece and plunder the people, and get all the lands of the kingdom into their hands, as we have ſeen, and the remaining ſhare of property ſo ſettled upon the crown, that there might be no occaſion for parliaments. Thus was there, in the general, a combination between the regal and eccleſiaſtical power, to become not only abſolute maſters of all the property in the nation, but maſters over the underſtandings and conſciences of the people, that they might be ruled with a rod of iron, forged by the united tyranny of princes and prieſts.

REMARKS in another light.

We have not room, under this head, to trace the ſtate of the public revenue down from the Revolution to the preſent time; we ſhall, therefore, refer the remainder 'till we come to the article TAXES.

Our reaſon for taking notice in every reign of the ſtate and the intrinſic value of the coin, is becauſe this matter has ſo cloſe a connection with the ſums of money levied upon the people, that we can make no right judgment either of the ſtate of trade, or of the public revenue, without them; for the proper application of theſe facts will occaſionally tend to elucidate many difficulties in our reaſoning upon things of this nature. At preſent, I ſhall make a few obſervations relative to this point, the application of which may be made, by the judicious reader, as well prior, as ſubſequent to the PROTESTANT REVOLUTION.

As to the neceſſaries of life, it will be admitted that many of them are greatly advanced in their price ſince former times, even ſince the days of king Charles the IId, but every body knows, who is not wilfully blind, that ſuch additional price is, in a great meaſure, to be attributed to the modern duties of EXCISE AND CUSTOMS [ſee our articles DUTIES, LABOUR]; but ſuch of thoſe things which are the direct and immediate produce of land, and which are exempt from thoſe duties, it is not true that their price is generally enhanced; and if it were true, the neceſſary conſequence of ſuch advance would be, that the lands which produce them would yield a better annual rent; and yet this certainly is not generally the caſe, unleſs the lands have received ſome improvements.

But if by former times we mean thoſe of two hundred or three hundred years ago, every one, who has at all looked into things of this nature, knows, that in the times of Henry the IVth, or about three hundred years ago, a pound of ſilver money in tale was an actual and effective pound of ſilver, wanting a few ſhillings, and allowing a ſmall matter for allay; a ſolid, or ſhilling, or what was ſo denominated in accounts, was a twentieth part of a pound, and a penny a twelfth part of a ſhilling. From hence, without doubt, was introduced the method of reckoning by pounds, ſhillings, and pence; meaning thereby, ſuch quantities of ſilver: and we continue ſtill to make our accounts by pounds, ſhillings, and pence; though it is now merely a fiction, and ſubſiſts no where but in imagination; for a pound in money, as now called, does certainly contain no more than a third part of the ancient pound, which was a pound in weight as well as in tale. It is known too, equally well, that 15 pounds in ſilver, whether in coin or in bullion, they being both the ſame or near it, were equal to one pound weight in gold: and a pound of ſilver in weight being now cut into 3 l. 2 s. or 62 s. fifteen ſuch pounds make now 46 l. 10 s. in ſilver money in tale; and a pound of gold is now cut into 44 guineas and an half, which makes in gold money in tale 46 l. 14 s. 6 d. each guinea reckoned at 1 l. 1 s. So that gold and ſilver in our days bears

the ſame, or very near the ſame proportion to one another, as they did in former days.

How the ſtate of the ſilver coin ſtood about 200 years ago, or in the times of Henry the VIIIth, is not ſo eaſy to fix without diſtinguiſhing the times; however, it may be ſufficient here to ſay in general, that in the beginning of his reign a pound of ſilver made 2 l. 5 s. in tale, and at the latter end 7 l. 4 s. ſo great was the debaſement of the coin then by the mixture of allay: and yet once, in the time of his ſon and ſucceſſor Edward VI. this coin was made much worſe, a pound of ſilver fine making 14 l. 8 s. in tale.

I cannot forbear obſerving here, that many authors, amongſt others biſhop Fleetwood, in his Chronicon Precioſum, takes notice of this debaſement of the coin, and complains of it as a great grievance to the nation, as undoubtedly it was; but aſſerts, that an advancement of money in the denomination [ſee the article COIN], where the ſtandard of which it is made remains the ſame, is no prejudice to the public: nay, ſome carry it ſo far, as to contend it would be of advantage; whereas an advancement and a debaſement, moſt certainly are an equal miſchief, where made in an equal degree.

If the ſilver ſpecies now in being was all called in and recoined, half of ſilver and half of allay, the grievance of this is readily ſeen and admitted; but if a crown-piece were called an angel, and made to go for ten ſhillings, and the reſt of the ſilver pieces in proportion, in this, ſay they, there is no harm, the change is merely nominal.

As to ſales and bargains to be made in future, ſuch change in general is merely nominal; becauſe the parties ſelling or contracting will have regard, not to the denomination ſolely, but to the real quantity of ſilver or gold which is known, or ſuppoſed to be contained in the money in which ſuch contracts are preſumed to be paid and performed; and therefore the owners of goods would then expect to have double the quantity of money in pounds, ſhillings, and pence, for the ſame commodities which they would now ſell for the ſingle quantity: ſo that, in theſe inſtances, there would be neither prejudice nor benefit accruing to either party. But would not the caſe be the ſame, and the change be merely nominal, if the money were debaſed in an equal proportion? Exactly the very ſame, and for the ſame reaſon: for there would be the like right, the like opportunity, and the like method, of perſons helping themſelves, viz. by taking then a double quantity of money, in monies numbered, inſtead of a ſingle one which they now take.

But beſides thoſe tranſactions of buying and ſelling, and contracts in future, there are other money-matters which are to be regarded, and where this exchange will produce an effect which ſhall be more than names and mere words. There are ſuch things as old and unalterable rents, annuities perpetual and certain, debts ſubſiſting, and contracts in being, both of a public and private nature, where the ſums are fixed and determinate, to the value of many millions, perhaps not much ſhort of a moiety of the value of the eſtate of the whole kingdom; the proprietors of all which neceſſarily muſt loſe juſt as much as the money is nominally advanced, for that they will receive juſt ſo much in ſilver leſs, and in gold proportionably, as is equal to the ſuppoſed increaſe in the denomination of the money. With regard therefore to theſe perſons, an increaſe in the nominal value of money, and a decreaſe in the intrinſic value, ſuppoſing them to be in one and the ſame proportion, will have one and the ſame miſchievous effect; that is, the one or the other will ſink a moiety of their ſubſtance. Whether ſuch a project as this might not paſs in a neighbouring kingdom for a reaſonably good way of diſcharging PUBLIC DEBTS, I cannot tell; but I believe he who ſhould adviſe it, and put it in practice in England, in moſt people's opinion, would deſerve an Ax or a HALTER.

And for the advantages which are ſurmiſed would ariſe from hence to the public, viz. that ſuch a ſcheme would make the ſpecies of ſilver more plentiful, and prevent its being melted down and exported, they are both of them vain and groundleſs expectations. If the ſilver coin, ſuppoſing there are now SIX MILLIONS of that ſpecies in the kingdom, were advanced to double the preſent nominal value, we might, indeed, ſay then, that we had TWELVE MILLIONS of that ſpecies: but this ſame ſilver ſpecies, when called twelve millions, will operate in trade, or any buſineſs of the nation, juſt ſo far and no farther, than the ſame ſpecies now does; which is called only ſix millions: for that, after ſuch alteration, there can be no money-tranſactions in which ſilver is made uſe of, let the tranſaction be in a greater or a leſs ſum, but we muſt neceſſarily then make uſe of double the quantity of that money in tale, or the ſame quantity in weight, which we now make uſe of, in any caſe whatever, excepting that of paying OLD DEBTS, and making good PREVIOUS CONTRACTS. To ſay otherwiſe, or that the ſame quantity of ſilver in coin, when called twelve millions, would be of more uſe than when called ſix millions, has no more ſenſe or truth in it, than there would be in ſaying, if a piece of cloth of 5 yards long were cut into ten pieces, and thoſe pieces were called yards, that then it would go farther in making a ſuit of cloaths, than it would do if thoſe pieces were called, as they really are, half yards only. Juſt in the ſame manner, if a pound of ſilver, which is cut into 62 pieces, and which are now called ſhillings, ſhould hereafter be called ſolids, or by any other new name, and made to paſs for two ſhillings; yet a pound of ſilver, whether the 62 pieces of which it is made, are called ſhillings, or ſolids, is one and the ſame thing, and of one and the ſame value; and an old ſhilling will go as far at the market as a new ſolid. On this account, and for the ſame reaſon, any ſuch ſcheme as this, whether it be by increaſing the nominal value of money by giving it a new name, or by decreaſing its real value by debaſing it, will have no ſort of effect tending to the intereſts of trade, or preventing the exportation of our coin, either of gold or ſilver. Traders and merchants, eſpecially thoſe who deal in foreign commodities, will not have regard to the pounds, ſhillings, and pence in tale, to which ſo many pieces of ſilver or gold coin may amount, but to the pounds, ounces, and grains, which thoſe pieces will make in weight at the ſcale; and therefore, for a parcel of goods, the ſame in quantity and quality, they will then expect, and in fact will receive, ſilver or gold in exchange, the ſame in quantity and quality which they now do: and conſequently, may export ſilver or gold, with the ſame eaſe and equal profit, whatever the ſtate of the coin ſhall be: and if they can do it to advantage, I ſuppoſe they will do it; and, perhaps, there is no unanſwerable reaſon why they ſhould be prohibited.

What was the intereſt of money, or of ſilver and gold of which it conſiſted, or the price given for it on loan, two or three hundred years ago, I confeſs I have not been able to diſcover, ſo as to fix it with any certainty. Thus far, however, we may ſafely go, and perhaps that may be ſufficient for our purpoſe, as to affirm, that about two hundred years ago, it was at leaſt as high as 10 per cent. per annum, there being an act of parliament made at the latter end of the reign of Henry the VIIIth, that it ſhould not exceed that rate; ſo that it is a very fair conjecture, that it had been before that time higher: and in the time of Henry IV. poſſibly as high as 15 per cent. And every body knows, that the intereſt or price of it now is no more than 5 per cent. ſetting it at the higheſt rate it can be legally lett at.

From theſe premiſes, I mean from the different ſtates of the ſilver coin, which generally govern that of the gold coin, and from the different rates of intereſt in any periods, and in the preſent periods of time, theſe deductions may be made: that when a pound of money in tale was an effective pound of ſilver in weight, and the intereſt or price of money was at 10 per cent. if we compare the price of commodities in England now, with the price of them at thoſe times, the price now ſhould be in the proportion of 6 to 1; and if the price or intereſt of money was at 15 per cent. and the like compariſon were made, the proportion now ſhould be as 9 to 1. Our notion in this matter is, that the price of things at one time will bear that proportion to the price of them at another time, which the effective ſilver in the nominal pound at one time, bears to the effective ſilver in the nominal pound at another time, and the intereſt or price of ſuch pounds on loan at the different given times, computation being made upon both thoſe heads.

From hence we infer, if in the times of Henry the VIIIth, a pound of ſilver was cut into 40 or 45 s. and now into 60 or 62, that the price of any commodity which then was two, muſt now be three pounds, on the account of that difference only; and if the intereſt or price of money was then 10 per cent. which is now only 5, the price on that account muſt be farther doubled, and in all be 6 l. that is, the preſent price muſt be three times as much as in that reign. In like manner, if in the times of Henry the VIth, a pound of ſilver was cut into 30 and now into 62 ſhillings, from thence only the price of things now muſt be double the price of them then; and if the intereſt of money then was at 15 per cent. as very probably it might, that difference from the intereſt now will make an addition of a treble price, and the whole be as 6 to one. So in the time of Henry the IVth, when a pound of money in tale was a pound of ſilver in weight, and the intereſt was 15 per cent, which is treble the value and treble the price of each now, we muſt treble the price on each account, and the price now will be as 9 to 1.

To ſhow this I will make uſe of a familiar inſtance. A farmer or merchant, in the times when a pound of money in tale was an effective pound of ſilver in weight, and the price of it on loan was 10 per cent. is poſſeſſed of a parcel of ſheep, oxen, wool, corn, or other neceſſaries of life, to the value of 100 l. at the market-price, when he ſells them at that rate, will receive 100 l. in ſilver in weight as well as in tale, or in gold proportionably. A farmer or merchant in theſe times, therefore, muſt have 300 l. in money for a like parcel of goods, or elſe he will not have the ſame quantity of ſilver or gold in weight, though the goods ſold are in quantity and quality the ſame; that is, the preſent owner muſt have three times the price, in money as now told, as the ancient owner had, for the ſame things: that this is the fact in the inſtance of gold, as a commodity, is evident; for that a pound of gold in Henry the IVth's time was ſold for 15 l. or thereabouts, in money in tale, and now it ſells for 45 l.

45 l. and ſomething over, in the like money in tale, that is, at three times the price.

To paſs on to the difference in the rate of intereſt now and formerly. If theſe merchants have not preſent occaſion for theſe ſeveral ſums in their way of trade and buſineſs, or are deſirous to let them out at intereſt; the merchant of old times, on the loan of his 100 l. at the end of the year will receive 10 l. in ſilver, in weight as well as in tale, ſuppoſing intereſt to have been at 10 l. per cent; but the merchant of theſe times for the intereſt of his 300 l. will have no more than 15 l. in tale, which is equal only to 5 l. in weight: therefore, that the one and the other may have equal advantage from the ſame parcel of goods, the modern merchant muſt ſell his goods at 600 l. for no leſs ſum than that will yield him 10 l. of ſilver in weight for intereſt by the end of the year; that is, he muſt ſell them at ſix times the price: or otherwiſe theſe two perſons, at the end of ſuch year, will not be in equal circumſtances, though they were ſo at the beginning, when they were poſſeſſed of their goods.

If theſe merchants ſhould inveſt their money in lands of inheritance, inſtead of putting it out at intereſt, the caſe will ſtill come out the ſame. When money is at 10 per cent. the price of eſtates in fee-ſimple is 10 years value: ſo that 100 l. in old times, would have purchaſed an eſtate of 10 l. per ann. and a rent of 10 l. per ann. was a rent of ſo many pounds weight in ſilver, or near it, and of gold in proportion.

If a man were now to purchaſe an eſtate of equal goodneſs, he muſt pay for it 300 l. even though intereſt were ſuppoſed to be the ſame now as formerly, and there were no advance in the years purchaſe; for no rent leſs than 30 l. per ann. will produce 10 pounds in ſilver in weight, or proportionably in gold. And when we take into the account the difference of intereſt, it is plain, that the fall of intereſt to one half, makes a riſe of land in the purchaſe to a double price: and therefore, now legal intereſt is no more than 5 l. per cent. he muſt and does pay 600 l. for an eſtate of 30 l. per ann. that is, for an eſtate of equal goodneſs, and which ſhall yield an equal quantity of real ſilver or gold, which might have been bought 300 years ago for 100 l. he muſt now pay juſt ſix times as much.

Or take the matter in this light. The ſum of 100 l. in former ages, if laid out in lands, or lett out at intereſt, would, in a year's time, produce to the owner ten pounds weight of ſilver, or a proportionable quantity of gold; the ſum of 200 l. now, if laid out in lands, or lett out at intereſt, would in a year's time produce to the owner 10 pounds in money, as now counted: but 10 pounds in money, as formerly counted, had three times as much ſilver or gold in it, as ten pounds in money, as now counted: therefore, to produce as much ſilver or gold, within the year as formerly, three times 200 l. or 600 l. as money is now counted, muſt be laid out in land, or put out at intereſt; that is, ſix times the money muſt now be employed to produce the ſame quantity of ſilver or gold as was produced formerly by 100 l. only. The conſequence of this is, that the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, which are the things out of which money is to ariſe, when they come to a market, muſt now be ſold at ſix times the price, or ſix times the pounds, ſhillings, and pence, which they were formerly ſold at; or the very ſame things will not anſwer the ſame purpoſes of life now, which they would have done three hundred years ago.

It will be needleſs to repeat here this reaſoning, and ſhow that it is applicable to the caſe, which I have ſuppoſed poſſible, that the intereſt of money has been in ſome times at 15 per cent. and that the price of goods between thoſe times and theſe ſhould be in the proportion of 9 to 1. It may ſuffice to ſay in general, that it will hold good in that inſtance, and in any other which may be ſuppoſed; ſo that wherever the quantity or real ſilver in a nominal pound, and the current intereſt of money can be known and determined, there the price of things may be known and determined likewiſe. My notion is here, that the real and intrinſic value of the abſolute neceſſaries of life, ſuch as food and raiment, were always, and always will be, much one and the ſame, except where an accidental plenty or ſcarcity makes a temporary variation; but if we compute the value of theſe neceſſaries by a third thing as a common meaſure between them, the price, or nominal value ſo meaſured, muſt vary as ſuch meaſure itſelf varies. If ſilver be made that medium, as for many ages it has been in theſe parts of the world; and if in former times a real pound of ſilver was called a pound, a twentieth part of a pound was called a ſhilling, and the twelfth part of a ſhilling a penny; if in times ſubſequent the meaſure itſelf be varied, and a third part of a pound of ſilver be denominated a pound, and ſhillings and pence in the like proportion, the price or nominal value of the neceſſaries of life will and muſt vary with it. A quarter of wheat or malt, a pound of beef, or a yard of cloth, are now of the ſame real value as heretofore; for they will go as far towards the ſupport of human life now as they did 500 or 1000 years ago, and no farther; but their price or nominal value, as meaſured by the current coin of the kingdom, muſt vary as the coin itſelf varies; and this we muſt admit to be the caſe in ſilver itſelf, or we muſt be forced to ſay, that one third part

of a pound of ſilver, ſuppoſing no more than a third part of a pound of ſilver to be in a preſent nominal pound, is of equal value with a whole pound. For if we conſider ſilver, not as a meaſure of traffic only, but as a neceſſary or convenience of life, and as a merchandizable commodity, as we certainly may and do; one pound of ſilver is of the ſame value as another, and of the ſame value at one time as at another, greater or leſs plenty excepted; but the price or nominal value was formerly one pound only, but now we ſee it is three pounds and above in ſilver, as a meaſure: and we may rightly ſay, that it ceaſes to be one and the ſame meaſure, when it ceaſes to be one and the ſame thing in its weight and value.

From hence we plainly diſcern one reaſon, why money now is not at the ſame value as it was two or three hundred years ago, viz. becauſe the ſilver of which it conſiſts in any given ſum in tale is now only a moiety, or a third part of the quantity, which was formerly in the like ſum in tale; and it being a convenience of life and a ſaleable commodity, the real quantity of ſilver in the money is the true meaſure of its value. But, beſides this decreaſe in the value of money ariſing from the variation in the ſpecies, we find another in the intereſt, or annual premium for it. This, to be ſure, has proceeded from another cauſe; and has ariſen, as I apprehend, from the great increaſe of the moveable and eaſily transferrable eſtate in the kingdom, which for ſome time has been growing upon us, and of late has been ſo vaſtly enlarged by the PUBLIC FUNDS, and not from the INCREASE of gold and ſilver in the kingdom, either in coin or bullion, any otherwiſe than as they conſtitute a part of ſuch moveable eſtates.

For the further application of theſe principles, ſee the article TAXES, and ſuch other heads as we ſhall from thence refer to.

RHODIAN LAWS, OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

Of the naval laws and ſtatutes of the RHODIANS.

Rhodes is the capital city of a renowned iſland of that name, of about 120 miles in circumference, ſituate in that part of the Mediterranean called the Carpathian Sea, overagainſt Caria, and near the ſouth-weſt point of the Leſſer Aſia, having Cyprus to the eaſt, Egypt to the ſouth, and Candia to the weſt; its longitude being 58 degrees, and latitude 37 degrees and 50 minutes. It was beſieged and taken by the Turkiſh emperor Solyman in the year 1522, and has ever ſince been ſubject to the Ottoman empire. Rhodes, amongſt other things, is famous for the huge ſtatue or image of the ſun, which is ſaid to ſhine there at leaſt once every day in the year; the weather it ſeems never being ſo cloudy as to deprive the inhabitants of that place, for a whole day together, of the glorious appearance of that luminous body: this ſtatue was ſeventy cubits high, and one of the wonders of the world.

Though the maritime dominion of the Rhodians was once very mighty, yet they did not render themſelves ſo famous by their naval ſtrength as by their naval laws; to which even the wiſe and victorious Romans themſelves paid ſo great a deference and reſpect, that, to the immortal glory of their authors, they were honoured with the ſingular approbation of the Roman emperors, as well as of their ſenate, and they being delivered to us by Peckius, in his commentaries De Re Nautica (of maritime affairs) in two different fragments, the firſt of which, he ſays, had obtained the ſanction of the emperors Tiberius, Adrian, Antoninus, and ſeveral others; and the laſt is to be found in the 11th book of the Digeſts of the Roman Laws, where it was inſerted by the emperor Juſtinian, of which the following is a tranſlation.

But, as the cuſtoms of the Rhodian and Roman navigators were different from ours, we have judged it convenient to illuſtrate, with notes and explanations, what might otherwiſe ſeem obſcure to thoſe that are not pretty well acquainted with the naval polity of the Ancients.

SECT. I.

Containing the firſt fragment of the NAVAL LAWS of the Rhodians, as they were ratified by ſeveral of the Roman emperors.

ARTICLE I.

Of the owners of ſhips.

The wages of the owners ſhall be a double portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

Though now the maſters are not frequently the owners of their ſhips, it is probable that they generally were amongſt the Rhodians as well as Romans. For the Latin word exercitor correſponds with Ναύκληρος, which is the original term in the Greek, implies the owner of a hired ſhip, being a term ſynonymous with thoſe of navicularius and naviculator; ſo that probably the owner, being likewiſe the maſter or commander of the ſhip, was to have beſides the hire or freight

for the ſhip itſelf, a double portion for his own wages; that is to ſay, twice as much as was allowed the other mariners: but how much that portion was, is not determined, nor is it of any great importance to us to know it, ſince the wages we now give our ſea-officers and mariners, depend upon events that render that precedent uſeleſs to us.

ARTICLE II.

Of the pilots.

The wages of the pilot ſhall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The Greek term κυβερνήτης, which is moſt properly anſwered in Latin by the word gubernator (ſignifying governor) is nevertheleſs explained by a circumlocution, viz. Ille qui clavum tenet (he that ſteers the helm, or governs the ſtern of the ſhip) by which it appears, That then it was uſual for the pilot not only to direct the ſhip's courſe, but ſteer her too themſelves, as indeed they are ſtill obliged to do amongſt us, when the ſhip has any dangerous place to paſs through, or is ſo near any ſhore that a more than ordinary ſkill is requiſite to bring her ſafe off; but otherwiſe, ſuch of the other mariners as are moſt capable of that function, are appointed to do it by turns.

ARTICLE III.

Of the boatſwain.

The wages of the boatſwain ſhall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The words both in the Greek and Latin, implying that officer which rules the prow or fore part of the ſhip, we thought they could not be more naturally rendered, than by the term of the boatſwain, whoſe office is much the ſame amongſt the Engliſh mariners.

ARTICLE IV.

Of the carpenter.

The carpenter's wages ſhall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word naupegus, which the Latins have derived from the Grecians, being in effect the ſame with fabricator navium, or navis artifex, does properly ſignify a ſhip-builder, and is the ſame with what the Venetians call, in imitation of the modern Greeks, califatte, which is rendered by the French charpentier, and by us properly called ſhipwright, or ſhip-carpenter.

ARTICLE V.

Of the coxſwain's wages.

The wages of the coxſwain ſhall be one portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

Carabus, by ſeveral of the Ancients, is taken for a ſort of a ſtoreſhip, attending men of war and other great veſſels, ſuch as theſe to which we now give the name of tenders. But the officer here termed carabita, being ſpoken of as one that remains on board of the principal ſhip, it is very probable, that thereby is meant the mariner that has the charge and management of the ſhip's boat, which is all the tender that ſmall merchant-ſhips are provided with; whence we judge, that inferior officer muſt be the ſame, who by the French is called patron de la chaloupe, and by us coxſwain.

ARTICLE VI.

Of the mariners.

The wages of each mariner ſhall be one portion.
This article needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE VII.

Of the drudge or kitchen boy.

The wages of the kitchen-boy ſhall be half a portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word here uſed in the original, implying one that takes care of the fire, or lights it, &c. wanting a proper term in Engliſh to correſpond exactly with Παρασχάριτος, I thought it could not be more aptly rendered, than by the term of a drudge or kitchen-boy, &c. which is uſual enough in England.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of the merchant.

The merchant may have two boys in the ſhip, paying for their paſſage.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this article it is provided, that a merchant freighting any ſhip, and embarking himſelf with his goods, as a ſupercargo, may likewiſe carry along with him two boys or ſervants, he paying a reaſonable allowance for their paſſage.

☞ The ſix following articles treating only of paſſengers and their privileges, and duty aboard of ſhips, after inſerting them in order, we ſhall explain what may ſeem obſcure in any of them together.

ARTICLE IX.

A paſſenger's place ſhall be three cubits in length and one in breadth.

ARTICLE X.

A paſſenger ſhall not himſelf fry fiſh in the ſhip, nor ſhall the maſter allow him to do it.

ARTICLE XI.

No paſſenger ſhall cleave wood on ſhipboard, and the maſter ſhall hinder ſuch as attempt it.

ARTICLE XII.

Paſſengers ſhall receive water on ſhipboard by meaſure.

ARTICLE XIII.

A woman paſſenger ſhall have a place of one cubit aſſigned her, and a boy only one half of a cubit.

ARTICLE XIV.

If any paſſenger carries money aboard of a ſhip, let him depoſit it into the hands of the maſter; which if he fails to do, and afterwards pretends to have loſt either gold or ſilver, his oath ſhall not be valid againſt the maſter, becauſe it was not depoſited in his hands.

ILLUSTRATION of the ſix preceding ARTICLES.

Though the word vector (which we here render paſſenger) be by ſome taken for thoſe that tranſport, as well as for the perſons that are tranſported; and though Porphyrius, in queſtionibus Homericis, makes that term ſignify marine ſoldiers, it is plain by the ſenſe and connection, that by it is here meant paſſengers, or perſons embarking in a ſhip to be tranſported from the port where they embark to ſome other, upon a certain valuable conſideration to be paid by them for ſuch tranſportation, upon their arrival at the aforeſaid port.

And as to the place three cubits long and one cubit broad, mentioned in the ninth article, it is probable to be that in which they were to lie; though it muſt be confeſſed, that the length of three cubits and a half (which is here expreſsly ſpecified, and amounts to no more than four feet and a half of our meaſure) does not ſeem to be ſufficient for a man of good ſize to lie in, or at leaſt, he muſt not pretend to ſtretch out in his bed. But ſince we cannot conceive for what other uſe this room ſhould be aſſigned a paſſenger, we are of opinion that it is for a bed; nor will the ſhortneſs thereof ſurprize ſuch, as conſider the general ſmall burthen of the ancient ſhips, in compariſon with that of thoſe we now uſe; nor are the conveniencies for lodging at this time very great in little doggers, or other ſuch ſhips of 40, 50, or 60 tons; and yet I believe they are a great deal better than they were in ſhips of the like or of greater burthen amongſt the Ancients.

With reſpect to the injunction contained in the 10th article, by which paſſengers are prohibited to fry fiſh on ſhipboard, and the maſter forbid to allow any that liberty, we conceive what might give occaſion to that law, was the conſideration that paſſengers, not being ſuppoſed to be very well acquainted with ſea affairs, ſhould not be allowed to uſe the fire upon any account, which is a good preſervative againſt unlucky accidents.

By the 11th article, paſſengers are in the ſame manner forbid to cleave wood on ſhipboard, and the maſter alſo commanded to deny that privilege (as the former) to ſuch as would attempt it; which law has probably been intended for the preventing of any damage that might otherwiſe occur to the ſhip or goods, by the practice of that violent exerciſe by paſſengers, who poſſibly might do miſchief without knowing it.

The 12th article contains a very ſeaſonable regulation for obliging paſſengers to content themſelves with a moderate quantity of freſh water, which they muſt receive by meaſure whilſt on ſhipboard; for otherwiſe the freſh water, which at ſea is very precious, might be ſquandered away to the great detriment of the paſſengers themſelves, as well as of all the ſhip's company, in caſes of preſſing neceſſity.

By the 13th article it is ordained, That a woman paſſenger ſhall have a place to lie in, of a cubit in breadth; and though the length be not mentioned, we are reaſonably to ſuppoſe it not to have been intended any leſs than allowed to a man. But as for a boy (by which muſt certainly be meant any child, whether male or female) there is only allowed one half of that breadth, a convenient length being naturally ſuppoſed.

The

The 14th article contains a very juſt and reaſonable ſtatute, by which paſſengers are enjoined to depoſit their money in the hands of the maſter of the ſhip; and withal acquaints them, that if they fail in that, they are not to expect any reparation at his hands, in caſe it be ſtolen or otherwiſe loſt.

ARTICLE XV.

Of a mutual oath to be taken by maſters, mariners, and paſſengers.

The maſters, mariners, and paſſengers, that ſail together, ſhall take an evangelical oath.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word evangelical has been added by the Chriſtians to this law; for the ancient Rhodians at the time that their ſea-laws were compiled, were heathens and idolaters. What the nature and intent of this oath was, is not here expreſſed. The word in the Greek is, Ἀναμάξηλον, which Peckius renders in Latin, jusjurandum irrecuſabile; which words imply an oath that is undeniable, or that cannot be refuſed, and may likewiſe ſignify, that cannot be gainſaid, retracted, or recalled, ſo that it is probable, it was a ſort of mutual engagement, or oath of fidelity, which perſons navigating together were obliged to take. But of whatever nature that oath was, it is of no very great importance for us to trouble ourſelves about it.

ARTICLE XVI.

Of the eſtimation of the Rhodian ſhips.

The eſtimation of a ſhip (containing a thouſand meaſures) with all its tackle, ſhall be fifty nobles, and ſo it ſhall come into contribution; and the eſtimation of an old ſhip ſhall be thirty nobles, out of which deducting one third, it ſhall likewiſe come into contribution.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article ſeems difficult to be underſtood, nor ſhall we depend on our own judgment thereon.

As to the meaſure ſpoken of, ſome take it to have been that which is called both in the Greek and Latin amphora, and was a ſquare veſſel containing about nine gallons; ſo that a ſhip carrying a thouſand of them, muſt not have been of a very great burden. And as for the piece of money, which we have rendered in the Engliſh a noble, it is called in the Latin tranſlation ſolidus, and in the annotations upon that aureus, both which I find to come to much the ſame thing in Engliſh; for though by ſolidus be now ordinarily meant a ſhilling, it was formerly taken, as aureus, for an ancient piece of gold of the value of 6s. 8d. or thereabouts, and known to us by the name of a noble.

So that upon the whole, it ſeems probable, That the Rhodian legiſlators did by this article intend to fix the eſtimation of their merchant-ſhips in proportion to their burthen, to the end that according to that eſtimation they might be taxed, in caſes of contribution for damages at ſea, or perhaps in other things, in which ſhips might be liable to pay, in foreign and domeſtic ports, according to their burthen, ſuch as pilotage, anchorage, &c.

ARTICLES XVII, and XVIII.

Of loans and intereſts by ſea and land.

ARTICLE XVII.

The law thus commands that things which are intruſted to ſeafaring perſons upon ſurety, and without riſque of the lender, ſhall not be put into writing; or if a writing be made, according to the Rhodian law, it ſhall not be valid: but ſuch things as are given upon credit to perſons that travel by land, though with a ſurety and without any riſque, ſhall be reduced into writing.

ARTICLE XVIII.

If any perſon taking up money upon uſe, and paying for ſeveral years the lawful intereſt, there befals him, after eight years, any loſs or damage by fire, or by the irruption of the Barbarians, or otherwiſe, the tranſaction concerning the intereſt ſhall be made according to the laws of the Rhodians: but if the former intereſts were not paid, the contents of the firſt agreement ſhall be obſerved according to the inſtrument.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better underſtanding of what is above, it is fit to know, That amongſt the Romans there was a great difference, not only in the value of the intereſt paid for money lent at ſea, and for money lent at land, but likewiſe in the manner of conditioning and taking ſecurity for ſuch ſums.

There was, it ſeems, no intereſt due for money lent on land, except an inſtrument was produced in due form by the lender, in which all things agreed upon between him and the borrower were plainly and expreſsly ſtipulated; which ſeems to infer, that the intereſt at land was various; perhaps according to the ſecurity given, or the time which the money was to remain in the hands of the borrower, or ſome ſuch circumſtance.

And as to the intereſt of money lent to mariners and other ſea-faring perſons, it is evident that that was of two ſorts: the ordinary intereſt for money lent to mariners upon ſecurity, and without any riſque on the part of the lender, they called ſimply fœnus or uſura; but the extraordinary intereſt agreed to be paid by mariners, together with the principal, upon condition that the lender ſhould run the hazard of the ſea, and that the mariner ſhould make reſtitution only in caſe he performed happily his voyage, and not otherwiſe; that was called by the Ancients fœnus nauticum, or NAVAL INTEREST, importing that the lender took upon himſelf the hazards of the ſea; and that was deſervedly allowed to be much more conſiderable than the ordinary intereſt, for that it was not only lent without ſecurity, but likewiſe in a manner ſo inſured by the lender, that the borrower was in no danger of ſuſtaining any loſs. See BOTTOMRY.

The 18th article is a favourable ſtatute for ſuch as having borrowed money, after punctually paying the intereſt during the ſpace of eight years, ſhould ſuffer any loſs; in which caſe the laws of Rhodes (to which this ſtatute appeals) allow a certain mitigation of the intereſt for the time to come, which is not obſcure enough to want any further illuſtration.

ARTICLES XIX, and XX.

Of maſters and mariners.

ARTICLE XIX.

Maſters ſhall not be anſwerable for the contracts of their mariners, but they may be detained for their crimes.

ARTICLE XX.

Maſters ſhall be obliged to deliver and reſtore whatever they receive, but none can compel them to receive any thing, which they have from the beginning refuſed to receive.

ILLUSTRATION.

As to the 19th article, in which it is ſaid, that maſters may be detained for the faults or crimes of their mariners, but not for their debts; we preſume that the meaning is this, viz. That in caſe a mariner commits a crime, the ſhip may be ſtopped from purſuing her voyage, having the criminal aboard; and, in a word, that the maſter cannot protect ſuch a mariner from juſtice: for it is not to be imagined, that a maſter of a ſhip could be bound to anſwer perſonally for the offence of his mariners, that being againſt all reaſon and law whatſoever. And as to the matter of debts, it is not reaſonable, if people imprudently truſt ſeamen with money or things, that the maſter ſhould be obliged, either to pay the money or ſurrender the debtors; for then his voyage might be obſtructed for want of hands to man his ſhips, and ſo he and the merchants would innocently ſuffer for other people's folly; and therefore by this law it is wiſely provided, that if money or goods are given to ſeamen, the givers muſt look to their own ſecurity themſelves; by which, innumerable inconveniencies that otherwiſe might occur, are prevented.

The 20th article concerns only goods received by, or offered to maſters of ſhips upon freight.

ARTICLE XXI.

Of money taken up by maſters for the uſe of the ſhips, &c.

When maſters of ſhips, that are proprietors of one third of the lading, have taken up money for the voyage, whether for the outward or homeward bound, or both, all tranſactions ſhall paſs according to the writings drawn up between the maſter and the lender, and the latter ſhall put a man on board the ſhip to take care of his loan.

Note. This laſt article is gnawed out in the copy of the Rhodian ſea-laws in the Vatican, and in ſeveral others it is entirely left out.

The ſecond fragment of the NAVAL LAWS of the Rhodians, as extracted out of the 11th book of the Digeſts of the Roman Laws.

ARTICLES I, II, III, and IV.

Of ſtealing anchors and other things.

ARTICLE I.

If a ſhip touching at any port or ſhore, be robbed of her anchors, the thief being taken and convicted, the law condemns him to the torture, and to pay double damages.

ARTICLE II.

If with the conſent of the maſter, the ſeamen of any ſhip rob another ſhip in the port of her anchors, and thence the loſs of the ſhip ſo robbed enſue, that being duly proved, the maſter who permitted the robbery, ſhall make good to a farthing, the damage happened to the loſt ſhip, and to them

that were in it. And if any thing elſe of the ſhip's tackle, ſuch as the cables, ſhip's boat, ſails, canvas, or any other thing of that nature be ſtolen, the thief being taken and convicted, ſhall reſtore double.

ARTICLE III.

If any mariner, by the command of the maſter, ſteal any thing of a merchant, or other paſſenger, and be ſurprized in the fact, the maſter ſhall make good the double to the owners, and the mariner that committed the fact ſhall receive a hundred blows of a cudgel. But if the mariner alone be acceſſary to the theft, he ſhall be grievouſly tortured (eſpecially if it was gold that he ſtole) and ſhall make reſtitution to the owner.

ARTICLE IV.

If a maſter ſteer his courſe through any place obnoxious to pirates, after being informed of the danger thereof by the paſſengers, and thereupon they happen to be ſpoiled, the maſter ſhall make good the loſs. And if the paſſengers carry the ſhip through a dangerous place, after being acquainted with the danger by the maſter, and any miſchief happen, then they ſhall ſuſtain the damage.

The four preceding articles are in themſelves ſo plain, that they need no illuſtration.

ARTICLES V, VI, VII.

Of quarrelling, fighting, and ſtriking.

ARTICLE V.

If the mariners quarrel, let it only be in words, and let them not ſtrike one another. And if any giving another a blow on the head, wound him, or hurt him, in any other manner, he that gave the blow ſhall pay the doctor's fees and all other charges, and ſhall likewiſe pay his hire for the laſt time, and tend the hurt perſon during the cure.

ARTICLE VI.

If the mariners quarrel, and one of them ſtrike another with a ſtone or cudgel, and he returns the blow to him from whom he received it, that ſhall be deemed to have been ſe defendendo [in his own defence]: and though the perſon laſt ſtruck does thereupon die, it being proved by witneſſes that the deceaſed did firſt ſtrike the ſurvivor, either with a ſtone, with a ſtick, or with any iron, he that ſtruck and killed the other, ſhall be free from all danger, for that the deceaſed ſuffered himſelf, only what he would have made another ſuffer.

ARTICLE VII.

If any maſter, merchant, or mariner, ſtrike a man with his fiſt and blind him, or if by kicking him, he burſts his belly, beſides the doctor's fees, he ſhall pay twelve nobles to the perſon for the loſs of the eye, and ten nobles for the cauſing of a rupture; and if the perſon ſo ſtruck die, the aggreſſor ſhall be puniſhed with death.

The three preceding articles are in themſelves ſo clear, that they don't want any further explication.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of maſters and mariners running away with ſhips.

If a maſter to whom a ſhip is intruſted, with the conſent of the mariners, run away with her into a foreign country, all their goods, moveable and immoveable, and whatſoever they poſſeſs in any manner, ſhall be ſeized; and being ſold, if their price does not equal the value of the ſhip, trouble and time, the aforeſaid maſter and mariners ſhall be hired out, 'till they have made ample ſatisfaction for the damage by them cauſed.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better underſtanding of this article, it is proper to obſerve, that in ſome caſes it was cuſtomary among the Ancients, to adjudge the perſons of offenders to be diſpoſed of, or hired out by maſters, 'till by their labour they ſhould make ſatisfaction for damages by them cauſed, which they were not otherwiſe able to repair; and ſuch it ſeems was, amongſt the Rhodians, the condition of thoſe who, running away with ſhips into foreign countries, had not effects ſufficient to refund the value of the ſhips, with damages and charges; it being by this law provided, That ſuch offenders (returning into their dominions, or being apprehended, and brought within the limits of their juriſdiction) ſhould be hired to work as ſervants or bondſmen, 'till they had made ample ſatisfaction for ſuch offences.

ARTICLE IX.

Of lightening of ſhips in a tempeſt, &c.

If a maſter conſult about lightening of a ſhip, let him enquire of the paſſengers what money they have in the ſhip, and a juſt calculation being made, the money ſhall pay proportionably towards the contribution: and the beds and wearing clothes and inſtruments, ſhall likewiſe be taxed. And if an ejection be made, the maſter ſhall not be rated at more than one pound, the pilot and boatſwain half a pound, and the mariners three ſcruples. And if there be ſervants or any other perſons that are not to part from the ſhip, they ſhall be taxed at three mina's; but if they be to leave the ſhip, at two mina's. And in the ſame manner ſhall they contribute, if they are robbed of money or other things belonging to the mariners in general, by pirates. And if there intervene ſome private articles of partnerſhip concerning profits, a juſt computation being made of the ſhip and every thing in it, the partners ſhall bear their proportion of the contribution to be paid for damages.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article is the moſt important of the whole fragments, and treats of lightening of ſhips in time of a ſtorm, &c. and of the manner in which that is to be done. One may eaſily imagine, that when a ſhip is in diſtreſs and in danger of ſinking, the law of nature will oblige the perſons that are in her to uſe all poſſible means for their own preſervation: and ſhips being frequently loaden ſo full, in hopes of fair weather, that in caſe of a ſtorm, they are not well able to live at ſea, without being diſburthened of a part of their lading; it is in that caſe allowable for the maſter and company to throw overboard as much of the lading as is requiſite for enabling the ſhip to bear out againſt the tempeſt. Nor does that only happen when ſhips are overburthened: for frequently they may by ſtormy weather be reduced to ſuch a paſs, that though their lading be not extravagant, it may be neceſſary to part with ſome of it, in order to preſerve the reſt; and in that caſe, if the owner of the goods be in the ſhip, it is poſitively required, firſt to conſult him; and in his abſence, the conſent of the company is a ſufficient warrant for the maſter to diſburthen the ſhip: but the merchant or his ſupercargo, or any other perſon being preſent for him, it is requiſite that ſuch an ejection ſhould not be undertaken without his conſent. And thence it became cuſtomary, not only amongſt the Rhodians and Romans, but generally amongſt all other navigators, that the owner of the goods being preſent, ſhould, with his own hand, begin to diſburthen a diſtreſſed ſhip, by throwing ſomething overboard himſelf; after which the ſeamen and others were to follow his example, and throw over as much of the lading as might put the ſhip into a condition to reſiſt the ſtorm.

And becauſe it ſeldom happens that the whole lading of a ſhip belongs to one merchant, it is very juſtly provided, that the perſon whoſe goods are caſt overboard ſhall not be the only loſer, but that the owners of ſuch goods as have been ſaved, ſhall contribute towards the loſs of thoſe that were thrown overboard. So that even ſilver, gold, and precious ſtones (though theſe cannot be well ſuppoſed to endanger a ſhip by their burthen) muſt pay proportionably with other goods; and that not according to their bulk, but their value: nor is the owner of the ſhip at all exempted from paying his proportion, according to the value of the ſhip, becauſe the throwing over of the goods contributes to the common ſecurity of the ſhip, and all that is in it: and as every one is obliged to bear his proportion of the loſs, all endeavour to be as careful as poſſible to throw over the goods that are leaſt valuable; for otherwiſe it might happen, that the maſter and mariners, out of ſpite and revenge, might occaſion conſiderable damage to merchants, againſt whom they might have ſome private pique and reſentment.

Nor are in ſome caſes the clothes, beds, and perſonal neceſſaries, nor even the perſons of the maſters, merchants, paſſengers, and mariners themſelves, free from contributing towards the damage ſuſtained by ſuch ejections.

When it happens that goods have been thus thrown overboard to lighten a ſhip, the contribution is made in this manner. In the firſt place an account is given only of the prime coſt of the goods that are loſt, and then eſtimation being made of them that are preſerved, not according to what they coſt, but according to the price they'll probably yield at the port whither the ſhip is bound; they are all charged in proportion to their value, and muſt pay accordingly.

And in the ſame manner it is ordained, to make an equal contribution for damages ſuſtained by rovers and pirates; the good deſign of which law is to excite every individual mariner, and other perſon in the ſhip to his duty, to which the conſideration and apprehenſion of his own particular riſk, will not a little contribute.

This article concludes with a very reaſonable clauſe, obliging all perſons, though not on ſhipboard themſelves, concerned by partnerſhip in any part of the contribution to be paid out of the ſhip's cargo, to allow their ſhare of the contribution to be paid out of the goods that are preſerved, towards the price of thoſe that are loſt; which certainly is very juſt, ſince it is not thoſe who are entitled to any ſhare of the profit, ſhould decline to bear the proportion of the loſs, except by ſome ſeparate agreement the contrary be provided.

ARTICLE X.

Of ſhipwreck and other damages.

If by the negligence of maſter and mariners, any damage or ſhipwreck happen, they ſhall be anſwerable for it. And likewiſe

wiſe, if by the fault of the merchant the ſhip and cargo periſh, he ſhall ſuſtain the loſs. But if a ſhipwreck happen merely by misfortune, without any failure on either ſide, what can be ſaved of the ſhip and lading, ſhall be prized and brought to a contribution.
This article is too plain to need any explication.

ARTICLE XI.

Of old and unſound ſhips.

Let not merchants nor paſſengers put heavy and precious goods in an old ſhip: if they do, and the ſhip ſetting ſail, the goods be ſpoiled or damnified, they muſt blame themſelves. But when merchants hire ſhips, let them diligently enquire of others who have formerly ſailed in them, whether they be well provided with all neceſſary inſtruments, tackle, good ſails, yards, canvas, anchors, ropes, convenient rudders, good boats, and able, ſkilful, and ſufficient mariners, and whether the ſhip's ſides be ſound: and, in fine, to comprehend all in one word, let them enquire about the ſhip's ſufficiency in every thing, and accordingly venture their goods.
This article requires no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XII.

Of a depoſitum or truſt by ſea and land.

If a perſon depoſit any thing either in a ſhip or houſe, though in the hands of a known and reputable man, let it be done in the preſence of three witneſſes. But if the matter be of conſequence, let a writing be drawn up upon it. And if the perſon in whoſe cuſtody it is left, pretend that it is loſt, he muſt ſhow the place where the houſe has been broke, or make it appear how the theft was committed, and make oath, that he is no way acceſſary to it. Which if he cannot do, he muſt make good the thing depoſited as he received it.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this good law, the Rhodians endeavoured to obviate the abuſes, which the avarice and diſhoneſty of men had, by reaſon of the deficiency of former ſtatutes, found means to introduce into trade. And as here a ſufficient remedy is appointed againſt the unjuſt denials and pretences, which in ſuch caſes were ordinarily made uſe of, ſo by the ſubſequent article, for avoiding all occaſions of confuſion and loſs by the mariners, &c. perſons carrying money aboard of ſhips are enjoined to depoſit the ſame in the hands of the maſters, who in that caſe are to be reſponſible for it, and not otherwiſe.

ARTICLE XIII.

Of money, &c. ſtolen at ſea.

If a paſſenger embarking in a ſhip carry money, or any other thing along with him, let him depoſit it in the hands of the maſter. And if (that not being done) he alleges, that he has loſt either gold or ſilver, no notice ſhall be taken of what he ſays, further than this, that the maſter, mariners, and other paſſengers in the ſhip, ſhall be interrogated upon oath about it.

ILLUSTRATION.

This is much the ſame with the 13th article of the preceding ſection, only with this difference, that whereas in the former, no injunction is laid to put the maſter or mariners, &c. of any ſhip upon their oath in caſes of this nature, that deficiency is here ſupplied, and all perſons navigating in a ſhip, where any money or other valuable effects are miſſing, are obliged to declare upon oath, whether they know any thing concerning them.

ARTICLE XIV.

Of depoſitaries denying the receipt of what was left in their hands, and their puniſhment.

If a depoſitary denying upon oath, or by writing, the receipt of what was entruſted to him, be afterwards convicted by witneſſes, or if the thing depoſited be found in his cuſtody, he ſhall reſtore twofold, and, beſides that, ſhall be puniſhed as one guilty of wilful perjury.
This needs no explication.

ARTICLE XV.

If merchants or paſſengers having other men's ſervants aboard a ſhip under their charge, or if the maſter, being entruſted with captives, touch at any city, port, or coaſt, and there, any perſon or perſons going aſhore, the ſhip happening, whilſt they are at land, to be purſued by robbers or pirates, and making the ordinary ſignal puts to ſea, ſo that both the ſhip and the merchants and paſſengers goods are preſerved, all the goods and effects of thoſe that were left aſhore ſhall be reſtored to them. And if any of them afterwards commence a ſuit againſt the maſter, for having left them aſhore in a place infeſted with robbers, they ſhall recover nothing, becauſe the maſter and mariners were obliged to fly from the pirates. But if a merchant or maſter leave another man's ſervant, who was under his charge in any place, he ſhall make reſtitution to his maſter.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better underſtanding of the ſenſe of this article, it ſeems neceſſary to obſerve, that as in moſt other things, ſo in war, the cuſtoms of the Ancients did very much differ from theſe of the preſent age; and that eſpecially with regard to priſoners taken in war, who for the moſt part were made ſlaves; that is to ſay, remained in perpetual captivity. And though amongſt the more civilized nations, ſome regard was had to their quality and ſtation, thoſe of the common ſort were ſold and diſpoſed of, as are now the negroes, which we purchaſe in Guinea, and carry to the plantations in America. And in this ſenſe is to be underſtood the captives and ſervants here ſpoken of, and ſuppoſed to be committed to the care of maſters, merchants, or paſſengers, who by this law lie under an obligation of looking ſo narrowly after them, that if by any accident they ſhould happen to be left aſhore, the perſons under whoſe conduct they were left, ſhould be anſwerable for them, and liable to make reſtitution either of the perſons or value to the owners.

ARTICLE XVI.

Of money lent for naval intereſt, &c.

If maſters or merchants borrow money for their voyages, the goods, freight, ſhips, and money being free, they ſhall not make uſe of ſuretyſhip, except there be ſome apparent danger, either of the ſea, or of pirates. And for money ſo lent, the borrowers ſhall pay NAVAL INTEREST.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this law, merchants and mariners borrowing money to be laid out in their traffic by ſea, ſeem to be enjoined to pay naval intereſt for it, which (as already obſerved) was much more conſiderable than that which was paid for money borrowed upon ſecurity at land, becauſe the hazard was much greater: for, amongſt the Rhodians, when money was lent upon naval intereſt, the riſk was to the lender, who, in conſideration of that, had a very conſiderable ſhare of the profits ariſing from it: ſo that, upon the main, it was the lenders that traded with their own money, by the intermiſſion of ſuch ſeafaring perſons as thought fit to follow that way of living, and who undoubtedly made a great profit for themſelves with the money ſo borrowed, beſides the ſhare they were obliged to give the lenders for the uſe of their money, and for the dangers to which it was expoſed.

ARTICLE XVII.

Of money lent in partnerſhip.

If money is lent to a ſeafaring perſon by one in partnerſhip with him, for the uſe of the partnerſhip, and articles be drawn, either for one voyage, or for any longer time that the partnerſhip is to laſt, if the perſon receiving the money doth not return it in the time agreed upon to the owner, and it afterwards happens to be loſt, either by fire, robbery, or ſhipwreck, the lender ſhall bear no ſhare in the loſs, but ſhall receive his own in ſafety. But if before the expiration of the time appointed for the partnerſhip, there happens any loſs or damage at ſea, the loſs (as well as the gain) ſhall be divided between them both, according to the agreement made.
This needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Of perſons borrowing money upon ſecurity, and afterwards going abroad.

If any perſon borrowing money for a certain term, does afterward go into a foreign country, the time agreed upon being expired, the loan ſhall be paid according to the law of ſuretyſhips. But if there be no way of getting ſatisfaction, and the money ſtill remains in the hands of the borrower, he ſhall pay NAVAL INTEREST for all the time that he was abſent.

ILLUSTRATION.

Some account has already been given of the difference that there was amongſt the Rhodians, between the intereſt paid for money borrowed at land, and to be employed there, and that which was borrowed by ſea-faring people, to be laid out in goods, and tranſported to foreign countries in the way of trade. We have likewiſe taken notice that, in the latter caſe, the lenders were allowed to receive much greater profits than in the former, becauſe their riſk was greater. Now the intent of this article is, only to command the like intereſt to be paid for money borrowed by a perſon, who afterwards retires to a foreign country, during the time that he remains there; becauſe the legiſlators thought it juſt to give the lenders ſome extraordinary allowance for the diſappointment they met with, and the riſk they might run upon ſuch occaſions.

ARTICLE XIX.

Of freighting of ſhips, and giving earneſt.

If any perſon hiring a ſhip, and giving earneſt, ſays afterwards that he has no occaſion for her, he ſhall loſe his earneſt;

neſt; but if the maſter recede from the agreement, he ſhall give the merchant double the earneſt.
This article needs no explication.

ARTICLE XX.

Of charter-parties.

In hiring of ſhips, the charter-parties [ſee CHARTER-PARTY] ſhall not be valid, except they be ſealed; and the penalties may be inſerted, with the conſent of the parties. But if there be no charter-party, and either the maſter or freighter go from their word, as ſuppoſe the merchant ſhould not give the money agreed to, he muſt pay half the freight to the maſter; or, if the latter break his word, he ſhall pay to the merchant the half of the freight; but if the maſter pretend intirely to recede from the bargain, he ſhall pay to the maſter the whole freight; which penalty ſhall be exacted as a puniſhment for breach of promiſe.
This does not want any illuſtration.

ARTICLE XXI.

Of maſters or owners of ſhips in partnerſhip together.

If two maſters of ſhips verbally enter into partnerſhip, acknowledging that they have done ſo in former times, and have mutually obſerved the conditions thereof, and always paid the duty of each lading; in caſe any accident happens to either of the two ſhips, whether being in ballaſt or laden, that which is ſafe ſhall ſuſtain one fourth-part of the damage, though their partnerſhip be commenced without any written inſtrument. But where there are articles in writing, they ſhall be firm and valid, and the things which are ſaved ſhall be liable to a contribution with thoſe that are loſt.

ARTICLE XXII.

Of merchants freighting a whole ſhip.

If a merchant freighting a ſhip agrees to lade it intirely himſelf, the maſter ſhall carry nothing in it but water, proviſions, ropes, &c. and other the ſhip's neceſſary tackle; however, if the maſter will put in other goods in the ſhip, he may, if ſhe can carry them. But if the merchant, in preſence of three witneſſes, proteſt againſt it, and thereupon there happens at ſea to be an ejection, the maſter ſhall ſuffer the damage; but, if the merchant do not forbid it, they ſhall contribute towards the aforeſaid damage.

ARTICLE XXIII.

Of the validity of charter-parties.

If there is a charter party in being between the merchant and the maſter, it ſhall be valid; and, though the merchant does not compleatly lade the ſhip, he ſhall pay the freight, according to the contents of that inſtrument.
This wants no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XXIV.

Of lets and impediments in voyages.

If the maſter having received half of the freight, and ſetting ſail, the merchant will return, notwithſtanding the charter-party, he forfeits the ſum he has paid for that impediment. But if the maſter breaks the articles, he ſhall forfeit the value of the whole freight to the uſe of the merchant.

ILLUSTRATION.

That the reader may not confound this article with the 20th of this fragment, which likewiſe treats of the penalties impoſed upon ſuch as having freighted ſhips, do afterward recede from their contracts, which are different from thoſe mentioned in this article; we ſhall put him in mind, that there the breach of verbal bargains and agreements about freighting of ſhips, is ſpoken of; whereas the penalties here mentioned are for the breach of charter-parties, which are written inſtruments, ſolemnly ſigned and ſealed; and, beſides that, it is more properly the impediments that may happen during the voyage that are here treated of. [See the article CHARTER-PARTY.]

ARTICLE XXV.

Of demurrage, &c.

If a ſhip be detained by the merchant ten days longer than the time appointed by the charter-party to remain in any port, he ſhall find the company in victuals and drink; and, if ten days more paſs, the merchant ſhall pay the freight, and quit the ſhip, except he be willing to add a reaſonable ſum to that before agreed to; upon payment of which he may ſail, as he ſees convenient.

ARTICLE XXVI.

Of maſters or mariners lying aſhore, or being negligent.

If the maſter or any of the mariners lying aſhore, the ſhip happens, during their abſence, to periſh, whether by night or by day, the maſter or mariners ſo lying aſhore ſhall ſuſtain the damage, and thoſe who remain in the ſhip ſhall be free; and whatever damage befals a ſhip by any one's negligence, ſhall be refunded to the owner by the perſons by whoſe fault it happened.
This needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XXVII.

Of ſhipwrecks happening by the fault of the maſter or mariners.

If a ſhip puts to ſea with merchants or partners goods, and there happens to be diſabled, or to periſh by the fault of the maſter or mariners, the goods that are ſaved ſhall be ſecured in a certain place, free from any danger. But if it is proved by witneſſes that the ſhipwreck was occaſioned by the tempeſt, as well what remains of the ſhip, as of the goods, ſhall be brought to a contribution; and the maſter ſhall retain half the value of the freight. And if any perſon denying, in ſuch a caſe, his partnerſhip in a voyage, be convicted thereof by three witneſſes, he ſhall pay his proportion of the loſs, and likewiſe undergo the puniſhment of that denial.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this law we ſee, that further proviſion is made for determining ſuch differences as might probably ariſe between the parties concerned, in caſe of ſhip-wreck: it being poſitively ordained, that, in caſe ſuch a diſaſter ſhould in any manner happen by the fault of the mariners, then the lading (if ſaved) ſhould be preſerved for the merchant, free from all contribution towards the damage of the ſhip; leaving the other matters, concerning that which the goods may have ſuſtained, to be decided according to the other preceding ſtatutes relating to ſuch affairs. This article concludes with a very juſt and equitable regulation, concerning perſons who having only verbally taken an intereſt in any ſhip, or in its lading, in caſe of ſuch a diſaſter, ſhould pretend to deny themſelves to be concerned therein, in order to avoid the paying of a ſhare of the loſs proportionable to what they would have claimed in the profit; of which being duly convicted, they were to pay a double ſhare of the loſs, and be further puniſhed for their fraudulent denial, as the law required.

ARTICLES XXVIII, and XXIX.

Of the ſtaying of ſhips in ports, and ſhipwreck, or other damage happening thereupon.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

If a ſhip be detained by a merchant or partner, ſo that ſhe cannot ſail from her port upon the day appointed, and that ſhip happens afterwards to be taken by pirates, or to periſh by fire or ſhipwreck, he that was the cauſe of her being detained ſhall pay the damage.

ARTICLE XXIX.

If a merchant in the port where the charter-party is made, does not, at the day appointed, lade the ſhip, and ſhe afterwards ſuffers any damage by pirates, fire, or ſhipwreck, the merchant ſhall pay all the damage; but if before the day appointed any ſuch accident happens, they ſhall both contribute.
Theſe two articles need no illuſtration.

ARTICLES XXX, and XXXI.

Of ſhips that are loſt, and the merchant's money ſaved.

ARTICLE XXX.

If a merchant lade a ſhip, and, carrying money with him, any accident happens to the ſhip, ſo that ſhe being broken to pieces, the goods are loſt, what can be ſaved of the ſhip or goods ſhall be liable to a contribution; but the merchant paying the tenths, ſhall keep his money: and, if he eſcaped alone, without laying hold of any implement of the ſhip, he ſhall only pay half freight, according to the charty-party; but if he made uſe of any tool belonging to the ſhip, in ſaving of himſelf, he ſhall pay a fifth of the money preſerved.

ARTICLE XXXI.

If a merchant lades a ſhip, and any accident happens, whatever is preſerved on either ſide ſhall be liable to a contribution. If there be money ſaved, it ſhall pay a fifth; and the maſter and mariners ſhall uſe their utmoſt endeavours to ſave it.
This needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XXXII.

Of a ſhip going to ſea for a freight, or in partnerſhip, and there ſuffering ſhipwreck.

If a ſhip, being laden by a merchant, puts to ſea, either for a freight, or in partnerſhip, and ſome misfortunes befal her, the merchant ſhall not diſpute the paying of half freight; and what is ſaved of the goods ſhall, together with the ſhip, be

be liable to a contribution. But if the merchant, or partner, has advanced any money beforehand, all things ſhall paſs according to the form of the written agreement made between them.

This article needs no explication.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

Of accidents befalling a ſhip after ſhe is unladed.

If a maſter unlade the goods at the appointed port, and afterwards any accident befals the ſhip, the merchant ſhall pay him the whole freight; and the goods unladed, together with the ſhip, ſhall be ſecure from the paſſengers. But if any thing remains in the ſhip, it ſhall be liable to a contribution with the ſhip.

ILLUSTRATION.

What is here meant by the unladed goods and ſhip's being ſafe from the paſſengers, ſeems a little obſcure: perhaps, in ſuch caſes, the paſſengers were not allowed any reparation of the damage they might ſuſtain in the clothes and perſonal neceſſaries they might have on ſhip-board; becauſe they being only there accidentally, and having no intereſt in the voyage, it was not, probably, thought juſt, that the goods of a merchant who hired the ſhip, and paid the freight, ſhould bear any proportion of the loſs ſuſtained by a paſſenger, by whom he was to expect no profit. Without this interpretation, we do not ſee how the laſt ſentence of this article can be made conſiſtent with the words immediately preceding.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

Of goods ſpoiled in the hold, by leakage or water, &c.

If a ſhip has linen or cloths aboard, the maſter ſhall provide good canvas, leſt the goods ſhould be damnified by the flowing in of the water in the time of a ſtorm. If the pump or ſink too much fills the ſhip, the maſter ſhall forthwith acquaint ſuch as have goods on board, that they may be viewed; and if the ſeamen not informing the maſter thereof, the goods be ſpoiled, the maſter, together with the mariners, ſhall refund the damage: but if it appear that the maſter and mariners declared that the ſink was too full, and that the goods ſhould be laid abroad, and thoſe that laded them neglect it, the maſter and mariners ſhall be no ways liable to the damage.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article contains a very commendable regulation for obliging the maſters and mariners of ſhips to be careful of the lading, and to have continually an eye upon the hold, to ſee that it be clear of water, and that every thing remain in a ſecure ſituation. Nor is there any thing more juſt, than that the damage occaſioned by the negligence and careleſſneſs of maſters and mariners, ſhould be repaired by them, ſince otherwiſe ſome of them would be ſo indifferent in regard to merchants goods, that they would ſcarce be at the pains to ſtow them in places of the hold convenient for them: and, on the other hand, it is no leſs reaſonable that, if the maſters and mariners acquit themſelves of their duty, in acquainting the owners of the goods of the danger that they are in, and they notwithſtanding refuſe to let them be removed, the owners themſelves ſhould ſit down with the loſs, which they would not prevent. However theſe are caſes which very ſeldom happen among us.

ARTICLE XXXV.

Of a ſhip lightening her burthen in diſtreſs.

If a ſhip either having loſt her maſt by accident, or, it being cut, throws over any of her lading in that diſtreſs, all the mariners, merchants, and goods, and what is preſerved of the ſhip, ſhall be liable to a contribution.

This needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

Of ſhips running aboard of one another.

If any ſhip under ſail, in the day-time, run aboard of another lying at anchor in an harbour, or that has ſlackened her ſails, all the loſs and damage ſhall fall upon the maſter and paſſengers, and goods of the ſhip under ſail, which ſhall be liable to a contribution. If it be in the night-time, the ſhip that ſlackens her ſails ſhall put out a light, or, wanting that, ſhall endeavour to avoid the danger, by ſhouting and crying; both which being neglected, and the ſhip periſh, it is her own fault; and that being duly proved, no reparation ſhall be made by the other. But if thoſe that have the management of the ſails be negligent, and the commander of the watch be aſleep, the ſhip which has its ſails ſpread ſhall be deemed to be the author of that misfortune, and ſhall refund the damage done to the ſhip ſhe runs aboard of.

ILLUSTRATION.

That ſome particulars of this article ſeem to be a little ſevere, muſt indeed be acknowledged: for though it be highly reaſonable, that if a ſhip under ſail runs aboard of another, which not being in that diſpoſition, cannot avoid the danger with which ſhe is threatened, it is very hard that the goods of the merchant ſhould pay for the fault of the ſeamen, in which he can have no hand; and yet more unaccountable, that an innocent paſſenger (who perhaps is an utter ſtranger to all thoſe matters) ſhould ſuffer for the malice, ignorance, or neglect of an obſtinate crew. However it ſeems that hereby the Rhodian legiſlators intended to ſtir up all perſons whatſoever, by the powerful motives of their own private intereſt, to do their utmoſt endeavour to prevent all ſorts of unhappy accidents; and, indeed, it ſhould be the principal care of all ſeafaring perſons to avoid ſuch dangerous rencounters: but, as it is not poſſible for a ſhip that is either lying at anchor, or has her ſails in ſuch a poſture that ſhe cannot of a ſudden change her courſe, to prevent ſuch meetings, the ſhip that has her ſails in a good diſpoſition, and may ſteer another way, is obnoxious to the law for all the damage that may befal another of whom ſhe runs aboard, than which, nothing is more reaſonable. If the damage is occaſioned by the omiſſion of thoſe that receive it, they muſt e'en take it for their pains; for if, in a dark night, a ſhip lying at anchor in any road, puts out no light and keeps no watch, another ſailing that way may very innocently run aboard of her, without being aware of the danger; and therefore due care ſhould be taken to keep a regular watch there, as well as at ſea, and likewiſe to put out lights, by which it may be diſcovered from afar, and thereby freed from ſuch unhappy accidents.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

Of a ſhip being loſt, and the lading ſaved.

If any accident befal a ſhip, by which ſhe periſhing, the goods of the merchants and paſſengers are notwithſtanding preſerved, the goods preſerved ſhall pay their ſifteenths, but the merchants and paſſengers ſhall not pay the maſter for the ſhip.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

Of ſhips laden with corn, and ſurprized with a ſtorm.

If a ſhip laden with corn be ſurprized with a tempeſt, the maſter ſhall take care to give good canvas, and the ſeamen to keep the pump clear; which if they neglect, and the corn is thereby wet, the mariners alone ſhall bear the damage: but if the corn be damnified by the ſtorm, without any fault on their part, the damage ſhall be borne by the maſter and mariners, together with the merchant; and the maſters and mariners ſhall have a hundredth part of what is preſerved. And when the ſhip is to be lightened at ſea, the merchant ſhall firſt throw ſomething overboard, and then the mariners muſt follow his example: but, if any of them afterwards ſteal any thing, they ſhall reſtore it double, and loſe all manner of benefit.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

Of laded ſhips being carried out of their courſe and loſt.

If a ſhip ſetting ſail, laden with corn, wine, or oil, be carried by the maſter (without the merchant's conſent) to any ſhore or place out of her courſe, and there happens to be ſhipwrecked, the goods and lading being ſaved, the merchant ſhall ſuffer nothing by the ſhip's misfortune, becauſe he was not for touching at that place. But if (the ſhip being under ſail) the merchant tells the maſter that he muſt of neceſſity touch at any place that is not mentioned in the charter party, and there the ſhip happens to periſh, the lading being ſaved, the merchant ſhall make good that ſhip to the owner: but, if the thing was undertaken by their mutual conſent, they ſhall contribute for the damage.

Theſe articles need no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XL.

Of the ſhipwreck of ſhips, out of which precious goods are ſaved.

If any ſhip ſuffers ſhipwreck, and, nevertheleſs, a part both of the ſhip and goods be ſaved, if the paſſengers have gold, ſilver, velvet, pearls, or precious ſtones about them, the gold that is ſaved ſhall pay the tenths, and the ſilver the fifths: and, if the velvets be not damnified, they ſhall pay the tenths, as gold; but if they be, the damage ſhall be deducted, and the remainder ſhall contribute; and the pearls, as they ſhall be rated, equalling the weight of gold, ſhall compenſate the value of the ſhip.

ILLUSTRATION.

What the reaſon may be that ſilver, which certainly is more burthenſome in a ſhip than gold, ſhould pay one half leſs towards the damage in caſe of ſhipwreck, cannot eaſily be conceived, no more than what ſhould make velvets, which are yet more burthenſome and bulky than ſilver, be taxed twice as much as ſilver. It is certain, that that commodity was much eſteemed among the Ancients, when it was not ſo commonly wore as it is now; but we can hardly believe that it was more precious than ſilver. As to the pearls, of which

which mention is here made, the term in the Greek is μαργαρίτα, which, in the Latin tranſlation, is rendered uno, from unus, ONE, becauſe (ſeveral being found in one ſhell) not one of them is like another; but that term not being uſual in England, we thought it convenient to render it by the common name of pearl.

ARTICLE XLI.

Of ſhips being loſt, and the goods of paſſengers ſaved.

If any ſhip be diſabled or loſt, and there being paſſengers on board, their goods and baggage be ſaved, they ſhall contribute towards the loſs of the ſhip: and if two or three of the paſſengers loſe their money, all the others (according to their ability) together with the ſhip, ſhall contribute towards the loſs of their money.

ARTICLE XLII.

Of a ſhip's being laden with goods, and turning leaky.

If a merchant-ſhip turn leaky, the lading being taking out, it ſhall be in the maſter's choice to put it aboard another ſhip, or aboard the ſame, if once repaired; and that not being repaired, if the maſter offers to carry them in another to the port agreed upon, the merchant ſhall pay the whole freight.

ARTICLE XLIII.

Of ejection and damage in a tempeſt.

If a ſhip be ſurprized with a ſtorm, and an ejection be made, or if the yard-arms, maſts, rudder, anchors, or ſhip boats be broken, all that is preſerved of the ſhip and goods ſhall contribute towards the damage.

ARTICLE XLIV.

Of other damage happening in tempeſts.

If a ſhip has goods on board, and in a tempeſt loſe her maſts, rudder, boats, &c. and, by the violence of the ſtorm, the goods happen to be wet, there ſhall be a contribution; but, if the lading be more damnified by the ſink than by the tempeſt, the maſter ſhall, notwithſtanding, receive his whole freight, but ſhall deliver the goods by the ſame meaſure, and in the ſame condition that he received them.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article contains a ſpecial proviſo for preventing of damage to merchants goods, by the negligence of the mariners, in not taking due care of the hold and the pump, which ſometimes occaſions conſiderable loſs to the owners of the lading; for which, the maſter of a ſhip is very juſtly, by this law, obliged to reſtore the goods (the danger of the ſea only excepted) by the ſame meaſure, and in the ſame condition, in which he received them; and, on the other hand, the merchant is enjoined to pay his full freight. Now, as to this law obliging the maſter to return the ſame meaſure of goods, in the ſame condition he received them, that is, in ſome caſes, impoſſible; for there being goods which, if once wet, can never be reſtored to their primitive goodneſs and luſtre, they cannot, conſequently, be returned in the ſame condition; by which it is plain, that as no law commands impoſſibilities, here muſt only be meant, that if, by the neglect of the maſter and mariners, the goods be damnified in the ſhip, he muſt ſuſtain the damage.

ARTICLE XLV.

Of ſaving any part of a ſhipwreck.

If a ſhip be ſurprized at ſea with whirlwinds, or be ſhipwrecked, any perſon ſaving any thing of the wreck, ſhall have one fifth of what he ſaves.

ARTICLE XLVI.

Of ſeamen periſhing in a ſtorm, and of the ſhip's boat.

If the ropes break, and the boat goes adrift from the ſhip, with mariners in it, and they periſh at ſea, the maſter ſhall pay their heirs one full year's wages; and if any perſon finds the boat, and preſerves it ſafe, he ſhall reſtore every thing as he found it, and receive one fifth part as a reward.

ARTICLE XLVII.

Of ſhipwrecked goods fiſhed up in the ſea.

If gold or ſilver, or any other thing, be taken up out of the ſea eight cubits deep, he that ſo takes the ſame up ſhall have one third; and, if 15 cubits, he ſhall have one half, becauſe of the depth: and if any thing is caſt on ſhore by the tide, and taken up only one cubit deep, the finder ſhall have a tenth part.

ILLUSTRATION.

The three precedent articles determine the rewards due to perſons that find and ſave ſhipwrecked goods, as three of the four ſubſequent do the puniſhments of ſuch as ſteal or embezzle any part of a wreck, or do in any manner aggrieve, or cauſe any detriment to perſons under that misfortune: and as the circumſtances of place, &c. are different, the rewards are always to be proportionable to the danger from which the perſon delivers the goods; it being very reaſonable that a perſon fiſhing up goods in the main ſea have a more conſiderable reward allowed him, than one that finds them caſt aſhore upon the ſea-ſands.

ARTICLE XLVIII.

Of perſons taking ſhipwrecked goods by violence.

Whoever takes any thing from a wreck by violence, ſhall reſtore four-fold.

The above article is taken out of the ſecond title of the eleventh book, and is of itſelf ſo expreſs and rational, that it needs no illuſtration.

ARTICLE XLIX.

Of ſuch as force maſters of ſhips to ſail.

Whoever impoſes a private burthen upon the public, and forces a maſter of a ſhip to ſail, ſhall not only bear the loſs and damage of the ſhipwreck, but be ſeverely puniſhed.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article is taken out of the fifth title of the aforeſaid book, and does not ſeem ſo very plain but that it may admit of a ſhort explication.

We ſhould, indeed, have been at a loſs to gueſs at the meaning of it, if the ſummary prefixed to it had not been plainer than the article itſelf, in which theſe words [to ſail] are only underſtood, but are expreſſed in the ſummary preceding the article; ſo that, comparing both together, we find the meaning of it to be this: that if any merchant, or other perſon, ſhould, upon any occaſion, force a maſter of a ſhip to ſail againſt his own will and inclination, and there ſhould afterwards happen any misfortune or diſaſter to the ſhip, the perſon that forced the maſter to ſail ſhould be anſwerable for all the damages: which, indeed, is highly reaſonable.

We own that it is very oddly expreſſed in the article, which verbatim runs thus: Whoſoever impoſes a private burthen upon the public, and forces a maſter to it, ſhall not only, &c. But conſidering that the word imponere, which we here render impoſe, may likewiſe ſignify to lade, and that onus, which we render burthen, may likewiſe very properly ſignify the burthen or lading of a ſhip, and conſidering alſo the following words of the article which concern ſhipwreck, or damage happening in ſuch a caſe, it is plain enough, that the natural ſenſe of that law can be no other than what we have interpreted it.

As to the words private and public, they ſeem to be properly enough made uſe of on this occaſion, becauſe, when a man pretends to force another perſon, againſt his will, to take an intereſt in his private and particular concerns, it is certainly an impoſition on the public; for though injuries done to particular perſons regard immediately only them to whom they are done, yet they mediately affect the commonwealth in general, which is undoubtedly attacked in every aſſault that is made upon the perſon or privileges of any of its members; which plainly appears from the univerſal practice and conſent of all the kingdoms, ſtates, and civil ſocieties in the world, who agree that the public has a right to puniſh crimes, though committed againſt private perſons, and that without the conſent of the perſons to whom the injuries were done, it not being neceſſary that that ſhould intervene in order to the criminal's puniſhment: and ſo we may obſerve, that in ſuch caſes, beſides the counſel appearing for the plaintiff at the proſecution of the criminal, the ſollicitor, or attorney-general, ordinarily appears for the king, as they likewiſe do in other countries.

ARTICLES L, and LI.

Of perſons violently robbing and preying upon ſhipwrecks.

ARTICLE L.

Whoever violently takes away any of the miſerable remainders of ſhipwrecks, or takes any advantage of that grievous misfortune, ſhall reſtore fourfold to the owners.

ARTICLE LI.

If any man more grievouſly oppreſſes ſhipwrecked perſons, and forcibly carries off any ſhipwrecked goods, after reſtitution made, if he is a freeman, he ſhall be condemned to three years baniſhment; if a man of low degree, he ſhall be employed in the public works during that time; and if a ſlave, he ſhall be put to the moſt ſevere and hardeſt labour.

ILLUSTRATION.

Theſe two laſt articles are extracted out of the 5th title of the LXIId book of the Digeſts, and determine the puniſhments to be inflicted upon perſons robbing, or in any manner oppreſſing ſuch as have had the misfortune to ſuffer ſhipwreck; which puniſhments are proportioned to the circumſtances by which thoſe crimes may either be aggravated or extenuated. Moſt happy would our mariners think themſelves, if ſuch wholeſome conſtitutions could take place throughout all his Britannic Majeſty's dominions, in ſome parts whereof they are extremely wanted, and particularly upon the coaſt of Cornwall and Wales, where, if an unfortunate ſhip does happen to run aſhore upon the ſands or rocks, the inhuman, brutiſh, and uncivilized inhabitants, far from tendering any friendly ſuccour or aſſiſtance to the perſons in diſtreſs, moſt barbarouſly deprive them of the miſerable remains of their ſhipwrecked fortunes, ſtripping them even of their wearing cloaths, and ſometimes cruelly murdering thoſe unhappy people, who would have met with a milder fate amidſt the waves of the ocean, than in the unmerciful hands of thoſe barbarous coaſters. See the article SHIPWRECKS.

REMARKS.

The laws of the Rhodians were ſo much eſteemed amongſt the ancient Romans, that they were unanimouſly received as the rule of all maritime affairs, except in caſes where they were directly oppoſite to the native laws of their country. And as the fraud and diſhoneſty of men had found means to elude the true deſign and intent of the firſt Rhodian legiſlators, the Romans took care to reform ſuch abuſes, by ſome explanatory additions to the aforeſaid laws, which, as long as that monarchy laſted, they always held in great veneration.

The ancient Romans were not aſhamed to take all the helps and aſſiſtances they could have from other nations, to render their own body of laws the more perfect and complete. It was with this view that they ſent perſons into Greece, there to collect the beſt and moſt uſeful laws which they could pick up among the commonwealths of that country, which were afterwards digeſted into twelve tables, and were made the ground-work of the body of the Civil Law. It was likewiſe for the ſame purpoſe that they borrowed of the Rhodians their laws relating to maritime affairs, as being the beſt collection of laws of that kind that were then extant, and inſerted them in the body of their own laws. And at this day the Rhodian laws, the laws of Oleron [ſee OLERON's LAWS], and other maritime laws of other nations [ſee WISBUY LAWS], are received as the general law for deciding all cauſes civil and maritime, in aid of the municipal laws of each country, and without any apprehenſion that the ſaid foreign laws will be an infringement of their own municipal laws, becauſe they are received by virtue of their own authority, and only to ſupply the defects and omiſſions of their own laws, for deciding caſes for which their own laws have made no proviſion.

Theſe laws, as well as the other maritime laws which are interſperſed throughout this work, having a cloſe affinity with, and indeed being incorporated with the civil law, a due knowlege of the latter ſhould ſeem to be indiſpenſibly requiſite to enable us to make a right judgment in the deciſion of maritime controverſies. I ſhall not preſume to take upon me to aſcertain the limits, power, and juriſdiction of the courts of common law, when compared with that of the high court of admiralty: I ſhall only obſerve, that they have for ſome ages been jealous of the power and authority of each, and the courts of common law ſeem to have gained the aſcendancy, and to have drawn all the buſineſs they could from the civil law courts. Whether this has proved more for the eaſe, benefit, and advantage of the ſubjects of this kingdom, I cannot preſume to judge. I hope, however, that I may be permitted to ſay, without offence, that, in whatever court maritime and commercial diſputes and litigations are brought for adjudication, thoſe who are to plead, or to adjudge in ſuch courts, cannot be too well acquainted with the maritime laws of weight and authority that have been promulgated in all wiſe and civilized nations. Now as it is certain, that it is in the body of the civil law we have the moſt complete, if not the only collection, of the rules of natural reaſon and equity, which are to govern the actions of mankind; and therefore it is, that it has been called RATIO SCRIPTA, written reaſon, as containing the moſt perfect rules of reaſon for deciding all differences that may ariſe among men in their intercourſe with one another: and as all maritime and commercial laws ought to be founded on, and conſiſtent with the principles of the civil law, which is the ſame in all countries, it follows that the ſtudy of the civil law ſhould by no means be neglected in a trading empire.

In all other countries where the ſtudy of the civil law is cultivated, they have peculiar laws and cuſtoms of their own, of which they are as tenacious as we can poſſibly be of ours. Yet they are ſo far from baniſhing or diſcouraging the ſtudy of the civil law, under an apprehenſion of its encroaching upon their own municipal laws, that, on the contrary, they give the profeſſors thereof all encouragement; they ſtudy it as a qualification for the better underſtanding of their own laws, and make it ſubſervient to them, by applying the general rules of natural reaſon and equity, which are contained therein, to clear up any difficulties and obſcurities, and to ſupply any defects or omiſſions that may occur in their own municipal laws.

In former times, when the civil law was more univerſally known and ſtudied here in England than it is at preſent, the judges and profeſſors of the common law had frequent recourſe to it, in caſes where the common law was either totally ſilent, or defective. So that the ſages of the law of thoſe days were ſenſible of the good uſe that might be made of the reaſon of the civil law, in aid and ſubſerviency to the common law of the land, as other nations make uſe of it at this day.

And beſides this general advantage that is to be reaped from the ſtudy of the civil law, we are not to look upon it altogether as a foreign commodity in this iſland, ſome of the particular laws thereof having been enacted for deciding controverſies which aroſe here in England, and bearing date from this from the Romans. The greateſt part of this iſland was governed wholly by the civil law for the ſpace of about 360 years, viz. from the reign of the emperor CLAUDIUS to that of HONORIUS; during which time, ſome of the moſt eminent among the Roman lawyers, as PAPINIAN, PAULUS, and ULPIAN, whoſe opinions and deciſions are collected in the body of the civil law, ſat in the ſeat of judgment here in England, and diſtributed juſtice to the inhabitants. But after the declenſion of the Roman empire, the Saxon, Daniſh, and Norman cuſtoms took place in the iſland, according as the ſaid nations became maſters of us, every one being fond of introducing their own cuſtoms.

The law of nations is likewiſe founded on the principles of the civil law; and the law of nations is abſolutely neceſſary to be well underſtood, as well with relation to treaties of commerce, and of peace and friendſhip, and of all kind of alliance between nation and nation, as with regard to all maritime concerns between one ſtate and another. And the neceſſity of the law of nations, and conſequently the civil law thereupon grounded, being well underſtood by the ableſt lawyers in this kingdom, appeared manifeſtly, and beyond contradiction, upon a very recent and very important occaſion: I mean the affair that happened a few years ago, between his late Majeſty and the king of Pruſſia, with reſpect to a memorial, and other papers, delivered by Monſ. Michell, the king of Pruſſia's ſecretary of the embaſſy, to his grace the duke of Newcaſtle, concerning the Sileſia loan. For in the duke of Newcaſtle's letter, by his Majeſty's order, to Monſ. Michell, in anſwer to the ſaid memorial, &c. there is the moſt profound knowlege in the law of nations and the civil law diſplayed by thoſe able civilians and lawyers, who were ordered by his Majeſty to draw up the ſaid anſwer *. See the article SILESIA.

* Theſe gentlemen were, the learned Sir George Lee, judge of the Prerogative Court; Dr. Paul, his Majeſty's advocate-general in the courts of civil law; Sir Dudley Rider, then his Majeſty's attorney-general, afterwards the right honourable lord chief juſtice of the court of King's-Bench; and the honourable William Murray, Eſq; then his Majeſty's ſollicitor general, afterwards his Majeſty's attorney general. The only gentleman now living of the abovementioned, is the latter, who is now the lord chief juſtice of the King-Bench.

There are ſome particular matters in which the civil law hath always been, and ſtill is allowed to be, the only law in England, whereby they are to be decided; and the courts of juſtice which have cognizance of the ſaid matters, do proceed therein according to the rules and forms of the civil law. Thus, in the high court of admiralty, cauſes civil and maritime are here to be decided according to the civil law and the maritime cuſtoms. Thus, in the court of honour, the judges thereof are to proceed according to the civil law. Thus alſo, in the univerſities, and all the eccleſiaſtic courts of this kingdom, they proceed according to the civil law, and the cannon law, which is, in a great meaſure, founded upon the civil law.—But theſe matters are beſide my purpoſe.

Having mentioned the courts where the civil law is allowed to be not only of uſe, but of force and authority here in England, we beg leave to conſider how far the reaſon and equity thereof may be of ſervice in other courts, where it has not the force and authority of law. And we cannot but think, that in all courts of equity, where the rigour of the common law is to be mitigated by the rules of equity, the knowlege of the civil law muſt be of great ſervice, and more eſpecially in concerns of a commercial nature: for it is there, and no where elſe, that we have the fulleſt and moſt perfect collection of the general rules of natural reaſon and equity, applied to the various tranſactions and intercourſes of buſineſs between man and man. If, therefore, one were to judge what is juſt and equitable in a cauſe depending between parties, would it not be a great help towards forming a right judgment therein, to enquire into the general rules of equity touching the ſaid matter, which have been laid down and eſtabliſhed by the moſt eminent lawyers that ever lived in any age, and to ſee how they have applied them in ſimilar caſes? Can it be imagined,

gined, that the reaſonings of thoſe great men upon caſes of the like nature, will not give great light, and contribute very much towards forming an equitable deciſion in matters which are to be determined upon the principles of equity, and not according to the rigour of the law? And will not a knowlege of the ancient and modern maritime laws of other wiſe nations, which are eſteemed of authority, as being grounded on the principles of the civil law, greatly contribute to enable lawyers to conduct their pleadings and adjudications, more conſiſtent with the principles of right reaſon and equity, than can be done if they are unacquainted with theſe laws? How far, therefore, theſe rules of equity, which may be collected from the body of the civil and maritime laws, may be uſeful in the high court of Chancery, and the court of Exchequer, whoſe proceedings are according to equity, is moſt humbly ſubmitted to the great wiſdom and experience of the learned judges, and others who are beſt acquainted with the practice of thoſe courts.

And if this knowlege of the rules of reaſon and equity can be of ſervice in the inferior courts of equity, it cannot be leſs uſeful and neceſſary in the ſupreme court of equity of the kingdom, which is that of the lords aſſembled in parliament. It is to that high tribunal that the ſubjects have recourſe, in order to obtain an equitable redreſs of the grievances which they pretend to have had done them by the inferior courts. And the lords who compoſe that auguſt aſſembly, and who are the ſupreme judges of the property of the ſubject, cannot be ſuppoſed, by reaſon of their high rank and quality, and their frequent avocations upon account of the weightier matters of government, to apply themſelves to that minute ſtudy of the laws which is expected from other judges: and, therefore, ſeeing they have frequent occaſions to act in a judicial capacity, it is the more neceſſary that they ſhould be acquainted at leaſt with the general rules of reaſon and equity, which may help to guide them in the judgments which they give in matters of private property that come before them.

And if we conſider the ſaid body in their legiſlative capacity, as having under their direction the arduous matters of ſtate, and eſpecially ſuch as regard the intercourſe between us and other nations, the knowlege of the law of nations, which is built upon the civil law, is abſolutely neceſſary in deliberations of this kind, that no reſolutions may be taken in ſuch matters, but what are agreeable to the principles of the law of all nations. And it was upon this account that, according to the ancient cuſtom and uſage of parliament, the maſters of Chancery, who formerly were civilians, were ſummoned, with the judges of the realm, to give their aſſiſtance and attendance in the upper houſe of parliament: for as the judges of the realm were to give their counſel and advice, when required, in matters which depended on the laws of the land; ſo the maſters of Chancery, who were ſkilled in the civil law, and the law of nations, were often conſulted in matters which depended on thoſe laws.

There is likewiſe another court, where we humbly conceive that the knowlege of the civil law may be of ſervice, for determining matters that come before it; and that is, the king's privy-council, which is a court of juſtice in ſome reſpects, as it is in others a council with which his Majeſty is graciouſly pleaſed to adviſe and conſult in matters relating to the public. It is a court of juſtice, wherein his Majeſty is pleaſed finally to determine ſome matters of private property, as particularly all matters of prizes taken from an enemy in time of war, in which the appeal lies from the high court of admiralty to the king in council: and thoſe cauſes are to be judged by no other law but the civil and maritime law.

The privy council is likewiſe a court of juſtice, for the final determination of all appeals that come from the Engliſh plantations in America, from the iſles of Jerſey and Guernſey, and other places: in all which cauſes the rules of equity collected in the body of the civil law, muſt be of ſervice to judge of the equity of the ſentences which are complained of, but more eſpecially in the cauſes which come from the iſles of Jerſey and Guernſey, where the proceedings in their courts of judicature have a great conformity with the civil law; and the cuſtoms of Normandy, which are the law by which thoſe iſlands are governed, are not only illuſtrated and explained by the civil law, but many times the aid of the law is there invocated, as a rule for deciding caſes which are not expreſsly regulated by their own cuſtoms, as appears from the commentaries of Rouille, Terrier, and others, on the ſaid cuſtoms.

Having ſeen in what caſes the civil law may be uſeful, if not neceſſary, for determining ſome matters that come before the privy-council as a court of juſtice, we muſt beg leave to conſider how far it may be uſeful in the other matters that come under the deliberation of that auguſt aſſembly, as a council to his Majeſty for the affairs of ſtate. It is by their council and advice that his Majeſty ſteers the helm of government: it is there that all TREATIES OF PEACE AND COMMERCE with foreign ſtates and potentates are examined and conſidered. See TREATIES.

As to what regards the internal policy of the ſtate, for maintaining peace and quiet in the ſociety, for procuring plenty of all things neceſſary to human life, for encouraging manufactures within ourſelves, and promoting a beneficial trade with our neighbours: although all theſe things depend, in a great meaſure, on the frame and conſtitution of our own government, on the ſoil and climate of the country, on its ſituation for trade, and on the natural temper and diſpoſition of the inhabitants: yet, in order to improve theſe to the beſt advantage, we cannot but think that it may be of ſervice to know what laws the Romans, the greateſt and moſt flouriſhing commonwealth that ever was, thought fit to enact for promoting trade and manufactures within themſelves, and for the government of their colonies in foreign parts, to preſerve them in a due ſubjection, and to make them uſeful and ſubſervient to the ſeat of the empire from which they derived their origin, and to which they owed their protection: all which laws are collected in the body of the civil law, and may be uſefully applied by us on many occaſions.

But as to what concerns the outward policy of the ſtate, that is, the intercourſe which it muſt have with other ſtates and princes, we humbly conceive that the knowlege of the civil law muſt be of ſingular uſe in all tranſactions of that kind: for the civil law being in ſo great eſteem and veneration among all other nations, that they make it the rule and ſtandard of equity in all caſes which are not expreſsly provided for by their own particular laws and cuſtoms, what more effectual arguments can be uſed to obtain juſtice from them in an amicable way, than thoſe which are founded on the principles and maxims of the civil law? It is arguing with them upon their own principles, from maxims of their own law, and the law of all nations, which is the moſt effectual way to convince them by reaſon. And it was in conſideration of this that our anceſtors, in their great wiſdom, thought proper to employ generally, in all negociations with foreign courts, and in treaties of peace and commerce, perſons who were well ſkilled in the civil law, and law of nations: and although it was neceſſary on ſome occaſions, and more particularly at ſolemn congreſſes for treating of peace, for the greater luſtre and ſplendor of the embaſſy, to employ perſons of the firſt rank and quality; yet, to eaſe them of the great weight of affairs, they were always accompanied by ſome perſon of an inferior rank, who being verſed in the ſtudy of the civil law, and law of nations, might be aiding and aſſiſting in the conferences which were to be held for ſettling and adjuſting the reſpective intereſts of the ſeveral princes and ſtates concerned. And this we ſee is the conſtant practice of all other nations at this day, who, in their embaſſies for treaties of peace, employ always at leaſt one perſon who has been bred to the law; although this is the leſs neceſſary in foreign countries, where all the nobility, in their ſtudies at the univerſity, go through a regular courſe of the ſtudy of the civil law, and law of nations: by which means they lay ſuch a foundation, as to be able afterwards, from the principles thereof, to aſſert and defend the intereſts of their country, whenever their prince is pleaſed to employ them in affairs of that kind.

In matters of intercourſe between one nation and another, we have no other law to go by but the law of nations; and this law of nations is chiefly grounded on the rules and maxims of equity which are laid down in the civil law, and which have been received by moſt nations, as the rules of juſtice between one nation and another. So that, to underſtand the law of nations thoroughly, and to be able to comprehend the reaſoning of the authors who treat thereof, it is abſolutely neceſſary to have ſome knowlege of the civil law, as one may eaſily perceive by looking into Grotius, Puffendorf, and other authors who have wrote on that ſubject.

And I muſt obſerve here, in relation to the Engliſh colonies upon the continent of America, that there is a very great affinity between them and the colonies of the Spaniards, and other nations, who have made ſettlements among the Indians in thoſe parts: for the grants made by our kings, of tracts of land in that country, for the planting of colonies, and making ſettlements therein, appear to have been made in imitation of the grants made by the kings of Spain to the proprietors of lands in the Spaniſh colonies, upon the very ſame conditions, and in conſideration of the ſame ſervices to be performed by the grantees. So that the government of the Spaniſh colonies, and the rights of the proprietors of lands therein, depending chiefly on the rules of the civil and feudal law, as may be ſeen by the learned treatiſe of Solorganus, De Indiarum Jure, the knowlege of the ſaid laws muſt be of ſervice likewiſe for determining any controverſies that may ariſe touching the duties or forfeitures of the proprietors of lands in our Engliſh colonies.

We have made theſe few remarks only to ſhew in what particulars the civil law is, and may be, of uſe here in England, and how we may reap the ſame advantages from it which other nations do, without any danger to our own municipal laws. Our anceſtors were ſo ſenſible of the great importance thereof, both in private and public affairs, that, beſides the public profeſſors eſtabliſhed in the univerſities for teaching this ſcience, and who have ſalaries allotted them by the beneficence of our princes, many of the private founders of colleges have,

in their endowments, ſet apart particular fellowſhips, as an encouragement to perſons to ſtudy it. And from the principles of the civil law, and the laws of nations bottomed thereupon, we apprehend that not only the commercial and maritime laws of all trading nations may be the better underſtood, but ſuch other laws may be formed and ordained in this kingdom for the univerſal propagation of its trading intereſts.

RHUBARB, is a thick root, of an oblong figure, large at the head, and tapering pretty ſuddenly as it extends in length. It is ſometimes ſingle, but more uſually divided into two or three parts at the lower end. We frequently meet with it in pieces of four, five, or ſix inches long, and three or four in diameter at the top; it is of a tolerably ſmooth and even ſurface, and externally of a faint yellow colour, with a large admixture of brown; it is moderately heavy, but not hard; it cuts through very freely and eaſily with a knife, eſpecially if the blade of it has been rendered a little unctuous, firſt by drawing it over an almond, or any other fatty ſubſtance. When freſh cut, it is found to be of a marbled or variegated appearance; its colours are a pale but bright yellow, and a faint reddiſh; the yellow is the ground colour, and the red is diſpoſed in ſhort irregular veins, much in the manner of the darker colour in the common nutmeg. It is of a ſomewhat lax and ſpungy texture; it has an agreeable and ſomewhat aromatic ſmell, and a bitteriſh, aſtringent, and ſubacid taſte, upon the whole not diſagreeable: it tinges the ſpittle to a fine bright yellow, on being held ſome time in the mouth.

Rhubarb is to be choſen freſh, tolerably hard, and moderately heavy, and ſuch as does not duſt the fingers in handling; ſuch as, infuſed a few minutes in water, gives it a fine yellow, and, when bruiſed in a mortar, has a reddiſh colour with the yellow. Rhubarb is not ſo often adulterated as damaged; care is to be taken that it be not wet or rotten; much of it is ſubject, after keeping too long, to be worm-eaten and full of holes on the ſurface. There are certain traders in this drug who have a way of filling up theſe holes with powder of ſome of the worſt and moſt decayed pieces, but this is eaſily diſcovered, and ſuch rhubarb always to be rejected.

The Ancients were not acquainted with rhubarb; it is an error to ſuppoſe they mean our rhubarb by their rah and rheum; Dioſcorides and Galen evidently deſcribe, under that name, the rhapontic, a root of a different plant, and very different in its virtues from our rhubarb.

Rhubarb is brought to us from Ruſſia and the Eaſt-Indies. It is produced in great plenty on the confines of China and Tartary, and in many parts of Tartary itſelf; the mountains of Tibet abound with it, and a very conſiderable part of what is ſent into Europe grows there.

We are not certain that it grows in any part of Ruſſia, though we receive conſiderable quantities of it from thence; it is poſſible it may be firſt brought thither from China and Tartary, and then ſent to us. The Chineſe are very careful in their manner of drying it: they take up the root only in winter, or early in ſpring, before the leaves begin to appear; they cut it into ſuch pieces as they think proper, and lay it on a table in a ſhady place, turning it once or twice a day, for two or three days; after this they ſtring the pieces on a cord, at a diſtance from one another, and then hang them up in a ſhady place, where they may dry leiſurely. It is by this management that the rhubarb is rendered ſo firm and ſolid as we find it; for if it were hung up to dry at once in a warm airy place, it would become light and ſpungy: they ſay, alſo, that if the root be taken up in the ſummer, it is not only light and of little virtue, but that it has nothing of the reddiſh marbling, that is one of the great characters of its goodneſs with us.

The plant which produces the true rhubarb is of the number of the ennandria-trigynia of Linnæus. It was long before it was known in Europe; but of late it has been ſent from Ruſſia to the gardens at Paris and Chelſea, in both which it thrives extremely well, and ſtands the ſevereſt colds unhurt.

The root of this plant ſhews it to be the genuine rhubarb, and it agrees perfectly with a ſpecimen of the plant which ſome years ſince Dr Amman of Peterſburg had gathered himſelf on the mountains of Tibet.

We have proof ſufficient now that we have the true rhubarb plant among us; and it will be eaſy to propagate a quantity of it, in order to try whether its virtues, when produced with us, will be the ſame with thoſe it poſſeſſes as brought from its native climate.

The root of the rhubarb plant is long, thick, and perennial; its bark, while growing, is of a browniſh red colour, but under this the ſubſtance of the root is of the true colour of the dried rhubarb, only deeper, of the right nutmeg grain, marbled with red and yellow, and has the true ſmell and taſte of rhubarb, eſpecially about the upper part of the root. It has a viſcoſity indeed in the mouth, that rhubarb, as we meet with it in the ſhops, has not; but this may only be the difference of the ſame root freſh and dried. A number of large leaves are produced firſt from this root; they are of a fine green, elegantly undulated at the edges, of an oblong figure, broadeſt at the baſe, and ſomewhat auriculated; they ſtand on very thick and fleſhy pedicles, moderately long, convex in their under part, and flat on the upper; theſe divide each into five large and prominent ribs, running with many diviſions through the whole leaf: in the midſt of theſe leaves riſes a ſtalk, of an angular compreſſed figure, ſtriated, and riſing to about three feet high, which, from the middle to the top, is furniſhed with cluſters of little flowers, ſurrounding it at certain diſtances; they are very ſmall and white, and are ſucceeded each by a ſingle ſeed, of a triangular figure: it flowers in June, and ripens the ſeed in July and Auguſt.

Rhubarb, on a chemical analyſis, is found to be compoſed of a large quantity of ſulphur and fixed ſalt, a ſmall portion of acid ſalt, and a large ſhare of earth. On theſe principles, the whole root muſt be of the gummous kind, and its earthy and gummous parts are very eaſily ſeparated, and that in large quantity: from an ounce of rhubarb there may be prepared, by means of common water alone, ſomewhat more than an ounce of the gummous extract. There is but a very ſmall quantity of reſinous matter in rhubarb, and what there is is blended with a large ſhare of alkaline ſalt: two ounces of rhubarb, ever ſo carefully managed, will not yield more than about three drachms of a reſinous, and that a ſaline extract; the ſalt in this is in ſo large a portion, that it will readily diſſolve in common water: and this ſhews us the reaſon why tincture of rhubarb, made even in rectified ſpirit of wine, does not become milky on being mixed with water, as many of the other tinctures of this kind do.

Rhubarb poſſeſſes the double virtue of a cathartic and aſtringent; it readily evacuates particularly the bilious humours, and afterwards gently aſtringes and ſtrengthens the ſtomach and inteſtines. It is given with great ſucceſs in all obſtructions of the liver, in the jaundice, in diarrhœas, and in the fluor albus and gonorrhœas: it is alſo an excellent remedy againſt worms. It is ſometimes given as a purgative, ſometimes as only an alterant; and which ever way it is taken, it is an excellent medicine, agreeing with almoſt all ages and conſtitutions. The only caſes in which its uſe is to be avoided, are thoſe in which the blood and viſcera are too hot. Fallopius ſays it is never to be given to people who have diſorders of the kidnies or bladder, as it is apt to occaſion an extraordinary heat in thoſe parts; and Simon Pauli tells us of vertigoes brought on by a too free and continued uſe of it.

Rhubarb is given in powder in infuſion, and in its own crude ſolid ſtate, the chewing it being, perhaps, the beſt way of giving it of all others, when it is intended to ſtrengthen the ſtomach and aſſiſt digeſtion; the quantity of 25 grains, or thereabout, ſhould be chewed daily on theſe occaſions, an hour before eating; this is alſo by much the beſt way o taking it againſt the obſtructions of the viſcera. Its doſe in powder is from half a ſcruple to two ſcruples; in infuſion, about a drachm of it will purge gently, but the doſe may be increaſed up to two drachms: it is obſervable, that neither the infuſion nor the decoction, nor even the extract of rhubarb, purge nearly ſo briſkly as the root itſelf in powder.

The preparations of rhubarb in uſe in the ſhops are, 1. The tincture in ſpirit. 2. The tincture in wine. And, 3. The extract; though the laſt is but little uſed.

Tincture of rhubarb in wine.

Take fine rhubarb two ounces; of the ſeeds of the leſſer cardamum, cleared from their huſks, half an ounce; of ſaffron two drachms; bruiſe the rhubarb to a groſs powder, with the cardamums among it; then cut the ſaffron ſmall with a pair of ſciſſars, and put the whole into a matraſs with a quart of white wine; let them ſtand three days together without heat, often ſhaking them; then ſtrain off the tincture, and filtre it for uſe.

Tincture of rhubarb in ſpirit.

Take of fine rhubarb two ounces, of the leſſer cardamum-ſeeds, freed from their huſks, half an ounce, of ſaffron two drachms, proof-ſpirit a quart; make the tincture without heat, in the ſame manner as the former.

Both theſe tinctures are purgative, and ſtrengthen the ſtomach and inteſtines afterwards: they are given in moſt of the caſes in which the root itſelf is proper. Their doſe is from one ounce to two ounces and a half; the latter purges ſomewhat more ſtrongly than the former.

Extract of rhubarb.

Take of fine rhubarb a pound, cut it into thin ſlices, and afterwards bruiſe theſe to a groſs powder in a mortar; put it into a matraſs, and pour on it two quarts of water; ſet the matraſs in a ſand-heat, ſo as to keep the liquor moderately warm, for 10 or 12 hours; then ſtrain off the infuſion, return the remaining maſs into the matraſs, and pour on it rectified ſpirit of wine a quart; ſet it again in the ſand-heat for 24 hours, then ſtrain off the tincture: mix this liquor with the former, and gently evaporate the whole to the conſiſtence of an extract. This is gently purgative; its doſe is from 10 grains to a drachm: but, in truth, the plain powder of the root ſeems to be a much better medicine for all the purpoſes in which this could be given.

The

The tai-haam, or the rhubarb, grows in ſeveral parts of China: the beſt is that of Tſetchanen; but that which grows in the province of Xenſi, and the kingdom of Thibet, is far inferior to it: what grows elſewhere in this part of the world is of ſo little value, that it is not uſed. The ſtalk of the rhubarb is like the ſmall bambooes, or Chineſe canes: it is hollow, and very brittle, three or four feet high, and of a dark violet colour. In the ſecond moon, that is, in the month of March, it ſends forth long and thick leaves, which grow four and four on the ſame tail, looking towards each other, and forming a chalice. The flowers are of a yellow, and ſometimes of a violet colour. In the fifth moon it produces a ſmall black ſeed, as large as millet; in the eighth moon they pull it up, and find the root large and long; that which is heavieſt and moſt marbled in the heart is the beſt and moſt eſteemed. This root is of ſuch a nature as renders it very difficult to be dried.

The Chineſe, after having pulled up and cleaned the roots, cut them in pieces about two inches large, and dry them on plates of ſtone, under which they kindle fires: they turn theſe pieces 'till they are thoroughly dry. If they had ovens like thoſe in Europe, they would not make uſe of theſe plates. As this operation is not ſufficient to draw out all the humidity, they make a hole in each piece, and ſuſpend them in the greateſt heat of the ſun, 'till they are in a condition to be kept without being corrupted.

As to the uſe of rhubarb, the Chineſe are nearly of the ſame opinion with the Europeans: however, they rarely uſe rhubarb crude and in ſubſtance, for they ſay it tears the bowels, and produces gripes; and as the Chineſe generally love better not to be cured, than to be relieved by great pain, they more chearfully take rhubarb by way of decoction, with a great many other ſimples, which they combine according to the rules of their art: but if it is neceſſary to take it in ſubſtance, they prepare it in the following manner:

They take as many pieces of rhubarb as they have occaſion for, and ſteep them 24 hours in rice wine (that of grapes would be better if they had any) 'till they are very ſoft, and can be cut into thin ſlices. Then they put upon a furnace a kind of kettle, whoſe mouth is two feet in diameter, and which diminiſhes gradually to the bottom in form of a cap. They fill this kettle with water, and cover it with an inverted ſieve, made of ſmall ſlips of bark. Upon the bottom of the ſieve they lay the pieces of rhubarb, covering the whole with a piece of wood, over which they throw a felt, that the ſteam of the water may not come out; then they heat the furnace, and make the water boil, ſo that the ſteam raiſed through the ſieve penetrates the ſlices of rhubarb, and deſtroys their acrimony. At laſt this ſteam reſolving, as in an alembic, falls down into the boiling kettle, and renders the water yellow, which the Chineſe keep for cutaneous diſorders. Theſe ſlices muſt remain at leaſt eight hours in this circulation of the ſteam, after which they take them out, and dry them in the ſun. They repeat this operation twice, and then the rhubarb is prepared, and is of a blackiſh colour. It may be pounded and formed into purgative pills. Five or ſix drachms at leaſt make a doſe, which purges gently and without gripes. The urine is that day more copious and red than uſual, which, according to the Chineſe, denotes that an unnatural heat is diſſipated in that way. They who have an averſion to ſo many pills, take the ſame quantity of the dried ſlices, and in an earthen or ſilver veſſel boil them in nine ounces of water to three, which they drink warm, but ſometimes they mix ſimples with it.

This manner of preparing rhubarb produces the moſt ſalutary effects. An obſtinate conſtipation had reduced a mandarin to the greateſt extremity, and no remedies could procure him a ſtool; he vomited them up as ſoon as they were ſwallowed, as he alſo did rhubarb, whether taken in pills or decoction: a Chineſe phyſician made him take a decoction of a double doſe of this prepared rhubarb, with which he had mixed ſome virgin honey, by which means the patient had no naufeas, and was freed from this diſorder without any pains or gripes.

Some European phyſicians ſay, that a drachm of that part of the rhubarb where they ſtring it, given in the morning faſting, in a glaſs of roſe or plantain-water, is an infallible remedy for fluxes. The Chineſe phyſicians think quite otherwiſe, and ſay, that the rhubarb always begins to corrupt at that hole; that the powder found there is of no uſe; that it ought to be thrown away; and that only the internal part of the root, which is weighty and well marbled, ought to be uſed. It may happen, that in China they undervalue this part of the rhubarb, becauſe it is there worth no more than four-pence a pound, or becauſe, being much dearer in Europe, the natives are unwilling to loſe any of it.

RICE, according to Pomet, is the product of a plant which grows very common in many places of Europe: it commonly grows in the water, and, as ſome obſerve, though the water increaſes during the time of its growth, it ſtill keeps its ear above the ſurface of it. That which is commonly ſold in Paris, is brought from Spain and Piedmont. This is a ſeed of ſo great uſe and profit, that it may be called the manna of the poor, and throughout ſeveral entire countries, they have ſcarce any thing elſe to ſubſiſt on.

Chuſe the neweſt rice, well cleanſed, large, that is to ſay, plump or well fed, white, not duſty, nor ſmelling rancid: thoſe who take notice of the rice of Piedmont, eſteem it much more than that of Spain, which is commonly reddiſh, and of a ſaltiſh taſte. The uſe of rice, chiefly at Paris, is for the Lent ſeaſon, when they boil it in water, then in milk, and ſometimes reduce it to powder, that is to ſay flour, which they uſe inſtead of wheat flour to thicken their milk with.

To reduce rice into powder, pour boiling water upon it, and then waſh it with cold water, ſo often 'till the water remains clear; after this put it into a mortar to pound, and when it is powdered ſet it to dry, and then to ſearce it fine; for it will often appear very fine when it is wet, and yet as it dries ſhews that it is coarſe and requires ſifting.

It is reſtorative, nouriſhing, and ſweetening; it congluti-nates the humours, and is uſeful in fluxes of the belly; it purifies the maſs of blood, and ſtops hæmorrhages. It is uſed either in ptiſans or food.

Beſides this, pearl or French barley is uſed, which ought to be choſen new, dry, plump, and well fed, white, but not blanched: it is prepared at Charenton, near Paris; but the beſt is that of Vitry. We likewiſe have rice that is brought from ſeveral parts of the country, but chiefly to make a ſort of coffee of, which it taſtes very like when burnt. The poor buy what we call in England groats, which is made from oats, and when ground at the mill is called oatmeal.

There is a millet alſo ſhelled and picked, which they prepare in the foreſt of Orleans: beſides other pulſe, as the green and yellow peaſe, which come from Normandy, and the beans of Picardy and other places; there are other things alſo ſold in the ſhops, which are made of wheat flour, as vermichelli, both the white and yellow ſort, and ſtarch.

The vermichelli, which the Italians invented, and call vermicelli, is a paſte made out of the fineſt part of the wheat flour and water, which is afterwards drove through ſmall pipes like ſyringes, to what length or thickneſs they pleaſe; ſo that from the reſemblance of its figure to ſmall worms, it is called vermicelli. Some of this kind of paſte they make in the ſhape of ribbands, of two fingers breadth, and this they call kagne; other parcels of it are formed like a quill, and thoſe they call macaron; and ſome in ſmall grains like muſtard-ſeeds, which they call ſemoule, the name by which they call the finer flour they compoſe it of: and finally, ſome in the ſhape of beads, which they call patrer. They colour this paſte as they fancy, with ſaffron or other things, and ſometimes make it up with the yolk of an egg, ſugar, and cheeſe. Of late years this is made at Paris, and uſed in ſoups and broth, as in Italy, Provence, and Languedoc. The white vermicelli ought to be new made and as white as poſſible, and the yellow of a fine golden colour, the drieſt and the neweſt made which can be got.

Starch is made of the fæcula of wheat flour, which the ſtarch-makers form into cakes and dry in an oven, or by the heat of the ſun. This uſed to be brought into France from Flanders and other countries, but at preſent that (if we can believe the French) which is made at Paris ſurpaſſes that of all other places, and they tranſport from thence great quantities into other parts of France, and ſeveral neighbouring countries.

We ought to chuſe ſtarch for being white, ſoft, and moſt ſubject to crumble, likewiſe ſuch as has been dried in the ſun, and not in an oven, which makes it of a greyiſh white: its uſe is ſo generally known that it needs no deſcription.

Monſ. Lemery ſays, this plant bears its ſtalk about three or four feet high, much thicker and ſtronger than that of wheat or other corn: the leaves are long, like the reed, and fleſhy; the flowers blow on the top like barley, but the ſeed which follows is diſpoſed in cluſters, each of which is encloſed in a yellow huſk, ending in a ſpiral thread. This ſeed is oblong, or rather oval, and white: the plant is cultivated in moiſt or low grounds in Italy, and the ſeed brought dry from Piedmont, Spain, and ſeveral other places: its chief uſe is for food, but is ſometimes made uſe of in phyſic: it nouriſhes well and ſtops fluxes, therefore is good in armies, camps, and ſieges, becauſe it is of light carriage and excellent ſuſtenance, and eaſily prepared; it increaſes blood, and reſtores in conſumptions: it is made into frumenty by boiling in milk, or, for want thereof, in water; or into cakes with water or milk, and ſo baked dry; and is excellent good in broth, with any kind of fleſh.

Beſide the other uſes of rice, there is an excellent ſpirituous liquor made from it, which the people of Peru call acua, and we, from a wrong pronunciation of the word, arrac.

REMARKS.

'The firſt origin, ſays a late French writer, of rice plantations in Carolina, was purely fortuitous; a ſhip on its return from the Eaſt-Indies happened to be caſt away on the coaſt of this colony, ſome bags of rice being taken out of the ſhip, a trial was made of ſowing them, which ſucceeded beyond expectation; and this cultivation has been ſo improved, that for ſome time paſt, one year with another, fifty thouſand barrels of rice are ſent from thence to Europe, each weighing about four

four hundred pounds, and at leaſt worth from 50 to 60 s. per barrel, and often more; conſequently, at only 50 s. the barrel, here is a ſum of 125,000 l. ſterling, and the greateſt part of this rice is re-exported to foreigners, which is an additional advantage to the Engliſh; beſides that, like tobacco, it employs a great number of ſhips.

For the firſt encouragement of this commerce, the government of England laid a heavy duty on foreign rice, exempting that of its own colonies; but the cultivation of rice coming to be thoroughly eſtabliſhed, it was made ſubject to a duty. See the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, at the end, of P. [PLANTATIONS.] And this duty includes only the rice for home conſumption, the tranſportation of it from the colonies all over the Mediterranean, and Spain and Portugal, being permitted, on condition that the ſhips ſhall directly return to England.

Thus the Engliſh traders are enabled to ſell their rice cheaper than that brought from the Levant, formerly a great market for it; but now, by the wiſdom of the Engliſh, this trade is at a very low ebb.

If theſe laws ſtood in need of any addition, it is a diſpenſing clauſe in the return of ſhips to England, when the owners intended to ſell them, the ſale of ſhips in England being ſuch a conſiderable branch of commerce, that it is highly the intereſt of that nation to facilitate the means of ſelling them, for the greater encouragement of building more.

From north to ſouth the Engliſh are in poſſeſſion of a chain of colonies, reaching to Spaniſh Florida, and very advantageouſly ſituated for trade and navigation. Our poſſeſſions, indeed, are of larger extent, ſtretching themſelves without bounds *, up the country, where they incloſe all the Engliſh ſettlements, and the Spaniſh in Florida; our colonies may be ſaid to form a kind of a bow, of which thoſe of the other two nations are the ſtring.

* Obſerve the Frenchman! Their colonies in North America are boundleſs, ſo many of their map-makers ſay; and if their miniſters ſhould be of the ſame opinion, what will it avail England to treat about limits, if none ſhall be acknowleged? See the article MAP, and our article BRITISH AMERICA. See alſo the articles CANADA, COLONIES, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, NORTH CAROLINA, and PLANTATIONS.

The Engliſh colonies, continues this writer, in theſe parts, are Nova Scotia, New England, New York, Penſylvania, the two Jerſeys, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia: theſe different colonies have their reſpective government both civil and military; they are independent and ſeparated one from the other, but the ſubjection of the military government, in regard of the civil, will be an eternal bar to any COALITION of their forces for acting harmoniouſly under one chief *.

* Under the ſeveral heads before referred to, we have endeavoured to ſhew the abſolute neceſſity of a coalition of forces, and a union of power among our Britiſh colonies in North America, before the laſt war, as an effectual barrier againſt the ſhameful incroachments which the French had been many years making in that part of the world; ALL WHICH CAME TO PASS: and I had the unſpeakable ſatisfaction to obſerve, that ſuch union of forces and power which I had done myſelf the honour to point out and zealouſly recommend, was adopted by his late Majeſty's councils.

Every country being governed by its own inhabitants there, mind only themſelves, with little or no concern about their neighbours; it is not the authority of the governors, or even of the king himſelf, which, without the conſent of the aſſembly of a colony, can march its troops and militia to the aſſiſtance of any other which may be attacked; particularly the New England people have carried matters ſo far, as to make their governor dependent on them for his revenue; and on ſome differences between them and the king's council concerning their governor, they had the confidence to ſay, it was little conſidered that this colony afforded an hundred thouſand men capable of carrying arms *.

* Certainly this French ſcribbler could have ſuch intelligence only from ſome of his Popiſh emiſſaries, who are reſtleſs in ſowing the ſeeds of confuſion, as well in Britiſh America as in the mother country.

The military power of a country, where there is ſuch a ſlender ſubordination, is little to be feared; yet is it the only one which might be formidable from the great number of the inhabitants, did not their inclination tend rather to be pirates * than ſoldiers; beſides, in every point of the military government, it is certain, that we are vaſtly SUPERIOR TO THE ENGLISH †.'

* What an impudent and groundleſs reflection does this Frenchman make upon our North Americans!

† If this be true, as we have now reaſon to believe, we doubt not, but from the wiſdom of his Majeſty's councils at preſent, that the ſcene will ſoon be changed, and that our brave NORTH AMERICANS will be as ſucceſsful againſt the French on the main, as they were at Cape Breton, and that the conſequences of their ſucceſs may prove more ſatisfactory to them in the preſent, than in the former caſe.

The reader is deſired to obſerve here as well as elſewhere, that the author wrote this before the laſt war, and the laſt TREATY OF PEACE, and judges it more ſatisfactory to remain as it does; it giving an inſight into the hiſtory of the times, and ſhews better the nature of the laſt peace.

In an act of parliament paſſed anno regni Geo. II. triceſimo tertio, intituled, An act for granting liberty to carry RICE from his Majeſty's province of Carolina in America, directly to any part of Europe ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, in ſhips built in, and belonging to, Great Britain, and navigated according to law; which was to be in force for five years from the 29th day of September 1730, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; and alſo an act made in the eighth year of the ſaid reign, to continue the ſaid act from the expiration thereof, till the 29th of September 1742, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion, and ſo extend that liberty to the province of Georgia in America; which ſaid acts, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts made in the 15th and 16th, the 20th and 27th years of the ſaid reign, were further continued from the expiration thereof, till the 29th of September 1760, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion, ſhall be and the ſame is hereby further continued from the expiration thereof to the ſaid 29th of September 1767, and from thence to the end of the then ſeſſion of parliament.

RIVERS. Navigable rivers are of ſuch important uſe in a trading nation, that it is quite needleſs to ſay any thing in general upon that head: we ſhall, however, take notice of ſomething particular in regard to this matter, that ſeems to merit the public attention.

The ingenious Dr Congreve, late of Wolverhampton in the county of Stafford, after many years obſervation on the country between the Severn and the Trent, formed a deſign of uniting thoſe rivers, and was at the labour and expence of meaſuring and calculating every part of the levels in that diſtance; and hath publiſhed this proof of his ingenuity, without fearing the reproachful name of projector, uſually beſtowed by the ignorant, on all thoſe who attempt any thing new for the ſervice of mankind. He hath ſhewn, by comparing it with other works of the ſame kind effected in other countries, that this deſign may be executed without any very great difficulty or expence; and the mill and forges on the canal and the navigable rivers and ſluices will be mutually uſeful to each other, according to the modern way of conducting improvements of this nature.

The expence will appear leſs conſiderable than may be generally ſuppoſed, by comparing it with works of this kind already executed; and might be leſs ſo, by employing the army on this undertaking, giving them a reaſonable addition of pay.

By the account kept of the expence of cutting the new canal at Cheſter, in the year 1735, it appears that a canal dug 100 feet wide at top, 6 feet deep, and 60 wide at bottom, coſt 28 s. every ten feet, which amounts to 739 l. 4 s. per mile; that the expence of that canal 20 miles, did not exceed 17,000 l. But here a canal of half theſe dimenſions will anſwer all purpoſes, and will not be half the expence.

A barge 120 feet long, 15 feet broad, containing 1800 ſuperficial feet, and drawing 2 feet water, is equal in weight to 3600 cubic feet; each foot cubic weighing 70 pounds, amounts to 252,000 pound weight; this barge, if drawn with ſix horſes, will carry 126 tons, with two feet water, or very little more. If this ſcheme be completed, it will make a paſſage by water from York to Briſtol, acroſs the middle of the kingdom, where moſt of the heavy goods are made or produced. Timber, coals, lead, iron, milliſtones, lime, alabaſter, marble, Birmingham, and all other wares made in the kingdom, would be carried to all parts at a cheap rate. What advantage this will be to the land-owners, as well as to trade, I need not mention. But ſo beneficial a ſcheme, ſo clearly ſtated, merits the regard of the public.

The diſtance and fall of the water from Alderſley to Burton upon Trent, is as follows:

	Miles.	Fur.	Perch.		Feet.	Inch.
From Alderſley to Newmill is	2	1	25	Fall	20	0
Thence to Penkridge -	8	3	36		68	9
From Penkridge to Burton -	33	2	0		100	9
Total	43	7	21		189	6

In which ſpace are 17 mills and forges.

	Miles.	Fur.	Perch.		Feet.	Inch.
From Alderſley to Newbridge	0	4	0	Fall	6	0
Thence to Preſtwood -	12	5	0		175	0
From Preſtwood to Severn -	13	0	8		104	6
Total	26	1	8		285	6

In which ſpace are 25 mills and forges.
Length of the whole, 70 miles, 29 perches; fall both ways, 475 feet.
There are upon the whole length of the ſaid water 42 mills and forges, which, by late improvements, will be a great help to make the rivers navigable, without any damage to the mills.
The fall of the water in the canal betwixt Peterſburgh and the Wolga, in Ruſſia, both ways (that is, eaſt and weſt) is 555 feet, which is more than the fall of the water of this canal by 80 feet. Vid. Capt. Perry's Account of Ruſſia.
In 475 feet (the fall of the Penk and Smethſtall) are 158 yards, 1 foot, which will require 32 locks, wears, and turnpikes, each lock, &c. being 5 yards high; which is not equal in number to the locks upon the river betwixt Letchlade and London, which, in 138 miles, hath 36 locks, wears, and turnpikes.

A canal from Severn to Trent, may be made, viz.

Sixteen thouſand acres are in a ſquare whoſe ſide is five meaſured miles: ſuch a ſquare ſeems to be betwixt Eſington windmill, the head of Chillington mill-pool, and the tops of Wrotteſlye-park, Tettenhall-wood, Wolverhampton, and Biſhbury-hills.
Seven brooks ariſe from the ſprings and rain-waters that fall on theſe 16,000 acres, and may all be drawn into a magazine in the moors betwixt Tunſtall and Penford.
Five or ſix hundred acres will be in this magazine, if a dam of 24 feet high be made betwixt the new mills at Penford and the hill, in which the ſtone-quarry, and another at the new bridge of Tettenhall, 10 feet high.
Twelve miles or leſs will be the length of the canal from Tettenhall to Preſtwood, where the Smethſtall meets the water from Stourbridge, and ſo goes to Severn.
Eight miles or leſs will be the length of the canal from Penford to Penkridge, from whence the river will eaſily be made navigable to Burton: the land-floods of theſe 16,000 acres, that now are hurtful to mills and forges, by this magazine will be made ſerviceable.
Seventy-one market-towns and cities may trade by this canal. More may be added.
Two brooks run into the pool at Goſebrook-mill, from whence the water will run both into Severn and Trent, whenever the miller pleaſes.
Five brooks only feed the magazine of St. Feriol in Languedoc, which hath 595 acres in it, and ſupplies a canal 64 French leagues long. See Philoſ. Tranſact. No. 56.
Two millions and fifty thouſand acres in the three counties of Stafford, Derby, and Leiceſter.
Twenty-four miles inland navigation only to theſe three counties.
One market-town only out of forty hath navigation in the three counties.
Two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds per ann. got by water-carriage in the ſame quantity of land in the ſeven Dutch provinces.
Two thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-five miles is the length of the fifteen Roman roads in England and Wales, many parts of which are ſpoiled for want of inland navigation.
One thouſand pounds per week loſt out of the iron trade within ſix miles of Dudley-caſtle.
One thouſand tons of coals might, perhaps, be ſold every week more than now are in the three counties, and as many of lead, lime, iron, ſtone, timber, marble, fullers-earth, wool, &c. if a canal were made betwixt Severn and Trent by Penk and Stour; then clothiers might trade from Burton to Kinfare, and ſo to Bridgwater, &c.
One tenth of the waſte land of the three counties incloſed, will be worth 10,000 l. per ann. at 4 s. per acre, which will make a canal, and keep poor vicars; this canal will make an eaſy and cheap carriage betwixt the weſtern and northern clothiers, and bring fiſh living, in well-boats, to ſupply theſe three inland counties.
300,000 l. per ann. is, ſays Sir William Petty, the charge of the land-carriage in England, one third of which might probably be ſaved, if this canal were made betwixt Severn and Trent, and another betwixt Severn and Thames by the Bath river, and market-towns have corn, cheeſe, &c. carried cheaper than by horſes, and 2000 l. per week might be added to the wages of the labourers in huſbandry and manufactory, the money ſaved by water-carriage.
Nine parts in ten of the product of all tilled lands are owing to the labour of men and horſes, ſays Mr. Locke, ſo that to take off many men and horſes from huſbandry, to land-carriage, muſt be a vaſt damage to huſbandry, and no ſmall damage to the roads.
Two miles and a half or more is the length of the magazine in the moors betwixt Newbridge and Penford on the weſt ſide of it, three miles the length of it on the eaſt ſide: it may contain 456 acres.
Fifty acres more might be added to it, by placing one ſluice on the Dam-mill brook out of the boggy lands betwixt Barnhurſt and Cronkwall, and one other ſluice on the Moſely brook, out of the boggy lands betwixt Penford wood and Manſell-Newhouſe, upon the road betwixt Wolverhampton and Stafford.
More magazines may be made on the brooks that come out of the foreſt of Cannock, &c. which would fall into the canal, though not into this magazine.
Seven mills upon the brooks that would come into theſe moors, to join the Barnhurſt brook, viz. Chillington mill, Dam-mill, New-mill, Seawall-mill, Goſebrook-mill, Tunſtall-mill, and Fordhouſe-mill, all which depend upon ſprings, and have but ſmall pools, except one.
If the rains on theſe 16,000 acres that come into theſe moors betwixt Newbridge and Penford are 36 inches, which is leſs by ſix inches than the rains of Lancaſhire and Cheſhire, which join to part of Staffordſhire, they are more than the rains of Liſle by one third, for the rains are but 24 inches, which help their canal and that of Mardyke; and almoſt double to the rains of Paris, which are 19 inches, and perhaps to thoſe of Briare, which help to fill the canal betwixt the two rivers of Paris and Orleans.
The rains on theſe 16,000 acres will probably fill this magazine 12 times per ann. 2 yards deep.
The depth of rain-water, if it were to ſtagnate on the earth, would amount, one year with another, at Townley in Lancaſhire, to 42 inches and a half, at Upminſter in Eſſex 19 inches and a quarter, at Zurich in Switzerland 32 inches and a half, at Piſa in Italy 43 inches and a quarter, at Paris in France 19 inches, and at Liſle in Flanders 24 inches.
Forty acres allowed to each canal and its locks, ſo that the magazine of 500 acres will fill both the canals, and their locks, being 80 acres, five or ſix times before it is empty once.
N. B. That the rains on the weſt ſide of England are double to thoſe on the eaſt ſide, and that this magazine will not be 40 miles from Weſt-Cheſter.
If this canal were made, and two or three more, it is very probable that the ſame number of working horſes and their drivers now employed in England, working the ſame number of hours every day, may improve the product of the lands of England to be worth 1,000,000 l. of money per ann. more than they are now. For the horſes that might be ſpared from carriage on the roads, as alſo thoſe that carry corn, &c. to markets, might carry marle, lime, &c. which now lie uſeleſs in the earth, for improvement of land, to make them produce much more corn and graſs, than they now do.

Observations concerning the Rivers betwixt Oxford and Bath.

Sir James Long's objections were made new in 1683-4, which are ſaid to be anſwered in 1664 by Mr. Aylyffe, Mr. Smith, &c. who were for an inland navigation betwixt Avon and Iſis, by a cut to be made from Malmſbury to Summerford upon Iſis near Cricklade.
Sixty thouſand pounds computed by Matthews and Baſkerville to be the charge of the canal from Briſtol to Oxford, though there may be rocks to be cut through.
Three pounds per ton the price of carriage by land, and twenty ſhillings per ton by water, from Oxford to London.
Mr. Hill and Mr. Rowland Vaughan were ſaid to deſign this in queen Elizabeth's time.
Judge Vaughan propoſes projectors to be hanged that did not finiſh any navigation undertaken by ſubſcription, if they miſapplied the money.
From Cricklade to Purtonſtalke one mile and a half, thence to the foot of Purtonhill one mile and an half, thence to Brinkworth betwixt Summerford and Malmſbury to fall into the Avon ſeven miles. Here may a canal be cut.
A boat might paſs from London to Briſtol in ten days.
The bill ſaid to paſs the commons, but ſtopt when twice read, with the lords.
Cromwell ſaid to offer 20,000 l. at the Navy-Office to join the city of London in this deſigned cut.
Matthews dedicates a book about it to king Charles II. ann. 1670.
Vid. Mr. Fridour's book, 1672, of the Languedoc canal; and Philoſ. Tranſ. No. 56. where is a map of it.
Mr. Collins ſays, that from canals to water grounds ſprinkled with ſalt is vaſt profit.
Capt. Matthews had a private ſeal for the cut granted to him, as he ſays, by king Charles II.
Thirty-ſix locks, wears, and turnpikes, are upon the river Thames betwixt London and Letchlade, by which navigation London receives the proviſions of ſeven counties, and ſend its merchants goods to them.
It is humbly ſuppoſed, that the ſame number of locks, or fewer, may make good this navigation betwixt Severn and Trent, and carry the proviſions and manufactures of ſeven counties, or more, to above 70 market-towns and cities.
Ninety-three miles Engliſh is the length of the canal begun betwixt the Don and the Wolga, to make a communication betwixt the Caſpian and the Euxine Seas.
The Ladoga canal deſigned for the uſe of Peterſburgh 460 Engliſh miles long, the fall of the rivers that fall into the Wolga 110 feet, of thoſe that fall into the Neva (upon which another dock is to be made) 445 feet fall. Total 555.

Vid.

Vid. Capt. Perry's Account of Ruſſia.
Four hundred ſeventy-one thouſand one hundred and fifty-four men were employed to cut a canal to draw down the lake of Mexico. Vid. Collection of Travels, Vol. IV. page 531.

REMARKS.

Under our article FRANCE, we have ſhewn what advantages the trade of that nation derives from the great plenty of river-navigation that runs through moſt parts of their provinces. The convenience of communication, the facility of carriage for the natural productions and manufactures to the ſea, are two objects of great importance for a kingdom of ſo vaſt an extent as that of France. Its principal rivers, the Seine, the Loire, the Garrone, the Rhone, with the others, that run into them, are an advantage it owes to nature. Its induſtry has added to it NAVIGABLE CANALS, admirable for the immenſity of the work, and for the profits the commerce draws from them. Such is the canal of Languedoc, by means of which Riquet eſtabliſhed a commodious communication between Bourdeaux and Marſcilles, that is to ſay, between the ocean and the Mediterranean: ſuch the canals of Orleans and Briare, between the countries watered by the Seine and Loire; not to mention other canals, and projects for rendering rivers navigable, the carrying of which into execution will have reſpectively their uſe and advantage.

The Dutch too have an infinite number of rivers and canals, running through the whole ſeventeen provinces [ſee the article UNITED PROVINCES], ſome in every part; and as all theſe rivers and canals are navigable, ſo this river-navigation is ſo conſiderable, particularly in thoſe provinces, that it is ſaid, above 50,000 men are conſtantly employed upon them in the dominions of the States-General; who being all uſed to the water, make good ſeamen on occaſion. By mean of this river-navigation, the Dutch carry on a great and beneficial commerce with Germany and France, and even as high as Switzerland.

In this they may be ſaid to have no rival: the trade up the Maeſe and the Rhine is, as it were, their own, and through them they trade into all the navigable rivers, which flow into them; by the means of which, the Dutch enjoy a full commerce on both thoſe great ſtreams, and poſſeſs the trade of all the countries through which they flow; and by the Danube, which begins to be navigable near the Neckar, they have likewiſe a trade down that river into Bavaria, and even to Vienna itſelf.

The Spaniards are endeavouring to improve their river navigation.—The great importance of making the river Ebro navigable, has been recommended to the court of Madrid by an able miniſter. It is intended, it ſeems, to make that river more navigable from Navarre, or even higher up, down to the very alfaques of Tortoſa, where it runs into the Mediterranean. By this means, the ſuperfluous commodities and fruits of the ſeveral countries which this river traverſes, may be conveyed at an eaſier charge, and their traffic on that account facilitated; and many other benefits procured, without any real expence, as the principal difficulties are at preſent ſurmounted, inſomuch that flat-bottomed veſſels frequently paſs from the neighbourhood of Tudela to Tortoſa, and even to the ſea, laden with gunpowder, bombs, granades, artillery, and other military ſtores, manufactured in Navarre, as alſo any other commodities, that want carriage thither; though the navigation has its difficulties, eſpecially at the water-fall of Flix, where they are at the charge and trouble of landing the goods, and putting them aboard again. But this, and the other inconveniencies, they ſay, may be eaſily removed, as we have ſeen, in Flanders, France, and Holland, much greater ſurmounted by means of flood-gates, ſluices, and other contrivances. If the navigation of this river ſhould be made more eaſy, the Spaniards may go up and down the river with common veſſels, which will not only promote the mutual commerce of the ſeveral provinces of Spain, and that which might be carried on abroad, but alſo ſerve for the tranſport of all the materials neceſſary for the navy; and the above ſtores of war, together with wheat, barley, and other ſupplies for the army, and his Majeſty's garriſons, to the ſaving of millions of dollars, which have been expended in that kingdom, by carrying them, as they have done on ſeveral occaſions, either upon horſes or in waggons. And,

By erecting of new ſhip-yards in the alfaques, they propoſe to themſelves other advantages. For as they will be ſituated at the mouth of the river Ebro, they happen to lie in the very paſſage of the maſts, planking, and other timber, which being cut down in ſeveral parts of the Pyrenees, and conveyed by different roads, and ſmall rivers into the Ebro, they may be brought down to the ports of the Mediterranean and the ocean. And if ſuch quantities of naval ſtores in general be detained in the alfaques, as ſhall be worked up in the propoſed new ſhip-yards, there will be ſaved the expence and riſk of tranſporting them to Calabria, and the four towns, as has been done, making a coaſting voyage of above 500 leagues; ſo that the way will be ſo much ſhorter than when they carry them to theſe parts, ſubject to the expence and hazard above-

mentioned. By this meaſure the Spaniards propoſe to procure many able hands from the neighbouring provinces for their new ſhip-yards, and thereby have ſuch kinds of works eſtabliſhed in ſeveral places: they will, by this means, alſo be enabled to improve and ſecure the building and fitting out of men of war and merchant-men, while at the ſame time it will be eaſier to man the ſhips upon theſe coaſts, that as ſoon as they are finiſhed, they might ſail to the ports of Andaluſia, or other parts, that ſhould be thought proper; ſince, even for the few that have been lately built in the yards of Calabria and the four towns, it is well known, that after great delays and expence, the Spaniards could procure but a ſcanty number of hands in thoſe provinces to man them for ſo ſhort a trip as to Cadiz.—This is a ſpecimen of what the Spaniards are about, in regard to the increaſe of their river-navigation.—And we might mention more inſtances of ſeveral powers in Europe, who, for the benefit of their trade, are purſuing the like meaſures. No one need be informed of the unſpeakable benefit ariſing to trade from the river-navigation on the continent of America. The Louiſiana, as the French have chriſtened Florida, a vaſt country watered by the river Miſſiſſipi, and by a multitude of other rivers, yield the French at preſent more than bare promiſes, as we are likely ſoon to experience to our coſt, unleſs they ſhall be effectually checked in their career: nor is the ſame of leſs utility and importance in Aſia. It cannot be ſuppoſed, but that in a country of ſuch an exceeding extent as China, and ſo very populous, there muſt be a communication of the product of one province with another, and that this muſt occaſion a very great trade among them; and, indeed, it is ſo to a wonderful degree, as well by land-carriage as by river-navigation; and eſpecially by their canals, of which the royal canal in China from Canton to Pekin is the wonder of the world.

Their river-navigation is exceeding great; the two rivers of Kiang and Hoang are known to be navigable, the firſt above 1200 miles, the latter 700 miles. The great lake Phujang is ſaid to be 300 miles in circumference, and has great ſhips ſailing in it. Some exaggerating authors raiſe theſe things up to impoſſibilities, and tell us they have 300,000 ſhips and barks, and that it is ordinary to ſee 30,000 veſſels on the river at Nanquin at once, beſides ſuch as are continually going and coming upon buſineſs.

Certain it is, there is a vaſt inland commerce among them, the product of the reſpective provinces requiring it: for as the ſeveral productions are extremely different, ſo the diſtant provinces call for thoſe things in trade which they have not of their own, and which are the product of the provinces moſt remote. Thus the carrying and recarrying thoſe productions, whether for ſubſiſtence or for merchandize, neceſſarily requires all poſſible aſſiſtance of boats, horſes, and men; and this occaſions the extraordinary circulation of their trade. For example.

The beſt and fineſt ſilk is found in the province of Chekiam, or Chekaing, lying ſouth of Nanquin, the country being ſpread over with foreſts of mulberry-trees. The chief city of this province is Hamcheu, a place full of the people employed in drawing or ſpinning the ſilk from the worms, and doubling it again, ſo as to make it fit for the throwſter's mill: alſo they tell us there are 10,000 throwſters, or twiſters of ſilk, here.

To this city there is a navigation by 17 canals or rivers, ſome reaching to one river, ſome to another: ſo that the ſilk is, or may be, tranſported by water-carriage to all the great cities and ſea-ports in China; ſome of which otherwiſe would not be able to carry on the manufacture of ſilk, without fetching the materials, at great charge, a long way by land.

It is from this city the raw ſilk is brought above 100 miles, to the ſea port of Limpo, from whence the Engliſh factory receive it, and bring away great quantities of it to Europe.

From this city it is likewiſe carried north to Pekin, and ſouth to Canton, places diſtant and remote, one above 700 miles one way, the other 600 miles another way; in both which cities, as well as in Nanquin (the greateſt of them all) the manufactures work it up into the moſt curious broad ſilks, and other manufactures, of which this country is ſo full.

Kiamſi is an inland province, full 300 miles from the ſea, at the neareſt diſtance, and almoſt 500 at the remoteſt, yet it has the royal canal running through the center of it, in its paſſage from Canton to Pekin: ſo that, by this canal, there is a navigation quite through the province, and a communication of inland trade from ſea to ſea, as it may be called: that is, from Lamton Bay, or Langchang, as the Chineſe call it, to the bay of Nanquin, and the ſea of Cang below Pekin, which is above 1000 miles.

In the north part of this province alſo is the great inland ſea, or lake, of Phangu, or Fujang, which has 1000 very large ſhips, or jonks, employed on it, and all the rivers in the province fall into it: they ſay it is 300 miles in circumference, and empties all its waters into the great river Kouang, or the Blue River.

In this province, lies the great manufacture of china-ware; that is to ſay, the fineſt and beſt is made here.

From hence, after great multitudes of people are employed in the labouring part, the goods are conveyed by water to all parts of the empire, and to all the ſeveral ports of Tonquin,

Canton,

Canton, Amoy, Nanquin, Pekin, Chuſan, Limpo, and from thoſe ports to all the reſt of the world.

This trade muſt of neceſſity employ not only a great many hands, but a great many veſſels, boats, and barks, upon thoſe canals, lakes, rivers, and ſeas: and it will not be wondered, were we to go over all the provinces in this manner, and view the inland commerce, by which 59 millions of people are ſaid to be fed, cloathed, and employed (for ſo many they tell us the country contains): it will not, I ſay, be wondered at, that the numbers of ſhips, barks, and boats, are ſo many, which are ſeen upon thoſe rivers and canals.

The next province weſt of this, and yet farther from the ſea, is Huquam. The great river Koiang runs through the heart of this province; and the channel being very broad, and withal exceeding deep, the ſtream is mild and gentle, and is therefore not only navigable for great ſhips, but the navigation is very ſafe and eaſy.

Here is alſo another lake, or inland ſea, larger than the former, being, as ſome write, 400 miles in circuit, and in ſome places 50 to 100 fathoms deep, on which there are very large ſhips employed. All this is taken notice of, to ſhew that the inland trade of this country is exceeding great, by the means of river-navigation: for as this river is made uſe of to ſupply the two populous cities of Chiccheu and Nanquin, in which are ſo many millions of people, as well with proviſions as with manufactures and merchandizes of ſeveral kinds, ſo the trade muſt be very great, and the number of veſſels employed alſo very great; and it is certainly ſo, for they tell us there are above a million of people taken up in the navigation of this one river only, and in the canals made from it to the neighbouring provinces, for the convenience of trade, including the two great lakes.

The product of this province is chiefly corn and rice, cotton and fiſh; the latter is found in the great lake mentioned above in moſt incredible quantities, which are carried down the great river to Chiccheu and Nanquin in boats, with wells to keep them alive.

The great quantity of corn and rice carried down to Nanquin, &c. is enough to keep a very great number of veſſels conſtantly employed, and no queſtion it does employ ſome thouſands.

But the navigation does not end here, the Koiang being navigable ſtill further weſt: for this river, which takes its riſe in the mountains of Thibet, in the Great Mogul's country, runs above 500 miles, and is a very large river before it enters the dominions of China: ſo that it is navigable to the fartheſt weſtern bounds of the Chineſe empire.

It is alſo very remarkable, how the navigation of this river reaching thus far, is particularly uſeful, and indeed neceſſary to trade, becauſe in theſe weſtern provinces of China, the heavy and bulky goods are chiefly produced, which could not be carried ſo far as to the ſea-ſide or ſea-ports, but by water. For example,

The province of Suchuen, or Suchen, lies weſt, extended to the eaſtern boundary of the kingdom of Thibet; and this great river runs through the heart of the province, and is diſtant there from the ſea near 700 miles.

In this province are found mines of ſeveral metals and minerals, which being heavy goods require water-carriage, or elſe could not be removed, except at an immenſe charge, to ſo great a diſtance as Canton or Nanquin, or any of the ſea-port towns which lie ſo far due eaſt from them.

We have run over theſe provinces to ſhew the inland navigation of the country, and the prodigious courſe of trade carried on by that navigation, which is the great occaſion their produce and manufactures come ſo cheap to the European markets. Which ought to be a prevailing argument with Great-Britain, to cultivate river-navigation to what extent they are able, in order to anſwer the ſame wiſe and ſalutary purpoſes. See the article ROADS.

ROADS. The repairs, amendment, and preſervation of the roads of this kingdom, is certainly a public good work, well worth the conſtant attention of the legiſlature; and, by virtue of acts of parliament, the public hath found great advantage from the improvements of the roads, and by the application of tolls collected at the turnpikes.

The firſt is, that travelling might be rendered ſafer, eaſier, and pleaſanter to gentlemen and others, upon their ordinary occaſions; that this end is greatly anſwered, every one's experience will tell him, who can remember the condition of the roads about 30 or 40 years ago.

The ſecond is, the benefit accruing to our trade and commerce, by rendering the carriage leſs expenſive upon all ſorts of goods and merchandize: whether they are proviſions of any kind, the immediate growth and produce of our lands, or whether any other ſorts of wares, which muſt have conveyance by land.

That this good end hath alſo been greatly anſwered, will clearly appear, by comparing the former rates of carriage with what is now paid. Of this we ſhall produce ſome few inſtances to the city of London only, that being the great mart, not only for proviſions, but alſo for the various manufactures carried on in the ſeveral parts of the kingdom. Hither they are chiefly brought, and from hence the ſame carrier loads back with ſuch goods, as the ſeveral counties have a demand for, whether they be foreign or otherwiſe. Thoſe who have made it their buſineſs to be rightly informed of this matter, have, upon enquiry, found that carriage in general is now 30 per cent. cheaper than before the roads were amended by turnpikes: of which it may be proper to produce ſome proofs.

1ſt, From Birmingham to London it is ſaid there are not leſs than 25 or 30 waggons ſent weekly; 7 s. per hundred was formerly paid, the price now paid is from 3 to 4 s. per hundred.

2dly, From Portſmouth to London the common price was 7 s. per hundred, the government paid ſo in queen Anne's war; and now only 4 to 5 s. per hundred is paid: and, in the late war, arms and warlike ſtores for his Majeſty's ſervice were carried at the rate of 4 or 5 s. per hundred.

3dly, From Exeter to London, and from other towns in the weſt of like diſtance, the carriage of wool and other goods is very great, eſpecially in times of war.—12 s. per hundred was formerly paid, now only 8 s. per hundred: the ſame may be affirmed with reſpect to Briſtol, Glouceſter, and the adjacent counties; the land-carriage particularly, in time of war, is very large, and the price of it is proportionably reduced.

4thly, Let us proceed now to another part of the kingdom, of leſs diſtance from the metropolis, and ſee what is the difference between the preſent rates of carriage, and thoſe which were uſed to be given: from the woollen manufacturing towns in Eſſex to London, 2 s. 6 d. was formerly paid for a double bay, but now only 1 s. 6 d.; a ſingle bay paid formerly 1 s. 6 d. is now reduced to 6 d. and 8 d. a pack of wool, weight 200, paid formerly 6 s. now only 4 s.

5thly, Butter from Cambridge to London, the produce of the iſle of Ely and county of Norfolk, from whence about 90,000 firkins are brought yearly, was formerly from 18 d. to 2 s. per firkin, and is now but 14 d. More inſtances might be produced, but theſe may be ſufficient; and from theſe it may be inferred, that the reduction in the price of carriage is general from all places. To ſet this matter in a ſtill more ſtriking light, it may not be improper to deſcend to an exacter ſcrutiny into this matter. Wherefore to begin in the order wherein we firſt ſet out.

From Birmingham to London, viz.

15 Tons of goods formerly ſold at 7 s. per hundred coſt	l. 105
15 Tons now at 4 s. per hundred coſt only -	60
Saved 3 l. per ton - - -	45

From Exeter to London.

8 Tons of goods at 12 s. per hundred coſt -	l. 96
8 Tons now at 8 s. per hundred coſt - -	64
Saved in the carriage of 8 tons - - -	32

From Eſſex formerly.

800 Double bays at 2 s. 6 d. per bay, coſt -	l. 100
800 Ditto, now at 1 s. 6 d. per hundred, coſt only	60
Saved 40 per cent. - - -	40
300 Packs of wool, formerly at 6 s. each, coſt -	l. 90
300 Ditto now at 4 s. coſt - - -	60
Saved - - - -	30

And now let us enquire from whence the ſaving in land-carriage, ſo great a benefit to trade, ariſeth; no other cauſe, we conceive, can be reaſonably aſſigned, than that, ſince the amendment of the roads by turnpikes, our carriers are enabled to draw greater weights, with the ſame number of horſes in one carriage, than they formerly could do. To demonſtrate this, we ſhall bring an example or two: the roads in general were formerly ſo deep and bad, ſo full of holes and ſloughs, that a team of ſix horſes could ſcarce draw from any place of 60 miles diſtance, or upwards, above 30 hundred weight of goods; whereas the ſame team can now draw with more eaſe 50 or 60 hundred.

Suppoſe from Birmingham, or any other place of equal diſtance,

Formerly 30 hundred at 7 s. per hundred coſt -	l.	10 10
Now 50 hundred at 4 s. per hundred coſts only -		10 0

Or, to ſhew the ſavings, you may be pleaſed to compute thus:

50 Hundred formerly at 7 s. per hundred coſt	l.	17 10
50 Hundred now at 4 s. per hundred coſt -		10 0
Saved - - -		7 10

Again, ſuppoſe from Exeter, &c.

That formerly ſix horſes could draw 40 hundred of woollen goods, at 12 s. per hundred, is	l. 24
Now 6 horſes can draw 60 hundred at 8 s. per hundred	24

From

From theſe inſtances it is extremely evident, that a team with ſix horſes can now draw 20 hundred more than they could do formerly; that the price of carriage is, for this reaſon, proportionably reduced, and the public, or trade and commerce, have the immediate benefit of it.—In proviſions, as wheat, meal, malt, butter, and cheeſe, &c. the farmer and landed intereſt generally have the benefit of theſe ſavings. In all our manufactured goods, the public have the benefit of them, whether they are uſed at home or exported. The cheaper the maker can get his wares to market, the cheaper he muſt and doth ſell them: of this every merchant and trader is fully ſenſible.—It is a known maxim in commerce, that the leſs it is burthened, or the eaſier the conveyance both at home and abroad, the more extenſive and beneficial it will certainly prove. I have ſhewn above, the general benefit that the nation reapeth from the improvement of our roads by turnpikes. I ſhall not proceed to point out whence it is, that the farmers and traders apprehend ſo great a burthen upon trade, from the late act of limitation; whereby no waggon, &c. ſhall be drawn with more than five horſes, unleſs up ſteep hills, after the 1ſt of July 1752: and the truſtees or commiſſioners of the turnpike roads, in their reſpective diſtricts, are required, on or before the 25th of March 1752, to erect weighing engines at the toll-gates, or elſewhere, upon their reſpective roads; and that no waggon, &c. be ſuffered to paſs through with above 60 hundred, the weight of the waggon, &c. included.

We ſhall not enter into the merits of this act; there has been ſcarce time to ſhew with what conſequences it may be attended, and therefore we muſt leave it to experience. If the article of carriage receives as great additional benefit by the laſt principal acts, as it has done by the eſtabliſhment of tolls and turnpike roads in general, the public will have no reaſon to complain.

However, be this as it may, the public will be no way relieved from the great expence attending the conſtant amendment on the highways; and what traders may ſave, in reſpect to the point of carriage, the public pays very amply for, I am afraid, for the repairs of the highways: and that expence falling upon the public in general, inſtead of traders in particular, is only a ſeeming alleviation of the burthen; it remains ſtill a prodigious expence to the nation, from which, in as great a meaſure as is poſſible, they ought to be diſincumbered, and that ſaving, if it can be effected, will anſwer other public exigencies. All contentions about expedients to ſave and preſerve the roads by changing the manner of carriage, and laying peculiar reſtraints thereon, do not appear to be ſtriking at the root of the evil; for ſuppoſing that the roads by ſuch expedients do wear out or decay one twelfth leſs than they did before ſuch expedients are carried into execution, yet, if the price of carriage is raiſed one twelfth more from inconveniencies that the carriers may experience, we do not ſee any great gain that will thereby accrue to the public in general.

The eſſential point, we humbly apprehend, to be conſidered, is, whether there is any probability ſo to repair and amend the highways in general, that the weight of any carriages that have heretofore contributed to, or may hereafter contribute to, leſſen the price of land-carriage in general, will do little injury to the roads in general, and conſequently, after ſuch work is gradually completed, will put the nation to very little expence in their conſtant reparation, in compariſon to what now is expended by the public for that purpoſe. This, we conceive, is the principal matter that deſerves to be weighed and conſidered: and although we do not preſume to offer any thing to the public conſideration, that will effectually anſwer theſe deſirable purpoſes; yet we ſhall give a ſummary of what has occurred to us upon this occaſion, with a view to ſpirit up and excite others more capable, to put a matter of this general concern in ſuch a light, as may appear more rational, eligible, and practicable than any thing that we can preſume to ſuggeſt.

Whether any thing of the nature of that which we ſhall take the liberty to offer, may ever be practicable, might be tried by a fair experiment of five miles, or even of one ſingle mile only, at the public expence; and if it ſhould be found to anſwer in one mile, then it might be ſeriouſly thought of to be made general, or laid aſide. Nay, one hundred yards only, experienced in one of the moſt public roads, through which the heavieſt carriages paſs, would, perhaps, be ſufficient to give this matter a fair trial. But this is not an experiment that has never been tried, it was long experienced by the ancient Romans; and as we ſeldom err in the imitation of their wiſe example, in many important particulars, the imitating them, perhaps, in regard to the management of their highways, ſo far as it may be experienced to be practicable in this nation, may not be attended with leſs emolument and glory than in many other things, wherein we are fond, and even value ourſelves upon following their great and glorious example.

Nor do I pretend to have any merit in the propoſal; it was, I underſtand, many years ſince drawn up by a public-ſpirited gentleman. I ſhall endeavour only to put the matter in ſomething of a different light, as being more accommodated to the preſent times, by adding what may ſeem requiſite, and curtailing what may be ſuperfluous.

The Romans, while they governed this iſland, made it one of their principal cares to make and repair the highways of the kingdom, and the chief roads we now uſe, are of their marking out; the conſequence of maintaining them was ſuch, or at leaſt ſo eſteemed, that they thought it not below them to employ their legionary troops * in this work; and it was ſometimes the buſineſs of whole armies, either when in winter-quarters, or in the intervals of truce or peace with the natives.

* We know by experience in Scotland, what the ſoldiery can do in this reſpect.

If we lay aſide the barbarity and cuſtom of the Romans as heathens, and take them as a civil government, we muſt allow they were the pattern of the whole world for improvement and increaſe of arts and learning, civilizing and methodizing nations and countries conquered by their valour; and if this was one of their great cares, that conſideration ought to move ſomething with us. But to the great example of that generous people, we will add three arguments.

(1) It is uſeful. And that as it is convenient for carriages, which in a trading country is a great help to negoce, and promotes univerſal correſpondence, without which our inland trade could not be managed.

(2) It is eaſy. We queſtion not to make it appear it is eaſy, to put all the high roads, eſpecially in England, in a noble figure, large, dry, and clean, well drained and free from floods, unpaſſable ſloughs, deep cart-ruts, high ridges, and all the inconveniencies to which they are liable, if not conſtantly kept in repair in the common way, at a prodigious expence to the public; and when this is once done, much eaſier ſtill to be maintained ſo, at a very moderate and trifling public expence, in compariſon to the preſent annual one, raiſed by toll, and other rates.

(3.) It may be cheaper; and the whole aſſeſſment for the repairs of highways for ever be dropped, or applied to other uſes for the public benefit.

The propoſal is as follows:

Firſt, That an act of parliament be made, with liberty for the undertakers, where it is wanted, to dig and trench, to cut down hedges and trees, or whatever is needful for ditching, draining, and carrying off water, cleaning, enlarging, and levelling the roads, with power to lay open or incloſe lands; to incroach into lands, dig, raiſe, and level fences, plant and pull up hedges or trees, for the enlarging, widening, and draining the highways, with power to turn either the roads or water-courſes, rivers and brooks, as by the directors of the works ſhall be found needful, always allowing ſatisfaction to be firſt made to the owners of ſuch lands, either by aſſigning to them equivalent lands, or payments in money, the value to be adjuſted by judicious and indifferent perſons, to be named by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, &c. for the time being; and no water-courſe to be turned from any water-mill, without ſatisfaction firſt made both to the landlord and tenant.

But before we proceed, it may be neceſſary to ſay a word or two upon this article.

The chief, and almoſt the only cauſe of the deepneſs and foulneſs of the roads, is occaſioned by the ſtanding water, which for want of due care to draw it off by ſcouring and opening ditches and drains, and other water-courſes, and clearing of paſſages, ſoaks into the earth, and ſoftens it to ſuch a degree, that it cannot bear the weight of horſes and carriages; to prevent which, the power to dig, trench, and cut down, &c. mentioned above, will be of abſolute neceſſity: but becauſe the liberty ſeems very large, and ſome may think it is too great a power to be granted to any body of men over their neighbours, it is anſwered,

(1.) It is abſolutely neceſſary, or the work cannot be effectually done, and the doing of the work is of much greater benefit than the damage can amount to. But,

(2.) Satisfaction is propoſed to be made to the owner, and that firſt too, before the damage be done, as an unqueſtionable equivalent; and both together, I think, are a full anſwer to any objection in that caſe.

Beſides this act of parliament, a commiſſion muſt be granted to fifteen, at leaſt, in the name of the undertakers, to whom every county ſhall have power to join ten, who are to ſit with the ſaid fifteen, ſo often and ſo long as the ſaid fifteen do ſit for affairs relating to that county; which fifteen, or any ſeven of them, ſhall be directors of the works, to be adviſed by the ſaid ten, or any five of them, in matters of right and claim; and the ſaid ten to adjuſt differences in the counties, and to have right by proceſs to appeal in the name either of lords of manors, or privileges of towns or corporations, who ſhall be either damaged or encroached upon by the ſaid work: all appeals to be heard and determined immediately by the ſaid lord chancellor, or commiſſion from him, that the work may receive no interruption.

This commiſſion ſhall give power to the ſaid fifteen to preſs waggons, carts, and horſes, oxen, and men, and detain them to work a certain limited time, and within a certain

limited ſpace of miles from their own habitations, and at a certain rate of payment: no men, horſes, or carts, to be preſſed againſt their conſent, during the times of hay-time, or harveſt; or upon market-days, if the perſon aggrieved will make affidavit he is obliged to be with his horſes or carts at the ſaid markets.

It is well known to all who have any knowledge of the condition the highways in England in general would be in, without the conſtant great expence we are at to repair them, that in moſt places there is a convenient DISTANCE OF LAND * left open for travelling, either for driving of cattle, or marching of troops of horſe, with perhaps as few lanes or defiles, as in any counties: the croſs roads, which are generally narrow, are yet broad enough in moſt places for two carriages to paſs; but, on the other hand, we have on moſt of the high roads a great deal of waſte land thrown in as it were for an overplus to the highway; which, though it be uſed of courſe by cattle and travellers on occaſion, is indeed no benefit at all either to the traveller as a road, or to the poor as a common, or to the lord of the manor as a waſte; upon it grows neither timber nor graſs, in any quantity anſwerable to the land; but, though to no purpoſe, is trodden down, poached, and over-run by drifts of cattle in the winter, or ſpoiled with the duſt eternally flying from the roads in the ſummer. And this may be obſerved in many parts of England to be as good land as any of the neighouring incloſures, as capable of improvement, and to as good purpoſe.

* A great quantity of this land has been unwarrantably incroached on, and incloſed within theſe 30 or 40 years; and if enquiry was made into the titles, I doubt not but they will be found very deficient.

Theſe lands only being incloſed and manured, leaving the roads to dimenſions with meaſure ſufficient, are the fund upon which the propoſer would build the ſtock of money that muſt carry this deſign into execution, without any expence to the public whatever.

Theſe lands, which we ſhall afterwards make an eſſay to value, being incloſed, will be either ſaleable to raiſe money, or fit to exchange with thoſe gentlemen, who muſt part with ſome land where the ways are narrow: always reſerving a quantity of the lands to be let out to tenants, the rent to be paid into the public ſtock or bank of the undertakers, and to be reſerved for keeping the ways in the ſame repair; and the ſaid bank to forfeit the lands, if they are not ſo maintained.

Another branch of the ſtock muſt be hands, for a ſtock of men is a ſtock of money; to which purpoſe every county, city, town, and pariſh, ſhall be rated at a ſet price, equivalent to eight years payment for the repair of highways; which each county, &c. ſhall raiſe, not by aſſeſſment in money, but by preſſing of men, horſes, and carriages, for the work; the men, horſes, &c. to be employed by the directors: in which caſe all corporal puniſhments inflicted for miſdemeanors, as of whippings, ſtocks, pillories, houſes of corrections, &c. might be eaſily tranſmitted to a certain number of days work on the highways; and in conſideration of this proviſion of men, the county ſhould for EVER AFTER be acquitted of any contribution, either in money or work, for repair of the highways, building of bridges excepted.

There will, perhaps, lie ſome popular objection againſt this undertaking; the firſt is, the great controverted point in England of the INCLOSURE OF THE COMMON †, which tends to depopulation, and injures the poor. 2. Who ſhall be judges or ſurveyors of the work, to oblige the undertakers to perform to a certain limited degree.

† If as much of common land had been incloſed, and the profits thereof applied to the repairs of the highways, as has been unjuſtifiably ſtolen therefrom, the amount would have greatly, if not effectually, contributed to this good work.

For the firſt, the incloſure of the common: a clauſe that runs as far as to an incroachment upon Magna Charta, and a moſt conſiderable branch of the property of the poor: I anſwer it thus:

(1.) The lands propoſed to be incloſed, are not ſuch as from which the poor do indeed reap any benefit, or at leaſt any that is conſiderable.

(2.) The bank and public ſtock, which are to manage this great undertaking, will have ſo many little labours to perform, and offices to beſtow, that are fit only for labouring poor perſons to do, as will put them in a condition to provide for the poor who are ſo injured, that can work; and to thoſe who cannot, may allow penſions for overſeeing, ſuperviſing, and the like, which will be more than equivalent.

(3.) For depopulations, the contrary ſhould be ſecured, by obliging the undertakers, at ſuch and ſuch certain diſtances, to erect cottages, two at leaſt in a place, which would be uſeful to the work and ſafety of the traveller, to which ſhould be an allotment of land, always ſufficient to invite the poor inhabitant, in which the poor ſhould be tenant for life gratis, doing duty upon the highway as ſhould be appointed; by which, and many other methods, the poor ſhould be great gainers by the propoſal, inſtead of being injured.

(4.) By this erecting of cottages at proper diſtances, a man might travel all over England as through a ſtreet, which might contribute, in ſome meaſure, to prevent robberies, and prove directors to travellers in their way.

(5.) This undertaking once duly ſettled, might in a few years be ſo ordered, that there ſhould be no poor for the common; and if ſo, what need of a common for the poor? Of which in its proper place.

As to the ſecond objection, Who ſhould oblige the undertakers to the performance?

(1.) It is anſwered, Their commiſſion and charter ſhould become void, and all their ſtock forfeited, and the lands incloſed and unfold, remain as a pledge; which would be ſecurity ſufficient.

(2.) The ten perſons choſen out of every county, ſhould have power to inſpect and complain, and the lord chancellor upon ſuch complaint to make a ſurvey; and to determine by a jury, in which caſe, on default, they ſhall be obliged to proceed.

(3.) The lands ſettled on the bank ſhall be liable to be extended for the uſes mentioned, if the ſame at any time be not maintained in the condition at firſt provided, and the bank to be amerced upon complaint of the county.

Theſe and other conditions, which on a legal ſettlement to be made by the wiſdom of the legiſlature, might be thought on, that I do believe would form a conſtitution ſo firm, ſo fair, and ſo equally advantageous to the country, to the poor, and to the public, as has not been put in practice in theſe latter ages of the world.

By means of a grant of waſte, and almoſt uſeleſs lands lying open to the highway, we may preſume to ſay, thoſe lands to be improved, as they might eaſily be, together with the eight years aſſeſſment to be provided in workmen, a noble magnificent CAUSEWAY might be erected, with ditches on either ſide deep enough to receive the water, and drains ſufficient to carry it off; which CAUSEWAY ſhould be four feet high at leaſt; and from thirty to forty feet broad, paved in the middle, to keep it well cemented and cooped in, and ſo ſupplied with gravel, and other proper binding materials, as ſhould ſecure it from decay, with ſmall occaſional reparation.

We hope no man would be ſo weak now, as to imagine that by lands lying open to the road, to be aſſigned to the undertakers, we ſhould mean that all Finchley-common, &c. ſhould be incloſed and ſold for this work: but leſt ſomebody ſhould ſtart ſuch prepoſterous objections, we think it is not improper to mention, That wherever a highway is to be carried over a large common, foreſt, or waſte, without a hedge on either hand for certain diſtance, there the ſeveral pariſhes ſhall allot the directors a certain quantity of the common to lie parallel with the road, at a proportioned number of feet to the length and breadth of the ſaid road; conſideration alſo to be had to the nature of the ground, or elſe giving them only room for the road directly, ſhall ſuffer them to incloſe in any one ſpot ſo much of the ſaid common, as ſhall be equivalent to the like quantity of land contiguous to the road: thus, where the land is good, and the materials for erecting a cauſeway near, the leſs land may ſerve, and on the contrary the more; but in general, allowing them the quantity of land proportioned to the length of the cauſeway, and forty rod in breadth; though where the land is poor, as on downs and plains, the proportion muſt be conſidered to be adjuſted by the country.

Another point, in relation to the dimenſions of roads, ſhould be adjuſted, and the breadth of them, I think, cannot be leſs than thus:

From London every way 10 miles, the high poſt-road, to be built full 40 feet in breadth, and four feet high, the ditches eight feet broad, and ſix feet deep, and from thence onward 30 feet, and ſo in proportion.

Croſs-roads to be 20 feet broad, and ditches proportioned; no lanes and paſſes leſs than nine feet without ditches.

The middle of the HIGH CAUSEWAYS to be paved with ſtone, chalk, or gravel, and the beſt-cemented matter that can be procured the neareſt thereunto, and kept always two feet higher than the ſides, that the water might have a free courſe into the ditches, and perſons kept in conſtant employ to fill up holes, let out water, open drains, and the like, as there ſhould be occaſion. A proper work for highwaymen, and ſuch malefactors as might, on thoſe ſervices, be exempted from the gallows.

It may here be objected, That eight years aſſeſſment to be demanded down, is too much in reaſon to expect any of the poorer ſort can pay; as for inſtance, if a farmer who keeps a team of horſes be, at the common aſſeſſment, to work a week, it muſt not be put ſo hard upon any man as to work eight weeks together. It is eaſy to anſwer this objection. So many as are wanted muſt be had; if a farmer's team cannot be ſpared, without prejudice to him, ſo long together, he may ſpare it at ſundry times, or agree to be aſſeſſed, and pay the aſſeſſment at ſundry payments; and the bank may make it as eaſy to them as they pleaſe.

Another method, however, might be found to fix this work at once. Suppoſe a bank be ſettled for the highways of the county of Middleſex, which as they are, without doubt, the moſt uſed of any in the kingdom, ſo alſo they require the more charge, and, in ſome parts, lie in the worſt condition

of any in the kingdom, 'till the preſent great expence for their repair took place.

If the parliament fix the charge of the ſurvey of the highways upon a bank to be appointed for that purpoſe, for a certain term of years, the bank undertaking to do the work, or to forfeit the ſaid ſettlement. As thus:

Suppoſe the tax on land and tenements for the whole county of Middleſex does, or ſhould be ſo ordered, as it might amount to 20,000 l. per annum, more or leſs, which it now does, and much more, including the work of the farmers teams, which muſt be accounted as money, and is equivalent to it, with ſome allowance to be rated for the city of London, &c. who do enjoy the benefit, and make the moſt uſe of the ſaid roads, both for carrying of goods and bringing proviſions to the city, and therefore in reaſon ought to contribute towards the highways; for it is a moſt unequal thing, if a deſign of this kind ſhould ever take place, that the road from Highgate to Smithfield-market, by which the whole city, is, in a manner, ſupplied with live cattle, and the road by thoſe cattle horribly ſpoiled, ſhould lie all upon that one pariſh of Iſlington to repair: wherefore we will ſuppoſe a rate for the highways to be gathered through the city of London, of 10,000 l. per annum more, which may be appointed to be paid by carriers, drovers, and all ſuch as keep teams, horſes, or coaches, and the like, or many ways, as is moſt equal and reaſonable; the waſte lands in the ſaid county, which, by the conſent of the pariſhes, lords of the manors, and proprietors, ſhall be allowed to the undertakers, when encloſed and let out, may (the land in Middleſex generally letting high) amount to 5000 l. per annum more. If then an act of parliament be procured to ſettle the tax of 30,000 l. per annum, for eight years, moſt of which will be levied in workmen, and not in money, and the waſte lands for ever: we may preſume to affirm, that the highways for the whole county of Middleſex ſhould be put into the following form, and the 5000 l. per annum land be bound to remain as a ſecurity to maintain them ſo, and the county be never after burthened with any further tax for the repair of the highways.

And that we may not propoſe a matter in random generals, like begging the queſtion, without demonſtration, we ſhall enter into the particulars how it may be executed, and that under theſe following heads of articles:

(1.) What is propoſed to be done to the highways.
(2.) What the charge will be.
(3.) How to be raiſed.
(4.) What ſecurity for the performance.
(5.) What profit to the undertakers.

(1.) In regard to what is propoſed to be done to the highways. We anſwer firſt, to repair them, and yet, ſecondly, not alter them, that is, not alter the courſe they at preſent run.

But perfectly build them as a fabric; and, to deſcend to the particulars, it is firſt neceſſary to note which are the roads we mean, and their dimenſions.

Firſt, The high poſt-roads; and they are, for the county of Middleſex, as follows:

		Miles.
From London to	Stains, which is	15
	Colnbrook is from Hounſlow	5
	Uxbridge	15
	Buſhy, the Old-Street way	10
	Barnet, or near it	9
	Waltham-Croſs, in Ware road	10
	Bow	2
		66

Beſides theſe, there are croſs-roads, by-roads, and lanes, which muſt alſo be looked after; and that ſome of them may be put into condition, others may be wholly ſlighted and ſhut up, or made driſt-ways, bridle-ways, or foot-ways, as may be judged convenient by the countries.

The croſs-roads of moſt repute are as follow:

			Miles.
From	London	to Hackney, Old Ford, and Bow	5
	Hackney	Dalſton and Iſlington	2
	Ditto	Hornſey, Mouſewell-Hill, to Whetſtone	8
	Tottenham	The Chace, Southgate, &c. called Green lanes	6
	Enfield-Waſh	Enfield town, Whetſtone, Totteridge to Edgware	10
	London	Hampſtead, Hendon, and Edgware	8
	Edgware	Stanmore, to Pinner, to Uxbridge	8
	London	Harrow and Pinner-Green	11
	Ditto	Chelſea, Fulham	4
	Brentford	Iſleworth, Twickenham, and Kingſton	6
	Kingſton	Staines, Colnbrook, and Uxbridge	17
	Dittto	Chertſey Bridge	5
			90
		Overplus miles	50
			140

And becauſe there may be many parts of the croſs-roads which cannot be accounted in the number above mentioned, or may eſcape our knowledge or remembrance, we allow an overplus of 50 miles, to be added to the 90 miles above, which together make the croſs-roads of Middleſex to be 140 miles.

For the by-lanes, ſuch as may be ſlighted need nothing but to be ditched up; ſuch as are for private uſe of lands for carrying corn and driving cattle, are to be looked after by private hands.

But of the laſt ſort, not to be accounted by particulars, in the ſmall county of Middleſex, we cannot allow leſs in croſs by-lanes, from village to village, and from dwelling-houſes which ſtand out of the way to the roads, than 1000 miles.

So in the whole county we reckon up,

	Miles.
Of the high poſt-roads	67
Of croſs-roads leſs public	140
Of by-lanes and paſſes	1000
	1207

Theſe are the roads we mean, and thus divided under their ſeveral denominations.

To the queſtion, What we would do to them? it is anſwered, (1.) For the 67 miles of high poſt road, it is propoſed to throw up a FIRM STRONG CAUSEWAY, well bottomed, well cemented, and well built, ſix feet high in the middle, and four feet on the ſides, faced with brick or ſtone, and crowned with gravel, chalk, or ſtone, as the ſeveral countries they are made through will afford, being 44 feet in breadth, with ditches on either ſide eight feet broad, and four feet deep; ſo that the whole breadth will be 60 feet, if the ground will permit.

At the end of every two miles, or ſuch like convenient diſtances, ſhall be a cottage erected, with half an acre of ground allowed, which ſhall be given gratis, with 1s. per week wages to ſuch poor man of the pariſh as ſhall be approved, who ſhall once, at leaſt, every day, view his walk, to open paſſages for the water to run into the ditches, to fill up holes or ſoft places. Two riders ſhall be allowed to be always moving the rounds, to view every thing out of repair, and make report to the directors, and to ſee that the ſaid cottagers do their duty.

(2.) For the 140 miles of croſs-road, a like CAUSEWAY to be made, but of different dimenſions, the breadth 20 feet, the ditches four feet broad, three feet deep, the height in the middle three feet, and on the ſides one foot or two, where it may be needful, to be alſo crowned with gravel, and well cemented and built, as before; and 1 s. per week to be allowed to the poor of every pariſh; the conſtables to be bound to find a man to walk on the highway in every diviſion, for the ſame purpoſe as the cottagers do on the greater roads.

Poſts to be ſet up at every turning, to note whither it goes, for the direction of ſtrangers, and how many miles diſtant.

(3.) For 1000 miles by-lanes, only good and ſufficient care to keep them in repair as they are, and to carry the water off, by clearing and cutting the ditches, and laying materials where it is wanted.

This is what is propoſed to be done to the roads; and what, if once performed, we ſuppoſe all people would own to be an undertaking both uſeful and honourable to the kingdom.

(2.) The ſecond queſtion propoſed to be anſwered is, What the charge of all this will be?

Which is reckoned thus:

The work of the GREAT CAUSEWAY is propoſed not to coſt leſs than 10s. per foot, ſuppoſing materials to be bought, carriage and mens labour to be all hired; which, for 67 miles in length, is no leſs than the ſum of 176,880 l. as thus:

Every mile, accounted at 1,760 yards, and three feet to the yard, is 5,280 feet, which, at 10s. per foot, is 2640 l. per mile, and that again multiplied by 67, makes the ſum of 176,880 l. wherein is included the charge of water-courſes, mills to throw off water where needful, drains, &c.

To this charge muſt be added ditching to incloſe land for 30 cottages, and building 30 cottages, at 40 l. each, which is 1,200 l.

The work of the ſmaller cauſeway is propoſed to be finiſhed at the rate of 12 d. per foot, which being for 140 miles in length, at 5,280 feet per mile, amounts to 36,960 l.

Ditching, draining, and repairing 1000 miles, ſuppoſed at 3 s. per rod, for 320,000 rods, is 48,000 l. which added to the two former accounts, ſtand thus:

	l.
The high poſt roads, or great cauſeway	178,080
The ſmall cauſeway	36,960
By-lanes, &c.	48,000
	l. 263,040

If I were to propoſe ſome meaſures, continues the propoſer, for the eaſing this charge, I could, perhaps, lay down a ſcheme how it may be performed for leſs than one half of this charge.

As firſt, By a grant of the court at the Old Baily, whereby all ſuch criminals as are condemned to die for ſmaller crimes, may, inſtead of tranſportation, be ordered a year's work on the highways; others, inſtead of whipping, a proportioned

time, and the like; which would, by a moderate computation, provide us generally a ſupply of 200 workmen, and thoſe coming in as faſt as they go off; and the overſeers ſhould make them work.

Secondly, By an agreement with the African company, to furniſh 200 negroes, who are generally perſons that do a great deal of work; and all theſe are ſubſiſted very reaſonably out of a public ſtorehouſe.

Thirdly, Large carts and horſes to be bought, not hired, with a few able carters; and to the other a few workmen that have judgment to direct the reſt: and thus, perhaps, the great cauſeway might be done for 4s. or 5 s. per foot charge; but of this by the by.

Fourthly, A liberty to aſk charities and benevolence for the execution of this work.

(3.) To the queſtion, How this money ſhall be raiſed? I think if the parliament ſettle the tax on the county for eight years, at 30,000 l. per annum, no man need aſk how it ſhall be raiſed; it will be eaſy enough to raiſe the money; and no pariſh can grudge to pay a little larger rate for ſuch a term, on condition never to be taxed for the highways any more.

Eight years aſſeſſment, at 30,000 l. per annum, is enough to afford to borrow the money by way of anticipation, if need be, the fund being ſecured by parliament, and appropriated to that uſe and no other.

As to what ſecurity for performances.

The lands which are incloſed may be appropriated, by the ſame act of parliament, to the bank and undertakers, upon condition of performance, and to be forfeited to the uſe of the ſeveral pariſhes to which they belong, in caſe, upon preſentation by the grand juries, and reaſonable time given, any part of the roads in ſuch and ſuch pariſhes be not kept and maintained in that poſture they are propoſed to be. Now the lands thus ſettled are an eternal ſecurity to the country, for the keeping the roads in repair, becauſe they will always be of ſo much value over the needful charge, as will make it worth while to the undertakers to preſerve their title to them; and the tenure of them being ſo precarious as to be liable to forfeiture on default, they will always be careful to uphold the cauſeways.

Laſtly, What profit to the undertakers? for we muſt allow them to gain, and that conſiderably, or none would undertake ſuch a work.

To this it is propoſed, firſt,

During the execution of this work, let them be allowed out of the ſtock 3900 l. per annum, for management.

Alſo, after the work is finiſhed, ſo much of the 5000 l. per annum as can be ſaved, and the roads kept in good repair, let be their own; and if the lands ſecured be not of the value of 5000 l. a year, let ſo much of the eight years tax be ſet apart as may purchaſe land to make them up; if they came to more, let the benefit be to the adventurers.

It may be objected here, That a tax of 30,000 l. for eight years will come in as faſt as it well can be laid out, and ſo no anticipations will be requiſite; for the whole work propoſed cannot probably be finiſhed in leſs time; and if ſo,

	l.
The charge of the county amounts to -	240,000
The lands ſaved eight years revenue - -	40,000
	l. 280,000

Which is 13,000 l. more than the charge; and if the work be done ſo much cheaper, as is mentioned, the profit to the undertakers will be unreaſonable.

To this I ſay, I would have the undertakers bound to accept the ſalary of 3000 l. per annum for management; and, if a whole year's tax can be ſpared, either leave it unraiſed upon the county, or put it in bank, to be improved againſt any occaſion of building, perhaps, a bridge; or ſome very wet ſeaſon, or froſt, may ſo damnify the works, as to make them require more than ordinary repair. But the undertakers ſhould make no private advantage of ſuch an overplus; there might be ways enough found for it.

Another objection lies againſt the poſſibility of encloſing the lands upon the waſte, which generally belongs to ſome manor, whoſe different tenures may be ſo croſs, and ſo otherwiſe encumbered, that even the lords of thoſe manors, though they were willing, could not convey them.

This may be anſwered, in general, That an act of parliament is omnipotent with reſpect to titles and tenures of land, and can empower lords and tenants to conſent to what elſe they could not. As to particulars, they cannot be anſwered, 'till they are propoſed; but there is no doubt but an act of parliament may adjuſt it all in one head.

What a kingdom would England be, if this deſign were effectually executed in all the counties of it! And yet I believe it is poſſible, even in the worſt. I have narrowly obſerved, ſays the propoſer, all the conſiderable ways in that impaſſable county of Suſſex, which, eſpecially in ſome parts of the Wild, as they very properly call it, of the county, hardly admits the country people to travel to markets in winter, and makes corn dear at market, becauſe it cannot be brought, and cheap at the farmer's houſe, becauſe he cannot ſometimes carry it to market; yet even in that county would I undertake, ſays he, to carry on this deſign, and that to great advantage, if backed with the authority of an act of parliament.

I have ſeen, in that horrible country, the road 60 to 100 yards broad, lie from ſide to ſide all poached with cattle, the land of no manner of benefit, and yet no going with a horſe, but at every ſtep up to the ſhoulders, full of ſloughs and holes, and covered with ſtanding water. It coſts them incredible ſums of money to repair them, and the very places that are mended would fright a young traveller to go over them. The Romans maſtered this work, and, by a firm cauſeway, made a highway quite through this deep country, through Dorking in Surrey, to Stanſted, and thence to Okeley, and ſo on to Arundel; its name tells us what it was made of, for it was called Stone-Street, and many viſible parts of it remain to this day.

Now ſhould any lord of a manor refuſe to allow 40 yards in breadth out of that road I mentioned, to have the other 20 made into a fair, firm, and pleaſant cauſeway over that wilderneſs of a country?

Or would not any man acknowlege, that putting this country into a condition for carriages and travellers to paſs would be a great work? The gentlemen would find the benefit of it in the rent of their land, and price of their timber; the country people would find the difference in the ſale of their goods, which now they cannot carry beyond the firſt market town, and hardly thither, and the whole county would reap an advantage an hundred to one greater than the charge of it. And ſince the want we feel of any convenience is generally the firſt motive to contrivance for a remedy, I wonder no man ever thought of ſome expedient for ſo conſiderable a defect.—Thus far Mr Projector.

REMARKS.

Ancient Rome * was the center of a great number of magnificent highways, which run through all Italy: ſeveral of them croſſed the Alps, the country of the Gauls, the Pyrenees, and the whole kingdom of Spain. One of them reached from Rome to Lyons, from Lyons to Rheims, and from Rheims to the Channel; it was carried on again in Great-Britain, and continued as far as Scotland. That which extended as far as Byzantium [Conſtantinople] was continued on the other ſide of the Helleſpont, from Chalcedonia through Aſia Minor, Syria, and Paleſtine, then winding through the Iſthmus of Seuez, which joins Aſia and Africa, paſſed through Egypt, as far as Syene, and thence into Ethiopia. There were others that ran along the coaſts of Africa, from one end of it to the other; and hence poſſibly the Romans borrowed the model of their paved ways.

* See the Hiſtory of the Highways of the Roman Empire, by Nicholas Bergier, counſellor at the court of Rheims; a very curious and learned work, and too little read.

If we compare the remains of the Roman roads with the beſt of our modern ones at preſent, we ſhall find many of the former that have ſtood firm and intire for above 1500 years, without any repairs, while ours want reparation two or three times, and oftener, a year.

If the Roman highways, through any neglect to mend them in time, are decayed and broken down in ſome places, at this time of day, yet there are ſeveral countries where they ſtill remain whole and intire. The Appian Way, which was firſt carried from Rome to Capua, and afterwards continued from Capua to Brunduſium, is ſtill in good condition, though it has been a high road above 1900 years; and we have ſome ways in ſeveral parts of France, which have ſubſiſted upwards of 15 or 1600 years. Now it is to their particular ſtructure that we are to aſcribe their long duration; which ſtructure was as follows:

They firſt of all laid open with a plough two parallel furrows; then the ſoldiers (for they were generally employed in the works of this kind in time of peace) carried away the light looſe earth that they found betwixt the furrows, and dug 'till they came to a hard firm bottom: they then filled up the foſſe, or bed which they had hollowed, with a more denſe and weighty matter; as for inſtance, with a ſort of hard ſand, or gravel, taken out of the rivers, or dug out of the quarries: this done, they rammed the whole hard down, and ſmoothed it with heavy rollers; nor did they always end their work here, but oftentimes (to facilitate the draining off the water, and to prevent any mud or dirt from ſoaking in, which would infallibly undermine and looſen the whole) raiſed a terras, or cauſeway, ſeveral feet above the level of the plain, conſiſting of four layers, or ſtories, of ſtrong maſonry.

On the foundation of earth, which, as ſaid before, was firmly compacted and levelled, they ſpread a covering of cement, made of lime and ſand, or haſſock, about an inch thick. The firſt layer, which they placed upon the cement, was of large flat ſtones, laid one upon another, ten inches high, and cemented together with well-tempered mortar: the largeſt ſtones of all were ranged along the ſides of the cauſeway: this layer was called ſtatumen.

The ſecond layer conſiſted of ſtones of a cubical, round, or oval figure, and of many rough irregular ſtones, ſometimes mixed

mixed with potſherds and pieces of broken tiles and bricks; all theſe were ſpread with a ſhovel over the firſt coat of ſtones, and rammed down into the morter, which cemented them together: this ſecond layer was about eight inches thick: this layer was called rudas.

The third layer conſiſted of a foot of morter, not made of beaten tile, for that would have been too expenſive, but of chalk, ſand, or haſſock, mixed with lime, as any of theſe materials were near at hand. This layer, which was ſometimes called the pudding, or pap, though more commonly the nucleus, or kernel, filled up all the cavities or interſtices in the inferior layers, and ſettled into a hard level coat. The great difficulty we find in breaking it now, ſufficiently proves how firm a ſupport this was to the upper covering, eſpecially when we conſider the extreme hardneſs of the inferior ſtrata, with which it is ſo firmly incorporated, as to form one compact impenetrable body, capable of ſuſtaining the greateſt weight imaginable: this layer was called nucleus.

The fourth and laſt layer, which they called the cruſt, ſometimes conſiſted of great hard ſtones, cemented together, as we find in the Appian Way; ſometimes of gravel, or ſmall flints mixed with gravel, as we find in moſt of the Roman military ways *.

* Miſſon's Travels into Italy.

The hardeſt ſtones of all the free-ſtone, and the largeſt ſort of flints, they reſerved for their towns. This layer was called ſumma cruſta.

The ſmall ſtones, flints, and gravel, were often brought hither from other parts, the country people ‖ being ordered to gather them in their vineyards, their heaths, and plowed lands, on the banks of rivers, and the ſea-ſhores, and to bring and lay them by the highway-ſide, where the ſoldiers † had occaſion to uſe them in their work. Of theſe materials the Romans made a covering ſix inches thick, upon the third layer, and ſecured it on the ſides with two borders of earth, which they conſolidated with heavy ſtones, which they laid ſloping, for the water to run off the cauſeway on the plain beneath, to prevent its ſoaking into, and thereby looſening the gravel. By means of this precaution, the traveller and carrier, in all ſeaſons, enjoyed the benefit of a dry hard road. It ſometimes happened that the flint pavement was looſened, by the falling down of the banks and borders which ſhould ſupport the road on the ſides; but the internal layers being ſo cloſely bound and cemented, they did not ſuffer much by it, and the damage was eaſily repaired.

‖ There would be no great hardſhip upon the country people who come for ten miles round to the London markets, and to all other markets throughout the kingdom, and go home with their carts empty, if they were obliged, by act of parliament, to carry a load of proper road materials gratis, to contribute to put the roads into this deſirable condition.

† Our own ſoldiers, in times of peace, might alſo greatly contribute towards forwarding this good work, provided, during the time of their working at the roads, they had an addition of ſix-pence or eight-pence a day made to their pay, out of the ſtock appropriated to carry this deſign into execution. We have experienced the benefit of their labour in this ſhape, in the Highlands of Scotland; beſides, by labour of this kind, they will be preſerved more healthy, ſtout, and vigorous, kept from the vices and debaucheries which the idle profeſſion of a ſoldier, in times of peace, is too apt to lead them into, and be better fitted to act in their military capacity, when public affairs required them; they will alſo be leſs odious, and eſteemed leſs burthenſome to the people in times of peace, when they experience they receive ſo great a benefit from their labour at ſo ſmall an expence. And what barges are obliged to return empty from London, or any other conſiderable market-towns to which, by water-carriage, they may bring any commodity, ſhould alſo be compelled, by the ſaid act of parliament, to carry back gratis a load, or ſuch a quantity as ſhall make up their load, of the beſt road materials that are to be met with the neareſt to their river navigation; but they ſhall not be obliged to land them any where beyond, or out of the courſe of their neceſſary navigation; nor ſhall they land them but at the moſt convenient place neareſt to the river-ſide where the road corporation ſhall order them: but neither the bargemen nor the land-market people ſhall be obliged to load or unload the ſaid road materials, without ſome reaſonable gratuity made them by the corporation. Likewiſe all coaſting veſſels, which now return empty into the country, ſhall be obliged to take a certain quantity of ſuch road materials, when and where it may prove of benefit to the corporation, and no injury whatever to the employment of ſuch veſſels: nor ſhall the veſſels be ever at any trouble in the lading or unlading ſuch materials, without a reaſonable gratuity from the ſaid corporation. But leſt any thing of this kind, though only of a temporary nature, ſhould look too much with the aſpect of arbitrary power, and be taken for a hardſhip, the road corporation might allow them the half price of their ordinary freight; and ſomething of the like kind might be done in regard to the land carriage; which they may chuſe to accept, rather than go empty.

Every one will readily apprehend the laſting ſtrength and ſupport that the roads muſt receive from the ſide walls and abutments, raiſed to a due height, with proper drains to carry off the water, towards the ſloping extremity of ſuch ſide walls and abutments; for if they are made competently ſtrong, they will ſo cement the road materials, as to render them as hard as a rock, and quite impenetrable; at leaſt ſo durable and permanent, that, after the roads are effectually completed, they will require very little conſtant annual expence to keep them in repairs; and which expence, after the firſt, muſt be borne intirely by the road corporation, and the public, if I underſtand the projector rightly, to be for ever after free from all future tax or incumbrance whatſoever, all turnpikes be laid aſide, and no toll or highway tax be ever more heard of in this kingdom.

ROMAGNA, or ROMANIA, a province in Italy, in the Pope's dominions, bounded on the eaſt by the Marcha d'Ancona, along the river Foglia; on the ſouth by the Apennine Hills, which part it from Tuſcany; on the weſt by Lombardy, along the Panero; and on the north by the fens of Verona and the Po, and by part of the Venetian gulph.

This whole country is naturally very rich and delightful, and the plains and vallies productive of corn, wine, oil, fruits, and paſtures for cattle. There are ſome large woods, which abound with all kind of game; and thoſe parts which are contiguous to the Adriatic Sea furniſh the country with a ſufficiency of ſalt, both for itſelf and all the neighbouring inland territories. The ſea, as well as their many rivers, ſupply it with plenty and variety of fiſh; and ſome of theſe being navigable, help to carry on an advantageous commerce. The people here are ſtrong and laborious, and equally fit for arms, traffic, or learning; and the mountains yield mines of ſeveral metals, and the country hath various hot mineral ſprings, of excellent virtue for the preſervation of health.

RAVENNA city hath the Adriatic on the eaſt; the air is very healthy, and the vines in its neighbourhood furniſh it with plenty of delicious wines; but as they have no freſh water but that of rain, the town often labours under a great ſcarcity of it.

CERVIA, ſituate in an unhealthy air, near the coaſt of the Adriatic gulph, 12 miles ſouth-eaſt from Ravenna, and 15 from Rimini. The air is ſo bad, and the place ſo thinly inhabited, that it doth not contain above 400 inhabitants: it has ſome ſalt-works, which bring in a conſiderable profit.

RIMINI is pleaſantly ſituated, on a ſpacious plain on the coaſt of the Adriatic gulph, at the mouth of the river Mareckhia; it being ſeated between a fertile plain on one ſide, and hilly grounds on the other, covered with gardens, vines, olives, and fruit-trees.

FORLI, a city, ſituate 15 miles ſouth-weſt of Ravenna; its territory is extremely rich and fertile, and produces not only plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, beans, and other pulſe, but likewiſe great quantities of cummin, anniſe, and cardamum ſeeds; of fenugreek and ſaffron, both wild and cultivated; beſides ſalt and mineral waters, marble, mill-ſtones, ſulphur, &c. It is 46 miles round, and has four conſiderable dependencies on it. Here is an academy of wits, which has produced many learned men and works, in various arts and ſciences.

FAENZA, an ancient city, famed, in regard to its trade, for a fine earthen ware, called by its name, and not inferior to the Dutch Delft, and for its fine linen manufacture.

ROMANIA, RUMELIA, or RUMELI, in Turkey, formerly a part of Thrace, a province of European Turkey, is bounded by Mount Argentum, or Rhodope, anciently called Hæmus, which ſeparates it from Bulgaria, on the north; by the Euxine Sea and Boſphorus, or ſtraight of Conſtantinople, on the eaſt; by the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora, and the Archipelago, on the ſouth; and by another branch of Mount Rhodope, which ſeparates it from Macedon, on the weſt; being near 300 miles long, and 130 broad. It is a fruitful country, abounding in good arable and paſture ground, but produces ſcarce any wine; and the mountains which divide it from Bulgaria and Macedon are exceeding cold and barren; but then they are of ſuch difficult acceſs, that no country is better defended naturally than this, being encompaſſed by the ſea on the ſouth-eaſt, as it is by theſe mountains on the north-weſt: ſo that ſhould the Turks be driven out of Servia and Bulgaria by the Chriſtians, it would be difficult to penetrate further into the Turkiſh-empire.

In the mountains beforementioned are mines of ſilver, lead, and allum; but, through the lazineſs of the Turks, the riches that might be gathered from thence are loſt. Its chief river is the Mariza, which riſes at the foot of Mount Rhodope, and falls into the Archipelago at Eno, againſt the iſle of Samandrachi. In this river it is ſaid that gold ſand is ſometimes found, ſuppoſed to be waſhed down from the mountains.

The chief cities and towns are theſe, viz.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the capital of the whole Turkiſh empire, is ſeated at the moſt eaſtern point of Romania, on a neck of land, which projects towards Natolia, from which it is ſeparated by a canal, or ſtraight, about a mile broad; the ſea of Marmora waſhes its walls on the ſouth ſide, and a gulph of the canal of Conſtantinople waters it on the north.

This city with its ſuburbs, according to Tournefort, is the largeſt in Europe. Its ſituation, by general conſent, is the

moſt agreeable, and the moſt advantageous of any in the whole world. It ſeems as if the canal of the Dardanelles, and that of the Black Sea, were deſigned on purpoſe to bring it the riches of the four quarters of the world: thoſe of the Mogul, the Indies, the remoteſt north, China, and Japan, come by the way of the Black Sea; and by the canal of the White Sea, or ſea of Marmora, come the merchandizes of Arabia, Egypt, Ethiopia, the coaſt of Africa, the Weſt-Indies, and whatever Europe produces. Theſe two canals are as the door of Conſtantinople; the north and ſouth, which are the ordinary winds there, are, as it were, the two folds of the door: when the north wind blows, the door is ſhut, that is, nothing can come in from the ſouthern coaſt; this door opens when the ſouth wind prevails.

The port of Conſtantinople is commodious and magnificent; it is a baſon ſeven or eight miles in circuit towards the city, and as much on the ſuburbs ſide. Its entrance, which is about 600 paces broad, begins at the point of the Seraglio, or Cape of St Demetrius ſituated in the ſouth; this point opens to the eaſt, and faces Scutari; Galata and Gaſſum-Pacha are to the north; laſtly, it terminates to the north-north-weſt, where the river Lycus empties itſelf. This river is made up of two ſtreams; the biggeſt, on which there is a paper-mill, comes from the weſt, and the other flows from the north-weſt. The Lycus is not every where navigable, and, therefore, there are ſtakes to point out the ſureſt places. The ſtream that comes from the north-weſt is not practicable for boats farther than the village of Hali-bei-cui; the other is deep enough for about four miles. Theſe ſtreams are of wonderful uſe to cleanſe the haven; for, deſcending from the north-weſt, they waſh all the coaſt of Paſſim-Pacha and Galata, while part of the waters of the canal of the Black Sea, which deſcend from the north like a torrent, daſh violently againſt the Cape of Boſphorus, and recoil to the right towards the weſt: by which motion they ſweep away the mud that might gather about Conſtantinople, and, by a piece of natural mechaniſm, drive it on by degrees as far as the freſh waters. Theſe freſh waters help to preſerve the ſhipping; for experience ſhews, that they are leſs ſubject to be worm-eaten in ſuch ports where there is freſh water, than where there is ſalt: ſome fiſh too take greater delight in ſuch water, and are better taſted.

The port of Conſtantinople abounds with tunny-fiſh; dolphins alſo ſometimes appear in this port, in ſuch numbers that it ſwarms with them: their teeth are made like a ſaw. Procopius, in commendation of the port of Conſtantinople, ſays it is a thorough port, that is, you may anchor in any part of it; and it is juſtly obſerved by him, that the ſhips there have their prow on land, while the poop is in the water. In ſhallower places you go over a plank into the biggeſt ſhips; ſo that there is no occaſion for a boat to load or unload them. If the Turks would bend their thoughts to navigation, they might make themſelves formidable that way, for they have the beſt harbours of any in the Mediterranean; they would be maſters of all the trade to the Eaſt, by favour of their ports in the Red Sea, which would open them a door in the Eaſt-Indies, China, Japan, places which the Chriſtians cannot reach without doubling the Cape of Good Hope; but the Turks hug themſelves at home, pleaſed to ſee all the nations in the world come to them. Nothing but the eaſt wind can diſturb the port of Conſtantinople, it being intirely expoſed to it; whenever it blows hard from that quarter, eſpecially if it be in the night, it occaſions a frightful hurley-burley, for the ſeamen make ſuch a bawling, and dogs ſuch a barking, that one would think the town was going to be ſwallowed up, if one were not apprized of the cauſe of it.

The bazars, or bezeſtins, are places like our changes, for ſelling fine wares of all ſorts. The old and new bazars ſtand pretty near each other; there are large ſquare buildings, covered with domes, ſupported by arches and pilaſters. In the old one there is but little fine merchandize! it was built in 1461. Here they ſell all ſorts of weapons, eſpecially ſabres, and likewiſe horſe-harneſſes, ſome of which are inriched with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The new bazar is repleniſhed with all manner of merchandizes; and though there be none but goldſmiths-ſhops, yet they ſell furrs, veſts, carpets, ſtuffs of gold and ſilver, ſilk, goats-hair, &c. nor is it without jewels and China wares. They were repairing it when Mr Tournefort was at Conſtantinople, in the year 1700; and he tells us that it would be much more lightſome than it was before, and there would be apartments for officers to have the guard of it, and go their rounds night and day. The goods are well ſecured in theſe places, the gates being ſhut betimes. The Turks retire to their own homes in the city, but the Chriſtian and Jewiſh merchants croſs the water, and return the next morning. See the article BAZAR.

The market for ſlaves of both ſexes is not far off. Here the poor wretches ſit in a melancholy poſture: before the buyers cheapen them, they turn them about from this ſide to that, ſurvey them from top to bottom, put them to exerciſe whatever they have learned, and this ſeveral times a day, before ever they come to an agreement. Such of them, both men and women, to whom nature has been niggardly of her charms, are ſet apart for the vileſt ſervices; but ſuch girls as have youth and beauty paſs their time well enough, only they are often forced to turn Mahometans. The retalers of this human ware are the Jews, who take great care of the ſlaves education, that they may ſell the better. Their choiceſt they keep at home, and thither you muſt go if you would have better than ordinary; for it is here as it is with markets for horſes, the handſomeſt do not always appear, but are kept within doors. Theſe Jews teach their beautiful ſhe-ſlaves to dance, ſing, play on inſtruments, and every thing elſe that may inſpire love. Sometimes they marry very advantageouſly, and feel nothing of ſlavery; they have the ſame liberty in their houſes as the Turkiſh women themſelves. One ſees inceſſantly coming from Hungary, Greece, Candia, Ruſſia, Mengrilia, and Georgia, ſwarms of young wenches, deſigned for the ſervice of the Turks. The ſultans, the baſſa's, and the greateſt lords, often chuſe their wives among them. The women whom fortune allots to the ſeraglio, are not always the beſt diſpoſed of: it is true, a poor ſhepherd's daughter may come to be a ſultaneſs; but then, what numbers of them are neglected by the ſultan! After the Grand Signior's death, they are ſhut up for the reſt of their days in the Old Seraglio, where they pine themſelves away, unleſs ſome baſſa courts them. This Old Seraglio was built by Mahomet II. Here are confined theſe poor wretches, to bewail at leiſure the death of a prince, or that of their children, whom the new ſultan often cauſes to be ſtrangled. It would be a crime to ſhed a tear in the ſeraglio where the emperor reſides: on the contrary, every body ſtrives to expreſs their joy for his acceſſion to the throne. This Old Seraglio, called by the Turks Eſqui Serai, is incloſed with a wall 24 ſpans high, for two miles in compaſs, within which are lodgings and gardens for thoſe ladies diverſion. There is no going into it, the gate being guarded by janizaries and capigi's.

Inſtead of inns at Conſtantinople, and indeed all over Turkey, they have public buildings, called caravanſeras, or kans, erected in convenient parts of the city, for the markets, and traffic of different commodities. Theſe are for all men, of what quality, condition, country, or religion ſoever they be. See the article CARAVANSERA.

ADRIANOPLE is about 110 miles from Conſtantinople, towards the north-weſt; 85 from the confines of Bulgaria, to the ſouth; and 175 from the ſtraights of the Dardanelles, to the north. It is inhabited by Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Turks, and Walachians, and other nations. There is in this city a beautiful exchange, half a mile long, called Ali-Baſſa, taking its name from its founder. It is a vaſt arched building, with ſix gates, and contains 365 noble ſhops, including thoſe that are under the arch of the great gate; they are furniſhed with all ſorts of rich goods, and kept by Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, who pay five piaſtres, or crowns, a month for each of them, to the founder's heirs, or to ſuch as have purchaſed them, and half a piaſtre to the moſque of Vecerfeli, granted by the Grand Signior, to whom it belonged. Near this exchange is a ſtreet called Seraci, full of good ſhops, with all ſorts of commodities, which affords a delightful ſight for a mile in length.

NICOPOLI, ſituate on the left bank of the river Neſſo, near the confines of Macedonia, is a place of pretty good trade.

GALLIPOLI, in Turkiſh JEBBOLE, is a place of great trade, by reaſon of its convenient ſituation, being in the way to Conſtantinople and Adrianople; inſomuch that the baſſa who governs it makes about 1000 crowns a year of it, beſides the profits of the cadi, aga, and other officers.

The famous canal which ſeparates the two faireſt quarters of the earth, Europe and Aſia, is called the Helleſpont, the Streight of Gallipoli, the canal of the Dardanelles, the Arm of St George, or the Mouth of Conſtantinople. This canal is in a fine country, bounded on each ſide with fruitful hills, on which you ſee ſometimes vineyards, ſometimes olive-plantations, and a deal of arable land. As you go in, you have Thrace and Cape Greek on the left-hand; Phrygia and Cape Janizary on the right; the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora, preſents itſelf on the north, and the Archipelago remains behind on the ſouth. The mouth of the canal is four miles and a half over, and is defended by the new caſtles built in 1659, to ſecure the Turkiſh fleets againſt the inſults of the Venetians, who uſed to attack them in the ſight of the old caſtles. The waters that paſs through this canal, out of the Propontis, are as rapid as if they flowed beneath a bridge, and, when the north wind blows, no ſhip can enter; but, when it is ſouth, you hardly perceive any current at all; you muſt only beware of the caſtles, and yet the paſſage might be forced without much danger, the caſtles being above four miles aſunder: the Turkiſh artillery, however monſtrous it appears, would not much annoy the ſhips, if they had a good wind, and went in a file. Such merchants ſhips as come from Conſtantinople, ſtop three days at the caſtle on the Aſiatic ſhore, to ſearch whether they have any of the Turks ſlaves on board: and yet there paſſes not a day but ſome or other of theſe poor creatures make a ſhift to eſcape. No ſhip of war, of whatever nation, is exempted from being thus viſited, without an expreſs order from the Porte: it is true, it is rather a ceremony than a ſearch. See LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE.

ROYAL EXCHANGE, a commodious and elegant building in the city of London, for the convenient public meeting, at ſtated hours, of the merchants, eminent tradeſmen, brokers, agents, and all who have commercial buſineſs to tranſact, by either buying or ſelling commodities, making contracts, or drawing or remitting monies, either within the three kingdoms, or on or to foreign countries, by the means of bills of exchange.

An idea of the ROYAL EXCHANGE of LONDON, as given by Mr Addiſon, afterwards ſecretary of ſtate to his Majeſty George I.

'There is no place in the town, ſays he, which I ſo much love to frequent as the Royal Exchange. It gives me a ſecret ſatisfaction, and in ſome meaſure gratifies my vanity, as I am an Engliſhman, to ſee ſo rich an aſſembly of my countrymen and foreigners conſulting together, upon the private buſineſs of mankind, and making this metropolis a kind of emporium for the whole earth. I muſt confeſs, I look upon high change to be a great council, in which all conſiderable nations have their repreſentative. Factors in the trading world are what ambaſſadors are in the politic world: they negociate affairs, conclude treaties, and maintain a good correſpondence between thoſe wealthy ſocieties of men that are divided from one another by ſeas and oceans, or live on the different extremities of a continent. I have often been pleaſed to hear diſputes adjuſted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London, or to ſee a ſubject of the Great Mogul entering into a league with one of the Czar of Muſcovy. I am infinitely delighted in mixing with theſe ſeveral miniſters of commerce, as they are diſtinguiſhed by their different walks and different leagues. Sometimes I am joſtled among a body of Armenians; ſometimes I am loſt in a crowd of Jews; and ſometimes make one in a group of Dutchmen: I am a Dane, Swede, or Frenchman, at different times; or rather fancy myſelf like the old philoſopher, who, upon being aſked what countryman he was, replied, That he was a citizen of the world.

Though I very frequently viſit this buſy multitude of people, I am known to nobody there but my friend Sir Andrew, who often ſmiles upon me as he ſees me buſtling in the crowd, but, at the ſame time, connives at my preſence, without taking any further notice of me. There is, indeed, a merchant of Egypt who juſt knows me by ſight, having formerly remitted me ſome money to grand Cairo; but as I am not verſed in the modern Coptic, our conferences go no further than a bow and a grimace.

This grand ſcene of buſineſs gives me an infinite variety of ſolid and ſubſtantial entertainment. As I am a great lover of mankind, my heart naturally overflows with pleaſure, at the ſight of a proſperous and happy multitude; inſomuch that, at many public ſolemnities, I cannot forbear expreſſing my joy with tears, that have ſtolen down my cheeks. For this reaſon, I am wonderfully delighted to ſee ſuch a body of men thriving in their own private fortunes, and, at the ſame time, promoting the public ſtock; or, in other words, raiſing eſtates for their own families, by bringing into their country whatever is wanting, and carrying out of it whatever is ſuperfluous.

Nature ſeems to have taken a particular care to diſſeminate her bleſſings among the different regions of the world, with an eye to this mutual intercourſe and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the ſeveral parts of the globe might have a kind of dependance upon one another, and be united together by their common intereſt. Almoſt every degree produces ſomething peculiar to it. The food often grows in one country and the ſauce in another. The fruits of Portugal are corrected by the product of Barbadoes; the infuſion of a China plant ſweetened with the pith of an Indian cane; the Philippic Iſlands give a flavour to our European bowls. The ſingle dreſs of a woman of quality is often the product of an hundred climates: the muff and the fan come together from the different ends of the earth; the ſcarf is ſent from the torrid zone, and the tippet from beneath the pole; the brocade petticoat riſes out of the mines of Peru, and the diamond necklace out of the bowels of Indoſtan.

If we conſider our own country in its natural proſpect, without any of the benefits and advantages of commerce, what a barren uncomfortable ſpot of earth falls to our ſhare? Natural hiſtorians tell us, that no fruit grows originally among us beſides hips and haws, acorns and pignuts, with other delicacies of the like nature; that our climate of itſelf, and without the aſſiſtance of art, can make no farther advances towards a plum than to a ſloe, and carries an apple to no greater perfection than a crab; that our melons, our peaches, our figs, our apricots and cherries, are ſtrangers among us, imported in different ages, and naturalized in our Engliſh gardens; and that they would all degenerate and fall away into the traſh of our own country, if they were wholly neglected by the planter, and left to the mercy of the ſun and ſoil. Nor has traffic more enriched our vegetable world, than it has improved the whole face of nature among us. Our ſhips are laden with the harveſt of every climate; our tables are ſtored with ſpices, and oils and wines; our rooms are filled with pyramids of China, and adorned with the workmanſhip of Japan: our morning's draught comes to us from the remoteſt corners of the earth; we repair our bodies by the drugs of America, and repoſe ourſelves under Indian canopies. My friend Sir Andrew calls the vineyards of France our gardens, the Spice Iſlands our hot-beds, the Perſians our ſilk-weavers, and the Chineſe our potters. Nature, indeed, furniſhes us with the bare neceſſaries of life, but traffic gives us a great variety of what is uſeful, and, at the ſame time, ſupplies us with every thing that is convenient and ornamental. Nor is it the leaſt part of this our happineſs, that, whilſt we enjoy the remoteſt products of the north and ſouth, we are free from thoſe extremities of weather which give them birth; that our eyes are refreſhed with the green fields of Britain, at the ſame time that our palates are feaſted with fruits that riſe between the tropics.

For theſe reaſons, there are not more uſeful members in the commonwealth than merchants. They knit mankind together in a mutual intercourſe of good offices, diſtribute the gifts of nature, find work for the poor, add wealth to the rich, and magnificence to the great. Our Engliſh merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold, and exchanges his wool for rubies. The Mahometans are cloathed in our Britiſh manufacture, and the inhabitants of the frozen zone warmed with the fleeces of our ſheep.

When I have been upon the change, I have often fancied one of our old kings ſtanding in perſon, where he is repreſented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy concourſe of people with which that place is every day filled. In this caſe, how would he be ſurprized, to hear all the languages of Europe ſpoken on this little ſpot of his former dominions, and to ſee ſo many private men, who in his time would have been the vaſſals of ſome powerful baron, negociating, like princes, for greater ſums of money than were formerly to be met with in the royal treaſury? Trade, without enlarging the Britiſh territories, has given us a kind of additional empire. It has multiplied the number of the rich, made our landed eſtates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them an acceſſion of other eſtates, as valuable as the lands themſelves.'

REMARKS

ON THE ROYAL EXCHANGE, with regard to private Traders.

From this juſt, beautiful, and elegant deſcription of this aſſembly of traders, an idea may be formed, not only of their uſefulneſs to the ſtate, but what their general conduct ought to be upon this public ſtage of action; for here the eyes of traders are like thoſe of Argus upon each other, and the leaſt faux pas in the management and negociation of their private concerns, may bring inſtantaneous ruin upon individuals, although they may really be men of large fortunes, and even of an extenſive and a boundleſs credit.

As a memento, therefore, to the younger and leſs experienced claſs, we ſhall preſume, from a deſire of being as uſeful as we can to the riſing generation, to point out ſome of thoſe ſhoals and rocks, on which numbers have ſplit in their adventures, from their miſconduct on the Royal Exchange; to the end that this commercial chart of ours, wherewith we preſent them, may guard them againſt thoſe evils.

To which purpoſe, we ſhall conſider the principal relations wherein traders are under a neceſſity of acting upon the exchange towards each other, and towards thoſe, who may act in any capacity ſubſervient to their intereſts.

And (1.) With regard to brokers, who are concerned as middle agents between trader and trader, in relation to drawing and remitting monies by bills of exchange.

We ſhall firſt conſider the drawer, who has occaſion to diſpoſe of his credit in paper. And herein there is no little delicacy requiſite on his ſide; for as theſe exchange agents [the brokers in bills of exchange] are preſumed to know, in the courſe of their altercations, the quantity of exchange-bills that are to be diſpoſed of on a poſt-day, as well as the quantity wanted to any peculiar foreign part, they can often, in an hour's time, diſcover how this matter ſtands, and thereby become maſters of the plenty or ſcarcity of bills to be ſold, as well as the quantity required to be purchaſed.

When this is known (bills of exchange being conſidered like another commodity to be bought and ſold) the broker, by his private conſultation between the buyer and ſeller, or the drawer and remitter, has it in his power to diſcern, and in a great meaſure to fix the price of exchange for ſuch bills. But as it is his intereſt to execute as much buſineſs in a poſt-day as he can for the ſake of his commiſſion, he will not be remiſs in bringing thoſe contracts to as ſpeedy a concluſion as he can, for the ſake of gaining brokerage for his agency.

The ſeller and buyer alſo are heedful to their intereſt, the one to get as advantageous terms for his bills as he can, the other to get them as cheap as the plenty or ſcarcity will admit of. It is, however, the intereſt of the broker to oblige both parties, and as there are a certain number of theſe brokers, who are upon the wing to rival each other, it is the intereſt of every individual to catch at all the buſineſs he can,

leſt, during change time, he ſhould be ſupplanted by any of his brethren, and thereby loſe his commiſſion. Thus ſeveral of theſe brokers applying both to drawers and remitters, they feel out the market price by theſe altercations; and the remitters may judge from the brokers intercourſe, who ſeem eager to fall their bills below the market price, and a drawer may alſo judge from the price bid, who ſeem to be under the neceſſity to remit.

In the courſe of theſe money-negociations between the principal parties concerned, there ariſes a criſis of great delicacy, in relation to the perſonal credit of both, and the broker will eaſily diſcern it. For if the ſeller offers his bills at under rate, or the buyer bids more than men of the beſt credit upon the exchange, here naturally ariſes a ſuſpicion both on the ſide of the drawer and remitter; the latter may from hence diſtruſt the goodneſs of the bill, and the former may doubt whether his money may be punctually paid, when he has parted with his bill, although the time of payment is ſhort.

In theſe tranſactions, therefore, both parties will be upon their guard, leſt in the conduct of theſe concerns, their perſonal credit ſhould ſuffer upon the change; for the principals ſhould not only conſider, that their credits are in the power of each other on ſuch occaſions, but likewiſe in the power of the brokers, whom they employ, and who may poſſibly afterwards give out ſuch ſecret innuendoes, that may in one poſt ruin a trader's reputation, though he may be a man of ſubſtance.

Nor is any thing attended with more unhappy conſequences to a trader, than the appearance of drawing and redrawing upon the exchange; for this is conſtrued as an indication of a man's over-trading, or of his declenſion in credit and fortune. Neceſſities of this kind generally proceed from over-trading, and it is to be feared that there are more traders undone by undertaking too much, than for want of trade. Over-trading is like over-lifting among ſtrong men; vain of their ſtrength, and pride prompting them to put it to the utmoſt ſtretch, they at laſt attempt ſomething too heavy, and become cripples ever after.

Though the diſcounting of bills of exchange by the bank of England and bankers, is a common practice among traders, even of no indifferent repute, yet when too frequently practiſed, is a ſign of want of competent capital wherewith to carry on the circle of their commerce; for who would allow 4 per cent. diſcount out of the profits of his trade, if he could do without it? This is another ſign of over-trading, and is conſtrued ſo by the exchange, notwithſtanding many are weak enough to think that no one remarks it.

Too many frequently deſiring the favour to over draw on their banker with whom they may keep caſh, is conſtrued upon change as another token of declenſion, or over-trading; and although traders may flatter themſelves that theſe things remain ſecrets and unknown, yet if often practiſed, even by pledges in bankers hands, I could tell them how they are generally blown; but this is not my buſineſs. If ſome ſhould not be generous enough in their own breaſt to thank me for the hint, that ſhall not prevent my good offices to others, whoſe gratitude I have experienced.

Traders that uſe the exchange giving out promiſſory notes, is no ſymptom in favour of a trader, though it may not always be imprudent. A few years ſince, practice of this kind gave an alarm in the city of London, when it was diſcovered, that ſeveral traders had entered into a combination to ſupport each others credit, which proved to be rotten at bottom, by the mutual loan of promiſſory notes. If a man really poſſeſſes a tolerable fortune, and he plunges in trade ſo far out of his depth, as to need the practice of ſuch artifices, it will in the end ruin the little credit and fortune he may have: but ſuch I am afraid, as well as others, are too apt to flatter them, as great ſinners do, that their mal-practices are concealed from all but themſelves; when, from the nature of ſuch things being carried on in the heart of the metropolis, and, as it were, within the ſcent of the Royal Exchange, they will ſoon be ſmelt out from the general intercourſe of tranſactions among men of buſineſs.

There are two principal cauſes that may be properly called over-trading in a young beginner, and by both which traders are overthrown. (1.) Trading beyond their ſtock. (2.) Giving too large credit.

A trader ought to meaſure well the extent of his own ſtrength; his ſtock of money and credit is properly his beginning, for credit is a ſtock as well as money: he that takes too much credit, is not in leſs danger than he that gives too much: and the danger lies particularly in this, if the tradeſman over-buys himſelf, that is, buys faſter than he can ſell; by his buying on credit, payments, perhaps, become due too ſoon for his compliance therewith: though the goods are not ſold, he muſt anſwer the bills, upon the ſtrength of his proper ſtock, that is, he muſt pay for them out of his own caſh: if that ſhould not hold out, he is obliged to put off his bills after they are due, or ſuffer the impertinence of being dunned by the creditor, and perhaps by ſervants or apprentices, and that with the uſual indecencies of ſuch kind of people.

This greatly impairs a trader's credit, and if he has any further dealings with his former creditors, he is treated like an indifferent paymaſter: if he bargains for ſix months, they know he will take eight or nine in the payment, and this they conſider in the price, and uſe him accordingly, and this impairs his gain: ſo that loſs of credit is indeed loſs of money, and this weakens him both ways.

The trader that buys warily, generally pays ſurely, and every young beginner ought to buy cautiouſly. Some tradeſmen pride themſelves on ſeeing their ſhops well ſtocked, and their warehouſes full of goods; this is a ſnare to them, and induces to the purchaſe of more goods than they can vend ſuitably to the credit they take, or the capital they poſſeſs; it is a fooliſh as well as a fatal error, whether it lies in their judgment or their vanity; except in ſome retale trades, where a great choice of goods is abſolutely neceſſary, or a trader will want trade on that account; otherwiſe an experienced trader had rather ſee his warehouſe rather ſparingly filled, than overſtocked: if it be too empty, he can ſupply its deficiency when he pleaſes, if his credit be good, and his caſh ſtrong; but a thronged warehouſe is a ſign of the want of cuſtomers, and of a bad market; whereas an empty warehouſe is a ſign of a quick demand. This conduct will ſupport a man's credit on change and elſewhere, in foreign countries as well as in his own.

He then that keeps his credit unſhaken has a double ſtock; we mean, it is an addition to his real ſtock, and often far ſuperior to it. I have known ſeveral traders in the city of London, who have traded to a conſiderable degree very ſucceſsfully, and yet have had a very trifling capital, and ſome not a ſhilling of their own; but by the ſtrength of their reputation, being prudent and aſſiduous, and having preſerved the character of honeſt men, and the credit of their buſineſs by cautious dealing and punctual payments, they have gone on 'till the gain of their trade has effectually eſtabliſhed them, and they have raiſed good eſtates out of nothing.

He that takes credit in trade may give credit, but he muſt be exceeding vigilant, for it is the moſt dangerous ſtate of life that a trader can live in. If the people he truſts fail, or fail but in punctual compliance with him, he can never ſupport his own credit, unleſs he inviolably obſerves the preſervative maxim not to give ſo much credit as he takes: that is, he muſt either ſell for ſhorter time than he takes himſelf, or in leſs quantity; the latter is the ſafeſt, that he ſhould not truſt ſo much as he is truſted with. If indeed he has a large real capital; beſides the credit he takes, that alters the caſe; a man that can pay his own debts, whether other people pay him or no, that man is out of the queſtion: but if ſuch a perſon truſts beyond the extent of his ſtock and credit, even HE may be overthrown too.

Could the trader buy all upon credit, and ſell all for ready money, he might turn uſurer, and put his own ſtock out to intereſt, or purchaſe land with it; but as that is not the caſe, he ſhould ſo reſtrain his liberty of buying and ſelling, as never to give ſo much credit as he takes, by one third part at leaſt.

By giving credit, we mean that even all the goods which a trader buys at home or imports from abroad upon credit, may not be ſold upon credit: perhaps there are goods which are uſually ſold ſo, and no otherwiſe: but the alternative lies before him thus, either he muſt not give ſo much credit in quantity of goods, or not ſo long credit in relation to time: to explain ourſelves.

Suppoſe a trader buys 10,000 l. value of goods on credit, and this 10,000 l. are ſold for 11,000 l. likewiſe on credit, if the time given be the ſame, the man is in a ſtate of apparent deſtruction. Perhaps he owes the 10,000 l. to twenty creditors, perhaps the 11,000 l. is owing to him by 200 debtors: it is ſcarce poſſible that theſe 200 petty cuſtomers (if that be his way of dealing) ſhould all ſo punctually comply with their payments as to enable him to comply with his; and if 2 or 3000 l. fall ſhort, the tradeſman muſt be inevitably undone, unleſs he has a fund to ſupply the deficiency. But,

If a trader had bought 10,000 l. in goods at 6 or 8 months credit, and had ſold them all again to his 200 cuſtomers, at three or four months credit, then it might be ſuppoſed that all, or the greateſt part of them, would have paid time enough to enable him to make the payments on his ſide good; if not, all would be loſt ſtill.

On the other hand, ſuppoſe he had ſold but 3000 l. worth of the 10,000 l. for ready money, and the remainder at ſix months credit, it might be ſuppoſed that the 3000 l. in caſh, and what elſe the 200 debtors might pay in time, would ſatisfy ſuch trader's creditors, 'till the difference might be made good: ſo eaſy a thing is it for a man to loſe his credit in trade, and ſo hard is it upon ſuch a blow to retrieve it again: ſhould not therefore the trader moſt effectually guard as well againſt running too far into debt himſelf, as to ſuffer others to run too deeply in his debt? For if his debtors do not pay him, he cannot pay his creditors, and the next thing is a commiſſion of bankruptcy: thus a trader may be undone, although he has 11,000 l. wherewith to diſcharge 10,000 l. Though it is not poſſible to carry on the extent of trade we do in this kingdom, without a reciprocal credit both taken and given; yet this is ſo nice and tender a point, that perhaps, as many traders fail by giving, as by taking too much credit.

There

There are divers other ways of over-trading, beſides this of taking and giving too much credit; one of theſe is the running into projects and large undertakings, either out of the trader's ordinary road, wherein he is already engaged, or graſping at too many undertakings at once: in both which caſes the trader is often wounded, and ſometimes too deeply to recover. For ſuch adventurers generally ſtock-ſtarve the trader's ordinary buſineſs, which is his principal conſtant ſupport; and as ſchemes out of the way of a trader rarely add to his credit, ſo if they leſſen his ſtock, they weaken him in both his grand ſupports, and it is no wonder that he at length ſinks.

The prudent and ſafe trader is he, that avoiding all ſuch remote excurſions, keeps cloſe and ſteady within the verge of his own concerns, and exerts his whole attention and abilities in his ſhop, his warehouſe, or his counting-houſe, to what he well underſtands, and confining himſelf to what belongs to him there, goes on in the road of his buſineſs without launching into unknown oceans; and content with the gain of his own trade, is neither, by too much ambition or avarice, tempted to be greater or richer by ſuch uncertain and hazardous attempts. See the article PROJECTOR. See alſo the article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT], wherein I have endeavoured to ſhew, both in a perſonal and a national light, the neceſſity of all traders carrying on their affairs in general leſs by credit, and more by ready money.

Credit on a public exchange, and among the commercial world, within the compaſs of a man's concerns, is ſo much a trader's bleſſing, that it is the choiceſt ware in which he deals; he cannot be too tender of ſo eſtimable a jewel, or purchaſe it too dear when he ſtands in need of it: it is a ſtock to his warehouſe, it is current caſh in his cheſt, it accepts all his bills, for it is on the fund of his credit that he has any to accept: demands otherwiſe would all be made upon the ſpot, and he muſt pay for his goods before he had them: in a word, it is the life and ſoul of his trade, and it requires the utmoſt attention and vigilance to maintain and preſerve it.

If then a trader's own credit ſhould be of ſo much value to him, and he ſhould be ſo delicate in his concern about it, ought he not, in ſome degree, to have the ſame care of his neighbours? As a good name is to a man better than life, as the wiſe man ſays, ſo is credit to a trader; it is the life of his traffic; and he that wounds ſuch a man's credit without cauſe, is as much a murderer in trade, as he that kills a man in the dark is a murderer in matters of blood. There is a peculiar nicety in regard to the credit of a trader, which does not reach in other caſes: any other perſon who is ſtigmatized in his character or reputation, it is injurious to him: if it comes in the way of marriage, or a preferment in any ſhape, it may greatly diſappoint and prejudice him only for a time: but if this happens to a trader, he is inſtantly and inevitably blaſted and undone. A trader's credit and a maid's virtue, ought to be ſacred againſt the tongues of defamation; and yet how many traders have been thus undone, and how many more have been put to the full trial of their ſtrength in trade, and have ſtood their ground by the mere force of their good circumſtances! Whereas had they been unfurniſhed with caſh to have anſwered their whole debts, they muſt have fallen with the reſt. There have been inſtances, not only on the London exchange, but that of other places of the like kind, where groundleſs rumour, invidious calumny, and even mean and artful innuendoes, have greatly hurt, and ſometimes ruined, the characters of worthy and ſubſtantial traders. Have we not lately had a moſt notorious inſtance, as appeared in our courts of law, of a vile and infamous attempt to ruin the credit of two very worthy and honourable merchants of the city of London? When I mention the names of a F—t—d and C—k—t, every one acquainted with the true characters of theſe gentlemen, and of the circumſtances of this late affair, I am perſuaded, will think that I have herein done nothing more than juſtice to the characters of theſe eminent traders.

A trader's reputation is of no leſs nicety than a blight upon a fine flower; if it is but touched, the beauty, or flavour of it, or the ſeed of it is loſt; though the noxious breath which touched it, might not reach to blaſt the leaf, or hurt the root; the credit of a trader, eſpecially in his beginning, is too much at the mercy of every enemy he has, 'till it has taken root, and is eſtabliſhed on a ſolid foundation of good conduct and proſperity. Every idle tongue can blaſt the character of a young trader: though we would not diſcourage, yet we would alarm young beginners, and apprize them of the ſtorm and ſcandal which they may expect upon the leaſt ſlip they make. If they but ſtumble, fame will throw them down; if they recover, ſhe will, indeed, as faſt ſet them up; but calumny generally runs before, and bears all down with it; and there are ten, perhaps, who fall under its weight, to one that is raiſed again by the hurry of report.

Nor have only young traders been often the ſacrifice of obloquy; I could point out many inſtances like thoſe of the honourable, though imprudent Woodwards, late bankers in Exchange-alley. There was a time too, when Lombard-ſtreet was the only bank, and the goldſmiths there were all called bankers; the credit of their buſineſs was ſuch, that the like in private hands has not ſince been ſeen in England. Some of thoſe bankers had above a million and an half of paper-credit upon them at a time.

On a ſudden, like a clap of thunder, king Charles the IId ſhut up the Exchequer, which was then the common center of the overplus caſh, which theſe bankers had in their hands: and what was the conſequence? Not only the bankers who had the bulk of their caſh there, but all Lombard-ſtreet ſtood ſtill with aſtoniſhment; the very report of having money in the Exchequer, brought a run upon the bankers that had no money there, as well as upon thoſe that had; and not only Sir Robert Viner, Alderman Backwell, Farringdon, Forth, and others, broke and failed, but ſeveral were ruined, who had not one penny of money in the Exchequer, and only ſunk by the rumour of it, which gave a check to the whole credit of Lombard-ſtreet.

But theſe are ſuch days, that we have never ſeen ſince the happy Revolution; no princes that ever reigned in this kingdom, have been ſo tender of the public credit, as thoſe of the royal houſe of Hanover; and would our Britiſh traders in general, be as ſollicitous to preſerve their own perſonal credit, and that of their fellow traders, unſullied, as our preſent moſt gracious ſovereign is to maintain them in their legal rights and liberties, the traders of Great-Britain would be a match in point of ſkill and addreſs, in their commercial affairs, for thoſe of any, or indeed for thoſe of all nations in the world. And while every individual is vigilantly upon his guard, honourably and judiciouſly to uphold and maintain his own credit, and do no injury to that of other traders, the whole body will become, as it were, a united corps, and may, by dint of their ingenuity and their large capitals, (which in the general are ſuperior to thoſe of moſt nations) rival the traders of every other ſtate or empire.

As the preſervation of the perſonal credit of our Britiſh traders in general, is not only of the greateſt importance to themſelves and families, but likewiſe of unſpeakable benefit to the ſtate, I hope I ſhall be excuſed if I urge a word more upon a topic ſo intereſting and national, more eſpecially to the riſing generation of our traders.

Among the various ſteps of miſconduct that have a tendency to injure and ruin the trader, that of borrowing money (imprudently) upon intereſt is not the leaſt. He that borrows upon intereſt, ſhould inviolably apply the loan to ſtop the breach, which made it firſt neceſſary to him to borrow; otherwiſe, ſuch loan will ſink him deeper into the calamity than it found him; he ought to conſider, whether he may not be as hard diſtreſſed to pay back the loan, as the debts which it was intended to diſcharge, and whether he may not want money as much then as before.

There is a vulgar error in trade, concerning the borrowing money upon intereſt: ſome think that no man ſhould borrow on intereſt, but he whoſe neceſſity obliges him to do it, for the immediate ſupport of his credit, and prevention of his ruin, and that as ſoon as he is able he ſhould refund it, to free himſelf from the payment of intereſt: this is carrying the matter to a more rigid extreme than it ought, and there may be ſome exceptions to this, as there are to moſt general rules.

Some ready-money dealers are yet obliged to keep ſuch vaſt ſtocks of goods by them unſold, that they are ſometimes undone by that means; but he that buys for credit, and ſells for ready money, or leſs credit than he bought for, is always ſafe, and he may ſafely borrow money upon intereſt, for any conſiderable ſum: the reaſon is obvious; his trade muſt increaſe in proportion to the loan which he takes up; if not, he has no uſe for the money he borrows, and will return it of courſe. But if he ſees that he can employ more money than he has, and that he can certainly gain more than the intereſt he pays will balance, and that he can make his returns in due time, he then knows, how much money ſoever he borrows, that he gains ſo much by it above the intereſt, beſides the difference of the credit given and taken for exchange.

A. finds he has bought the value of 3000 l. in ſaltpetre, or pepper, at an India ſale; but if he could buy 6000 l. value at the ſame rate, he has a cuſtomer for it, a very good paymaſter, who will give him after the rate of 8 per cent. profit; whereas if he does not buy that quantity, ſuch a man will. Upon this A. borrows 3000 l. at 5 per cent. intereſt of a ſcrivener, and he buys the goods, ſells them again for 3 per cent. profit more than the intereſt he pays comes to, and has his money in caſh again, time enough to repay the ſcrivener. At this way of calculating, A. is ſure to gain 3 per cent. whereby he gains good profit, without any hazard, as it were: and if he has a return ſooner, as may be the caſe, then he gains ſo much more, as the difference of the money comes to, at 5 per cent. per ann. for the difference of time.

On the other hand, he that gives longer credit than he takes, though he gains 10 per cent. and pays but 5 per cent. may gain nothing. Example: Suppoſe he is truſted but 6 months, and he truſts his cuſtomers 12 months; if he pays 5 per cent. intereſt for the money, and yet ſhould ſell the goods for 10 per cent. profit, it is plain he gains nothing, and acts with diſadvantage into the account; becauſe he runs the riſk of the perſon he truſts, and makes no profit, either for his trouble or hazard.

By the truſting of cuſtomers twelve months, we would not ſuggeſt that any trader in his wits ſhould ſell his merchandize by contract for a year's credit, and for that time to tie up his hands, that he cannot demand his money before. What we mean is, according to the ordinary uſage of trade: Example: A wholeſale man deals with another, a ſhopkeeper, and trades with him upon the general credit of his dealing; the ſhopkeeper goes on buying and paying; he does not examine when the payment for every particular parcel of goods is due, but he buys as his occaſions require goods, and he pays as he can ſpare money; and as he is a current man, and purchaſes large quantities, he is eſteemed a good cuſtomer; yet if we look into his accounts, his parcels and his payments anſwer one another, perhaps, after the rate of 9 to 10 and 12 months credit, nor does he think himſelf a bad paymaſter; and yet, if the wholeſale dealer with whom he trades, paid intereſt of 5 per cent. for his money, unleſs he got more than 10 per cent. by this cuſtomer, he would loſe money by all the goods which he ſold him.—This is a reflection that every tradeſman ought to make, and well to conſider, who may incline to take up money at 5 per cent. intereſt.

Beſides, if all the while any part of the money-borrower's goods remain in the warehouſes unſold, and all that while he pays intereſt for the money that bought them, this article of intereſt-money, if exactly deducted from the profits, eats through the whole bargain; and if ſuch trader would keep an accurate account of profit and loſs, he would experience that ſuch conduct would deſtroy the whole profits of his trade. In a word, intereſt of money is a canker-worm in trade, eats through and through the trader, and inſenſibly conſumes him; and few traders, we fear, ſtate to themſelves this matter in a true light; for whatever loſs the trader meets with, the money-lender muſt be duly paid his intereſt: and with whomſoever the trader compounds, the money-lender makes no compoſition, unleſs he is forced, by the ruin of the trader, to compound for principal as well as intereſt, when, perhaps, by the mere intereſt, he has received doubly his principal.

If it be thus fatal to the trader to pay but the legal intereſt of 5 per cent. for his money, how deplorable muſt his caſe be, when he is oppreſſed either by the lender, the procurer, the ſcrivener, or banker, under the ſly and ruinous article called procuration, continuation, premio, and the like? And this extortion is made when the debtor is apparently in need of the loan, or that it appears he is not in a condition to refund the money: and although, perhaps, the creditor has good ſecurity for his money, yet thoſe people never want pretences and artifices, ſomehow to hook in new and frequent conſiderations, by way of addition to the ordinary intereſt-money.

There is another unhappy practice among the more neceſſitous traders, and which in the end is infallibly deſtructive and ruinous, at leaſt as far as it is followed: this is paſſing and repaſſing promiſſory notes, or bills indorſed by one another reciprocally, and drawn upon themſelves; for ſo it may properly enough be termed, for the preſent ſupply of caſh, in which they are, in the long-run, even extortioners upon themſelves.

This miſchievous practice began principally among merchants trading in foreign parts, when at an extraordinary pinch for money: ſuppoſe it be, that the merchant has a ſhip come into the river, laden with wines, and he wants a ſum of money immediately wherewith to pay the cuſtom-houſe duties; which being done, will preſently come to market, and reimburſe his money.

The importer wanting caſh for the purpoſe, and being in full credit on the exchange, and having a friend at Amſterdam, that he knows will honour his bills, he draws upon him for 2000 l. ſterling, payable at two uſances: upon this draught he immediately receives the money upon the exchange, for the exchange is the merchant's bank on ſuch occaſions as theſe: having thus taken up the money on the credit of his bills, he lands his wines, or whatever other goods they are; ſells a large quantity of them on the keys, and getting in a competent ſum to anſwer it, he immediately takes care of his credit, and of his friend at Amſterdam: and having ſtaid but one month, and his bills being payable at two months in Amſterdam, he punctually remits 2000 l. to his friend there in good bills, to anſwer his firſt draught upon him, and remits the like ſum at uſance; ſo that his friend, experiencing in this caſe, how careful he is of his honour, is ready to accept any bills for him another time: thus far this tranſaction is carried on with reputation; and though a merchant drawing, may have ſome ſmall loſs, by remitting at a ſhorter time than his draught was made for, yet that is not conſiderable, the ſervice done him upon ſuch an exigence requiring it, and merchants of the beſt figure are ſometimes obliged to ſerve themſelves with ready money in ſuch a manner.

But ſuppoſing the merchant finds, that though his wines are landed, and perhaps ſold, yet he has other preſſing occaſions which call for his money, and he cannot remit to Amſterdam to anſwer his draught: hereupon he contrives another ſhift to keep the money two months longer; which is by ordering his friend at Amſterdam to redraw upon him at London at two uſances; which he at Amſterdam does accordingly, and his bills being accepted here, the merchant at Amſterdam is fully ſatisfied, and the drawer's credit remains good at London. But, in this caſe, the merchant at London becomes an extortioner upon himſelf; for, beſides the loſs by the exchange, which is generally againſt him, becauſe he cannot, like a man that draws or remits for the advantage of the exchange, wait, and take it this way or that way, as the courſe of exchange may be moſt to his benefit; ſo his neceſſity at firſt, and his credit at laſt, preſſing him to draw when he had occaſion, and be drawn upon juſt as bills become due, his neceſſities alſo oblige him to run the riſk, and take his chance for the courſe of the exchange; and this is frequently to his diſadvantage. Beſides this, his friend at Amſterdam muſt have his commiſſion, both for the payment of his bills, and again for drawing, with the charge of brokerage both upon the exchange of London and Amſterdam, with poſtage of letters, and other incidents: nor does the matter end here.

When the two uſances are towards expiring, and that, on ſuch an approaching day, his bills from Amſterdam will become due, and muſt be paid or his credit ruined, and perhaps his friend at Amſterdam too; and being not yet in caſh to anſwer thoſe bills, he has recourſe to another expedient, and having ſtill unſpotted credit abroad, he draws for 10,000 crowns upon two merchants, the one at Genoa, the other at Leghorn, his correſpondents, at 30 days after ſight, having effects ſufficient in their hands to anſwer the payment. In order to back this credit, he buys 2000l. worth of goods of the warehouſemen in London, in druggets, or duroys, &c. for which he can currently have ſix months credit, and takes care to have thoſe goods ſhipped, and the bills of lading ſent to his correſpondents, before his advice of drawing the bills. To ſupport his credit with them alſo, he writes, at the ſame time, that, if his effects in their hands ſhould not ſupply in time to anſwer his bills, they ſhould draw upon ſuch another merchant at Paris on his account, to whom he had given directions to accept his bills; all which being politically managed, the bills at Leghorn and Genoa are accepted and paid, without the drawing upon Paris: and now the merchant of London has tranſerred his debt from his friends abroad, to two or three warehouſemen, or Blackwell-Hall factors at home, and has now got ſix months time for the payment of this 2000 l. more than the four months at firſt; ſo that in all he has enjoyed this credit ten months.—When theſe ſix months are expired, it would be greatly to his intereſt that he might be able, out of his ordinary caſh, to pay the tradeſmen off; but his other demands do not admit of it, and, that he may not be dunned and diſhonoured, he becomes under the neceſſity to take the ſame courſe again, and his friends at Leghorn and Genoa having accepted his bills, on the credit of the effects already in their hands, and ſhipped to them as above; he now tries his good friend Monſ. ———, banker at Paris, and draws 2000l. ſterling upon him; and taking up this money upon change, as before, he pays off his warehouſemen and factors, and perhaps buys again, in order to lay in ſtill a good bank at Leghorn and Genoa.

All this while the London merchant keep up his credit, his bills are all honourably accepted and paid; but ſtill the drawing falls all upon himſelf at laſt, till by thus frequently running the ſame round, if he will make an exact calculation, he ſhall find that he has paid at laſt from ten to fifteen per cent. for the uſe of this money; and, which is ſtill worſe, is indebted the principal ſums, one where or other; and this gradually eats him up, and devours his fortune, 'till at length ſome conſiderable diſaſter happening abroad, in the courſe of his affairs, he receives a blaſt upon his reputation, ſo that his bills will not be taken as formerly upon the exchange, and then he is undone.

This drawing and remitting, as it is a fatal thing to a merchant, ſo, unleſs it be very warily managed, it ſoon comes to be ſmelt into by the ſtaunch-credited remitters of money upon the exchange, and they are always jealous where they find a man thus concerned; ſo that it rarely can be carried on for any long time without obſervation, unleſs it be done with a vaſt variety of changing hands, and ſometimes names, and a very punctual anſwering every demand to a tittle; and yet at length it proves fatal to moſt that embark in it.

Another thing that often proves ruinous to a trader, more eſpecially to the merchant, is the want of requiſite accompliſhments to acquit himſelf with credit and honour in his profeſſion; but as I have ſpoken very amply to this matter under the article MERCANTILE COLLEGE [BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE] I refer the reader to that head.

REMARKS in a national light.

Though the conſtant intereſt of our trade and commerce does, in a great meaſure, depend upon the induſtry, prudence, ſkill, and ingenuity of our merchants and traders in general, yet theſe things alone will not anſwer that great end; if the government of Great-Britain does not ſteadily, wiſely, and zealouſly co-operate with our traders to promote and advance the ſame cauſe, all that our traders can do will be ineffectual. But as too many catch at every occaſion to miſrepreſent the conduct of the royal houſe of Hanover, in relation to the

care

care that has been taken of the trade of this kingdom ſince the happy acceſſion of that auguſt family to the throne; I think it my duty to refreſh the memories of ſome, with a ſhort ſtate of what has been done by his late and preſent Majeſty, with regard to this important point. And as an impartial man, I think this more incumbent upon me, becauſe I have taken the liberty, where I have thought truth and the public intereſts have required it, to give my free and undiſguiſed ſentiments on ſome points wherein it appears to me that our miniſters have not ſo warmly eſpouſed this cauſe as could be wiſhed.—We ſhall briefly trace this matter from the beginning of his late Majeſty's reign.—To which end we ſhall take notice of the treaty, concluded at Madrid, on the 14th of December, 1715, and, by comparing it with that concluded at Utrecht on the 19th of December, 1713, ſhew ſeveral particulars in which the treaty made with his late Majeſty is more advantageous to Great-Britain than that which was made in Queen Anne's reign: and indeed it muſt be equally ſurprizing how ſo bad a treaty came to be made at the end of a glorious and ſucceſsful war, and how ſo good a one was obtained by king George I, in the beginning of a reign diſturbed by ſuch inteſtine commotions. But we may learn from hence, that the wiſdom of a ſovereign, and the integrity of his miniſters, are more neceſſary for bringing about works of ſuch conſequence for the public good, than any juncture of time, or any other the moſt favourable circumſtance.

We muſt here premiſe, that by the treaty concluded at Madrid in 1667, the duties of importation payable upon the manufactures and products of Great-Britain, amounted, upon the eſtabliſhed valuation in the Spaniſh book of rates (after the deduction of the gratias) in Andaluſia to $11\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. in Valencia to 5 per cent. and in Catalonia to about 7 per cent. or leſs, and conſequently, upon the whole aforeſaid trade, thoſe duties could not exceed 10 per cent. on a medium.

After this ſhort account of our trade with Spain before the treaty of Utrecht, made by the late queen, we muſt obſerve, that, by the explanatory articles of this laſt-mentioned treaty, the duties of importation upon the products and manufactures of Great-Britain were augmented in Andaluſia to $27\frac{1}{5}$ per cent. at a medium.

But by the treaty made by king George I. at Madrid, the ſaid duties were again reduced, according to the aforeſaid treaty of 1667, and the deduction of the gratias * is eſtabliſhed as an inviolable law; whereas before, the gratias of the farmers of the royal revenue of Spain, were particularly altogether precarious, and depended intirely upon courteſy.

* For the nature of thoſe gratias in Spain, ſee our article GRATIAS, where this matter is fully explained.

That the common reader, however, may here underſtand ſomething of the nature of theſe gratias, he muſt know, that when the king of Spain had laid higher duties upon our Engliſh goods than what the Britiſh merchants were able or willing to comply with, he uſed to abate a certain part: which indulgence or abatement went under the name of gratia, or matter of favour, and not matter of right by treaty. But when he had farmed out theſe his cuſtoms to ſeveral of his ſubjects, the farmers, in order to draw more merchandize to their reſpective ports, and thereby to increaſe their own particular profits, uſed to make new abatements, or gratias, to the Britiſh merchants, endeavouring ſometimes to outvie one another in ſuch indulgences, and by that means to get a greater proportion of cuſtom into their own hands.

But to proceed. The duties on exportation may be computed to be raiſed by the Utrecht treaty, near as much as the foreſaid duties of importation: whereas, by the treaty made by his late Majeſty, they are reduced to their ancient ſtandard. Complaint having been made that the Spaniards, after the ſuſpenſion of arms in queen Anne's reign, had taken ſeveral New England, and other Britiſh ſhips, gathering ſalt at the iſland of Tortuga, a very full and juſt report concerning that affair was laid before her late Majeſty, of which we ſhall give the reader the following extract.

'Your Majeſty's ſubjects have, from the firſt ſettlement of 'the continent of America, had free acceſs to this iſland, 'and have without interruptions, unleſs in time of war, uſed 'to take what ſalt they pleaſed there; and we have proof 'of that uſage for above 50 years, as appears by certificates 'of perſons who have been employed in that trade.

'It doth not appear, upon the ſtricteſt enquiry, that the 'Spaniards ever inhabited or ſettled on the ſaid iſland; nor 'is it probable they ever did, it being all either barren rock, 'or dry ſand, and having no freſh water or proviſions in it.

'We take leave to lay before your Majeſty, the conſequence 'of your Majeſty's ſubjects being prohibited to fetch ſalt at 'Tortuga; which will in part appear from the number of 'ſhips uſing that trade, being, as we are informed, one year 'with another, about 100 ſail.

'The ſalt carried from thence to New England is uſed chiefly 'for curing of fiſh, which is either cod, ſcate-fiſh, or mack-'rel; the former of which is the principal branch of the re-'turns made from the continent to Great-Britain, by way 'of Spain, Portugal, and the Streights, for the woollen and 'other goods ſent from this kingdom thither. Beſides which, 'the ſcate fiſh and mackrel are of ſuch conſequence, that the 'ſugar iſlands cannot ſubſiſt without them, their negroes be-'ing chiefly ſupported by this fiſh: ſo that, if they were not 'ſupplied therewith from New England (which they cannot 'be if your Majeſty's ſubjects are prohibited from getting 'ſalt at Tortuga) they would not be able to carry on their 'ſugar works. This hath been confirmed to us by ſeveral 'conſiderable planters concerned in thoſe parts.

'Upon the whole, your Majeſty's ſubjects having enjoyed an 'uninterrupted uſage of gathering ſalt at Tortuga, ever ſince 'the firſt ſettlement of the continent as aforeſaid, we humbly 'ſubmit to your Majeſty the conſequence of preſerving that 'uſage and right, upon which the trade of your Majeſty's 'plantations ſo much depends.'

Notwithſtanding it appears, from what is above-written, that our SUGAR ISLANDS were like to ſuffer conſiderably, for want of FISH from NEW ENGLAND, no care was taken to have this matter remedied by the explanatory articles to the Utrecht treaty, which were poſterior to the above mentioned report.

However, in the third article of the treaty made by king George I, this buſineſs is fully ſettled to our advantage.

The Britiſh merchants having had ſeveral hardſhips put upon them at Bilboa in Spain, which occaſioned the decay of our trade at that place, the ſaid merchants did make and execute, in the year 1700, A TREATY OF PRIVILEGES with the magiſtrates and inhabitants of St. Ander, very much to the advantage of this kingdom, in order to their removing and ſettling there: the effect of which was prevented by the death of king Charles II. of Spain, and the war which ſoon after enſued. This matter, it ſeems, was ſlighted or neglected by the managers of the Utrecht treaty: for by the XIVth article of that treaty, there is only A LIBERTY GIVEN TO THE BRITISH SUBJECTS TO SETTLE AND DWELL AT ST ANDER, UPON THE TERMS OF THE IXth AND XXXth ARTICLES OF THE TREATY OF 1667, which are general: but no regard was had to the forementioned treaty of privileges in 1700; whereas by the ſecond article of the forementioned treaty made by king George I, the forementioned TREATY OF PRIVILEGES with St Ander, is confirmed and ratified.

Another conſiderable advantage obtained is, that the French, by the treaty made with his late Majeſty, are to pay the ſame DUTIES at the DRY-PORTS, through which they paſs by land-carriage, as we pay upon importation or exportation by ſea, which was not provided for by the Utrecht treaty.

By the ſchedules annexed to the treaty of 1667, the valuable privileges of having JUDGE-CONSERVATORS in Spain (appointed to make a more ſpeedy and leſs expenſive determination of all controverſies ariſing in trade between the Britiſh merchants and the Spaniards) was fully eſtabliſhed. But by the XVth article of the Utrecht treaty, that privilege was in effect given up: for it is therein only ſtipulated, THAT IN CASE ANY OTHER NATION HAVE THAT PRIVILEGE, WE SHALL IN LIKE MANNER ENJOY IT. But by the Vth article of the treaty made by his late Majeſty king George, it is ſtipulated, that WE SHALL ENJOY ALL THE RIGHTS, PRIVILEGES, FRANCHISES, EXEMPTIONS, AND IMMUNITIES WHATSOEVER, WHICH WE ENJOYED BY VIRTUE OF THE ROYAL SCHEDULES, OR ORDINANCES, BY THE TREATY OF 1667: ſo that hereby the great privilege of JUDGE-CONSERVATORS is again confirmed to us.

Theſe are ſome of the advantages which the royal houſe of Hanover hath obtained for us in our SPANISH TRADE.

We ſhall now give a ſhort account of thoſe procured for us from the AUSTRIAN LOW COUNTRIES, by virtue of the XXVIth article of the BARRIER TREATY.

This branch of our trade was regulated by a tariff, or declaration of the DUTIES of IMPORT and EXPORT, in the year 1670, which was ſuperſeded by another made in 1680, and continued 'till the laſt tariff, ſettled in 1715 with king George I. As for the two former, thoſe who will be at the pains of peruſing them, will find the tariff of 1670 laid HIGHER DUTIES on ſeveral conſiderable branches of our trade than that of 1680, but in many particulars was more favourable to us than the latter. Now by the tariff made by king George in 1715, theſe DUTIES were fixed and regulated for the future by thoſe which were moſt favourable in either of the former tariffs, and all our Britiſh products and manufactures (one only excepted, which ſhall be named preſently) ſettled upon an eaſier foot than ever.

Our woollen cloths, being the moſt profitable branch of our trade into theſe countries, by this means gained a very conſiderable advantage: for the tariff of 1680 having laid HIGHER DUTIES upon the finer ſorts, and LOWER DUTIES on ordinary cloth, than what were ſettled in the tariff of 1670, his late Majeſty, by the forementioned BARRIER TREATY, reduced the DUTIES on the finer ſorts to the tariff of 1670, and confirmed the DUTIES on ordinary cloth according to the tariff of 1680. Inſomuch that the tariff of 1715, conſidered with relation to this valuable part of our trade, reduced the DUTIES at leaſt one ſixth part, ſuppoſing the exportation of all ſorts to be equal; but, as there is always a much greater exportation of the ordinary cloth than of the

finer

finer ſorts, the reduction of theſe duties became ſtill much more conſiderable.

We muſt further obſerve, that there had been ſeveral innovations made to the detriment of the Engliſh merchant, ſince the tariff of 1680; all which innovations were intirely ſet aſide by the ſaid treaty of 1715, upon every ſpecies of goods except butter, which is mentioned becauſe we cannot be too minute and circumſtantial in accounts of this nature: this article, however, is moderated, and is rated in proportion to what has been paid by the Dutch.

As our commerce with the Netherlands [ſee the article NETHERLANDS] was thus ſettled to the advantage of our Britiſh merchants, ſo it was much to their ſatisfaction.

I cannot conclude this topic without obſerving, that as nothing but the great reputation of his late Majeſty king George in foreign countries, and of his fixed purpoſes to purſue the real good and happineſs of his kingdoms, could bring about treaties ſo beneficial to our commerce, in ſo few years as he did; ſo it is impoſſible to reflect with patience on the folly and ingratitude of thoſe men, who wickedly laboured to diſturb him in the midſt of theſe his royal cares, and to miſrepreſent, as they did at that time, his glorious endeavours for the good of his people. And if this great prince did ſo much for us, even within the firſt two or three years of his reign, and ſtill greater things during every year of his reign afterwards, as I ſhall ſhew in its proper place: if this wiſe monarch did ſo much for theſe kingdoms, altho' his whole reign was diſturbed with the ſtorms of rebellion and invaſion, and domeſtic ferments of another kind too, what would he not have done for commerce, if his reign had been a ſcene of deſirable quiet and tranquillity? Inſtead of undervaluing the important things he did in this reſpect, we ought rather to admire that he was able to do ſo much, when we could not reaſonably expect he ſhould have been able to have done any thing.

And it may be further ſaid with great truth, that, as well during the reign of his preſent Majeſty, as of that of his royal predeceſſor, they have never made the leaſt attempt to invade the rights of trade or poſſeſſions of any ſtate or empire whatſoever; they never diſcovered any glimmerings of low artifice, chicanery, or perfidy, in their treaties and negociations with foreign powers, not the ſhadow of an intention to injure any in relation to their territorial or commercial intereſt. On the contrary, the royal houſe of Hanover have ſupported the intereſt and glory of this nation by meaſures the moſt juſt, the moſt equitable, and the moſt honourable towards all countries; and I wiſh I could ſay the like of ſome neighbouring nations; but their preſent, as well as their paſt conduct, would give the lye to it; for at this time, without the leaſt cauſe or provocation on the ſide of his Britannic Majeſty, his dominions are moſt ignominiouſly attacked in the face of the whole world: and what adds to the aggravation of the baſeneſs and treachery is, that theſe very deſigns have been chiefly, and moſt effectually meditating, ever ſince the laſt treaty of peace and friendſhip, and under the diſguiſe of the ſincereſt amity, and moſt honourable intentions to preſerve the tranquillity of Europe. See our article PLANTATIONS, and divers others, to which we from thence refer.

Ought not ſuch conduct as this to rouſe all true friends to the trade and intereſt of Great-Britain, to unite their zealous endeavours, to make the remainder of his Majeſty's reign as great and as glorious as it has hitherto been, and not ſuffer it to be ſullied with the loſs of any part of his dominions, eſpecially thoſe which are ſo ineſtimable to the kingdom, and which are, therefore, ſo ſhamefully invaded at preſent? If the wiſe and good have any thing of moment to offer at this critical time, either within doors or without, for the true intereſt and honour of the nation, let it be offered with moderation and ſtrength of argument, not with rancour, heat, and animoſity, for this deſtroys the power and ſplendor of truth and right reaſon. Let gentlemen communicate their ſentiments like gentlemen: let Britons not widen our breaches, when it is their duty to heal them: let us not debate, but act, when the enemy is at the door: let us demonſtrate to the whole world that we are an united people, that we have all imaginable reaſon to love and revere our moſt gracious monarch, and to be warmly attached to the ſupport of his royal houſe, and to the trade and glory of the kingdom; that we are determined to be unanimous to enable his Majeſty effectually to reſent the indignity which is now offered to the nation, and to chaſtiſe and humble thoſe who are the common diſturbers of the peace and tranquillity of the whole world. And as the chief expence, during the reign of his late as well as his preſent Majeſty, has been (as I hope to make appear at a proper time) laid out upon the royal navy of this kingdom, and our magazines are at preſent plentifully filled with naval and military ſtores: as the naval power of this nation is much greater now than it ever was before in any period of time, even compared with that of any other, or many nations: and as we are in a capacity, as I could eaſily prove, to increaſe our naval power to ſuch a degree as will ſoon make our enemies tremble: as this is the real ſituation of our public affairs; we need not be intimidated by the bullies of the world. Every true friend to the Proteſtant cauſe, will chearfully lend his helping hand to ſcourge thoſe whoſe inſolence and treachery deſerve it; and certain I am that thoſe who ſhall do otherwiſe, and endeavour to diſtract his Majeſty's councils at this criſis, or to perplex the great repreſentative of the nation, or the public in general, with ill-timed diſputes and controverſies, can be as little friends to the Proteſtant intereſt, as to the trade and the liberties of theſe kingdoms: and ſuch who ſhall attempt, in any ſhape, to embroil our public affairs, at ſo important a conjuncture, deſerve ever to be ſtigmatized, as unworthy to live under ſo mild, ſo gracious, and ſo free a government; they ought to be branded on the forehead with an hot iron, that they may be for ever after-ſhunned and avoided, as peſtilential to ſociety, and fitter to live under a Popiſh tyranny than under a government like this, of all deſirable liberty and freedom. No man has a greater contempt for men in power, who abuſe the great truſt repoſed in them, than myſelf, nor would any one ſooner lend a hand to pull them down; and few have ſpoke their mind with more freedom upon very intereſting occaſions than I have done: but as I have done it with that decency and moderation that becomes every man that means good and not miſchief, I do not find that I have given any offence. But whoever impartially conſiders the hiſtory of his late and preſent Majeſty's reigns in theſe kingdoms, will find that their hands have been tied from doing the nation that good they have ever aimed at; their reigns have been diſturbed with rebellions at home, and attempts of invaſion from abroad; and our domeſtic ſquabbles, under the pretence of popular patriotiſm, have not, perhaps, done the nation leſs injury than the attempts of our foreign foes. It is true, great ſums of money have been raiſed; but what with domeſtic ſtrife, unnatural rebellions, and the perfidy of foreign courts upon thoſe accounts; theſe ſums, I am perſuaded, have not had the effect that half the money would have had, if thoſe, who have pretended to have been friends to their country, had approved themſelves really ſuch. See the articles REVENUE and TRADE; ſee alſo our article PARLIAMENT [MEMBER of PARLIAMENT].

The Royal Exchange of London is the firſt place in the kingdom that will feel the effects of the injury meditated to be done at this juncture by foreign rivals and enemies to our trade and navigation; and I am well perſuaded that great and honourable body will be the firſt who will ſupply his Majeſty with the ſinews of war, to defeat thoſe wicked intentions. However our enemies may flatter themſelves with the weight of our debts and taxes, and that we cannot act with that ſpirit and vigour requiſite to fruſtrate their unwarrantable deſigns, they will find themſelves as ſhamefully miſtaken as they have heretofore been. It is true, our debts are large, but their incumbrance, let them remember, is, by the reduction of intereſt, rendered much lighter than otherwiſe it would have been: and there are eaſy ways and means to render our debts much lighter ſtill than they are; nor will his Majeſty want either ample reſources or wiſe meaſures, to reduce a certain nation to as low an ebb as ever the great Marlborough did, if they once more rouſe the Britiſh lion againſt them.

ROYAL SOCIETY.

Of the firſt conſtitution of the ROYAL SOCIETY of London, eſtabliſhed in the reign of king Charles II.

Charles the IId, by the grace of God, of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. To all unto whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. Having long reſolved within ourſelf to promote the welfare of arts and ſciences, as well as that of our territories and dominions, out of our princely affection to all kind of learning, and more particular favour to philoſophical ſtudies; eſpecially thoſe which endeavour, by ſolid experiments, either to reform or improve philoſophy. To the intent therefore that theſe kinds of ſtudy, which are no where yet ſufficiently cultivated, may flouriſh in our dominions; and that the learned world may acknowledge us to be, not only the defender of the faith, but the patron and encourager of all ſorts of uſeful knowledge, KNOW YE, that we, out of our ſpecial grace, certain knowlege, and mere motion, having given and granted, and do by theſe preſents give and grant, for us, our heirs, and ſucceſſors, that there ſhall be for ever a ſociety, conſiſting of a preſident, council, and fellows, which ſhall be called by the name of the preſident, council, and fellows of the Royal Society of London, for cultivating and improving of natural knowlege, of which ſociety we do by theſe preſents declare ourſelves to be founder and patron. And we do hereby make and conſtitute the ſaid ſociety by the name, &c. to be a body corporate, to be continued under the ſame name in a perpetual ſucceſſion; and that they and their ſucceſſors (whoſe ſtudies are to be employed for the promoting of the knowledge of natural things, and uſeful arts by experiments, to the glory of God and the good of mankind) ſhall, by the aforeſaid name of preſident, council, &c. be enabled and made capable in law, to levy, hold, poſſeſs, and enjoy, lands, tenements, &c. liberties, franchiſes, juriſdictions, for perpetuity, or terms of lives, or years, or any other way; as alſo goods, chattels, and all other things of what nature or kind ſoever. And alſo by the name aforeſaid to give, grant, demiſe, or aſſign the ſaid lands, goods, &c.

and to do all things neceſſary thereabout. And the ſaid perſons by the name aforeſaid, are enabled to implead, be impleaded, ſue, defend, &c. in any courts, and before any judges, officers, &c. whatſoever, of the king, his heirs and ſucceſſors, in all and ſingular actions, real and perſonal: pleas, cauſes, &c. of what kind ſoever, as any of his ſubjects within his kingdom of England, or corporations, are by law capable and enabled to do.

And the ſaid preſident, council, and fellows, are impowered to have a common ſeal for their uſe in their affairs; and from time to time to break, change, and make anew the ſame, as ſhall ſeem expedient unto them.

And his Majeſty, in teſtimony of his royal favour towards the ſaid preſident, council, and fellows, and of his eſpecial eſteem of them, doth grant a coat of arms to them and their ſucceſſors, viz. on a field argent a canton of the three lions of England: for a creſt, an eagle proper on a ducal coronet, ſupporting a ſhield charged with the lions aforeſaid; and for ſupporters, two talbots with coronets on their necks. The ſaid arms to be borne, &c. by the ſaid ſociety upon all occaſions.

And that his Majeſty's royal intention may take the better effect for the good government of the ſaid ſociety from time to time, it is eſtabliſhed, that the council aforeſaid ſhall conſiſt of 21 perſons (whereof the preſident for the time being always to be one). And that all perſons, which, within two months next enſuing the date of the ſaid charter, ſhall be choſen by the ſaid preſident and council; and in all times after the ſaid two months, by the preſident, council, and fellows [and noted in a regiſter to be kept for that purpoſe] ſhall be fellows of the ſaid ſociety, and ſo accounted and called during life, except by the ſtatutes of the ſaid ſociety to be made, any of them ſhall happen to be amerced; and by how much any perſons are more excelling in all kinds of learning, by how much the more ardently they deſire to promote the honour, buſineſs, and emolument of the ſaid ſociety, by how much the more eminent they are for integrity, honeſty, piety, loyalty, and good affection toward his Majeſty, his crown and dignity, by ſo much the more fit and worthy ſuch perſons are to be judged for reception into the ſociety.

And for the better execution of his royal grant, his Majeſty hath nominated, &c. his truſty and well-beloved, William, viſcount Brouncker, chancellor to his deareſt conſort queen Catherine, to be the firſt and modern preſident, to continue in the ſaid office from the date of the patent to the feaſt of St Andrew next enſuing, and untill another perſon of the ſaid council be duly choſen into the ſaid office. The ſaid lord Brouncker being ſworn in all things belonging thereto, well and faithfully to execute the ſaid office, before his right well-beloved and right truſty couſin and counſellor, Edward Earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, in the words following:

I William viſcount Brouncker, do promiſe to deal faithfully and honeſtly in all things belonging to that truſt committed to me, as preſident of the Royal Society of London, for improving natural knowledge. So help me God.

And his majeſty hath nominated, &c. the perſons following, his truſty and well-beloved Sir Robert Murray, Knt. one of his privy council in his kingdom of Scotland, Robert Boyle, Eſq; William Brereton, Eſq; eldeſt ſon to the lord Brereton, Sir Kenelme Digby, Knt. chancellor to his deareſt mother queen Mary, Sir Gilbert Talbot, Knt. maſter of his jewel-houſe, Sir Paul Neile, Knt. one of the uſhers of his privy chamber, Henry Slingſby, Eſq; one of the gentlemen of his ſaid privy chamber, Sir William Petty, Knt. Timothy Clark, doctor of phyſic, and one of his phyſicians, John Wilkins, doctor of divinity, George Ent, doctor of phyſic, William Erſkyne, Eſq; one of his cupbearers, Jonathan Goddard, doctor of phyſic, William Ball, Eſq; Matthew Wren, Eſq; John Evelyn, Eſq; Thomas Henſhaw, Eſq; Dudley Palmer, of Gray's Inn, Eſq; Abraham Hill, of London, Eſq; and Henry Oldenburg, Eſq; together with the preſident aforeſaid, to be the firſt and modern 21 of the council and fellows of the Royal Society aforeſaid, to be continued in the offices of the council aforeſaid, from the date of the patent to the feaſt of St Andrew next following, and from thence 'till other fit perſons be choſen into the ſaid offices. The ſaid perſons to be ſworn before the preſident of the ſociety for the time being, well and truly to execute the ſaid offices, according to the form and effect of the aforeſaid oath to be adminiſtered to the preſident, by the lord chancellor as aforeſaid. For the adminiſte ing which oath to the ſaid perſons, and all others hereafter from time to time to be choſen into the ſaid council, full power and authority is granted to the preſident for the time being: and the ſaid perſons duly ſworn, and all other from time to time duly choſen into the ſaid council and ſworn, are to aid, adviſe, and aſſiſt in all affairs, buſineſſes, and things, concerning the better regulation, government, and direction of the Royal Society, and every member thereof.

Furthermore, liberty is granted to the ſaid ſociety, lawfully to make and hold meetings of themſelves, for the ſearching out and diſcovery of natural things, and tranſaction of other buſineſſes relating to the ſaid ſociety, when and as often as ſhall be requiſite, in any college, hall, or other convenient place in London, or within ten miles thereof.

And power is granted to the ſaid ſociety, from time to time to nominate and chuſe yearly, on St Andrew's day, one of the council aforeſaid, for the time being, to be preſident of the ſociety, until St Andrew's day next enſuing (if he ſhall ſo long live, or not be removed for ſome juſt and reaſonable cauſe) and from thence until another be choſen and put into the ſaid office, the ſaid preſident ſo elected, before admiſſion to that office, to be ſworn before the council, according to the form before expreſſed, who are impowered to adminiſter the ſaid oath from time to time, as often as there ſhall be cauſe to chuſe a preſident.

And in caſe that the ſaid preſident, during his office, ſhall die, recede, or be removed, then, and ſo often, it ſhall be lawful for the council of the Royal Society to meet together to chuſe one of their number for preſident of the ſaid ſociety: and the perſon ſo choſen and duly ſworn, ſhall have and exerciſe the office of preſident for the remainder of the year, and until another be duly choſen into the ſaid office.

And in caſe that any one or more of the council aforeſaid ſhall die, recede, or be removed, (which perſons or any of them, for miſdemeanor, or other reaſonable cauſe, are declared to be amerceable by the preſident and the reſt of the council) then and ſo often it ſhall be lawful for the preſident, council, and fellows, to chuſe one or more of the fellows of the Royal Society in the room of him or them ſo deceaſing, receding, or removed, to complete the aforeſaid number of 21 of the council; which perſon, or perſons ſo choſen, are to continue in office until St Andrew's day then next enſuing, and until others be duly choſen, the ſaid perſons being ſworn faithfully to execute their office, according to the true intention of the patent.

And his Majeſty doth will and grant unto the ſaid preſident, council, and fellows, full power and authority on St Andrew's day yearly, to elect, nominate, and change, ten of the fellows of the Royal Society, to ſupply the places and offices of ten of the aforeſaid number of 21 of the council, declaring it to be his royal will and pleaſure, that ten and no more of the council aforeſaid, be annually changed and removed by the preſident, council, and fellows aforeſaid.

And it is granted on the behalf of the ſaid ſociety, that if it ſhall happen that the preſident be ſick, infirm, detained in his Majeſty's ſervice, or otherwiſe occupied, ſo as he cannot attend the neceſſary affairs of the ſociety, then and ſo often it ſhall be lawful for him to appoint one of the council for his deputy, who ſhall ſupply his place from time to time, as often as he ſhall happen to be abſent, during the whole time of the ſaid preſident's continuance in his office, unleſs he ſhall in the mean time conſtitute ſome other of the council for his deputy: and the deputy ſo conſtituted, is impowered to do all and ſingular things which belong to the office of the preſident of the Royal Society, and in as ample manner and form as the ſaid preſident may do by virtue of his Majeſty's letters patent, he the ſaid deputy being duly ſworn before the council in form before ſpecified, who are impowered to adminiſter the oath as often as the caſe ſhall require.

It is farther granted to the ſociety, to have one treaſurer, two ſecretaries, two or more curators of experiments, one or more clerk, or clerks, and alſo two ſerjeants at mace, who may from time to time attend on the preſident; all the ſaid officers to be choſen by the preſident, council, and fellows, and to be ſworn in form and effect before ſpecified, well and faithfully to execute their offices, which oath the council are impowered to adminiſter: and his Majeſty nominates and appoints his well-beloved ſubjects, the aforeſaid Will. Ball, Eſq; to be the firſt and modern treaſurer; and the aforeſaid John Wilkins and Henry Oldenburg, to be the firſt and modern ſecretaries of the Royal Society, to be continued in the ſaid offices to the feaſt of St Andrew next following the date of the patent. And that from time to time and ever hereafter on the ſaid feaſt of St Andrew (if it be not Lord's day, and if it be Lord's day on the next day after) the preſident, council, and fellows aforeſaid, are impowered to nominate and chuſe honeſt and diſcreet men for treaſurer and ſecretaries, which are to be of the number of the council of the Royal Society; which perſons elected and ſworn, in form before ſpecified, are to exerciſe and enjoy the ſaid offices until the feaſt of St Andrew next then following.

And if it ſhall happen, that the aforeſaid election of the preſident, council, treaſurer, and ſecretaries, or any of them, cannot be made or perfected on the feaſt of St Andrew aforeſaid; it is granted to the aforeſaid preſident, council, and fellows, that they may lawfully nominate and aſſign another day, as near to the ſaid feaſt of St Andrew as conveniently may be, for making or perfecting the ſaid elections, and ſo from day to day 'till the ſaid elections be perfected.

And in caſe that any of the aforeſaid officers of the Royal Society ſhall die, recede, or be removed, from their reſpective offices, then and ſo often ſhall it be lawful for the ſaid preſident, council, and fellows, to chuſe one or more into the office or offices, vacant, to hold the ſame during the reſidue of that year, and untill others be duly choſen and ſworn in their places.

Moreover, on the behalf of the ſociety, it is granted unto the preſident and council, that they may aſſemble and meet together in any college, hall, or other convenient place in

London, or within ten miles thereof (due and lawful ſummons of all the members of the council to extrordinary meetings being always premiſed) and that they being ſo met together, have full power and authority, from time to time, to make, conſtitute, and eſtabliſh ſuch laws, ſtatutes, orders, and conſtitutions, which ſhall appear to them to be good, uſeful, honeſt, and neceſſary, according to their judgments and diſcretions, for the government, regulation, and direction of the Royal Society, and every member thereof; and to do all things concerning the government, eſtate, goods, lands, revenues, as alſo the buſineſſes and affairs of the ſaid ſociety: all which laws, ſtatutes, orders, &c. ſo made, his Majeſty will's and commands, that they be from time to time inviolably obſerved, according to the tenor and effect of them: provided that they be reaſonable, and not repugnant or contrary to the laws, cuſtoms, &c. of his kingdom of England.

And furthermore, full power and authority is given and granted unto the ſaid ſociety, from time to time, to chuſe one or more printers and gravers; and by writing, ſealed with the common ſeal of the ſociety, and ſigned by the preſident for the time being, to grant them power to print ſuch things, matters, and buſineſſes concerning the ſaid ſociety, as ſhall be committed to them by the council from time to time, the ſaid printers and gravers being ſworn before the preſident and council, in form before ſpecified: which preſident and council are empowered to give the ſaid oath.

And for the greater advantage and ſucceſs of the ſociety in their philoſophical ſtudies and endeavours, full power and authority is granted unto them to require, take, and receive, from time to time, dead bodies of perſons executed, and the ſame to anatomize, to all intents and purpoſes, and in as ample manner and form, as the College of Phyſicians and Company of Surgeons of London (by what names ſoever they ſaid two corporations are or may be called) have had and made uſe of, or may have and uſe the ſaid bodies.

And for the improvement of ſuch experiments, arts, and ſciences, as the ſociety may be employed in, full power and authority is granted unto them, from time to time, by letters under the hand of the preſident, in the preſence of the council, to hold correſpondence and intelligence with any ſtrangers, whether private perſons or collegiate ſocieties, or corporations, without any interruption or moleſtation whatſoever: provided, that this indulgence or grant be extended to no farther uſe than the particular benefit and intereſt of the ſociety, in matters philoſophical, mathematical, and mechanical.

Full power and authority is alſo granted, on the behalf of the ſociety, to the council, to erect and build one or more colleges within London, or ten miles thereof, of what form or quality ſoever for habitation, aſſembling, or meeting of the preſident, council, and fellows, about any affairs and buſineſſes of the ſociety.

And if any abuſes or differences ſhall ever hereafter ariſe and happen, about the government or affairs of the ſociety, whence the conſtitution, progreſs, and improvement, or buſineſſes thereof may ſuffer, or be hindered: in ſuch caſes, his Majeſty aſſigns and authoriſes his right truſty and right well-beloved couſin and counſellor, Edward earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, by himſelf during his life, and after his deceaſe, the lord archbiſhop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great ſeal of England, the lord high treaſurer of England, the lord-keeper of the privy ſeal, the lord biſhop of London, and the two principal ſecretaries of ſtate for the time being, or any four or more of them, to compoſe and redreſs any ſuch differences or abuſes.

And laſtly, his Majeſty ſtrictly charges and commands all juſtices, mayors, aldermen, ſheriffs, bailiffs, conſtables, and all other officers, miniſters and ſubjects whatſoever, from time to time to be aiding and aſſiſting unto the ſaid preſident, council and fellows of the Royal Society, in and about all things according to the true intention of his letters patent.'

This is the legal ratification, which the Royal Society received at its firſt eſtabliſhment. According to the intention of theſe letters patent, their council, I believe, has ever ſince been annually renewed; their preſident, their treaſurer, their ſecretaries choſen: the chief employments have been to preſerve their privileges, to diſperſe correſpondents, and to form the body of their ſtatutes, which I will here inſert.

An abſtract of the ſtatutes of the ROYAL SOCIETY.

Whatever ſtatute ſhall be made or repealed, the making or repealing of it ſhall be voted twice, and at two ſeveral meetings of the council.

This obligation ſhall be ſubſcribed by every fellow, or his election ſhall be void.

We, who have hereto ſubſcribed, do promiſe each for himſelf, that we will endeavour to promote the good of the Royal Society of London, for the improvement of natural knowlege, and to purſue the ends, for which the ſame was founded; that we will be preſent at the meetings of the ſociety, as often as conveniently we can; eſpecially at the anniverſary elections, and upon extraordinary occaſions; and that we will obſerve the ſtatutes and orders of the ſaid ſociety: provided that whenever any of us ſhall ſignify to the preſident under his hand, that he deſires to withdraw from the ſociety, he ſhall be free from this obligation for the future. Every fellow ſhall pay his admiſſion-money, and afterwards contribution towards the defraying of the charges of obſervations and experiments, &c.

The ordinary meetings of the Royal Society ſhall be held once a week, where none ſhall be preſent, beſides the fellows, without the leave of the ſociety, under the degree of a baron in one of his Majeſty's three kingdoms, or of his Majeſty's privy council; or unleſs he be an eminent foreigner, and theſe only without the leave of the preſident.

The buſineſs of their weekly meetings ſhall be, to order, take account, conſider, and diſcourſe of philoſophical experiments and obſervations; to read, hear, and diſcourſe, upon letters, reports, and other papers, containing philoſophical matters; as alſo to view, and diſcourſe upon the productions and rarities of nature and art; and to conſider what to reduce from them, or how they may be improved for uſe or diſcovery.

The experiments ſhall be made at the charge of the ſociety; two curators at leaſt ſhall be appointed for the inſpection of thoſe which cannot be performed before the ſociety; by them the bare report of matter of fact ſhall be ſtated and returned.

The election of fellows ſhall be made by way of ballot, and their admiſſion by a ſolemn declaration made by the preſident of their election.

The election of the council and officers ſhall be made once a year: eleven of the preſent council ſhall be continued by lot, for the next year, and ten new ones choſen in like manner. Out of this new council ſhall be elected a preſident, a treaſurer, and two ſecretaries in the ſame way.

The preſident ſhall preſide in all meetings, regulate all debates of the ſociety and council, ſtate and put queſtions, call for reports and accounts from committees, curators, and others; ſummon all extraordinary meetings upon urgent occaſions, and ſee to the execution of the ſtatutes. The vice-preſident ſhall have the ſame power in the abſence of the preſident.

The treaſurer, or his deputy, ſhall receive and keep accounts of all money due to the ſociety, and diſcharge all money payable by the ſociety. He ſhall pay ſmall ſums by order of the preſident under his hand, but thoſe that exceed five pounds by order of the council. All bills of charges for experiments ſhall firſt be ſigned by the curators. The accounts of the treaſurer ſhall be audited four times a year, by a committee of the council, and once a year, by a committee of the ſociety.

The ſecretaries are to take notes of the orders, and material paſſages of the meetings; to take care of the books, papers, and writings of the ſociety; to order and direct the clerks in making entries of all matters in the regiſters and journal-books of the ſociety or council; to draw up ſuch letters as ſhall be written in their name, which ſhall be approved at one of their meetings; to give notice of the candidates propounded, in order to election.

The curators by office ſhall have a ſufficient allowance for their encouragement, which ſhall increaſe proportionably with the revenue of the ſociety, provided that it exceed not 200 l. a year. They ſhall be well ſkilled in philoſophical and mathematical learning, well verſed in obſervations, enquiries, and experiments of nature and art. They ſhall take care of the managing of all experiments and obſervations appointed by the ſociety or council, and report the ſame, and perform ſuch other taſks, as the ſociety or council ſhall appoint; ſuch as the examining of ſciences, arts, and inventions, now in uſe, and the bringing in hiſtories of natural and artificial things, &c. They ſhall be propounded at leaſt a month before they are choſen: they ſhall be examined by the council before the election: to their election every member of the ſociety ſhall be ſummoned: they ſhall at firſt be only elected for a year of probation, except they be of known merits: at the end of the year, they ſhall be either elected for perpetuity, or for a longer time of probation, or wholly rejected. The cauſes of ejecting a curator ſhall be the ſame with ejecting a fellow, or for fraudulent dealing or negligence in the affairs of the ſociety, provided that he ſhall firſt receive three reſpective admonitions. If any curator ſhall be diſabled by age, infirmity, or any caſualty, in the ſervice of the ſociety, ſome proviſion ſhall be made for him during life, if his condition requires, according as the council ſhall think fit.

The clerk ſhall conſtantly attend at all meetings; he ſhall follow the directions of the ſecretaries, in regiſtering and entering all matters that ſhall be appointed: he ſhall not communicate any thing contained in their books, to any that is not a fellow. He ſhall have a certain rate for what he copies, and a yearly ſtipend for his attendance.

The printer ſhall take care for the printing of ſuch books, as ſhall be committed to him by order of the ſociety or council; and therein he ſhall obſerve their directions, as to the correction of the edition, the number of copies, the form, or volume, &c.

The operators of the ſociety, when they have any of their work under their hands, ſhall not undertake the work of any other

other perſons, which may hinder the buſineſs of the ſociety. They ſhall have ſalaries for their attendance.

The common ſeal of the ſociety ſhall be kept in a cheſt with three locks and three different keys, by the preſident, treaſurer, and one of the ſecretaries. The deeds of the ſociety ſhall be paſſed in council, and ſealed by them and the preſident.

The books that concern the affairs of the ſociety, ſhall be the charter-book, ſtatute-book, journal-book, letter-books, and regiſter-books, for the entering of philoſophical obſervations, hiſtories, diſcourſes, experiments, inventions.

The names of beneſactors ſhall be honourably mentioned, in a book provided for that purpoſe.

In caſe of death, or receſs of any fellow, the ſecretaries are to note it in the margin of the regiſter, over-againſt their names.

The cauſes of ejection ſhall be contemptuous diſobedience to the ſtatutes and orders of the ſociety, defaming or malicious damnifying the ſame. This ſhall be declared by the preſident at one of the meetings, and the ejection recorded.

REMARKS on the important general utility of the ROYAL SOCIETY, and the conſequences of the decay thereof.

Having obſerved an affectation in ſome to treat the Royal Society and its members with very unbecoming contempt and indignity, by inſinuating even that any blockhead, if he is but acquainted with a leading member, may be matriculated into this body, and have his name dignified with F. R. S.; I have pitied the underſtanding of ſuch cenſurers; for though fools will dare to mingle with the wiſe, who but a fool will defame a whole body of men, becauſe he may not be acquainted with any of the wiſe with whom it abounds? But,

Praiſing is harder much than finding fault. Rosc.

As I have always looked upon this ſociety as one of the moſt uſeful, moſt important, and moſt honourable in the three kingdoms, and more eſpecially ſo in relation to its trade and commerce, I judge it no way incompatible with this work, to give ſome faint idea of this inſtitution, in order to diſabuſe thoſe who may have been deceived by ſuch who have detracted from its merits. For that certainly can be aſcribed only to the want of due information, with reſpect to the nature and utility of this eſtabliſhment.

That our uninformed readers may make a right judgment of this great and noble deſign, we ſhall attempt, in few words, a diſplay of its high importance to the nation. Now the great purpoſe of this ſociety is, to make faithful records of all the works of nature and art, which can come within their reach; that the preſent age and poſterity may diſtinguiſh error ſtrengthened by preſcription, reſtore truths neglected, apply thoſe known to more various uſes, and make the way more eaſy to what remains unrevealed in all uſeful, and more particularly in all commercial ſcience; which is the life and ſoul of theſe kingdoms. This is the compaſs of their deſign; and theſe great ends they have ſo far anſwered, as to have proved of unſpeakable emolument to mankind in general, as well as Great-Britain in particular: and thoſe nations of Europe that have followed their laudable example, have likewiſe been of great ſervice to ſociety, as well as to their native ſtates and empires.

As for what belongs to the members themſelves that conſtitute this ſociety, they are of different religions, countries, and profeſſions. For they did not propoſe to lay the foundation of an Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, Popiſh, or Proteſtant philoſophy, but a philoſophy of mankind. A moſt glorious and moſt benevolent attempt, and attended with the moſt glorious and benevolent conſequences!

By their naturalizing, as it were, men of all countries they have ſettled a conſtant intelligence throughout all civilized nations, and made the Royal Society of England the general bank and free-port of the whole world, for ſound knowlege and philoſophy grounded on EXPERIMENTS, not on viſionary hypotheſis and conjecture, as it was before their happy inſtitution. And by the admiſſion of men of all profeſſions, theſe two benefits have aroſe. (1.) Every art, and every way of life has been ſecured from receiving detriment by their joint councils. (2.) By the equal balance of all profeſſions, no one in particular has by this ſociety overweighed the other, or made the oracle ſpeak their private ſenſe only. All ranks of men have ſome one darling, upon which their care is fixed. If mechanics alone were to make a philoſophy, they would bring it all into their ſhops, and force it to conſiſt wholly of ſprings, wheels, and weights; if phyſicians, ſcarce any thing would be conſidered, beſides the cure of diſeaſes. So much is to be found in men of all conditions, of that which is called pedantry in ſcholars; which is an obſtinate addiction to the forms of ſome private life, and too regardleſs of general things. But,

Though the ſociety entertains men of particular profeſſions, yet the far greater number are gentlemen, free and unconfined. This has prevented, in a great meaſure, two corruptions of learning complained of: the one, that knowlege ſtill degenerates to conſult preſent profit too ſoon; the other, that philoſophers have been always maſters and ſcholars; ſome impoſing, and all the other ſubmitting, and not as equal obſervers without dependance. The firſt of theſe were, before the eſtabliſhment of this corporation, the cauſe of much inconvenience. It weakened the ſtrength of uſeful arts; it made an unhappy diſproportion in their increaſe; while not the beſt, but the moſt gainful of them flouriſhed. But above all, it diminiſhed that very profit for which men ſtrive: and ſo they were ſerved like ſome fooliſh guards, who, while earneſt in picking up ſmall money dropt out of the priſoner's pocket, let the priſoner eſcape, for whom they might have got a great ranſom. A ſecond error that has been avoided by this ſociety, is, that the ſeats of knowlege have ſince their time been LABORATORIES, as they ought to be; not only SCHOOLS, where ſome have taught, and all the reſt SUBSCRIBED.

We ſhall next conſider what courſe of enquiry they have taken, to make their labours unite for the ſervice of mankind.

1. In regard to their expence. Of the ſtock, upon which their expence has been defrayed, that has aroſe only from among themſelves, by ſmall admiſſion-money and contributions. Such a revenue as this can make no great fund, nor amount to any vaſt ſum; they have been no incumbrance to the public, though the public have enjoyed all the benefit of their ſtudies and their labours.

2. The perfection to which all manual arts have, by their means, been brought, deſerves our attention. Men now generally underſtand, to employ thoſe very tools which the Ancients left us, to infinite more works than formerly; they have likewiſe deviſed a great multitude of all ſorts, which were before unknown. The ordinary ſhops of mechanics are now as full of rarities, as the cabinets of the former nobleſt mathematicians.

'Till the ſixteenth century, the art of mechanics was contained in a very narrow compaſs, there being nothing more known about it, than the ſix ordinary powers. At this time ſeveral of the moſt eminent mathematicians began to conſider mechanics, and by the ſtudy and induſtry of the learned members of our Royal Society therein, and by their great example inciting other nations, mankind have received ſuch extraordinary advantages, that none can be ſenſible of, but thoſe who have diligently attended to their labours and tranſactions. To the art of mechanics is owing all ſorts of inſtruments to work with, all engines of war, ſhips, bridges, mills, curious roofs and arches, columns, pendent galleries, and all other grand works in building of every kind. Alſo all clocks, watches, jacks, chariots, carts and carriages; all elegant and uſeful machines of every ſort, are owing to the manual application of theſe principles: in a word, architecture, navigation, huſbandry, and military affairs, owe their invention and uſe to this art; and, indeed, whatever hath artificial motion by air, water, wind, or cords; as all manner of muſical inſtruments, water-works, &c. This is a ſcience of ſuch importance, that, without it, we could hardly eat bread, or lie dry in our beds.—Without mechanics, a general cannot go to war, nor beſiege a town, or fortify a place; or could even invent a ſtocking-frame, the weaving-loom, and any thing elſe for the improvement of the manufactural arts.

The Royal Society have been happily inſtrumental to the advancement of all theſe arts, and to lay open the ſecrets of all trades, and the ſeveral machines uſed therein; whereby one trade has derived great aid and aſſiſtance from others, to the mutual benefit and advantage of all. See our articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL.

The method which they have taken to pry deeply into natural knowlege, has been the moſt judicious, and this may be reduced to theſe following heads: the queries and directions they have given abroad; the propoſals and recommendations they have made; the relations they have received; the experiments they have tried; the obſervations they have taken; the inſtruments they have invented; the theories that have been propoſed; the diſcourſes they have written or publiſhed: the repoſitory and library; and the hiſtories of nature and arts, and the works they have collected.

The manner of their gathering queries, and diſperſing queſtions, is this. Firſt, they have required ſome of their particular fellows to examine all treatiſes and deſcriptions, the natural and artificial productions of thoſe countries, in which they would be informed; at the ſame time they have employed others to diſcourſe with ſeamen, travellers, tradeſmen, and merchants, who are likely to give them the beſt light. Out of this united intelligence from men and books, they have compoſed a body of queſtions, concerning the obſervable things of theſe places. Theſe papers being produced in their aſſemblies, have been augmented or contracted, as they have in their joint judgment ſeen occaſion. And then the fellows themſelves are wont to undertake their diſtribution into all quarters, according as they have had the convenience or correſpondence.

They have compoſed queries and directions, what things are neceſſary to be obſerved, in order to their making of a natural hiſtory in general; what are to be taken notice of towards a perfect hiſtory of the air, and atmoſphere, and weather; what is to be obſerved in the production, growth, advancing,

vancing, or transforming of vegetables; what particulars are requiſite, for collecting a complete hiſtory of the agriculture which is uſed in ſeveral parts of this nation, and others.—Whereby they have been the inſtruments of improving huſbandry in general, and tranſplanting exotics into their own country for the benefit of its commerce.

They have preſcribed exact enquiries, and given punctual directions, for the trials of experiments of rarefaction and condenſation; concerning the cauſe and manner of the petrefaction of wood; of the load-ſtone; of the parts of anatomy; of currents; of the ebbing and flowing of the ſea; of the wonders and curioſities obſervable in mines: in all which they have made improvements, that have tended greatly to the advantage of theſe kingdoms, as I could eaſily ſhew in a ſurprizing variety of particulars, would the limits to which I am circumſcribed admit of it.

To their queries, in general, they have received good returns and ſatisfaction. Beſides theſe there have been ſeveral great and profitable attempts, relating to the good of mankind, and that of the Britiſh nation, propounded to them by many public bodies and private perſons, which they have again recommended to be examined apart by divers of their own number, and by other men of ability and integrity, who have accepted of their recommendations of this kind. In conſequence of this conduct, they propounded the compoſing a catalogue of all trades, works, and manufactures, wherein men are employed, in order to the collecting each of their hiſtories; by taking notice of all the phyſical receipts or ſecrets, the inſtruments, tools, and engines, the manual operations or ſlights, the cheats and ill practices, the goodneſs, badneſs, and different value of materials, and whatever elſe belongs to the operations of all trades.

The effects of theſe meaſures are too manifeſt throughout all their labours to need proof.

Their improvements in aſtronomy and navigation are not leſs than in thoſe of other cardinal points of general uſe. They ſuggeſted the making a perfect ſurvey and map of all the fixed ſtars in the zodiac, both viſible to the naked eye, and diſcoverable by teleſcopes; towards the obſerving the apparent places of the planets with teleſcopes, both by ſea and land: and, in order to perfect this great work, ſeveral of their fellows had their portions of the heavens allotted to them, wherein they have made an extraordinary proficiency, and their members, or thoſe who have built upon their diſcoveries, have made very conſiderable improvements in aſtronomy and navigation.

They firſt recommended the advancing of the manufacture of tapeſtry; the improving of ſilk-making; the propagating of ſaffron; the melting of lead ore with pit-coal; the making iron with ſea-coal; the uſing the duſt of black-lead, inſtead of oil, in clocks; the making trials on the qualities of Engliſh earths of various kinds, in order, if they could not diſcover ſo fine a ſubſtance as china, for the perfecting of the potters art: in moſt of which the deſired improvements have been made, by the generous communication of their ſucceſsful experiments, and the ſpirit which they firſt raiſed for thoſe things in the nation.

They firſt ſtarted the propagation of potatoes; the planting of verjuice grapes in England; the chemical examination of French and Engliſh wines; the gradual obſervation of the growth of plants, from the firſt ſpot of life; the increaſing of timber, and the planting of fruit-trees; which they have done, by ſpreading the plants into many parts of the nation, and by publiſhing free and unreſerved accounts of the beſt ways of their cultivation.—The great effects that we have experienced in relation to theſe particulars, were firſt owing to this noble and generous body.

Nor is there any branch of the mathematical literature but what has received more extraordinary helps and advancement from this learned corporation, than from any other whatever; and how far that hath contributed to the promotion of our commercial arts and trade, ſee our article MATHEMATICS.

But it would be endleſs to recount all the uſeful and important diſcoveries and improvements that this learned body have made for the benefit of the trade of theſe kingdoms: nothing leſs can do juſtice to them than an ample hiſtory of all their tranſactions; wherein we ſhall find that there is ſcarce any branch of trade, or any art or ſcience practiſed in Great-Britain, but hath received ſome advantage from this inſtitution.

This was a part of the aſſiſtance and information which they at firſt gave to others, to provoke them to enquire, and to order and regulate their inquiſitions. To theſe may be added the relations of thoſe effects of nature and art which have been communicated to them. Theſe have been infinite in number: all which have furniſhed judicious readers and artiſts, from time to time, with admirable hints to direct their obſervations. Among the vaſt heap of relations which abound in their entry-books, it is no wonder that ſome ſhould prove miſrepreſentations, and ſometimes deceptions of the relators. But this has never long occaſioned the propagation of miſtakes: nay, ſometimes the very erroneous accounts of others have been attended with ſome benefit; for as the minds of men are liable to miſtake falſhoods for truths, though they are ever ſo circumſpect, ſo they are often drawn by uncertain, and ſometimes erroneous reports, to ſtumble on truths and realities.

But if this way of general receiving all credible accounts of natural and artificial productions, ſhall ſeem to have been expoſed to over-much hazard and uncertainty, that danger has been removed, by the Royal Society's reducing ſuch matters of information into real and impartial trials, performed by their own hands. To which end it has been their uſual courſe, when they themſelves have appointed the trial, to propoſe one week ſome particular experiments, to be proſecuted the next, and to debate beforehand concerning all things that might conduce to the better carrying them on. In regard to which, it has been the cuſtom for any of the ſociety to urge freely what came into their thoughts or memories, either from the obſervations of others, or from books, or from their own experience. This is a moſt neceſſary preparation to any that reſolve to make a deep ſearch into nature, or any advancement in the uſeful arts.

It is impoſſible but they, who will only tranſcribe their own thoughts, and diſdain to meaſure or ſtrengthen them by the aſſiſtance of others, ſhould be, in moſt of their apprehenſions, too narrow and obſcure, by ſetting down things for general, which are only peculiar to themſelves: it cannot be avoided but they will commit many groſs miſtakes, and beſtow much uſeleſs pains, by making themſelves wilfully ignorant of what is already known, and what is concealed.

It was tried among the Ancients, to find out the pure and primitive language of the world, by breeding up a child ſo, that he might never hear any man ſpeak. But what was the event of that trial? Inſtead of obtaining that end, the child was made abſolutely dumb thereby. And the like ſucceſs will that philoſopher find, who ſhall expect that, by the keeping his mind free from the tincture of all others opinions, it will give him the original and uninfected truths of things. All knowlege is to be got the ſame way that a language is, by induſtry, uſe, and obſervation; it muſt be received, before it can be drawn forth. It is true, the mind of man is a glaſs, which is able to repreſent to itſelf all the works of nature; but it can only ſhew thoſe figures which have been brought before it. I know it may be here ſuggeſted, that they who buſy themſelves much abroad about learning the judgments of others, cannot be unprejudiced in what they think; but it is not the knowing, but the peremptory addiction to others tenets, that ſours and perverts the underſtanding: nay, to go farther, that man who is thoroughly acquainted with all ſorts of opinions, is much more unlikely to adhere obſtinately to any one particular, than he whoſe head is only filled with thoughts that are all of one colour.

Nor can diſcoveries of this nature be better conducted than by the joint labours of the whole ſociety. It were an intolerable burthen, if it were wholly caſt on the experimenters themſelves: for it is not only true, that thoſe who have the beſt faculty of experimenting are commonly moſt averſe to the reading books, and ſo it is fit that this defect ſhould be ſupplied by others pains: but alſo it would too much tire and waſte, or at leaſt divert their ſpirits, before they came to the main work; whereas the taſk being ſhared amongſt ſo great a number, becomes not much more than a buſineſs of delight. Well then, by this firſt comment and diſcourſe upon the experiment, he that is to try it being preſent, and having ſo good an opportunity of comparing ſo many other men's conceptions with his own, and with the thing itſelf, muſt needs have his thoughts more enlarged, his judgment confirmed, his eyes opened to diſcern what moſt compendious helps may be provided, what part of it is more or leſs uſeful, and upon what ſide it may be beſt attempted: the truths which he learns this way will be his pattern, the errors will be his ſea-marks, to teach him to avoid the ſame dangers; the very falſhoods themſelves will ſerve to enlarge, though they do not inform his underſtanding.

Thoſe to whom the conduct of the experiment is committed, being diſmiſſed with theſe advantages, do, as it were, carry the eyes and imaginations of the whole company into the laboratory with them; and, after they have performed the trial, they bring all the hiſtory of its proceſs back again to the teſt. Then comes in the ſecond great work of the aſſembly, which is to judge and reſolve upon the matter of fact.

In this part of their employment, they uſed to take an exact view of the repetition of the whole courſe of the experiment; here they obſerved all the chances, and the regularities of the proceeding; what nature does willingly, what conſtrained; what with its own power, what by the ſuccours of art; what in a conſtant road, and what with ſome kind of ſport and extravagance; induſtriouſly marking all the various ſhapes into which it turns itſelf when it is purſued, and by how many ſecret paſſages it at laſt obtains its end; never giving it over 'till the whole company has been fully ſatisfied of the certainty or impoſſibility of the effect.

This critical and reiterated ſcrutiny of thoſe things which are the plain objects of their eyes, muſt needs put out of all reaſonable diſpute the reality of thoſe operations which the ſociety ſhall poſitively determine to have ſucceeded. If any ſhall ſtill think it a juſt philoſophical liberty to be jealous of reſting on their credit, they are in the right, and their diſſentings are

always

always moſt thankfully received, if they be eſtabliſhed on ſolid works, and not only on prejudices or ſuſpicions. To the Royal Society it is as acceptable to be confuted as to diſcover, ſeeing, by this means, they will accompliſh their main deſign: others are inflamed, many more labour, and ſo the truth is obtained between them; which may be as much promoted by the contentions of hands and eyes, as it is commonly injured by thoſe of tongues.

The hiſtory of the experiments performed being thus ſecured by the ſociety, the next matter is their conjecturing upon CAUSES, which is a matter of no leſs delicacy than of general importance in experimental reſearches; and herein ſuch exquiſite diſcernment is required, that they have been cautious to ſhun the overweaning dogmatizing on cauſes on the one hand, and not to fall into a ſpeculative ſcepticiſm on the other; and whatever cauſes they have, with ſuch deliberation, found to hold good, they have ſtill made them increaſe, to the advance of ſcience, by further experimenting upon them: wherein though they have been, in many reſpects, very ſucceſsful, yet this has been owing to their great caution; becauſe they have not been over-haſty and precipitate in concluding upon the cauſes, before the effects have been ſufficiently ſearched into: for although the experiment has been the taſk of few, yet the conjecturing and debating on its conſequences has been the employment of their full and ſolemn aſſemblies. Experience in all ages has evinced that there never can be found, in the breaſt of any particular philoſopher, as much wearineſs and coldneſs of thinking, and rigorous examination, as is needful to a ſolid aſſent, and to a laſting concluſion in regard to matters of experimental ſcience: the wiſeſt men are apt to deceive themſelves into a certain confidence of the certainty of their knowlege.

On the other ſide, this doubtfulneſs of thoughts, this doubtfulneſs of concluding, which is ſo uſeful in this caſe, is ſo natural to a multitude of counſellors, that it is frequently urged againſt them as their inſeparable imperfection. It is not in theſe caſes that the moſt ſpeedy determinations will anſwer the end aimed at: here many delays are required; here he that can make a ſolid objection, or aſk a ſeaſonable queſtion, will do more ſervice than he who ſhall raſhly fix on an hundred ill-grounded reſolutions.

Nor has the ſociety been only fore-armed againſt this great inconvenience, they foreſaw it, and, therefore, have not regarded the credit of names, but things, preſerving to itſelf the liberty of refuſing or liking, and ſo advancing its ſtock, by a ſure and double increaſe, by adding new diſcoveries, and retaining ancient truths.

Another miſchief, againſt which this body have guarded in the great matter of CAUSES, is an eternal inſtability and averſion from aſſigning of any. Though at their firſt eſtabliſhment they were not daring in ſettling general concluſions, yet they laid no injunctions upon their ſucceſſors not to do ſo, when they had obtained a ſufficient ſtore of well-grounded experiments, whereon they might ſafely depend. Nothing ſound is to be expected from thoſe who will fix blindly on whatever they can lay hold on; and nothing great from them who will always wander, who will never leave diſputing; the one can produce nothing but unwholeſome and rotten fruits, and the other, for fear of that, will endeavour to have no harveſt nor autumn at all. It has been the conduct of the ſociety, that the way to arrive at advancement in true ſcience, a ſolid ſpeculation ſhould every day be more and more purſued; which is to be done by a long forbearing of ſpeculation at firſt, 'till all materials be ripe for it. They have never affirmed any thing of the cauſe, 'till the trial was paſt; whereas to do it before, ever proved a venemous thing in the advancement of ſciences; for whoever has fixed on his cauſe before he has experimented, can hardly avoid fitting his experiments and his obſervations to his prepoſſeſſed cauſe, rather than the cauſe to the truth of the experiment itſelf. But this ſociety have made little other benefit of the cauſes to which they have conſented, than that thereby they might have a firm footing, whereon new operations might proceed; and for a continuation and variation of the enquiry, the tracing of a falſe cauſe hath often conduced to the knowlege of the true. Thus it frequently happens to philoſophers as it it did to Columbus, who firſt believed the clouds that hovered about the continent to be the firm land; but this miſtake was happy, for, by ſailing towards them, he was led to his great diſcovery: ſo, by ſometimes proſecuting miſtaken cauſes, with reſolution of not giving over the purſuit, this learned ſociety have been guided to the truth itſelf.

There is nothing of all the works of nature ſo inconſiderable, or ſo fully known, but, by being made to reflect on other things, it will contribute to enlighten them, and ſhew itſelf the more conſpicuouſly. Such is the dependance amongſt all the orders of creatures, the inanimate, the ſenſitive, the rational, the natural, the artificial, that the right apprehenſion of one of them is a good ſtep towards the underſtanding of the reſt: and this is the higheſt pitch of human reaſon, to follow all the links of this chain, 'till all their ſecrets are open to our minds, and their works advanced or imitated by our hands!

Thus has this learned corporation judged, conjectured upon, and improved experiments, for the benefit of the uſeful arts.

But in thoſe that have come under their care, there is one thing more about which the ſociety has been ſollicitous; which is, the manner of diſcourſe and communication among the fellows, of which, had they not been watchful, the whole ſpirit and vigour of their deſign had been deſtroyed, by impertinent verboſity. The effects of a ſuperfluity of prating overwhelms moſt arts and profeſſions; this ſociety, therefore, have been rigorous in putting in execution the only remedy for this extravagance: they reject all amplifications, digreſſions, and ſwellings of ſtile, to return to the primitive purity, when men delivered ſo many things in an almoſt equal number of words.

By theſe wiſe meaſures the ſociety avoided the talkative jargon, and thereby have arrived at a wonderful ſcene of uſeful knowlege. They have likewiſe reduced its principal obſervations into one common ſtock, and laid them up in public regiſters to be nakedly communicated to poſterity, or ſuppreſſed, as by repeated ſcrutiny and trial they ſhall deſerve. By this, they have ever made a firm confederacy between their own labours, and the induſtry and ingenuity of future ages. If their predeceſſors, like theſe worthies, had continued to add, by little and little, to the ſtore of experimental knowlege; if they had endeavoured to have been benefactors to, and not tyrants over our reaſons; if our learned diſputants and wranglers had communicated more of their WORKS, and leſs of their WIT and PEDANTRY, they would have advanced, rather than eclipſed, the human knowlege, and ſolid ſcience would have been, ages before, propagated among mankind, to the proportionate increaſe of their felicity.

And as their purpoſe has always been to accumulate a mixed maſs of experiments, without digeſting them into any perfect model, ſo, to this end, they have confined them to no peculiar order of ſubjects; whatever they have recorded, they have not done it as complete ſchemes of ſcience or opinion, but as ſubſtantial materials, wherewith the great ſtructure of ſolid arts and true knowlege might be gradually, and not precipitately erected: for it is certain, that a too ſudden ſtriving, as their predeceſſors did, to reduce the ſciences, in their beginnings, into method, beauty, and ſyſtem, very much retarded their increaſe: for it happens to the invention of arts as to children in their younger years, in whoſe bodies the ſame applications that ſerve to make them ſtraight and comely, are often found very miſchievous to their eaſe, their ſtrength, and their growth.

By their fair and equal way of regiſtering the knowlege that has come before them, they have left room for their ſucceſſors to augment, to approve, to contradict them at their diſcretion. How unſpeakably beneficial to true ſcience this conduct hath proved, may be judged, by comparing the ſtate of ſcience before their time with its preſent. What wonders would not ſuch ſocieties have by this time produced, if they had been begun in the times of the Greeks and Romans, or even of the ſchoolmen? If our anceſtors, a thouſand or two thouſand years ago, had begun, in this manner, to have added gradually to the ſtorehouſe of true knowlege, what depth of nature could by this time have been hid from our view?

If in the firſt learned times of the Ancients, and all thoſe that followed after them, down to this day, their philoſophers had chiefly beſtowed their pains in making plain hiſtories of nature, and not in building up ſciences, without ſubſtantial materials for the purpoſe, how unſpeakably their ſucceſſors would have been indebted to them, is much eaſier conceived than can poſſibly be deſcribed. Perhaps, indeed, the names of ſome particular men who compiled thoſe ſyſtems and epitomes which they gave us, and which ever cramped true and general ſcience, would have been leſs glorious than they were; though that may be doubted, for we have reaſon to believe that theſe ages would have honoured a Plato, Ariſtotle, Zeno, and Epicurus, as much, if not more, than now they do, if they had only ſet things in a way of propagating EXPERIENCES down to us as the only TRUTHS.

But this matter of reputation was only the private concernment of five or ſix: as for the intereſt of thoſe times in general, we may venture to ſay, that, in all effects of true knowlege, they might have been as happy without thoſe bodies of arts as they were with them, logic and the mathematics excepted. To inſtance in their phyſics; they were utterly uſeleſs in reſpect of the good of mankind; they almoſt confeſſed as much, by reſerving their natural philoſophy for the retirements of their wiſe men. What help did it ever bring to the bulk of the people? What viſible benefit to any city or community in the world? Their mechanics and artificers, and huſbandmen (for whom the true natural philoſophy ſhould be principally intended) were ſo far from being aſſiſted by thoſe abſtruſe doctrines, that ſcarce any one of thoſe profeſſions has underſtood Ariſtotle's principles of bodies, from his own time down to ours. If, therefore, thoſe ages, inſtead of raiſing ſo many mere ſpeculative, and, in many reſpects, very idle and whimſical opinions, had only minded the laying of a SOLID GROUND-WORK, as our Royal Society has done, for a vaſt pile of experiments, to have been continually augmenting

through all ages, we ſhould have infinite more reaſon to revere and bleſs their memories than we have at preſent.

If ſuch a courſe had been at firſt ſet on foot, philoſophy would have been kept cloſer to MATERIAL THINGS, and would not have undergone ſo many eclipſes as it did. If we reckon from its firſt ſetting forth in the Eaſt, we ſhall find, that, in ſo long a track of time, there have not been above 400 or 500 years, at intervals, wherein it has been in any requeſt in the world. And if we look back on all the alterations of ſtates for theſe 3000 years, we may ſtill behold that the SCIENCES OF MEN'S BRAINS have been always ſubject to be far more injured by ſuch viciſſitudes, than the ARTS OF THEIR HANDS. What cauſe can be aſſigned for this? Why was learning the firſt thing that was conſtantly ſwept away, in all deſtructions of empires and foreign inundations? Why could not that have weathered out the ſtorm, as well as moſt ſorts of PRACTICAL ARTS AND MANUFACTURES, which, though they began as ſoon, or before the other, yet they have remained, through all ſuch changes, unaltered, except for the better? The reaſon of this is evident: it is becauſe philoſophy was made too ſubtile for the conceptions of men of buſineſs, who are the great ſupport of all communities. The philoſophers themſelves did, as it were, baniſh it out of the world, by confining it only within the ſhades of their walks. By this means, it was firſt looked upon as moſt USELESS, and ſo fit ſooneſt to be NEGLECTED: wherefore if philoſophy at firſt had been made more to converſe with the ſenſes, and to aſſiſt familiarly in all the occaſions of human life, it would, no doubt, have been thought needful to have been preſerved in turbulent, as well as ignorant times: it would have eſcaped the fury of the moſt barbarous people, as well as the arts of ploughing, gardening, cookery, making iron and ſteel, fiſhing, ſailing, and many more ſuch handicrafts have done.

But it is too late to lament this error of the Ancients, ſeeing it is not now to be repaired: it is enough that we gather from hence, that, by bringing philoſophy down to men's ſight and practice, and applying it to the numberleſs commercial arts of life, the Royal Society has put it into a condition of holding out againſt the invaſions of TIME, or even BARBARISM itſelf; that by eſtabliſhing it on a firmer foundation than the AIRY AND ENTHUSIASTICAL NOTIONS of men alone, upon all the WORKS OF NATURE, by turning it into one of the great and univerſal ARTS OF LIFE, of which men ſee there is daily need; this ſociety have provided, that it cannot hereafter be extinguiſhed, at the loſs of a library, at the overthrowing of a language, or at the death of ſome few philoſophers: but that men muſt loſe their EYES and HANDS, and muſt leave off deſiring to make their LIVES convenient or pleaſant, before they can be willing to deſtroy ſuch philoſophy, or ceaſe to revere and honour thoſe who are the zealous promoters of it.

After this learned body had received the royal confirmation of their inſtitution, the whole civil world entertained the higheſt eſteem and veneration towards their enterprize. In imitation of this SEARCHING SPIRIT, this affection to SENSIBLE KNOWLEGE, in England, other nations fell into the like kind of applications; and the moſt conſiderable effects of their endeavours throughout Europe have been generally recommended to the Royal Society of London by their authors, to be examined, approved, or corrected. This has brought great glory to our nation.

As France lies the neareſt to England in its ſituation, ſo that country has alſo been the neareſt to it in its zeal for the promotion of EXPERIMENTS. In that kingdom, the Royal Society has maintained a perpetual intercourſe with the moſt eminent men of art of all conditions, and they have mutually and generouſly communicated their knowlege, for the benefit of each other; and if the politicians of the two empires could have always as happily accorded, and have acted with as much unanimity for the real happineſs and welfare of both nations, as this kind of philoſophers have really done, the world would never have been as it has, and is likely always to be, diſtracted with eternal wars and bloodſhed. If the ſtateſmen of both kingdoms were actuated as much by the principles of benevolence towards mankind, as their reſpective experimental philoſophers have been: if theſe two nations had ſet the world as glorious an example of the love of peace, and the felicity of human nature, it is very likely that Chriſtendom in general might have enjoyed an uninterrupted ceſſation of halcyon days; for had theſe two ſtates acted in concert, upon ſuch noble and generous principles towards each other, they would have ſo awed the reſt of Europe, as ever to have prevented thoſe eternal broils that are daily ſpringing up among the various potentates. Such conduct among the men in power in both nations, would have proved a far more effectual preſervative for ſecuring the everlaſting peace of Europe, than even the project recommended for that intent by a learned French abbot, in the year 1712 *.

* See a tract, intitled, A Project for ſettling an Everlaſting Peace in Europe; firſt propoſed by HENRY IV. of France, and approved of by QUEEN ELIZABETH, and moſt of the then PRINCES of EUROPE, and now diſcuſſed at large, and made practicable.—By the ABBOT ST PIERRE, of the French Academy. This is a very curious and elaborate performance; and it would be very happy for mankind, if ſo great and glorious a deſign could ever be accompliſhed.

From the phyſicians, chirurgeons, and anatomiſts of France, our ſociety has received many faithful relations of extraordinary caſes; from their moſt judicious travellers, the fruits of their voyages; from their famous mathematicians, many advances in that branch of learning; from their chemiſts, the effects of their operations; and from others of their beſt obſervers, many rarities, and diſcourſes of their fruits, ſilk, wine, bread, plants, ſalt, and ſuch natural productions of their ſoil. And to inſtance once for all, our ſociety was affectionately invited by the French academy of Paris to a mutual correſpondence: in which invitation, there is one expreſſion, that ought not to be paſſed over in ſilence, That they have acknowleged the ENGLISH NATION to have many advantages for the propagating of REAL PHILOSOPHY, which are wanting to all others. This confeſſion is true: yet theſe advantages, unleſs they had been improved by the Royal Society, had been only as thoſe that we have had for FISHING, objections and arguments of our ſloth and ſupineneſs, 'till lately.—In return for theſe communications of the French, our Britiſh philoſophers have been no ways behind them, they have made ample retaliation; and the French and all the world, are not only highly indebted to great numbers of this learned body, as might eaſily be ſhown; but they have gratitude enough to acknowlege, that they owe more to one preſident of this ſociety, than to all the philoſophers that ever lived taken together: I mean the immortal Sir Iſaac Newton, the glory of the Engliſh nation, the eternal honour of the Royal Society of London.

From ITALY alſo, the Royal Society were at firſt earneſtly invited to a mutual intelligence, by many of their moſt noble wits, but chiefly by the prince Leopoldo, brother to the then Great Duke of Tuſcany, who was the patron, at that time, of all the inquiſitive philoſophers of Florence.

In GERMANY, and its neighbouring kingdoms, the Royal Society met with great veneration, and have had with them a conſtant intercourſe of philoſophical communication. For which kind of enterprizes, the temper of the German nation is admirably fitted, both in reſpect of their peculiar dexterity in all ſorts of manual arts, their profound knowledge in mineralogy and metallurgy, as well as in chemiſtry in general; and alſo in regard of the plain and unaffected ſincerity of their manners, wherein they ſo much reſemble the Engliſh, that we ſeem to have derived from them the compoſitions of our minds, as well as to have deſcended from their race.

In the LOW-COUNTRIES, their intereſt and reputation have alſo been eſtabliſhed, by the laſting friendſhip of their chief learned men, and at firſt principally of Huygens. This gentleman beſtowed his pains on many parts of the ſpeculative and practical mathematics, with wonderful aſſiduity, and particularly his applying the motion of pendulum clocks and watches, was an excellent invention. In the proſecution of ſuch diſcoveries, he often required the aid of our Royal Society; and he received the lights of their TRIALS, and freely admitted their alterations or amendments. And this learned correſpondence with him, and many others in theſe countries, has been continued down to this day. Even during the breach between Charles II. and the States-General, the traffic of ſciences was uninterrupted, when all other commerce was ſtagnated.

In ſhort, moſt civilized nations, and eſpecially thoſe that enjoy any tolerable ſhare of trade, have now philoſophical ſocieties of this kind eſtabliſhed in their reſpective countries, for the advancement of theſe arts in particular, which have any connexion with their commercial intereſts and uſeful ſciences: and all thoſe learned bodies at Berlin, Muſcovy, Denmark, and Sweden, &c. preſerve a conſtant correſpondence with our Royal Society at London, pay the higheſt regard to their judgments in all philoſophical and mathematical diſquiſitions, and always expreſs great veneration for thoſe peculiar members of that body, who have eminently diſtinguiſhed themſelves in knowlege of this nature.

But not to wander farther in particulars; it may with great truth be ſaid, that no ſociety ever received greater honours than our Royal Society from all foreigners, who have had a taſte for any branch of ſolid ſcience.—All foreigners, men of letters, the nobility, ambaſſadors, and foreign princes that have travelled here, have all viſited the Royal Society, as one of the moſt illuſtrious inſtitutions belonging to the whole kingdom. From hence they have returned home, with a free engagement of their aſſiſtance; the men of learning aſſuring it of a contribution of their labours, and the ſtateſmen and princes of their authority and endeavours, in ſatisfying all philoſophical queries, with which they have been plentifully furniſhed.

It would be an uſeleſs pomp to reckon up a catalogue of their names, eſpecially ſeeing they are recorded in the regiſters of the ſociety. It will not be amiſs, however, to mention the viſit of one prince to them, becauſe it may afford us a profitable obſervation. When the duke of Brunſwick and Lunenburgh was introduced into their weekly aſſembly, and had

hd ſubſcribed his name to their ſtatutes, there was, according to cuſtom, one of the fellows appointed to interpret to hin, what experiments were produced and examined at that meting. But his highneſs told them, that it was not necéary they ſhould put themſelves to that trouble, for he well unerſtood our language, having been induced to the ſtudy of it, out of a deſire of reading our philoſophical books. Frm whence, ſays biſhop Spratt, there may this concluſion bemade, that if ever our NATIVE TONGUE ſhall get any grund in Europe, it muſt be by augmenting its EXPERIMENTAL TREASURE. Nor is it impoſſible, but as the FIMININE ARTS of PLEASURE and GALLANTRY have ſpread ſome of our neighbouring languages to ſuch a vaſt extert, ſo the ENGLISH TONGUE may alſo in time be more enlarged, by being the inſtrument of conveying to the world the MASCULINE ARTS of KNOWLEGE.

We ſhall now relate what encouragement this inſtitution has received at home in its native ſoil. As the original of this ſocety met with a general approbation within ourſelves, the moſt judicious of all profeſſions and intereſts, their reverence to the firſt trials and intention; ſo our moſt wealthy merchants and citizens in particular, have aſſiſted it with their preſence; and thereby have added the induſtrious and active genius of men of traffic, to the reſerved and ſedentary temper of men of learning. They have contributed their labours, helped their correſpondence, employed their factors abroad to obtain anſwers to their enquiries in foreign parts; they have laid out in all countries for obſervations, they have beſtowed heretofore many gifts on their treaſury and repoſitory. There is one bounty chiefly that deſerves applauſe and imitation. It is the eſtabliſhment made by Sir John Cutler, for the reading on mechanics, in the place where the Royal Society ſhall meet. This was the firſt lecture that was founded of this kind, amidſt the vaſt munificence of ſo many benefactors to learning in our country; and yet in a trading country, this was the moſt neceſſary of all others. For this chiefly cauſed the ſlow progreſs of manual arts; that the TRADES themſelves have never ſerved apprenticeſhips, as well as the TRADESMEN; that they have never had any MASTERS ſet over them, to direct and guide their works, or to vary and enlarge their operations.

Of our phyſicians, many of the moſt judicious have contributed their purſes, their hands, their judgments, their writings. This they have moſt generouſly done, though they have alſo in London a college peculiar to their profeſſion; which ever ſince its foundation, for the ſpace of about 250 years, has given the world a ſucceſſion of the moſt eminent phyſicians of Europe. In that they confine themſelves to the advancement of medicine; in this they have alſo with great zeal and ability promoted an univerſal inſpection into all NATURAL KNOWLEGE.

Of our nobility and gentry, the moſt noble and illuſtrious have condeſcended to labour with their hands, to impart their diſcoveries, to propoſe their doubts, to aſſiſt and defray the charge of their trials. This they have done with ſuch an univerſal agreement, that it is almoſt the only one thing, wherein the nobility of the three kingdoms have been united. This laid a good foundation for removing their prejudices towards each other.

Of our miniſters of ſtate at home, and our ambaſſadors abroad, moſt of them have been fellows of the Royal Society, and theſe latter eſpecially have been wont to beſtow pains in foreign courts, to collect relations and ſecrets of nature as well as of ſtate.

Our great captains and commanders have inrolled their names amongſt this illuſtrious number, and regarded theſe ſtudies, which are not, as other parts of learning, to be called the ſtudies of the gown; they as well becoming the ſoldier, as any other way of life. Nor have our moſt renowned GENERALS neglected the opportunities of philoſophical enquiries, even in the midſt of their greateſt enterprizes, on which the fate of kingdoms has depended. They have been furniſhed with inſtruments and directions by the Royal Society, and amidſt the tumults of war and government of fleets, they have found leiſure to make ſome trials of experiments: which WORKS as much excel that of DECLAIMING, which ſome of the ROMAN GENERALS uſed in their camps, as it is better to DO than to TALK well.

Of our churchmen the moſt diſtinguiſhed, by the conſtant patronage and aſſiſtance they have afforded the Royal Society, have confuted the falſe opinions of thoſe men, who believe that philoſophers muſt needs be irreligious: on the contrary, the wiſeſt and moſt learned among that reverend body have declared their opinions, that the greatneſs of the Divine Majeſty is beſt to be worſhipped, by the honouring and obſerving of nature, which is the univerſal miniſter of his almighty power. The ſearching into the works of nature, while it delights and enlarges the human underſtanding, and ſtrikes us with the ſtrongeſt aſſurance of the wiſdom and power of the divine architect, in framing for us ſo beautiful and well-regulated a world, does at the ſame time convince us of his conſtant benevolence and goodneſs towards us.

Before the art of philoſophical experimenting took place, ſcarce any thing prevailed but vain imaginations, whimſical conjectures, preſumptuous hypotheſes, and wretched reveries of every ſort; and theſe were uſhered into the world, and gilded over with the reſpectable name of philoſophy. Not ſuch is the philoſophy of the Royal Society, but as different therefrom as light from darkneſs, as reaſon from abſurdity, or truth from error.

From the more obvious powers of nature, we are led by this philoſophy, aided by the mathematical diſquiſitions, to penetrate into the powers of nature, and ſo to apply her divine principles to the acquiſition of every branch of uſeful knowlege. By the principles of attraction and repulſion, we view the ſmalleſt particles of matter, endowed with a mighty power of action; whence enſues that variety of properties and phænomena, depending on the figure, ſize, motion, and action, of the conſtituent parts of bodies. Thus we diſcern, that by the particles of matter attracting each other, they cohere with various degrees of firmneſs, according to their tangibility, by a greater or leſſer quantity of ſurface; which all variety of bodies does, with different degrees of conſiſtence, from the hardeſt to the ſofteſt, from the moſt fixed to the moſt fluid bodies.—By theſe principles alſo we are ſhewn, that on the ſeparation of the particles of matter beyond the ſphere of attraction, there commences a repulſive power, by which they mutually repel each other, and acquire their elaſticity. Hence the force of elaſtic fluids is accounted for on the principle of a centrifugal force, actuating the ſeparated parts of matter.—On this part of philoſophy, depends the ſolution of the phænomena attending the various proceſſes of chemiſtry; why ſolid bodies diſſolve in fluid menſtruums, and fluid ones become hard; why heavy bodies are ſuſpended in lighter fluids, and the opake, by ſolution, rendered tranſparent. Hereby are pointed out the methods of analyſing natural bodies, and diſcovering their component parts. Whence infinite diſcoveries in art and nature, are brought to light for the uſe of arts and trade.

This philoſophy alſo leads to the interior receſſes of the earth; ſuggeſts to us the manner how minerals and metallic ores are generated [ſee the articles MINERALS and METALS]; how ſulphureous, ſaline, and mercurial principles, produce the variety of mineral waters; why ſome are hot or others cold. [See the articles PYRMONT and SPA WATERS] Why the phænomena of earthquakes, and the eruptions of vulcanoes.

By the nature and laws of fluids, we ſee what is neceſſary to conſtitute matter a fluid ſubſtance, and how ſuch act upon ſolids, and what relates to their ſpecific gravities, the quantity and force of preſſure, why things ſink or ſwim, the nature and uſe of the hydrometer, the hydroſtatic ballance, and the whole ſcience of hydroſtatics.

Before this philoſophy became to be ſtudied, with what uncertainty did we grope after the origin of ſprings and fountains? We knew nothing of the theory of aqueducts, or the reaſon why water roſe in a pump; the ſuſpenſion of mercury in the barometer was a myſtery; nor could we account for the action of that ſimple inſtrument the ſyphon, or common crane: much leſs could we eſtimate the force of ſpouting fluids, or ſay what the action of the air muſt be to move the ſails of a mill. And as to the theory of the tides, that was indeed vulgarly adjudged to be the effect of the moon, but, according to what ſteady laws it is effected, was a matter too incomprehenſible for any to inveſtigate, but a preſident of our Royal Society, a NEWTON, the ELDEST SON of wiſdom, as the ingenious Mr Martin elegantly ſtiles him.

Then as to the doctrine of winds, this philoſophy accounts for their phænomena upon the plaineſt principles; and ſhews why ſome are conſtant, why others are periodical and alternate; and why in great latitudes, the winds are uncertain, both as to their immediate cauſe, as well as to the point of the compaſs from whence they blow.

The nature and theory of ſounds, and in conſequence the ſcience of harmony, was a myſtery 'till true philoſophy brought it to light; and this was not 'till our Newton's days. From him we learn the true cauſe of ſounds, and trace them from the tremulous body, through all the elaſtic aërial undulations, to the curious mechaniſm of the ear. From him we are taught why ſome are loud, others low; ſome obtuſe, others acute; and ſome more agreeable than others. Hence all the grounds of melody and muſic are derived, the rationale of muſical proportion, the harmonical diviſion of lines, the ſtructure of organs, harpſicords, and other muſical inſtruments, are all the reſult of this philoſophy.

If we look into the vegetable world, what amazing ſcenes does philoſophy preſent to our view! The generation of plants was quite myſterious and incomprehenſible, 'till philoſophy ſhewed us each in its embryo pre-exiſtent ſtate, and convinced us that plants of every kind were completely included in the ſeed of each proceeding plant; and ſo the whole tribe were all contained and included in infinite miniature, in one original ſeed: this is a moſt wonderful diſcovery, and incredible to vulgar minds.

Philoſophy next apprizes us of the curious and exquiſite apparatus of parts, for the production of embryo-plants. The ſcene here lies in the flower, whoſe delicate attire is deſtined not only for beauty and fragrance, but principally for the purpoſes of generation. To this end ſerve the ſtamina, with

their apices and included farina, the ſtylus and matrix, with its included ſeed; which latter part makes all that agreeable variety of fruit, ſo deſirable and delightful to the taſte.

By our philoſophical reſearches, we have been enabled to make great improvements in the knowlege of the make and ſtructure of the bodies of plants and trees: we ſee the wondrous ſyſtem of the attracting capillary veſſels, which imbibe and draw up the ſap, or nutritious juices of the earth, by means of the roots, and which is conſtantly perſpired off by the leaves. Beſides theſe, we find other veſſels deſtined to ſupply the plant with air; and aſtoniſhing it is to conſider, how each annual ſyſtem of air and ſap-veſſels (which makes the annulus or ringlet of wood, by which the tree does each year increaſe its bulk) unravel and expand itſelf from the bark, in which all the bulk or lignous part of the tree, is originally contained. Theſe and many other curious and engaging ſpeculations in botany, we owe entirely to the invention of optical glaſſes, and conſequently to our favourite ſcience philoſophy.

But in nothing is the excellence of philoſophy ſo conſpicuous, as in its ſublime diſcoveries relating to the nature and ſtructure of animal bodies, and the uſe of the ſeveral parts. By this ſcience we are taught the divine laws of animal mechaniſm; not in the low nonſenſical notion of the Carteſians, who conſider animals as mere machines, devoid of life or ſenſation: on the contrary, true philoſophy repreſents an animal fabric as one of the nobleſt works of God, in which dead matter is made to live, inert matter is rendered capable of action and motion; matter abſolutely devoid of any ſenſitive faculty, endowed with various powers of ſenſibility, in different modes, and almoſt infinite degrees. But above all, to conſider how this inanimate, inert, inſentient ſubſtance, ſhould be conſtructed with faculties rendering it capable of mind and thought, is the moſt myſterious and amazing ſpeculation! This fixes the bounds to philoſophical enquiries; hitherto can we go, but no further. Bold preſuming man may as well pretend to make an animal, as to account for its powers and functions. Theſe are all the works of infinite wiſdom, whoſe judgments are unſearchable, and ways paſt finding out.

But however inſcrutable the origin of an animal may be, the laws by which the ſeveral animal functions are governed, and the vital actions performed, are the proper ſubjects of philoſophy; and though the cauſe, the manner, and intimate texture of moſt parts of animal bodies, are latent and incomprehenſible, yet it is great ſatisfaction to think we are admitted to the knowlege of the offices, uſes, and ends of the ſeveral parts, and the general œconomy of animal nature, which is one of the moſt agreeable and ſublimer leſſons of philoſophy.

Thus we are ſhown the nature, make, and diſpoſition of the bones, and how they give firmneſs and ſtability to the body. We are next taught the ſtructure and uſe of the muſcles, for giving motion and ſtrength to the parts; though the modus agendi (or muſcular motion) be among the number of nature's arcana. We have lately been inſtructed in the true uſe and deſign of that noble organ the heart, the primum mobile of animal nature; from hence we learn the origin and uſe of that wonderful ſyſtem or compages of veſſels we call arteries and veins for circulating the blood and animal fluids through every part of the body, for the grand and final purpoſe of nutrition.

Beſides theſe, we find another wonderful apparatus of veſſels or parts we call nerves, which have their origin from the brain and marrow, and are appointed by nature the inſtrumental cauſe of ſenſation to animals. Thus the optic branch is deſtined for viſion, the auditory nerves for hearing, the olfactory pan for ſmelling, the nerves ſpread over the tongue and palate for taſting, and all the other nerves, minutely ramified through all the body, for the general ſenſe of feeling. But the immediate cauſe of this nervous ſenſation, whether by means of a fine ſubtle fluid, called animal ſpirits, paſſing through the hollow fibrillæ of the nerves, or whether by means of a ſubtile æthereal ſpirit acting upon the ſolid capillamenta, or whether this great work of nature be any otherways effected, is as yet a matter concealed from human intelligence.

But whatever be the cauſe thereof, it is, without all doubt, derived from the noble viſcus the brain: for the brain is manifeſtly of the glandulous kind, and the uſe of the glands is to ſecrete the various juices deſtined to ſerve the various purpoſes of animal life. Thus the liver ſecretes the bile, the pancreas, the pancreatic juice, the kidnies ſtrain off the urine, the breaſts collect the milk, the teſtes ſecern and prepare the ſemen, and other glands the lymphatic liquor. By ſuch wondrous contrivances are the operations of life carried on, and the animal functions perfected through the determined period of duration for each reſpective ſpecies.

In ASTRONOMY we owe every great improvement to philoſophy; we hereby know the nature of circular and elliptic motion, and the laws which govern bodies moving in theſe or any other orbits; we hence learn all the anomalies of motion in a ſyſtem of bodies, and can ſettle the theories for calculation. Hence the places, poſition, aſpects, tranſits, occultations, eclipſes, and other affections of the heavenly bodies, become known for any given time, paſt, preſent or to come.

In CHRONOLOGY, we are guided by the unerring hand of philoſophy. We thence get a true idea of time, and the only juſt methods of meaſuring it, and dividing it in a natural and proper manner. By this means our periods and cycles, our years and days, become conſtant and certain; which would otherwiſe be vague and unſettled, and induce a general confuſion in our accounts, and thereby embaraſs the occurrences of life.

In NAVIGATION and GEOGRAPHY [ſee thoſe articles NAVIGATION and GEOGRAPHY], great and manifold are the uſes of philoſophy. From thence we learn the ſize, dimenſions, and figure of the earth; and by the diſcovered properties of the wonderful ſtone, are enabled to navigate the ſpacious ſeas, with much certainty and ſafety. Hence a communication and commerce with other nations and people, is opened unto us; we are hereby made, as it were, proprietors as well as inhabitants of the earth: and moſt of the wealth and commodities of life, are owing to this philoſophical improvement of the natural properties of wind and water.

Yea, GEOMETRY itſelf is but the philoſophy of the magnitude and dimenſions of natural bodies, and their various proportions and relations to each other on that account: and no one who underſtands any thing of the modern Newtonian matheſis, can deny, that its very firſt principle (viz. the doctrine of fluxions) conſiſts in the doctrine of motions, and velocity of the generating powers of bodies: and therefore, every mathematical ſcience is, in its general nature, purely philoſophical: and it would be very eaſy to ſhew, that ſome of the moſt perplexed propoſitions of geometry are demonſtrated with the greateſt eaſe by philoſophy; and that ſome problems, impracticable by the geometrician, are ſolvable with the greateſt facility and exactneſs by the philoſopher.

In OPTICS, what variety of the moſt curious inventions and ſtructures of inſtruments has of late flowed in upon us! Scarce a year or month can paſs, not pregnant with optic diſcoveries and contrivances; and yet none of theſe inventions, none of theſe machines, owe their origin to any other ſource than philoſophy. It is this ſcience alone that diſcovers, not only why a microſcope can aſſiſt the eye to diſcern ſmall objects, or a teleſcope diſtant ones, but it enables the artiſt to give the beſt form to his glaſſes, and to diſpoſe them in the beſt manner, in the ſtructure of theſe and other inſtruments, to anſwer the ends propoſed. And who can ſay to what limits this growing ſcience may yet extend, under the conduct and direction of our philoſophical ſociety?

We need not ſay, that PERSPECTIVE, DIALLING, or the art of ſhadows in general is purely philoſophical. Theſe arts conſiſt only in the various repreſentations and optical views of nature: and to repreſent things under the ſame appearance and reſpective relation which they have to each other, requires no ſmall art or ſkill in philoſophy. How little do we eſteem a mere mechanic dialiſt, who knows nothing of the reaſon or philoſophy of his art; who ſets the ſtyle of a dial pointing to the pole, for no other reaſon, but becauſe he cannot make it ſhew the hour in any other poſition?

PAINTING, as it conſiſts in an exact imitation of nature, by a judicious mixture of colours, and a proper diſpoſition of various tints, lights, ſhades, &c. muſt be pronounced a philoſophic art, whoſe theory depends on the moſt refined principles of this ſcience. A perſon by a thorough ſkill in this doctrine of light and colours, might almoſt make a picture a priori: how natural, genuine, and excellent muſt that portrait be, which is executed by a hand, whoſe every motion is directed by the dictates of preſiding ſcience!

GUNNERY, or the doctrine of projectiles, is, perhaps, the only art whoſe principles are purely philoſophical throughout; and that yet has not received all the advantage it is capable of from this all-perfecting ſcience. 'Till Sir Iſaac Newton's time, all that was wrote on this ſubject was errant jargon: ſince him, we have had many pieces on the parabolic hypotheſis, whoſe theories are founded in vacuo, and vacuous theories they are indeed: their authors not underſtanding true philoſophy, could not inſtruct mankind in the principles of gunnery; and this is but too well known an inſtance of the fatal conſequences that attend either the ignorance or neglect of philoſophy, in the momentous affairs of life. However, ſomething conſiderable has already been done, and more may be expected, to give the engineer all the advantages he can poſſibly have from the preſent matheſis and philoſophy. See the article MATHEMATICS.

In PHYSIC and SURGERY, the whole field of philoſophy, in its utmoſt extent, is concerned [ſee the article QUACK]: for, on the one hand, if we conſider the human body as a ſyſtem of ſolids and fluids in motion, this will require, at once a thorough knowlege in all the laws of motion, of action and re-action, of attraction and repulſion, of every mechanical principle and power, the hydroſtatic and hydraulic laws of fluids, and every other principle of nature's agency in one, who has the care of ſuch a noble machine to keep it in order, and to rectify it when out.

And what ſhall we more ſay? For the time would fail us to ſpeak of anatomy, and of botany, and of agriculture, and of

gardening, and of every mechanical and manual art and trade alſo, even down to brewing and baking [ſee the articles BREWING and BAKING], whoſe profeſſors and artiſts by the various improvements and precepts of philoſophy, have been enabled to explain to us the animal œconomy, the nature of vegetation, the culture of plants, the improvement of land [ſee the article MANURE], the manufacture of goods [ſee the article MANUFACTURER], and meliorating the methods of procuring and preſerving our bread and our meat, our beer and our wine [ſee the article WINE]. And it may be ſhewn, that a man in every vocation, in every employment of life, has occaſion enough for the aſſiſtance of this ſcience; and that in every occupation no artiſt can execute and ſucceed ſo well as he that keeps cloſe to nature, and beſt underſtands her operations, which is all we have to underſtand by philoſophy.

If then all that has been ſaid be true, (and who will ſay it is not?) if philoſophy be of that importance to mankind, as has been ſhewn it is, we need not wonder to ſee the wiſe and knowing part of our ſpecies, in every age, have ſo great an opinion of ſuch a ſcience, and ſo deſirous of being initiated into its myſteries. How ardent were the purſuits of Plato, Pythagoras, Socrates, Ariſtotle, Seneca, and other ſages of antiquity, after philoſophy, even in its infant ſtate? But to ſee and enjoy it in its preſent glory and perfection, to which it has aroſe ſince the time of the ROYAL SOCIETY, what ſtudies would have been too arduous, what voyages too dangerous, what climates too diſtant, for thoſe champions of wiſdom not to have undertaken, with the greateſt alacrity and pleaſure?

It is very remarkable, that whereas other arts and ſciences give only a poliſh to mankind, and make them expert and ingenious, this of philoſophy, in a peculiar manner, confers not only the higheſt delight, and the moſt tranſporting pleaſure to the mind, but even happineſs itſelf. The attribute of philoſophy is felicity by general conſent: thus the inſpired penman—Happy is the man that findeth wiſdom.—Thus Virgil too,

Fœlix qui potuit rerum cognoſcere cauſas.

An idea of ſuch ſocieties, peculiarly adapted to the general improvements of all the COMMERCIAL ARTS.

It would be endleſs to urge all that might be ſaid upon a topic of ſuch infinite extent, and of ſuch infinite utility to mankind in general. If we have ſaid enough to give Britons ſome idea, though a very glimmering and imperfect one, how highly they are obliged and indebted to all gentlemen, who have made any advancement in theſe the moſt excellent and the moſt uſeful of all ſciences, and more particularly to that moſt learned and honourable ſociety, that has produced a ſucceſſion of the ableſt philoſophers that ever lived: if, from what has been ſaid, we have removed the prejudice of ſome towards this noble inſtitution, and ſtrengthened the good opinion of others, this will be no ſmall ſatisfaction; but that is not all that I would humbly intend: the principal motive with me, is not only to give a faint diſplay of the merit of all who have ſucceſsfully applied themſelves to theſe ſtudies, but to convince the public, that not only the conſtant preſervation, but the conſtant increaſe and advancement of THE WHOLE COMMERCE OF THE THREE KINGDOMS, DEPEND UPON DULY ENCOURAGING AND HONOURING THOSE WHO EXCEL IN ANY BRANCH OF THESE SCIENCES THAT TENDS TO THE BENEFIT OF TRADE AND NAVIGATION, AND TO THE GLORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE: for if once theſe ſtudies become neglected and unfaſhionable among us; if the ſtudents therein are diſregarded, and meet with no honour or emolument ſuitable to the important nature of their applications, theſe ineſtimable ſciences will be left only to the men of figure and fortune; and how few the number of theſe have been, when compared with thoſe of another condition, is well enough known; and how few of theſe have met with any recompence ſuitable to their merit is equally notorious.

Indeed in the time of Sir Iſaac Newton, and a few years after, the mathematical and philoſophical ſtudies were in high eſteem; and, becauſe it was the mode of the times to have ſome knowlege therein, they were pretty generally purſued: but the gentleman and man of buſineſs, in the general, have not ſo ardent a taſte, or indeed leiſure ſufficient, ſo to apply themſelves as to make any great proficiency in what has been well known for above this century paſt; and therefore ſuch, in the general, cannot be expected to have greatly contributed to the advancement of philoſophy; to do which, certainly requires uncommon talents, and greater ſeverity of application than one gentleman among thouſands will beſtow; and although among the learned profeſſions, more eſpecially among the moſt learned clergy and phyſicians, there have aroſe many excellent mathematicians and philoſophers, who have contributed to the improvement of ſound philoſophy; yet, even among theſe, there have been but very few that have excelled in compariſon to the number who conſtitute theſe learned bodies; and thoſe who have made any extraordinary proficiency, lived in the times when theſe ſtudies were more in vogue, and in higher veneration than they ſeem to be at preſent. In ſhort, had it not been for the Royal Society of London, (among whom there has always been, and I hope there always will be, a moſt laudable emulation to advance philoſophy) it is greatly to be feared we ſhould have few philoſophers capable of making conſiderable improvements therein, except in our univerſities; and in thoſe noble ſeminaries too, philoſophy is not ſo generally and ſo zealouſly purſued as it was 50 years ago. And here few derive any great advantage from theſe ſtudies, except the capital profeſſors, and the ordinary tutors to young people of diſtinction, who ſometimes, by virtue of their office, and friendſhips contracted with their pupils, obtain handſome preferment in the church; but philoſophy now-a-days ſeems to be as little the road to extraordinary preferment in the church, as in the ſtate, though it is the great ſupport of both.

It is well enough known, and I hope it has been well remembered by thoſe whoſe duty it is not to forget it, that, in the late war, we had no extraordinary choice of able engineers, while our enemies had numberleſs: we had very few then; and a gentleman that would have approved himſelf, perhaps, one of the ableſt in all Europe, was long neglected; and although he was deſervedly recommended to his late royal highneſs the prince of Orange, in order to ſave Bergen-op-Zoom, yet he came too late, and was, on his return, ſtill diſregarded, 'till the Eaſt-India company had occaſion for his ſervice: but his heart being almoſt broke before he was provided for ſuitably to his diſtinguiſhed merit, it is no wonder that he did not long ſurvive the generous preferment he at length met with. It would be no difficulty to give many more inſtances of gentlemen of real merit in philoſophical ſtudies, who have reaſon to complain of the difficulties and diſcouragements which they have met with: many a cobler, I am afraid, lives more comfortably than ſome able mathematicians and philoſophers, who, if duly contenanced by the great, might be made happily inſtrumental to improve and advance the commercial arts of this kingdom.

For my own part, I frequently lament the low condition of many of thoſe gentlemen; nor can I but think there may be ways and means eaſily found out to provide for them, in a manner ſuitable to their talents, and that in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to promote our commercial arts in particular, by the courſe of their ſtudies being duly planned out and regulated by a committee of the ROYAL SOCIETY, appointed for that purpoſe: for I would humbly propoſe to make this illuſtrious corporation ſtill more and more ſerviceable, if poſſible, to the ſtate, than it has been; and this, we conceive, may be done with no leſs glory to themſelves, than honour and emolument to the kingdom.

Nor would I only preſume to ſuggeſt the manner how, under the direction, management, and controul of the Royal Society, ſuch ſtudents in particular may become more uſeful to the nation than they are at preſent, but how this celebrated body may, in other reſpects alſo, become inſtrumental to a ſtill further advancement of all arts that are ſubſervient to the intereſt of our trade and navigation. And this is ſubmitted to be done, by enabling the Royal Society to confer ſuitable rewards and honours on all working mechanics, artiſans, and manufacturers, who ſhall make any capital improvements in their ſeveral branches, and the like on thoſe who ſhall make any important advancement in the arts of agriculture, or any thing connected therewith, as farming, grazing, nurſerying, mineralogy, metallurgy, &c.

That ſomething of this nature is really wanting in England at preſent, and that to be under the conduct of ſo learned and ſo experienced a body, ſeems to be obvious from hence; that in Ireland we find they have long ſince inſtituted what they call the Dublin Society, which conſiſts of a number of private gentlemen, and traders of eminence and fortune, who have by themſelves, and their influence among their friends and perſons of diſtinction, raiſed a fund by voluntary ſubſcription, for the promotion of induſtry and labour among the poor, and for the advancement of manual arts, whereon commerce depends; and the remarkable ſucceſs with which the endeavours of theſe gentlemen have been crowned, ſhould have ſome weight, methinks, with us in England, to think of the eſtabliſhment of a well conſtituted ſociety for this, as well as the other laudable purpoſes of philoſophical improvements, for the benefit alſo of the trading part of the kingdom; for whatever uſeful improvements are made in the latter, the former will be certain to reap all the benefit and advantage by them: every artificer and mechanic, every manufacturer and farmer, every tradeſman and merchant, as well as every landed gentleman and nobleman, will thereby become gainers, and the nation in general the more and more proſperous and powerful: and the more eſpecially ſo, if all proper meaſures be taken by the governing ſociety, to propagate among the people all thoſe diſcoveries that ſhall be made, either by new inventions, or by the improvement of the old, in the plaineſt and moſt intelligible manner, that theſe diſcoveries may not remain only in the hands of a few, but be diſſeminated through the nation, for the common benefit of all.

That England ſhould ſeem to be ripe for the reception of, and the people well diſpoſed to promote and encourage, a proper inſtitution of this nature, may be reaſonably enough inferred,

ferred, from the ſpontaneous conduct of ſeveral bodies of people among us at this time: I mean that laudable and numerous ſociety who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the title of ANTIGALLICANS, and who have voluntarily and liberally raiſed a fund among themſelves, in order to diſtribute as premiums, to thoſe who ſhall excel in any of the mechanical or manufactural arts, for the benefit of our commerce.

In imitation of this public-ſpirited body of gentlemen and tradeſmen, we find likewiſe, by repeated advertiſements in our public news-papers, addreſſed 'To THE PUBLIC, That 'ſome of the nobility, clergy, gentlemen, and merchants, 'having at heart the good of their country, as their adver-'tiſement expreſſes, have lately met together, in order to 'form a ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, 'and commerce in Great-Britain, by beſtowing rewards, 'from time to time, for ſuch productions, inventions, or 'improvements, as ſhall tend to the employing of the poor, 'to the increaſe of trade, and to the riches and honour of 'this kingdom, by promoting induſtry and emulation, &c.'

The advertiſement further informs, that 'Though at preſent 'their plan is not completed, it has nevertheleſs been re-'ſolved to make a beginning, in manner following: that is 'to ſay, cobalt having been already diſcovered in ſome parts 'of this kingdom—for producing ſpecimens, not leſs than 'ten pounds in weight, for the beſt in quality, to be produced 'on or before the 15th day of January next, with ſatisfactory 'certificates of the place where found, and reaſonable aſſu-'rances that it may be obtained in quantity, 30l. — To be 'determined that day fortnight.

'For raiſing and curing the moſt and beſt madder for dying, 'in this kingdom, not leſs than twenty pounds in weight, of 'which ſamples to be ſhewn, with ſatisfactory certificates, 'on or before the 15th day of January, in the year 1756, '30l.—To be determined that day fortnight.

'For the beſt drawings by boys and girls, under the age of 'fourteen years, and proof of their abilities, on or before the '15th day of January, 1755, 15l.

'Likewiſe for the beſt drawings by boys and girls, between 'the age of fourteen and ſeventeen, with like proof of their 'abilities, on or before the ſame day, 15l.

By order of the ſubſcribers,

WILLIAM SHIPLEY.

'☞ Cobalt is a mineral found in mines of copper, lead, ſil-'ver, tin, and iron, in Sweden, Germany, and other coun-'tries: it has likewiſe been found in Cornwall, and may pro-'bably be diſcovered in other places in this kingdom. It is a 'heavy ſubſtance, ſometimes of a blackiſh, but more com-'monly of a bluiſh-grey, ſome of its parts inclining to a ſil-'ver colour, and that with much variety, according to its 'mixture with metals, ſtoney, or other matters: it has alſo 'ſometimes on its ſurface a red efflorescence, which is called 'the flowers of cobalt.

'The teſt of cobalt is, the ſtaining glaſs blue in fuſion, and 'producing arſenic and zaffer, from which ſmalt is made.

'Thoſe who may find what anſwers the above deſcription, 'and are ignorant of making an aſſay, are adviſed to apply 'to ſome ſkilful perſon, as uncautious trials with this mineral 'are dangerous.'

Further REMARKS on the greater utility of the ROYAL SOCIETY, to arts, manufactures, and trade, than it ever has been.

It ſeems to be the temper of the public, at preſent, to cheriſh and encourage ſuch a deſign, which makes it needful, at this juncture, to think of it in earneſt. The above advertiſement acquaints us, that the plan of thoſe patriots is not yet completed; and that of the Antigallicans is but in its infancy; and therefore the public ſhould not be wanting to avail itſelf of theſe happy diſpoſitions in the people; and inſtead of dividing themſelves into various independent and disjointed bodies, it would be more eligible, perhaps, to unite their ſubſcriptions and donations, and put the ſame under the government of one body, duly qualified and experienced to point out what is neceſſary to be done for the conſtant advancement of the commercial arts of every kind, to diſtribute the premiums according to merit, and receive all intelligence and information from practical artiſts and traders, of the difficulties their reſpective arts and trades may labour under; to the end that this grand body may deliberate and determine, with their united knowlege and judgment, what meaſures ſhall be needful for them to take, from time to time, in order to aid and aſſiſt all artiſts to bring ſtill to greater and greater perfection their reſpective arts and trades.

Now, while the Royal Society of London ſubſiſts in its preſent ſplendor and dignity, with its preſent conſtitution, and under the royal ſanction and authority; ſuch an illuſtrious corporation, abounding with perſons of the firſt-rate knowlege and experience in all philoſophical reſearches, ſhould ſeem to be the only fit body to undertake the chief controul and management of all thoſe ſmaller bodies that appear diſpoſed to advance the commercial arts, by the aid of their voluntary ſubſcriptions and donations: for, without any diſparagement to other worthy and judicious bodies, this ſociety may be preſumed to have all the knowlege requiſite to point out the beſt methods of improving the mechanical and manufactural, and all other arts whereon trade depends; and, therefore, they ſhould ſeem the propereſt to be inveſted with the diſtribution of rewards for the encouragement of perſons to excel therein.

If any private ſocieties ſhould unite, in order to raiſe ſums of money among themſelves, for the promotion of the like good ends, thoſe ſocieties may depute ſome of their more intelligent members to confer with the Royal Society, from time to time; by which means theſe benefactors will, in effect, have the diſtribution of their own donations as much in their own power as they would otherwiſe, with this difference, indeed, they would have the advantage of the advice of that learned body to aid and aſſiſt them in carrying their good intentions the more effectually into execution. Nor is it improbable, if the public were to requeſt the Royal Society to take this trouble upon them, but the members thereof might not a little contribute with their purſes, as well as with their ſtudies and their experiments, to forward ſo laudable a ſpirit.

Another advantage that would attend this matter being inveſted in the Royal Society is, that the public could have no reaſon to be under any apprehenſion that any pſeudo-artiſt, any pick-pocket pretenders to knowlege, ſhould impoſe upon them; becauſe nothing could come before them but ſome of their members would be thorough judges of, and they being wiſe experimenters themſelves, and habituated to judge of theſe things with due circumſpection and accuracy, it would be very difficult, if not next to impoſſible, to deceive them: a man may as well have the confidence to paſs upon them lead for gold, or French coin for pure ſterling money, as a falſe experiment for a true one; whereas among other private bodies of gentlemen, however public-ſpirited their intentions may be, yet, if they have not been converſant and familiar with philoſophy, both in the theoretical as well as experimental part, they can neither give proper directions for trials to be made, in order to anſwer any capital purpoſe, nor can they be proper judges of many when laid before them.

Was it not needleſs to ſay more, I might further urge, that this renowned ſociety conſiſts of a numerous body of perſons of the firſt diſtinction in the kingdom; many of whom, though it ſhould be ſuggeſted, they may not themſelves be competent judges of ſome things that may come before them, yet they will always be good judges how the public money is beſtowed, and prevent its embezzlement or miſapplication. Nor can there be the leaſt fear of any thing of this kind, while a noble lord preſides over this ſociety, who is not leſs conſpicuous for his profound knowlege in philoſophical diſquiſitions, than for his diſtinguiſhed honour in every relationſhip.

I have dwelt the longer upon this article, thinking the advancement of the commercial arts a matter of the laſt conſequence to a commercial ſtate. And although ſome might imagine, that a ſum to be annually raiſed by voluntary ſubſcription for this purpoſe, would amount to but a trifle, and not worthy the attention of the Royal Society; yet I am inclined to believe that a mighty eaſy way might be ſuggeſted, and no way diſagreeable to the public, to raiſe, for a certainty, 20 or 30,000l. a year for ſo good a deſign, beſides what might ariſe by voluntary ſubſcriptions.—But if ever any thing of this nature ſhould be thought of in earneſt, the many wiſe in this kingdom will ſtand in no need of any intimation from me how to obtain a proper fund for ſo popular an occaſion. The great Colbert of France, who was prime miniſter under Lewis XIV, uſed to declare, That he thought he ſpent his time well in reading over a hundred propoſals for the advancing the wealth and commerce of France, though but one of them deſerved to be encouraged. And while other nations are ſtudiouſly cultivating the arts of commerce, we ſhall hardly think them undeſerving our regard, while our whole dependence is upon them.

A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE PROGRESS OF THE ABOVE SOCIETY for the encouragement of ARTS, MANUFACTURES and COMMERCE, inſtituted at London, anno MDCCLIV.

In the ANCIENT and USEFUL ARTS of AGRICULTURE and HUSBANDRY.

The Society have conſtantly offered honorary premiums of gold and ſilver medals, for planting of acorns, cheſnuts, elms, firs, and Weymouth pines, in different quantities, and for fencing and preſerving the ſame effectually, in order to raiſe timber, ſo eſſential for the ſervice of the navy, and wood for domeſtic uſes in building, &c.

The great utility of the cultivation of theſe trees is ſo obvious, and indeed has been ſo well conceived by our nobility and gentry, that it will be ſufficient to remark, that the premiums have been claimed, from time to time, by perſons of the higheſt diſtinction.

The cultivation of madder, which is a root of great uſe in dying, has been encouraged by the Society's premiums from the firſt year of their inſtitution: it was formerly planted in England in great quantities, but of late years had been wholly diſcontinued, the Dutch having conſtantly ſupplied us with this valuable article; and it is computed that the imports of madder from Holland have amounted for

ſome

ſome time paſt to 200,000 pounds *per annum*; but under the ſanction of the Society the growth of this plant is revived, and very large quantities are now cultivated by ſundry perſons in different parts of this kingdom; one perſon in particular has planted 29 acres, and the premiums offered by the Society are regularly claimed; ſo that in a very ſhort time we ſhall have no occaſion to ſend to Holland for a vegetable, which will thrive as well in our own country.

The other articles in huſbandry which have been encouraged by the Society are, the raiſing apiaries; for which both honorary and pecuniary premiums are offered: the quantity required for the firſt premium, being eighty pounds, is no leſs than four hundred ſtocks in hives or boxes, and before the Society threw out theſe premiums, no perſons ever thought of poſſeſſing ſuch a ſtock of bees—Several ſorts of fodder, particularly lucerne, have been cultivated with great ſucceſs; and laſtly, hemp, the growth and preparation of which in this kingdom, for the making of ſail-cloth and cordage, is of very conſiderable importance, has been greatly encouraged, and the premiums claimed in ſeveral counties.

POLITE ARTS.

The Society ſet out with giving premiums for drawings by boys and girls: theſe have ſince been extended to various ages, and to different kinds of drawing, too numerous to ſpecify in this place; and honorary premiums of gold and ſilver medals have been eſtabliſhed, and claimed, for drawings by young ladies, the daughters of peers and peereſſes.

Through the encouragement given by the Society to this art, drawing is become a branch of education; and as a great many of our manufactures, which depend on correctneſs and elegance of deſign, are annually exported to foreign countries, the improvement of theſe, which will be the reſult of encouraging our youth to learn this art, muſt in time prove a national advantage.

In the year 1757, premiums were offered for modelling, which are ſtill continued; and this art has been greatly improved amongſt us, ſeveral excellent ſpecimens in clay, and in wax, having been preſented to the Society, in conſequence of their premiums. The great benefits ariſing from the improvement of this art, to the ſtatuaries, ſculptors, &c. is too well known to require a detail.

Etching and engraving, and caſting in bronze, all of which have their various well-known uſes, have been conſiderably improved under the ſanction of this Society; and premiums for theſe articles are ſtill offered.

In 1758, premiums were publiſhed for the encouragement of the medallic art, and the ſubjects propoſed and executed have been, ſome of the moſt glorious events of the late war: as theſe medals are ſtruck from ſteel dies, an extenſive benefit is derived from improvements in this branch, which is not known in general; a variety of articles in hard ware, as etwees, ſeals, &c. of which vaſt quantities are exported, are likewiſe ſtruck from ſteel dies, and therefore all improvements of them muſt prove beneficial to theſe manufactures by increaſing the variety of deſigns or patterns.

Hiſtory and landſcape painting have likewiſe been encouraged, and alſo ſtatues and baſſo relievos in marble; by which many young artiſts and ſome maſters have been induced to produce ſuch performances in each branch, as have done honour to the Society under whoſe ſanction they have been produced.

Engraving on gems has been encouraged with ſucceſs; and ſeveral other articles of inferior note, but which are all uſeful in their kind.

CHEMISTRY, MINERALOGY and DYING.

Premiums have been offered for ſundry preparations and improvements in theſe very uſeful arts, and are ſtill continued: thoſe which have been particularly improved or eſtabliſhed, and for which premiums have been paid, are, verdigris uſed by the dyers, the making of which from Britiſh materials has been ſo far eſtabliſhed to the ſatisfaction of the Society, that the premium is diſcontinued. White enamel, in imitation of the Venetian, has been produced, and a manufactory eſtabliſhed in England, in conſequence of the premiums thrown out for this article.

Premiums have likewiſe been claimed for improvements in dying cloth and ſilk in grain, and for dying cotton ſcarlet, or crimſon in grain, and to anſwer the purpoſes of the Turky or India red. Specimens of improvements of varniſh, to anſwer the ends of Martin's at Paris, have been brought in for the premium offered for this article, and are now under examination; and alſo a compoſition to prevent ſteel from taking ruſt: the making ſalt petre of pig and bar iron, ſal ammoniac, a ſubſtitute for borax, &c. are ſubjects for which premiums are offered under this head; and it is not to be doubted but that conſiderable improvements will be made in every branch of theſe commercial arts.

MECHANICS.

The firſt articles in this claſs which the Society encouraged by premiums were improvements in wind and water mills, models of which have been produced to the Society, and are kept in their repoſitory.

Premiums were likewiſe offered for improvements in ſpinning-wheels, and this year a complete ſpinning-wheel has been produced, with which one perſon may ſpin ſix threads at a time, and it will prove very ſerviceable to ſeveral of our manufactures by ſaving a number of hands; but an article of much greater conſequence lately brought to perfection is, the erecting of a ſaw-mill for ſawing of planks, the model of which has lately been purchaſed by the Society for one hundred pounds, and is now lodged in their repoſitory: this machine is worked by water, and carries ſixteen ſaws: from this model various mills may be conſtructed for the ſame purpoſe.

Bounties have alſo been granted for ſeveral uſeful inventions and improvements in mechanics, which have from time to time been laid before the Society, particularly improvements in reels for winding ſilk, a new invention of a machine for planing caſt iron, eſteemed very curious and uſeful; and ſeveral other things of leſs conſequence. To this curſory review of the Society's ſucceſs in the purſuit of the firſt part of their plan, the encouragement of arts, I have only to add, that they have a repoſitory conſiſting of a variety of models, machines, &c. ſome of which have been preſented to the Society; others have been depoſited in conſequence of their premiums and bounties; and ſeveral have been purchaſed of the inventors or improvers for the benefit of the public; and as this repoſitory is continually increaſing, either by donations from gentlemen, or in conſequence of premiums and bounties, they may in time form a collection equally uſeful and extenſive.

The ſecond branch propoſed to be encouraged by this Society is,

MANUFACTURES.

Several valuable manufactures have been improved, and ſome actually eſtabliſhed, through the patronage of this Society.

In the year 1755, premiums were offered for making buff leather for the uſe of the army; in conſequence of which, bullocks hides were dreſſed in oil, and were found to be as good as the hides of buffaloes imported from abroad: lord Romney introduced the uſe of this leather among the Kentiſh militia, and it has ſince been approved by ſeveral regiments.

In 1756, the Society offered a premium for making carpets in England in imitation of thoſe made in Turkey and Perſia, which have been brought to very great perfection by Mr. Moore, in Chiſwel-ſtreet, Moor-fields, who produced to the Society a carpet in many reſpects equal, and in ſome ſuperior, to thoſe imported from Perſia and Turkey.

A manufactory of crucibles made of Engliſh materials, has been eſtabliſhed by Mr. Leiberick in Weſtminſter, in conſequence of a premium publiſhed by the Society for that purpoſe.

Marble paper, which has hitherto been imported from Holland, chiefly for the uſe of bookſellers and ſtationers, has been brought to ſuch perfection this preſent year, as in every reſpect to equal the Dutch; and the firſt premium offered for this article has been claimed by, and granted to, the manufacturer, who reſides at Exeter.

Paper for rolling-preſs printing has likewiſe been conſiderably improved by means of the encouragement given by this Society: the French excel in this article, and their impreſſions from copper plates are more perfect than ours; but we have lately manufactured a quantity of this paper nearly equal in quality to the French.

Quilting in the loom, in imitation of Marſeilles or India quilting, has been eſtabliſhed in this country, and brought to great perfection, under the patronage of the Society, and the premium has been claimed and adjudged.

The making of flowers of point lace, after the manner of Bruſſels lace, having been encouraged, great improvements have been made therein, and the premiums have been claimed and granted.

Premiums have been publiſhed for making chip hats, which have thereby been conſiderably improved, and the premiums have been granted accordingly.

Alſo great encouragement has been given to the manufacturers of druggets, ſpecimens of which were produced, ſo excellent in their kind, that the premium is diſcontinued.

Theſe are the principal manufactures that have flouriſhed under the ſanction of the Society, and have rendered this part of their plan of equal utility with the encouragement of arts.

The encouraging of improvements in arts and manufactures, has ſo direct a tendency to the ſupport of commerce, that little remains to be ſaid on this head, which completes the plan of our laudable Society: however, ſeveral articles in

COMMERCE

Have been greatly improved by means of their premiums, eſpecially in our colonies.

The planting of white mulberry trees, whoſe leaves are the proper food for ſilk worms, has been promoted by premiums;

ums; and great quantities of cocoons, being little balls or bags on which the incloſed ſilk worms have ſpun the ſilk, have been produced to the Society's correſpondents in the colonies, who have paid the premiums that have been claimed for this article.

The importation of raw ſilk from the colonies has likewiſe been promoted by premiums, which are ſtill continued.

A premium is alſo offered for producing wines in our American colonies, and ſome ſamples have been ſent over of both red and white, which were greatly approved of in the Society; but as the time for granting this premium does not expire till 1765, we may expect further improvements, and that ſuch wines will be produced as ſhall deſerve the reward of one hundred pounds.

The cultivation of hemp, of the olive and cinnamon trees, of aloes, ſafflower, &c. in the colonies, is encouraged by ſuitable premiums, and various other articles to be imported from thence; amongſt which the importation of pearl-aſh has been effected this preſent year, though not in ſuch large quantities as to merit the premium; but the proprietor has been honoured with the Society's gold medal, in conſideration of what he has already done towards promoting their intentions with reſpect to this commodity.

And ſo large a field is opened in the colonies, for carrying on the laudable deſigns of this Society, that it is impoſſible to ſet bounds to the advantages that may one day ariſe, from affording this encouragement to our fellow ſubjects in America, eſpecially if it be conſidered that our poſſeſſions in North America are ſo extenſive, that they include almoſt all the different climates of the world; and there is the greateſt reaſon to imagine that moſt of the ſpice trees, plants, and other valuable articles, which at preſent are peculiar to the eaſt, may be cultivated in the weſt.

Having now given an account of the principal public advantages ariſing from the premiums and bounties granted by the Society for the encouragement of ARTS, MANUFACTURES and COMMERCE,

I have only to add, that this reſpectable body at preſent conſiſts of between two and three thouſand members, and that their proceedings are carried on with the utmoſt candour, propriety, and decorum, by means of a well-digeſted ſet of rules and orders, which are printed for the uſe of the members, the ſubſtance of which I ſhall endeavour to comprize in as few words as poſſible.

THE OFFICERS of this Society are, the preſident, the vice-preſidents, of whom there are ten, the ſecretary, aſſiſtant ſecretary, regiſter and collector: theſe are choſen annually by ballot. The election of a new member is likewiſe by ballot: he may be propoſed by a member, at any meeting of the Society, and be balloted for at the next meeting, when, if two thirds of the members then preſent ballot in his favour, he is deemed a perpetual member on payment of twenty guineas, or a ſubſcribing member on payment of any ſum not leſs than two guineas, ſo long as ſuch payment is annually continued.

Their meetings are held in their great room oppoſite Beaufort buildings in the Strand; and they meet every Wedneſday at ſix in the evening preciſely, from the ſecond Wedneſday in November to the laſt Wedneſday in May; and in the intermediate time, on the firſt and third Wedneſday in every month: theſe are called ordinary meetings, beſides which, there are eight general meetings every year, and ſome occaſional extraordinary meetings.

When the Society is ſitting, the preſident or preſiding member conducts the buſineſs of the evening agreeable to the book of rules and orders which lies on the table before him: the buſineſs begins with reading the minutes of the preceding meeting, which being once read, are on a ſecond reading to be diſcuſſed if neceſſary, article by article, before any other ſubject is conſidered: all the minutes which are not objected to on the ſecond reading, ſtand confirmed: after this the reports from committees are read, and agreed to or diſapproved; unleſs a motion is made and ſeconded to poſtpone the reports, in order to introduce any new propoſition, which cannot be received after ten o'clock: if ſuch motion ſo ſeconded is carried by a majority of hands held up in ſupport of it, then the new propoſition is immediately conſidered, being firſt delivered at the chair in writing; and in this, and all other caſes, the greateſt freedom of debate is allowed, and carried on with the utmoſt decency and candor, every member being patiently and attentively heard without interruption, unleſs he departs from any order of the Society, or ſpeaks more than once to the ſame queſtion, which is not permitted, unleſs a gentleman has been miſunderſtood, and deſires to explain himſelf: when any member ſpeaks, he ſtands up and addreſſes himſelf to the gentleman in the chair, and the reſt remain ſilent: no limitation of time is preſcribed to the ſpeaker, but few exceed ten minutes, except on very extraordinary occaſions; and moſt gentlemen, for the ſatisfaction of ſo large an auditory, ſpeak as audibly as poſſible.

There are nine ſtanding committees, and two chairmen to each committee, beſides which there are occaſional committees for miſcellaneous ſubjects: to theſe committees are referred the ſeveral ſubjects properly falling under their conſideration, as letters, to the committee of correſpondence, polite arts, to the committee of polite arts, &c. and every member is of every committee, though particular gentlemen are nominated to each committee.

Theſe are the principal regulations that have not been already noticed in the courſe of this narrative, which I cannot more aptly conclude than with a ſincere and fervent prayer, "that "this moſt free and independent Society, inſtituted FOR "THE PUBLIC GOOD, may long continue to do honour "to its patrons, and that its preſent moſt excellent plan "with all poſſible improvements may be handed down to "poſterity, and by them be ſacredly revered, and firmly "upheld with the reſt of thoſe ineſtimable privileges, which "have rendered us ſuperior to all the nations of the "earth."

RUM, a ſpirituous liquor, often uſed in punch: it is made in the Weſt-Indies, of ſugar-canes, and is, in the general, of a ſtronger body than brandy, i. e. it contains a larger quantity of oil, and leſs phlegm and ſalt: its oil is leſs attenuated and ſubtilized, whereby its volatile ſalts are more embarraſſed and ſheathed up. Neither is its oil reduced to ſuch minute and ſubtile particles, either becauſe the canes were leſs fermented with the water, or becauſe the oil and ſalt of this cane are more viſcid and groſs, than thoſe of the moloſſes drawn from the ſugar, which has undergone the ſundry neceſſary operations, and has been thoroughly fermented afterwards. For although all thoroughly fermented liquors afford much more ſpirit, in proportion to their body and kind, than the leſs fermented; yet it is certain, that the ſundry operations ſugar undergoes in the making, may, and does break, attenuate, ſeparate, and divide the principles in the moloſſes (though the groſſeſt of the ſugar) more than theſe ſame principles exiſting in the crude cane, where the firm union of the groſs oil and ſalt makes the unprepared ſugar of almoſt a loathſome luſcious taſte. And alſo all liquors, thoroughly fermented, have, during the fermentation, a free acceſs and communication with the external air; whereby the inteſtine motion is promoted, and the ſmalleſt and moſt ſeparable parts are too much attenuated and reduced to a ſubtile aura, which exhales to the depauperating of the liquor of much of its fineſt parts; hence it yields leſs (though a ſubtile) ſpirit.

That rum which is of a browniſh, tranſparent colour, of a ſmooth, oily, grateful taſte, of a ſtrong body and conſiſtence, of a good age, and well kept, is the beſt. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taſte, is either too new, or daſhed with ſpirits.

To ſuch palates and ſtomachs as can bear it, rum is certainly preferable to brandy, either for a dram or punch, in many caſes. Brandy (e. gr.) is diuretic, becauſe it ſtimulates the veſſels, and rarefies the blood, whereby only its finer and more ſerous parts are ſtrained off by the kidnies; but rum not only ſtimulates by its ſalts, but lubricates by its more and groſſer oil, and thereby expands and dilates the renal lateral veſſels; whereby not only the thinner, but alſo the groſſer and more excrementitious parts of the blood, are allowed a ready paſſage through the renal ſtrainers, and get off by the ureters.

Again, when the veſſels are ſluggiſh, and the blood ſizy, brandy promotes perſpiration in a gouty habit, and forces off part of the ſalts by urine, as it at the ſame time carries much eſſential vegetable ſalt into the blood; but rum ſoftens and dilates the veſſels more; hence a freer perſpiration both of ſalts and ſeroſities, as well as a diſcharge by urine; and at the ſame time it conveys leſs ſalt into the blood, and its more and groſſy oil ſheaths the remaining acrimony of the blood; which anſwers two valuable intentions. 1. It thereby dilates the corrugated capillary veſſels, wherein the gouty matter was ſtopped and lodged, and the relaxation of the veſſels gives nature an opportunity to pour in thinner fluids upon theſe gritty lodgments and ſharp matter, whereby they are diluted, diſſolved, thruſt forward, and expelled by the excretory ducts of the ſkin. 2. It blunts the edges of the pointed pricking ſalts, and obtunds the reigning acrimony, makes it leſs uneaſy to the patient, 'till the elaſtic veſſels can attenuate, ſeparate, and diſſolve it, ſo as to be either perſpired or thrown back into the blood, 'till it arrive at and be ſtrained off by the kidnies.

In nephritic pains and gravelly caſes, where the veſſels are always much contracted, and ſometimes inflamed, the uſe of rum is preferable to that of brandy, becauſe it relaxes the contraction more, increaſes the ſtream of urine, and makes way for the obſtructed matter to paſs off, or be forced and waſhed out of the channels. Bilious conſtitutions can bear the uſe of rum, diluted with water, better than brandy, becauſe their ſolids being elaſtic and contracted, and their veſſels narrow, and fluids acrimonious; for whatever blunts the acrimony of their juices, and ſoftens and dilates their fibres and veſſels more, muſt be beneficial. On the contrary, whatever adds to the ſtimulation and contraction of their ſolids, and the ſharpneſs and ſaltneſs of their fluids, muſt unavoidably be hurtful. All ſuch as have elaſtic fibres, contracted veſſels, ſharp and thin juices, lean and ſlender bodies, if they will be meddling with drams (which, if they prefer health and long

life to taſte and luxury, they ſhould uſe but as medicines, i. e. from neceſſity, not choice or pleaſure) ſhould prefer rum. Hard drinkers, who have broken their conſtitutions by frequent debauches, will have a moderate dram, that will not only raiſe, but preſerve the tone of the ſtomach, maintain and ſtrengthen good digeſtion, and keep them from being too much damped: here rum ſhould take place of brandy; not only becauſe it fills and invigorates the nervous tubes with leſs volatile and more durable ſpirits, but, at the ſame time, its oil blunts the points of the ſalts, which other liquors have left too plentiful in the blood.

In chronical aſthmas, coughs, and ſtuffing of the lungs, if any moderate dram may be allowed, rum is the beſt, becauſe its ſpirits are leſs volatile, its oil more and groſſer, to ſmooth the ſtiff and contracted veſſels, expand their ſides, make way for ſpitting, and, by its ſolid particles, clearing the tubes of ſome parts of their load.

In choleric diſorders, from acrimony, pricking, paining and tearing the nervous threads, rum offers fairer for relief than brandy, becauſe it is more oily, ſmooth, and ſoftening. It is alſo more ſuitable to old age, becauſe, at the ſame time it ſtimulates, it alſo lubricates and dilates the veſſels, whereby they keep longer open and paſſable, the ſtraitening, ſhutting up, and coaleſcence of which, is the only cauſe of old age and natural death.

In recent great colds, without a fever, rum is more ſerviceable than brandy, provokes both perſpiration and urine more powerfully, as it ſheathes the ſalts, makes their ſtimulus leſs ſenſible, and contracts the veſſels leſs, nay, its ſulphur ſmooths and dilates them more.

When the perſon is very hot and thirſty, a dram of rum is much better to drink than brandy, before water, ſmall beer, or milk; for this keeps the veſſels more pliable, dilated, and lax, maintains a freer courſe for the fluids to paſs without lett or ſtoppage: for the miſchief done by water, or ſuch ſmall liquors, in this caſe, is, being drank cold, they ſuddenly contract the veſſels, ſo as the liquids cannot paſs; their fineſt and thinneſt parts are diſcharged through the interſtices, or forced along the tubes, whilſt the more groſs are obſtructed, fixed, and wedged in; hence obſtructions, ſtagnations, inflammations, ulcerations, or mortifications, or ſchirrhus's, and carcinomatous tumours of ſome viſcera of the lower belly.

But for theſe reaſons, phlegmatic and corpulent people muſt ſtill allow brandy the preference, becauſe it ſtimulates more, and raiſes a greater contraction; for it abounds more with ſalts, and its oil is more ſubtile, exiſts in ſmaller particles in the liquor; and their veſſels and fibres are ſo ſoaked in inſipid humidities, and relaxed with oil, that they want no lubrication, nor the ſalts in their blood any abſorbent. Cachectic, hydropic, lethargic, and paralytic perſons, muſt alſo chuſe brandy on the ſame account; and ſo muſt thoſe who have furred-up veſſels and foul glands (which raiſe ſcrophulous knots, œdematous ſwellings, whether fixed or ſhifting) for the ſpirits of brandy being more fine and ſubtile, they rarefy the blood, and ſtimulate the veſſels more. In exceſſive hot weather, when the fibres are much relaxed, and perſpiration, or ſweat, profuſe, brandy muſt have the precedency, becauſe it ſtimulates and contracts more, and rarefies the thick and ſizy matter better, raiſes a briſker motion in all the juices; though it muſt be owned, that theſe its good effects are but of ſhort ſtanding.

In a moiſt, foggy, or marſhy air, where the moiſture hangs upon the ſkin, and ſtraitens or ſtops the mouths of its excretory ducts, and diminiſhes perſpiration, or where the ſpring of the air is weakened or broke, ſo that it neither expands itſelf ſufficiently in our lungs, food, nor blood, but renders the juices both ways ſizy, a dram of brandy is better than rum.

But in an infected air rum is before brandy, becauſe it leaves more oil in the mouth and throat, which entangles and imbibes the infectious effluvia, or miaſmata, floating about and hanging in the atmoſphere, and ſucked in together with the air; and in this caſe, the greateſt preſervative is to ſpit out all our ſpittle whilſt we are in that infected air.

Rum being a ſpirit procured from the fermented ſcummings, waſte, and refuſe matters of a primary ſugar-houſe, that immediately works the ſugar from the cane, differs from a ſugar ſpirit, as containing more of the natural flavour, or eſſential oil of the ſugar-cane, a deal of the raw juice, and parts of the cane itſelf, being often fermented in the liquor, or ſolution, whereof the rum is prepared.

The unctuous flavour of rum is often ſuppoſed to proceed from the large quantity of fat uſed in boiling the ſugar; which fat indeed, if coarſe, will commonly give a diſagreeable, nidorous, or oily flavour to a ſpirit, as I have found by experience; but rum has its ſpecific and natural flavour from the cane.

When a ſufficient ſtock of theſe refuſe materials is procured, they are fermented in the common method, though always ſlowly at the beginning of the ſeaſon of making rum in the iſlands, for want of yeaſt, or other fermenting matter, to ſet the liquor at work; but, by degrees, they procure a ſufficient quantity of the ferment, which ſpontaneouſly riſes as a head in the operation: and thus they come, in a little time, to ferment and produce their rum with great expedition.

When the waſh is fully fermented, or to a due degree of acidity, the diſtillation is carried on in the common way, and the ſpirit made up proof, though ſometimes advanced nearer to alcohol, or the ſtate of double proof; in which caſe they call it double-diſtilled rum.

It may be otherwiſe rectified to advantage, as it is commonly firſt drawn with a full doſe of high-flavoured oil in it, which requires to lie, or digeſt for a long time in the ſpirit, before the whole becomes ſoft and fit for uſe; whereas, were it to be well rectified, it would grow mellow much ſooner, and have a much leſs potent flavour, which ſometimes renders it diſagreeable.

The beſt ſtate to keep it in, both for exportation and otherwiſe, is, doubtleſs, that of alcohol, unleſs when the groſs oil is required in it, for the ſake of mixing and covering; and, by duly throwing out its oil, it may be brought nearly to the flavour of a fine ſugar-ſpirit, or arrac, as a very ſmall proportion of it, uſed in its natural ſtate, to a fine taſteleſs ſpirit, will give it a flavour bordering very near upon that admired in arrac.

This ſpirit is uſually very much adulterated in England, with one or other of the cheaper ſorts; even a rectified malt-ſpirit, if uſed in moderation, much leſs a moloſſes, or ſugar-ſpirit, being not eaſily diſtinguiſhable therein.

The ways of trying its goodneſs are the ſame with thoſe mentioned under brandy [ſee BRANDY and DISTILLATION.] In this, and moſt other reſpects, it ought to be conſidered as a brandy of a particular ſpecies; ſo that what is delivered in regard to brandy will be alſo applicable to rums: for though the ſugar-cane differs from the vine, yet the ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance whereto both the juice of grapes and the juice of the ſugar-cane are, by the ſame art, reducible, fits them to afford wines and brandies that ſhall not be readily found to differ; which is a pregnant hint, that may prove of unſpeakable advantage to the Britiſh ſugar colonies. See the articles SUGAR, SUGAR COLONIES. See alſo the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE at the end of this letter R.

RUSSIA, or MUSCOVY, is bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean; on the eaſt by Great and Chineſe Tartary, and part of the Japonic Sea; on the ſouth by the Calmuc and Cuban Tartary, Perſia, Georgia, and the Caſpian and Euxine Sea; and on the weſt by Poland and Sweden. Its extent from eaſt to weſt, that is, from the confines of Sweden to thoſe of China, is computed, by ſome geographers, to be 1500 leagues; and from north to ſouth, that is, from the Frozen Sea to the Euxine, 600; though others differ in their accounts: the whole country, however, lies between the 46th and 70th degree of north latitude, and in ſome parts eaſtward reaches even beyond it, and between the 30th and 160th of eaſt longitude.

Ruſſia may be divided into Weſtern and Eaſtern, Tartarian and Laponic, and the late conqueſts in Aſia.

I. In the WESTERN MUSCOVY are the following provinces: 1. PLESKOW, or PSKOW. 2. GREAT NOVOGOROD. 3. TWERA. 4. RZEVA, or RESCHOW. 5. BIELA, or BIELSKI. 6. SOMOLENSKO. 7. SEVERIA. 8. CZERNICHOW. 9. VORSTIN. 10. REZAN.. 11. BIELGOROD. 12. MORDOA, &c. 13. NISINOVOGOROD, or LOWER or LESSER NOVOGOROD. 14. VOLODIMER. 15. SULDAL. 16. Moscow. 17. ROSTOW. 18. YEROSLAWLA. 19. BILIJESORA, or BELOZERO. 20. VOLOGDA. 21. CARGAPOL, OWEGA, &c. 22. DWINA.

II. In the EASTERN are the provinces of, 1. MEZON. 2. JUGORA, or INGORSKI. 3. CANDORA and TEESCA. 4. PETZORO, or BORANDAI. 5. The country of the VOGULISI. 6. PERMIA. 7. OUSTIONG. 8. ZIRANIA; and, 9. VIATKA, or VIADSKAI.

III. In the MUSCOVIAN TARTARY are thoſe of, 1. CASAN, or CAZAN. 2. BULGARA. 3. BASKIRIA. 4. ASTRACAN. 5. SIBERIA; and, 6. SAMOIEDA.

IV. In the RUSSIAN LAPLAND. 1. MURESMANROI, or MARITIME LEPORIA. 2. TERSKOI LEPORIA. 3. MORESKI LEPORIA; and, 4. NOVA ZEMBLA.

We ſhall not, in ſo large a territory, enter into a minute deſcription of theſe diſtinct provinces, many of which afford little trade, but give the beſt general ſtate of this trade that we can.

As the Czarina is now miſtreſs of a vaſt extended dominion, there muſt neceſſarily be a great variety in the trade of ſo many countries; and yet, as they are all under the management of one ſovereign, ſo they are, by an extraordinary conduct, brought at laſt to run, as it were, in one general channel; which was the effect of the exquiſite conduct of the late Czar Peter, emperor of Ruſſia.

The Muſcovite dominions are ſomething wonderful in their ſituation, and which qualifies them for commerce with almoſt all the world, in a manner which no empire but this can boaſt of.

They have a communication with four parts of the world, by ſeas ſo remote from one another, that nothing can be ſhewn like it in the whole globe; and, in the obſerving this, we ſhall be able with the greater eaſe to deſcribe the prodigious commerce they now carry on.

1. They have the port of Archangel, in the White Sea, as it is called by ſome, the Frozen Sea by others; and by this they have a navigation to the nothern ocean, can fit out ſhips to Spitſbergen (Groenland) and, by the north cape, into the German and Caledonian Oceans, and may ſend ſhips to any part of America, paſſing by the north of Scotland and Ireland, with as great eaſe as the Dutch, who go north about, do to the ſame countries. It is true, the Muſcovites have not yet meddled with thoſe remote branches of trade, but it may not be long ere they do.

2. They have the port of Peterſburgh, in the gulph of Finland; by which they have opened a door into the Baltic Sea, and, by that ſea, into the Britiſh Channel, and ſo with all the reſt of the world. They have alſo the intire poſſeſſion of Wiborg, Narva, Revel, and Riga, four of the beſt ports for trade in that part of the Baltic Sea.

3. They have the port of Aſtracan, in the Caſpian Sea, by which they have a navigation to the coaſt of Georgia and Perſia, and where they are likely one day to open effectually the moſt important trade in that part of the world, notwithſtanding they met with ſome obſtruction, in relation to the Perſian raw-ſilk trade from Geylan, on the ſide of Georgia: and to that purpoſe the late Czar fortified Terki, on the utmoſt weſtern bound of Circaſſia; and the late Czarina built a fort and royal city there, which they boaſt will, in time, be equal to that of Peterſburgh in the gulph of Finland.

4. They have three ſmall forts on the ſide of the Black Sea, which, when they took Aſoph from the Turks, they ſlighted, as having reſolved to make Aſoph the ſeat of a naval power, equal to that of the Turks, and ſo have obliged the Grand Seignior to allow them a free paſſage out of the Palus Meotis, and the Black Sea, by Conſtantinople, into the Mediterranean, which would have been a door of trade worth a kingdom itſelf; but that great deſign miſcarried afterwards, by the loſs of Aſoph*, which they were obliged to reſtore to the Grand Seignior, by that fatal treaty made on the banks of the river Pruth, in Moldavia; and, ſince that, they are glad to make uſe of theſe ſmaller ports in the Black Sea; but they have not yet appeared to be of much ſervice, either in matters of trade or war, having no harbours to ſeaward capable of receiving any ſhips of burthen, nor any navigable river by which to carry on their commerce by land, the country next adjoining being moſtly deſert, and incapable of trade: yet it is ſaid the late Czar, had he lived, would have ſettled a communication that way by caravans, and ſo have had a trade to Terki on the Caſpian Sea.

* This town ſtanding on the frontiers of Ruſſia, againſt Turkey, has been ſeveral times taken and retaken of late years; but on the laſt peace, concluded in the year 1739, between thoſe powers, it was agreed that the fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, and the town remain ſubject to Ruſſia.

Theſe are the four ſeas into which the great extent of their dominions gives them an entrance; which yet are ſo exceedingly diſtant and remote in their ſituation, as to have no practicable communication by ſea with one another: but the ſituation of Muſcovy is ſuch, that, by the great river Wolga, which runs from north to ſouth through the heart of their dominions, they may one day form a communication for trade between all theſe parts, being able, with the help of two ſmall canals, which his Czariſh Majeſty had begun before his death, to join the waters of the lake Onega with the ſtream of the Wolga, and ſo in effect cauſe the waters of the Caſpian, the Baltic, and the White Sea, to meet one with another. In the like manner, by a canal at Varonitza, he had brought the navigation of the rivers Wolga and the Don, or Tanais, together, and ſo joined the waters of the Caſpian with thoſe of the Euxine Sea; though by the diſmantling of Aſoph, as above, that communication is not rendered near ſo uſeleſs to this country as it otherwiſe might have been.

Having theſe advantages for extending their commerce by ſuch a ſtrange kind of river-navigation, we will proceed to enquire into the ſunds of trade which are to be found in this vaſt dominion. And here we may obſerve, that though the induſtry of the people of Muſcovy is really ſcandalous (at leaſt it was ſo before their prince fired their minds with expectations of getting great things from trade) and that their manufactures were very few, yet now no ſingle country (take it complexly) has ſo many, and ſuch valuable things for exportation, as the Muſcovite dominions, and thoſe both of land produce and manufacture, and which, conſequently, bring a prodigious return to the country in money; but 'till the late Czar ſettled his court at Peterſburgh, opening a trade to the Baltic Sea, and bringing his ſubjects to cloath and dreſs after the German and French manner, they had no great conſumption of Britiſh or French manufactures among them, and, conſequently, no great commerce this way; but now their exports and imports are exceedingly increaſed, and are daily increaſing; and certain it is, that the ballance of trade is greatly to the advantage of the Ruſſians, with moſt countries with which they have dealings.

The produce of the European part of this country is as follows.

From Ruſſia and north parts of Muſcovy,
- Tar in a prodigious quantity.
- Honey and bees-wax.
- Ruſſia-leather, deer, bear, and elk-ſkins.
- Pot-aſhes, timber and plank, iron, and ſome copper, the laſt from Kexholm, or South Finland.
- Hemp and flax.
- Linen and linen-yarn.
- Furrs, ſuch as ſable, black fox, ermin, rain-deer, martens.
- Raw ſilk, by the Wolga.
- Perſian, Indian, and China goods, the laſt by land-carriage.

From Ruſſia by the port of Wiborg, conquered from Sweden,
- Tar,
- Deals,
- Fir-timber,
- Maſts,
- Iron, and alſo copper.

From Livonia, Eaſthonia, and Narva, new conqueſts, and from Lower Ruſſia,
- Hemp, flax, linſeed the beſt in Europe.
- Corn, ſturgeon, and cavear.
- Pitch and tar.
- Linen-yarn.
- Linen cloth of ſeveral ſorts.
- Ruſſia linen, properly ſo called.
- Diaper, a late manufacture.
- Sail-cloth, the like, } both improving.
- Canvas and duck, }
- Pot-aſhes.

From Siberia,
- Rich furrs, as ſables, ermins, black fox, white bear.
- Beaver, &c. as above.

From Circaſſia, — Tobacco, which is very much increaſed.

All theſe are extraordinary exportations, and the more, becauſe exported in an extraordinary quantity: but their manufactures are but ſmall in proportion to theſe, except their linen, linen-yarn, and Ruſſia leather; and theſe, it muſt be acknowleged, are articles of very great extent, and have been much increaſing for many years paſt. Of theſe merchandizes, the tar is, as before obſerved, a prodigious article. The late Czar was, as the Czarina now is, the ſole merchant, and it is principally exported at Archangel and Wiborg.

The Czarina is likewiſe ſaid to be the only merchant in the tobacco of Circaſſia. Tobacco, it ſeems, was once prohibited to the Muſcovites, that is to ſay, to ſmoke; the reaſon was, that it affected their heads, and made them drunk: and they ſay of a Ruſſian, that if he is drunk, he becomes mad, is a mere ruffian; and the quarrels and murders which frequently happened among them were ſuch, occaſioned chiefly by this tobacco, that it obliged the late Czar to prohibit the uſe of it: but, as the people were gradually brought under a new diſcipline, they became more civilized, and under government; and upon this the Czar allowed them the uſe of tobacco again; which, as it grows in exceeding plenty, and very good, in their own dominions, they are ſupplied from thence wholly, and the government makes a very great revenue from it. The country of Circaſſia they ſay yields above 60 or 70,000 hogſheads of tobacco yearly, and they vend no inconſiderable quantity of it in the Baltic, and in Sweden and Poland, to the great detriment of the Engliſh and Dutch merchants, who had all that trade before.

Between the port of ASTRACAN and the coaſt of PERSIA, there is a very large commerce carried on.

From SIBERIA, the Czarina's ſhare only of the ſables and rich furrs taken there, is ſaid to amount to above 150,000 l. ſterling a year, and the duty paid upon the reſt to as much more; by which ſome gueſs may be made of the value of theſe fine furrs, the whole trade of that kind being in her dominions.

The trade in their new conqueſts was very great before, and is not leſſened ſince their falling into the hands of the Ruſſians. The hemp, flax, and other naval ſtores ſhipped off every year at Riga, Revel, Narva, Wiborg, and Peterſburgh, are ſo exceeding great, that the Dutch only are ſaid to load 300 ſhips a year at Peterſburgh, and near as many at Wiborg.

The tar being a monopoly in the Czarina's own hands, brings in about 250,000 l. ſterling profit to her exchequer, occaſioned chiefly for the following reaſons:

1. Becauſe of the exceſſive tyranny of the nobility and boyars, the labour of the people is of no great value; and their maſters being obliged to yield the Czarina ſo many barrels of tar, according to the lands and eſtates they hold, they again oblige their vaſſals to produce it to them; ſo that it really coſts next to nothing either to the Czarina or to the nobility, but the expence and conſumption of an infinite quantity of timber in the country; which, on the other hand alſo is of no value, the woods being of ſuch a boundleſs extent, that, if we give credit to ſome travellers, there is one wood, or foreſt, equal to the whole iſle of Great-Britain.

2. Becauſe of the great quantity produced; for though it is extremely cheap, yet the quantity ſupplied is ſo great, that it makes the revenue from it amount prodigiouſly: and ſome think it riſes to as much more as we have mentioned.

The

The late Czar erected two or three foreign trades out of the way of all Europe beſides, and in which none could diſturb him, nor does any one yet pretend to it: the one is, a trade by caravans from China. This trade he long ſtrove to accompliſh; and becauſe the diſtance is prodigious great, and the way moſt of it deſolate and dangerous, he erected ſtages, at proper diſtances, on the way, ſo that travellers might ſubſiſt at a reaſonable expence, and likewiſe be ſecure from the inſults of the Tartars, who are naturally thieves, and who rove about, and ſurround paſſengers, and ſometimes plunder them of all they have, and murder them alſo. Nay, in ſome places he built cities, as Janiſea, on the river Janiſea; Albaſſin, or Albaza, on the Yamour; Schelinga, on the river Schelinga; Argun, on the river Argun; and the like.

If due notice is here given of dangers to travellers on theſe roads, the governors of the ſeveral ſtages, or cities, are always ready to ſend convoys to eſcort the merchants from one ſtage to another; and when they hear of any caravans of merchants coming, and having notice of any hoords of Tartars on the road to attack them, they ſend detachments of their ſoldiers to meet their caravans, and conduct them ſafe: and this they are obliged to do, without taking or demanding any gratuities or rewards, much leſs obliging the merchants to pay any tolls or duties on their goods.

Theſe caravans, or companies of merchants, ſometimes conſiſt of ſeveral hundred horſes and camels, and bring a very large quantity of rich goods; and would the Chineſe emperor have done his part towards opening a trade with Europe that way, as the Czar would have done, it might have been made eaſier to them both, and infinitely more conſiderable. For example:

There are ſeveral rivers capable of being made navigable, whoſe courſe running from weſt to eaſt, have their beginnings in the Muſcovite dominions; and, were due methods taken to clear theſe rivers of the obſtructions which prevent their navigation, and which are rather accidental than natural, half the journey might be turned into a voyage, and be performed by water.

There are likewiſe other rivers, more ſouthward, which riſe on the frontiers of China; ſome take their courſe directly into China, and paſſing by or through ſome of the greateſt trading cities and provinces in that country, empty themſelves into the Chineſe ocean.

Other rivers riſing on the ſame frontiers, and not very remote from the firſt, take a quite contrary courſe, and empty themſelves into the Caſpian ſea. So that were theſe mighty monarchs agreed to promote reciprocally the good of each other's ſubjects, a ſmall expence to ſettle caravans, or land-carriages, between the ſaid rivers, for the diſtance, perhaps, of 12 or 20 days journey, would facilitate the commerce of thoſe nations that way, and goods might come even from Pekin in China to Peterſburgh itſelf, almoſt all the way by water.

We ſhall but juſt mention with what eaſe theſe two powerful monarchs, if they concurred in their endeavours, might bring the world to a certainty about the continuity of the northermoſt land of Aſia with that of America, and the poſſibility or impoſſibility of a paſſage by the north-eaſt ſeas to China and Japan; whether Nova Zembla be an iſland or a continent; whether there be any ſuch thing as paſſing from the mouth of the river Oby, and the river Janiſea, into the ocean, or whether thoſe rivers empty themſelves into the ſtraights called Waygat's, and whether that ſtraight is a bay or a vare, and opens eaſtward into the ocean; whether the river Tartarus opens into the ſaid Indian Ocean, or whether its ſtream is continually diving under a ſurface of ice; whether the north eaſt part of Grand Tartary, and the mountains of which our geographers ſay they know not how far they extend, run out beyond the pole, or whether they are broken off by the ocean, and leave room to ſhips to ſteer to the ſouth-eaſt, and to the land of Jeſſo and Japan.

We do but juſt mention theſe things, however inſtructing they might be, becauſe the emperor of China, not addicted to improve his people by commerce or correſpondence with Europe in this ſhape, is no way inclined to make diſcoveries, or, perhaps, apprized of the advantages it might be to his country if he did.

But we muſt not omit, that the late Czar of Muſcovy, a very enterprizing and politic prince, had encouraged ſeveral of his own people to travel by land, and trace the northern coaſt, in order to diſcover what they could of theſe things; but either for want of conſtancy to endure the extremity of the weather, or for want of judgment, they have, 'till very lately, done nothing worthy of the deſign, nor afforded any accounts that have been ſatisfactory: not that the thing was impracticable, for as they never came to any country but what was inhabited, it is hard to conceive that it ſhould be impoſſible for ſome people to travel through a country where others could dwell; or, which is ſtill more, that they could not paſs through a country in the ſummer, where others could ſubſiſt the whole winter. We make no doubt, but if the late Czar had lived, and accompliſhed his other great enterprizes for the advancement of the commerce of his people, he would have found ſome methods to make a commerce with China more practicable by ſea or by land, by caravan, or by river-navigation, than it is at preſent.

Whether the journey to China may be ſhortened by the convenience of water-carriage, it may be conſidered, that the way which travellers from Moſcow to China now take, is this: they go north to Jeraſlow upon the Wolga, 200 miles; then to Wolagda, on the Ruſſian Dwina, 188 miles farther, the ſame river, which runs to Archangel; then north to the latitude of the arctic circle (to avoid a great defert of 800 miles, which lies in the way) then ſouth-eaſt to Tabolſki, on the river Irtiſch, which ſome make in 54, but Sanſon places it in 66, degrees of north latitude; and this is 3000 miles from Moſcow, if we may believe the journal of the Holſtein ambaſſador, Iſbrand of Gluckſtadt, who travelled as miniſter of the Czar of Muſcovy, from Moſcow to Pekin.

From hence they croſs the river Oby, and travel eaſt to the river Janiſea, which by the account of Iſbrand held them 67 days.

All this might be traverſed another way, thus: from Moſcow to Caſan, all the way down the Occa and Wolga, about 300 miles; at Caſan they enter the river Kama, by the ſtream of which, large enough for veſſels of 80 tons, they can go up to Perma Mielki, within three days journey of Irtiſch: ſo that by travelling only three days by land, all the journey of 2200 miles to Jobolſki may be performed by water.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that from Jobolſki they go by water 'till they enter the Oby, which has been done, and is practicable every day: from the banks of the Oby to the Janiſea, and from the Janiſea to the great lake of Baikala, is the 12 or 20 days journey we ſpeak of. Out of this lake iſſues the great river Angara, or Argun, by ſome called Yamour, according to Sanſon, or Jamor, or Amour, according to others; which running with a vaſt channel, empties itſelf, after a courſe of 2720 miles, into the great Tartarian ocean, or ſea of China.

This is the river which the Chineſe ought to take care of, and which, perhaps, may be as eaſily opened for navigation as the Wolga, whoſe courſe is as long, and channel as large: and, as it lies in a latitude not to be incumbered with ice, it may probably be an eaſy paſſage into the Chineſe ſea, and anſwer as well, perhaps, to the Ruſſians, as a north-eaſt paſſage by ſea would to the reſt of the world.

Some of the modern map-makers, though their authority is much to be queſtioned, bring the head of the river Irtiſch farther ſouth, and make its courſe much longer than the Ancients; they lay the ſtream parallel with the Oby, and that with Janiſea, and their ſpring-heads not far aſunder; ſo that according to thoſe maps, from Caſan on the Wolga, it cannot be above ſix days journey to the Irtiſch, without going north up the Cama at all, and then they may paſs down the ſtream of Irtiſch, which lies north-eaſt by eaſt, 'till they come into the Oby, and then to the land by the river or the lake Janiſea; and from thence in 20 days journey, as above, they reach the lake Baikala, whence they go by the Angara. But thoſe differences can only be adjuſted by the Ruſſian geographers, and theſe routes ſettled to China, ſo as to make it eaſy for the carriage of merchandizes. But, as the Chineſe have not concurred herein, there lie difficulties, which, perhaps, may never be removed except by force.

But the late Czar, who had this trade to China much at heart, had his eye another way; and though even this, according to one method, wanted the concurrence of the Chineſe government, yet if that failed, there was another method which would not want it at all, which was thus:

The navigation from Moſcow to the Caſpian Sea is known, and is all within themſelves; the Wolga enters the Caſpian Sea about the latitude of 46 degrees on the north ſide of the ſaid ſea. On the eaſt, almoſt in the ſame latitude, is a great river called Khun or Sihun; others call it Oxis or Oxus, which enters itſelf into the ſame ſea, and is navigable many hundred miles, or may be ſo: it riſes out of the ſame mountains, and not far from the head of the great river Ganges. From the head of this river, or ſo far as it may be ſuppoſed to be made navigable, they travel now in 26 days to the frontiers of China, where they meet with the river Coccei, or the Yellow river, by which the Chineſe do already correſpond with ſome of the Tartars of Karakathay, and of the kingdom of Tibet, which ſome call the Independent Tartary.

This river Coccei is, therefore, navigable already, even on this ſide of the Chineſe dominions; and when it enters China, it paſſes through the heart of the country, between Pekin and Nanquin, and receives into it the river that runs through Pekin, or the Royal Canal, which the emperor began to make for that navigation, and then falls into the ſea of China in the latitude of 33.

There is yet another way to be propoſed for this paſſage to China, and that is paſſing out of the Caſpian Sea up the ſaid river Gyhun, to Bokara. This is a city of great trade already, and to which great quantities of ſpices are brought from Surat up to Lahor upon the river Indus, of which we ſhall ſpeak ſeparately.

From Bokara they keep ſtill the ſtream of the river Gyhun, about 300 miles; then overland to Cachemire, within three days

days of the great river Indus, which they croſs over; and keeping under the mountains, and in the Great Mogul's country, they come to Syrmagar on the river Ganges, all which is a journey of about 18 days. Here they embark, and ſail down the ſtream to Minapour, where they go up another river for about ten days more; then landing, they travel by land to Barantola, the capital city of Laſſebontan. Here, or within a very little of this place, they meet with the great river Kiam or Kaim, which runs directly into China, and upon which they paſs above 460 miles to Nanquin in the heart of China.

So that in all this paſſage there is not above 28 days journey by land, all the reſt being upon very conſiderable rivers, well known to thoſe who have been in theſe countries.

By any of theſe methods it is evident, that a much eaſier way of trading to China might be ſettled, than is now carried on by caravans, which are four or five months upon the roads; and if they perform it, it is with great fatigue as well as great hazard: whereas the methods of carriage being ſettled as above deſcribed, the trade ſhould ſeem eaſy to to be carried on, by giving commiſſion to captains for buying and conſigning to other factors for ſale, as is the practice of other countries nearer home.

But there is yet an eaſier way for this commerce with China, than what has been mentioned, and which we are told the late Czar had in his eye, and reſolved to attempt or not, as his expedition to Georgia might ſucceed: and, indeed, if there was a friendly diſpoſition in the Perſians, or in the Great Mogul, it would appear moſt eaſy to eſtabliſh a commerce with India that way almoſt all by ſea; and then the commerce from India to China by ſea likewiſe will be a thing ſo eaſy, that it would by no means be worth while to make any attempt by land. For example:

From the mouth of the Wolga in the Caſpian Sea, to the mouth of the Sihun, or to the mouth of the Oxus, is an eaſy voyage; the former of theſe rivers is navigable up to Bokara, a city already full of merchants, and which has a great trade for all the kinds of goods which we now bring from the coaſt of Malabar, from Bombay or Surat.

Theſe goods are brought up the river Indus to Cachemire; alſo the trade of the bay of Bengal, is brought up the river Ganges to the lake of Tibber; and both being in the Great Mogul's country, they are brought within eight days journey the laſt, and within five days the firſt, to the city of Termed on the Gyhun, from whence they come by water to Bokara, and after into the Caſpian Sea.

So that to bring it to a ſhort concluſion, the whole trade of the Indies from the mouth of the gulph of Perſia, which is very near to Surat, and the mouth of the river Indus to Achim on the iſland of Sumatra, may be brought by water (eight days caravan only excepted) to Bokara on the Sihun, thence over the Caſpian Sea to Aſtracan on the Wolga, and thence to Peterſburgh, the late Czar's new canal to Peterſburgh being ſuppoſed to be completely finiſhed, as he originally intended.

From China then to Bengal, every one knows is no long voyage; and the goods of China are every year brought by the Chineſe junks through the ſtraights of Sincapore to Achin in the iſland of Sumatra, and thence to Hugeli on the Ganges, and that with much leſs charge and time, than they can come one twentieth part of the way over the deſerts from Pekin to Moſcow. So that the Ruſſians ſeem to have no more to do, than to induce the Great Mogul, by a proper treaty of commerce, to open the trade of the Ganges and the Indus, and ſettle a ſafe correſpondence between his ſubjects and the Muſcovites, and the trade to China would be effectually ſecured.

This proſpect was ſo glorious, and the advantage of ſuch a commerce would have been ſo conſiderable, that it accounts for all the great enterprizes and motions of the late Czar that way: his embarking an army, and building a fleet to make himſelf maſter of the Caſpian Sea *: all which, at one time, the world ſeemed to look upon as chimerical, and of no weight, not ſubſtantial enough to anſwer the expence; but we are likely one day to ſee a trade ſo effectually opened, either through Perſia into the Mogul's country, or by the river Oxus and the Sihun to the ſaid country, as may render the Ruſſian dominions immenſely rich and potent, by making them the mart of all Europe for the Eaſt-India and Chineſe commodities, eſpecially the fineſt, and ſuch as are not too bulky for carriage.

* Although the trade of the Caſpian Sea hath not hitherto proved ſo ſucceſsful, either to the Ruſſian or Britiſh empire, as was expected, yet the matter is ſaid, at preſent, to be upon the tapis; ſome propoſals having been lately made to the Ruſſian court about it, by means of an annual fleet, to be built at the expence of the crown; the ſhips to be commanded by Ruſſian officers, or at leaſt officers in the Ruſſian ſervice; but merchants and their goods to be tranſported at a reaſonable rate, with a ſufficient force to eſcorte and protect them. In caſe this deſign can be brought to bear, it is intended to make Aſtracan the mart where all Perſian commodities are to be vended. But 'till the troubles of Perſia are ſome way or other at an end, it is not eaſy to conceive how a ſcheme of this ſort can be carried into execution with ſucceſs.

As for the advantages of the north-eaſt paſſage to China and India, which ſo many adventures have been made for, and ſo many lives loſt, it is in the power of the Muſcovites to ſearch that to the bottom, and to bring the world to a certainty about it: but we muſt add alſo, that if it was found practicable, it would not be any great advantage to the trade of the people of Muſcovy in particular, more than to the reſt of the world: nay, it might, perhaps, prove the contrary, and, therefore, it may not be amiſs to obſerve, That

In former times both the Engliſh and the Dutch made ſeveral attempts to diſcover the northermoſt coaſts of Europe, and to find out a paſſage that way to China and the Eaſt-Indies. The Engliſh in queen Elizabeth's time, under Sir Hugh Willoughby, made a fatal attempt; that unhappy gentleman, with his ſhip, beat it long at ſea in vain, and being driven into a creek on the ſhore of the Ruſſian Lapland, endeavoured to winter there; but they were all frozen to death, by the violence and extremity of the weather, not having diſcovered ſo much as the White Sea.

The Dutch, in the year 1596, under the famous Heemſkirk and Barents, diſcovered the ſtraights of the Waygats, as they are now called, and went, as it was thought, into a ſtraight or paſſage between Nova Zembla and the main, but were not able to proceed far enough for the ice; no, not ſo much as to know, whether there was a paſſage through, or only a deep bay, and ſo were obliged to return again. After which Heemſkirk ſailed round the north part of the land or iſland of Nova Zembla, paſſing into the latitude of 80 degrees, and then coming back into the latitude of 76, and being driven on ſhore by the ice, he loſt his ſhip, and he and his whole crew were obliged to ſtay all the winter in great extremity of cold: and the next year building themſelves two ſhallops of the wreck of their ſhip, with great difficulty, they got to the ſhore near the mouth of the river Cola in Laponia Ruſſienne, but came home no wiſer than they went out, as to knowing whether there was any paſſage or no.

We mention theſe things only, to intimate how induſtrious both the Engliſh and Dutch have been, even ſo long as about 160 years ſince, to find out a paſſage to the Indies that way: and no doubt it would be very advantageous to both theſe nations in their trade, (1.) As the voyage to China in particular, would be at leaſt 8000 miles ſhorter than it is now, by the Cape of Good Hope, and the ſtraights of Sunda or Sincapore. (2.) That the danger as to health would not be ſo much this way, being beyond all compariſon healthier, becauſe it is not needful to paſs the line at all, or go into any violent hot climates; whereas our navigators paſs the Line four times in every voyage to China, as they now go; and extreme cold is found to be much healthier than extreme heat, and eaſier to be borne.

But to bring this to a point; ſuppoſe this paſſage could be found out, the queſtion, in regard to the trade of Ruſſia is, What advantage would ſuch a trade be to the Muſcovites? The anſwer is, nothing, in compariſon, perhaps, to what it may otherwiſe prove: for if the Muſcovites can, upon any tolerable terms, bring the manufactures and growth of China and the Indies home to their own country, they would thereby make themſelves the merchants, and their country the general mart of this part of the world for thoſe goods, and raiſe an immenſe profit from the trade; ſeeing all the northern parts of Europe muſt neceſſarily come to their markets to purchaſe theſe commodities.

But if the Engliſh and Dutch could go about by the north-eaſt to China, and bring all thoſe goods by ſea, Ruſſia could have no benefit thereby, except what might happen on any ſhip's putting in by ſtreſs of weather into their ports; which would prove of little conſideration to what we have put in competition therewith. Beſides, they would have the mortification of ſeeing the trade all carried away by their doors, without paying them any toll or profit whatſoever.

It is true, that could a paſſage be found beyond the land of Nova Zembla, from the mouth of any of the rivers in the Muſcovite dominions, as from the river Oby, or the Janiſea, which is ſtill farther, and ſo the trade ſhould firſt come into the Czarina's dominions, it would do very well on their ſide, and her country would be the great emporium for all the riches of the eaſt: for our navigators have hitherto been no more able to find a paſſage through the Waygats, than they have been able to paſs quite round by the north of Nova-Zembla.

But the grand difficulty does not ſeem to lie about paſſing the ſtraights of Waygats, or ſailing round Nova Zembla; it ſhould ſeem that there is an ocean beyond it, becauſe the great rivers Oby, Janiſea, and others, whoſe names our geographers do not agree about, and which riſing in the ſouthern parts of Grand Tartary, and taking their courſe due north, muſt empty themſelves ſomewhere into the ocean, on the north ſide of the country.

It is pleaſant to obſerve, that although none have ever yet been able to paſs through the Waygats, or to diſcover to general ſatisfaction whether Nova Zembla be an iſland or a continent, or whether the northermoſt parts of Aſia be contiguous with America; yet our map-makers ſhew us at the

north-eaſt part of Aſia a great promontory of land, and a long ridge of mountains, and ſay it is not yet diſcovered where they end; at the ſame time putting theſe words over the ſea-coaſt, between thoſe two undiſcovered lands,—[Here they may fiſh for whales, but the navigation is very difficult.] Upon the whole, though ſuch paſſages have not hitherto been diſcovered, yet we cannot anſwer for what futurity may bring to light; but if ſuch paſſages ſhould be found, if they are not practicable in the ordinary way of commerce and navigation, the diſcovery will as little avail Ruſſia as any other ſtate or empire.

For though there ſhould be ſuch a paſſage diſcovered, yet if it be found ſo hazardous that ſhips ſhould often be obliged to return back without being able to beat through, and others ſtranded and run on ſhore, and then incloſed among the ice and loſt, this would, as to trade, be no paſſage at all, ſeeing in trade that may be ſaid not to be practicable, which is not ſo to the advantage of the merchant.

What diſcovers itſelf to us in the late attempts of the Muſcovites to find out a paſſage to China by ſea is, that they do not intend it from the White Sea at Archangel, and ſo through the Waygats, by which all Europe would ſoon be as able to go as themſelves, and ſo the diſcoverers be nothing the better for it; but their deſign ſeems to be to diſcover, whether a paſſage being found out by the north-eaſt point of Tartary, it may not be navigated from ſome other part of the Muſcovite coaſt, either by the river Oby or the Janiſea, or ſome other rivers, by which means, though they would have the chief benefit of it to themſelves, yet even this way, ſuch a diſcovery might be of ſome advantage to the reſt of this northern world too.

Now, if the Muſcovites can firſt make out the main diſcovery, viz. That there is a paſſage, and that they may ſail about by the north-eaſt point of Aſia, and then could ſtill keep the ſtraights of the Waygats undiſcovered, and as it were ſhut up, they would by ſuch a diſcovery have the whole trade of China and the Indies to themſelves, being able to bring their ſhips into ſome particular port or place, not ſo liable to be frozen up as the Waygats, and then bring the goods, by the rivers Oby or Irtiſch, into the very heart of their country.

But we have not yet done with the trade of Ruſſia, in which we are to take notice, that on the eaſtern ſide of this great empire, and on or near the bank of the great Kama, they have great quantites of rock-ſalt, which they dig out of the earth, then diſſolve it in its own brine, as it may be called, that is, in ſalt-water which riſes out of the mines of ſalt, and then boil it up again to be very fine white and ſtrong ſalt.

They drive a conſiderable trade in this ſalt, inſomuch that it is ordinary to ſee 20,000 people employed in making it, all at a time.

They bring this ſalt down the river Kama, thence carry it up by the Wolga and the Occa to Moſcow, and down the Wolga to other cities, even as far as the city of Aſtracan.

They cure alſo vaſt quantities of fiſh in the great lakes at the head of the Oby, the Janiſea, and other lakes in the frontiers of Kathay; which fiſh is brought down thoſe rivers to Caſan, and ſo into the Wolga, and up to Moſcow.

As we have mentioned the produce of the Ruſſian dominions for their trade on this ſide, and by the exportation of which ſo much wealth daily flows into their country, it ſeems neceſſary to add ſomething of the increaſe of their trade this way, and of the city of Peterſburg, as it reſpects the trade of the Baltic Sea.

PETERSBURGH is a great city, and the Czar, beſides the houſes of the inhabitants, founded many magnificent ſtructures there; among the reſt, the fortifications are ſaid to be invincibly ſtrong, taking in its advantageous ſituation by water. Alſo the works which he made at Cronſlot are very conſiderable; and the ſhore is ſo lined with artillery in all places, that no power in that part of the world will, perhaps, ever make any attempt on that ſide. But notwithſtanding that, it may not be abſolutely impracticable by other nations: nor are the fortifications at Cronſlot, or on any other part of the entrance of the Neva, ſo formidable as to ſecure the city from all apprehenſion of an attempt, when it ſhould come to be made by any nation able and experienced in ſuch undertakings; and this appeared by the panic, which ſeized them in the year 1726, when a ſquadron of Britiſh men of war appeared before the harbour of Revel, threatening, as they thought, an attack upon this place.

The Czar alſo built a cathedral, ſeveral churches, and a palace for himſelf, with a great many fine apartments, and ſo many lines drawn for increaſing them, that had he lived, it was believed he would have equalled, if not exceeded, the palace at Verſailles, a model of which he had cauſed to be taken. Here are very fine docks and yards for building large ſhips of war, from 70 to 90 guns; and, as it is ſaid, the emperor reſolved to keep in conſtant pay a full complement of ſeamen to man them fit for ſervice. Nor is it impoſſible, perhaps, that this empire ſhould one day obtain a competency of conſtant navigation, as a nurſery for the maintenance of a much larger royal navy than they have at preſent.

'Till within theſe twenty years, a Muſcovite fleet was a thing that was never heard of; it ſeemed at firſt to appear in the Baltic, like a comet in the waſte or ſtarry ſpaces; or like the new ſtar in Caſſiopeia's chair, for all the world to wonder at. Yet ſo it is, that the Ruſſians are able now to figure it in the Baltic, with a naval power no way contemptible. But what is it, that is not abſolutely impoſſible to accompliſh, which a prince of the late Czar's great natural abilities and indefatigable application, was not able to do?

Though Peterſburgh is the capital city of Ruſſia, yet it ſtands very low, and is expoſed to inundations: and therefore ſome have thought that the Czar was ill adviſed, and took a very injudicious ſtep, when he pitched upon the ſpot of ground on which he built this new city; for that the great quantity of waters, which ſometimes come down from the Ladoga, and from the innumerable lakes of Finland and Carelia, are ſuch, that the Neva cannot give vent to them faſt enough, to prevent the city of Peterſburgh being ſubject to inundation: nor can any human art, ſome ſay, be able to prevent this, there being no way poſſible to be contrived on that ſide, whereby to carry the water off, except a canal, exceeding deep and broad, were opened from that great branch of waters, which paſſes near Kexhold to Wiborg. This, it is imagined, might turn the water another way, and the Czar, it is alſo ſaid, had ordered ſuch a canal to be opened.—But, however, Peterſburgh is ſo ſituated, as to be the center of a vaſtly-extended commerce; and may one day, perhaps, ſhow the world, that to trade to that city, will be to trade to Turkey, to Perſia, to India, and even to China itſelf all at once.

We have already ſpoken of the grandeur and magnificence of this metropolis, the eſtabliſhing the navy there, and the building ſhips, as well men of war as merchantmen; of all which it muſt be obſerved, that this cannot fail to bring a vaſt concourſe of buſineſs and of people; and trade muſt follow the court, as naturally as the court follows the faſhions.

We are told there are in Peterſburgh above three quarters of a million of people; and that their numbers daily increaſe, by the prodigious increaſe of the court ſince the time of Czar Peter; as alſo in a particular manner by the increaſe of the naval power of Ruſſia, of which this port is the center, in ſo prodigious a manner, within a few years, as to have at once from 60 to 80 ſail of capital men of war, beſides leſſer men of war, prohms, frigates, ſloops, and gallies, amounting to above 300 more. All the ſeamen, workmen, artificers, tradeſmen, &c. depending on ſuch a navy, muſt neceſſarily increaſe the inhabitants of this imperial city; and this number of inhabitants muſt conſequently bring a new face of trade into this part of the empire, of which it is proper to take ſome notice.

The ſupply of proviſions to ſo great a body of people, has occaſioned numerous trades to be ſet up, which greatly tend to the increaſe both of ſhipping and of people, and particularly of that uſeful ſort of people called ſeamen, who are a ſet of men more imminently wanted now in this part of the Ruſſian empire.

The bringing corn to ſerve this city, employs now a prodigious number of veſſels and boats, great and ſmall, upon the river Neva, and upon the great lakes of Ladoga and Onega, to and from all the towns on every ſide of theſe lakes: all which part of the country is now exceedingly enriched and aggrandized, to what it was before this capital was built; the lands are improved almoſt beyond all imagination, by the great quantity of corn raiſed in the country, adjoining to theſe rivers and lakes; to which before the inhabitants never applied, not having a convenient port for its exportation, much leſs a capital city for its conſumption.

Nor is the country on the ſhores of all thoſe rivers and lakes, ſufficient for ſupplying the ſaid capital city with corn, but a great number of ſhips are employed, more than ever before, in fetching corn from the coaſt of Livonia and Eſthonia, and even from Dantzic itſelf, for the ſupply of the markets at Peterſburgh.

As the corn-trade thus employs a number of veſſels, ſo does the fiſhing as well in the Baltic, viz. in the gulph of Finland, as alſo on the great lakes of Ladoga and Onega, which are covered with fiſhing-boats, always employed in catching fiſh at the proper ſeaſon, and carrying them to Peterſburgh, as well freſh fiſh for the daily markets, as cured and dried for keeping, and ſtoring ſhips and houſes for winter conſumption, when the ſaid lakes are frozen up.

Abundance of ſmall craft are alſo employed on the Wolga, and men and carriages between the Wolga and Peterſburgh, for conveying goods and merchandizes to Peterſburgh, ſuch as tobacco, honey, wax, leather, and all ſorts of goods, the growth and produce of the ſouthern parts of Muſcovy; and for the return of the merchandizes imported at Peterſburgh, ſuch as grocery, wine, oil, fruits, woollen manufactures, ſilk, and all other goods, occaſioned principally by the building ſo great a city in that place.

And though all the importations to this city from the exterior provinces cannot be minutely enumerated, yet it may be concluded, that the trade from Peterſburgh to Moſcow itſelf, the great and moſt ancient capital of the whole empire, is exceedingly great, that city having all its ſupply of manufactures, and of other goods beſides, through the ſaid river

Wolga, or by land-carriage, by ſleds from the city of Peterſburgh.

This increaſe of commerce is manifeſt by the great number of ſhopkeepers, manufacturers, artificers, and other tradeſmen, with whom the metropolis at preſent ſwarms.

It is not probable (we might ſay hardly poſſible) but that the erecting a new capital and imperial city, in a place where there was no town of note before, and bringing together ſuch a body of people where there were very few inhabitants before, muſt, as is obſerved of the trade by water, conſequently improve the lands, employ the country, and draw together people for buſineſs of all kinds, from the inland provinces, as well to the adjacent towns, as to the banks of the rivers, the ſea-coaſts, lakes, &c.

Of this the famous city of Novogorod was a remarkable example: this was a city once prodigiouſly great, populous, and rich, ſo that it was called the Golden City; by which the whole correſpondence between the Ruſſian empire and the reſt of Europe was carried on, and it was the mart of the whole trade.

While this city flouriſhed, all the country round it did ſo too: the wealth and numbers of people collected there, inriched and employed all the adjacent provinces, the lands were cultivated to furniſh proviſions for their ſubſiſtence, all the richeſt grounds were employed to feed cattle for them, and to raiſe fruits and plants to ſupply the markets.

Thus it is now at Peterſburgh, which, if we may believe fame, is much greater, much richer, and far more populous, than Novogorod ever was, and conſequently muſt in proportion increaſe and inrich all the adjacent country, and fill their towns with people and money, becauſe it will fill them with buſineſs and trade.

But with this exception, the city of Peterſburgh is inriched by the fleets, the marine part of trade, and by the court, and by the magnificence of the equipages of their nobility, great officers, &c. and has an infinite advantage by all meeting together as in a common center.

It is true, the Czar found he had another weighty clog upon his new empire as to trade: nature had ſeemed to exclude the Muſcovite dominions from a communication of trade with the reſt of the world, 'till by a wonderful chain of victories, unexpected even to himſelf, that emperor opened a door for his ſubjects into the Baltic, by his conqueſt of Ingria and the mouth of the Neva, which he could no way come at before. Many of his anceſtors had in vain attempted this communication by the way of Narva; but, though they had ſeveral times conquered that city, they could never keep it: but the Czar not only ſecured the Neva, and ſince that conquered Narva, and all the coaſt of Livonia, but alſo reduced Wiborg, on the other ſide; ſo that the whole gulph of Findland was intirely his own: and, which is ſtill more, he alſo ſecured the poſſeſſion of theſe conqueſts by a peace, as well with Sweden as with all his other neighbours.

But his Czariſh majeſty, beſides this, had another great obſtruction to his mighty enterprizes, which was, that the king of Denmark kept the paſſage of the Sound, the great key through the navigation of the Baltic, and no ſhips could paſs in or out without paying ſuch an unlimited toll as he ſhould think fit.

This rendered the Muſcovite commerce into Europe tributary to the Danes; and this was now the only impediment to the Czar for the trade of his people; which, but for that occaſion, he would have ſoon extended to France and Spain, Italy and Venice; for which too, he had laid a good foundation by treaties.

This difficulty, under which his dominions laboured, gave firſt birth to the deſign of cutting a canal from Huſum to Sleſwic, or ſome other port in Holſtein (for there are ſeveral places where there was no great difficulty in the execution) and thereby to have joined the two ſeas, and opened a back-door into and out of the Baltic, and which the king of Denmark would have had no power or right to interrupt; nor would the reſt of the trading world have been diſpleaſed therewith.

Theſe are ſome of the obſtacles that this great prince met with in his glorious undertakings, which if he could have ſurmounted, he would have bid fair to have been as powerful at ſea as moſt of his neighbours; and this would have rendered the alliance of Ruſſia by ſea not leſs conſiderable than it now appears by land.

But he had his diſappointments, as well as other princes, and particularly one of no little mortification to ſo enterpriſing a monarch. He had been compelled to reſtore Aſoph, at the mouth of the river Don, of which once he not only had the poſſeſſion, but had, at an immenſe expence, made it one of the moſt impregnable fortreſſes in the world; nor could the whole Turkiſh empire have recovered it, unleſs the Czar had been firſt beaten from it by land; and, had he kept it, he would have built ſuch a fleet of ſhips of war, from 70 to 100 guns, at Voronitz upon the Don, or Tanais, which would ſoon have enabled him to have brought the Grand Seignior to have granted his ſhips a free paſſage and commerce through the Thracian Boſphorus and the Helleſpont, into the Levant Seas, or have driven the Turks out of the Euxine Sea, and have ſtarved Conſtantinople itſelf.

But, in this reſpect alſo, this illuſtrious prince was diſappointed, being, by ſurprize, brought into ſuch a labyrinth in Moldavia by the Turks, that he and his whole army had been ſwallowed up, if he had not purchaſed his peace and deliverance, among other things, with the yielding back Aſoph to the Turks.

The late Czar reſolving to reform and civilize his people, who, before his time, were little better in the general than ſavages, he determined to make a general change in apparel, and brought the Ruſſians, eſpecially thoſe about his court, to cloath themſelves after the German faſhion: this change put his ſubjects inceſſantly upon a new expence, viz. buying cloaths in an unuſual manner, for which purpoſe the manufactures of England and Scotland, &c. were introduced, as well at Peterſburgh as at Moſcow, in prodigious and unuſual quantities.

But the Czar, after the example of the Swedes, the Pruſſians, and the Saxons, attempted to act herein greatly for the proſperity of his ſubjects in this particular of new cloathing them, reſolving to introduce the making and manufacturing all thoſe cloths and ſtuffs which his ſubjects were then beginning to wear, and to have them all made in his dominions, that his poor might be uſefully employed.

Nor was it ſo unlikely an undertaking as at firſt it ſeems to be, in that he had an eaſy ſupply of wool out of Poland and Saxony, eſpecially of the firſt, ſufficient for thoſe works.

His Czariſh majeſty had alſo reſolved to bring manufacturers from France, to ſettle in Peterſburgh, to manage and carry on the ſilk trade, furniſhing them with ſilk from Perſia, by the navigation of the Caſpian; by which means the ſilk itſelf is ſo cheap, and the labour of the people more particularly ſo, he reſolved to have all ſorts of the richeſt brocade ſilks, as alſo ribbons, &c. wrought in his own country, as well for their own uſe as for the exportation to foreign parts; but this is one of the great improvements that is not likely ſoon to be brought to perfection.

The Ruſſians have had alſo, ſome years, a royal foundery: for having a ſufficient quantity of iron ore in the country about Kexholm, which they bring to Peterſburgh by water, the late Czar reſolved to ſupply foreign countries with cannon, bombs, ſhells, ſhot, and all ſorts of military ſtores which are furniſhed from the iron; as alſo ſmall arms, muſkets, piſtols, ſwords, halberts, &c. This foundery is kept continually at work, and the Czarina, his ſucceſſor, gave directions for enlarging and encouraging the works, having got ſome very ſkilful workmen out of the king of Pruſſia's dominions. This foundery, as well as their iron manufactures in general, have proved a very great advantage to this empire, and are daily advancing.

In ſhort, there ſeems to be nothing wanting to make the city of Peterſburgh a center of commerce to the whole Baltic, but the raiſing ſome ſettled employment for the poor in general, by which they may gain a comfortable ſubſiſtence to themſelves and families: and this ſubſiſtence after the Ruſſian manner being ſo exceeding cheap, and labour, by conſequence, moderately low, it is manifeſt, if they have but two things provided for them, viz. proper materials to work upon, and ſkilful workmen to inſtruct them how to manage thoſe materials, they would work as cheap as the Indians and Chineſe, and in a few years, perhaps, fill Europe with their manufactures, in ſuch a manner as none in theſe parts would wiſh to ſee. And the eſtabliſhing manufactures ſeems to be an eſſential part of the ſyſtem that they have at preſent adopted, which we muſt more and more ſenſibly feel and experience as they advance therein, unleſs we ſhall take leſs of their productions and commodities, in proportion as they ſhall import leſs of ours.

Of the MONIES, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of RUSSIA.

In Peterſburgh and Archangel moſt merchants keep their accounts in rubbles and copecks; and ſome keep them in copecks, grieveners, and rubbles.

The Ruſſian coins go under divers denominations, viz. copecks, altines, grieveners, polpoltins, poltins, and rubbles.

They have likewiſe a ſmall gold coin, called a Ruſſian ducat, worth between eight and nine ſhillings ſterling.

The ſaid monies are reckoned as follows: 3 copecks is an altin, 10 copecks one grievener, 25 copecks is a polpoltin, 50 copecks is a poltin, 100 copecks is a rubble, and 2 rubbles is a ducat.

They count their ſmall money in altines, adding one copeck to make the rubble.

The rubble is worth between four and five ſhillings ſterling.

An Engliſh crown-piece goes among them according to weight, at between 120 and 130 copecks.

Their weights are zollotnicks, pounds, poods, and barquits; 96 zollotnicks make their pound, which is counted equal to 13 oz. 3dwts. 6 grs. Troy weight; 40 pounds is one pood; 10 pound is a barquit: a pood of 40 lb. Ruſſian weight will render in England 35 ½ or 36 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight.

Their long-meaſure for linen and woollen is the arſheen, which is divided into 16 veſhcoves, and is 28 inches London meaſure; and 7 Engliſh yards make 9 of their arſheens, or 100 arſheens make 56 Engliſh ells.

Their meaſures for corn are the chetwert and the chetwericks;

8 chet-

8 chetwericks is one chetwert, which holds about 5 $\frac{3}{10}$ buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

They pay the cuſtoms in no other money than foreign rix-dollars, Engliſh crowns, ducats, and ſuch-like good whole pieces, which they alſo take by weight.

They give to Hamburgh in exchange an uncertain number of copecks for the rixdollar of Hamburgh.

To Amſterdam, the rubble, for an uncertain number of ſtivers current money of Amſterdam. The exchange generally riſes in November and December.

REMARKS.

In negociating money by bills of exchange between England and Ruſſia, it is commonly done by the way of Amſterdam. The computation of which is thus: (1.) The Ruſſian rubbles are converted into florins current money of Amſterdam; this current money is reduced into bank money, according to the agio, which is generally from 3 to 5 per cent. i. e. 103 to 105 florins, or gilders, current money, are equal to 100 florins, or gilders, bank money of Amſterdam; and this bank money of Amſterdam is reduced into ſterling money, according as the courſe of the exchange ſhall be between England and Amſterdam. See the article HOLLAND.

☞ All merchandizing coming from Ruſſia pay a duty to the king of Denmark in paſſing through the Sound. See the article DENMARK.

The DUTIES which the following Ruſſia goods pay in paſſing through the Sound.

		rixd.	ſtiv.
Linen	Fine, 1000 arſheens, pay	1	12
	Middling, ditto	0	40
	Coarſe, ditto	0	30
1 Shipon of fine flax		0	12
1 Ditto of coarſe		0	8
1 Ditto of hemp		0	8
1 Piece of canvas		0	$3\frac{3}{4}$
6 Shipon, or 1 laſt of iron		0	24

Note, 10 pood is 1 ſhipon, and 6 ſhipon is 1 laſt.

N. B. 48 ſtivers make 1 rixdollar.

☞ When the captains of ſhips run the goods through the Sound without paying the duty to the king of Denmark, the merchant allows the captain $\frac{1}{3}$ of the duties ſaved, for his trouble.

RUSSIA COMPANY. The Ruſſia company was firſt projected towards the end of the reign of king Edward VI, executed in the firſt and ſecond years of Philip and Mary, but had not its perfection 'till its charter was confirmed by act of parliament under queen Elizabeth, in 1566. It had its firſt riſe from certain adventurers, who were ſent in three veſſels on the diſcovery of new countries, and to find out a north-eaſt paſſage to China: theſe falling into the White-Sea, and making up to the port of Archangel, were exceedingly well received by the Muſcovites, and at their return, ſollicited letters patent to ſecure to themſelves the commerce of Ruſſia, for which they had formed an aſſociation.

The charter was promiſed them by Edward VI. but he dying, was firſt diſpatched by queen Mary, in 1555. By this charter, the aſſociation was declared by a body politic, under the name of the Company of Merchant-Adventurers of England, for the Diſcovery of Lands, Territories, Iſlands, &c. unknown, or unfrequented. Their privileges were, to have a governor, four conſuls, and twenty-four aſſiſtants for their commerce; for their policy, to make laws, inflict penalties, ſend out ſhips to make diſcoveries, take poſſeſſion of them in the king's name, ſet up the banner royal of England, plant them, and, laſtly, to enjoy the excluſive privilege of trading to Archangel, and other ports of Muſcovy, not yet frequented by the Engliſh.

This charter, not being ſufficiently guarded, was confirmed by parliament, in the eighth year of queen Elizabeth; wherein it was enacted, That, in regard the former name was too long, they ſhould now be called the Company of Engliſh Merchants for diſcovering New Trades; under which name they ſhould be capable of acquiring and holding all kinds of lands, manors, rents, &c. not exceeding 100 marks per ann. and not held of her Majeſty. That no part of the continent, iſland, harbour, &c. not known or frequented before the firſt enterprize of the merchants of their company, ſituate to the north or north-eaſt of London; nor any part of the continent, iſlands, &c. under the obedience of the emperor of Ruſſia, or in the countries of Armenia, Media, Hircania, Perſia, or the Caſpian Sea, ſhall be viſited by any ſubjects of England, to exerciſe any commerce, without the conſent of the ſaid company, on pain of confiſcation.—The ſaid company ſhall uſe no ſhips in her new commerce but thoſe of the nation, nor tranſport any cloths, ſerges, or other woollen ſtuffs, 'till they have been dyed and preſſed.—That in caſe the company diſcontinue of itſelf to unload commodities in the road of the Abbey of St Nicholas in Ruſſia, or ſome other port in the north coaſts of Ruſſia, for the ſpace of three years, the other ſubjects of England ſhall be allowed to traffic to Narva, while the ſaid company diſcontinues its commerce into Ruſſia, only uſing Engliſh veſſels.

This company ſubſiſted with reputation almoſt a whole century, 'till the time of the civil wars. It is ſaid, the Czar then reigning, hearing of the murder of king Charles I, ordered all the Engliſh in his ſtates to be expelled; which the Dutch taking the advantage of, ſettled in their room.—After the Reſtoration, the remains of the company re-eſtabliſhed part of their commerce at Archangel, but never with the ſame ſucceſs as before, the Ruſſians being now well accuſtomed to the Dutch merchants and merchandize.

This company ſubſiſts ſtill, nearly on the foot of that of Hamburgh, and the Northern and Turkey companies, i. e. each member thereof traffics for himſelf, and on his own bottom, only paying an acknowlegement for admiſſion-money, beſides ſome other dues impoſed from time to time, for the occaſions of the company, and the commerce in general.

Of the BRITISH CASPIAN TRADE, as it was attempted to be carried on through RUSSIA to PERSIA.

'Till the ſixteenth century we had no Caſpian commerce, and then only ſmall trials. His preſent Majeſty king George II, renewed a treaty of commerce with Ruſſia in 1734. by which a liberty of this trade is granted. In 1741 the parliament of Great-Britain paſſed an act, granting a liberty to ſuch perſons as are free of the Ruſſia company, to import the RAW SILK of Perſia into Great-Britain, in return for Britiſh manufactures ſold in Perſia; in conſequence whereof, were ſent 170,000 l. value into Perſia.—In 1743, John Elton, one of the factors in Perſia, engaged himſelf as a ſhip-builder in the ſervice of NADIR SHAH, which offended the Ruſſians, and at length occaſioned a decree of the Ruſſian court, publiſhed in 1746, prohibiting this trade.—The cruelties of NADIR SHAH involved his people in ſuch miſery, that no ſales of goods could be made by the BRITISH factors in the north of Perſia, from 1744 to 1747.—In June 1747 NADIR ſuffered a violent death.—His nephew Ali ſucceeded to the throne, and trade revived.—In January following, AMUR ASLAN KHAN, a couſin of NADIR, revolting from ALI, ſent a body of forces, who pillaged the BRITISH factors in RESHD, to the amount of 80,000 l.—Yet the Britiſh CASPIAN traders did not give over all hopes of the recovery of their loſs.—The rebel AMUR ASLAN KHAN, the author of the plunder of the Britiſh factory, was ſoon ſeized by IBRAHIM, and put to death.—After that, SHAHROKH was choſen king, and ſupported by a powerful party.—This carried IBRAHIM back, but his fortune was reverſed, by the deſertion of his army, and his total defeat.—The Britiſh CASPIAN traders applied to SHAHROKH for redreſs, about the month of Jan. 1750.—Afterwards the ENGLISH factors in St Peterſburgh united in ſending a perſon of reputation to act in concert with Mr Wilder in Perſia, intending to reconcile certain difficulties which had ariſen among the adventurers, and apprehending that a coalition of intereſt would be the beſt means of preſerving that unanimity, without which, a ſollicitation for the recovery of their loſs would prove fruitleſs.—With regard to their reſpective loſſes, they had now but one common intereſt: but here we experienced the great want of proper regulation, and what perplexities commercial affairs in ASIA are ſubject to, if left free and open, or with the appearance of a BODY CORPORATE, without the ſubſtance of it *. See our articles LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE.

* In EUROPE every man has a right of claiming according to the laws of the country he is in, regard being had, at the ſame time, to private agreements, or the authority of the conſul of his own nation, as has been found productive of the general good of the whole factory or community: but in ASIA there muſt be ſome regulations independent of the national government, or animoſity and confuſion inevitably enſue; ſo at leaſt we found it in the CASPIAN trade. Hanway's Travels.

The ſucceſs the merchants had at ASTRABAD, the remembrance of the promiſes of ADIL SHAH, the aſſurance that Perſia abounded in money, likewiſe that SHAHROKH was eſtabliſhed in the government, inclined the factors and merchants to attempt a recovery, at the riſk of ſome expence; the ancient laws of Perſia alſo favoured this deſign: however Mr CHAMBERLAIN, who was charged with the king's letter, found it unneceſſary to proceed any farther than RUSSIA, PERSIA being ſtill torn with inteſtine commotions; but nothing has been yet done, and it may be preſumed that a great part of the Indian treaſure is diſſipated ſo as to leave no hope of accompliſhing any recovery.

Theſe diſtractions having continued for ſix years, the cultivation of raw ſilk in PERSIA has alſo been much neglected *. Many other reaſons concurred to raiſe the price of ſilk to this nation. Under theſe circumſtances, the BRITISH parliament was induced to try if our own plantations could produce this valuable commodity, and accordingly an act was paſſed, entitled, An act for encouraging the culture of raw ſilk in his Majeſty's colonies or plantations in America. See the articles SILK, and BRITISH AMERICA, particularly GEORGIA.

* The ARMENIANS and RUSSIANS, have for ſome years paſt imported hardly $\frac{1}{10}$ part of the uſual quantity.

Notwith-

Notwithſtanding the encouragement given by the legiſlature to the culture of raw ſilk in our American colonies, an ample ſupply of this commodity, we fear, can be brought only from Aſia, unleſs we ſhall be able to make ſome very extraordinary improvements. Europe, during the laſt war, did not produce the uſual quantity, nor has the price of ſome particular kinds declined ſince that time: for the conſumption of this article rather increaſes than diminiſhes. The EAST-INDIA company, therefore, we may preſume, applied to parliament for an alteration of the duty of CHINA ſilk, the obtaining of which affords an encouragement to the importation of it *, and no doubt we ſhall have a ſufficient quantity. The act in favour hereof is entitled, An act for repealing the DUTIES payable upon CHINA raw ſilk, and for granting other DUTIES in lieu thereof. See SILK.

* In 1752, we find accordingly a large ſupply of CHINA raw ſilk arrived.

The Ruſſia company finding themſelves thus excluded a branch of trade, from which they had expected many private as well as national benefits, applied their thoughts how beſt to repair this injury: the moſt natural expedient was to obtain a liberty to purchaſe the ſame commodity in RUSSIA, which they could no longer provide in the north of PERSIA, at leaſt not to tranſport it through RUSSIA: they might, indeed, purchaſe ſilk in RUSSIA to tranſport to other countries, but an act of parliament was neceſſary for the importation of it into England. Accordingly the following petition was preſented to the parliament.

The petition of the merchants of London trading through Ruſſia into Perſia,

Sheweth,

'That your petitioners did, in the year 1741, obtain an act of parliament to enable them to import Perſian raw ſilk by the way of Ruſſia from Perſia, if purchaſed there with the produce of Britiſh woollens, and other manufactures. Your petitioners having, in conſequence of the ſaid act, ſent into Perſia about 200,000 l. value in Britiſh manufactures, and received part of their returns in Perſian raw ſilk, are now prevented by the many revolutions and fatalities which have happened in Perſia ſince the commencement of this trade. Other accidents alſo have intervened to obſtruct the deſign as at firſt propoſed, his Majeſty not having any miniſter at the court of Perſia, to protect our factors, his Majeſty's ſubjects, and our effects in that country, which gives the Ruſſians and Armenians very great advantage over us, your petitioners.

And as the Ruſſians and Armenians do bring large quantities of Perſia raw ſilk yearly into Ruſſia, which cannot be purchaſed by your petitioners to be ſent into Great-Britain, the preſent act reſtraining all imports of Perſian commodities, but ſuch as are in return of goods actually ſold in Perſia; the raw ſilk in queſtion is therefore carried to Holland by the Armenians, and woollen goods taken of the United Provinces in return.

Your petitioners therefore humbly pray, that in order not to loſe ſo valuable a branch of trade, as that of importing raw ſilk, a commodity at this time ſo much wanted, that a clauſe may be annexed to the bill now depending, relating to the importation of China raw ſilk, to permit your petitioners to import Perſian raw ſilk, from Ruſſia, ſubject to the ſame reſtrictions as they have done from Perſia by the way of Ruſſia.

And your petitioners, &c.'

In conſequence of this application, the following ſeparate act * was obtained, from which ſome happy effects may be felt, as ſoon as the Perſians are in any capacity to ſend a ſupply of ſilk into Ruſſia: and this will probably be the caſe, whenever Perſia ſhall be reſtored to a ſtate of tranquillity.

* In 1750, 23d year of his Majeſty's reign.

An act for permitting raw ſilk of the growth of Perſia, purchaſed in Ruſſia, to be imported into this kingdom from any port or place belonging to Ruſſia.

'Whereas by an act made in the fourteenth year of his preſent Majeſty's reign (entitled, An act for opening a trade to and from Perſia through Ruſſia) it is (amongſt other things) enacted, that from and after the 24th day of June 1741, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for any perſon or perſons, free, or to be free, of the fellowſhip of Engliſh merchants for diſcovery of new trades, commonly called the Ruſſia company, excluſive of all others, to bring and import into this kingdom, in Britiſh-built ſhipping, navigated according to law, from any port or place of or belonging to the Czar or Emperor of Ruſſia, raw ſilk; or any other goods or commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia (provided ſuch manufacture be made of the growth or produce of Perſia) being purchaſed by barter with woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, and from thence carried into Perſia (gold and ſilver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce ariſing from the ſales of ſuch manufactures, goods or commodities, ſo exported to Ruſſia, and carried into Perſia as aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe: and it is by the ſaid act alſo further enacted, that no ſilk, or other produce, commodities, or manufactures of Perſia, ſhall be imported into Great-Britain through Ruſſia, by virtue of the ſaid act, unleſs the importer or importers thereof do take an oath, or (being of the people called Quakers) a ſolemn affirmation, before the collector, cuſtomer, or comptroller of his Majeſty's cuſtoms (who are by the ſaid act impowered to adminiſter the ſame) at the port or place of importation, that, to the beſt of his or their knowlege and belief, the ſilk, and other the produce, commodities, or manufactures of Perſia, contained in his or their entry or entires, was or were really and truly purchaſed by barter with woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, and from thence carried into Perſia (not being gold or ſilver in coin or bullion) or with the produce ariſing from the ſales of ſuch woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, ſo exported as aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe; and that in default of taking ſuch oath or affirmation, all ſuch ſilk, or other the produce, commodities, or manufactures of Perſia, ſo imported from Ruſſia, ſhall be liable to be ſeized and forfeited, in like manner, as if the ſame had been imported contrary to the act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. entitled, An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation: and whereas, ſoon after the commencement of the ſaid act made in the fourteenth year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, a very beneficial trade between Great-Britain and Perſia, through Ruſſia, was opened, by means whereof great quantities of raw ſilk, and other the goods and commodities, of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia, were imported into this kingdom, in return for the woollen and other manufactures, goods, and commodities of Great-Britain, upon much eaſier and more advantageous terms, than ſuch ſilk, and other goods and commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia could have been otherwiſe procured: but whereas the ſaid trade between Great-Britain and Perſia, through Ruſſia, hath been for ſome time paſt interrupted, the ſubjects of Great-Britain not having been of late permitted to tranſport Britiſh manufactures, goods, and commodities into Perſia, through the dominions or territories of or belonging to the empire of Ruſſia, in conſequence whereof the importation of raw ſilk, and other commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia from Ruſſia, hath been diſcontinued: and whereas it would be of great advantage to the trade of this kingdom in general, as well as contribute to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures in particular, if raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, purchaſed in Ruſſia, were permitted to be imported from any of the countries, dominions, or territories of the empire of Ruſſia, in return for woollen and other manufactures exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, although the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia; may it therefore pleaſe your Majeſty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and by the commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, that from and after the 24th day of December 1750, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for any perſon or perſons, free or to be made free, of the ſaid fellowſhip of Engliſh merchants for diſcovery of new trades, commonly called the Ruſſia company, excluſive of all others, to bring and import into this kingdom, in Britiſh-built ſhipping, navigated according to law, from any port or place within the countries, territories or dominions, of or belonging to the empire of Ruſſia, raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia which ſhall be purchaſed by barter with woollen or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, although the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia (gold and ſilver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce ariſing from the ſale of ſuch manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia as aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe, upon paying, or ſecuring to be paid, the cuſtoms and other duties now payable for the ſame, by any law now in force, according to ſuch rules, methods, and directions, and in the ſame manner and form, and with ſuch allowances, abatements, diſcounts, and drawbacks, and under ſuch penalties, forfeitures, and diſabilities, as are by law preſcribed and practiſed, on the importation of raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, imported into this kingdom from any port or place in the Levant Seas, by any perſon or perſons free of the Levant or Turkey company; any thing in the ſaid act made in the fourteenth year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, or in the ſaid act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II, entitled, an Act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided always, and be it further enacted, that no ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, ſhall be imported into Great-Britain,

Britain, from any of the countries, dominions, or territories, of or belonging to the empire of Ruſſia, by virtue of this act, unleſs the importer or importers thereof do make oath, before the collector, cuſtomer, or comptroller of his Majeſty's cuſtoms (who are hereby impowered and required to adminiſter ſuch oath) at the port or place of importation, that, to the beſt of his or their knowlege and belief, the ſilk, contained in his or their entry or entries, was really and truly purchaſed by barter with woollen or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia (not being gold or ſilver in coin or bullion) or with the produce ariſing from the ſale of ſuch woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, ſo exported as aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe; and in default of making ſuch oath, all ſuch ſilk ſo imported from any of the countries, dominions, or territories, of or belonging to the empire of Ruſſia, ſhall be liable to be ſeized and forfeited, in like manner as if the ſame had been imported contrary to the ſaid act, made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II, entitled, An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation. Provided alſo, that nothing herein contained ſhall extend, or be conſtrued to extend, to deprive the corporation of the united company of the merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies, of any of the powers, privileges, franchiſes, and benefits, which do or ſhall belong to them, or which they could or might have had and enjoyed in any manner whatſoever, if this act had not been made, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And be it further enacted, That this act ſhall be deemed a public act, and ſhall be judicially taken notice of as ſuch, by all judges, juſtices, and other perſons whatſoever, without ſpecially pleading the ſame.'

'I preſume, ſays the judicious Mr Hanway, in his Travels, it is meant by this act to reſtrain all purchaſes of ſilk in Ruſſia to the produce of Perſia only, for the words of the act allow no more: but ſilk of the growth of Greece is ſometimes brought through Walachia into the Ukrain, and from thence tranſported to St Peterſburgh, but the quality does not anſwer. It may be neceſſary to obſerve, that this act has been explained to mean ſilk purchaſed with the produce of Britiſh manufactures at large; for in barter, or with the identical money received for ſuch goods, it is hardly poſſible. This act will very much favour the Armenians, for beſides the encouragement they had to bring ſilk from Perſia into Ruſſia, either to tranſport into Holland for their own account, or to ſell it in Ruſſia, they may now diſpoſe of it alſo in England, and by being naturalized may alſo import ſuch ſilk into this kingdom, for their own account, as one of them has already done. The advantages this bill is calculated to produce are many, for whoever receives the profit of the firſt ſale, the more there is brought to market, the cheaper it muſt be to us.

The benefits of the ſilk manufactory muſt ever appear conſiderable, even upon the moſt ſuperficial view, when it is conſidered, that a pound of 16 ounces of the plaineſt manufactured ſilk is commonly worth 35 or 40s. and that rich ſilks increaſe in proportion to the greater labour which is beſtowed on them. The great pound of 24 ounces, coſting 21s. the ſmall pound is 14s.: let us now ſee what profit ariſes from it, and how much it increaſes in value, as it paſſes through the hands of the ſeveral workmen; and here the charge only of throwing the ſmall pound is 5s. dyeing, grain colours included, on a medium, is 2s. and winding, weaving, &c. is 10s. ſo that allowing 1s. for the dyeing materials, the nation gains 16s. at leaſt on every pound of ſilk manufactured here and exported abroad, and in ſome articles much more. To inſtance only in one particular, a pair of ſilk gauſe ſtockings weighs about 2 ½ ounces of ſilk, which computed as above is 2s. 2d. and 20 per cent. brokerage, and other contingencies on the ſilk, is leſs than 3s. and yet the ſtockings ſell for 9, 10, or 12s. Thus this beneficial branch of commerce gives a ſubſiſtence to the induſtrious artificer, and enriches the nation.'

An abſtract of Mr Hanway's view of the Britiſh trade and factory at St Peterſburgh.

The productions of the earth, ſays this gentleman, and foreign trade, are the great ſources from whence the riches of every nation proceed: Ruſſia has made great ſtrides in the improvement of her commerce for ſeveral years paſt, enjoying ſome advantages beyond any other nation: the number and greatneſs of her rivers open a communication almoſt to every part of the globe, but particularly within her own extended dominions. As to timber, hemp, iron, which are the inſtrumental cauſes of trade, no country in the world produces a greater quantity, which is a natural conſequence of the cheapneſs of land and labour: the former of theſe GREAT-BRITAIN enjoys in her AMERICAN dominions, though not the latter; but if we have occaſion for the commodities of Ruſſia, that empire has the greateſt ſource of her revenues in the trade which this iſland carries on with her ſubjects.

Hemp, which twenty years ſince was hardly worth 5 rubbles the berquevitz *, of late years has been about twice that value; the increaſe of ſilver makes money every year leſs valuable: as they can afford this article in St Peterſburgh at 6 or 7 rubbles, they will certainly bring enough of it to market ſo long as they can obtain 8 or 9.

* Or 6l. per ton firſt coſt in St Peterſburgh.

Iron is alſo a very improveable article: they have both wood, hands, and ore in Siberia, ſufficient to make a quantity, which would depreciate the value of the Swediſh iron, raiſe their rivalſhip and competition with the Swedes † in this important article of the revenues of that nation, and at the ſame time greatly augment thoſe of the Ruſſian empire. But by a certain fatality which prevails in every country in ſome inſtance or other, the Ruſſian government, for a courſe of years, has preferred a profit of about 15,000l. or 5000 tons, to near twice that advantage which they might have had to all appearance, though the price ſhould have been reduced, had the quantity been more than doubly augmented. The great difficulty was, in whoſe hands to lodge an increaſe of power in that diſtant country Siberia. It is not 40 years ſince the Ruſſians began to open iron mines, and yet in the year 1750, they exported 20,000 tons: the ordinary annual export may now be called 12 or 15,000 tons, which is ſo much more in favour of the Ruſſians, as the SWEDISH forges, for theſe few years paſt, have not produced ſo much by one third as formerly.

† The queſtion is, Whether, with regard to the ballance of power in the North, the SWEDES are not poor enough in all conſcience?

The ordinary computation of the Ruſſian general export from St Peterſburgh is three millions ‡, of which the Britiſh ſubjects in Ruſſia take off two, conſiſting chiefly in hemp, flax, iron, hogs-briſtles, hare-ſkins, hempen and flaxen manufactures, Ruſſia leather, and other articles.

‡ In 1750, the exports were four millions of rubbles, or 880,000l. value.

The ordinary imports of the Ruſſians were two millions, conſiſting in indigo, cochineal, lead, pewter, tin, wrought ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, toys, cotton and linen manufactures, woollens and wines. The Ruſſians receive the ballance in their favour in ſilver and gold, of which part is a ſum of about 500,000 ſilver rixdollars, of the coin of the United Provinces; theſe do not, however, paſs current in Ruſſia, but the duties on goods muſt be paid in them at a certain rate, according to weight. The conſumption of the Ruſſians is ſo far increaſed with their acquiſitions by commerce, that they import now more than uſual, but the Engliſh have ſtill above a million ballance againſt them.

It ſeems to be a maxim eſtabliſhed in all countries where commerce has made any progreſs, that the value of exports muſt exceed that of the imports, for otherwiſe the ballance muſt neceſſarily be paid in money: againſt this the Ruſſians have taken the precaution of making it death to export their coin, nor is any plate or bullion exportable without expreſs permiſſion. I have already obſerved, that in countries poſſeſſed of ſilver and gold mines, money may be conſidered as a commodity; but even in theſe countries we do not find ſuch great wealth, as where the only reſource is in the induſtry of numbers of WORKING PEOPLE, and in thoſe productions of the earth, which being eſſential to the ſupport of mankind, are really intrinſically worth more than ſilver, gold, or precious ſtones.

When a people are deſirous of foreign productions, and eſpecially articles of luxury, if they do not exert themſelves to pay for ſuch commodities by their labour, and the produce of their own lands, they muſt be impoveriſhed, and in danger of ruin. The augmentation of the revenues of Ruſſia ought to be imputed, in a great meaſure, to the increaſe of her trade for ſome years paſt, and the increaſe of her national wealth, to the great annual ballance in her favour, of one million of rubbles §.

§ 220,000l.

The interior trade of Ruſſia is certainly very much augmented, and the commerce they carry on with the Tartars and other frontier nations, is a conſiderable object, as Ruſſia ſometimes receives a large quantity of foreign ſilver and gold from thoſe nations, in exchange either for her own or foreign productions. I will not undertake, from an impulſe of my good wiſhes, to determine what articles Ruſſia ſhould be cautious of importing; but thoſe of the produce of Great-Britain are either eſſentially neceſſary to her, or ſuch as ſhe can never ſuffer by: I ſpeak not of the major part of them, for I think not one article, even our ale, but tends to the good of the Ruſſians; not to mention the great advantages to Ruſſia of the Riga and Narva trade with Great-Britain and Ireland. As our Ruſſian trade is well conducted, I ſhall

paſs it over, obſerving only, that in whatever light it is conſidered, it ought to be a means of eſtabliſhing a PERPETUAL FRIENDSHIP between this nation and the Ruſſian empire.

OBSERVATIONS on the RUSSIAN COIN.

It is remarkable, that when the Ruſſian trade began to flouriſh, and for ſome time after, their rubble, which was intrinſically worth no more than 39 current ſtivers of Holland, was eſtimated an exchange at 70 current ſtivers, and this price of their commodities regulated accordingly in the merchants calculation of them; at length it was reduced to 50, and from 45 to 50 it has ſtood for many years. The Ruſſian rubble has too conſiderable an alloy to encourage the exportation, but it is not ſo baſe as to induce any piratical traders to bring falſe coin into the country: I ſpeak of the ſilver money. But by an error in politics in a late reign, the want of money induced the government to make a copper coin of 5 copecks value, which was not intrinſically worth 2; the conſequence of which was, that ſome millions of this coin were run in upon them, particularly by the Jews of Poland; ſo that at length, in the years 1744, 45, and 46, the government wiſely reduced the value each year a copeck, and it now ſtands at 2 copecks. They keep accounts, as before obſerved, in rubbles and copecks, 100 copecks to a rubble; and their old way of reckoning, yet in the greateſt uſe, as it is in ſome parts of Germany, is with beads on wires, which they work without pen and ink.

Before I take my leave, ſays Mr Hanway, of Ruſſia, I ought, perhaps, to mention a circumſtance of ſome moment to my friends in that country, if not to this nation. The Engliſh factory in Ruſſia, as I have already had occaſion to mention, was firſt eſtabliſhed in Archangel, in virtue of a charter granted by king Philip and queen Mary, at the ſame time that the Czar Ivan Waſſilowitz ſwayed the Ruſſian ſcepter.

This charter is of too extenſive a nature, either in regard to the crown, the Ruſſia company, or the Britiſh ſubjects at large, to be fully complied with, and is conſequently become in certain reſpects obſolete: it reſerves, however, in full force, ſuch neceſſary authority as excludes all foreigners, except Ruſſians, from a participation of the Ruſſia trade to Great-Britain; and in virtue of the bye-laws to which the traders acquieſce, the good government of the company is ſupported; a ſmall tax is levied for extraordinary occaſions, and for the charitable purpoſe of relieving poor ſeamen and the widows of deceaſed mariners.

The factors employed abroad in the name of the Ruſſia company, removed from Archangel to St Peterſburgh, ſoon after Peter the Great founded that city, which he made the ſeat of the Ruſſian commerce. Among other particulars it is remarkable, that this factory has been for ſome time blended with foreigners, who, in conſequence of their naturalization, have enjoyed a participation of the privileges and immunities of the company. The Britiſh factors ſaw this with impatience, and at length ſent their remonſtrances to their principals in London, in conſequence of which an oppoſition was made to a bill * then depending before the parliament in behalf of a foreigner. This is a circumſtance in every reſpect intereſting, and about which there are a great variety of opinions: ſome particulars relating to the caſe of the merchants of Great-Britain reſiding at home, or in the Britiſh factories in foreign countries, with reſpect to perſons obtaining acts of naturalization, without any purpoſe of continuing in theſe kingdoms, were printed, and of which I have preſerved ſuch extracts, as ſerve as an introduction to the ſubject, viz.

* 1752.

'The granting to ſtrangers all the privileges and immunities which the conſtitution derives to thoſe born under its protection, and who have a mutual tie of duty and affection, has been ever regarded, in all civilized nations, as a point of the higheſt importance to the public; as it plainly is in Great-Britain, where ſuch a participation, in the birthright of its ſubject, cannot be beſtowed but by the legiſlature; that is, in effect, by the conſent of the whole kingdom.

Whenever, therefore, this high and great favour is conferred, it muſt be preſumed to flow from juſt and weighty reaſons; ſuch as eminent ſervices actually performed by thoſe who ſeek it, or which may be rationally expected from them; and in this light, acts of naturalization are highly reaſonable, as they are apparently calculated for the public benefit; and arguments of this kind may be uſually ſuggeſted, when favours of this ſort have been rendered more general, with a view to invite into this country foreign proteſtants of eaſy fortunes, ſkilful in commerce, capable of introducing or improving manufactures, or, in a word, fit to become uſeful members of the community; into which they are received in the moſt ſolemn manner, and become entitled to all that is dear and valuable to Engliſhmen.

Theſe motives, ariſing from reciprocal advantages, have been eſteemed ſo wiſe and equitable, that acts of naturalization, ſo founded, have been ever conſidered as tending highly to the advantage of this nation, and more eſpecially to the mercantile intereſt, which certainly reaped very ſignal and indiſputable advantages from them; as is particularly manifeſt from numbers of opulent families now ſubſiſting in theſe kingdoms, that were originally invited, fixed, or eſtabliſhed here, in virtue of ſuch wiſe and ſalutary laws.

But this being the caſe, it is not eaſy to ſee how the ſame benefits, or any other adequate to them, can ariſe from particular or general acts of naturalization, where the privileges granted to ſtrangers are not in ſome meaſure reſtrained to their reſidence within the BRITISH DOMINIONS; and this, from the laſt bill for ſuch a general naturalization, ſeemed to have been the ſenſe of the legiſlature, from a clauſe evidently founded upon this reaſoning.

The naturalizing foreigners, and thereby giving them a title to all the privileges of Britiſh ſubjects, without requiring from them the plain and natural equivalent of RESIDING HERE, puts it in their power to ſettle in foreign countries, with all the advantages due to the ſubjects of Great-Britain; and thereby affords them an opportunity of ſerving their own countrymen, and, indeed, foreigners of all nations, at the expence of Great-Britain, without any the leaſt advantage accruing to this nation.

With reſpect to foreigners thus naturalized, and eſtabliſhed as factors abroad, we are not led, either from reaſon or experience, to conceive, that they can have any particular attachment to the intereſts, or any real zeal or rooted affection for the welfare of Great-Britain; but muſt be chiefly governed by that principle of ſelf-intereſt, which originally led them to ſeek ſuch privileges, of which they might avail themſelves, in conſequence of thoſe treaties and alliances concluded with the kingdom of Great-Britain, and by which many valuable immunities and indulgencies are ſecured to her ſubjects, equivalents for which are, and will be always expected from the Britiſh nation. Theſe may frequently occaſion a public expence, and that expence muſt be raiſed by taxes on the natives of this iſland; but theſe naturalized foreigners reſiding abroad, do not in the leaſt contribute to them. Foreigners, under theſe circumſtances, are then more favoured than the natives.

The arguments in favour of unreſtrained acts of naturalization to factors abroad, ought to be extremely clear and convincing; for in Ruſſia, and, perhaps, in other countries, it is difficult, if not impracticable, to make the natives underſtand, how the people of any other country can become Engliſhmen, or Britiſh ſubjects, and by that means entitled to the privileges that by TREATIES are ſtipulated to us. Thus ſuch treaties may be rendered very precarious, the dignity of the nation weakened, and the conduct of ſuch foreigners ſubject us to diſputes and inconveniences, which otherwiſe might never have ariſen.

The act of navigation, that wiſe and ſalutary law, which has been the bulwark of the Britiſh commerce, breathes a ſpirit that would incline us to think the ſame regard ought to be had to Britiſh ſubjects, as to Britiſh bottoms; and that all imaginable precaution ſhould be taken to ſecure the advantages ariſing by a commiſſion on the ſale of the commodities and manufactures of this iſland, to their natural proprietors and native ſubjects; more eſpecially at a juncture, when there is nothing more evident, than that all the nations in Europe have opened their eyes to the advantages of commerce.

The queſtion then is, If upon this principle we ought to be very circumſpect in beſtowing the privileges of ſubjects on thoſe who were yeſterday our rivals, without any ſecurity that they will not become the ſame to-morrow? To this we may alſo add, that as there was a time when the whole of our traffic was engroſſed by Lombards, merchants of the Steel-yard, members of the Hanſe-Towns, and other foreigners, if we ought in common prudence to avoid every thing that may bring us into the like ſtate again?'

The connexion which the nation hath with foreigners, and the advantages confeſſedly derived from them, has made a deep impreſſion on the minds of ſome of the greateſt men in this kingdom; but general views of things do not always give the mind that light and ſatisfaction as a particular object, which it can more eaſily graſp, and from thence, with the greateſt facility, enlarge itſelf, and take in others of a ſimilar nature. Let us then examine the particular caſe which gave occaſion to theſe remarks. 'The amount of the reaſons againſt any reſtrictive clauſe in the acts of naturalization of foreigners, as factors in Ruſſia *, was this, that the treaty of commerce between the crowns of Great-Britain and Ruſſia is really a matter of no great moment, and that the figure which the Engliſh make in Ruſſia is owing to their aſſociation with foreigners in that country.' A further argument was, 'That foreigners ſituated in Ruſſia are under peculiar diſadvantages to all other foreigners, or even what they themſelves would be if ſituated in any other country; not by any particular law of the legiſlature, but from a partial regulation of the Ruſſia company, by which each

* A paper publiſhed in 1752.

member

member is reſtrained, by virtue of the oath taken upon his 'admiſſion to his freedom, from giving any commiſſions to 'any perſon not free of that company; and that freedom is 'never granted but to Britiſh-born and naturalized ſubjects:' from whence it is deduced, that the trade is a monopoly.

Thus becauſe the Ruſſia company do not give up to foreigners the benefits of the Ruſſian trade with Great-Britain, therefore their charter is hurtful to Great-Britain. Now it is evident, that there cannot be a greater trade where a greater liberty is open to the natives of a country than this in queſtion. The Ruſſian markets are always well ſupplied, each trader purſuing his own inclination to import, and his own opinion concerning the riſe and fall of markets, and the opportunities of ſale. I have known Britiſh houſes in St Peterſburgh, that, for ſeveral ſucceſſive years, have had from 40 to 100 bales of cloth remaining over the annual demand. The credit given the Ruſſians is never leſs than twelve months, unleſs in ſmall articles, and it is often extended to fifteen and eighteen months; and the prices of goods are as low as poſſible, for the merchant to receive a living profit.

There are no monopolies or excluſive privileges aſſumed by the Ruſſia company, nor any rule of conduct eſtabliſhed, which has the leaſt appearance of being injurious to this nation; for any natural-born Proteſtant ſubject may, for 5 l. take his freedom of the company, go into Ruſſia, and eſtabliſh a houſe of buſineſs, under the protection of the Britiſh crown. The Engliſh merchant may alſo conſign goods to any perſon who is a native of Ruſſia, or a ſubject of Great-Britain, remembering that the advantage in favour of the Britiſh ſubjects in Ruſſia, according to the 27th article of the treaty of commerce, is about one-third part in the cuſtoms of ſoldiers cloths *, Yorkſhires †, and flannels. Nor is there any reſtraint with regard to the markets of theſe kingdoms, for any Ruſſian, as well as freeman of the company, may ſend Ruſſian goods into England; he is only to pay the aliens duty, as eſtabliſhed by law ‡. The law of nations, the right of reciprocal protection, and the laſt articles of the treaty do, I apprehend, make the Ruſſians intirely free to trade to this country. Some Ruſſian merchants have actually been here, but finding they could not diſpoſe of their goods in a ſatisfactory manner, nor live near ſo cheap as at home, they returned to their own country.

* Coarſe cloths ſo called.

† A thick coarſe cloth.

‡ This duty amounts to 3 s. 4 d. on a ton of hemp, or about $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on the preſent value of hemp, at 23 l. per ton, which, in general terms, is provided for in the treaty of commerce.

Beſides this favour in the cuſtoms, the Britiſh factors in St Peterſburgh eſteem it a valuable privilege, that, in all caſes where they are defendants, particularly bankruptcy, their affairs are cognizable by the college of trade, and their books ſacred to the inſpection of reputable merchants, appointed by that college. In many caſes, alſo, where they are plaintiffs, they apply to the college of trade; but their common ſuits and demands for money of the Ruſſian merchants, have been for ſome years transferred to the magiſtracy *.

* This was a moſt ignorant and corrupt tribunal, and a ſhame to the Ruſſian nation in my time; but if it ſhould continue the ſame, it is in the power of factors to repreſent this grievance.

With regard to the quartering of ſoldiers in Ruſſia, the Britiſh ſubjects are indulged in a peculiar manner, and no doubt it ought to be deemed a favour, under a military government, to be exempt from it. This privilege, however, was more ſacred and more conſiderable formerly than of late years: I have myſelf oppoſed attempts made by the officers of the police to oblige me, as a tenant, to find quarters. I do not know that theſe attempts have yet ſucceeded againſt tenant or landlord; but if the landlord is compelled to find quarters, and the rent is raiſed on this account, the tenant ought to complain: for we conſider it not only as the ſpirit of the treaty, that Britiſh ſubjects ſhall enjoy an intire exemption from quarters, that is, the landlord not being chargeable with it, the tenant ſhall have his rent ſo much the cheaper. This muſt be the ſenſe of the 16th article, or it means nothing; for who can imagine it ſhould be deemed a favour to a Britiſh government, that common ſoldiers may not ſit in the compting-houſe of a Britiſh merchant in Ruſſia?

How cautious the Ruſſians are of being laviſh of any eſſential part of the treaty, appears by this, that, in order to aſcertain the legality of property, when a Britiſh ſubject firſt appears in the cuſtom-houſe of St Peterſburgh, the officers demand a certificate of his Majeſty's conſul, that the perſon is really what he pretends to be, and without it they will not clear his goods.

In what manner this treaty of commerce is conſidered by the Ruſſians, may be deduced from the embaſſy of Monſieur de Dieu at the Ruſſian court, in 1745. It is generally reported, and I believe it is true, that his chief buſineſs was to negociate a treaty of commerce on the behalf of his maſters, the States of the United Provinces, on the plan of that of Great-Britain; but certain it is, that he did not accompliſh any ſuch treaty: and if ſo able and ſo favoured a miniſter could not procure this privilege for his countrymen, the Ruſſians certainly meant not that the advantages they grant to BRITISH SUBJECTS ſhould become general; ſo that naturalizations granted to foreigners in Ruſſia tend to enervate the treaty of commerce, and may at length render it contemptible.

The Ruſſians know very well, that the Engliſh were the firſt that diſcovered Archangel; that they had an excluſive privilege of trade to Ruſſia in the reign of queen Elizabeth; that Peter the Great, whoſe maxims of government are juſtly near to them, always ſhewed a diſtinguiſhed regard to the Engliſh merchants, and even at the time that the politics of the two nations did not intirely coincide *, he gave them his royal word, that, at all events, they might conſider themſelves as under his peculiar care and protection: this I have been aſſured by one who was familiar with his imperial Majeſty. The Ruſſians are alſo ſenſible of the political, as well as of the commercial intereſt of the two nations, and conſider this country, and I hope will always conſider it, as their hereditary friend †. As our extenſive commerce has reached every corner of the earth, the greater our ſupport is at home, the greater muſt our reputation be abroad. Reputation is certainly no imaginary thing, but muſt be in ſome degree productive of good to our commercial intereſt, with relation to the ſpirit of commerce in our factories abroad.

* Some difference with his late Majeſty as elector of Hanover.

† I remember the compliment made to this nation by the governor of Aſtracan, a very ingenious man, whom I have mentioned in the courſe of theſe papers, ſpeaking to his friends in my preſence: 'You are to conſider, ſays he, the 'Engliſh merchants in a different light from thoſe of any 'other nation trading to this country; they are ſkilful, 'generous, humane, upright; they extend their commerce 'over the whole earth, and every country where they come 'is enriched by them. The commodities they deal in are 'neceſſary, ſubſtantial, of the greateſt uſe to the commu-'nity, and they take off more of the Ruſſian commodities 'than all the other nations united.'

The Britiſh houſes in St Peterſburgh have not only a trade to Great-Britain and Ireland, but to Holland, Pruſſia, Sweden, Holſtein, and ſeveral parts of Germany; alſo to Portugal, Spain, and Italy; this has ariſen from the connections of their extenſive commerce, intirely independent of naturalized ſubjects in Ruſſia. On the other hand, this is not the caſe with naturalized ſubjects *. There long has been, and I hope ever will be, an honourable diſtinction abroad between us and other foreigners, both as BRITONS and as MERCHANTS, not in the eſteem of the Ruſſians only, but of all other nations. Whether it is worthy of national obſervation or not, can be determined only from the nature of the ſubject; but it is apparent, that the naturalization of foreigners to reſide in Ruſſia creates ill blood in the breaſts of his Majeſty's natural-born ſubjects who are in that country: it would have created much more, but that there are but few of the naturalized factors who have not failed; had they conducted their trade with moderation and prudence, it is probable the Britiſh commerce might have been intirely in their hands, and this nation nothing the better for the commiſſion on the ſale of Britiſh commodities, or on the purchaſe of thoſe of Ruſſia. Beſides, is it not highly reaſonable to think that ſuch naturalized ſubjects would be leſs tender than the Britiſh factors, in regard to the prices this nation might pay for NAVAL STORES?

* I have heard the Ruſſian merchants occaſionally treat us with ridicule, by uſing a droll expreſſion, which ſignifies, 'Are you a white-waſhed Engliſhman?' And a naturalized factor being in ſome diſtreſs, pleaded his being an Engliſh ſubject, to Valenoſky, a miniſter of the empreſs Anne: 'You an Engliſh ſubject! ſays the miniſter, why you was 'born in Caſan, in the dominion of the empreſs.'

I paſſed ſome years of my life at Liſbon, where I obſerved that the French Proteſtants in that place live in mutual harmony with the native ſubjects of this iſland; and from the experience we have that their riches always center here, they are conſidered upon the ſame footing with other Britiſh ſubjects.

The trading world is often ſuſpected of acting upon narrow principles; yet our factors abroad are not only for the moſt part loyal, but, upon the compariſon of the ſeveral governments under which they live with the excellent conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, they contract a patriot and diſintereſted ſpirit: but when, from the ſtrongeſt evidence, they apprehend the intention of the legiſlature is defeated, and their own intereſt hurt at the ſame time, they are alarmed, and think it their duty to appeal to their country. The Britiſh factors in Portugal are jealous of thoſe foreigners, who having obtained of the Britiſh crown a participation of the Britiſh birthrights, carry all their wealth to any country except this iſland, where, indeed, their paternal connections do not center *. Many of the Portugal traders ſigned the petition already mentioned, the meaning of which is intelligible beyond diſpute,

* Mr Raihleigh, a great Portugal trader, who has given eſtates to many Hamburghers in Liſbon, can tell if any of them ever brought a ſhilling of it into this country.

and

and ſeems to ſpeak the general ſenſe of the merchants of this metropolis, though ſome may be inclined, upon DIFFERENT PRINCIPLES, TO DIFFERENT SENTIMENTS.

The BRITISH FACTORS in HAMBURGH have not one naturalized ſubject among them. The convention of the Britiſh Hamburgh company with the regency of that city, will not admit any naturalized ſubject to a participation of the valuable immunities of that company, and which, for a ſeries of years, they have enjoyed with a moſt unblemiſhed reputation: and what could this nation gain by an admiſſion of naturalized ſubjects into that factory?

It would be eaſy to prove, that whatever we play into their hands is a loſing game to this country; for I do not comprehend what they could give us in exchange. My reaſon for thinking it is a loſing game is this; with regard to the Ruſſia factors, I know at this time eight or ten Britiſh ſubjects, I ſuppoſe there are more, who laid the foundation of their fortunes as factors in that country, and ſome of them are yet intereſted in houſes there; there is not one of thoſe perſons but has brought riches, more or leſs, and ſome of them, I believe, to a conſiderable amount, to the national ſtock of this country, and are, I have great reaſon to think, good members of the community.

On the other hand, I have ſeen a liſt of 24 foreigners, many of whom I know perſonally, who, within theſe 25 years, have been naturalized, and of all this number, in all this time, only one ever came into this kingdom, and he had particular connections with a Britiſh ſubject. It muſt be obſerved, that it was only 25 years ſince any naturalization reached Ruſſia; the trade then was not ſo conſiderable as it is now, nor had our people eſtabliſhed themſelves there under the ſanction of ſuch a treaty as the preſent.

We are jealous of weakening ourſelves by the want of foreign aids; but to think ourſelves dependent in caſes where our intereſt in one light is apparently wounded, is it not to weaken ourſelves, for fear of being weakened? Not to confound things of a different nature under one name, it muſt be obſerved, that the circumſtances of naturalized ſubjects at home, under this government, and intitled to enjoy all the good, and ſubject to ſhare in all the evils, which befal the ſtate, are very different from thoſe perſons who participate of the advantages which this nation enjoys abroad.

The intention of naturalization, no doubt, is the benefit of this iſland; and if there are caſes in which naturalizations are not attended with any benefit, but, on the contrary, proſtitute the honour of the nation, enervate its influence, and counteract its native ſubjects, it is to be preſumed that ſuch caſes have not been ſet in a proper light.

The French Proteſtants have, indeed, ſtrong connections with this iſland; their parentage, their intereſt, or the protection they receive, induce them to conſider this as their proper home, and, conſequently, they are intitled to all the regard which we can ſhew them.

If experience is the beſt guide of life, it is that which muſt teach us whom to receive into our breaſts as friends, and who to reject, in the commercial light we now conſider the ſubject, as no friends to this country. By what rule can we judge better, than by obſerving thoſe people who return our kindneſs with gratitude, and thoſe who forget the benefits they receive?

If our firſt concern ought to be for our own children, it ought then to be conſidered how many ſons of tradeſmen, merchants, gentlemen, and even noblemen, are loſt to their parents, their country, and their God, for want of employment? Merchants are no where more honourably eſteemed than in this country; but they often lay the foundation of that knowlege for which they are eſteemed in diſtant climes: and ſhall we encourage foreigners to take their place?

There cannot be more trade carried on than a country will bear; it will uſually employ ſo much money, ſo many hands, and no more. Do we want money in this nation to carry on our trade? By no means. It is true, the national intereſt is already very low, perhaps it will be lower ſtill; and what will be the conſequence, but we muſt throw more money into trade, and extend our ſettlements and commercial intereſt over the earth as much as poſſible? Why ſhould we encourage FOREIGNERS to do any thing for us ABROAD, which we can do better OURSELVES? What circumſtances ſhould we be in, if all our FACTORS ABROAD were foreigners? What tie, or what ſecurity ſhould we have of their integrity, in the SALE of OUR COMMODITIES, much leſs in the promotion of our NATIONAL MANUFACTURES, in oppoſition to thoſe of other countries, or zeal in the purchaſe of the commodities of the countries where they reſide, if they left us no pledge of their fidelity, nor ſpent any part of their lives in this iſland?

On the other hand, what riches do not OUR FACTORS bring home! How many conſiderable men have not we in this metropolis from LISBON! Who can be ignorant of the wealth that has been brought here by EAST-INDIA FACTORS? Are not theſe great national objects? Italy, Spain, and other countries, are ever ſending us new recruits to our commercial ſtrength, ariſing from FACTORAGE. But there is yet a further reaſon which occurs: let the warmeſt advocates for general naturalizations, without any diſtinctions of perſons, profeſſions, or reſidence, conſider how deſtructive ſuch naturalizations are to our GENERAL SYSTEM OF NATURALIZATION AND NATIONAL PROFIT. If we give to foreign Proteſtants abroad that which ſhould invite them hither, we may even prevent their coming to us. By being laviſh of our beneficence, we ſeem to be ſufficiently paid by their acceptance of it, without any regard to the return which they are to make us. For what foreigner, ſeeing us ſo prodigal of our bounty in a caſe of this nature, which he knows to be injurious to the natural-born ſubjects of this iſland, can, in proportion as it is beneficial to himſelf, entertain any other opinion than that we do not purſue our own intereſt?

The original intention of naturalization being confeſſedly the benefit of this nation, where there is the leaſt ground of ſuſpicion that the party going abroad means not to add any thing to the national advantage, ought he not, in ſuch a caſe, to declare on what principles he pretends to the favour in queſtion; and if it ſhould appear that he deceived the legiſlature, would not ſuch a reſentment be due as at leaſt to refuſe a compliance?

If a reciprocal regard to the intereſt of this nation is the ſole motive of the invitation given to foreigners who reſide here, and if by their reſidence they do in fact give us the earneſt of a grateful return, is there no ſecurity to be aſked of thoſe who do not ſo much as pretend to live amongſt us, nor give us any kind of equivalent? The very expectation of advantage from them is diſtant, remote, confuſed, and, perhaps, utterly unintelligible.

The injury is obvious to demonſtration, and is actually complained of by thoſe who feel it, whoſe intereſt is common with that of the whole nation.

The reader to whom the ſubject is new, muſt now be informed, that the merchants and Ruſſia factors at length obtained the thing they aſked, by fixing the time of abſence to the naturalized foreigners already mentioned, to three years, and then to reſide three years alternately in this country, or to become an alien: but this was a temporizing accommodation of the matter, and does not ſeem to anſwer the full intent of the legiſlature. Upon the principle that this reſtrictive clauſe will produce the end propoſed, it might become a rule of conduct to the nation in ſimilar caſes of naturalized factors. As a trading nation, we might be yet more indulging to thoſe whoſe connections are nearly equal with the common ties of the natural-born ſubjects. But let us conſider diſpaſſionately, how dangerous it is in politics to enter very deep into refinements of this ſort, either immediately to advance the intereſt of a nation, or to prevent an injury which may be more remote.

The object moſt dear to an honeſt man is the real happineſs of his country. This principle being laid down, let us conſider what means are moſt effectual to obtain this end in a direct view. We ſee one of the wiſeſt princes in Europe uſing his utmoſt endeavours to bring people into his country, as we deſire to engage foreigners who can bring riches, arts, or induſtry, to come to this iſland. He gives them lands and great immunities; he has brought 20,000 into his capital in a few years; but he is far from extending thoſe privileges to perſons out of his dominions. With regard to ourſelves, the ſame reaſons that induce us to give encouragement to people to come to this iſland, may be a ſufficient motive not to give it out of theſe dominions, and under foreign juriſdiction. If we carry our views ſo far as to give foreigners abroad a power of taking ſhare in what our own people poſſeſs, without any ſecurity of the leaſt return from ſuch foreigners, nay, where all appearances make againſt any return, do we not counteract our own principle?

If it is urged, That a nation cannot be ſaid to confer a favour which by reſtrictions is rendered leſs valuable; I do not apprehend, without being Quixotes in politics, what it is we mean by theſe words: for ſuppoſe intereſt is the object in purſuit: as to weakening the influence of naturalization, by which commerce is intended to be promoted, this alſo ſeems to prove nothing more, than that we ſhould run all hazards, rather than loſe any poſſibility of getting a ſubject who is a foreigner, though at the expence of a ſubject who is a native. It is ſaid that naturalization without limitation has, after an indefinite abſence, brought foreigners into this country, who might not otherwiſe have come. It would be well worth examining if this is true, and who ſuch perſons are, and what were their inducements to ſettle here, before this argument can be anſwered; for, when they do in fact come, we receive them with open arms; and we ought to countenance and encourage thoſe who may ſettle here, if we do not pay too much for it. But I do not comprehend that here are any ſettlements of ſuch weight as to eſtabliſh a rule of conduct in oppoſition to our commercial intereſt, as it appears in a direct view. The caſe before us is foreign to the countenancing of ſtrangers, who ſet out upon a principle of deſigning to ſettle in this iſland. I ſay FOREIGN TO SUCH PRINCIPLE; for though many French Proteſtants have come here, after being as long abroad under the protection of the crown of Great-Britain as they pleaſed, yet ſtill the matter will reſt

on this iſſue: are we ſo fond of naturalization, as to give a power to foreigners, without diſtinction, to ſupplant our own people, when experience teaches us we have no juſt grounds to expect any ſuitable returns?

It cannot be too often repeated, that we ought to be cautious of curbing in any degree the inclinations of the natural-born ſubjects in regard to commerce, or of damping that ſpirit and application to trade, on which is founded the opulence of this nation, and its ſtrength and influence as a maritime power. And whilſt intereſt is the great incentive to human actions, and particularly actions of this kind, I think it is apparent, that the more we interpoſe to countenance foreigners in commercial deſigns, in caſes not demonſtrably beneficial to this country, the more we depreſs the ſpirits of our own merchants, who confeſſedly do advance the intereſt of the nation: and this diſcouragement may extend not only in regard to their being deprived of thoſe profits which immediately accrue from the ſhare ſuch naturalized foreigners have in their trade, but alſo to a jealouſy of being intirely ſupplanted, in the courſe of time.

May it not be queſtioned what prejudices would this nation receive, if no naturalized ſubject, 'till he has reſided here ſeven years, nor the children born abroad of perſons already naturalized, their parents not having lived in his Majeſty's dominions for the ſame number of years, were received abroad as factors or merchants, in common with native-born ſubjects? If it can be demonſtrated that ſuch prejudice will be greater than any that can be proved on the other ſide the queſtion, there is no room for a debate; but if it can be made appear that it is only equal, the ſcale, we may expect, will turn in favour of the native ſubject, much more if the prejudice is againſt the latter, for this plain reaſon, that the national and mercantile intereſt are but two words for the ſame thing. The impartial reader will conſider the argument, not the writer, if I am ſuſpected of intereſt, where I have no other view than national benefit; yet the real truth can receive no diminution: I hope that will be done which is moſt for the intereſt of my country, be it what it will.'

RUSSIA conſidered with relation to other principal ſtates and empires.

The northern parts of the empire of Ruſſia, from the frontiers of the Swediſh dominions to thoſe of China and Japan, are guarded in ſuch a manner, as to be ſecure not only from danger, but from apprehenſions, having on that ſide a ſea hitherto impenetrable, and through which, if any paſſage could be found, it muſt turn to the benefit, but can never prove of any diſadvantage, to the ſubjects of Ruſſia; which is a point of great conſequence, and a bleſſing ſcarce known to any other country than this. The frontiers of the empire towards China are alſo inacceſſible, as conſiſting of deſerts impenetrable by armies, but which yield a tolerable paſſage for caravans; ſo that the Ruſſians may always reckon on the friendſhip of the Chineſe, and, whenever they apply themſelves ſeriouſly thereto, may make this friendſhip turn to their advantage.

The Tartars inhabiting the countries between Ruſſia and Perſia, are no longer formidable to the firſt-mentioned empire; on the contrary, they all reſpect it, and many of them have willingly ſubmitted, and become vaſſals to it.

The Caſpian Sea, and the dominions which the Ruſſians have on that ſide, give them a fair opening into Perſia, which they have already improved ſo, as to gain to themſelves a very advantageous trade; and this by degrees may be extended, perhaps, as far as the Eaſt-Indies.

It will always be the intereſt of Ruſſia to cultivate a good underſtanding with the Shah; but, in caſe of a rupture, ſhe would not have much to fear, ſince the frontiers of Perſia being open, ſhe might ſoon make an end of the war, by letting looſe upon them the Tartars who are her tributaries. The Turks, and their aſſociates the Crim Tartars, are more dangerous enemies; but, at preſent, the circumſtances of the Porte are ſuch as ſcarce will allow her to break with the Ruſſians, if ſhe had concluded a peace with Perſia; and we ſhall hereafter ſee, that Ruſſia can never want the power of defending herſelf on this ſide, or even of making the Turks ſenſible of the folly of breaking with her without juſt provocation. The two great Chriſtian principalities depending upon that empire, will always have a biaſs in favour of the Ruſſians, and, therefore, the Turks run a greater hazard by making war with this, than with any other nation.

The intereſts of Ruſſia in Europe are not hard to aſſign. As to Sweden, it is of great conſequence to live upon good terms with that crown; and, on the other hand, the ſuperiority of Ruſſia, when forced into a war, has of late been rendered ſo apparent, that there are good grounds to expect the Swedes will continue quiet on that ſide for a long time to come, even ſuppoſing that no ſtreſs ſhould be laid on the natural connections between the two branches of the houſe of Holſtein, when they come to govern theſe nations. As it is requiſite for the court of Peterſburgh to be well with the Swedes on one ſide, ſo it imports them no leſs to be upon good terms with the Poles on the other; for which reaſon, we ſee the late Czarina omitted nothing to ſet the preſent king Auguſtus upon the throne of Poland, well knowing that his intereſts were of ſuch a nature as muſt, without treaties, bind him effectually to her's.

There ſeems to be no great cauſe of intercourſe between Ruſſia and Denmark, farther than what reſults from attention to the ballance of power in the North, which will always incline a wiſe adminiſtration in this empire to keep the ſcales as even as may be, between this crown and that of Sweden and Denmark.

The intereſts of Ruſſia, with reſpect to the houſe of Auſtria, are its moſt material concern; for while theſe houſes are united, not only by general alliances, but by a due and hearty regard for each other's proſperity, neither has much to fear from the Turks; but if they are divided, and the Ottomans ſhould recover their ancient power, they may be formidable to both.

As to Pruſſia, of late years great regard has been due, and, in ſucceeding times, it is like to claim a greater; but certainly, if theſe two powers purſue their true intereſts, and are not miſled by ambitious views, they are not like to fall out. The maritime powers are the natural allies, and hitherto have been, and are like to be faſt friends to Ruſſia.

As to the other potentates of Europe, their dominions lie at too great a diſtance for Ruſſia to have very great intercourſe with them of any ſort; and with reſpect to the houſe of Bourbon, as the court of Peterſburgh has never had any cauſe to like, ſo, in ſpite of all its power, there is no probability of its ever ſeeing much reaſon to fear it.

And now the imperial prince has iſſue, there does not appear any ſign, at preſent, that this empire will ſoon be diſturbed by any inteſtine commotions in regard to the ſucceſſion; nor could any thing diſtreſs the Ruſſians on this occaſion, unleſs we ſuppoſe that Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Pruſſia, ſhould unite, and continue united in this league, to promote a revolution, which ſeems now far from probable.

It is very certain, that the great power of the Ruſſian empire and her cloſe connexion with the houſe of Auſtria, has excited a ſpirit of ſuſpicion and jealouſy in the North, to which alſo the particular views of ſeveral powers have not a little contributed; but notwithſtanding this, what has been ſaid remains not at all the leſs certain.

But if, on any future occaſion, a war ſhould actually break out between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, &c. the turn of that war muſt remain very uncertain, ſince the force of the Ruſſian empire is really much greater than is commonly imagined, and would be found ſo in ſuch a caſe.

We may from hence form a judgment of the abilities of thoſe miniſters who direct at preſent the councils of this empire, and who by ſhewing an unſhaken ſteadineſs in purſuing that ſyſtem which they have adopted, have at leaſt raiſed the credit of their government to a very high degree, and, for ſome time, made this empire not only the arbiter of all differences in the north, but have likewiſe extended its influence to the moſt diſtant parts of Europe, ſince it is univerſally confeſſed, that the march of the Ruſſian auxiliaries, during the late war, was the meaſure that contributed moſt to the concluſion of the definitive treaty at Aix la Chapelle.

It deſerves the reader's notice, likewiſe, that, in the preſent ſtate of things, the true intereſts of this empire will certainly be the rules of the reigning Czarina's government; for remaining ſingle, and having no particular deſires or deſigns to gratify, the peace and proſperity of her government can depend on nothing elſe.

In conſequence of this, a conſtant and firm adherence to that ſyſtem, beſt calculated to promote the good of her ſubjects, and the glory of the empire, will be the ſtanding maxims in the Czarina's councils. As ſuch a conduct cannot fail of having a ſtrong tendency to promote peace and ſatisfaction at home, and to ſecure the attachment of the allies of Ruſſia, by maintaining the credit of the adminiſtration abroad, there are no grounds to apprehend, at leaſt in our times, any great inconveniences of extraordinary alterations ſhould enſue.

We may likewiſe add, that things remaining, as they are like to remain, in their preſent poſture for a few years, the advantages of theſe meaſures will become more and more perceptible, and a proper ſenſe of loyalty and gratitude diffuſe itſelf through the inhabitants, even of the remoteſt provinces of that extended empire, which is certainly in a very thriving condition, and will by degrees, in conſequence of the improvements that are daily making, come to extend its power and influence much farther than thoſe who are unacquainted with, or unattentive to, political principles, can eaſily conceive.

REMARKS on our article Ruſſia, ſince the laſt war, and treaty of peace of 1763.

As the laſt treaty of peace has annexed ſuch extenſive territories to the crown of Great-Britain in North-America, it is now hoped, that we ſhall no longer ſtand in need of NAVAL STORES of any kind from Ruſſia, or elſewhere; we being able to produce them there, in what quantities we pleaſe, provided rational and vigorous means ſhall be taken by the government of England for that purpoſe. See our articles NAVAL STORES, NAVAL AFFAIRS, WAR.

That the court of England ſeems to be in earneſt about this important matter, it is ſaid that an ADDITIONAL DUTY will ſoon be laid on the foreign importation of HEMP, HEMPSEED and FLAX, particularly from RUSSIA and the Baltick; great quantities, the growth of our own American colonies, being expected over in the ſpring.

RUTLANDSHIRE, the ſmalleſt county in England, almoſt of a circular form, encompaſſed on the eaſt and ſouth with Lincolnſhire and Northamptonſhire, with Leiceſterſhire on the ſouth and weſt, and with part of Leiceſterſhire and Lincolnſhire on the north. It is about 15 miles in length, 10 in breadth, and is computed at 136 ſquare miles.

The air is ſweet and healthful, it being quite free from fogs and miſts. The Guaſher-Waſh is the chief river which runs through the ſhire, which is from eaſt to weſt, in the middle of the county. There are ſeveral brooks that run into this river, by which the inhabitants are ſupplied with water, and with plenty of fiſh; almoſt all the ſouth and eaſt parts, in particular, have good ſupplies from the river Welland, which ſeparates it from Northamptonſhire and Lincolnſhire.

The ſoil is very fruitful in corn and paſture, which breeds great numbers of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, whoſe wool is obſerved to be more red than in other countries, from a red quality peculiar to the ſoil. The vale of Catmos in particular, where Oakham ſtands, is not inferior in fertility to the vales of White Horſe and Belvoir. It alſo produces abundance of wood for fuel.

OKEHAM is the capital of the county, and ſhire-town for the aſſizes, and for tranſacting all other public affairs.

UPPINGHAM, a modern town, the ſecond in the county, and the only one that has a market. It is a neat, compact, well-built town, with a well-frequented market for cattle, corn, &c.

This, though a ſmall county, is remarkable for many fine ſeats, and ſome of the firſt rank, particularly the earl of Gainſborough's at Enton, and the earl of Winchelſea's, at Burley on the Hill, both near Okeham.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter Q.

With regard to RUM.

RUM imported in caſks not containing 20 gallons at the leaſt, (except for the ſeamen's uſe) forfeited, or the value; but, if it appears, to the ſatisfaction of the principal officer of the cuſtoms, to be imported without fraud or concealment, may be admitted to entry. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 2. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

—— or ſpirits, of the Britiſh ſugar-plantations, imported directly into Great-Britain, may, on entry, and before payment of the duty of excife, be landed and put into warehouſes, provided by the proprietor or importer, and approved of by the commiſſioners of exciſe, under the joint locks of the proprietor and warehouſe-keeper; ſecurity being firſt given to pay the ſaid duty, (according to the gauge at landing) as ſoon as ſuch rum or ſpirits ſhall be ſold, or at the end of ſix months, if they ſhall not be then ſold. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 1, 7. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

—— If the duty is not paid at the expiration of the ſaid ſix months, the commiſſioners may cauſe ſuch rum or ſpirits to be ſold by auction, and out of the produce diſcharge the duty and all expences, and pay the ſurplus, if any, to the proprietor. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 9. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

—— Landed without being entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and without the collector of exciſe, or without a warrant from the proper officers, or without the preſence of an exciſe-officer, forfeited; one moiety to his majeſty, the other to ſuch perſon as ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 3. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

—— May from time to time be delivered out of ſuch warehouſes, (but not in leſs quantities than one caſk, containing at leaſt 20 gallons, unleſs it was for the uſe of the ſeamen in the voyage) on paying the duty, and producing to the warehouſe-keeper, and officer appointed to attend, a warrant or certificate from the collector, certifying ſuch payment. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 5, 6. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

—— Warehouſe-keepers, and officers appointed to attend warehouſes, are to enter, in proper books, accounts of all rum, &c. which ſhall be brought into and carried out of their reſpective warehouſes; and at the end of every ſix months tranſmit an account thereof, upon oath, to the commiſſioners of exciſe, together with what is remaining; and if it ſhall appear to the ſaid commiſſioners, that any of the ſaid rum, &c. has been delivered out before payment of the duty, then ſuch warehouſe-keepers and officers reſpectively offending, ſhall be diſabled to hold any publick office, and alſo forfeit 100l. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 4. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

—— No rum nor ſpirits of America, (except of the growth or manufacture of his majeſty's ſugar-colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and her furniture. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

And ſince, there has been an act of parliament, made in the 33d year of his late majeſty, for encouraging the exportation of RUM and SPIRITS of the growth, produce and manufacture, of the Britiſh ſugar-plantations, from this kingdom, and of Britiſh ſpirits made from moloſſes.

The duties of cuſtom payable upon the importation of rum and ſpirits from the Britiſh ſugar-plantations, to be repaid upon the exportation thereof—And the duties of exciſe to be remitted upon all ſuch as ſhall be exported before payment is made of the ſaid duties—The exporter to give bond for the due exportation thereof—Upon producing a certificate of ſuch bond having been given, the rum, or ſpirits mentioned therein, are to be delivered out of the warehouſes—And a certificate of the quantity, and ſize and marks of the caſks, &c. to be given therewith—And produced to the officer attending the ſhipping—Due entry to be made of ſuch delivery—Bonds to be given for the duties are to be delivered up, upon oath made of the intended exportation—And certificates produced, &c. of the quantity ſhipped, and that the ſame are proof ſpirits; and alſo of the delivery thereof from the warehouſes, &c.—If part only of the rum or ſpirits, mentioned in the bond, are certified to be delivered and ſhipped, the quantity is to be indorſed on the bond—And the bond is to be delivered up, when the remaining part ſhall be certified to be delivered and ſhipped; provided the ſame be before the time ſtipulated for payment of the duties.—All rum and ſpirits intitled to the ſaid drawback, &c. are to be exported in caſks containing not leſs than 100 gallons, and in veſſels not leſs than 100 tons burthen—The quantity delivered out is to be computed according to the gauge taken upon the importation thereof—If after delivery they ſhall be concealed, or not ſhipped within 12 hours, or the caſks opened, or the ſame be reduced or altered in quantity or quality; ſuch rum or ſpirits are FORFEITED, and the bond is to be put in ſuit; unleſs the commiſſioners ſee cauſe to forbear the ſame—Bonds given for exportation are not to be diſcharged 'till certificates be produced of the due exportation and landing, and proof made thereof on oath, in manner required by the act, for preventing the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, &c.—The condition of all bonds taken ſhall be to produce ſuch certificates, within ſuch times reſpectively as are limited by the act, for producing the certificates therein required to be delivered—In caſe no ſuch certificates ſhall be produced within the time limited, the bonds may be put in ſuit—If ſuch rum or ſpirits ſhall not be exported, or ſhall be fraudulently relanded, the ſame, together with the veſſels, cattle and carriages employed therein, are FORFEITED; and the perſons concerned forfeit double the amount of the duties—And the maſter or commander of the veſſel, if he aſſiſts or connives thereat, is to ſuffer alſo ſix months impriſonment; or if the package be altered before arrival at the place of diſcharge, he forfeits 100l.—The rum or ſpirits to be exported, are to be PROOF; and the exporter is to give five days previous notice of the ſhipping thereof, and allow the officers to mark the caſks, and take ſamples, paying for the ſame, if demanded, upon PENALTY of forfeiting 100l.—If any rum or ſpirits ſhall be altered or reduced, in quantity or quality, after being ſhipped, the ſame is FORFEITED, and the perſons concerned therein forfeit 100l.—And no drawback is to be allowed for the ſame—PENALTY for granting a falſe certificate, or of counterfeiting, altering, &c. any oath or certificate, 500l.; one moiety to the crown, and the other to the proſecutor.—An additional DRAWBACK of 3l. 3s. per tun, allowed on all Britiſh-made ſpirits drawn from moloſſes, exported; oath being made of the truth thereof, and the duties being duly paid; and certificate produced of the quantity ſhipped, and that the ſame were PROOF SPIRITS, &c.

The powers, regulations, forfeitures, and clauſes, &c. in the recited act, relating to the DRAWBACKS hereby granted on the exportation of ſpirits, and to the preventing or puniſhing FRAUDS, &c. are extended to this act—And all FINES, PENALTIES,

PENALTIES, and FORFEITURES, impoſed by this act, ſhall be ſued for, levied, recovered, or mitigated, by ſuch ways, means, and methods, as may be recovered or mitigated by any law or laws of exciſe (not otherwiſe directed by this act) or by action of DEBT, BILL, PLAINT, or INFORMATION, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer of SCOTLAND; and that one moiety of every ſuch FINE, &c. ſhall be to his Majeſty, &c. and the other to him or them, who ſhall diſcover, inform, or ſue for the ſame. — That any perſon ſued, &c. in purſuance of this act, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, &c. in evidence in their defence, &c. and if a verdict ſhall paſs for defendant, ſuch defendant ſhall have TREBLE COSTS.

With regard to the RUSSIA COMPANY.

RUSSIA COMPANY. —— Any Britiſh ſubject may be free of it, upon payment of 5 l. for admiſſion. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 6. §. 1, 2. — Any perſon free of this company may import, in Britiſh-built ſhips legally navigated from Ruſſia, any goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia (provided ſuch manufactures are made of the growth or produce of Perſia) purchaſed by barter with, or the produce of, woollen or other goods exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia (except gold or ſilver in coin or bullion) and from thence carried into Perſia, to the truth whereof the importer is to make oath; paying the ſame cuſtoms as ſuch goods are liable to if imported from the Levant ſeas by any perſon belonging to the Turkey company. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 1, 2. — But by 23 Geo. II. cap. 34. raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia may be imported under the ſame regulations, although the goods with which they are purchaſed are not carried from Ruſſia into Perſia.

—— If any doubt ſhall ariſe, whether any of the goods ſo imported be of the growth, &c. of Perſia, or not, or were imported contrary to this act, and for that reaſon ſhall be ſeized as forfeited, the proof thereof ſhall be incumbent on the importer or claimer. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 4.

—— Wrought ſilks, and other manufactures of Perſia, mentioned in act 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. are not to be worn in this kingdom, but are to be under the regulations in the ſaid act. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 3.

—— Nothing in this act is to deprive the Eaſt-India company from enjoying their full powers, privileges, &c. — 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 6.

S.

SABLE. Several authors have, here and there, given deſcriptions of theſe ſpecies of precious animals. I ſhall therefore only add thus much, viz. (1.) That it is the nature of theſe creatures, at a certain time of the winter, to ſleep for a while; but firſt they hide themſelves ſo ſecurely, that it is a very hard matter to find any of them. And if at any time they are diſcovered, they lie wrapped up, as it were, like a ball, and you may roll and throw them about, without waking them. (2.) That they live upon mice, cedar-kernels, red-berries, fiſh, &c. (3.) That thoſe years, when cedar-kernels and red-berries are moſt plenty, theſe animals are the moſt difficult to be found, and their furr is the worſe; becauſe feeding plentifully, they reſt moſt; on the contrary, if there be a ſcarcity of cedar-kernels and berries, they are eaſier caught; for they then run more about, and exerciſe makes the furr much more beautiful. (4.) That the moſt beautiful ſable ſkins have generally the worſt tails, and the worſt ſkins, on the contrary, the fineſt tails. (5.) That there are ſables as white as ſnow, but they are met with very rarely. (6.) Upon the iſlands in the north-eaſtern ſea, beyond Khamtſchatki in Ruſſia, the ſables are very indifferent, but then they have tails a quarter of a Ruſſian ell long, ſtreaked red and black. Near Craſnoyahr, Abakan, Kuanetſko, and ſome other places, you may buy a hundred of the beſt ſable tails for about ſix or eight rubbles; whereas they are worth from 25 to 30 rubbles at Tobolſky, and will ſell for 100 rubbles at Moſcow. The ſkins bear the ſame proportion of price. A timber of ſables conſiſts of 40 ſkins, or 20 couple.

Note, a rubble is about 4s. 6d. ſterling. See the article RUSSIA.

SADLER. Under this title is carried on a very conſiderable trade, but in very different degrees.

Their buſineſs is not only ſaddle-making, which is a curious as well as very ancient employ, but to complete ſome, and ſell all other neceſſaries for the ſaddle-nag and horſeman.

Some only work privately, making up goods for town and country trade.

Some keep but ſmall ſhops, and for the moſt part ſell and repair the middling ſorts of ſadlery-wares, but ſeldom make up.

Others have large ſhops, and make up and ſell all ſorts of the fineſt horſe-furniture.

Others again keep large ſtocks of goods for exportation, and merchandize a great deal on their own accounts.

They were a company before the year 1190, but not incorporated 'till 1272. In the reign of king Edward I. Livery-fine 10 l. whereof his royal highneſs the late prince of Wales was a member.

Their hall is near Foſter-lane in Cheapſide, and their court-day on the firſt Tueſday in the month.

Before their hall-gate they have a ſtand, in which they ſit to attend the lord mayor on the day of his inſtallation.

SAFE-CONDUCTS, PROTECTIONS, PASSPORTS.

A ſafe-conduct is a ſecurity given by the king, under the great-ſeal, to a ſtranger, for his ſafe coming into and paſſing out of the realm, touching which are ſeveral ſtatutes. A paſſport is a licence granted by any in authority, for the ſafe paſſage of man or ſhip, &c. from one place or country to another.

Protections are of two ſorts; public, where a prince takes on him the defence of another prince or ſtate; or private, of perſons or ſhips, in effect only a paſſport.

By the law of protection, the protected perſon owes all reſpect to his protector, who, on his part, ſhould defend and ſuccour the protected; or he may withdraw himſelf from the protection, and ſeek another. The Genoeſe revolting from the protection of the French king, he changed their conditions into privileges, that he might deprive them of them when he ſhould think fit. Molloy 84.

In protections of ſhips and perſons, generally great faith is kept by the granters; for at this day, if a ſhip hath a Barbary protection, the pirates of that nation will reſtore any ſuch ſhip they have taken; and if no protection, yet if taken within ſight of their caſtles, the prize is not abſolute, unleſs reſiſtance be made.

The ſtatute of Magna Charta, 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. ordains, That all merchant-ſtrangers ſhall have ſafe conduct into, out of, and whilſt in, England, to buy, ſell, &c. if not openly prohibited; except in time of war, and in an enemy's country. And by 27 Edw. III. cap. 2. Safe-conduct is granted to merchant-ſtrangers, to dwell and traffic in this kingdom, and return at pleaſure.

By 15 Hen. VI. cap. 3. it is recited, That whereas the king had granted ſafe-conduct to certain perſons coming in and out of England, France, and Ireland, with certain laden ſhips; and faith ſhould be given both to the copy called Vidimus, and the original of thoſe letters: and that one John de Guntier granted ſuch copy to as many as he pleaſed, ſealed with the ſeal of him that called himſelf king of France; by which a great navy of enemies was aſſembled, and took many ſhips, &c. to the great damage of England.

The king, at the grievous complaint of the commons in parliament, ordains, that the clauſe Vidimus ſhall not be put in any future ſafe-conduct granted, without great cauſe. And alſo that in all ſafe-conducts, the name of the ſhips, maſters, number of mariners, and ſhip's burthen, ſhall be expreſſed.

By 18 Hen. VI. cap. 8. Merchants aliens may charge veſſels of Spain, and other parts, enemies of the king, if the maſters, owners, &c. have ſafe-conduct. And if any ſuch ſhips be taken by the king's ſubjects, not having authentic ſafe-conducts, the poſſeſſors may enjoy the ſame. And proclamation is to be made of this ſtatute on the ſea-coaſts, that merchants aliens may have knowlege of it.

By 20 Hen. VI. cap. 1. All letters of ſafe-conduct granted to the king's enemies, or others, ſhall be enrolled in chancery before delivery, or elſe be void: and if at any time hereafter, goods are taken by Engliſh ſubjects on the ſea in enemy's ſhips, not having legal ſafe-conduct, they ſhall enjoy them without reſtitution.

And the king's ſubjects, taking ſuch ſhips, and forcibly bringing them into any port of the realm, ſhall not receive damage, if ready to make reſtitution within reaſonable time after they ſhall have knowlege of letters of ſafe-conduct, enrolled in chancery before taking them.

By 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4. Any ſubject offending upon the ſea, or in any port of the kingdom, to the injury of any ſtrangers in amity with us, or having ſafe-conduct, the chancellor of England may iſſue proceſs to bring the offenders to anſwer to the parties grieved, and make ſuch reſtitution as ſhall ſeem to the chancellor expedient.

And on this proceſs, the chancellor ſhall further proceed, to make full delivery and reſtitution, of perſons, ſhips, &c. with all coſts and loſſes, diſburſed and ſuffered by them.

A late act 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. recites, That treaties are ſubſiſting between the king and ſubjects of Barbary, by which it is ſtipulated, that all ſhips belonging to his Majeſty or his ſubjects, may paſs the ſeas, and enter the harbours of the ſaid governments, without ſeizure or moleſtation, on producing paſſes under ſeal of the admiralty-office, called Mediterranean paſſes. It is therefore enacted, That if any ſhall forge or counterfeit any ſuch paſs, or make any alteration or erazement, &c. ſuch perſons, on conviction in any of his Majeſty's dominions, ſhall be guilty of felony.

And the ſaid offences, whereſoever committed, may be tried and adjudged in any county of England, or before any juſticiary in Scotland.

By the laws of France, no veſſel ſhall put to ſea from any port, without paſſport from the admiral, recorded at the admiralty-office of the place whence the maſter ſails; who, in 24 hours after his arrival in any port, ſhall preſent his paſſport, and declare all the conſiderable circumſtances of his voyage, &c.

And by a treaty marine, made by king Charles II. with the king of France in the year 1677, a form of paſſport is appointed to be given by the lord admiral of England, or by the mayor or other chief magiſtrate, or the principal officers of the cuſtoms, in the ſeveral ports and places of the king's

dominions, to ſhips and veſſels. See MARQUE [LETTERS of MARQUE], REPRISALS, MARINE TREATIES.

SAFFRON.

Of its growth and cultivation in England.

As ſaffron grows at preſent moſt plentifully in Cambridgeſhire, and has grown formerly in ſeveral other counties of England, the method of culture does not, I believe, vary much in any of them, and therefore I have judged it ſufficient to take notice of the obſervations which ſeveral capable perſons have made, in different ſeaſons, in the years 1723, 24, 25, and 28, up and down all that large track of ground that lies between Saffron Walden and Cambridge, in a circle of about ten miles diameter. In that country, ſaffron has been longeſt cultivated, and therefore it may reaſonably be expected, that the inhabitants thereof are more thoroughly acquainted with it than they are any where elſe.

I ſhall begin with the choice and preparation of the ground.

The greateſt part of the track already mentioned, is an open level country with few incloſures; and the cuſtom there is, as in moſt other places, to crop two years, and let the land lie fallow the third. Saffron is always planted upon fallow ground, and all other things being alike, they prefer that which has borne barley the year before.

The ſaffron-grounds are ſeldom above three acres, or leſs than one, and in chuſing them, the principal thing they have regard to is, that they be well expoſed, the ſoil not poor, nor a very ſtiff clay, but a temperate dry mould, ſuch as commonly lies upon chalk, and is of a hazel colour; though if every thing elſe anſwers, the colour of the mould is pretty much neglected.

The ground being made choice of, about Lady-day, or the beginning of April, it muſt be carefully plowed, the furrows being drawn much cloſer together and deeper, if the ſoil will allow it, than is done for any kind of corn, and accordingly the charge is greater.

About five weeks after, or during any time in the month of May, they lay between twenty and thirty loads of dung upon each acre, and having ſpread it with great care, they plow it in as before. The ſhorteſt rotten dung is the beſt, and the farmers who have the conveniencies of making it, ſpare no pains to make it good, being ſure of a proportionable price for it. About Midſummer they plow a third time, and between every ſixteen feet and an half, or pole in breadth, they leave a broad furrow or trench, which ſerves both for a boundary to the ſeveral parcels (when there are ſeveral proprietors to one encloſure) and to throw the weeds in at the proper ſeaſon.

To this head likewiſe belongs the fencing of the grounds, becauſe moſt commonly, though not always, that is done before they plant. The fences conſiſt of what they call dead hedges, or hurdles to keep out not only cattle of all ſorts, but eſpecially hares, which would otherwiſe feed on the ſaffron-leaves during the winter.

About the weather we need only obſerve, that the hotteſt ſummers are certainly the beſt, and if therewith there be gentle ſhowers from time to time, they can hardly miſs of a plentiful rich crop, if the extreme cold, ſnow, or rain of the foregoing winter, have not prejudiced the heads.

The next general part of the culture of ſaffron, is planting or ſetting the roots; the only inſtrument uſed for which, is a narrow ſpade, commonly termed a ſpit-ſhovel.

The time of planting is commonly in the month of July, a little ſooner or later, according as the weather anſwers. The method is this: one man with his ſpit-ſhovel raiſes between three and four inches of earth, and throws it before him about ſix, or more inches; two perſons, generally women, following him with ſaffron heads, place them in the fartheſt edge of the trench he makes at three inches diſtance from one another, or thereabouts. As ſoon as the digger or ſpitter has gone once the breadth of the ridge, he begins again at the other ſide, and digging as before, covers the roots laſt ſet, and makes the ſame room for the ſetters to place a new row, at the ſame diſtance from the firſt, that they are from one another. Thus they go on 'till a whole ridge, containing commonly one rod, is planted, and the only nicety in digging is to leave ſome part of the firſt ſtratum of earth untouched to lie under the roots; and in ſetting, to place the roots directly upon their bottoms. What ſort of roots are to be preferred, ſhall be ſhewn under the fourth head; but it muſt be obſerved in this place, that formerly when roots were very dear, they did not plant them ſo thick as they now do; and that they have always ſome regard to the ſize of the roots, placing the largeſt at a greater diſtance than the ſmall ones.

The quantity of roots planted in an acre is generally about ſixteen quarters, or 128 buſhels, which according to the diſtances left between them, as before aſſigned, and ſuppoſing them all to be an inch in diameter one with another, ought to amount to 392,040 in number.

From the time that the roots are planted, 'till about the beginning of September, or ſometimes later, there is no more labour about them; but as they begin to ſpire, and are ready to ſhew themſelves above ground, which is known by digging a few out of the earth, the ground muſt be carefully pared with a ſharp hough, and the weeds, &c. raked into the furrows, becauſe otherwiſe they would hinder the growth of the plants.

In ſome time after appear the ſaffron-flowers, and this leads us to the third branch of our preſent method. The flowers are gathered as well before, as after they are full blown, and the moſt proper time for this is early in the morning. The owners of the ſaffron get together a ſufficient number of hands, who place themſelves in different parts of the field, pull off the whole flowers, and throw them handful by handful into a baſket; and ſo continue 'till all the flowers are gathered, which happens commonly about ten or eleven o'clock. Having then carried home all they have got, they immediately ſpread them upon a large table, and placing themſelves round it, they fall to picking out the filamenta, ſtyli, or chives, and together with them, a pretty long portion of the ſtylus itſelf, or ſtring to which they are joined. The reſt of the flower they throw away as uſeleſs. The next morning they return into the field again, whether it be wet or dry weather, and ſo on daily, even on Sundays, 'till the whole crop be gathered.

The chives being all picked out of the flowers, the next labour about them is to dry them on the kiln. The kiln is built upon a thick plank (that it may be moveable from place to place) ſupported by four ſhort legs. The outſide conſiſts of eight pieces of wood, about three inches thick, joined in form of a quadrangular frame, about twelve inches ſquare at bottom on the inſide, and twenty-two inches at the top, which is likewiſe equal to the perpendicular height of it. On the foreſide is left a hole about eight inches ſquare, and four inches above the plank, through which the fire is put in. Over all the reſt, laths are laid pretty cloſe to one another, and nailed to the frame already mentioned, and then are plaſtered over on both ſides, as is alſo the plank at bottom very thick, to ſerve for a hearth. Over the mouth, or wideſt part, goes a hair-cloth fixed to two ſides of the kiln, and likewiſe to two rollers, or moveable pieces of wood, which are turned by wedges or ſcrews, in order to ſtretch the cloth. Inſtead of the hair-cloth many people now uſe a net-work of iron wire, with which it is obſerved, that the ſaffron dries ſooner, and with a leſs quantity of fuel; but the difficulty of preſerving the ſaffron from burning, makes the hair-cloth be preferred by the niceſt judges in drying.

The kiln is placed in a light part of the houſe, and they begin by laying five or ſix ſheets of white paper on the hair-cloth, upon which they ſpread wet ſaffron, between two and three inches thick. This they cover with other ſheets of paper, and over theſe lay a coarſe blanket five or ſix times doubled, or, inſtead thereof, a canvas pillow filled with ſtraw; and after the fire has been lighted for ſome time, the whole is covered with a board, having a large weight upon it.

At firſt they give it pretty ſtrong heat, to make the chives ſweat, as their expreſſion is; and in this, if they do not uſe a great deal of care, they are in danger of ſcorching, and ſo of ſpoiling all that is on the kiln.

When it has been thus dried for about an hour, they take off the board, blanket, and upper papers, and take the ſaffron off from that which lies next it, raiſing at the ſame time the edges of the cake with a knife. Then laying on the papers again, they ſlide in another board between the hair-cloth and under papers, and turn both papers and ſaffron upſide down, afterwards covering them as above.

The ſame heat is continued for an hour longer; then they look to the cake again, free it from the papers and turn it; then they cover it, and lay on the weight as before. If nothing happens amiſs, during theſe firſt two hours, they reckon the danger to be over; for they have nothing more to do, but to keep a gentle fire, and turn their cake every half hour, 'till it be thoroughly dry; for doing which as it ought, there are required full twenty-four hours.

In drying the large plump chives they uſe nothing; but towards the latter end of the crop, when theſe come to be ſmaller, they ſprinkle the cake with a little ſmall beer to make it ſweat as it ought; and they begin now to think, that uſing two linen cloths next the cake, inſtead of the two innermoſt papers, may be of ſome advantage in drying; but this practice is followed, as yet, but by few.

Their fire may be made of any kind of fuel; but that which ſmoaks the leaſt is beſt, and charcoal, for that reaſon, is preferred to any other.

What quantity of ſaffron a firſt crop will produce is very uncertain. Sometimes five or ſix pounds of wet chives are got from one rod; ſometimes not above one or two, and ſometimes not enough to make it worth while to gather and dry it. But this is always to be obſerved, that about five pounds of wet ſaffron go to make one pound of dry, for the firſt three weeks of the crop, and ſix pounds during the laſt week; and now the heads are planted very thick, two pounds of dryed ſaffron may, at a medium, be allowed to an acre for a firſt crop, and four and twenty pounds for the two remaining, the third being conſiderably larger than the ſecond.

In order to obtain theſe, there is only a repetition to be made every year of the labour of houghing, gathering, picking, and drying, in the ſame manner as before ſet down, without the addition of any thing new; except that they let cattle into the fields, after the leaves are decayed, to feed upon the weeds, or perhaps mow them for the ſame uſe.

About the Midſummer after the third crop is gathered, the roots muſt all be taken up and tranſplanted: the management requiſite for which is the fourth thing to be treated of. To take up the ſaffron-heads, or break up the ground, as their term is, they ſometimes plow it, ſometimes uſe a forked kind of hough called a pattock, and then the ground is harrowed once or twice over; during all which time of plowing, or digging and harrowing, fifteen or more people will find work enough to follow and gather the heads, as they are turned up. They are next to be carried to the houſe in ſacks, and there to be cleanſed or raiſed. This labour conſiſts in clearing the roots thoroughly from earth, and from the remains of old roots, old involucra, and excreſcences; and thus they become fit to be planted in new ground immediately, or to be kept for ſome time without danger of ſpoiling.

The quantity of roots taken up, in proportion to thoſe that were planted, is uncertain; but at a medium it may be ſaid, that allowing for all the accidents that happen to them in the ground, and in breaking up, from each acre may be had 24 quarters of clean roots, all fit to be replanted. The owners are ſure to chuſe for their own uſe the largeſt, plumpeſt, and fatteſt roots, but above all, they reject the longiſh-pointed ones, which they call ſpickets or ſpickards, for very ſmall round or flat roots are ſometimes obſerved to flower.

This is the whole culture of ſaffron in the country above mentioned; and we have only now to conſider the charges and profits which may be ſuppoſed, one year with another, to attend this branch of agriculture; and of theſe we have drawn up the following computation for one acre of ground, according to the price of labour in this county.

	l.	s.	d.
Rent for three years	3	00	0
Plowing three times	0	18	0
Punging	3	12	0
Hedging	1	16	0
Spitting and ſetting the heads	1	12	0
Weeding or paring the ground	1	4	0
Gathering and picking the flowers	6	10	0
Drying the flowers	1	6	0
Inſtruments of labour for three years with the kiln, about	0	10	0
Plowing the ground once, and harrowing twice	0	12	0
Gathering the ſaffron-heads	1	00	0
Raiſing the heads	1	12	0
Total charge	23	12	0

This calculation is made upon the ſuppoſition, that an acre of ground yields 26 pounds of neat ſaffron in three years, which is ſtated only as a mean quantity between the greateſt and the leaſt; and therefore the price of ſaffron muſt be adjuſted accordingly, which I think cannot be done better than by fixing it at 30 s. per pound; ſince in very plentiful years it is ſold for 20 s. and is ſometimes worth between 3 and 4 l. At this rate, 26 pounds of ſaffron are worth 39 l. and the neat profits of an acre of ground producing ſaffron, will in three years amount to 15 l. 13 s. or to about 5 l. 4 s. yearly. This, I ſay, may be reckoned the neat profit of an acre of ſaffron, ſuppoſing that all the labour were to be hired for ready money; but as the planter and his family do a conſiderable part of the work themſelves, ſome of this expence is ſaved: that is, by planting ſaffron, he not only may reaſonably expect to clear about 5 l. yearly per acre, but alſo to maintain himſelf and family for ſome part of each year; and it is upon this ſuppoſition only, that the reſult of other computations which have been made of the profits of ſaffron, can be ſaid to have any tolerable degree of exactneſs; but the calculations themſelves are undoubtedly very inaccurate.

We have ſaid nothing here concerning the charge in buying, or profits in ſelling the ſaffron heads, becauſe in any large track of ground, theſe muſt at length always ballance one another, while the quantity of ground planted yearly continues the ſame.

An eſſential extract of ſaffron.

Take two ounces of the choiceſt freſh Engliſh ſaffron dried, and either cut ſmall or remaining whole; put it into a clean bolt-head with a long and ſlender neck; pour upon it ſo much of the pureſt alcohol, containing no foreign thing, as may float four or ſix inches about it: then ſtop the glaſs ſlightly with a wreath of paper, put it into a wooden little furnace ſupplied with a live coal buried under ſifted aſhes, that the heat may be only a hundred degrees. Leave it thus in digeſtion for three days, the veſſel being often ſhook; let it afterwards reſt for 24 hours, in a cold quiet place; then carefully ſtrain off all the tinged liquor through a piece of clean linen, placed in a funnel ſet in a clean glaſs, and keep it cloſely ſtopped. It will be of a bright red colour. The ſaffron remaining at the bottom of the glaſs, will be found paler than before. To this pour the like quantity of freſh alcohol, and proceed as before, and mix the tincture thus acquired with the former; the ſaffron will now remain paler. If more alcohol be added to it, and the proceſs be repeated, a ſtill poorer tincture will be obtained, which ought to be kept ſeparate: the ſaffron will now become pale, but otherwiſe will have the ſame appearance and bulk, as before. To this if water be added, digeſted therewith, and poured off, it will be of a yellow colour; put on freſh, and continue thus, 'till no more tincture can be extracted; and now the chives will appear quite white, and if gently dried, will retain their former figure, though they appeared much ſhrunk, perfectly inodorous, and inſipid, ſo as ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from bits of clean thread; whence it is wonderful, where the ſeat of that ſurprizing matter extracted from it ſhould be, which is found to give ſo rich a tincture to ſo large a proportion of alcohol. Let the tincture procured by the two firſt digeſtions, be diſtilled in a glaſs body, fitted with its head, and perfectly well cloſed, with a fire of a hundred degrees, 'till about an ounce remains behind, which, when cold, is to be poured into a glaſs veſſel, to be kept carefully ſtopped. It will prove of an exceeding red colour, a highly fragrant odour, and a bitter, aromatic, penetrating taſte, and have the conſiſtence of thin oil. Let it be kept under the title of the eſſential extract of ſaffron. The ſpirit that comes over in the diſtillation will be limpid and colourleſs, but retain the grateful and aromatic ſmell and taſte of ſaffron. This is to be reſerved for the ſame uſe, and thus every time becomes the richer.

The USE.

This ſurprizing experiment ſhews us a new ſpecies of matter, which we can neither call oil, ſpirit, gum, roſin, reſinous gum, wax, or balſam; but it is ſomething perfectly ſingular, and of a ſpirituous oily nature. This extract mixes with water, ſpirit, and oil, and has ſuch exhilarating virtues, that being uſed too freely, it occaſions an almoſt perpetual and indecent laughing; but uſed moderately, it becomes proper: it tinges the urine red, and is particularly ſaid to deſtroy the petrefying power thereof in the kidnies, and therefore to be an extraordinary remedy againſt the ſtone.

REMARKS.

Thus we find that nature has prepared, in particular parts of certain vegetables, a determined kind of body, ſo different from all others as ſcarce to be referred to any other known kind; and has, at the ſame time, endowed it with virtues, otherwiſe inimitable. We have ſeen an example of this in the chives of ſaffron, which the principal chemiſts have ſo highly eſteemed, as to call it the philoſophers ſpice. It is incredible how rich this ſaffron is in colour, taſte, odour, and virtue; how ſmall the bulk is that poſſeſſes all theſe rich faculties, and how tender and eaſily corruptible the thing itſelf is, and therefore requires the above peculiar method of operation.

Saffron is in many places in great eſteem in ſauces, and on many occaſions in foods, but its great uſe is in medicine. It is a high cordial, a powerful aperient, detergent and reſolvent. It gives great relief in faintings and palpitations of the heart; it alſo ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and aſſiſts digeſtion. It is certainly a noble medicine, under the direction of a ſkilful phyſician, but given by a quack may prove as hurtful as otherwiſe it might be ſalubrious.

The Engliſh ſaffron is allowed by all, except the French writers on theſe ſubjects, to be greatly ſuperior to any other. It is to be choſen freſh, tough, and flexile, difficultly broken, of a ſtrong ſmell and very bitter taſte, and ſuch as ſtains the hands in touching it. Our druggiſts are apt to keep it in damp places, to increaſe its weight, whereby it becomes mouldy, and ſuch is to be rejected.

SAIL-CLOTH.

The chief LAWS relating to this manufacture.

Makers of ſail-cloth ſhall fix ſtamps, with their names, &c. to every piece, under the penalty of 5 l. Perſons cutting off ſtamps, or uſing any falſe names, incur certain penalties. A bounty is allowed on exportation of Britiſh-made ſail-cloth.

All foreign ſail-cloth imported, for which duties are granted, ſhall be ſtamped with a ſtamp expreſſing from whence imported, &c. on forfeiture of 10 l. upon conviction before one or more juſtices. New ſhips on firſt ſetting out to ſea, ſhall have a complete ſet of ſails, bonâ fide, belonging to her, manufactured here, on pain of 50 l. Flax yarn uſed in Britiſh ſail-cloth, ſhall not be whitened with lime, on forfeiture of 6 d. per yard.

Every maſter of a ſhip, belonging to a ſubject (Eaſt India ſhips excepted) having any foreign ſails on board, ſhall, at the time of making entry of his ſhip, alſo make entry, on oath, of all foreign ſails uſed on board, for which the ſame duties ſhall be paid as by ſtat. 12 Ann. cap. 16. Foreign ſail-cloth, unſtamped, ſhall not be made into ſails, under penalty of

of 50l. and forfeiture of the ſails. Sails made of foreign ſail-cloth unſtamped, ſhall not be mended, under penalty of 20l. Every ſail-maker ſhall impreſs on every new ſail, a mark of eight inches diameter, containing his name and place of abode, and under the penalty of 10l. See the articles CANVAS, and HEMP; and ſee the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS at the end of LETTER S. for the LAWS relative to SAIL-MAKING.

SAIL-MAKER. The ſail-maker cuts out and ſews the pieces together, which form the ſails of a ſhip. It is a profitable trade.

SAILOR, ſee the article SEAMEN.

SALT. This being a commodity of general utility in commerce, as well with regard to our fiſheries as our royal navies, and ſhips concerned in the merchants ſervice, and there being ſeveral delicacies in the operation to produce a ſalt ſuitable to all the occaſions of life, we ſhall give an abſtract of the learned Dr Brownrigg's late improvements upon the making of ſalt, to a greater perfection than has been heretofore practiſed in this kingdom.

Mines of ſalt, ſays the doctor, have been long diſcovered and wrought in England, Spain, Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and other countries in Europe. Moreover, the ſea affords ſuch vaſt plenty thereof, that all mankind might thence be ſupplied with quantities ſufficient for their occaſions. There are alſo innumerable ſprings, ponds, lakes, and rivers, impregnated with common ſalt, from which the inhabitants of many countries are plentifully ſupplied herewith.

In ſome countries which are remote from the ſea, and have little commerce, and which are not bleſſed with mines of ſalt, or ſalt waters, the neceſſities of the inhabitants have forced them to invent a method of extracting their common ſalt from the aſhes of vegetables.

In ſhort, this ſalt is diſperſed all over nature; it is treaſured up in the bowels of the earth; it impregnates the ocean; it deſcends in * rain; it fertilizes the ſoil; it ariſes in vegetables; and from them is conveyed into animals; ſo that it may well be eſteemed the univerſal condiment of nature.

* See Boyle on the ſaltneſs of the ſea.

Naturaliſts, obſerving the great variety of forms under which this ſalt appears, have thought fit to rank the ſeveral kinds of it under certain general claſſes, diſtinguiſhing it moſt uſually into rock or foſſil-ſalt, ſea-ſalt, and brine or fountain-ſalt: to which may be added others of thoſe muriatic ſalts, which are found in vegetable or animal ſubſtances. Theſe ſeveral kinds of common ſalt often differ from each other in their outward form and appearance, or in ſuch accidental properties as they derive from the heterogeneous ſubſtances with which they are mixed; but, when perfectly pure, they have all the ſame qualities; ſo that chemiſts, by the exacteſt inquiries, have not been able to diſcover any eſſential difference between them.

By rock-ſalt †, or native ſalt, is underſtood all ſalt dug out of the earth, which hath not undergone any artificial preparation.

† By rock-ſalt, ſal rupium, the ancient chemiſts mean ſalt adhering to the rocks above the high-water mark, being there lodged by the ſpray of the ſea, evaporated by the heat of the ſun; which is the pureſt ſalt of all for chemical uſes, and is to be had off the rocks of Sicily, and ſeveral iſlands in the Weſt-Indies.

Under the title of bay-ſalt may be ranked all kinds of common ſalt extracted from the water, wherein it is diſſolved by means of the ſun's heat and the operation of the air; whether the water from which it is extracted be ſea-water, or natural brine drawn from wells and ſprings, or ſalt water ſtagnating in ponds and lakes.

Under the title of white ſalt, or boiled ſalt, may be included all kinds of common ſalt extracted by coction from the water wherein it was diſſolved; whether this water be ſea-water, or the ſalt water of wells, fountains, lakes, or rivers; or water of any ſort impregnated with rock-ſalt, or other kind of common ſalt.

The firſt of theſe kinds is in ſeveral countries found ſo pure, that it ſerves for moſt domeſtic uſes, without any previous preparation, triture excepted. But the Engliſh foſſil-ſalt is unfit for the uſes of the kitchen, until by ſolution and coction it is freed from ſeveral impurities, and reduced to white ſalt.

The Britiſh white-ſalt alſo is not ſo proper as ſeveral kinds of bay-ſalt for curing fiſh, and ſuch fleſh-meats as are intended for ſea-proviſions, or for exportation into hot countries. So that for theſe purpoſes, we are obliged, either wholly or in part, to uſe bay-ſalt, which we purchaſe in France, Spain, and other foreign countries. To remedy theſe inconveniencies, what follows may be uſeful, in order to ſhew how the ſubjects of Great-Britain may be ſupplied with ſalt of their own manufacture, fit and ſufficient for all their occaſions.

In order that the methods here propoſed might be better underſtood, and that the reaſonableneſs of them might more fully appear, it is neceſſary to premiſe a brief account of ſeveral ways of preparing bay-ſalt, as well as white-ſalt. From this hiſtory may be formed a judgment, how far the methods now in uſe are proper, in what deficient, where erroneous, and how they may be improved for the benefit of our trade.

BAY-SALT in general may be divided into two kinds. Firſt, bay-ſalt, drawn from ſea-water, as is practiſed in France, Spain, Portugal, and many other countries. Secondly, bay-ſalt extracted from ſalt ſprings, ponds, and lakes; as at Cape de Verde iſlands, Tortuga, and other places. Of theſe the firſt is imported in large quantities into Great-Britain and Ireland: our American colonies, in times of peace, are chiefly ſupplied with the latter; but in time of war they have large quantities of bay-ſalt from Liſbon, and other parts of Portugal.

Bay-ſalt is prepared in a manner the moſt ſimple and eaſy, when the water of ponds and lakes impregnated with ſalt, is totally exhaled by the force of the ſun and air, and the ſalt is left concreted into a hard cruſt at the bottom of the lake or pond. Of ſalt thus prepared we have inſtances in many parts of the world, as in the Podolian deſert near the river Boryſthenes, on the Ruſſian frontiers towards Crim Tartary, in the kingdom of Algiers, and in other parts of the world.

Bay-ſalt is alſo drawn from the brine of ponds and lakes, and it is prepared in this manner in the Cape de Verde iſlands. This account was collected chiefly from the relations of ſeveral perſons of credit, who themſelves aſſiſted in making ſalt in theſe iſlands. Every kind of bay-ſalt is prepared without artificial heat, and by only expoſing the brine under a large ſurface to the action of the ſun and air, by which, in proportion to the ſtrength of the brine, and to the different temperature of climate and ſeaſon, the ſalt cryſtallizes into what we call bay-ſalt, and comes under different appearances to us from different places, which ariſe principally from the cleanlineſs and care of the artiſt.

WHITE-SALT, although in general, is made in warm climates, with the greateſt eaſe, and at leaſt expence, by the heat of the ſun, after the methods already deſcribed; yet in ſeveral countries, where bay-ſalt might be conveniently made, they prepare all their ſalt by culinary fires. Thus in Auſtria, Bavaria, and many other parts of Germany, and alſo in Hungary, and even in ſome parts of Italy, they conſtantly boil the water of their ſalt-ſprings into white-ſalt. But in other parts of Europe, as in Britain, and in the northern parts of France and Germany, an erroneous opinion long prevailed, that the heat of the ſun was not there ſufficiently intenſe, even in the ſummer ſeaſon, to reduce ſea-water or brine into bay-ſalt. And all arguments would probably have been inſufficient to remove this miſtake in the Engliſh, had not the contrary been fully proved by experiments, which were firſt accidentally made in Hampſhire. However, the method of making ſalt by coction, will probably ſtill continue to be practiſed in Britain, as the ſalt ſo prepared is for ſeveral uſes preferable to bay-ſalt; and when prepared after a particular manner, is preferable to common bay-ſalt, even for curing proviſions, as the practice of the Hollanders ſufficiently teſtifies: ſo that the due and right preparation of white-ſalt ſeems very deſerving of the notice and regard of the publie.

White-ſalt, as it is prepared from various ſaline liquors, may therefore be diſtinguiſhed into the following kinds:

1. MARINE BOILED SALT, which is extracted from ſea-water by coction. 2. Brine or fountain-ſalt, prepared by coction from natural brine, whether of ponds or fountains. 3. That prepared from ſea-water, or any other kind of ſalt-water, firſt heightened into a ſtrong brine by the heat of the ſun, and the operation of the air. 4. That prepared from a ſtrong brine or lixivium drawn from earths, ſands, or ſtones impregnated with common ſalt. 5. Refined rock-ſalt, which is boiled from a ſolution of foſſil-ſalt in ſea-water, or any other kind of ſalt-water, or pure water. 6. Laſtly, Salt upon ſalt, which is bay-ſalt diſſolved in ſea-water, or any other ſalt-water, and with it boiled into white ſalt; and under theſe heads may be ranked the ſeveral kinds of boiled ſalt now in uſe. The learned author before mentioned has given us an exact hiſtory of the manner of preparing theſe different kinds of ſalt, as practiſed in different places, with miſcellaneous obſervations and cautions relating to their reſpective proceſſes, for which in general we muſt refer to the work itſelf: but the making ſalt upon ſalt deſerves more particular attention, as the author, being under no tie of ſecrecy, has revealed to us the method of making in Holland and Zealand that ſtrong and pure kind of ſalt, with which they cure herrings, and all other proviſions for long-keeping, which gives the Dutch a great advantage over all other nations in the herring-fiſhery; ſince fiſh preſerved with this ſalt look much cleaner and fairer than thoſe that are cured with bay-ſalt, and keep much better than thoſe preſerved with any other kind of white-ſalt.

From the proceſs whereby white-ſalt is made from ſea-water by coction, it appears that ſea-water, beſides common ſalt, contains ſeveral other ingredients, ſome of which are ſeparated before the common ſalt falls, and others remain in the bittern, after all the ſalt is extracted. Our author has given a full and circumſtantial account of theſe in an expreſs chapter under the appellation of Memoirs for an Analyſis of Sea-water.

The ſalt-boilers, and particularly thoſe who prepare brine-ſalt, have long been accuſtomed to make uſe of various ſubſtances, which they call additions, or ſeaſonings, and mix them with the brine while it is boiling, either when they firſt obſerve the ſalt begin to form, or elſe afterwards, during the time of granulation. Theſe additions they uſe for various purpoſes. Firſt, to make the ſalt grain better, or more quickly form into cryſtals; ſecondly, to make it of a ſmall fine grain; thirdly, to make it of a large, firm, and hard grain, and leſs apt to imbibe the moiſture of the air; fourthly, to render it more pure; and, laſtly, to make it ſtronger, and fitter for preſerving proviſions.

Theſe additions moſt commonly uſed to anſwer the above-mentioned purpoſes, are wheat-flour, reſin, butter, tallow, new ale, ſtale beer, bottoms or lees of ale or beer, wine-lees, and allum. Wheat-flour and reſin are uſed for the property they poſſeſs of making the ſalt a ſmall grain; butter, tallow, and other unctuous bodies, are commonly applied, as they are ſaid to make the brine cryſtallize more readily; for which end, ſome ſalt boilers more particularly prefer the fat of dogs; but others have little to plead for their uſing theſe ſubſtances, but immemorial cuſtom. How far they have the effects aſcribed to them, can only be determined by experiments, as ſeveral boilers, who formerly uſed them, now find they can make as good ſalt without them. Wine-lees, new ale, ſtale ale; the lees of the ale and beer, are now generally rejected by the marine ſalt-boilers, except in the weſt of England, where the briners, who uſe them, affirm that they raiſe a large grain, and make their ſalt more hard and firm, and ſome ſay that they make it cryſtallize more readily. Hoffman prefers the ſtrongeſt ale; and Plott aſſures us, that it makes the ſalt of a larger or ſmaller grain, according to the degree of its ſtaleneſs. The only good effects that fermented liquors can have as an addition, are probably owing to their acid ſpirit, which may correct the alkaline ſalts of the brine, and ſo render the common ſalt more dry and hard, and leſs apt to diſſolve in moiſt air: if, therefore, it ſhould be thought neceſſary to uſe any of theſe additions, in order to correct the alkaline quality of the brine, ſtale ale, or Rheniſh wine *, ought to be choſen, as new ale contains but little acid.

* Why not malt vinegar?

Allum is an addition long known and uſed in Cheſhire, together with butter, to make the ſalt precipitate from ſome ſorts of brine, as we are aſſured by Dr Leigh, in his Natural Hiſtory of Lancaſhire, Cheſhire, &c. who firſt taught the Cheſhire ſalt-boilers the art of refining rock-ſalt. As the bad properties of their ſalt proceeded from hard boiling, they found every method ineffectual, until they had recourſe to a more mild and gentle heat. And as allum hath been long diſuſed amongſt them, it is not likely that they found any extraordinary benefit from it, otherwiſe they would ſcarce have neglected it, and continued the uſe of butter. However, the late Mr Lowndes hath lately endeavoured to revive its uſe, aſſerting, that brine-ſalt hath evermore two main defects, flakineſs and ſoftneſs; and, to remedy theſe imperfections, he tried allum, which fully anſwered every thing he propoſed, for it reſtored the ſalt to its natural cubical ſhoot, and gave it a proper hardneſs, nor had it any bad effect whatever. But our author is of opinion, that whoever conſiders the nature of allum, will ſcarce expect ſuch extraordinary effects from it. Neither does it here ſeem wanted; for the grains of common ſalt will always be ſufficiently hard, and of their natural figure, large ſize, and no ways diſpoſed to run by the moiſture of the air, if formed by a gentle heat, and perfectly free from heterogeneous mixtures: ſo that the goodneſs of Mr Lowndes's ſalt does not ſeem owing to the allum with which it is mixed, but chiefly to the gentle heat uſed in its preparation.

The Dutch, who have long ſhewn the greateſt ſkill and dexterity in the art of boiling ſalt, make uſe of another addition, which they eſteem the greateſt ſecret of their art: this is whey, kept ſo long 'till it is extremely acid, now firſt revealed by our author to the Britiſh ſalt-boilers, but long held in great eſteem by the Dutch, for the good effects it hath upon their ſalt, which it renders ſtronger, more durable, and fitter to preſerve herrings, and other proviſions.

Bay-ſalt, as well as white ſalt, is of different kinds, and poſſeſſed of different qualities: with the different kinds of theſe, proviſions muſt be cured, according to the uſes for which they are deſigned. The Dutch, indeed, uſe no ſalt for curing proviſions, beſides their own refined ſalt: with it they can preſerve fleſh and fiſh of all kinds, as well as with the ſtrongeſt bay-ſalt, and chuſe to be at the expence of refining bay-ſalt, rather than to defile their proviſions with the dirt and other impurities with which it commonly abounds.

Salt eſteemed the beſt for curing proviſions, and for preſerving them the longeſt time, is that which is the ſtrongeſt and the pureſt. This may be known by the following characteriſtics, viz. it is uſually concreted into large grains or cryſtals, which are firm and hard, and, in reſpect to thoſe of other kinds of common ſalt, the moſt ſolid and ponderous; it is not diſpoſed to grow moiſt in moderately dry air, to which it has been expoſed a conſiderable time; its colour is white and ſomewhat diaphanous; it hath no ſmell; its taſte is truly muriatic, and more ſharp and pungent than that of other kinds of common ſalt: it has, beſides theſe, ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed properties, mentioned by our author. The ſalts which approach neareſt to this degree of perfection, are the beſt kinds of bay-ſalt, and the ſtrong Dutch refined ſalt; but moſt of the ſalt now made for ſale is very far from anſwering to theſe characteriſtics.

Having related the various methods of preparing that are now in uſe, as far as they are come to our author's knowlege, it appears, that this art is not brought to ſuch perfection in the Britiſh dominions as in ſeveral other countries, the ſalt here prepared being unfit for preſerving many kinds of proviſions. It remains now to ſhew, that this want of a ſtrong ſalt of Britiſh manufacture, proceeds not from any defect in nature, but of art, and that, if proper ſkill and induſtry be uſed in the Britiſh dominions, and due encouragement there given by the legiſlature, ſuch improvements may be made in this art, that not only Great-Britain, but Ireland alſo, and the Britiſh colonies in America, may be ſupplied with ſalt of their own manufacture, proper for curing all kinds of proviſions, in quantity ſufficient for all their occaſions, in quality equal, if not ſuperior, to any foreign ſalt now made at a moderate price.

Theſe are truths, which appear evident from the facts and reaſonings contained under the following poſitions:

Lemma I. The quantity of water which annually falls in rain, ſnow, and hail, is very different in different parts of Great-Britain, there commonly falling almoſt double the quantity on the weſtern coaſts, that falls on the eaſtern coaſts of that iſland.

Lemma II. The quantity of rain which falls in Lancaſhire, during the four hotteſt months of the year, viz. May, June, July, and Auguſt, doth not, at a medium, amount to more than a third part of the quantity of water which falls in rain, ſnows, and hail, during the whole year.

Lemma III. The water which aſcends in vapours from the ſea, very greatly exceeds that which deſcends thereon in rain and other aqueous meteors; but the quantity of water which uſually exhales from a given part of the ocean, in a given time, cannot with any exactneſs be determined.

Lemma IV. The quantity of water which commonly exhales in Great-Britain from ſhallow ponds, during the four hotteſt months of the year, greatly exceeds the quantity of rain which commonly falls on the ſurface of thoſe ponds during the ſaid months.

From theſe lemmata, which the author has ſupported by the obſervations not only of himſelf, but of other learned men, are deduced the following propoſitions:

Propoſition I. In ſeveral parts of England large quantities of bay-ſalt may be extracted from ſea-water, during the hotteſt months of the year, by receiving the ſalt water into ponds, and ſuffering its aqueous parts thence to exhale by the heat of the ſun, and the operation of the air and winds.

Propoſition II. In ſeveral parts of England large quantities of bay-ſalt may very commodiouſly be extracted from ſea-water, after the ſame manner that is practiſed in France, and in other parts of Europe.

Propoſition III. Bay-ſalt may be extracted in England from ſea-water, in larger quantities, and with more certainty, than by the foregoing method, if care be taken to preſerve the brine contained in the ſalt-pits from being diluted with rains, and to promote the evaporation of the water by ſeveral artificial means, which may eaſily be put in practice.

Propoſition IV. In ſeveral parts of England large quantities of excellent bay-ſalt may, with great eaſe, be made from the natural brine of ſalt ſprings, and alſo from the rock-ſalt diſſolved in weak brine, or ſea-water.

Propoſition V. Bay-ſalt may be prepared in England by the foregoing methods, at a very moderate expence, equal in goodneſs to the beſt foreign bay-ſalt, and in quantity ſufficient for the conſumption of all the Britiſh dominions.

Propoſition VI. In ſeveral of the Britiſh colonies in America, bay-ſalt might, with little expence and trouble, be prepared from ſea-water, in quantities ſufficient to ſupply the American fiſheries, and all other occaſions of thoſe colonies, ſo as to become a conſiderable branch of their trade.

The author has ſupported all theſe propoſitions with great ingenuity; but we cannot paſs over in ſilence the artificial means to promote the evaporation of ſea-water mentioned in Propoſition III, as well as to preſerve the brine contained in ſalt-pits from being diluted with rains; we therefore ſhall lay before the reader a ſhort account of theſe.

It will be proper, ſays our author, to make all the ſalt-pits of the marſh in one long row, extended from eaſt to weſt, and for each pit to make covers of thin boards, or rather of coarſe canvas, or ſail-cloth, ſtretched on frames of wood, and painted white. Theſe covers muſt all be fixed with hinges, to ſtrong poſts and beams, on the north ſide of the pits, ſo that they may be let down and drawn up with cords and pullies, or by ſome other contrivance, ſomewhat like draw-bridges. Theſe covers, thus fixed, may be let down

over

over the pits like a ſhed, or penthouſe, in rainy weather, and in dry weather may be erected almoſt to a perpendicular, but inclining a little towards the ſouth, ſo as to form a wall with a ſouth aſpect. Thus theſe may ſerve a double purpoſe, as coverings for the pits in wet weather, and as reflectors of the ſun's heat upon them in dry weather, and thus greatly promote the evaporation of aqueous parts of the brine. The hinges on which the reflectors turn may be fixed about eight or ten inches from the ground, by which means, when the reflectors ſtand upright, there will be an opening left beneath them, through which the air will continually flow in a briſk current, and greatly increaſe the evaporation of the water.

After having gone through that part of Dr Brownrigg's work which relates to bay-ſalt, we proceed to the methods that gentleman propoſes for preparing and improving white ſalt, which, if brought into uſe, may probably be of advantage, not only to private undertakers, but alſo to the public: for it appears, that two very different kinds of white ſalt are required, the one for the uſe of the table, and the other as a condiment for proviſions. Its whiteneſs, dryneſs, and the ſmallneſs of its grain, are the properties which chiefly recommend the firſt kind; and its great ſtrength and purity, the latter. It is this ſtrong and pure kind of white ſalt which is wanted in the Britiſh dominions; and it is, therefore, our author's principal deſign here to conſider how this defect may be ſupplied, although, at the ſame time, inſtructions are given how to prepare table-ſalt, not only better in quality, but alſo at leſs expence, than it is now prepared by the common methods.

Lemma I. In the common proceſſes for making white ſalt, the ſalt is deprived of a conſiderable part of its acid ſpirit, by the violent boiling uſed in its preparation.

Lemma II. Moſt kinds of white ſalt are rendered impure by the mixture of various heterogeneous ſubſtances.

Lemma III. White ſalt, by the violent coction commonly uſed in its preparation, is rendered leſs fit for preſerving fiſh, fleſh, and other proviſions, than it would be if prepared with a more gentle heat.

Lemma IV. The heterogeneous ſubſtances which are commonly mixed with white ſalt, render it leſs proper for preſerving proviſions than it would be if ſeparated from them.

After having fully conſidered the foregoing lemmata, our author gives a method of preparing a kind of white ſalt proper for curing fiſh, fleſh, and other proviſions; likewiſe a method of refining ſalt; but for theſe we muſt refer you to the work itſelf, as well as for the tables, wherein the ſeveral expences attending theſe operations are minutely conſidered.

Moſt of the facts referred to in theſe diſquiſitions are ſuch, as the conſtant practice of thoſe who make ſalt ſufficiently warrants us to rely upon for true and certain; or elſe they are the obſervations of judicious ſalt-officers, daily converſant in theſe matters, or of curious and inquiſitive navigators, merchants, travellers, and naturaliſts; or, laſtly, the experiments of many learned phyſicians, chemiſts, and philoſophers: the truth of which ſeveral facts, though many of them have been ſome time publiſhed, hath never been called in queſtion. So that theſe obſervations and experiments may probably be more relied on by the public, than if they had only been made by our author, ſince they have the teſtimony of many ſkilful and unprejudiced perſons, who could have no notion of the uſes to which they have been here applied. If, therefore, the arguments founded upon thoſe facts ſhould be eſteemed any ways reaſonable and ſatisfactory, the author preſumes to remark, that it might not be unworthy the wiſdom of the Britiſh legiſlature to direct a more full enquiry to be made into a matter of this importance, and to order proper works to be erected for making bay-ſalt, and for making and refining white ſalt, and to put thoſe works under the management of able and judicious perſons, to make exact and accurate trials, in order to diſcover the beſt and cheapeſt methods of doing them; and the methods which ſhould be moſt approved of might, for the general good, be made public, and eſtabliſhed, by law, a common ſtandard, to which all thoſe who make ſalt in the Britiſh dominions ſhould be obliged to conform.

The making and refining ſalt muſt certainly be conſidered as one of thoſe mechanic arts, the hiſtory of which, as we are taught by the noble * lord Verulam, is a neceſſary part of that knowlege, that true ſcience of nature, which is not taken up in vain and fruitleſs ſpeculations, but effectually labours to relieve the neceſſities of human life. See THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS AT THE END OF LETTER S, FOR THE LAWS RELATIVE TO SALT.

* Verulam de Aug. Scient. lib. ii. cap. 2.

SALTERS, or, as they are often termed, DRY-SALTERS, who deal in divers foreign goods of a dryiſh kind, as log-wood, cochineal, pot-aſhes, &c. and much like merchants, moſtly in a wholeſale way.

They were incorporated into a company by queen Elizabeth, and are one of the twelve of the city of London.

SALT-PETRE. It is a ſalt, though extracted out of the earth, yet abundantly impregnated with the ſpirit of the air; it alſo cleaves to ſtone walls, rocks, clefts, and caverns under ground. That which is extracted out of fat earth, is made in moſt countries in Europe; but our greateſt quantities come from the Eaſt-Indies. It is compoſed of near an equal quantity of fixed and volatile nitrous aërial ſalts, bitteriſh in taſte: it is the product of the elements, depoſited in the boſom of the earth, for the generation and nouriſhment of vegetables, and may not be improperly called the univerſal and unſpecific mercury.

Purification of ſalt-petre.

Take what quantity you pleaſe of nitre, diſſolve it in * warm water, filtre, evaporate, and cryſtalliże, as you do other ſalts. Some eſteem the cryſtalline nitre beſt, others the lump; but I could never obſerve any difference in them, the one being the top, and the lump the bottom of the pan in which the nitrous liquor was put to ſhoot.

* Somewhat more than ſix times its weight of boiling water is ſufficient.

Of the gathering of ſalt-petre in quantities.

Although it be certain that the air and the water are all impregnated with a kind of nitre, which is frequently to be ſeen coagulated into fine white ſalt, like flour of wheat (but by the very taſte may be eaſily known to be petre) ſticking to the ſides of plaſtered walls, and, in brick walls, to the mortar between the bricks (in dry weather, or where the wall is defended from the rain) for lime doth ſtrongly attract it; and although dew and rain do convey much of it to the earth, and the clouds ſeem to be ſpread out before the face of the ſun, either to imbibe ſome part of his influence, or to have a ſalt generated in them, for to advance the fertility of the earth, and certainly they return not without a bleſſing; for ſalt-petre may be eaſily extracted out of rain and dew, but from the latter more plentifully, accompanied, indeed, with a greaſy purple oil, in great plenty: though likewiſe moſt ſtanding waters, and even deep wells, have ſome ſmall quantity of ſalt-petre in them: though the face of the earth, if it were not impregnated with this ſalt, could not produce vegetables, for ſalt (as the lord Bacon ſays) is the firſt rudiment of life, and nitre is, as it were, the life of vegetables; yet, to be more ſure of it, experiment ſhews likewiſe, that ſome is to be found in fallows, and the earth which moles caſt up in the ſpring: though the air and water want it not, yet it is not there to be had in any proportion anſwerable to the charge in getting it: and though the earth muſt neceſſarily have great quantities thereof generated or infuſed into it, yet, in theſe temperate countries of Europe, it is no ſooner dilated by rain, or other waters, but it is immediately applied to the production or nutriment of ſome plant, inſect, ſtone, or mineral; ſo that the artiſt will find as little of it here to ſerve his turn, as in the other two elements.

The chief places, therefore, where ſalt-petre is to be found in any quantities in theſe northern countries, are in ſtables, pigeon-houſes, cellars, barns, warehouſes, or, indeed, any place which is covered from the rain, which would diſſolve it, and make it vegetate, as alſo from the ſun, which doth rarify it, and cauſe it to be exhaled into the air. (For the ſame reaſon, huſbandmen alſo might make double or treble the profit they uſually do of their muck, if they will lay it up under a hovel, or ſome covered place, until they carry it out upon their land.) And I have been told by an experienced workman, that no manure yields petre ſo plentifully as the earth in churches, were it not an impiety to diſturb the aſhes of our anceſtors, in that ſacred depoſitary. See the article MANURE.

For this purpoſe the earth ſhould be of good mould; and the better the mould is, the more petre is produced, for in clay or ſandy earth, little or none is to be found: the freer ingreſs the air hath into a place, it is ſtill of more advantage, ſo that the ſun be excluded; and let the earth be never ſo good, if it be laid on a brick or boarded floor, it will not be ſo rich in petre as if it had free communication with the exhalations of the lower parts of the earth.

In any place thus qualified, you cannot miſs of good quantities of petre, if it have not been drawn out in ſome years before, which a workman will quickly find, after he hath digged the firſt ſpadeful of earth, by laying a little of it on the end of his tongue; and if it taſtes bitter, he is ſure of good ſtore of ſalt-petre; if the ground be good, it continues rich to ſix or eight feet deep, and ſometimes, but not often, to ten.

After the ſalt-petre is extracted, if the earth be laid wet in the ſame place again, it will be twenty years ere any conſiderable quantity grows there of it; but if the earth be well dried, it will come in twelve or fourteen: and if they mingle with the dried earth ſtore of pigeons-dung and mellow horſe-dung, and then temper it with urine (as was uſual before we were ſupplied with petre from India) it will be fit to dig again in five or ſix years. He that ſhall caſt water upon a ground fit to dig for petre, will only ſink the mineral deeper into the earth; but he that throws ſoap-ſuds on it, will quite deſtroy the petre (as the workmen have a tradition) and it very well deſerves a further enquiry.

That ſalt-petre, and the way of drawing it out of the earth

now in uſe, was a modern invention, is generally concluded by all authors; but whether we owe it to chance, or the ſagacity of ſome great wit, is as unknown as the time when it was firſt diſcovered.

It ſeems to have many years preceded the invention of gun-powder, which by the Germans is aſcribed to Conſtantine Autlitzer, or Berthwold Scwertz, a monk of Friburgh, and was in all probability not long diſcovered when the inventor (Polydore Virgil tells us) taught the uſe of guns to the Venetians, at the battle of Foſſa Claudia, where they obtained that notable victory over the Genoeſe, anno 1380: for there is mention made both of ſalt-petre and aqua fortis, in the writings of Geber, a Spaniſh Moor, and an alchemiſt; but at what time he lived is not ſatisfactorily known, though it be certain ſome hundreds of years before Raymund Lully, who, about the year 1333, publiſhed ſome of his books, wherein he treats of ſalt-petre and aqua fortis. It is no ill conjecture of Maierus, that the aforeſaid monk being a ſkilful alchemiſt, had a deſign to draw a higher ſpirit from petre than the common aqua fortis, and, that he might the better open the body of petre, he ground it with ſulphur and charcoal, by which compoſure he ſoon became the inventor of gun-powder. See GUN-POWDER.

The manner of collecting ſalt-petre in quantities.

In the firſt place you muſt be provided with eight or ten tubs, ſo large that they may be able to contain about ten barrows full of earth each of them: theſe tubs muſt be all open at the top, but in the bottom of every one of them you muſt make a hole, near to that ſide you intend to place outermoſt, which hole you muſt fit very well with a tap and a ſpiggot, on the outſide downward.

On the inſide of the tub, near the tap-hole, you muſt carefully place a large wad of ſtraw, and upon that a ſhort piece of board, which is all to keep the earth from ſtopping up the tap-hole. When you have placed your tubs on their ſtands, at ſuch a diſtance one from the other that you may come with eaſe between them, then fill them up with ſuch petre earth as you have choſen for your work, leaving only void about a ſpan's breadth between the earth and the edge of the tub; then lay on the top of the earth in each tub, as near as you can to the middle, a rundle of wicker, like the bottom of a baſket, and about a foot in diameter, and by it ſtick into the earth a good ſtrong cudgel, which muſt be thruſt pretty near the bottom; the wicker is to keep the water, when it is poured on, from hollowing and diſordering the earth, and the cudgel is to be ſtirred about, to give the water ingreſs to the earth upon occaſion: then pour on your earth common cold water, 'till it ſtands a hand's breadth over the earth; when it hath ſtood eight or ten hours, looſen the ſpiggots, and let the water rather dribble, than run, into half-tubs, which muſt be ſet under the taps. This lixivium the workmen call their raw liquor; and note, that if it come not clear at the firſt drawing, you muſt pour it on again, and, after ſome little time draw it off, 'till it come clear, and of the colour of urine.

If you are curious to know how rich your liquor is before boiling, you may take a glaſs phial, containing a quart, fill it with the common water you uſe, then weigh it exactly; next fill the ſame glaſs with your liquor, and find the difference of weight, which, compared with the quantity of all your liquors, will give you a very near gueſs how much ſalt-petre you are like to make by that boiling.

Then pour again, on the ſame earth, more common water, that it may bring away what is remaining in the earth of the former liquor. This ſecond liquor is of no other uſe but to be poured on new earth, inſtead of common water, becauſe it contains ſome quantity of ſalt-petre in it.

When this is done, turn the uſeleſs inſipid earth out of the tubs, which you muſt fill with new earth, and continue this operation, 'till you have in the ſame manner lixiviated all the earth: then fill your copper with your liquor, which copper, for one of the profeſſion, muſt be about two hundred weight, and ſet ſtrongly in a furnace of brick-work; beſides, on one ſide of your furnace you are to place a tub full of your liquor, which, at a tap below, may dribble as faſt into the copper as the force of the fire doth waſte your liquor; which invention is only to ſave charges in fuel.

When you have boiled it up to that height, that a little of it, ſlirted off the finger on a live charcoal, will flaſh like gun-powder (which for the moſt part falls out to be about two days and a night's boiling) at that time, upon trial, a hundred weight of the liquor contains about 35 lb. weight of petre; but the workmen ſeldom make uſe of any further indication, than by finding the liquor hang like oil on the ſides of the brazen ſcummer, when it is dipped into it, which is a ſign it is fit to be paſſed through the aſhes, which is done in this manner.

You muſt prepare two tubs, fitted after the manner of the firſt, wherein you put your earth, ſaving that at the bottom of theſe tubs you muſt lay reeds or ſtraw, a foot high; over them place looſe boards, pretty near one another, over them again a little more ſtraw (which is to keep the aſhes from the top, and give the liquor room to drain the better from them:) then fill up your tubs with any ſort of wood-aſhes, to half a foot of the top; pour on the foreſaid liquor, as it comes ſcalding hot out of the copper, on the aſhes contained in the firſt tub; after a while draw it off at the top: and ſo continue putting on and drawing off, firſt at one tub of aſhes, then at the other, 'till your liquor grows clear, and loſes the thick turbid colour it had when it went on.

When all the liquor hath in this manner paſſed through the aſhes of both tubs, that by this means all its greaſy oil is left behind in the aſhes, you muſt keep it for the ſecond boiling in a veſſel by itſelf: in the mean time, pour upon your aſhes a ſufficient quantity of common water, very hot, once or twice, to bring away what is remaining of the liquor in the aſhes.

When you begin the ſecond boiling, put firſt into the copper the water that went laſt through your aſhes, and as that waſteth, let your ſtrong liquor drop into the copper, out of the tub above deſcribed, ſtanding on the ſide of the furnace, 'till the liquor in the copper be ready to ſhoot or cryſtallize.

Note, That toward the end of your boiling, there will ariſe great ſtore of ſcum and froth, which muſt be carefully taken off with a great braſs ſcummer, made like a ladle, full of little holes; and uſually about that time it lets fall ſome common ſalt to the bottom, which you muſt take up with the ſaid ſcummer, and lay it aſide for another uſe.

To know when the liquor is ready to ſhoot into petre, you need but drop a little of it on a knife, or any other cold thing that hath a ſmooth ſuperficies, and if it coagulate, like a drop of tallow, and do not fall off the knife when it is turned downwards, which alſo may be judged by its hanging like oil to the ſides of the ſcummer; when the liquor is brought to this paſs, every hundred weight of it contains about three ſcore and ten pounds weight of petre.

When you find your liquor thus ready to ſhoot, you muſt with great iron ladles take it out of the copper, into a high narrow tub for that purpoſe, which the workmen call their ſettling tub; and when the liquor is grown ſo cold, that you can endure your finger in it, you ſhall find the common, or cubic ſalt, begin to granulate, and ſtick to the ſides of the tub; then at the tap, placed about half a foot from the bottom, draw off your liquor into deep wooden trays, or braſs pans, and the cooler the place is where you let them ſtand to ſhoot in, the better and more plentifully will the ſalt-petre be produced; but it will be of no good colour 'till it be refined, but will be part white, part yellow, and ſome part of it blackiſh.

The ſalt which ſticketh to the ſides and bottom of the ſettling-tub is of the nature of common ſalt, and there is ſcarce any petre to be found but is accompanied with it, though no doubt ſome of this is drawn out of the aſhes by the ſecond liquors: if it be foul, they refine it by itſelf, and about London ſell it at good rates, to thoſe that ſalt neats-tongues, bacon, and collar-beef; for, beſides a ſavory taſte, it gives a pleaſing red colour to moſt fleſh that is ſalted with it.

When the liquor hath ſtood two days and two nights in the pans, that part of the liquor which is not coagulated, but ſwims upon the petre, muſt be carefully poured off, and being mingled with new liquors, muſt again paſs the aſhes, before it be boiled, elſe it will grow ſo greaſy that it will never generate any ſalt. To refine ſalt-petre, ſee above.

Before we take our leave of this article, it may not be amiſs to obſerve, firſt, that though petre will diſſipate in gun-powder, yet if you fulminate it in a crucible, and burn off the volatile part with a powder of coal, brimſtone, antimony, or meal, there will remain a ſalt, and yet ſo fixed (very unlike common ſalt) that it will endure the force of almoſt the ſtrongeſt fire you can give it; which being diſſolved into water, and ſpirit of nitre dropped into it, 'till it give over hiſſing (which is the ſame with the volatile part that was ſeparated from it in the fulmination) it will be again reduced to cryſtals of petre, as it was at firſt; which noble experiment the world hath already been taught, by an honourable member of the Royal Society of London, with a train of ſuch important obſervations as never were before raiſed from one experiment.

That which I aim at then is, that, if the ſpirit of volatile ſalt of ſoot, or of the urine, blood, horns, hoofs, hair, excrements, or, indeed, any part of animals (for all abound with ſuch a volatile ſalt fixed, and oil, as petre doth) could by the ſame way, or any like it, be reduced to petre, or ſome nitrous ſalt not much differing from it; it would excellently make out a theory that I am much delighted with, 'till I am convinced in it, which is, that the ſalt which is found on vegetables and animals, is but the nitre which is ſo univerſally diffuſed through all the elements (and muſt, therefore, make a chief ingredient in their nutriment, and, by conſequence, of their generation) a little altered from its firſt complexion: and that the reaſon why animals that feed on vegetables are obliged by nature to longer meals than thoſe that feed on other animals, is, becauſe animals are fuller of that ſalt than vegetables: and, indeed, ſuch animals are but

caterers of it for man, and others whom nature's bounty gratifies with a more ſtrong and delicious diet.

SALVAGE, an allowance made for the preſerving goods from ſhipwreck.

The principal laws relating thereto.

By the naval laws of Oleron, if a ſhip departing with her lading to any place abroad, happens, in the courſe of her voyage, to be rendered unfit to proceed therein, and the ſeamen ſave as much of the lading as poſſibly they can; if the merchants require the goods of their maſter, he may deliver them if he pleaſes, they paying the freight in proportion to the part of the voyage that is performed, and the coſts of the ſalvage: but if the maſter can readily refit his veſſel, he may do it; and although he has promiſed the people who helped him to ſave the ſhip, the third or the half part of the goods ſaved, for the danger they ran therein; yet, if ſuch a cauſe come before any judicature, it ſhall be conſidered the pains and trouble they have been at, and the reward be accordingly, without any regard to the promiſes made them by the parties concerned, in the time of their diſtreſs. See OLERON'S LAWS.

If a ſhip puts to ſea with merchants goods, and there ſhe is diſabled or periſhes, by the fault of the maſter or his men, the goods that are ſaved ſhall be ſecured in a certain place, free from danger: but if it be proved by witneſſes that the misfortune was occaſioned by tempeſt, what remains of the ſhip and goods ſhall be brought to a contribution, and the maſter ſhall retain half the value of the freight, by the laws of Rhodes. And the ſame laws have ordained, that if a ſhip be ſurprized at ſea with whirlwinds, or wrecked at ſea, any perſon ſaving any part of the wreck, ſhall have one fifth of what he ſaves. See RHODIAN LAWS.

And for the charges of ſalvage, very great allowances have been made; as to the divers and ſalvers, the half, the third, or the tenth of the things ſaved, according to the depth of the water out of which they were fiſhed, whether fifteen, eight, or one fathom: alſo a tenth part for ſalvage on the coaſt, and the fifth to him that, ſaving himſelf, carries ſomething with him. If the ſhip only periſh, and the goods be ſaved, then the goods ſhall pay the tenth or the fifth, as the difficulty of the ſaving thereof ſhall require: and gold, ſilver, ſilk, and the like, being of eaſy tranſportation, ſhall pay leſs than goods of greater weight, and more burthenſome for carriage, which are in greater danger. Lex Mercat. Malines, 119.

Where things are caſt up by ſhipwreck, or leſt through caſting in ſtorms, the laws of Rhodes allow to the finder a fifth part for the ſaving; and in France they allow one third part for ſalvage; but by the common cuſtom of countries, every perſon of quality, or lord of a manor, &c. claims all as his own, if it cometh upon his land; contrary to ſome ſea laws, which give it to the finder: though, by the opinion of lawyers, the finders thereof ſhould do therewith as with other goods found upon land; they ought to proclaim the things to be forth-coming to the true owner or loſer, and, if no man claim the ſame, then the finder to keep them to himſelf. Lex Mercat. Malines, 119.

By ſtatute 12 Ann. cap. 18. All perſons required by conſtables, &c. who ſhall act in the ſaving and preſerving any ſhip in diſtreſs on our ſea-coaſts, or the cargoes thereof, ſhall within 30 days after be paid a reaſonable reward for the ſame, by the maſter of the ſhip or merchant; in default whereof, the ſhip or goods ſo ſaved ſhall remain in the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms, 'till payment be made: and if any difference ariſe about the ſalvage, three juſtices of peace ſhall adjuſt the quantum to be paid to the perſons acting therein, which ſhall be binding to all parties, and recoverable in an action at law.

And if goods thus ſaved are not claimed in twelve months, they ſhall be ſold, the juſtices taking an account thereof in writing, ſigned by the officer of the cuſtoms, into whoſe hands they are ſafely to be put; and, if they be periſhable goods, they are to be forthwith ſold, and, after charges deducted, the money ariſing by ſuch ſale ſhall be tranſmitted into the Exchequer, with a fair account of the whole, for the benefit of the owner, who giving proof of his property before one of the barons of the Exchequer, ſhall, upon his order, receive the ſame.

If any perſons ſhall moleſt any one in ſaving the ſhip or goods, or, when ſaved, ſhall deface the marks of any goods, before the ſame be entered in a book for that purpoſe, ſuch perſons ſhall, in 20 days, make double ſatisfaction to the party grieved, at the diſcretion of the two next juſtices, or, in default thereof, ſhall be ſent to the houſe of correction for 12 months. See the remainder of this ſtatute under the article WRECKS.

SAMOGITIA lies on the north of Pruſſia, between Courland and Semigallia, on the north; Lithuania on the eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt; and Ducal Pruſſia on the ſouth-weſt, with a ſmall part of it extending weſt, quite down to the Baltic. It is a marſhy ſoil, and has abundance of rivers and lakes, that at ſome ſeaſons overflow the land, which yields corn and paſture. The country has inacceſſible mountains, and is over-run with woods, wherein the inhabitants find great quantities of honey, every tree, almoſt, having a ſwarm of bees; and their wax is purer and whiter than that either of Lithuania or Livonia. Here is a breed of horſes which are ſmall, but ſprightly, ſwift, and hardy.

The Samogitians, as well as Poles, plow, ſow, and harrow, all at the ſame time; and the ground having been but once improved by burning, will bear crops ſeven or eight years together, without dunging. When they burn the woods on the lands, if they meet with high trees, they do not cut them down, but only prune off their ſide branches, to let in the rays of the ſun upon the ground; which they perform with ſuch dexterity, that one peaſant will prune above a thouſand trees together, without once coming down: for which end, he provides himſelf with a ſeat of rope, much like a ſtirrup, which he faſtens to a long cord, and having caſt it over an arm of a tree, a boy, who is on the ground, draws him up and down; and, when this is done, by the help of another tree he eaſily ſhifts himſelf, with his hook, to the next. They have alſo as odd a way of ſowing; which is, by mixing two parts of barley with one of wheat, and putting them into the ground together, in the ſpring; whereby it happens, that the barley may be mowed in one harveſt, and the wheat reaped the next. This wheat being trod down by thoſe that mow the barley, the next harveſt commonly comes up very thick and high. In time of war they bury their corn under ground, in a place made up with poſts and bark of trees, for that purpoſe; and they dry their corn with ſmoak, before they lay it up in their granaries, by which means it keeps good for ſeveral years together.

SARDINIA, an iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituate between 8 and 10 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 39 and 41 degrees of north latitude; bounded by the ſtraight which divides it from Corſica on the north; by the Tuſcan Sea, which flows between this iſland and Italy, on the eaſt; and by other parts of the Mediterranean Sea on the ſouth and weſt; and is about 140 miles long, and 60 broad; a warm country, but not eſteemed very healthful.

This iſland, which is the moſt conſiderable in the Mediterranean, next to Sicily, for bigneſs and fertility, is ſaid to be about 700 miles in circuit, comprehending the turnings and windings of the coaſt, namely, the capes and the gulphs; which way of calculating is no leſs uncertain than laborious; hence ſome have it only 500 miles in compaſs. The ſoil is fruitful in all ſorts of corn, and no leſs productive of various fruits, in great quantity and perfection. It alſo breeds vaſt herds of large and ſmall cattle, ſo that it furniſhes Italy with wool, hides, and a fine ſort of cheeſe, beſides its home conſumption. The traffic it drives moreover from the fiſhery of coral, linen, ſilk, &c. is no leſs conſiderable. The moſt rocky and mountainous parts of the iſland are no leſs rich within than barren without, they yielding great quantities of metals and minerals, as gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, allum, &c.

REMARKS.

This iſland was under the dominion of Spain 'till the year 1708, when Sir John Leak, the Engliſh admiral, reduced it to the obedience of the late emperor Charles VI. It was afterwards allotted to the duke of Savoy, anno 1719, with the title of king of Sardinia, under whoſe dominion it ſtill remains: but the duke was obliged to make a ceſſion to the houſe of Auſtria of the iſland Sicily [See SICILY] to which throne he had been advanced by the parties to the Utrecht treaty, anno 1713.

The commerce of the dominions of his Sardinian Majeſty was heretofore ſo very inconſiderable, as to be ſcarce worthy of notice; but by degrees, and under the two laſt reigns, more eſpecially, things have been much changed. The ſtaple commodity of Piedmont is a kind of ſilk indiſpenſably neceſſary in many manufactures, and his Sardinian Majeſty has put this under ſuch regulations as to make it riſe to the higheſt amount poſſible; the navigation of the Po enables the inhabitants of Turin, and the adjacent country, to carry on a conſiderable trade to Venice.

There is a little (and but a little) traffic ſtirring at Alexandria and Villafranca. Beſides all theſe, his Sardinian Majeſty has gradually and ſilently poſſeſſed himſelf of all the paſſages, by which the inland trade is carried on between France and Italy, and having it by this means in his power to lay what duties he thinks proper, derives from thence an additional revenue, which is not only of great conſequence in itſelf, but the more ſo by keeping the neighbouring ſtates in a kind of dependance, through fear of the injuries he might otherwiſe do the commerce of their ſubjects.

This ſufficiently demonſtrates the power of his Sardinian Majeſty, and that it is both natural and expedient the ballance of Italy ſhould be held by him. This his intereſts ſeem to direct, the ſituation of his country demands, and even without the leaſt ſuſpicion of flattery, we may add, the conduct of the preſent king deſerves it. Whatever addition of territory he receives from any quarter, is not more an acquiſition to him, than to the common cauſe; and we have

reaſon

reaſon to wiſh his power may increaſe, becauſe we ſee the whole of his power has been exerted for the nobleſt purpoſes, in preſerving the freedom and independency of Italy; which, without queſtion, will be always at his heart, and in his eye.

The doubts and ſuſpicions which weak and narrow minds have been, at certain ſeaſons, too apt to ſuggeſt, with reference to this great prince's conduct, are in reality as idle and improbable, as they are falſe and groundleſs; becauſe it is impoſſible, that the houſe of Bourbon ſhould ever give him any ſecurity for the performance of the promiſes they may be induced to make him. A little conſideration will ſet this in the ſtrongeſt point of light. The offers they made him have been almoſt without limits, which, at the ſame time that it ſhews his importance, muſt convince him, that unleſs they had mighty views for their own advantage, they would never make them. But what are theſe views? The eſtabliſhing a ſuperior power in the houſe of Bourbon in Italy. If we put this into other words, it means neither more nor leſs, than propoſing to give him a maſter; which is ſuch a propoſition, as no offers whatever can tempt a wiſe and brave prince to liſten to with the leaſt attention.

It was to avoid this, that in the earlieſt part of his reign he entered into an alliance with thoſe very powers, which gave him an opportunity of knowing their maxims ſo well, while they profeſſed themſelves his friends, that it is the greateſt abſurdity to ſuppoſe he can ever be brought to truſt them, after having had them ſo long, and to ſuch a degree, his enemies. It was to prevent his having a maſter, that he engaged in the late war, and run ſo many riſks in the courſe of it. This was manifeſtly the baſis of the treaty of Worms, the whole ſcope of which was to render him independent, and to give him the power of ſupporting that independency.

To depart, therefore, from this plan, for the ſake of any thing that could be offered by the Spaniards and French, would be ſuch a manifeſt ſacrifice of the ſubſtance to the ſhadow, that, conſidering the knowlege we have of his Sardinian Majeſty's character, ought never to be ſuſpected. The ſmalleſt diſtrict granted him by the queen of Hungary, under the guarantee of his other allies, is of more real conſequence to him, than half the duchy of Milan given him by the houſe of Bourbon, admitting they ſhould have it in their power to give it; becauſe they can never have this power, without having at the ſame time the power of taking it again; which would not only render the poſſeſſion of that, but of all his other dominions, precarious.

It is very apparent, that even as things ſtand now, the territories of this monarch are very far from being extenſive; but it muſt be allowed that they are very populous, and the people of Savoy, and of the vallies, are naturally martial; ſo that under theſe two laſt reigns, a very conſiderable army of regular troops has been conſtantly kept up, and the king can never be at a loſs to bring 40 or 50,000 men into the field, when occaſion requires it.

This force is, indeed, nothing in compariſon to that of France and Spain; but it will appear very conſiderable, when compared with the ſtrength of other Italian princes. Beſides this, the fortreſſes of Piedmont are in ſo good order, that his Sardinian Majeſty can always make a ſtand, 'till he is ſupported by the Auſtrians, which he muſt be ſo long as they deſire to preſerve their dominions in Italy.

Upon theſe principles, therefore, we may ſafely lay it down, that though his revenue is not ſo large as that of the Great Duke, yet he is one of the greateſt powers in Italy, and is juſtly eſteemed ſo by his neighbours, his allies, and his enemies. His claim upon the city of Geneva, and the attempts made by ſome of his predeceſſors to become maſters of it, will be hardly ever forgot by that republic; which, however, is ſufficiently covered from either his ambition, or his reſentment, by its ſtrict league with the Swiſs Cantons, as well as by the protection it may always expect from the French crown.

The pretenſions he inherits from his anceſtors to ſeveral places poſſeſſed by the republic of Genoa, will probably hinder him, at leaſt for ſome years, from living in any ſtrict degree of harmony with that commonwealth, which is naturally jealous of him, and will probably continue ſo; though, if they knew their own intereſt, they would certainly compromiſe their differences with this prince, which would be a thing of great conſequence to both.

His taking the title of king of Cyprus, and ſome circumſtances, has created a coldneſs between this monarch and the republic of Venice, though it is certainly for their mutual good to forget old injuries, and to aſſiſt each other.

There have been formerly high diſputes between his Majeſty's predeceſſors and the Pope, which have been renewed in the laſt, and even in the preſent reign; but they ſeem now buried in oblivion, as they ought to be, conſidering that the pontiff muſt be long ago convinced by experience, that the thunder of the Vatican has loſt its efficacy; and excommunications will do very little, either with this prince or his ſubjects; and as to the temporal power of the Pope, it is not to be compared with that of the Sardinian monarch.

The territories of the king of the Two Sicilies, if we conſider him only in the light of an Italian potentate, lie at too great a diſtance to create any difference between them; but conſidered as a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, the king of Sardinia cannot but be jealous of any augmentation of his power. But to ſay the truth, the great point which this monarch muſt always keep in view, is the ballancing the power of that houſe and the houſe of Auſtria; to the latter of which, notwithſtanding his near relation in blood to the former, it is more natural for him to adhere.

As things ſtand at preſent, it is far from being probable that the court of Vienna will incline to meaſures that may juſtly provoke a prince, to whom ſhe has ſo many obligations, for whoſe aſſiſtance ſhe muſt have ſo often occaſion, and who, in that caſe, would eaſily find reſources ſufficient to defend himſelf againſt all attempts.

On the other hand, while, from a due regard to their reſpective intereſts, a good correſpondence is kept up between them, the light of experience plainly ſhews, that their enemies will find it very hard to make any impreſſion upon either; and in proceſs of time it is highly probable that ſuch alterations may happen in Spain, as will render their capacity of defending themſelves ſtill greater than they are at preſent.

But with reſpect to the houſe of Bourbon, though it will be always decent and proper for his Sardinian Majeſty to preſerve for it a juſt meaſure of reſpect and complaiſance; yet as his ſafety muſt perpetually depend upon the greatneſs of his own ſtrength, and the limitation of their power, ſo it can never become either requiſite or agreeable to him, to enter into any cloſe alliance with that family, the aggrandizing of which muſt be always, if not at his expence, at the riſque of his ſecurity. There are alſo good reaſons to believe, that France will not eaſily be drawn to quarrel with a prince, who keeps, as it were, the gates of her dominions, and who may be juſtly ſtiled a terror to her, while ſhe is ſo to all the reſt of her neighbours; for, without doubt, if the king of Sardinia were thoroughly provoked, and the houſe of Auſtria at full liberty to ſupport him, he might carry his arms either into Dauphiny or Provence, or, perhaps, into both at the ſame time, more efficaciouſly than in the laſt, or the preceding war; in both which, however, irruptions on this ſide have brought the French monarchy into circumſtances of very great diſtreſs. As for the maritime powers, they are, though at a diſtance, the natural and conſtant allies of the monarch of whom we are ſpeaking, becauſe their intereſts and his are the ſame: and if a good port could be made in the county of Nice, capable of admitting men of war, he would be quickly able not only to maintain his own freedom, but alſo to protect the liberty and independency of Italy againſt all invaders; though he would not be even then in a capacity of giving law to others.

If once the affairs of this part of the world were put into ſuch a ſituation, the benefits reſulting to the people there, as well as to all the reſt of Europe, would be ſo great and ſo evident, that his Sardinian Majeſty would have no room to apprehend any new confederacy formed againſt him, ſince his neighbours would be then as willing to defend that ſyſtem, as, for want of conſidering it properly, they formerly ſeemed averſe to receive it.

We have dwelt the longer upon this article, becauſe, with reſpect to the Britiſh nation, there is no power in Italy, with the ſtrength and ſtate of which it imports us ſo much to be well acquainted, as the crown of Sardinia.

But there is one thing very requiſite to be obſerved before we conclude, which is this, that nothing can be of greater importance to the trade of this nation, than the preſerving the ballance in Italy; which, if loſt, muſt neceſſarily throw all that valuable branch of commerce, in which we have at preſent ſo large a ſhare, and from which we derive annually a conſiderable profit, into other hands, and, which is worſt of all, into the hands of the French; a thing againſt which we have as much reaſon to guard, as a trading nation, as the king of Sardinia himſelf has cauſe to oppoſe, as far as poſſible, the growth of the French power, out of regard to his own ſafety. This ſufficiently ſhews, that our intereſts are really mutual, and that there is nothing of political art in what we have been told, of the expediency of ſupporting this monarch againſt all his enemies, though at a large expence to ourſelves. See the article MEDITERRANEAN, eſpecially our reaſons for the conſtant care and poſſeſſion of GIBRALTAR, the key of all our ITALIAN and LEVANT COMMERCE, and the grand preſervative of the ballance of power in ITALY.

SAVOY duchy is ſituated between France and Italy, on the weſt ſide of the Alps, bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva on the north, by Switzerland and Piedmont on the eaſt, by another part of Piedmont and Dauphiné on the ſouth, and by Franche Compte and Dauphiné on the weſt. It is a barren country, generally being encumbered with the high cold mountains of the Alps; however, there are ſome pleaſant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine and fruit; and they have large herds of cattle, and abundance of game, veniſon, and wild fowl, in their mountains, and plenty of fiſh

fiſh in their lakes and rivers. Their greateſt misfortune is, that they lie open to the incurſions of the French; and whenever their prince is at war with that kingdom, Savoy is firſt made ſenſible of the ravages of the French troops, and uſed as a conquered country, though upon every treaty of peace it has hitherto been reſtored to the duke of Savoy, at preſent king of Sardinia. See the articles SARDINIA and PIEDMONT.

SAXON GREEN COLOUR.

Method of dyeing white cloth green, called Saxon green.

The ordinary greens, ſtained blue in a woad-vat, and afterwards yellow, in a bath of dyers woad, are ſeldom uniform, almoſt always dull, and require ſeveral days labour to finiſh them entirely. The green, dyed according to the new proceſs, of which the Saxons are believed to be the inventors, is, without compariſon, more freſh and lively; and, in four and twenty hours, one may dye ſeveral pieces of cloth, firſt blue, and then green, in the ſame copper.

Although this green is not ſo ſolid, when tried inſtantaneouſly, as the common green, nevertheleſs it reſiſts, as much as theſe, both the action of the air, and the rays of the ſun; and its luſtre hath obtained it the preference over them in England, Germany, and the northern countries.

The firſt Saxon greens imported into the kingdom of France were purchaſed immediately, and the public, aſtoniſhed at their livelineſs, was deſirous that they ſhould be imitated in France. Their deſire was complied with, as ſoon as it was poſſible to learn the baſis of the proceſs; and thoſe who were charged with the execution, have ſucceeded ſo much to their wiſh, that the laſt cloths which they dyed are, at leaſt, as pretty as the fineſt greens brought from Saxony.

The foundation of this green is a blue, extracted from indigo by the acid of vitriol: it is covered with a yellow, extracted from real yellow woad, from dyers weed, or from any other ingredient, which gives a yellow of a good tint: but the ſucceſs of the proceſs depends upon the choice of the acid, known in trade by the appellation of oil of vitriol; and alſo upon the equal diſtribution of the ſame acid, when it is incorporated with the blue of indigo in the copper, where the cloth is to be dyed firſt a lively ſhining blue, and afterwards a yellow, which is to be changed into a green.

If the oil of vitriol is weakened by a too great quantity of aqueous particles, it doth not attack the beſt indigo, or, at leaſt, extracts from it an ugly grey. If the indigo blue, extracted by a concentrated, or very acid oil of vitriol, is not equally diſtributed in the bath of the copper, as this liquor is much heavier than water, it is precipitated to the bottom by its own gravity: in this caſe, the cloth dipped in the bath imbibes the blue very unequally, and appears variouſly ſhaded. It takes, indeed, the green colour in the bath of yellow; but that green is alſo differently ſhaded.

In publiſhing the proceſs of a Saxon green, we thought proper to begin with informing dyers with the method of preventing theſe defects. The common oil of vitriol which is bought of druggiſts, or brought from Hamburgh or Holland, muſt be concentrated by diſtillation. But this operation is difficult for a dyer, who may not be always ſuppoſed capable of conducting diſtillation by a retort. Now it is required to have the oil of vitriol with the feweſt aqueous particles poſſible; theſe may be expelled by a ſand-fire, ſtrong enough to make them evaporate into ſmoke or vapour. When the oil of vitriol ceaſes to ſmoke with the ſame degree of heat, it is a ſure ſign that it is concentrated, or acid enough to extract the blue colour from indigo, and conſequently to make what is called, in the proceſs, the compoſition. This evaporation is performed in a glaſs pot without a funnel, better than in any other veſſel: where that is wanting, a well-burnt ſtone pot may be uſed, provided it is not porous; or finally, an earthen pot well varniſhed, which, however, is not ſo proper for that operation, as either thoſe of ſtone or glaſs.

This veſſel, of glaſs, of ſtone, or of varniſhed earth, is to be placed upon an iron pan, half, or two-thirds, full of fine ſand, which ought to be well dried before. This iron pan muſt be put upon a ſtove, with a grate, and an aſh-pan under it, and the bed of ſand muſt be gradually heated with a charcoal fire, that the glaſs, ſtone, or earthen pot, may likewiſe be heated by degrees, and not be in danger of cracking, which would certainly be the caſe, if it was warmed too precipitately.

As ſoon as the oil of vitriol emits no more aqueous vapours, the acid begins to evaporate: it is eaſily judged if the vapour is acid, by holding a piece of blue paper ſtretched over it: if the paper becomes red almoſt inſtantaneouſly, the liquor is ſufficiently evaporated: allow it then to cool 'till it be lukewarm, by taking the pot off the hot ſand, and placing it upon ſtraw at a ſmall diſtance from the ſtone, that the contiguous air may be dry: for, was it placed in a moiſt air, the oil of vitriol would re-imbibe the aqueous humidity, which is loſt by evaporation. This liquor, being thus cooled, ſo as to be hardly lukewarm, muſt be poured upon the quantity of indigo which ſhall be afterward preſcribed. The indigo, however, muſt be beforehand reduced to a powder, and put into a glaſs or ſtone veſſel, which ſhould be well ſtopped with a cork; with wax round it, leſt the oil of vitriol, after diſſolving the indigo, which is then called the compoſition of blue, ſhould re-attract the moiſture of the air.

In fine, if you would be abſolutely certain that the oil of vitriol is concentrated enough not to fail in forming this compoſition, you have only to pour two ounces of it upon forty or fifty grains of pulveriſed indigo, put into a phial, and to mix them well by ſhaking the phial; in an hour's time, the liquor which floats above the ſediment, ſhould be of a fine dark blue: if it is only grey, the oil of vitriol is not enough concentrated.

Proceſs for dyeing a piece of cloth twenty ells long, into a Saxon green.

Diſſolve in a ſufficient quantity of river water, which breaks ſoap perfectly well, three pounds and a half of Roman alum, and two pounds of the powder of white tartar; boil the cloth in it half an hour, or five and thirty minutes at moſt; take it out and expoſe it to the air to cool, but do not waſh it.

Refreſh the bath of this boiler with twenty or five and twenty buckets full of water, and throw in, at two different times, the compoſition of blue deſigned for the cloth. If the oil of vitriol has concentrated, or has ſtood the proof as deſcribed above, it is ſufficient to take a pound and a half, and pour it lukewarm upon two ounces and an half of fine powder of indigo. You muſt wait till the diſſolution is made, and the liquor becomes a fine dark blue; but if this compoſition of blue has been made ſome days before, ſo much the better; for then you may take one pound ten ounces, or a little more, and pour the half of it into a large ſtone pot, or into a bucket, proper for the uſe, into which there muſt be put before, ten or twelve pints of the refreſhed bath from the boiler. The whole muſt be well jumbled, in order to diffuſe the compoſition of blue. You muſt likewiſe have a ſtraining-bag of cloth, ſteep it well in the bath of the boiler, open it, and pour into it that half of the compoſition which is already mixed. By this means you will preſerve the ſtraining-bag, which, without this precaution, would have been burnt by the oil of vitriol, if it had been poured in as much concentrated as at firſt.

Put the ſtraining-bag over the whole extent of the bath, that it may imbibe the blue equally: palliate likewiſe the bath, that the diſtribution of the colouring particles may be more equal; when the cloth is cooled, let it down into the cauldron, and keep it there five or ſix minutes without boiling, turning it rapidly, and agitating the bath with a pole of white woad. Then take out the cloth, raiſing it only upon the turn. Put the ſtraining-bag again into the ſame bath, and throw in the other half of the compoſition of blue, after it has been diſſolved, as the former half, in ten or twelve pints of water taken from the boiler. Paſs the ſtraining-bag over the bath, as formerly, palliate it ſtrongly, let down the cloth, and turn it three or four times very quickly, in continuing to agitate the bath with the ſtick: in fine, in order to make the colour even, boil the bath of blue very gently, and turn the cloth in it ſlowly for ſeven or eight minutes. Take it out ſtained blue, and let it cool.

Empty this boiler of three-fourths of its contents, and as many buckets full as you take out of the blue bath, pour in the like number of the yellow bath, deſcribed below.

In order to make the yellow bath, you muſt heat gradually another boiler, into which muſt be put a ſufficient quantity of pure river water, with a bag of new coarſe cloth, containing from ten to twelve pounds of real yellow woad (not fuſtic) cut into chips.—When this bath has been heated by degrees 'till it boil, you muſt let it boil two full hours. Yellow woad, cut into chips, ſucceeds better than when it is ground; in this caſe, eight pounds are ſufficient for a piece of cloth of twenty ells; but there is a great riſque of uſing it adulterated.

After you have poured into the firſt boiler when the blue was made, the quantity of the yellow bath, preſcribed above, or even a greater number of buckets full, according to the ſhade of green required; the blue cloth, which ought to be ſufficiently cooled, muſt be let down into this new bath, when very hot, and ſtirred about 'till you have the ſhade of green you want: then take out the cloth, cool it by expoſing it to the air, waſh it, lay the nap, dry it on the tenter-hooks, bruſh it, as ſcarlet is bruſhed, and afterwards preſs it, but in this operation let it be as cool as poſſible. If you have ſeveral pieces of blue cloth to be dyed green ſucceſſively, you muſt take from the bath, which dyed the preceding piece blue, as many buckets full as are to be added from the yellow bath to dye the blue cloth into a green; which will amount to twenty buckets full, or thereabouts, to be taken out, and twenty to be ſupplied; by theſe means, the ſhades of green are rendered more equal and uniform.

The Saxon green of that cloth, which hath been firſt dyed blue in a bath compoſed of allum and white tartar, is much more ſolid than that which is ſtained blue in a new bath of plain water, without theſe ſalts, but it has not ſo good a luſtre.

luſtre. However, as it reſiſts the rays of the ſun for twelve days, it may be reputed a very good tint. Being made by means of an acid, it muſt not be proved by ſoap, which is preſcribed for the ordinary greens made in the blue vats. In order to prove it, you ſhould boil it for five minutes in a quart of water, with two drachms of Roman allum, as ſcarlet is tried, which is alſo dyed with an acid: if it preſerves its colour, it may be reckoned a very good tint, although, by this operation, it loſes much more than in the rays of the ſun.

SAXONY, the electorate and dominions of Saxony in Germany.

Theſe dominions, as they are included in the circle of Upper Saxony, are bounded by the duchies of Magdeburgh and Brunſwic on the north, Sileſia and port of Bohemia on the eaſt, Bohemia and Franconia on the ſouth, and the Landgraviate of Heſſe on the weſt.

The particular diviſions, as they lie from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, where the Upper leads to Lower Saxony, are as follow, viz.

The firſt, which lies betwixt the Elb and Oder, is the marquiſate of LUSATIA.

It is for the moſt part ſandy and boggy, that they have little corn; but here is ſuch plenty of wood, veniſon, and fiſh, as might enrich them if they had any trade.

GORLITZ is the largeſt town in the marquiſate, and by ſome called its capital. Their chief trade is in beer, and in dreſſing and dyeing woollen and linen cloth.

LAUBAN upon the river Queiſs is a little town, but has a great linen manufacture.

ZITTAW is a fine city, has a good trade in beer, and a great manufacture of cloth.

CAMITZ is a populous little city, and has a manufacture both of woollen and linen cloth.

GUBEN is a large and populous town, and has a woollen manufacture.

SOMMERFIELD has alſo a woollen manufacture, and CALOW has a great market for wool.

The marquiſate of MISNIA is the ſecond diviſion of the electorate of Saxony. It has Luſatia on the eaſt, Thuringia on the weſt, Merſburgh, Bohemia, and Franconia on the ſouth, and the duchy of Saxony, with Anhalt on the north. Their plains abound with all ſorts of corn, and their hills with rich minerals.

DRESDEN is a large city ſituate on the Elbe, the capital of the electorate of Saxony, 65 miles north-weſt of Prague, and 85 ſouth of Berlin.

The trade of this place is very inconſiderable. The moſt important commodity here is ſilver, of which the mines near Fridburg produce every fifteen days about the value of 20,000 dollars *, which is brought into the city in ingots in a regular carriage appointed for that purpoſe, and immediately coined and delivered to the proprietors. The mines are under the care of directors, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſupport the value of the ſtock; but they uſually go in a beaten track, without making any efforts to increaſe the quantity; on the contrary, it often comes ſhort of the ordinary computation. This ſilver is immediately coined into florins of 16 groſch, which, with reſpect to the current money of bats, driers, &c. is worth 7 per cent. advance, and is conſequently ſo ſpeedily conveyed into the neighbouring territories to be again melted down, that it is next to impoſſible to obtain in change, in this true ſilver, money for one ſingle louis d'or in the ordinary commerce of the people: in which inſtance the Saxons ſeem very regardleſs of their own intereſt; for though this ſilver may be conſidered as a commodity, the currency of ſuch a coin as their bats and drivers, muſt be detrimental in proportion as they are worſe than their genuine coin.

* 3500l.

The exchange here is regulated as in Leipſic. The par is reckoned 125 Saxon dollars for 100 rixdollars current in Amſterdam, but the exchance is generally 135 for their ſmall monies: there is an agio of 3 per cent. when payment is made for bills in louis d'ors, and for ducats 4 per cent. is allowed.

MEISSEN has a manufacture of porcelain, which is more beautifully painted and enamelled than that of Japan, and much dearer; and the vent of it brings no inconſiderable ſum annually into this country. See our article PORCELAIN.

COLDITZ is a little town of good trade, at the conflux of the Muldaw and Multa.

FREYBERG is a large, well-built, and populous town, but owes both its increaſe and riſe to the neighbouring mines of all ſorts of metal, but eſpecially ſilver, copper, pewter, and lead, beſides brimſtone, vitriol, &c.

THURINGIA is bounded on the north by the duchy of Brunſwic and the principality of Anhalt, on the eaſt with Miſnia, on the ſouth by Franconia, and on the weſt by Heſſe.

GOTHA, the capital of the duchy of SAXE GOTHA, is a large walled city on the river Leina. Its chief trade is in dyers woad.

EYSENACH is a pretty little city on the river Neſa. It has a conſiderable trade in iron, of which here are mines not far from it.

ERFURT is reckoned the capital city of Thuringia: it lies in a pleaſant fruitful plain on the river Gere, in a country abounding with all ſorts of corn and good wines, by their trade in which, and in woad, the inhabitants get much money at their two great fairs.

WEYMAR is a neat, well-built city, on the river Ilma. It has a good trade in wine, yet the adjacent country abounds with corn-fields and hop-grounds, inſtead of vines.

MULHAUSEN on the river Unſtrut lies in a fruitful ſoil, and reaps ſo much benefit by its river, in point of commerce, that it was admitted amongſt the Hanſe-Towns, and is called a large populous city.

WIPREN, on a river of the ſame name, is a town of good trade.

One of the chief places of trade in the circle of Upper Saxony, is

LEIPSIC, in the principality of Miſnea or Meiſſen ſituate on the river Pleiſs, 42 miles north-weſt of Dreſden.

Leipſic, by its advantageous ſituation in the centre of Germany, is become one of the moſt commercial cities of Europe; none in Germany are equal to it, being but little inferior to Hamburgh itſelf; though ſmall, it is very populous, and as well built.

In order to a juſt idea of the trade of this city, it muſt be conſidered in two points of view, during the time of the fairs and out of the fairs. [See the article FAIRS.] Leipſic abounds in merchants, with a few or no manufactures; yet conſiderable fortunes are raiſed there. Three years ago only a retale dealer left an only ſon three millions of livres, and M. Stoman, who ſet out with little or nothing, even outſtripped the former. Eſtates of 2 or 300 thouſand rixdollars are no extraordinary matter; ſeveral of four or five may be produced.

The merchants of Leipſic may be divided into three claſſes, the wholeſale dealers making 150, the retalers to the number of 250, and the woollen drapers, who make no ſmall number. To theſe may be added the bookſellers, a conſiderable body, Leipſic having the greateſt book-trade of any city in Germany, but differently managed from any part of Europe. The German and northern bookſellers furniſh themſelves at Leipſic; and this is done either by barter, or ready money, but the far greateſt part by barter.

One of the moſt lucrative branches of the commerce of this city conſiſts in exchange of monies, which is ſo conſiderable, as to be computed at four millions of livres each of the principal fairs.

The ſecond branch of trade lies in home and foreign goods; by the home are meant the products of the ſoil and manufactures of the inhabitants of the country. As to the foreign, Leipſic is a ſtaple for all French, Engliſh, and Dutch commodities, for which there is a demand in the North, and of ſuch northern goods as turn to good account among the more ſouthern nations. The former are Lyons ſtuffs, Niſmes and Paris ſtockings, French jewellers work, and hard-ware, Dutch and Engliſh cloths, ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, and hard-ware.

This trade is carried on perſonally or by commiſſion; many limit themſelves to the latter and find the ſweets of it. In and out of fair-time, commiſſions pour in upon them from merchants of all quarters to buy or ſell goods, draw bills of exchange, receive or pay money, and to forward goods.

The fairs are unqueſtionably the main ſprings of its opulence, few, if any in Europe, equalling them in the amount of the ſales and bargains tranſacted there; and they may be ſaid chiefly to owe the incredible reſort thither to the conveniency of their appointed times, and the privileges of the city. The moſt conſiderable fair is that of Eaſter, beginning on Jubilate-day, three weeks after Eaſter; this is ſucceeded by that of Michaelmas, opening on the 1ſt of October; the laſt is New Year's fair, beginning the 2d of January, and ſcarce worth the name of a fair in compariſon of the others.

The city privileges are alſo very favourable to commerce; its citizens are its garriſon; no ſoldier of the king of Poland is ſo much as to lie a night in the place. During the fair, it is in the fulleſt ſenſe a free port for the home goods, and the foreign pay only one duty, which is a very ſmall exciſe; the Steel-yard fee is alſo very moderate. The magiſtracy omit nothing for the ſafety and eaſe of ſtrangers. As to the total of the buſineſs done at the fairs, it cannot be well aſcertained, by reaſon of the difference of them; that of the Jubilate is eſtimated at ten millions of livres, and the produce of the Steel-yard at four hundred thouſand.

In Leipſic are about thirty French refugee merchants and ſome Italians; but the natives only are allowed to deal by retale or purchaſe land; however the trade for French cloths and laces is chiefly in the hands of the ſaid refugees, ſeveral of whom go themſelves every year to Lyons to buy up their ſortments.

The quantities of home goods at Leipſic aſtoniſh a ſtranger. Among the various manufactures of Saxony, that of linen at Luſatz is not the leaſt conſiderable. The prodigious quantities of Chemnitz dimities and handkerchiefs, are carried off by the Engliſh and Dutch, to ſend to both the Indies. The Saxon woollen ſtuffs, anniſeed, tin-work, the celebrated porcelain, juſtly preferred to China, ſmalt, called the Pruſ-

ſian

ſian blue, are all articles which deſerve to come into account. Likewiſe gold and ſilver lace, velvet, camblets, damaſks, and other ſilk ſtuffs, are made at Leipſic; but they are not the beſt in the world: what goes off much better is, thin waxen linen bedaubed with flowers and antic figures; theſe being ſold extremely cheap, are all taken off their hands by the northern traders, who diſpoſe of them for tapeſtry.

The Leipſic fairs were confirmed by the emperor Maximilian I. with a prohibition of the like within 15 German (75 Engliſh) miles. By its jus ſtapula, or ſtaple privilege, the refuſal of all goods coming on the king's roads from within 15 miles, is to be offered to the merchants of Leipſic.

SAY, or ASSAY, a term uſed in the art of refining. See the article ASSAY.

SAY, or SAYE, in commerce, a kind of ſerge, or light croſſed ſtuff, made of wool; greatly uſed abroad for linings of cloaths, and by the religious in Popiſh countries for ſhirts. Thoſe made in England are chiefly exported to Portugal and Spain, and ſome to Leghorn.

SCILLY, weſt longitude 7, latitude 50, a cluſter of iſlands and rocks, ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, 30 miles weſt of Cornwall, the moſt weſterly county of England, dangerous to be approached by ſtrangers on account of the hidden rocks, and have been very fatal to many ſhips of our own nation on their return home; particularly admiral Shovel, with three other men of war, were caſt away here on the 22d of October 1707, in the night-time, in their return from the Mediterranean and the ſiege of Toulon, there being near 1000 people on board the admiral, ſeveral of them gentlemen of quality, both of Spain and England. There is, however, a ſafe paſſage to theſe iſlands, where ſhips are furniſhed with pilots from the place, and there are ſome ſecure harbours in them, large enough to receive the royal navy.

In the towns of St. Mary's, the people trade in ſeveral ſorts of commodities, uſually ſold in ſhops, many of which they are furniſhed with from England; and ſhips coming in, or paſſing by the iſland, ſupply the reſt of their occaſions. With theſe ſtrangers they ſometimes exchange dried fiſh, cattle, or proviſion of the iſland, for ſuch commodities as they want.

A fleet of coaſters, forced in by an eaſterly wind, is of advantage to the iſlanders, as well in their pilotage of them in to the harbours, as in the traffic and expences of the people aſhore. Commanders and paſſengers of ſhips from the Weſt-Indies, or other foreign parts, putting in, never fail of ſhewing their liberality, and of leaving ſome of their commodities and riches behind them. By this means the iſlanders are ſupplied with a ſtock of rum, brandy, wine, and other foreign liquors; ſome for conſumption upon the iſlands, and ſome (by leave of the cuſtom-houſe) for conſumption elſewhere. For the ſake of this trade, which is their principal dependance at preſent, the people of Scilly run very great hazards in going off with their ſmall boats to ſupply themſelves from ſhipping paſſing by, ſhewing undaunted courage and reſolution, in venturing when the ſeas run mountains high.

There being no owners of houſes and lands in Scilly, the peoples hindrances in the improvements of land and trade, are the ſhort leaſes, and ſcarcity of houſes to be met with; it requiring an intereſt to procure a houſe, and another for a leaſe of one. On which account, it was uſual here to engage houſes at the deceaſe of the preſent dwellers. If any houſes are built by leave, at the expence of an iſlander, they become the property of the proprietor after a ſhort term: ſo that no iſlander poſſeſſes houſe or land, but upon pleaſure or leaſe.

The agent is the proper perſon to apply to for a houſe, or land, or a leaſe of either, or both; who has the direction and management of all the houſes, buildings, repairs, rents, &c. upon the iſlands; who alſo has it in his power to diſtribute favour, or ſhew vengeance, in unequal meaſure. But the preſent agent is a gentleman, eſteemed for his generoſity, good ſenſe, and humanity.

The inhabitants are very civilized, and are improved in trade and commerce. The lands are naturally very fruitful, and could eaſily be improved; but as theſe iſlands are held of the crown by proprietors, the perſons in truſt for the proprietors have uſually made their advantage of them, injurious to the iſlanders, and the good intent of the repoſers of that truſt. But if, inſtead of the cuſtom of letting ſhort leaſes (of about twenty-one years) long leaſes were lett, as in Cornwall, and other parts, it would much encourage the improvement of lands in Scilly, and foreigners to ſettle there. And no doubt but thoſe iſlands are as well ſtored with tin, as many parts of Cornwall.

SCLAVONIA, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Drave and Danube, which ſeparate it from Hungary, on the north-eaſt, by the river Save, which divides it from the Turkiſh provinces of Servia and Boſnia on the ſouth-weſt, and by Croatia and the country of Cilley on the weſt, being 200 miles long and 60 broad, a fine level fruitful country where it is cultivated; but having been for many years a frontier province againſt Turkey, and ſubject to the ravages of the Chriſtian as well as Turkiſh armies, it has produced but little corn or wine: the chief town is Poſega, which, with the whole country, is ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria: the people are a mixture of Greek and Latin Chriſtians. The Ratzians inhabit the eaſtern diviſion of this country.

SCOTLAND. All that part of the continent, which is joined with England and Wales, and lies beyond the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, together with great numbers of iſlands on all the other ſides, which are bounded by the ocean. It is in length about 250 miles, and 150 in breadth; in the moſt ſoutherly part it is 54 degrees 54 minutes in latitude, and 15 degrees 40 minutes in longitude; but the moſt northerly it is 58 degrees, 32 or 30 minutes in latitude, and 17 degrees 50 minutes in longitude.

The ſoil in general is not near ſo fruitful as that of England, being much more fit for paſture than corn: yet in ſome of the inland counties they have great ſtore of grain, wherewith they trade to Spain, Holland, and Norway. The ſkirts of the country abound with timber, which is of a vaſt bigneſs, eſpecially their fir-trees.

We having already, in the alphabetical order, given a pretty minute ſtate of the trade and fiſheries carried on in the ſeveral principal ſhires and ſtewarties in Scotland, we ſhall here only give a ſummary view of the trade in general of this part of the united kingdom, and what elſe may contribute to give a juſt idea of its circumſtances for traffic.

MEMOIR concerning the BANKS eſtabliſhed by authority in SCOTLAND.

The bank of Scotland, commonly called the Old Bank, was erected by act of the Scots parliament, of date the 7th of July, 1695.

By which act the incorporation is allowed to have a capital of 1,200,000 l. Scots, or 100,000 l. ſterling, and each ſhare thereof to be 1000 l. Scots, or 83 l. 6 s. 8 d. ſterling; and each ſubſcriber to the ſaid capital paid one tenth of a ſhare in ſpecie, being 100 l. Scots, or 8 l. 6 s. 8 d. ſterling, making 120,000 l. Scots, or 10,000 l. ſterling; on which ſum then paid, this incorporation commenced their banking.

After this, they made a call of another tenth, and continued to deal on theſe two tenths 'till the year 1720, when, upon an emergency, they called for a third tenth.

They made for many years large dividends, proportionable to theſe calls, which at length they thought fit to reduce to 5 per cent. annually, payable in the month of April, and choſe to retain the ſurplus profits to increaſe their dealings.

Some years ago they were willing and capable, out of their ſurplus profits, to make an extraordinary dividend to their proprietors of one tenth of their reſpective ſhares: but, in place thereof, the proprietors were willing they ſhould retain the money, and hold it as or in place of a fourth call, or tenth, and take annually 5 per cent. for it.

At two other different times they were ready alſo to make extraordinary dividends, each of one tenth, and the proprietors in like manner choſe to have them retained, and deemed to be other two calls, to be attended with 5 per cent. yearly dividend: whereby there are now ſix tenths of their capital paid, being 50,000 l. ſterling, upon which they iſſue a dividend yearly of 5 per cent. and beyond which they probably have ſurplus profits, to be the ſubject of future extraordinary dividends.

Though thus the calls made on the ſtock are ſix tenths, being 600 l. Scots, or 50 l. ſterling per ſhare, upon which the ordinary annual dividend is only 30 l. Scots, or 2 l. 10 s. ſterling, yet the current price of one ſhare is 70 l. ſterling, whereby the putchaſer has only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—The ſtock is very ſeldom in the market.

The Royal Bank was erected by charter, of date the 13th of May 1727, a copy of which I have obtained, and ſhall give an abridgment of at the end of this Memoir, which muſt be conſidered with the act of parliament and charter of the Equivalent company therein recited.

In conſequence of the charter of the Royal Bank, the proprietors of the equivalent ſubſcribed only to the amount of 111,347 l. 19 s. 10 d. $\frac{5}{112}$, which is now the capital ſtock of this bank.

The bank, immediately after their erection, made a call of 10 per cent. on the ſubſcribing proprietors of the ſaid capital; and ſoon after made a ſecond call, of another 10 per cent. which two calls being about 22,000 l. ſterling, was their firſt fund of banking, together with 4 per cent. which they receive yearly for their capital out of the Equivalent Fund.

About three years after their commencement, they were obliged to accept of a loan of 40,000 l. ſterling, from the Society of Truſtees for improvement of manufactures and Fiſheries in Scotland, at 5 per cent. intereſt; which loan they continue to hold, whereby their fund is 62,000 l. ſterling, beſide their ſaid annual dividend from the Equivalent.

This bank obtained another charter, confirming all their powers and privileges by the former, and impowering them to inlarge their ſaid capital, and add 40,000 l. to it by ſubſcription, on ſuch conditions as they think equitable: but this power they have not exerciſed.

This bank, a few years after their commencement, raiſed the yearly dividend to their proprietors to 6 per cent. of their capital,

capital, payable one half at Chriſtmas, and the other half at Midſummer; which dividend is nearly 5 per cent. of both capital and calls paid; and this dividend they continue uniformly to make, retaining any ſurplus profits for extraordinary dividends.

About twelve years ago, they made an extraordinary dividend of 5 per cent. on the capital, being one fourth of the calls, and are about to make another dividend of 15 per cent. which will repay to the proprietors the whole calls; or they may retain the money for a fund of banking, giving each proprietor credit for his ſhare of it in their books, and to add one half per cent. to the dividend annually, making in all 6 ½ per cent.

The Equivalent company have, by the aforeſaid act of parliament, 600 l. ſterling yearly for expence of adminiſtration, of which they have annual ſavings, which ſometimes they divide among their partners. Some few years ago the Equivalent company divided their ſavings, whereof the bank's ſhare afforded 2 per cent. of the capital to each of their proprietors, which was iſſued to them.

The current price of the ſtock of this bank is 160 l. for every 100 l. capital; and yet the purchaſer at that price will have nearly 4 l. per cent. when the aforeſaid ½ per cent. is added to the annual dividend.

Both the banks lend money upon ſecurity in lands, upon perſonal bonds and bills.

They do not chuſe to lend upon lands; and, when they do lend upon that ſecurity, they have frequently indulged the debtors to repay 10 per cent. yearly of the capital, beſides the intereſt.

When they lend on bills, they take them payable at 60 days date, and add the legal intereſt for that time to the ſum lent.

Neither of theſe banks diſcount bills, or lend upon depoſits or pledges of any ſort.

The exchange between London and Edinburgh was very variable, and ſometimes the private dealers in Edinburgh would have taken 2 per cent. for bills on London, which was hurtful to trade.—The Royal bank, to remedy this grievance, have, for ſeveral years, dealt in that branch of exchange, and correſpond only with the Bank of England, and never take more than one per cent. for draughts on the Bank of England payable at ſight, which keeps the private dealers from extortion.

Both banks allow caſh accounts with them to merchants, capital manufacturers, manufacturing companies, and other men of buſineſs, and give them credit to draw on them beyond their monies lodged, to various extents, from 100 l. to 5000 l. ſterling, ſuitable to their reſpective circumſtances, trade, or buſineſs; the benefit of which is, that thoſe who have ſuch caſh accounts chuſe always to be ſomewhat indebted to the bank, and may pay in at any time not leſs than 10 l. and upwards, which reduces the debt, and by which means the merchants never have any ſum above 10 l. lying dead, the bank charging intereſt only for what ballance is due to them upon every payment. This is not the caſe with the bank and bankers in London.—In ſuch accounts, the two banks give credit for above 300,000 l. ſterling, which create conſtant operations in paying in and taking out by theſe compt-holders, and is a very great encouragement to traders and great manufacturers.

For ſome time after the Royal Bank was erected, there was a jealouſy, emulation, and bickering, between them and the Old Bank, through the peeviſhneſs of ſome in their directions: but, of late years, theſe are removed, and there is ſufficient buſineſs for them both, and they at preſent harmonize; each of them receive the notes of the other bank in payments, which once in the week they exchange, and take ſurplus notes of the other.

About ſix years ago, four merchants in Aberdeen commenced a banking company, ſtruck notes, and endeavoured to have all the ſame operations as the two eſtabliſhed banks in Edinburgh.

Some time after, two different ſocieties of merchants and gentlemen in and about Glaſgow, commenced each of them in like manner a banking company in Glaſgow.

The company in Aberdeen gave up their trade in December laſt, called in their notes, and publickly advertiſed that their partnerſhip was diſſolved. Thoſe in Glaſgow yet continue; but it is probable they may be judged illegal.

The ſubſtance of the WARRANT of the CHARTER erecting the ROYAL BANK of SCOTLAND.

Our ſovereign lord conſidering, That, by an act of parliament made and paſſed in the 5th year of his Majeſty's reign, intitled, An act for ſettling certain early funds, payable out of the revenues of Scotland, to ſatisfy public debts in Scotland, and other uſes mentioned in the Treaty of Union; and to diſcharge the Equivalent claimed on behalf of Scotland, in the terms of the ſame treaty; and for obviating all future diſputes, charges, and expences, concerning theſe equivalents: it is enacted, amongſt other things, That every year, from the feaſt of the Nativity of St John the Baptiſt, one thouſand ſeven hundred and nineteen, the ſum of 10,000 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, ſhall be a yearly fund for the particular purpoſes in that act expreſſed, concerning the ſame, and ſhall continue and be payable for ever, ſubject nevertheleſs to redemption by parliament, according to a proviſo in the ſaid act contained in that behalf; and that the ſaid annuity of 10,000 l. during the continuance thereof, ſhall be chargeable upon, and be payable out of, the monies ariſing from time to time from the cuſtoms, duties, exciſes, or revenues, that are or ſhall be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and commiſſioners of exciſe, in Scotland, or of any commiſſioners, farmers, or managers of thoſe revenues, or either of them, for the time being, with ſuch preference as in the ſaid act is mentioned; which ſaid annuity is thereby enacted to be payable quarterly in manner in the ſaid act mentioned, and to be free from all taxes and impoſitions whatever.—His Majeſty is authoriſed, by ſuch names as he ſhall think fit, to incorporate the proprietors of the debts, ſtated to amount to l. 248,550: 0: 9 ½, due to the creditors of the public in Scotland.—And the ſaid l. 248,550: 0: 9 ½, ſhould be the capital, or joint-ſtock of the corporation, and be deemed perſonal or moveable eſtates, not liable to arreſtments or attachment.—600 l. per annum to be paid to the corporation for charges of management.—His Majeſty, by his letters patent, did give, grant, and ordain, that all perſons, natives and foreigners, bodies politic and corporate, who then were proprietors of the debts and ſums of money ſo ſtated to amount to l. 248,550: 0: 9 ½, or who by any lawful title, derived to the ſaid proprietors at any time thereafter, ſhould be intitled to any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein, ſhould be called one body politic and corporate of themſelves, in deed and name, by the name of the Equivalent Company: and that ſuch corporation, and their ſucceſſors, ſhould have perpetual ſucceſſion, ſubject to ſuch redemption as is therein mentioned, and uſe a common ſeal, and ſhould by that name be capable to ſue and be ſued; and that the ſum of l. 248,550: 0: 9 ½, be the capital, or joint-ſtock of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY.—And the annuity of 10,000 l. payable to the company, or their caſhier, to be divided among the proprietors, according to their ſhares in the ſtock.—The ſtock of the company to be transferable.—The 600 l. is payable to the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, or any perſon to be appointed by them, under their ſeal to receive the ſame.—Diſtinct books of ſubſcription to be left at London and Edinburgh, wherein the proprietors are to declare at which of theſe places they are to have credit for their ſtock.—Diſtinct books of transfer to be kept at theſe places likewiſe.—Two of the directors to be for ever choſen, reſiding at Edinburgh, to have the cuſtody of theſe books.—Stock in the books at London may be diſcharged therefrom, and new credit got in the books at Edinburgh, and reciprocally for ſtock at Edinburgh.—His Majeſty covenants to give the EQUIVALENT COMPANY further powers and privileges, upon their humble ſuit and requeſt.—And the company requeſted, that his Majeſty would be pleaſed, by letters patent under the great ſeal of Scotland, to enable ſuch of the proprietors of the ſaid corporation as ſhould ſubſcribe their ſtock for that purpoſe, to have the power of BANKING in SCOTLAND only, with liberty to borrow and lend upon ſecurity there; and that the corporation may, for that purpoſe, be impowered to take ſubſcriptions at Edinburgh, for ſuch ſhare of the ſtock as they ſhall incline to ſubject to ſuch TRADE or BANKING, under ſuch regulations as they by by-laws ſhall appoint, and that ſuch ſubſcribed ſtock only ſhall be affected by the tranſactions relating to BANKING, and ſhall (after ſo ſubſcribed) become transferable from the other ſtock of the company, and that at Edinburgh only, and thereafter to be transferable from the other ſtock of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, at EDINBURGH only.—Accordingly a charter was ordained to paſs the ſeals of Scotland, authorizing the directors of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, or any three of them, in ſuch way as the majority of them ſhall direct, to receive at EDINBURGH all ſuch voluntary ſubſcriptions as ſhould be made on or before the 29th of September, 1727, by the proprietors of the ſaid company, who ſhall, at ſubſcribing, have credit for ſtock in the company's books at EDINBURGH; which ſubſcriptions are to be entered in books to be kept for that purpoſe.—The ſtock ſo ſubſcribed to be under the management of the company hereby eſtabliſhed.—The ſubſcribers to be called by the name of the ROYAL BANK of SCOTLAND, and by that name to have perpetual ſucceſſion, and a common ſeal, &c. be capable in law to ſue, and be ſued, &c. in any of the courts within Scotland.—To purchaſe lands, &c. in Scotland, and to ſell the ſame.—The Royal Bank to have a power of banking within Scotland.—To lend any ſums at any intereſt not exceeding lawful intereſt, upon perſonal and real ſecurity, and pledges of any kind.—The Royal Bank may keep the caſh of other perſons, and borrow, owe and take up money on their bills or notes, payable on demand.—A prohibition to trade with the money or ſtock of the company, in buying or ſelling wares of any ſort.—Allowance nevertheleſs to deal in bills of exchange, in buying bullion, &c. and ſelling wares bonâ fide pledged, and lands, &c. purchaſed, and the produce thereof. — That there ſhall be, from time to time, a governor, deputy-governor, nine ordinary, and nine extraordinary directors, for managing the affairs of the corporation; the governor and nine ordinary directors, or any five of them, to

be called a court of directors.—The members of the corporation may, from time to time, meet at Edinburgh, for chuſing their governor, deputy-governor, and directors, and for making by-laws, &c.—Public notice thereof to be given 30 days, at leaſt, before the time appointed for ſuch meeting.—The members ſo aſſembled to be called a general court of the corporation.—That there be four general courts in the year.—The governor, deputy-governor, and directors, after the 24th of December, 1728, to be choſen annually, on the firſt Tueſday of March.—Their qualifications of ſtocks, viz. the governor 2000l. deputy-governor 1500l. an ordinary director 1000l. an extraordinary director 500l. — One vote allowed for 300l. two votes for 600l. three votes for 1200l. and four votes for 2000l.—No perſon intitled to more than four votes.—Proxies qualified with ſtock, allowed to vote in elections.—Form of the oath that may be put to perſons claiming to vote, as follows, viz. I, A. B. do ſwear, that the ſum of of the capital ſtock of the body politic, called the Royal Bank of Scotland, doth at this time belong to me in my own right, and not in truſt for any perſon or perſons whatſoever. — The oath to be adminiſtered by the governor or deputy-governor, or, in their abſence, by any two directors. — No perſon refuſing to take ſuch oath, ſhall be capable to vote. — The ſame oath to be taken by ſuch as appoint proxies, before a juſtice of peace, or chief magiſtrate of a burgh. — The proxy to produce his powers for voting, with ſuch affidavit, to the general court. — Each ſucceeding governor, deputy-governor, and directors ſo choſen, to continue for one year, and 'till others are choſen and ſworn into their places.—In caſe of the death, &c. of any of them, thoſe remaining in their offices may call a general court, to chuſe others in their room. — None to be choſen into theſe offices but ſuch as are ſubjects of Great-Britain, or naturalized, and qualified with ſtock as aforeſaid. — And not to continue in thoſe offices longer than the continuance of ſtock in their own names and rights.—Nor ſhall they be capable to act 'till they have taken the oath of office, as before repreſented. — To be adminiſtered by any of the barons of the court of Exchequer, or any two directors, who ſhall have taken the ſaid oaths before any of the barons of that court.—An oath de fideli to be adminiſtered to the caſhier, and other officers. — No governor, deputy-governor, or director, nor any officer or ſervant under them, ſhall be capable to act, until ſuch have produced certificates from the proper officers of their having taken the oaths to the government.—Any neglecting to take the ſaid oaths, or to take upon them their office for 40 days, if in Scotland, or 40 days after their coming into Scotland, their places ſhall become vacant, and others may be choſe in their places, by a general court.—The court of directors, or major part of them, may call a general court, upon 30 days notice, and ſhall upon demand of any nine or more of the members, having each 1000l. ſtock, call a general court.—And in their default of calling ſuch court, the ſaid nine or more members, having each 1000l. ſtock, may ſummon and hold a general court, upon notice as aforeſaid.—Which general court, for any miſdemeanor or abuſe, may remove or diſplace the governor, deputy-governor, or any of the directors, and elect and chuſe others in their room.—The governor, deputy-governor, and directors, or any five of them, may meet at any place in Edinburgh, for the management of the affairs of the corporation, and hold courts, and ſummon general courts, as they ſee cauſe, and act according to the by-laws to be made and given unto them by the general court; and, where ſuch by-laws are wanting, they, or the major part of them, may direct and manage all the affairs of the corporation, and may appoint a caſhier and ſecretary and all other officers, and may allow them ſalaries, and diſplace them, as they ſee cauſe.—No governor, deputy-governor, nor director, capable to be named, or choſen, into the office of caſhier, or any other the officers of the corporation.—Five extraordinary, and four ordinary directors at leaſt, to meet to ſtate and audit the account, and ſign and approve the ſame, as often as directed by the by-laws.—The extraordinary directors to have no powers but ſuch as ſhall be given to them, and allowed of by the general courts.—The general courts to make and conſtitute by-laws, &c.—And to impoſe mulcts and amerciaments upon offenders, which, if not duly paid, may be retained out of their dividends. — The general court may make calls upon the proprietors, which are not in the whole to exceed 50l. upon the 100l. capital, and no call to be above 10l. per cent. at a time.—Any perſon neglecting or refuſing to pay ſuch calls, ſhall not be allowed to tranſfer, or part with any part of their ſtock.—Such calls chargeable with intereſt, from the time they ought to be paid, and their dividends may be detained, and applied for payment thereof.—Books for transfers to be kept for Edinburgh.—Form of transfers, when made by the party himſelf: I A. B. this day of in the year of our Lord do aſſign and transfer being all my intereſt, or ſhare, or (as the caſe may be) part of my intereſt, or ſhare, in the capital ſtock, or fund, of the Royal Bank of Scotland, and all benefit ariſing thereby, unto C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns. Witneſs my hand, A. B. Or, in caſe the party aſſigning be not perſonally preſent, then, by an entry in the book or books, ſigned by ſome perſon thereunto lawfully authoriſed by letter of attorney or factory, under hand and ſeal, atteſted by two or more witneſſes, in the words, or to the effect following, viz. I A. B. this day of in the year of our Lord by virtue of a letter of attorney, or authority, under the hand and ſeal of dated the day of in the ſaid year do, in the name and on the behalf of the ſaid aſſign and transfer being all the intereſt, or ſhare, or (as the caſe may be) part of the intereſt, or ſhare, of the ſaid in the capital ſtock, or fund, of the Royal Bank of Scotland, and all benefits ariſing thereby, unto his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns. Witneſs my hand. — Former acceptance is as follows.—And no other method of transfer ſhall be valid.—Letters of attorney to contain the names and deſignations of the writer and witneſſes, and to be atteſted by a notary, juſtice of peace, or miniſter of the pariſh where the granter reſides.—Any ſhare of the ſtock may be diſpoſed of by laſt will and teſtament.—An extract of the teſtament is to be delivered to the company, and a memorandum thereof entered in a book to be kept for that purpoſe.—All the ſhares or intereſts in the ſtock to be deemed perſonal eſtates, and not to be liable to any arreſtment of attachment.—A court of directors to conſiſt of the governor, deputy-governor, and ordinary directors, or any five of them at leaſt, wherein the governor is to preſide, and, in his abſence, the deputy-governor; in the abſence of both, any director preſent may be choſen to preſide in that court of directors, or in any general court of the corporation; and, in default thereof, the general court may chuſe a preſident; the preſident to have no vote, but in caſes of equality.—The court of directors may name committees to manage their affairs.—The caſhier of the corporation, or any other perſon authorized by them, to receive their proportion of the 10,000l. annuity. — Which is to be paid without any fee or reward whatſoever. — The general court twice every year is to declare a dividend, at ſuch two of the quarterly courts as they think fit.—No dividend to be made, but out of their ſhare of the 10,000l. annuity, and the profits of banking. — Calls upon the ſtock may be repaid.—A general court may aſſume ſuch of the proprietors of the equivalent ſtock, as ſhall not have ſubſcribed before the 29th of September 1727, within two years from the date of the charter.—Upon ſuch terms and conditions, and at ſuch times as the majority of the firſt ſubſcribers ſhall appoint in a general court.—Such further ſubſcriptions to be under the management of this corporation, from the time of ſubſcribing.—And to enjoy the ſame privileges, &c. with the firſt ſubſcribers. — The charter to be conſtrued in the moſt favourable ſenſe for the advantage of the corporation. — His Majeſty covenants to give ſuch further privileges as he may lawfully grant. — Which ſhall be deviſed by their own council, and approved of by the lord advocate, or ſollicitor-general for Scotland for the time.

Under our article ABERDEENSHIRE, we have taken notice of the board of truſtees eſtabliſhed by charter for the improvement of the manufactories and fiſheries of Scotland, in conſequence of an act of parliament anno 1727, granting ſome encouragements to them from funds ariſing in Scotland. Theſe, though ſmall, yet by œconomy have had a ſurprizing good effect; which will beſt appear from the following genuine abſtract, which has been tranſmitted to me from Scotland.

ACCOUNT of LINEN CLOTH for ſale, ſtamped in SCOTLAND from November 1, 1727, to November 1, 1753, diſtinguiſhing the quantities and value annually.

Years.	Yards of Linen.	Value in money. l.	s.	d.
1728	2,183,978	103,312	9	3
1729	3,225,155	114,383	19	8
1730	3,755,622	131,262	15	11
1731	3,891,573	145,656	14	3
1732	4,384,832	168,322	14	10
1733	4,720,105	182,766	2	1
1734	4,893,499	185,224	3	11
1735	4,880,633	177,466	3	9
1736	4,538,478	168,177	13	—
1737	4,721,420	183,620	13	9
1738	4,666,011	185,026	11	9
1739	4,801,537	196,068	16	11
1740	4,609,672	188,777	16	5
1741	4,858,190	187,658	15	3
1742	4,431,450	191,689	6	6
1743	5,061,311	215,927	6	7
1744	5,480,727	229,364	12	3
1745	5,536,925	224,252	8	—
1746	5,486,334	222,870	13	2
1747	6,661,788	262,866	10	2
1748	7,353,098	293,864	12	11
1749	7,360,286	322,045	8	9
1750	7,572,540	361,736	12	5
1751	7,886,374	367,167	11	6
1752	8,759,943	409,407	6	7
1753	9,422,593	445,321	18	1

REMARKS.

This is a very extraordinary increaſe in the linen manufacture of Scotland, in the ſpace of 26 years, it being above quadruple the number of yards and value to what it was at the beginning, and amounts now to almoſt half a million of money per annum. But beſides the quantity of linen before ſhewn, there has been likewiſe no inconſiderable quantity manufactured by private people, for bedding and table linen, for ſhirting alſo, and for home uſe of every ſort, and great quantities of tape and incle, and thread exported, which are not taken any account of by the officers of the truſtees: the country too, in the general, is remarkably well ſtocked with linen cloth; even the lower ſort of people are now plentifully provided with body, bed, and table-linen.

Upon the north ſide of the city of Edinburgh, in the road to Leith, is built a neat row of houſes, with a large and commodious garden, called PICARDY, for the reception of ſome French families brought from France, for the improvement of the cambric manufacture; which has been of great uſe, and is daily growing more and more profitable.

Anno 1733, the ſaid board of truſtees, amongſt other premiums, appropriated 1500l. ſterling per annum, after the rate of 15s. per acre, for 2000 acres of ground to be ſowed with LINT-SEED and HEMP-SEED, according to the rules laid down in a peculiar plan for that purpoſe. This had a very agreeable and extraordinary good effect, the growth of lint increaſing greatly every year. Premiums alſo were given for erecting lint-mills, and bleach-fields; but of late years the ſaid premiums for ſowing of lint and hemp-ſeed are withdrawn, on account of the funds for theſe good purpoſes not anſwering to the extent of what they were formerly; whereby we have the mortification to ſee the growth of lint much decreaſed; but it is greatly to be deſired that ways and means will be found to ſupply this deficiency.

In regard to the propagation of lint, it may be worth obſerving, what method has been found by experience to be the beſt for cultivating of moſſes at a ſmall charge in Scotland, of which there are a great many, to be fit either for tillage or paſturage, which is creating ſo much more valuable ground in the country. This has proceeded from ſeveral years ſtudy and experiments of an ingenious gentleman, Mr Græme, of Argomercy in Stirlingſhire, the truth of which is atteſted by ſeveral gentlemen in the commiſſion of the peace, and by them recommended to the ſaid board of truſtees. — They ſay in every piece of moſs he intends to labour, he makes only a few ſmall ditches, three feet deep, for drains; he pares his field, covers it with earth, which he brings by an eaſy carriage from the adjacent lands; or, if theſe lands are too diſtant, he gets earth enough by digging in the moſs itſelf: he then mixes this earth with aſhes, which he obtains eaſily, by burning the moſs, that being a ſoft rotten earth: then he uſes a breaſt-plough, which a ſingle man puſhes eaſily before him: his harrows, his rollers, and all his inſtruments, are ſuited to the nature of his ſoil and labour, and are purchaſable at a very eaſy rate. He performs all his work with men, without horſes or oxen; nor is he at any expence either for dung or lime; his manure coſts nothing but a very cheap and eaſy labour, and he makes his ſoil as rich as he pleaſes. Conſtant tillage impoveriſhes other, but greatly meliorates a moſſy ſoil. The higheſt eſtimation of all this charge is 40s. per acre, viz. 20s. for digging and laying on the earth, 10s. for paring, 5s. for burning, and 5s. for extra-charges. — The whole may be reduced to 25s. per acre. Neither does moſs cultivated in this manner immediately run out, but being refreſhed with earth and aſhes every third year, it will improve every year by the tillage.

From this judicious gentleman's experience, and that unqueſtionably atteſted by perſons of honour and credit, moſs prepared in this manner anſwers admirably well for the growing of lint, either coarſe or fine. If he wants ſtrong rank lint, he plows the ground very deep, lays a greater quantity of earth upon it, and a great quantity of aſhes; harrows them well, then plows his fields half as deep as before: after which he ſows Riga lint-ſeed thin. If he wants ſhorter, ſmall ſtalked, or fine lint, he does not plow ſo deep, gives leſs aſhes, and ſows Dutch lint-ſeed thick. He has raiſed of both kinds, eſpecially the coarſe, which is moſt wanted, and is, perhaps, moſt profitable for this country. The gentleman has likewiſe had good crops of potatoes, rape, peaſe, beans, wheat, barley, and oats, clover, and natural graſs; and after two or three years culture, they bear good turneps. — A man with his paring plough can eaſily pare an acre in ten or twelve days, which he then burns, and ſpreads the aſhes and earth, plows it with his new breaſt-plow, without cattle; and where cattle can go, two little Highland horſes may do it. An acre thus dreſſed and ſown with lint, is a living for a family the whole year; and, when the flax is manufactured, at a moderate computation may be reckoned worth 100l. ſterling.

Some years ago, his preſent grace the duke of Argyle, ever ready to promote the public good, and other lords and gentlemen, finding ſome difficulties to attend the ſpinners of flax into yarn, as well as the weavers of the ſaid yarn into different ſorts of linen, by reaſon of the want of a ready ſale for their goods; and they being unable to keep them on hand for a market, were often obliged to ſell them at an under value, to the great prejudice of the manufacture: on theſe conſiderations they were incorporated by a charter from his preſent Majeſty, under the name of the Britiſh Linen Company, with a capital of 100,000l. ſterling, for trading in all branches of this manufacture. They import flax from abroad, the beſt lint-ſeed, pot and weed-aſhes for bleaching, and ſell them on credit to proper hands, then buy the yarn and linen, all at reaſonable prices; which linen, particularly the ſort correſponding to Oſnaburghs, &c. fit for America and the Weſt-Indies, they keep in large ware-houſes, both here and at London, where they are ſold for exportation: by which means this manufacture has been greatly improved and increaſed; but I am heartily ſorry to tell you, ſays my correſpondent, and you with very good reaſon will grieve, that it has now received ſuch a blow (as cannot eaſily be recovered) by taking off the BOUNTY upon EXPORTATION, whereby above 8000 weavers in this country are turned out of their bread. I am informed that, upon the act's taking place, and merchants ceaſing to buy their goods, theſe weavers went about deſiring to inliſt, not only in the Britiſh, but alſo in the Dutch ſervice; from whence they frequently deſert to France, and thereby become a double loſs to the kingdom, by aſſiſting our rivals, &c. In the county of Angus, where many of theſe weavers live, alſo my lord Panmure, a moſt amiable gentleman, who being in the army and having occaſion to recruit there, found moſt of them to be weavers.

Anno 1749, being then in London, I gave my beſt aſſiſtance in forwarding the act for a bounty on the whale-fiſhery; and, on my return hither, did aſſociate with others to eſtabliſh that trade from this place [Scotland] which has ſucceeded ſo well, though unfortunate the two firſt years, that laſt year we ſent ſix large ſhips out to Greenland, and the example was followed by ſeveral other places in this country; our fleet laſt year were in all 17 large ſhips from Scotland: but again I am much concerned to tell you, that we meet with a great diſcouragement; and ſome companies at Glaſgow have already given up this moſt national and valuable branch of trade, by reaſon that the BOUNTIES ARE NOT REGULARLY PAID IN THIS COUNTRY; for though the act of parliament enacts, that the ſaid bounties ſhould be paid out of the CUSTOMS IN GENERAL, yet, by opinion of the late attorney-general ſent to our commiſſioners of the cuſtoms here, he reſtrains thoſe CUSTOMS to five articles, viz. OLD SUBSIDY, PETTY CUSTOMS, ADDITIONAL DUTY, ONE PER CENT. INWARDS, and COMPOSITIONS ON PETTY SEIZURES; out of which cuſtoms, it ſeems, that the commiſſioners ſalaries and all other charges, are firſt paid, and there does not remain a ſufficiency for the payment of BOUNTIES.

The enſuing winter I again repaired to London, having had the honour to be appointed commiſſioner from our CONVENTION OF ROYAL BOROUGHS, to ſollicit the act for encouraging the BRITISH-HERRING-FISHERY; by virtue of which act, on my return here, we conſtituted a FISHING CHAMBER for HERRINGS, with a capital of above 13,000l. ſterling; upon which we began our operations with buſſes; and ſome other towns followed our example, by eſtabliſhing fiſhing chambers, with ſtocks of 10,000l. ſterling each, beſides ſome private traders upon the general bounty of 30s. per ton.

Though we did not ſucceed very well at firſt, as all things are attended with caſualties and extra-charges at their commencement, yet we continued 'till this year, when we broke up, and ſold our buſſes, &c. by reaſon of the premium, or bounty, not being regularly paid, as above mentioned.

As you, Sir, have been already ſo full upon this ſubject of FISHERIES, I need ſay the leſs; you having, upon this occaſion, mentioned the old proclamations and treaties in former times, that no foreigners ſhould come and fiſh within ſight or within 14 miles of our ſhores: if theſe ſhould be revived, it would do our buſineſs at once, and ſave the charges of all BOUNTIES. I am, and ever was, ſo much inclined to forward fiſheries of every kind in this kingdom, that I have been at Dronten, and laſt year at Bergen, in Norway, on this occaſion, where I got ſuch information as, I humbly conceive, may tend to the improvement of our herring-fiſhing, which ſhall be communicated in the ſequel, when I come to mention ſome things farther about the Highlands and their adjacent iſlands. See our article FISHERIES.

Upon both ſides of the Firth of Forth is plenty of great and ſmall coal, which are exported abroad, and coaſt-ways: the great coal is eſteemed the beſt firing for houſe uſe: many ſhips are loaded at Alloa, where the price is from 5s. to 6s. 8d. per 24 hundred the ton. The coal is brought to Leith by water, and to this city by carts, weighing about 12 hundred, and ſells for 5s. per cart; and at the ſame rate we have them from other collieries round the town. The refuſe of the great coal is uſed for boiling of ſea-water to make ſalt, of which we have great quantities in this firth, and ſells for

7½d.

7½d. per buſhel, or 25s. per ton: the Engliſh Iceland fiſhers are generally ſerved in that article here, and a large quantity is exported to Bremen, Embden, and to the Baltic. — We have ſome foreign trade to moſt parts in Europe, alſo to America and the Weſt-Indies; but theſe two laſt are chiefly carried on from GLASGOW and DUMFRIES, which trade is of the utmoſt conſequence to our manufactures: we have, in return for them, ſugar, rum, and tobacco, &c. large quantities of the latter are re-exported, which bring in a ballance of money, or anſwer for other commodities that we have occaſion to import.

This brings me to GLASGOW, which is a large, handſome, regular, and well-built city, upon the river Clyde. They have a good univerſity, a town-houſe, fine churches, the houſes moſtly built of free-ſtone; many of their opulent merchants have villas on both ſides of the river: the tide and ſmall ſhips come up to the town.

Upon the Union of the two kingdoms, this town commenced their trade to America, which became very conſiderable, and has imported from 20 to 23,000 hogſheads of tobacco in a year, beſides ſugars, and other Weſt-India commodities, together with their large concern in the herring-fiſhing in the Firth of Clyde and Highlands, which are exported to the Baltic. They alſo ſend ſome ſhips to Greenland and Davis's Streights, for the whale-fiſhing; all which has increaſed their ſhipping very much, and encouraged every kind of manufactures, particularly linens, fine and coarſe, cheques, tapes, incle, thread ſtockings, handkerchiefs, and plaids, or tartans. They have ſeveral ſugar-houſes, an iron ſlitting-mill, all ſorts of iron manufacture, a glaſs-houſe, rope-walks, and ſoaperies, a Delft-work, alſo a very conſiderable tannery, having their raw hides from Ireland, &c.

Six miles from Glaſgow is the town of Paiſly, remarkable for the induſtry of its inhabitants, and the effects thereof, by increaſe of people, buildings, churches, and an hoſpital. About 60 years ago, they had not above 60 weavers, including journeymen and apprentices; now there are about 1400 weavers, and 93 thread-mills. They make cambrics, lawns, minionets, linens, handkerchiefs, thread and tapes, &c.

About 14 miles down the Clyde from Glaſgow, is NEW PORT and GREENOC; the former has a good harbour, fine ware-houſes, and is the port of Glaſgow; the latter is a town of good trade.

IRVINE and AIR are alſo towns of pretty good trade; the former has above 60 ſail of ſhips in the coal-trade to Dublin, and other places; the latter has five or ſix ſhips in the tobacco-trade from America.

CAMPBELTON, a royal burgh in CANTIRE, is a pleaſant-ſituated town, has a fine baſon and good harbour. The inhabitants of this place and country are very induſtrious in agriculture, linen manufactures, and fiſheries. They had a Greenland company for the whale-fiſhing, but ſome differences ariſing amongſt thoſe concerned, it broke up; however, they carry on a conſiderable trade with herrings, alſo cod and ling-fiſhing, with wherries at BARRA, LEWIS, and at ZETLAND, as well as in their own neighbourhood, which they carry for moſt part to Ireland.

DUMFRIES is a neat well-built town, much increaſed of late years, has imported about 3000 hogſheads of tobacco from America in a year; but in the neighbourhood of it, upon that coaſt, they have too much trade with the ISLE of MAN, from whence they bring great quantities of French brandy, and other liquors, to the great injury of Britain, and her revenues. See MAN, [ISLE of MAN,] and SMUGGLING.

ANNANDALE, NITHISDALE, and CLYDESDALE, are great ſheep countries; ſome ſtore-maſters have above 30,000 ſheep, and rent 1000l. a year; but being ſcarce of firing, they are thinly inhabited, and manufacture but little of their own wool, which is ſent to other places.

At DUNCE in BERWICKSHIRE, JEDBURGH and HAWIC in ROXBURGHSHIRE, they manufacture plaids, carpets, and ſerges, &c. TIVIOTDALE, and ſhire of MARS, are good corn countries; wheat, barley, and oats, are exported from BERWICK and EYMOUTH.

The ſhires of the three LOTHIANS are remarkable for fertility in fine corns, particularly wheat, barley, and oats. FIFE, PERTH, and ANGUS SHIRES, have the greateſt ſhare of the linen manufacture, yarn and thread, particularly in and about the towns of COUPER, PERTH, DUNDEE, ARBROATH, and MONTROSE. Ships are loaded from the four laſt-mentioned places to London, with quantities of goods of great value; and they have otherwiſe a very good trade.

ABERDEEN town and ſhire: the town is populous, large, and well built, has a town-houſe, traders and merchants hoſpitals, and one for old women; alſo Gordon's hoſpital, endowed with 10,000l. the intereſt whereof is at 5 per cent. per annum, for education of boys; they have ſix churches, and a very good univerſity. The harbour is ſafe and capacious, and might be made to hold a great number of ſhips; the entry is guarded by a fort, and though there is a bar, it may be removed, and made deep water, by carrying the pier a little farther out. From this port is ſometimes exported 3 or 4000 tons of oat-meal in one ſeaſon. The manufactures here are chiefly fine and coarſe ſtockings, plaidings, and ſerges, to a great amount; I have heard of ſhips loadings of theſe goods to Holland, from 10 to 15,000l. in one cargo; but theſe trades are now ſomewhat fallen off, as the country people have of late run more into the linen manufactures. They have a very extraordinary ſalmon fiſhing, both on the rivers DEE and DON; they have likewiſe a company for the Greenland whale-fiſhing, and within theſe ten years have had a tobacco-trade from America, with 10 to 12 ſail of ſhips.

The exports from Aberdeen, before the Union, were ſalt, ſalmon to France, dried cod and ling, both to France and up the Mediterranean; narrow and broad ſingrims and ſerges, to Holland, and ſome ſtockings to Hamburg and Holland. Our imports from thence were wine and brandy from France, bay-ſalt, ſoap, ſtarch, and barrel-ſtaves, from Dantzic, and ſome flax from the laſt place and Holland.

Soon after the Union, a company here opened a trade to Virginia; but unfortunately two ſhips being loſt at that time, put an end to the attempt.

The moſt material branch, and of longeſt ſtanding here, is the manufactory of knit ſtockings, which was only begun for the Holland market, about the Revolution; they have here riſen to ſuch an extent, that, for ſome years within theſe twelve preceding, there have been ſhipped for Holland and London from 60 to 80,000l. ſterling value.

The wool, little of which is the product of this country, is brought raw from Newcaſtle and London; this was for many years retaled by the importers to the country people, who bought it in ſmall parcels, as they could afford to buy: it was combed, ſpun, and knit into ſtockings by the women and children, and, when waſhed out, ſold either in town, or in the country markets, to merchants exporters: then inſufficiency, and cheating of every degree, was frequent, and they were truly not worth the money they gave here to the laſt wearer: this, as in the like caſes, brought a damp on their ſale at every market, and they have not as yet recovered credit at London, where the ſtockings of the like kind, from Guernſey and Jerſy, outdo ours.

Some merchants about ten or twelve years ago, ſucceſſively undertook a reform of that abuſe; ſince which they have introduced the trade of wool-combing, ſo that now, I believe, we have more wool-combers than in all the reſt of Scotland: the merchant imports the wool, combs it in his own ware-houſe, and gives it out to the people, who ſpin the yarn and knit the ſtockings, into any form or ſize they are directed. I have known ſundry times ſtockings ſhipped for Campveer in one bottom, to the value of 2000l. ſterling.

About ten or twelve years ago ſome merchants here introduced a trade to Virginia, and they have kept ſtores both there and in Maryland; we have four companies trading in the importation of tobacco from different parts in North America, which trade was pretty briſk until the late act of parliament has brought even the fair trader under ſundry diſcouragements; and at preſent the imports are conſiderably leſſened, though I ſtill hope the trade will not be wholly loſt here.

Since the peace of Aix la Chapelle, our merchants have much turned their thoughts on the linen manufacture; this was occaſioned by the conſumption they had for both coarſe and better ſorts of linen in North America. We had ſome years ago ſet up a manufacture of coarſe unbleached linen, known by the name of Oſnaburghs, which cloth was greatly encouraged by the bounty given on exportation; and we were aſſured from all parts, that ours were the beſt made in Scotland. When the parliament laſt year took off the bounty, that manufacture was converted into one of ſail-cloth, which remains entitled to the bounty, but they continue ſtill to make ſome Oſnaburgh cloths. Beſides the above, there are three other manufactures of bleached linen, each of which has from thirty to forty looms, conſtantly employed in the manufacture of cloth, of the value of 1s. 6d. to 7s. per yard; and about two years ago, an iſland upon the river Don, about half a mile above the bridge, was made into a bleach-field of about five acres. The iſland is pleaſantly ſituated, well watered and ſheltered, and for the two laſt ſummers has produced as fine and as beautifully bleached cloth as any in Europe. But our undertakers in the linen way ſay the market is dead at preſent, and large ſtocks on hand unſold. One of thoſe linen companies have got about eight or ten ſtocking-frames, for the weaving of cotton and linen ſtockings, caps, &c. and have alſo lately erected an incle-frame, which at once yields 40 pice.

There is beſides another company, who have erected about twelve or twenty frames for weaving cotton ſtockings, caps, &c. beſides, all our linen companies make checques, napkins of cotton and linen, and tartans. Laſt year two merchants only here have introduced, and very ſucceſsfully carried on, the manufacture of white and coloured threads for ſewing, to ſome conſiderable value.

The two rivers of Dee and Don, which abound in ſalmon, may afford annually at an average one hundred laſts of ſalt-fiſh, which are thoſe caught after the 15th of May, and are

moſtly ſold for the French, and ſome for the Flanders market, where they have the reputation to be the beſt fiſh, and beſt cured of any in the world. From the beginning of the fiſhery-ſeaſon, which is the middle or end of January, to the 15th of May, the ſalmon caught are either ſent raw or pickled for the London market, and this may be yearly to the value of about 3000 l. ſterling.

We have here pork which is ſalted and cured both for London and ſometimes for Holland; it is eſteemed for the fat and the lean being better mixed and ſweeter than the pork of England; and there is exported and ſhipped coaſt-ways about fifteen or twenty laſts yearly.

The chief product of this part of Scotland is oats and oatmeal, the ſtaple articles that bring here the freeſt return of money, in the time of good crops. The two counties of Aberdeen and Bamff have, beſides a competent proviſion for home ſervice, often afforded from 50 to 70,000 bolls of oatmeal, which are ſold in the Firth of Forth, and Tay on the eaſt-coaſt of the Firth of Clyde, and in the Highlands on the weſt, and very often in Ireland, to which laſt place we have about five or ſix weeks ago begun to export.

For ſome years paſt there has been a demand from London, which I am told is afterwards carried down and uſed at Mancheſter, for linen yarn; it is a very coarſe kind, bought here at from 18 d. to 2 s. per ſpindle; but as it is made of flax bought by the country people, they often cheat both in the tale and in the length of reel, and it has for twelve months paſt been on the decline. I am told, that few years ago from 12 to 20,000 l. ſterling value has been ſent to London; but unleſs ſome method be taken like that lately with the ſtockings, this branch will be loſt. It would be to the benefit of the country, if it could be got wove here, and a reaſonable profit on the linen.

There are 35 ſhips belonging to this port, including our two whale-ſhips; and they conſiſt of about 4500 tons, and are chiefly employed in the North American trade, and in that to London, Holland, and two annual ſhips to Dantzic, as many to Riga, ſome to Norway, and one annual ſhip to Antigua, and to France with ſalmon.

The greateſt part of our fewel is coals imported from Newcaſtle to the Firth of Forth. They are chiefly brought us by ſmall ſhips of about 200 tons, belonging to the ſea-ports in Fife; we take alſo about 30 or 40 cargoes of lime, and above 20 cargoes of Scots-made ſalt; ſo that about 30 or 40 Firth barks have their whole bread in thoſe employs, which ſerve to take off our ready money, though in ſmall parcels.

The country people live chiefly on oatmeal, greens, and milk. The knitters of ſtockings and ſpinners of linen yarn, are only the women and children: they are not able to gain above 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per diem at the firſt, nor exceed 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ ſterling per diem at laſt, when linen yarn bears any tolerable price at London.

They have here, perhaps, the moſt plentiful and beſt-ſerved fiſh-market in the world; there are above 60 fiſhing-boats within 16 miles of this town on both ſides. The whole of the fiſh caught by 30 boats come duly to our market; at leaſt, the half of the fiſh caught by the other 30 are ſold here, ſo that after a ſtorm, when fiſh are ſcarce, our other proviſions become ſenſibly dearer.

Bamff, Murray, Ross, and Caithness Shires, are very good corn countries, and generally export barley, bigg, oats and oatmeal; all ſorts of vivers in theſe northern counties are extraordinary cheap, and wages very low.

Although the woollen manufacture is not the ſtaple of this country, yet it is far from being inconſiderable. There is an opulent company eſtabliſhed at Haddington, where they make all ſorts of ſuperfine and coarſe broad and narrow cloths, alſo bays, ſhalloons, long ells, carpets, and worſted pluſhes. Before the union of the two kingdoms, there was a very conſiderable undertaking of this ſort at New Mills near Haddington, which had large privileges by act of parliament, but upon the Union that company diſſolved; yet the working people, who had been employed therein, continued to make cloths and other woollen manufactures. At this place is a weekly market, where large quantities of raw cloths are purchaſed from the country people, which are milled, dyed, and preſſed by the cloth-dreſſers here.

At Dalkeith in Mid Lothian, is a conſiderable manufacture of bed-coverlids, which ſupplies moſt of the country with that commodity. At Musselburgh are alſo made ſome broad cloths, but the principal manufacture here is a ſort of narrow ſtuffs of various colours, which are allowed to be the cheapeſt manufacture in Europe, being ſold by the weaver at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per yard. Of theſe, large quantities are exported to Holland; they alſo make a ſort of white ſtuffs yard wide, that is much uſed in the country for bed-curtains, &c.

At Edinburgh, ſhalloons and tartans, or plaids, are reckoned the beſt in Britain; but the largeſt quantities are made at and in the countries about Stirling, where many hundred looms are employed in the manufacture of ſerges, ſhalloons, and tartans; the two former are exported to Holland, and the latter to England, America, and the Weſt-Indies.

At Alloa, four miles from Stirling, down the Firth, are made camblets, blankets, and long ells. At Kilmarnock, and in the adjacent country, they make cloth ſerges, which are exported to Holland and Hamburgh; from thence they are ſent into Germany, and there milled and dyed for ſoldiers clothing: alſo in this place are made carpets, coarſe floor cloths, and cloths made in imitation of thoſe at Kendal.

This country abounds greatly in mines and minerals, though hitherto but little regarded. Some old and late works are thoſe of Leadhills, alias Hopetoun, belonging to the right honourable the earl of Hopetoun, lying in the ſhire of Clydesdale; theſe are moſt remarkable for all kinds of lead ore; the green, yellow, grey, and black, are found here, as well as the blue and white; the two latter are got in great quantities, and in all their variety; the ſoft broad grained ore is got moſt frequently, and in greater quantities than the hard ſhort ground ſteel ore. Of this broad ground blue ore, pieces are got from the mine like a mirror, as if poliſhed by art. Of late, the white ore has been got in great plenty. There are ſome pieces almoſt tranſparent, ſhot out in the form of cryſtals of all figures, from every part of the cavity, adhering to the ſides of it, as branches to a root; of which ſome are ſhort and ſolid, joined by pairs to one ſurface, croſſing one another like two perpendicular plains, and at right angles; others are long, ſometimes joining both ſides of the cavity, cloſely united one to another, and hollow like tubes. The fine ſoft blue ore is often cruſted with theſe cryſtals, as if deſigned by nature to beautify the maſs, which in its native ſtate is very brilliant in the mine, attracting with admiration the eyes of the curious.

There has been and is ſtill found, gold in theſe parts, of which formerly, broad pieces, Jacobuſes and Caroluſes, have been coined. It is ſometimes found upon the ſurface amongſt a particular kind of earth like red and yellow paint, by the gatherers called oker and brimſtone; which earth does not extend to a great breadth, but it has its courſe in length, regular as the lead veins. They gather it generally in the hollow places near the ſides of the rivulets, to which places it is waſhed down by the rains from its proper bed. Within theſe few years a piece was found on the ſide of Glengonner water about nine drop weight, which was brought to the earl of Hopetoun.

It was ſearching for gold, when they firſt diſcovered the lead mines, which were in the high grounds there about 380 years ago; but in the lower grounds only about the year 1534. Sir James Hopetoun, the preſent earl's great grandfather, got poſſeſſion of theſe grounds by his lady Anne Foules, of the family of Collingtoun, in the year 1641. Since which time they have produced great quantities of lead; ſome years 1500 tons of lead, and 600 tons of potters ore*.

* This is a bright flakey ore, in large lumps, uſed for glazing earthen ware. Great quantities are ſent to Delft in Holland.

At Wanlockhead, belonging to the duke of Queenſberry, about a mile from lord Hopetoun's works are very good workings in lead-mines, which were diſcovered at the time of thoſe at Lead-hills, but their ore is generally of the blue hard ſteely kind, and contains about 14 ounces of ſilver in a ton of lead, which is refined and extracted out of it; they have alſo of the ſoft flakey blue ore, and the works have been ſo rich this laſt year, as to produce about 30,000 bars of lead, each bar containing 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ Ct. which makes 1875 tons.

Anno 1600, at Tartriven, 12 miles weſt of this city, was a fine ſilver-mine wrought, the bottoms of which were cleared out anno 1730. The York-Buildings company expected the work to continue, but were diſappointed.

Anno 1715, Sir John Erſkine, of Alva near Stirling, found a neſt of ſilver at Alva, which he wrought out that ſame year to the amount of 15,000 l. ſince which no more has been diſcovered; but in the ſame range of hills, called the Echals, there have been ſeveral old and late workings in copper-mines, which contain a quantity of ſilver, particularly at Aithry, Blair, Logy, and Tillycoultrie; the appearances are very good and encouraging in ſeveral places.

At Strontian, in Argyleſhire, are very conſiderable lead-mines, diſcovered by Sir Alexander Murry, anno 1727, wrought for account of the duke of Norfolk, and ſundry other partners; theſe were afterwards lett to the York-Buildings company, and ſince to others; I have known 1500 hands employed in theſe works at one time.

At Tyndrum, upon the earl of Broadalbin's eſtate, anno 1740, lead-mines were diſcovered and wrought by Sir Robert Clifton, now leaſed to the Mine Adventurers company, and produce large quantities of ore. There are ſeveral other lead-works in different parts of the country, and appearances with-

out number; but in this country, few are willing or able to venture upon ſuch precarious buſineſs; and indeed, it is moſt proper for ſocieties.

There is lately a mine of wadd or black-lead diſcovered upon M'Donald of Glengary's eſtate in Inverneſsſhire, leaſed and wrought by Capt. Thyne; alſo in the ſame ſhire, about 20 years ago, a fine copper-mine was diſcovered and wrought by Mr Champion of Briſtol, upon the eſtate of M'Donald of Applecroſs, oppoſite to the iſland of Sky, but being troubled with water, it was neceſſary to bring up a level, which was too expenſive for him to undertake.

There are ſeveral other good copper-mines in that neighbourhood and in the iſlands, which ought to be tried.

This country is happily interſected with many firths and lochs, or long inlets of the ſea, which is a great conveniency to trade; the Firth of Forth from St Abb's-head to Stirling about 60 miles, and from the Forth of Glaſgow on the Weſt Sea, is only 18 miles over land; from thence to Fairland-point in Wigtounſhire, being the Firth of Clyde, is 90 miles; the Murry Firth from Kinnaird's-head to Inverneſs, is about 70 miles. This town has a good trade with the Highlands, and a chamber for the herring-fiſhery from Inverneſs to FORT WILLIAM, which from Eaſt to Weſt Sea, is 48 miles, all a valley, fine-made roads, great lochs or lakes in the middle, and bounded with mountains on each ſide; from Inverneſs to the eaſt-end of Lochneſs, is four miles. The loch is 20 miles long, at the upper end is FORT AUGUSTUS. They have a veſſel to carry ſtores and proviſions; the river of Neſs is well ſtored with ſalmon; from FORT-AUGUSTUS to LOCH OICH is 2 miles and a half, the loch 5 miles, one mile to LOCH LOCHY, which is ten miles long, from thence to Fort William five miles and a half; from Fort William is an inlet of the ſea to Caſtle Deuart in the Iſland of Mull, 36 miles.

Upon the MURRAY FIRTH, oppoſite to the town of Fortroſe, about ſix miles from Inverneſs, is a large new fort now building at AIRDERSIER, well fortified; the barracks will be ſufficient to hold 1500 men, and there is free acceſs to the ſea. This comes in place of FORT GEORGE at INVERNESS, now demoliſhed, as is alſo an old fort on the other ſide of the town, built by Oliver Cromwell. FORT AUGUSTUS and FORT WILLIAM, make a chain from the Eaſt to the Weſt Sea as above mentioned, and divide the Highlands, which might not only prevent a junction upon any inſurrection or invaſion, but may alſo be a means to aſſiſt the civilizing and introducing manufactures and induſtry amongſt the Highlanders, which will certainly prove the beſt and moſt effectual way of maintaining peace and improving the country. To all theſe forts there are fine ſpacious roads made, fit for any wheel-carriages from the ſouth and low countries.

The wiſdom of the legiſlature cannot be ſufficiently admired for annexing the Highland forfeited eſtates to the crown, particularly lord Cromarty's in Roſsſhire, lord Lovat's in Inverneſsſhire, Cameron of Lochiel's in Argyleſhire, and the duke of Perth's in Perthſhire, and in appropriating the revenues thereof, for the improvement of the country in the manufactures, &c. and farther for the ſame purpoſe, by an act of the laſt parliament, 3000 l. per ann. payable out of the cuſtoms, is granted and put under the management of the commiſſioners and truſtees for improving fiſheries and manufactures in Scotland; and they have already made a beginning, and publiſhed a plan for diſtributing the ſaid ſum for the firſt year, viz. for introducing the linen manufactures at four different ſtations and ſettlements, in certain parts of the Highlands, in the ſhires of INVERNESS and ROSS (where it hath not hitherto been introduced) and applied a ſum not exceeding 630 l. each ſtation, conformably to the plan; which is for building proper houſes, purchaſing lint-ſeed, giving premiums to the raiſers and dreſſers of flax, and for wheels, reels, heckles, and all ſorts of utenſils, for maſters and miſtreſſes to breed up others, 2520 l.—For ſupporting and encouraging the manufacture in thoſe places where it hath been already introduced, but hath not yet arrived to any conſiderable degree of perfection, 300 l.—For ſalaries to one or more inſpectors, not to exceed 100 l. and for defraying incidental expences attending the execution of this plan, 80 l.—It is hoped that theſe wiſe and uſeful meaſures will have the deſired effect.

The moſt conſiderable fir-woods in this country are in STRATH or the valley SPEE, chiefly belonging to Sir Lodovick Grant, Mr Grant of Rothiemurchas, and the duke of Gordon. Sir James Grant, Sir Lodovick's father, ſold ſixty thouſand well-grown trees to the York-Buildings company, the boughs and tops of which they burnt into charcoal, having erected a furnace and forges for making of iron, and having bog and rock-ore in the country. Alſo they got pig-iron from Mr Rawlinſon's furnaces at M'Donald's of Glengary, lying between Fort William and Fort Auguſtus; to which place fine ores were brought from Lancaſhire, mixed with Scotch ores, and there ſmelted.

The trees were partly cut into deals, and partly carried whole down the river Spey to London, for maſts, yards, and bow-ſprits for ſhips. But the company's affairs at London going wrong, made them give up theſe undertakings, however promiſing they were. Formerly there were alſo iron-furnaces and forges at Achnacarry on Loch-Lochy, ten miles from Fort William, and in other places of the Highlands.

At preſent there are new iron works erecting at Bonawe in Argyleſhire, to which place great quantities of timber are brought down from Glenorchy to Loch Awe, and then by the water or river Awe, in which are plenty of ſalmon. Alſo from Logh Etive to Bonawe.

Upon Lochiel's eſtate are fine woods, which may eaſily be brought to FORT WILLIAM—Alſo upon Loch Neſs, particularly on lord Lovat's eſtate, which might be brought to Inverneſs. Upon Chiſholm's eſtate are likewiſe very fine woods on the river Beauly, but ſo difficult to be brought to the river, which has ſeveral falls, that it makes the wood of little value. In like manner lord Braees has very fine woods about the head of the river Dee, forty miles from Aberdeen; but ſomewhat the ſame difficulties attend them as do the laſt mentioned. It is much to be regretted, that ſuch fine timber, fit for ſhips maſts, ſhould be cut down into boards, or left rotting on the ground; I can't think, but by ſome contrivance they might be brought to water-carriage.

All round about the weſtern iſlands, and oppoſite upon the main, are plenty enough of herrings, cod, ling, and ſalmon, &c. to enrich a nation. We have ſometimes a hundred ſail of ſhips there in a ſeaſon, and all of them get their loadings; and many more ſhips might be loaded, if the fiſhery was upon a right eſtabliſhment; but at preſent it is attended with ſo much charge, and is ſo precarious, that many adventurers ſuffer greatly by it, and it is in a great meaſure given up; for the chief herring-ſeaſon is in the winter time. Ships come thither from the eaſt and weſt country loaded with ſalt and barrels, and proviſions for three or four months voyage, beſides ſtores of tobacco, ſpirits, oatmeal, and bread for the Highland fiſhermen; for they carry no nets of their own, but engage the Highland boats to fiſh for them, giving theſe Highlanders proviſions fiſh or no fiſh, and then giving ſo much more for the barrel of freſh herrings, according to their ſucceſs and demands.

The proprietor of the eſtates where ſuch fiſhings are, exacts one night's fiſhing, the beſt in the week, for himſelf; alſo a tax for the liberty of packing them upon the ſhore. If a veſſel gets a cargo, when many of them are together, it will come pretty dear, by the quantity of proviſions given to the fiſhermen, and the high price for the freſh herring, every one ſtriving to have his cargo firſt, by reaſon of the bad weather at that time of year. It ſhould not be forgot alſo, that it is ſomewhat precarious, for though the herrings come annually pretty regular, yet it is uncertain into what loch they will come, and how long they will remain.

Suppoſe a number of ſhips goes to Loch Boque on the weſt ſide of the Lewis, and after ſtaying ſome time, they hear that herrings are plenty in Loch Broom upon the main; if the wind is weſterly, which is often the caſe, they may not get about the iſland for a long time, and when they arrive at Loch Broom, the herrings may have ſhifted to Loch Seafort or Stornway, on the eaſt ſide of the Lewis, and thereby the fiſhers be altogether diſappointed. Then it comes to be a heavy loſs upon the adventurers; the dead freight of the ſhip which from this Firth is generally 40 s. per laſt, being ſunk, ſtores exhauſted, ſalt waſted, barrels ſpoiled, &c.

Wherefore, in my humble judgment, ſtorehouſes ſhould be erected in ſundry places, ſalt, barrels, and other neceſſaries lodged there, and ſhips not to come till their loadings are ready.

I ſhall communicate ſome farther thoughts about improving of this article, amongſt other remarks ſubjoined to this letter, and beg reference thereto.—But I muſt here previouſly obſerve, that the conſequence of ſuch ſettlements would be the making of ſo many towns, cultivating more ground, growing of corn, and planting of potatoes, &c. Alſo the fiſhermen would always be at hand, and prompted to follow after the ſucceeding fiſheries of cod and ling. In many of theſe weſtern iſlands, they have great quantities of fern, which is found to contain the beſt and moſt ſalts of any vegetable; they burn the fern to aſhes, and either uſe them in place of ſoap, or make a pot-aſh and ſoap of them. Theſe ſhores likewiſe abound with ſea-weeds, which are burnt into kelp, fit for bottle glaſs-houſes, and great quantities thereof are brought to Newcaſtle.

Some of theſe iſlands are very fruitful in corn, barley, or bigg, and oats, particularly the iſland of Tyric, which is level; it belongs to the duke of Argyle, and the ſouth end of the ſouth-weſt belonging to M'Donald of Clandronald, abounds moſtly with limeſtone and marle; alſo they here uſe the ſea-weed for manure.

They often delve their ground with garden-ſpades, and ſow their corn by drilling, by which means it produces ſixty fold. Theſe iſlands and the Highlands in general, abound with black cattle, which are drove down to fairs and markets in the low countries, particularly to Crief and Falkirk; at the former of which places, I have ſeen twenty thouſand head of cattle, and ſold from 30 to 40 s. per head; moſt of them are drove from thence to England, where they are fattened and brought to London, which is alſo a great trade from the ſhire of GALLOWAY.

ORKNEY

ORKNEY and SHETLAND iſlands are the moſt northerly parts of his Majeſty's dominions in Scotland; the former of theſe helps to feed the latter, Orkney being plentiful in corn and all ſorts of vivers; they are very populous, moſt of the inhabitants are fiſhermen, or at leaſt they underſtand to handle the oar; oatmeal is from 7 to 8 s. per boll, or 1 s. 4 d. Engliſh; bigg 5 to 6 s. per boll, or ſix Wincheſter buſhels; beef and mutton ¾ to 1 d. per pound; geeſe 4 d. to 6 d. fowls 2 d. to 3 d. eggs 1 d. per dozen, or 14; eating butter 2d. ½ per pound, greaſe butter 30 to 40 s. per barrel. Wages for women ſervants, 5 s. 6 s. 8 d. to 8 s. 4 d. per ann. men ſervants, 12 to 15 s. per ann. wages for head ſervants about 4 d. per diem, and maintenance. Their fiſhing here is not conſiderable, on account of the rapidity of the tides; in Pentland Firth, the tide running nine miles an hour, yet they have plenty of fiſh for their own conſumption, and ſome for exportation; however, they are ſo expert at the buſineſs, that they go generally to the iſland of Bara, the ſouthernmoſt of the long weſtern iſlands, to the cod and ling-fiſhing, and are annually employed by all the Britiſh cod-fiſhers to Iceland.

The Hudſon's-Bay ſhips call there every year, and carry ſome of them to remain at their ſettlements in Hudſon's-Bay for ſeveral years, and afterwards bring them home and exchange them for others. This year about 300 of them are employed on board the herring-buſſes belonging to the London ſociety; I think they may alſo be made very ſubſervient and uſeful to our Greenland whale-fiſhing.—They have ſome linen and woollen manufactures, particularly thoſe of coarſe ſtockings.—Capt. M'Kenſie has made a very exact ſurvey of the Orkney and Lewis iſlands, with deſcriptions of them, alſo of the ſoundings and tides, publiſhed in folio; he is now employed by the lords of the admiralty to go on with the ſurvey of all the weſtern iſlands and coaſts, which, when publiſhed, will be of very great uſe.

ZETLAND, or SHETLAND, grows but little corn; yet the country is populous, and is ſupplied with oatmeal from the Orkneys and other parts; they are much employed in fiſhing for herrings, cod, ling, and tuſque. This laſt-mentioned is a thick, fat, and delicious fiſh, ſomewhat like a ſmall cod, not found any where elſe in Britain; they have a conſiderable trade to Hamburgh with their fiſh and coarſe ſtockings, from whence they bring many neceſſaries as well as ſuperfluities of life.

BRASSA SOUND, famous for the rendezvous of the Dutch herring-buſſes; formerly eighteen hundred ſail have been here from Holland in one ſeaſon. The Dutch buy of them coarſe ſtockings and mittens.—Whales come frequently aſhore on ſome of theſe iſlands, which proves a good perquiſite to the admiral. Alſo there are too often ſhipwrecks of Dutch, Daniſh, and Swediſh Indiamen, and large Norwegian ſhips bound for the Iriſh channel.—They have fine beef and mutton in this country, and live very comfortably, but their fiſheries might be much improved.

REMARKS.

The laſt parliament, continues my correſpondent, were inferior to few in regard to the wiſe meaſures taken by them for the encouragement of trade and manufactures, as well as for ſeveral uſeful laws, tending particularly to the improvement of this part of the united kingdom. Many of the ſame perſons being ſtill in the adminiſtration, and the new parliament having an addition of many true patriots, gives us the pleaſing hope and proſpect of a continuation of ſuch a ſyſtem of policy, as will effectually preſerve and promote the commerce, and the public credit of theſe kingdoms.

Amongſt theſe, the fiſheries are not the leaſt. We have ſeen the happy effects of the bounty for the whale-fiſhing; though it was granted only for ſeven years, yet the trade has increaſed ſo much, that we have had this year eighty-nine large ſtout Britiſh ſhips in Greenland, which have been, in the general, pretty ſucceſsful; the nett produce of which fiſhery is near all gain to the nation, beſides the multiplying our fiſhers and ſailors. But as extraordinary charges attend every new trade at its commencement, and in this caſe in particular, from the neceſſity of erecting of boiling-houſes and warehouſes, and bringing from the iſland of Foern on the coaſt of Jutland, commanders, ſpectioneers, and harponeers, &c. both to execute our buſineſs and inſtruct our people: theſe things are very expenſive to the firſt undertakers. We are obliged to give thoſe chief officers high wages and premiums, and are at the charge alſo of ſending them home again annually.

On theſe conſiderations, it is judged abſolutely neceſſary to have a prolongation of the BOUNTY for ſeven years farther, which was laſt winter approved of by a late able miniſter, but put off 'till this winter on account of a new parliament. As this and all bounties are given amongſt ourſelves, they can be of no loſs to the nation; and therefore it is to be hoped, a meaſure ſo expedient will meet with no obſtruction. Beſides, in this caſe, the revenue is firſt increaſed by all the duties on the articles uſed by this trade, viz. on iron, hemp, flax, oak plank, pitch and tar, &c. for building of ſhips; alſo the duties and exciſes on ſpirits, liquors, and ſalt, &c. conſumed in theſe voyages, make us fit out and navigate, at a greater charge than our neighbours and rivals. Wherefore the bounty is but returning only a part of thoſe duties, and putting us on a footing with our neighbours. And after the ceſſation of this bounty, it is reaſonable enough to believe, that this trade may be able to ſtand upon its own legs, and conſequently will greatly tend to increaſe the revenue, as well as greatly benefit the whole kingdom. It is to be hoped likewiſe, that by the time of expiration, we ſhall have no occaſion for theſe Jutlanders, who make good advantage in ſerving us at preſent, as well as the Hollanders, Hamburghers, Bremeners, with the chief officers in the whale-fiſhery. But as every ſaving is neceſſary to be made upon an infant trade, wherein we are rivalled too, it is humbly propoſed, That As the iſlands of Orcades lying in the latitude 58 and 59, and directly in the way to Iceland and Greenland, are a very plentiful country for all ſorts of proviſions, and well peopled, more eſpecially with fiſhermen; ſo the fleet of 25 to 30 ſail of veſſels from BROAD STAIRS, RAMSGATE, or MARGATE, for the annual Iceland cod-fiſhing, ſhould proceed from thoſe parts to the Orkneys, with no more hands than are neceſſary to navigate the veſſels thither; where they ſhould take on board all the additional hands wanted for the fiſhing, and ſet them down again in about a month or ſix weeks upon their return from the fiſhing; by which means there will be a conſiderable ſaving in the articles of wages and proviſions.—In like manner our Greenland-ſhips might ſail from all the different ports in Britain, at firſt with their officers and as many hands only as are neceſſary to navigate the ſhips to the Orkneys, and there take in the additional hands for boat-ſteerers, &c. wanted for that fiſhery; theſe hands may be made boat-ſteerers the firſt year, and learn in a few voyages to become dexterous harponeers and ſpectioneers, &c.: theſe additional hands likewiſe may be ſet down again upon their return from the fiſhing. This would not only prove a great ſaving in wages and proviſions in thoſe fiſheries, but alſo be a certain reſource for theſe officers and hands, that are ſo neceſſary for the buſineſs; whereas, at preſent, we are at an extraordinary charge for our dependance upon the Jutlanders before mentioned; and though many of our people are taught to be chief officers, as harponeers, &c. yet it frequently happens, that the neceſſary Jutlanders are otherwiſe engaged in voyages abroad, or out of the way when wanted; ſo that the Orkneys may, in this reſpect, ſupply the place of Jutland: for which purpoſe, ſome new regulations in the law for obtaining licences, in order to give title to the bounty, would be neceſſary.

We before obſerved, that there are in Scotland 16 large ſhips employed in the Greenland trade, which, in proportion to the number of merchants and their ſtock, is more than in England: but as the articles of our cuſtoms, out of which, as we have ſaid, theſe bounties are payable, viz. out of the OLD SUBSIDY, PETTY CUSTOMS, ADDITIONAL DUTY, ONE PER CENT. INWARDS, and COMPOSITION in PETTY SEIZURES, have proved inſufficient to anſwer the intention of parliament; there are already conſiderable arrears due to the Greenland ſhips and herring-buſſes, contrary to the deſign of the legiſlature. Upon this account, the herring-fiſhing chamber of Edinburgh has already given up; and I am afraid, unleſs ſome remedy is found, the other chambers and whale-fiſhing adventurers in Scotland, will be obliged to follow their example; for it is not enough that the government owes them ſo much money, theſe trades cannot be carried on in Scotland without punctual payment of the bounties; and what a pity would it be, that ſuch a national and beneficial trade ſhould be ſo ſhort lived! But we have all reaſon to hope, that the parliament, when applied to, will give ſpeedy and effectual relief; and that they will not ſtarve, but nurſe and cheriſh, theſe infant undertakings.

Having mentioned the herring buſs-fiſhing, which in Holland is called the great fiſhery, it requires and deſerves ſome conſideration. I am glad that ſo many gentlemen of worth and conſideration are concerned in the fiſhing ſociety at London, who may overcome any difficulties that may occur in ſuch a delicate branch of trade, wherein we have many rivals.

In order to anſwer this great end the more ſpeedily and ſubſtantially, we are humbly of opinion, that the act of parliament needs ſeveral amendments. The chief intention of the legiſlature, was certainly to make this branch of trade general, and to ſpread itſelf throughout the kingdom: but the 3 per cent. bounty upon the amount of money employed that way, being reſtrained to the ſociety at London, and the chambers at the out-ports, prevents this trade becoming general, becauſe no private adventurers in buſſes are entitled to it.

Moreover, the out-port chambers complain of trouble and expences in being obliged firſt to remit their money to London, which is deſigned to be employed in this trade, paying it into the bank and drawing it out again, without any manner of uſe. Another great inconveniency is, that they are obliged to ſend all their vouchers to the ſociety at London, in order to receive the ſaid 3 per cent. through their hands.

Now it is humbly ſubmitted, that if the parliament ſhould think fit, in lieu of the ſaid 3 per cent. which correſponds to about 10 s. per ton, and in lieu of 30 s. per ton already ſtipulated to be paid, to grant 40 s. per ton for the whole bounty to every buſs, that ſhall be fitted out with nets, and

all

all neceſſaries for the herring-fiſhing, the buſſes being ſurveyed and certified by the officers of the cuſtoms, in the ſame manner as the whale-ſhips are ſurveyed, &c. it would anſwer much better; and, indeed, when the great charge of nets is conſidered, the herring deſerves rather a larger bounty than the whale-fiſhing.

It may be worth obſerving, that it has been found by experience the herrings are often ſeen about the Lewis and weſtern iſlands, in the months of May and June, as well as in the autumn and winter months: wherefore, it might be permitted for buſſes to fiſh in theſe places in all ſeaſons; they will always go where they expect the beſt ſucceſs: it may be ſufficient for them to be properly fitted out, and to be employed in the fiſhing, at leaſt four months in the year, to entitle them to the bounty. This article of early herring and buſs-fiſhing comes to be very dear, on account of the great charge of nets, and the fiſh are chiefly conſumed in the Netherlands and Germany: the Dutch themſelves for that reaſon are much fallen off from this early fiſhery. The Baltic conſumption is chiefly ſupplied from Norway, where they have large quantities of herrings cured and packed, at about 6 or 7 s. per barrel: they are afforded ſo cheap, by reaſon of their being caught within lands and inlets of the ſea, by a number of ſmall boats and nets at an eaſy charge, and the people being always at home. They have of late years a contrivance, which may deſerve the attention of our people, by which they catch great quantities in a ſhort time. The method is this: when the herrings come into ſome of their deep bays, they draw a parcel of large nets joined together like a fleet of buſs-nets, acroſs the mouth of the ſaid bays, which is called an incloſing net, by which means the herrings are incloſed and hemmed in; then the ſmall boats with their nets fall to work, and do great execution.

We have before obſerved, what advantages may be derived to Scotland from the many lochs or inlets of the ſea, in the weſtern iſlands and the Highlands, which run up from 10 to 30 miles within land, and often not above one mile broad; particularly the Firth of Cromarty, Lochs Rogue, Seafort, and Stornaway in the Lewis, and Lochs Aſſynt, Broom, and Torndon, oppoſite on the main, and ſundry others; into ſeveral of which lochs, herrings do annually come in great plenty. Since this is the caſe, we might encloſe and hem them in, by a fleet of buſs-nets drawn acroſs the loch, as is done in the Baltic; and notice being given to all the boats round about, they would come with their ſmall nets, and fiſh what quantities they pleaſed.

If this ſhould be found practicable, it would be requiſite to have proper places, the moſt centrical for this fiſhing, ſtorehouſes with ſalt and barrels, and all ſorts of neceſſaries, where coopers, twine-ſpinners, and net-breaders, &c. may have employment the whole year; and when the herring ſeaſons are over, the fiſhers may be employed in the cod and ling-fiſhery, of which there are great plenty and very good in theſe parts; there are likewiſe many rivers ſtored with fine ſalmon much neglected; theſe fiſheries, when improved to the extent they are capable of, would greatly contribute to increaſe the wealth of the united kingdom, and prove an additional nurſery for ſeamen: but theſe things are more proper for ſome ſociety, public or private, the adventure and trouble being too much for private people.

When herrings are caught in theſe parts and properly cured for exportation, either to the Weſt-Indies or other places, the beſt opportunities of ſhipping are from London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c. yet there are difficulties in bringing them coaſtwiſe, by reaſon of the debenture upon exportation: this ought to be regulated, as a further inducement for private perſons or ſocieties to engage herein. See the article DEBENTURE.

They are much embarraſſed alſo in Scotland in relation to the article of foreign ſalt, imported for the cure of fiſh [ſee our article SALT], which requires ſome amendment in the law. Though a quantity of ſalt ſhould, at preſent, lie a number of years, in which time it will waſte conſiderably, yet no allowance is made to the trader for ſuch waſte. For when weighed out again, the cuſtom houſe claims a penalty of 10 s. per buſhel duty for every deficient buſhel. If at importation it is entered for the cure of fiſh, and there is no opportunity for uſing it that way, which has been the caſe in this Firth for ſeveral years, as ſalt is generally brought hither by our retour ſhips from the ſtraights; yet that ſalt is not allowed to be exported, but muſt lie as a dead ſtock, and waſte away, beſides being liable to the above-mentioned penalty; which is a difficulty on this trade, that ſeems neceſſary to be removed.

Alſo when any parcel of ſuch ſalt is carried from Edinburgh to the Highlands and weſtern iſlands for the cure of fiſh, there are ſome hardſhips that attend traders herein; for they give bond at 10 s. per buſhel, and the merchants or purchaſers grant alſo new bonds to the cuſtom-houſe in theſe parts where it is lodged and to be uſed; yet the firſt importer is ſtill held bound to cancel theſe bonds, though it ſhould be many years after, until the ſaid ſalt ſhall be conſumed: ſome remedy would be neceſſary for this article likewiſe.

We come now to the conſideration of the linen manufacture, which certainly is an object no way unworthy the moſt ſerious public regard and attention.

This ſtaple manufacture was firſt cheriſhed and raiſed in Scotland by the means of bounties; but by ſome unhappy miſtake, thinking it could ſtand upon its own legs, the bounty was this year withdrawn, which has given a ſudden check to its growth; nor will it be able to riſe again without ſome powerful aid. For I am informed by good authority, that above eight thouſand weavers are quite turned adrift, many of whom are ſent to our plantations, many become ſoldiers both in the Britiſh and Dutch ſervice, and ſome are gone into other employments of various kinds at home.

If this, upon due inquiſition, ſhould be found to be FACT, is not this undoing all that has been hitherto done? If this capital manufacture ſhould ever be revived again, it muſt be ſome conſiderable time firſt; a number of hands cannot be collected and bred to this manual art of a ſudden. See our articles ARTIFICERS and MANUFACTURERS.

Ireland, though more concerned in the linen manufacture than Scotland, does not ſuffer ſo much, becauſe of their high bounties at home. It is true, the government has granted 3000 l. per ann. in aid to civilize the Highlands, by promoting the growth of lint and eſtabliſhing the manufacture there; which moſt certainly in time will be of great uſe, but cannot be a preſent relief to this valuable and important article, and preſerve it from ruin.

It is ſuggeſted by ſome, as a redreſs for this grievance, to take off the drawback on the exportation of foreign linen; but we are afraid, this meaſure will not effectually anſwer the purpoſe, and may be attended with conſequences no leſs diſadvantageous than thoſe it is intended to prevent; for, if the drawback is taken off, only upon what linen is re-exported to our plantations, it is likely to prove a means of encouraging fraud and ſmuggling, by entering the ſame out for other places, and ſmuggling it into America. If the drawback is wholly taken off, theſe linens from other places may ſtill be ſmuggled to America.

Moreover, a meaſure of this kind may diſcourage our trade to Germany, by not taking ſome of their goods in exchange for ours. And may not our commerce to Spain, &c. be greatly prejudiced, for want of an acceptable aſſortment of cargoes? As other nations may obtain the proper aſſortments from France and Holland, if this ſhould prove the caſe; ſo the remedy leaſt injurious, ſhould ſeem to be the revival of the bounty upon Britiſh linen exported. And although the giving ſuch bounty ſhould be thought a preſent incumbrance, yet as it wholly centers and circulates among ourſelves, the nation cannot be the poorer, but muſt neceſſarily ſo proſper in its linen manufactures and the employment of the poor, as to make ample and permanent compenſation for this temporary national burthen.

Another article of great importance, which ſeems to be in a declining way at preſent, as well in Scotland as in England, is our tobacco trade, which hitherto has occaſioned a great demand and conſumption of our manufactures, and given employment to many ſhips; and the re-export thereof has brought money into the kingdom, and enabled us to pay the ballance due for other articles imported. But we are informed, that the late act of parliament, though well intended, to prevent many abuſes and frauds committed in this trade, is attended with ſo many real difficulties and diſcouragements to traders, that both officers and merchants are often at a loſs what to do: wherefore, ſeveral American merchants in Scotland have given up this trade, and others, it ſeems, are likely to follow their example. This has an evil aſpect. To remedy which, it would be happy if ſome method could be found, that would prevent fraud, without cramping or deſtroying the trade. 'Till ſomething better can be ſuggeſted, we would ſubmit to conſideration the example of lowering the duties on teas. This has had ſo happy a tendency, as to produce a far larger revenue to the crown than it did before, [ſee the article SMUGGLING] and to prevent ſmuggling in the like proportion. Let it be ſuppoſed that the duty on tobacco was, in like manner, reduced even to 2 d. per pound, is it not highly reaſonable to believe, that the ſame deſirable effect would follow therefrom, as hath done in regard to the duty on teas? and that the revenue would be thereby conſiderably increaſed, and ſmuggling proportionably ceaſe, which is now encouraged as well by the high duties at home, as the great drawback on exportation? Nor is encouragement to ſmuggling the only diſadvantageous conſequence of theſe high duties; it alſo gives foreigners the benefit of manufacturing our tobacco cheaper than we can do; and that tobacco which does not coſt them above 2 d. per pound, is ſent us again worth from 2 s. 6 d. to 5 s. per pound, ſuch as Straſburgh rappee, &c. whereas if the manufacturing of tobaccoes in all its ſhapes at home was encouraged, as well as the exportation of the ſame ſo manufactured, and either no drawback at all, or only half of the duty, allowed for the export of unmanufactured tobacco, we ſhould then not only have a great additional benefit from the trade, but the revenue augmented in proportion to the increaſe of the vent and conſumption.

This manufacture of tobacco in France alone, has enabled the farmers to pay for that branch, and ſalt, 40 millions of livres; which, in the time of Lewis the XIVth, was farmed

for no more than 8 or 10 millions; for which reaſon, perhaps, they will not be very ready to promote the growth of it, either in America or at home. I have been told another reaſon for our tobacco being brought ſo low is, that we plant too great a quantity, and that it would be better to burn a part of it, as the Dutch do their ſpices: wherefore, would it not prove more nationally beneficial to raiſe a ſmaller quantity of tobacco, and employ our ſpare ground and hands in raiſing hemp and flax, &c.?

The article of mines in Scotland ſeems to be greatly neglected, though ſeveral works have turned to no inconſiderable account; which may ſerve as a ſpecimen of what may reaſonably be further expected. This part of the united kingdom is mountainous, and has many promiſing appearances of veins of copper, lead, and, in ſome places, tin; and ſome of theſe contain ſuch a proportion of ſilver, as is worth the extraction. Yet hitherto ſtrangers have not ventured much into the Highlands, the reaſon of which, we may preſume, has been, that property was formerly not ſo ſecure there as could be wiſhed. The caſe at preſent is much altered for the better, ſince the plan formed by the laſt parliament for appropriating the forfeited eſtates in the Highlands to the public benefit, appears to be of ſuch national importance; and, ſince his Majeſty, in his late moſt gracious ſpeech, recommended it to the preſent parliament to make ſuch further proviſions as may be expedient for perpetuating the due execution of the laws in that part of the united kingdom *, we may expect that not only improvements in the Highlands will be made in the mineral kingdom, but in many other manufactures, and in the fiſheries. This will certainly give a new face, not only to the Highlands, but to every part of the kingdom of Scotland; it will convert, we hope, the ſpirit of rebellion into that of honeſt induſtry, and uſeful commerce, which will render the people proſperous and happy, inſtead of poor and turbulent, under his Majeſty's benign government.

* See his Majeſty's Speech, November 14, 1754.

As an inducement to cultivate the arts of mineralogy and metallurgy in Scotland in particular, where nature ſeems to have given ſo generous an invitation, we need only conſider what a beggarly country Sweden would be without their mines; nor has Ruſſia, of late years, leſs profited by them.

Upon the whole, Scotland, it is certain, has by nature many advantages for trade; a large territory; of eaſy defence; plenty of people, if employed at home; a wholeſome air; mines; a proper ſituation for the eaſtern and weſtern trades; a ſafe coaſt; rivers of eaſy entry; the ſeas and rivers ſtocked with fiſh. This country is as capable of extended trade as any in all Europe; yet, 'till within theſe few years, it was reduced to a very low ſtate: trade was ruined; the national ſtock waſted; the people forſook the country; the rents of lands were unpaid; houſes in towns, and farms in the country, were thrown upon the owners hands; the creditors could not have the intereſt of their money to live on; and the debtors perſons and eſtates were expoſed to law.—But ſince the Union, the aſpect of things is certainly greatly changed for the better; and, if this country had not unhappily been the dupes and bubbles of a rebellious crew, this nation would have certainly been in a far more proſperous condition. And it is to be hoped, that no wiſe meaſures will be wanting effectually to eradicate this curſed ſpirit of rebellion among the more ignorant Scots, for that is not likely ever to prove of other conſequence to them than to promote the ſpirit of anarchy, and, conſequently, of woe and poverty.

Before I conclude this article of Scotland, I think it proper to acknowledge, that the chief matter of which it is compoſed was communicated to me by Francis Grant, Eſq; brother to Sir Archibald Grant, Bart. and alſo to the right honourable the late lord high advocate of Scotland, and now lord Preſton-Grange, one of the lords of ſeſſion.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of SCOTLAND.

The weight in Scotland upon which not only their other weights, but likewiſe their liquid and dry meaſures are founded, is the French Troy ounce, being about one and four fifths per cent. lighter than ours; but their pound conſiſts of 16 ounces, whereas that of our's is only of 12.

There is no doubt but this ounce was originally the ſame with our's, and that it is only time and neglect hath made this difference.

The Scottiſh pint, upon which all their wet and dry meaſures are founded, ought to weigh, of the running water of Leith, 55 of thoſe ounces, and to contain about 99 ſquare inches: conſequently, their three pints being as 297 is to 282, is 5 per cent. better than our beer gallon, near 103 of ſuch pints going to our beer-barrel.

Their ordinary peck conſiſts of 21 $\frac{1}{4}$ of ſuch pints; but the peck uſed for oats, barley, and malt, contains near 31 of ſuch pints; and thus their boll conſiſts of four ſuch pecks; their ordinary peck is about one-fifteenth part leſs than our buſhel, but the extraordinary about a fourth part more.

In this kingdom they did uſe to keep their accounts three different ways, viz. in Scotch pounds, ſhillings, and pence; in Scotch marks; and in Engliſh pounds, ſhillings, and pence: counting 20 Scotch ſhillings to a pound, and 12 Scotch pence to a Scotch ſhilling, and 13 Scotch ſhillings and four Scotch pence to a mark; a Scotch ſhilling being then only valued at the price of an Engliſh penny, and their mark was valued at no more than 13 $\frac{2}{3}$ d. Engliſh money.

But ſince the union of the two kingdoms, the ſame ſpecies of gold and ſilver as are coined in the king's mint in the Tower of London, paſs current in this kingdom.

SEA DOMINION in general. The conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation depending principally on the figure the nation is capable of making at ſea, and preſerving thoſe rights and privileges upon that liquid element, to which we are not only intitled by nature, but by the laws of nations, and by treaties; it becomes neceſſary, in a work of this kind, to take proper notice of a topic of ſuch high concernment.

By the word ſea, according to the genuine ſignification, is underſtood the ocean and main ſea, as well as gulphs and inland ſeas, ſuch as the Mediterranean, Adriatic, Egean, Britiſh, and Baltic Seas, which are more immediately ſubject to dominion: for as to the ſovereignty of the vaſt ocean, no man can pretend to it, unleſs he was lord of the univerſe; and the dominion of every prince and ſtate can extend no farther on the main ſeas than where it is reaſonable that his neighbours ſhould begin, or where the particular dominion is loſt in the boundleſs deep.

By dominion is meant a propriety, or right of uſing, enjoying, diſpoſing of, and freely alienating the thing ſo enjoyed and poſſeſſed. This dominion is of two ſorts; that which is common to all men, as poſſeſſors without diſtinction; and that which is particular to ſome, appointed and ſet apart by peculiar perſons or ſtates, ſo that all other perſons are excluded from a liberty of uſe and enjoyment, without the previous conſent and permiſſion of the proprietor or enjoyer.

That the land is ſubject to ſuch a dominion is not doubted; but ſeveral have objected againſt the dominion of the ſea. They ſay the nature of the element will not admit of any ſuch property, that being fluid, and, conſequently, ſubject to a continual alteration, by the acceſſion of new waves, which continually ſhift from one place to another; whereby the ſtate of it is ſo abſolutely uncertain, that it is hard to ſuppoſe any part of it retainable in a particular poſſeſſion, which naturally conſiſts in the diſtinction of limits, and they cannot conceive this poſſible in the ſea.

To which it is anſwered, That as God has ordained the land ſhould be ruled, protected, and governed by public power, ſo the ſame is appointed for the ſea, which cannot be alleged to be near ſo fluid as rivers, the property of which has been ſeldom, if ever diſputed. If it is ſaid, Rivers being bounded on either ſide by land, can admit of particular dominion more eaſily than the ſea, this makes for our purpoſe, to prove the king of Great-Britain's title to the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas, they being in a great part bounded by land.

But to anſwer the above-mentioned objection more generally; no reaſonable man will deny, that tho' the water is frequently ſhifted, the channel, or ſpace of ground over which it flows, continually remains the ſame; and when a man is ſaid to rule over a ſea or river, it is underſtood not of the element, but of the ſite where they are placed. The waters of the Britiſh and Adriatic ſeas continually run out, yet the ſea is the ſame; as the Tyber, Po, Rhine, Thames, or Severn, are the ſame rivers as they were a thouſand years ago; and this is what is ſubject to princes by way of protection and government.

Would it not ſeem ridiculous if any man ſhould allege, that the ſea ought to be left without protection, ſo far that any one might do what he pleaſed there, well or ill, rob or ſpoil? Which alone argues, that the ſea ought to be governed by thoſe to whom it moſt properly appertains by divine diſpoſition.

The air is a much more fluid element than the water, and yet that ſpace which is above any piece of land that any particular perſon poſſeſſes, is ſo abſolutely the property of the owner, that he may lawfully hinder any man from extending a ſconce, or any thing from any contiguous building, that may reach over his ground, even though the foundation of any ſuch building be entirely upon the ground of him who owns it. And if the poſſeſſion of the ground gives the proprietor an unqueſtionable title to the dominion of the air, the poſſeſſion of the channel of the ſea muſt ſufficiently intitle the poſſeſſors to the dominion of the waters. As to their not being capable of limits and bounds, on account of their fluidity, that is a frivolous argument: for, unleſs the ſea is ſuppoſed to be infinite, it muſt neceſſarily be bounded; and it is certain the ſea and land do ſo mutually embrace one another with crooked windings and turnings, this by peninſulas and promontories, and that by creeks and gulphs, that they both promiſcuouſly ſet bounds to one another; and, beſides, it has been bounded.

Others

Others object againſt the particular dominion of the ſea, that freedom of paſſage, commerce, and traffic, is a right ſo inherent to mankind, that it can no where be abrogated or aboliſhed, by any law or cuſtom whatſoever, and that the ſea is like the highway, common to all. To this we reply, It is ſo, as much as other highways by land, or great rivers are, which, though common and free, are not to be uſurped by private perſons to their own intire uſe, but remain to the uſe of every one; not that their freedom is ſuch that they ſhould be without the protection and government of ſome prince or ſtate.

As the ſea is capable of protection and government, ſo is the ſame, no leſs than the land, ſubject to be divided among men, and appropriated to cities and potentates, which long ſince ſeems to have been ordained as a thing moſt natural.

As to the community of the ſea by freedom of paſſage, no body pretends an inoffenſive paſſage ought, or can in reaſon be denied to travellers and ſtrangers at ſea, in as much as it has relation only to the offices of humanity, and where there is no cauſe of fear or jealouſy; which freedom of paſſage does not in the leaſt derogate from the dominion of the place where ſuch perſons are permitted to paſs: becauſe the paſſengers being allowed that liberty, not as having a regal right and title to it, but by permiſſion, and the permitting of another to participate of any thing, does not in the leaſt diveſt the owner of his propriety, or any ways diminiſh his power over his own, eſpecially when he himſelf loſes nothing by it. All paſſages through foreign countries are (as they ever have been) ſubject to ſuch limitations and reſtrictions, as the ſeveral princes and ſovereigns of the countries, through which paſſage is deſired, think fit for the welfare and ſecurity of their own people, as well as of their allies.

The right of the flag, which is in the crown of Great-Britain, demands a mark of reſpect from all ſhips paſſing in the Britiſh Sea, and is the limitation and reſtriction on which ſuch paſſage is permitted. As to that part of the objection which relates to the liberty of trade, it appears, at firſt view, ſo trivial, that it needs no other confutation but a flat denial, as the objectors give no other reaſon but their bare aſſertion: but, to ſilence them, let us ſuppoſe that, in time of peace, France would exchange her wines with England's wool, and the Engliſh, not finding it conſiſtent with the intereſt of the nation to let the wool be exported (as certainly it is not) nor being willing to give the French money for their wines, ſince they can be abundantly ſupplied with that commodity from Spain and Portugal, in exchange for Engliſh manufactures, ſhould refuſe any ſuch commerce with France; the queſtion is, Whether France has any right to compel England to compliance with her demand? Who is there that will not anſwer in the negative? it being certain that every nation in the world may conſent to or refuſe all traffic with any other, as they think fit, except there has preceded ſome treaty or compact to the contrary. Some who oppoſe the dominion of the ſea, inſtead of arguments, pretend to produce authorities againſt it, which we ſhall obſerve, as far as they ſeem to have any weight with them.

They tell us Antoninus Pius, according to Marcianus the lawyer, and Juſtinian in his Inſtitutions, declared, That, by the law of nature, the air, as well as the rivers, the ſea, and its ſhores, ought to be common to all. Accordingly he allowed the fiſhermen of Formia and Capena (and all others in general) to fiſh upon the ſhore, with this proviſion only, that they ſhould not meddle with towns, monuments, and buildings, which were not by any law common to all. They alſo cite Ulpian againſt the dominion of the ſea, as ſaying, That the ſea, being by nature free for all, cannot be ſubjected by any peculiar law or private dominion; and in another place, That the ſea and ſhores are common to all, as the air, and that it is often declared by the emperors, That none ſhould be deprived of the liberty of fiſhing. We are told alſo, that Antoninus Pius ſaid, That he himſelf was lord of the world, but the law of the ſea. If the opinion of ſome particular perſons was of ſufficient authority to build the ſuppoſitions of the abſolute community of the ſea upon, theſe objections might be of ſome force: but, by inquiring diligently into the laws and cuſtoms of moſt ages and nations, we ſhall find the matter to be quite otherwiſe; and to evidence it, in the courſe of our argument, we ſhall inſtance ſeveral nations that were ſucceſſively in poſſeſſion of the ſovereignty of the Eaſtern Seas.

As to the teſtimony of Ulpian, let us make uſe of him himſelf againſt it: for he reckons the revenues of fiſheries (which are generally looked upon to be part of the regalia, or royalties of the prince) among the public cuſtoms, and places fiſhponds among the other poſſeſſions that are deemed liable to pay aſſeſſments. Juſtinian's laws, as excellent as they are, have ſuffered conſiderable infractions and alterations, and particularly in one relating to the marine: for by his laws, ſhips driven by tempeſt upon a ſhore, ſhould either belong to the former owners, or as things relinquiſhed and unpoſſeſſed become theirs who firſt ſhould find them; which good law is confirmed in the German empire, but intirely altered by ſeveral other nations, and, among others, by the Engliſh. In a word, it is not to be ſuppoſed that Juſtinian meant, by any decree or inſtitution of his, to forbid a particular dominion of the ſea, ſince he appropriated the Helleſpont to himſelf, in ſuch a manner that the liberty of that ſea, and the ports there, coſt the merchants and mariners that frequented them very dearly, according to Procopius, who was his contemporary, and wrote his hiſtory. The moſt conſiderable authority the objectors quote, is the anſwer of the emperor Antoninus Pius, That he himſelf was lord of the land, but the law of the ſea. This matter being put in a wrong light, the reader ſhould be informed of the fact, which is this:

Endemon Aſiaticus, a native of Nicomedia, a city in Bithynia, having ſuffered ſhipwreck in the Egean Sea, and his goods having been ſeized by the cuſtomers of the Cyclades Iſlands (in the Archipelago) he repreſented to the emperor Antoninus how unjuſtly and cruelly theſe cuſtom-houſe officers had dealt by him, and petitioned him for relief (according to Voluſius Marcianus, who was one of that emperor's privy-counſellors) in theſe words, Oh emperor Antoninus, our lord, we having been ſhipwrecked, were robbed of all by the receivers of the cuſtoms that inhabit the Cyclades Iſlands! To which the emperor made him the following anſwer, I indeed am ſovereign of the world, but the law of the ſea: let it be determined by the Rhodian laws [ſee RHODIAN LAWS] which are preſcribed for the regulation of ſea affairs, ſo far as they are not oppoſed by any of our laws: for the emperor Auguſtus was alſo of that opinion. The only controverſy that ever was about the reading of this anſwer, is in relation to the pointing of it, and particularly to the full point, or period, which is found after theſe words, But the law of the ſea: there being a full point after the words beforementioned, the objectors allege, that the BUT implies the emperor indeed acknowleged himſelf to be lord of the land, but not of the ſea, and that the law only, and no man, was lord of the latter. Whereas the true ſenſe of this anſwer ſeems to be, That ſea affairs ought properly to be determined by the Rhodian law, which was appointed to be the rule in ſuch caſes: for ſince the emperor aſcribed to himſelf the ſovereignty of the whole world, he undoubtedly intended in that to comprehend the ſea; which, as well as the land, was ſubjected to his authority, though in a different manner, controverſies in relation to land affairs being always determined by the Roman laws only, but thoſe relating to marine affairs were decided according to the ſea laws of the Rhodians; with this reſtriction, indeed, that the Rhodian laws ſhould only take place when they did not oppoſe any Roman law: beſides the diſputes about the reading of this anſwer, Joannes Ignæus, and others, affirm, That the emperor Antoninus, far from declining to aſcribe to himſelf a dominion over the ſea, rather ſeems to intimate, by this anſwer, that he was lord of it; alleging, that, by theſe often-recited words, I indeed am ſovereign of the land, but the law of the ſea, he means to ſay, I indeed am the lord of the world; and I alſo am the law of the ſea. With this agrees the opinion of the learned Samuel Petit, a Frenchman, who ſays, Antoninus does not here deny himſelf to be lord of the ſea, ſo as to decline to give law, and do juſtice to thoſe who frequent it; for, on the contrary, he orders the controverſy between Endemon and the cuſtomers to be determined according to the Rhodian law; by which law, however, he does not think himſelf ſo tied up, as to be deprived of other means of relieving Endemon, even againſt it, in caſe he ſhould ſuſtain any injury by the Rhodian law, which he plainly and poſitively makes ſubject to his own laws. Monſieur Petit adds, he believes the Greek word in the petition (which was both made and anſwered in that language) that ſignifies law, has been by a miſtake inſerted for another, that has ſome affinity to it in the ſound and letters, and ſignifies wind: ſo he makes the emperor ſay, I indeed am lord of the land, but the wind of the ſea. Whether the fault is in the pointing, or in the conſtruction, it is very unlikely that Antoninus ſhould aſſert a thing contrary to the known laws and cuſtoms of all ages, and his own imperial prerogative.

The opinion of the ſovereignty of the ſea has been oppoſed by two very learned men, whom we may ſuppoſe to be ſet to work by their ſeveral maſters, and wrote to ſerve a particular turn: the one is Fernando Vaſquez, counſellor to Philip III. of Spain, the other the famous Hugo Grotius. Vaſquez, in his Diſcourſe of the Law of Nature and Nations, writes to this purpoſe: Their opinion is not much to be eſteemed, who imagine the Genoeſe or Venetians may forbid others a paſſage through their reſpective gulphs, as if they could lay claim to thoſe ſeas by preſcription; which is equally contrary to the imperial laws, and to the primitive law of nature and nations, which cannot be ſubject to any alteration. That it is againſt this law is evident, becauſe by it not only the ſeas, but all other immoveable things whatever, were in common: and though afterwards that law came to be partly aboliſhed, ſo far as it relates to the dominion and propriety of lands, which being firſt enjoyed in common, according to the law of nature, were afterwards divided and ſeparated from common uſe; yet it is otherwiſe as to the dominion of the ſea, which has been from the beginning of the world, and is to this preſent day, common, without the leaſt alienation, as is univerſally known.

And many of the Portugueze are of opinion, their king has acquired, by preſcription, ſuch an ancient right to the vaſt ocean of the Weſt-Indies, that he may lawfully refuſe other nations paſſage through it; and the vulgar ſort of Spaniards ſeem likewiſe to be of opinion, that no people but themſelves have a right to ſail through that vaſt and ſpacious ſea that leads to the Indies, which the kings of Spain have conquered, as if they alſo obtained a right by preſcription to them; yet we look upon theſe mens imaginations as no leſs vain and fooliſh than the opinion of thoſe who have dreamed the ſame things of the Genoeſe and Venetians. The law of preſcription can be of no force in deciding controverſies which happen between princes and people that acknowlege no ſuperior, becauſe the peculiar civil laws of any country are of no more weight, in relation to foreign nations, than if ſuch laws had never had a being: ſo that for deciding controverſies of that nature, recourſe muſt neceſſarily be had to the general law of nations, originally or ſecondarily, which certainly can never admit of ſuch an uſurpation of a title to the dominion of the ſea by preſcription.

The reader, by the weakneſs of theſe arguments, will have a taſte of the reſt, and deſire no more of them. Notwithſtanding Vaſquez has the character of a great man in the learned world, he begins with a plain contradiction; for although he ſays he holds the law of nature to be abſolutely unchangeable, and cannot be ſubject to any alteration, yet he owns afterwards, that law came to be partly aboliſhed, &c. He acknowleges, that, by the law of nature, the land was common at firſt, and being evident that it is not now ſo, what ſhould hinder a private dominion of the ſea, which, according to himſelf, was not more common in the beginning than the land? For if he alleges that ſuch a property over the land is uſurped, as he ſays of that of the ſea, he overthrows all property, and aboliſhes all laws, both divine and human; and if, on the contrary, he acknowleges ſuch a dominion over the land to be juſt (as certainly it is) why then ſhould he deny a propriety of the ſea?

The other parts of his diſcourſe are of the ſame ſtrength; for whereas he ſays the ſea has been from the beginning of the world, and is to this day common, as is univerſally known, it is ſo plain a falſhood, that one would wonder a man who, in other things, is extolled for his wiſdom and ſufficiency, ſhould aſſert a thing ſo contrary to the laws and cuſtoms of moſt ages and nations, as we ſhall ſee preſently: but Don Vaſquez was to pleaſe the court of Spain, who then were on no good terms with the republic of Venice, whoſe greatneſs at ſea hindered the Spaniards from being maſters of the Mediterranean. The ſenate aſſerted their dominion in the Adriatic about the ſame time, as may be ſeen in Julius Pancius's tract of the Dominion of the Sea, where we find enough to confute what Vaſquez ſays of the Venetians: it is in the ſecond book, chap. 6. In the year 1630, Mary, ſiſter to the king of Spain, being married to the emperor's ſon Ferdinand, king of Hungary, and the Spaniards deſigning to convey her from Naples with a ſquadron of their own, the Venetians ſuſpected they intended ſome infringement of their privileges by this ſpecious precedent, which they might, perhaps, afterwards pretend to make uſe of to their prejudice, and thought they took this occaſion, when the republic was involved in a war abroad, and infected with the peſtilence at home, to endeavour to undermine the ſovereignty of the Adriatic Sea; which had been uninterruptedly enjoyed by the ſigniory of Venice by immemorial preſcription.

The Spaniſh ambaſſador having acquainted the ſtate that his maſter's fleet was to tranſport his ſiſter, the queen of Hungary, from Naples to Trieſte, the doge anſwered, That her Majeſty ſhould not paſs but in the gallies of the republic. To which the ambaſſador replying, That they were infected with the plague; the ſenate met to conſult about it, and came to the following reſolution: That his Catholic majeſty's ſiſter ſhould not be tranſported to Trieſte in any other fleet but that of the republic, according to the uſual cuſtom of the gulph, with which her Majeſty ſhould be attended, with all the marks of reſpect and deference that were due to her quality; adding, that if her Majeſty proceeded any other way, the republic would by force aſſert her rights, and attack the Spaniſh gallies in an hoſtile manner, as if they were enemies. Upon which the Spaniſh ambaſſador was obliged to deſire the favour of the ſenate to tranſport that princeſs with their gallies to Trieſte, which was accordingly performed by the Venetian general, Antonio Piſani; and both the emperor and king of Spain returned the Venetians thanks; which is a plain indication that they did not then call in queſtion the Venetians title to the dominion of the Adriatic Sea.

The moſt conſiderable adverſary we have to deal with in this controverſy, is Hugo Grotius, author of the celebrated piece, intitled Mare Liberum, which the learned Selden fully anſwered in his Mare Clauſum. After the treaty between the Spaniards and Hollanders, held at the Hague in the year 1609, concerning the freedom of trade and navigation to the Eaſt-Indies, the above-mentioned author publiſhed his book, with an intention to prove that the Hollanders had liberty to trade to the Eaſt-Indies; which he endeavoured to do by the law of nations, allowing ſuch a liberty of navigation to all mankind, in which none can be moleſted without injury.

He aſſerted further, That the right of navigation through the Atlantic and Southern Sea to the Indies, cannot be the propriety of the Portugueze, or of any other nation in particular; becauſe the law of nature not only permits, but requires, that ſhould be common. The learned author of this tract had certainly good reaſon to aſſert the Hollanders and other nations right to the liberty of the Atlantic Ocean, and to trade in the Eaſtern Seas as well as the Portugueze: for who can ſay in the midſt of the vaſt deep, ſuch a channel or ſuch a ſpace is mine? and who has a right to exclude any one a paſſage through the main? So that the diſpute is brought within a narrower compaſs; and by the dominion of the ſea, is only meant the ſovereignty of ſuch a part of it, as, bounding any country, may be ſaid to belong to it, and to extend as far as certain imaginary lines or viſible marks. And herein Grotius agrees in ſome meaſure with us, when he ſays, that ſuch ſmall parts of the ſea as can in a manner be incloſed, if they may be at all poſſeſſed, ought to fall to them who firſt acquire a title to them by occupation. Now the difference between a greater and leſs part, cannot well take place in the determining of a private dominion, ſince it is not the ſpace nor the extent of the thing poſſeſſed, but the nature and validity of the title, by which the matter ſhould be decided. And the author in another place in expreſs terms excepts a bay or creek; and ſays elſewhere, he does not ſpeak of an inland ſea, which being ſtraitened on either ſide, exceeds not the breadth even of a river, but the ocean; which the Ancients called immenſe and infinite, the parent and original of things confining the air, &c. He adds a little after, The controverſy is not about a ſtreight or creek in the ocean, nor of ſo much as in the view of the ſhore. And in other places, he ſays things much to the ſame purpoſe; ſo that in the diſpute about the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Sea, we ſhould have little to do with him; for he grants enough to warrant the crown of Great-Britain's aſſerting its dominion over it. He advances every thing modeſtly, and the main of his argument tending to ſet free the Atlantic and Southern Seas from the ſovereignty the Portugueze claimed, he is in the main in the right; for it is impoſſible to poſſeſs the whole ocean, or to have a title to the dominion of it, unleſs a prince or people were ſovereigns of the whole world. Alexander's conqueſts gave him but a ſmall ſea-dominion, about half the Mediterranean, and part of the Indian Sea. The Romans, indeed, had a title to the dominion of almoſt all the known part of the Great Ocean, as lords of the ſhore: but there never was, nor ever will be, a power ſo infinite as to ſubject the whole world, and to be ſovereign of both ſea and land, excluſive of all others. The ſea bounding the land under the ſubjection of any prince, will be under his dominion. Grotius, in his excellent treatiſe de Jure Belli & Pacis, ſays*, The land and rivers, and any part of the ſea that may fall under the private dominion of any nation, ought to be open to ſuch as have occaſion to paſs upon juſt and neceſſary grounds; and even a creek, or narrow ſea, may be poſſeſſed by any that poſſeſs the land on both ſides, provided the ſpace of ſea be not ſo great as, being compared with the land, it cannot ſeem to be any part of it. In a word, he acknowleges the right of primary occupation of creeks and ſtreights of the ſea, at leaſt, that it was not by virtue of any natural right that the ſea was not appropriated and entered upon by occupation, attributing the community of it only to cuſtom, and confeſſing that cuſtom being changed, the reaſon of the community ceaſes. That it has been changed, is too well known to need any further proofs of it againſt Vaſquez, and as much of Grotius as is againſt the dominion of the ſea.

* Book ii. chap. 2. § 13.

We might bring many authorities of the ſame weight, but ſhall only take notice of two or three, as Reginerus Sixtinus, in his book de Regalibus, where he ſays, The thing in queſtion concerning the ſea and its ſhore is, whether they ought, as navigable rivers, &c. to be reckoned among the regalia, or royalties, of the prince, every thing that is reputed ſuch being as much the private and peculiar right of the prince, as the ſubjects eſtates are theirs. And ſo Catheranus Deciſ. 155. no. 81. and Ferrarius Montanus de Feud. book v. chap. 7. reckons the ſovereignty and dominion of the ſea among the royalties of the prince, without making any diſtinction between that and a public river. And Mynſingerus, Auſ. 1. no. 162. decad 11. ſays, The property of the ſea is a part of the royalties of the prince. But not to detain the reader longer on this head, we ſhall prove by law and hiſtory, ſacred and profane, ancient and modern, that the ſea is capable of a private dominion and propriety.

Holy writ, in more than one place, juſtifies this; for there we find it ſaid, Repleniſh the earth and ſubdue it, and have dominion over the fiſh of the ſea, &c. And again, The fear of you, and the dread of you (which are terms implying dominion) ſhall be upon every beaſt of the field, and every fowl of the air, upon all that moveth upon the earth, and upon all the fiſhes of the ſea, &c. Which words, though it muſt

be

be acknowleged they are not meant of private dominion (ſince, in the perſons of our firſt parents, and of Noah and his three ſons, this bleſſing was given to them and their poſterity in general;) yet it is by no means to be forgotten, that the ſea and land did ſo paſs together at firſt into the common enjoyment of mankind, that from hence we may very reaſonably conclude, that being both in one globe, there could be no ſuch diverſity in their nature, as might hinder the one more than the other to paſs at the pleaſure of men, in the future diſtribution of things, into private dominion and poſſeſſion. Nor is there, by that donation, any community ordained; mankind are left to their own choice, to uſe and enjoy both ſea and land, as they think fit. To theſe paſſages of Scripture, the objectors oppoſe other, as, The heavens, even the heavens are the Lord's, but the earth hath been given to the children of men. From which they pretend to infer, that there being no mention of the ſea, the Almighty reſerves that peculiarly to himſelf; which explication is formally contradicted in ſeveral places of the Scriptures, and particularly in that above cited. They may as well ſay God is not the creator of the ſea, becauſe in the ſame Pſalm it is ſaid, You are bleſſed of the Lord, that made heaven and earth. Who will deny but that the Pſalmiſt, by the word EARTH, means the world in general, which comprehends both ſea and land? And both are equally poſſeſſed by the children of men. Several other paſſages of Scripture are quoted on both ſides in this controverſy: but the objectors find them as little to their purpoſe as that before recited out of the Pſalms.

We ſhall now give inſtances of the private dominion of the ſea poſſeſſed by ſeveral nations: and firſt by the

TYRIANS.

Tyre was a town great in ſtrength and riches, by her commerce; according to Iſaiah, The harveſt of the river is her revenue; than which nothing can be more expreſſive, nor more elegant. And again, ſpeaking ſtill of Tyre, The ſea has ſpoken, even the ſtrength of the ſea. Nothing can be more apparent, and no authority ſo full and unexceptionable. It is ſaid by the Pſalmiſt, I will ſet his hand alſo in the ſea, and his right-hand in the rivers; by which, according to Eben Ezra, the dominion of the waters is aſſigned to king David, that he might rule over ſuch as failed therein. There is alſo a clear and convincing paſſage in Holy Writ to our purpoſe: And the king Ahaſuerus laid a tribute upon the land, and upon the iſles of the ſea; by which it appears very plainly, that prince was lord of the ſea and iſlands, upon which he impoſed a tribute. There are ſome apocryphal texts, which confirm what we aſſert; as that, O ye men, do not excel in ſtrength, that bear rule over the ſea and land, and things in them: but yet the king is more mighty, for he is lord of all theſe things, and hath dominion over them. And that, The ſea is ſet in a wide place, that it might be deep and great; but in caſe the entrance were narrow, like that of a river, who then could enter the ſea, to look upon it, and have dominion over it, without paſſing through the ſtreight? Whoever will give themſelves the trouble to look over the comments of the Jewiſh rabbins in the xxxivth chapter of Numbers, where the bounds of Canaan are ſet out, will find they are poſitively of opinion that the ſea is included.

The rabbi Jehuda, a celebrated interpreter of the law, from the expreſs words of the holy law concludes, that the whole ſea lying before the weſtern coaſt of the Holy Land, being limited by ſtrait lines drawn on each ſide, from the north-eaſt and ſouth borders, through that great ſea into the weſt, having been, together with the main land, given to that people by God, thoſe precepts ſhould no leſs be obſerved in that immenſe ocean, than in the Holy Land itſelf, according as the author's opinion is delivered to us in the moſt ancient digeſts of the Jewiſh law, de Libellis Divortii & Manumiſſionis, cap. 1. fol. 8. All that lies directly oppoſite to the land of Iſrael, is of the ſame account with that law, according as it is written, As for your weſt border, you ſhall even have the great ſea for a border; this ſhall be your weſt border, the border of the ſea, or of the weſt. Alſo the iſlands ſituated on either ſide, in the ſame direct line, fell under the ſame account with the ſides themſelves; ſo that a line being drawn through the iſles, from Cephalonia to the main ocean, and alſo from the river of Egypt to the ocean, whatever is contained within that line is under the dominion of Iſrael, and what lies without that line is out of its dominion; which this author, rabbi Eben Ezra, and others, made to reach through even the Spaniſh Sea, notwithſtanding its vaſt diſtance from the continent of the land of Iſrael; alleging by that paſſage, where it is ſaid, The great ſea ſhall be thy border, it was meant, the great ſea, which of itſelf was their border, ſhould alſo be their poſſeſſion.

This is, perhaps, to ſtretch the ſovereignty of the Jews too far; and other rabbins, by moderating their explication of the law, come nearer to the true meaning. They would have a ſtraight line drawn from the promontory of Mount Hor, to the entrance of Peluſium, or from the north-eaſt to the ſouth, by which they would bound the weſtern dominion of the Holy Land, reckoning whatever ſpace of ſea or iſland ſhould fall within the compaſs of the ſaid line towards the Eaſt, ſhould belong to the territories of Iſrael. After this manner, the ſaid line would include very conſiderable ſpaces of the ſea, lying before the ſhore inhabited by the tribes of Aſhur, Ephraim, Dan, Zabulon, and Simeon; which ſea was looked upon to be the property of that people, as well as the land, according to the digeſts of the Jewiſh laws.

Of theſe two opinions of the rabbins, this latter (by which only the adjacent parts of the ſea are conceived to be, by God's appointment, aſſigned with the Promiſed Land to the children of Iſrael) is the moſt univerſally received, as is evident, not only by both volumes of the Talmud, but alſo by the teſtimony of the moſt learned rabbins, Moſes Maimonides and Moſes Cotzenſis: and this latter opinion ſerves directly our purpoſe, as well as the firſt; for we aſſert, That the ſea is capable of dominion, and it is not the extent, but the nature of the thing, that is here called in queſtion.

By the law civil and domeſtic, as well as by the common law, whether intervenient or imperative, and by the moſt known practice and cuſtom of the moſt renowned nations and kingdoms that are known to us, ſuch a ſovereignty and dominion of the ſea has been univerſally admitted. It muſt be allowed, either that all theſe mighty nations, who either by virtue of ſome domeſtic law of their own, or of ſome other law common to themſelves and their neighbours, have admitted of ſuch dominion, are, or have been, competent judges of the natural permiſſive law; or elſe it muſt be ſuppoſed, that the moſt famous nations of the world have erred for many years againſt nature, the law of which, according to Juſtinian, is, That which being eſtabliſhed by natural reaſon amongſt all men, is obſerved by all alike, and called the law of nations, becauſe it is ſuppoſed to be a law which all nations uſe; ſee his Inſtitutions de Jure Naturali: with which paſſage that of Caius, in his book de Acquirendo Rerum Dominio, very well agrees, where he ſays, The law of nations is by natural reaſon obſerved in the ſame manner amongſt all men. And that the dominion of the ſea has been the law and practice of nations, we are now to prove from profane hiſtory firſt, and then that it has been continued down to our own times.

The inhabitants of the iſland of Crete, now called Candia, had a very large dominion in the neighbouring ſeas, as appears in the writings of Diodorus Siculus, and others, particularly Thucydides, who tells us, when they acquired this dominion, Minos, the ſon of Lycaſtus, ſon of Jupiter, king of Crete, poſſeſſed all the Cretan, and a great part of the Egean Sea, as ſovereign lord of it. And according to Eutropius, the empire of the Cretans over that part of the ſea, did not expire 'till Cæcilius Metellus made an intire conqueſt of that iſland. We may ſee, by Plato's works, that the ſea laws of the Cretans were attributed to Minos. This dominion of the Cretans is ſuppoſed to be in the time of the Judges, and to have laſted 'till that of the Lydians, which began 175 years afterwards: Theſe

LYDIANS,

According to Euſebius, held this dominion 92 years; but Iſaac Caſaubon was of opinion, that XCII was by a miſtake inſerted in the Greek for CXX. Marianus Scotus, and Florence the monk, both make mention of the dominion of the Lydians, which is generally reckoned to have begun about the time of Æneas. Their ſucceſſors in it were the

PELASGI,

Of whom Euſebius ſays, They in the ſecond place poſſeſſed the dominion of the ſea, which is meant excluſively of the Cretans, who were not in his catalogue; and though this author makes their dominion to laſt 85 years, it is conjectured it did not laſt above 55. The time of it is placed in th days of Solomon. And after them the

THRACIANS

Held the dominion of the ſea, which began in Jeroboam reign; but authors do not agree how long it laſted. W now come to the

RHODIANS,

Who, though they are omitted by Marianus and Florentius, according to Euſebius, held the dominion of the ſea 23 years, beginning about the reign of Jehoſophat. Strabo in his fourth book ſays, That Rhodes was ſovereign miſtreſs of the ſea a conſiderable time. They indeed have rendered their name and ſovereignty immortal, by their ſea laws; which, as Conſtantius Harmenopulus affirms, in his Porchir. Juris, lib. xii. tit. 11. are the moſt ancient now in being, and were in force among the Romans from the time of Tiberius, as you may ſee in Jus Græco-Romanum, tom ii. p. 265. The paſſage before-mentioned, in the emperor Antoninus's anſwer to Endemon's petition, confirms this; and it is certain, the emperor Juſtinian put thoſe laws into the Digeſts. Next to them the

PHRYGIANS

Acquired the dominion of the ſea, as it is ſuppoſed, in the time of Lycurgus. Euſebius writes they maintained it 25 years, others ſay 26; and then the

CYPRIANS

Poſſeſſed it. Some authors ſay they maintained it 23 years, and others 31 years: the time is ſaid to be the reign of Joaz. The

PHOENICIANS

Held this dominion in the days of Uzziah, king of Judah: from them all the bottom of the Mediterranean was called the Phœnician Sea; and Pliny tells us, That people were very ſkilful in the art of navigation, inſomuch that Atergatis, queen of Syria and Phœnicia, publiſhed an edict, importing, That it ſhould not be lawful for any one to eat fiſh without her licence and permiſſion: it afterwards became cuſtomary to conſecrate to Atergatis fiſhes of gold and ſilver, when ſhe was placed among the goddeſſes. After the Phœnicians the

EGYPTIANS,

As we find in Euſebius, Marianus, and Florence the monk, were ſovereigns of the ſea, under their kings Pſamnitis and Bocchoris, who flouriſhed a little before the beginning of the Olympiads. Next to them the

MILESIANS

Held this dominion; and though Euſebius takes no notice of the time they enjoyed it, Marianus and Florence agree their dominion laſted 18 years. Stephanus alſo obſerves, That Naucratis, a city of Egypt, was built by the Mileſians, who then poſſeſſed the ſea: Euſebius adds, their ſovereignty was about the time of Romulus. They alſo built Sinope, on the Euxine Sea, which, according to Strabo, in his xiith book, commanded the ſea flowing within the Cyanean Iſlands. The

CARIANS,

As Euſebius, numb. 1281, and Diodorus Siculus, biblioth. 5. enjoyed a dominion in the ſea, about the time of the good king Hezekiah; as did afterwards the

LESBIANS.

See Euſebius, numb. 1341: their dominion, according to ſome authors, laſted 69 years; but Marianus makes it laſt but 58 years. The

PHOCIANS

Succeeded them in the dominion of the ſea, about the time of the Jews captivity at Babylon; and Euſebius writes, that they maintained it 44 years. The

CORINTHIANS

Were alſo ſovereigns of the ſea, though they are omitted in the catalogues of the hiſtorians; however, Thucydides, lib. i. reports, that being very potent in ſhipping, and mightily ſuppreſſing piracies, they acquired a very great reputation and command by ſea, as well as by land. He takes notice alſo of their diligence and ſucceſs in reſtoring the affairs of navigation to their former perfection: it muſt nevertheleſs be confeſſed, that authors have been too ſilent with reſpect to them and the

IONIANS,

Whoſe dominion of the ſea is taken notice of by the ſame hiſtorian, in words to this effect: the power and ſtrength of navigation were in the hands of the Ionians in the time of Cyrus the firſt king of the Perſians, and his ſon Cambyſes. The

NAXIANS

Enjoyed this maritime ſovereignty after them, during the ſpace of 10 years, in the reign of Cambyſes and Darius; they inhabited the iſland of Naxos, one of the Cyclades, in the Archipelago. After them the

ERETRIANS

Poſſeſſed the dominion of the ſea for about ſeven years. They were ſo called from Eretrias, a rich and famous city in the iſland Eubœa. The next maſters of the ſea were the

ÆGINETÆ:

They were the inhabitants of the iſland Egina; and not long before the Peloponneſian war broke out, were ſo ſtrong at ſea, that they inſulted the Athenians, and it was to curb them that the ſtate of Athens increaſed their naval ſtrength, by which they afterwards acquired the ſovereignty of the Eaſtern Sea. Not only Euſebius, but Strabo and Ælian, take notice of the dominion of this people: ſome make it laſt 10, ſome 20 years, and ſome more. But the Athenians were too great a nation, to ſuffer ſo inconſiderable a people as the Æginetæ were, to enjoy this power long. After them the

ATHENIANS and LACEDÆMONIANS

Enjoyed the ſovereignty, though they are not inſerted in the catalogue of the lords of the ſea. Demoſthenes, in his IId Phil. ſays, The Lacedæmonians had a dominion over the ſea and over the land, and who does not know that Eurybiades the Spartan, commanded the Grecian fleet in the war between the Grecians and Xerxes? It is true, the Lacedæmonians were not ſo ſtrong by their own naval ſtrength, as by that of their allies the Peloponneſians; but their dominion at land was the occaſion of their being preferred to the dominion at ſea; and they always had the chief command, 'till the famous Timotheus an Athenian general, having ſubdued Corcyra, brought the people of Epirus, the Athamanians, Chaonians, and other nations, to enter into an alliance with them. Upon which the Lacedæmonians found themſelves under an indiſpenſible neceſſity to reſign the ſovereignty of the ſea to the Athenians, in a treaty of peace then concluded between the two nations.

The Lacedæmonians were not allowed to put to ſea ſo much as one ſhip of force, but ſhips of burthen only; and the Athenians obliged Artaxerxes Longimanus king of Perſia, to agree, That the king's ſhips ſhould not come within the length of a horſe-race of the Grecian Sea, and that it ſhould not be lawful for him to ſend any ſhips of force within the Cyanean and Chelidonian Iſlands, which formerly had been infeſted by his navies, as may be ſeen in Plutarch's life of Cimon the Athenian. Indeed, the Greek hiſtory is full of inſtances of the power and dominion of the Athenians at ſea. Iſocrates ſpeaking of it tells us, It was not lawful to ſail in long ſhips or gallies beyond Phaſelis, a town ſituated in a direct line with the Chelidonian Iſlands.

This dominion was entirely loſt in the end of the Peloponneſian war, when Lyſander deſtroyed their fleet and took Athens. And they never recovered it ſo far as to be ſaid to be maſters of the ſea afterwards, though they grew powerful again. If any ſhould be curious to know how theſe catalogues of the maritime ſovereigns have been preſerved, we can only inform them, that it is very probable, that Caſtor Rhodius, who lived about the time of Auguſtus Cæſar, and wrote a hiſtory of thoſe that had ruled at Sea, as Suidas witneſſes, furniſhed Julius Africanus and Euſebius with theſe liſts of the nations who held dominion at ſea, though Caſtor's hiſtory is itſelf loſt.

To continue as far as we can trace this dominion of the ſea after the Athenians loſt it, there were not above 70 years between the Peloponneſian war and the reign of Alexander the Great. When the Tyrians, according to Quintus Curtius, had not only a ſovereign dominion over the neighbouring ſea, but was miſtreſs over all the ſeas through which their ſhips did ſail. Before this we find by the Greek hiſtories, that the Lacedæmonians were again maſters at ſea, and the Bœotians aſpired to it, if they did not obtain it after their ſucceſſes at land. But the Tyrians were ſuch abſolute maſters, that Tyria Maria, or Tyrian Sea, became a proverbial expreſſion for all ſeas poſſeſſed, ſo as the paſſage through them could not be obtained without the permiſſion of the lord.

We find a query in Ariſtotle's works, Whether it be for or againſt the intereſt of any well-governed nation, to maintain a ſovereignty of the ſea, ſo as to exclude all others from the benefit of navigation through the part ſo poſſeſſed, either upon account of paſſage, traffic, or fiſhing, &c.? But he had been too well inſtructed of the lawfulneſs of ſuch a dominion, by the continual practice of all the neighbouring nations, to declare againſt it. Though the many inſtances that have been given of the ſovereignty of the ſea from ancient hiſtory, are ſufficient to convince any reaſonable man, that it is capable of dominion; yet we ſhall add ſome further arguments, which ſeem to corroborate what has been urged.

It is very well known by all who are acquainted with the hiſtories of ancient times, that according to the cuſtom of the Eaſt, the ſymbols of dominion and empire, which the kings of Perſia demanded of the Greeks and other nations, were earth and water; by which was undoubtedly meant the empire of the ſea as well as the land. Darius demanded earth and water of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, who threw his ambaſſadors into a well. He alſo demanded it of Indathyrſus king of Scythia, as we find in Herodotus, and in the Greek copies of the hiſtory of Judith; that Nebuchadnezzar required earth and water of the neighbouring nations, with which he threatened to make war.

Several parts of the ſea belonging to the Eaſtern Empire were reckoned among its provinces and governments. Witneſs Conſtantius Prophyragennetus, lib. 1. Them. 17. where he ſays, That the Helleſpont was very expreſsly aſſigned to

the commander in chief of the Egean Sea. And again, That the Egean Sea was reckoned among the provinces of the empire, and that the Cyclades Iſlands, and the moſt remarkable of the Sporades, Myteline, and Chios, belonged to the government of the Egean Sea. The emperor Leo by a decree declared, that every man ſhould poſſeſs the ſea lying before his lands, by ſuch a peculiar and unqueſtionable right, that he ſhould have power to deprive any other perſon of uſing or enjoying the ſame in any manner, ſo as to reap any gain or benefit, without the ſpecial conſent of the owner.

By which the opinion of the univerſal community of the ſea is utterly deſtroyed, and a private and ſeparate propriety and dominion introduced. This decree took immediate effect about the year of our Lord 900, without any oppoſition, over all the Egean Sea, as well as over the Boſphorus, Helleſpont, and all the other ſeas ſubjected to the Conſtantinopolitan empire.

We have hitherto confined ourſelves to the Levant or eaſtern part of the Mediterranean: let us now ſee how the dominion of the ſea was maintained in the weſtern; where firſt we find the

Spinetans,

So called from the ancient city Spina, ſituated near the mouth of the river Po, in poſſeſſion of the ſovereignty of the Adriatic Sea; where, as we read in Strabo, lib. 5. and Dionyſius Halicarnaſſæus, de Orig. Rom. lib. 1. they raiſed ſuch conſiderable revenues, that they uſed to ſend very liberal tenths to the temple of Apollo at Delphos. The ſame author adds, that the

Tuscans

Were abſolute ſovereigns of that part of the Mediterranean that waſhes the ſouthern coaſt of Italy. And Diodorus Siculus, lib. 20. ſays, The Tyrrheni or Tuſcans were ſo powerful upon the ſea, which they poſſeſſed as lords of it, that at laſt it took their name. But the

Carthaginians

Grew ſo mighty at ſea, that all other naval dominion ceaſed, and none could pretend to diſpute with them the maritime empire, 'till the reign of Agathoclas, king of Sicily, who ſhared for ſome time with them the ſovereignty of the ſea. His ſubjects in Africa revolting from him about the 118th Olympiad, the dominion of the Mediterranean devolved almoſt entirely upon the Carthaginians, who held it near 40 years, and gave laws to all navigators, 'till the beginning of the firſt Punic war, when the Romans refuſed any longer ſubjection to them at ſea. Before this, the people of Rome, notwithſtanding they had extended their conqueſts very far at land, gave up the ſovereignty of the ſea to the Carthaginians, as we may ſee by the firſt league concluded between theſe two mighty ſtates, about the 68th Olympiad. By which Polybius tells us it was ſtipulated, That neither the Romans nor their confederates, ſhould ſail beyond the Fair Promontory, unleſs they ſhould be driven thither by tempeſts or enemies. And Polybius further gives an account, That in the ſecond treaty of peace concluded between the two nations, it was provided, That no Roman ſhould ſo much as touch either upon Africa or Sardinia, except it were either to take in proviſions or repair their ſhips. But after the ſecond Punic war, when Carthage was forced to ſubmit to what laws the Romans, their conquerors, pleaſed to give them; when the Roman fleet was alſo victorious at ſea as well as Scipio by land, the dominion the Carthaginians held at ſea, was of courſe transferred to the people of Rome; and, indeed, they became maſters of the Mediterranean, before they were maſters of Carthage; ſo induſtrious had they been to increaſe their naval ſtrength, without which they ſay, they could never ſubdue their rivals, the Carthaginians: for Hannibal in his ſpeech to Scipio, in the 30th book of Livy, ſeems to acknowlege the Romans to be lords of all the Mediterranean, and its iſlands. And accordingly after the concluſion of the peace at the end of the ſecond Punic war, the Carthaginians themſelves burnt 500 gallies, that they might not be obliged to pay homage to their conquerors, of whom they had formerly exacted the ſame marks of ſubmiſſion. The

Romans

Having thus acquired the dominion of the ſea, were very careful to maintain it, and had always a powerful fleet ready, either to ſuppreſs pirates, or aſſert their ſovereignty.

The fleet that was given to Pompey to ſcour the Mediterranean Seas, is mentioned by all the Roman hiſtorians; and Pliny tells us, that by freeing the ſea from pirates, he reſtored the dominion to the people of Rome. He alſo made them maſters of that part of the ſea, to the ſovereignty of which the Cilicians pretended, as appears by an ancient league between them and Antiochus king of Syria, That the latter ſhould ſurrender his warlike ſhips and their furniture, except ten gallies, none of which ſhould be rowed with above thirty oars; and Polybius ſays, it was not allowable for him to have ſo much as one with that number of oars; and that none of his ſhips ſhould paſs the promontory of Sarpedon, unleſs it were to carry money or hoſtages.

As to the nature of the ſea dominion of the Romans, and the extent of it, Appianus Alexandrinus makes them ſovereigns of all the Mediterranean, and Dionyſius Halicarnaſſæus, lib. 1. de Orig. Rom. writes, their dominion extended over the whole ocean as far as it is navigable. However extravagant this boundleſs empire may appear at firſt, it will not at a ſecond view ſeem improbable, that the Romans were ſovereigns of moſt part of the known ſeas, as they were of the land. For the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas was in their poſſeſſion as long as they were maſters of any conſiderable part of Britain; but they looked on the Mediterranean to be entirely their property, as appears by ſeveral paſſages of Florus, Salluſt, and other authors, who being Romans, gave ordinarily to that ſea the general name of our ſea.

Their naval dominion may be proved by ſo many examples, that we ſhould tire the reader to repeat them, and the eaſtern emperors pretended to the ſame maritime ſovereignty as the people or Cæſars of Rome enjoyed. Themiſtius, in his 5th Oration, ſpeaking of the emperor Theodoſius the Elder, aſcribes to him the dominion of almoſt the whole earth and ſea, of which he calls him ruler. Dion Chryſoſtom tells us, the emperor Trajan, long before this, granted the citizens of Tharſus a dominion and juriſdiction over the river Cydnus, and the adjacent ſea.

Thus much is ſufficient to ſhew, that the Antients believed and practiſed the dominion of the ſea. When the Barbarians over-ran the empire, the Roman power was broken as well by ſea as land; and as their territories fell under the dominion of ſeveral princes, ſo their naval force was divided, navigation neglected, barbariſm prevailed, and with that, ignorance; and commerce growing dangerous, fleets grew leſs; and the ſovereignty of the ſea was not talked of again, 'till there aroſe a power able to maintain, as well as aſſert it. The firſt of this kind was that of the

Venetians,

Who claimed the ſovereignty of the Adriatic Sea, formerly ſo called, from the ancient city of Adria. At the bottom of this ſea, bay, or gulph, ſtands the famous city of Venice, governed by a republic, that, from the beginning, have made it one of their chief political maxims to encourage trade, and improve their ſtrength at ſea. This bay is 600 miles long, and the land on both ſides poſſeſſed by ſeveral princes, inſomuch, that a ſixth part of it does not belong to the Venetians; yet by their promoting commerce they grew formidable at ſea, aſſerted their dominion over the gulph, as belonging to their city, the capital of thoſe parts, and for ſome time there was no nation that durſt diſpute the ſovereignty with them.

Flavius Blondus, Decade 2. lib. 8. tells us, That in the year 1265, when Lorenzo Tepolo was doge of Venice, the republic impoſed a tax upon all that traded in the Adriatic Sea, making a law (which to this day remains in force) that all who ſailed between the gulph de Quevera and the Capo di Pola, or promontory of Solo and coaſt of Revenna, ſhould (if thereto required) come into Venice and pay cuſtom, and (if the officers thought fit) unlade their goods and let them be ſurveyed.

Several barks were ordered to cruize day and night about the harbours to enforce the execution of this law. The inhabitants of Ancona complaining to the Pope of this exaction, the caſe came to be conſidered, and Gregory X. confirmed to them the right of levying their cuſtoms in the Adriatic for the maintenance of mariners employed by them againſt the Saracens and pirates. The ceremony of the doge's wedding the Adriatic Sea, is much older, and ſhews their ſovereignty is as old as Alexander III. by whom it was inſtituted according to Anton. Peregrino in his 8th book de Jure Fiſci 185. This ceremony is performed on Aſcenſion-day, when the doge goes in his bucentoro, a magnificent galley of ſtate accompanied by the chief noblemen in a moſt pompous manner, and as a ſign of the perpetuity of the republic's dominion over it, throws a ring into the water in token of wedding it, ſaying theſe words as tranſlated from the Italian, WE ESPOUSE THEE, O SEA, AS A SIGN OF A REAL AND PERPETUAL DOMINION.

But the proofs of the republic's aſſerting this ſovereignty are ſo many, that they would be almoſt endleſs, ſhould we come to inſtances: we therefore refer the curious to a treatiſe written by way of epiſtle from Franciſcus de Ingenius to Siberius Vincentius, in vindication of it againſt Joannis Baptiſta Valenzolo, a Spaniard, and Laurentius Motiorus, a Roman, who being the duke of Oſſuna's creatures, wrote againſt it to pleaſe that duke, then viceroy of Naples, and a great enemy to the republic.

In this epiſtle, the author reckons no leſs than thirty eminent lawyers of his opinion, in favour of the Venetian's dominion in the Adriatic. In the year 1399, when the king of Naples had married his ſiſter to the archduke of Auſtria, he did not

pretend to tranſport her by way of the gulph, without firſt aſking the republic's leave. There are two letters extant from the emperor Frederic III. to Giovanni Mocenigo, then doge of Venice, deſiring liberty of the ſtate to tranſport corn through the Adriatic from Apulia; and others from the kings of Hungary to the ſame purpoſe are produced by Francis de Ingenius above mentioned. All the commanders of their ſhips treat as open enemies thoſe of any prince or ſtate, though in peace with them, that attempt the leaſt infringement of this their dominion; of which a very ſignal inſtance happened in the year 1638, when the Turkiſh fleet having entered the gulph without the ſenate's permiſſion, the Venetian general attacked them in an hoſtile manner, ſunk ſeveral of their ſhips, and drove the reſt into Valona, a port upon the Adriatic Sea, belonging to the Grand Seignior.

The Venetian, not ſatisfied with this, landed his men, and put a great number of mariners to the ſword who had eſcaped him at ſea. The Sultan not long after concluded a treaty with the ſenate, and thereby it was agreed, That it ſhould be lawful for the Venetians in time to come to ſeize by force, if they did not otherwiſe ſubmit, all Turkiſh veſſels, which ſhould enter the gulph without their licence, and that even within the ports and havens under the obedience of the Grand Seignior, ſituated on the Venetian Gulph. We have inſtanced before, their refuſing to let the queen of Hungary paſs, and the emperor and king of Spain's owning their dominion by complying with them. It is true, the emperors had from time to time endeavoured to ſhare this dominion with them, but the republic would never admit of it; and in the year 1535, commiſſioners on both ſides met at Friuli, to decide this important queſtion; where two advocates, Rapicio for the emperor, and Chizzola for the ſtate of Venice, learnedly diſputed this matter. After a full hearing, and ſeveral weighty arguments too long to be inſerted here, the imperial commiſſioners acknowleged, that by the native force and evidence of the learned Chizzola's diſcourſe, they were perſuaded in their conſciences that the commonwealth of Venice was the undoubted miſtreſs and protectreſs of the Adriatic Gulph, and might there impoſe what cuſtom ſhe thought convenient. Than which declaration nothing could be more glorious for the republic of Venice, as being an acknowlegement paid her by the agents of the greateſt power in Europe: nor can any thing be a better proof of the dominion of the ſea in them. Which makes good the argument of his Britannic Majeſty's ſovereignty: for there is not one reaſon urged by Chizzola in behalf of the Venetians ſovereignty of the Adriatic, but will ſerve to vindicate the right of the crown of Great-Britain to the dominion of the Britiſh Seas, of which ſee the article SEA BRITISH.

The Venetians are not the only nation who have pretended to dominion at ſea. The

TUSCANS and GENOESE

Have done the ſame. The Great Duke of Tuſcany is generally acknowleged to be the lawful lord and ſovereign of the Tuſcan Sea. To maintain which ſovereignty, he has built ſeveral forts and caſtles there, to which ſuch foreign ſhips as arrive before them, are obliged to pay thoſe marks of reſpect, that by the laws of the country are eſtabliſhed.

The Genoeſe were formerly very conſiderable at ſea, eſpecially in the time of cruſades, when, though rather by policy than power, they were ſuperior in the Eaſt to the Venetians. And before the Engliſh and Dutch fell into the Perſian and Turkiſh trade, Venice and Genoa were the only marts and ſtaple ports of Chriſtendom, for all the precious commodities of thoſe countries.

The hiſtories of Italy ſhew us how likely the Genoeſe were once to reduce the commonwealth of Venice. Their fleet beſieged the city of Venice, and their admiral Doria triumphed in the Adriatic about the year 1300; but the Venetians afterwards recovered their naval power, and followed the Genoeſe ſo cloſely, that they broke theirs. However, the city of Genoa is ſtill much frequented by foreign merchants; and according to Benedictus Bonius, lib. de Cenſibus, artic. 16. §. 40. Genoa is the lawful ſovereign of the Liguſtic Sea, and this ſtate always keeps a certain number of armed gallies, and other ſhips for the defence of their right and title to that dominion. The

PISANS

Were alſo very conſiderable in the Mediterranean Sea, about 400 years ago, and once a match for the Genoeſe; but they ſoon loſt their reputation, and ſince the city has been annexed to the Great Duke of Tuſcany's dominions, its trade is ſunk, and Leghorn is now the only flouriſhing port in Tuſcany. The

POPE

Pretends alſo to the ſovereignty of the ſea, which bears the name of the Church's Sea, as is proved by the very words of the bull Cœnæ Domini; which, among other delinquents, excommunicates and anathematizes all rovers, pirates, and robbers, haunting and infeſting our ſea, and eſpecially that part of it which lies between the mountain Argentaro and Sarracius. The

SPANIARDS

Have ſometimes thought fit to ſpeak favourably of the community of the ſea; yet when it was for their preſent purpoſe, they have as ſeverely maintained the particular dominion of it as any other nation; and notwithſtanding, that by the common law of Caſtile, the uſe of the ſea is free, yet many of their moſt eſteemed lawyers have declared in expreſs terms, not only that, according to their opinion, the ſea is capable of dominion, but that ſuch a dominion was acquired by their king: and ſo the prince may grant any man a permiſſion to fiſh in any certain part of the ſea, ſays Gregarias Lopez ad Alphonſinas, Partid. 3 tit. 28. l. 11. Nor muſt we forget that ſeveral German authors in the titles of Charles V. emperor and king of Spain (and particularly in the preface to the conſtitution concerning public judicatures in the empire) ſtile him KING OF THE CANARY ISLANDS, AND OF THE ISLANDS AND CONTINENT OF THE INDIES, AND OF THE OCEAN, &c.

By which, though he was not really ſo, it ſufficiently appears they did not queſtion the lawfulneſs of a dominion in the ſea. As to the

PORTUGUEZE,

They are, above all others, obſtinate maintainers of this doctrine of the lawfulneſs of a dominion and propriety in the ſea, as will ſufficiently appear by the uſual title of their kings. And particularly king Emanuel, in his preface to the laws of Portugal, ſtiles himſelf, DOM MANUEL, PER GRACE DE DEOS, REY, &c. SENHOR DE GUINEE, ET DA CONQUISTA, &c. NAVIGACAM ET COMMERCIO D'ETHIOPIA, ARABIA, PERSIA, ET DA INDIE, &c.

Where he pretends to be ſole lord of the navigation and trade of Ethiopia, Perſia, &c. But all this is nothing in compariſon to what is found in the body of the laws of Portugal, concerning the pretenſions of that nation to the ſole dominion, even of the vaſt Atlantic ocean itſelf: for among the ſaid laws, O quinto libro des Ordonaconnes, tit. 112. there is a moſt poſitive and abſolute prohibition to any perſon whatſoever, whether native or ſtranger, in any ſhip or veſſel, to paſs to the countries, lands, and ſeas of Guinea and the Indies, either upon occaſion of war or commerce, or for any other reaſon whatſoever, without the king of Portugal's ſpecial licence and authority, under pain of death and confiſcation of all effects, to be inflicted upon all ſuch perſons as ſhould preſume to go thither in contempt of the prohibition.

Purſuant to this law, ſeveral perſons who fell into the hands of the Portugueze, were put to death; and it extended to foreigners as well as the king's own ſubjects, though the former never acknowleged his pretended title to the dominion of the Atlantic and Southern Sea, which gave occaſion to a very warm diſpute between our queen Elizabeth and Don Sebaſtian king of Portugal. But the matter then in queſtion was not, whether king Sebaſtian was capable of becoming lawful ſovereign of thoſe ſeas, but whether he had acquired ſuch a dominion by right of occupation, or otherwiſe, which it was plain he had not. If we look into the hiſtories of the northern nations, we ſhall alſo find that ſeveral of them have demanded dominion at ſea; as the

DANES, NORWEGIANS, SWEDES, and POLANDERS.

Before Denmark and Norway became united under one monarch, the Norwegians had a ſeparate ſovereignty in the ſea, as well as the Danes. Saxo Grammaticus, in the 7th book of his Hiſtory of Denmark, writes, That in the time of Harald Hildeland, king of Denmark, none durſt preſume to uſurp any privilege or dominion in the Daniſh Seas, becauſe the empire of the land and ſea was the ſame in Denmark. He adds, that Olo, who ſucceeded his father in both dominions, vanquiſhed all ſuch as pretended in any manner to infringe his ſovereignty therein. In the year 1582, Frederic II. king of Denmark and Norway, permitted and lett out the paſſage and uſe of the Norwegian Sea to the Engliſh Muſcovy company, in the ſame manner as if he had rented out a piece of land.

The SWEDES are of the ſame opinion, with regard to the dominion of the ſea, as very plainly appears by the treaty concluded between Chriſtiern IV. king of Denmark, and Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden; in which the latter entirely renounced the ſovereignty formerly claimed by him over the ſeas of Norway, Norland, and the juriſdiction of Warbhuyſen.

All merchants concerned in the Baltic trade, know very well what

what great revenues the king of Denmark raiſes out of the royalties of that and the Norwegian Sea.

As to the POLES, we find by Januſzowſkius Syntazma of the ſtatutes of that republic, lib. 3. tit. 10. fol. 109. that when Henry duke of Anjou was king of Poland, the French ambaſſadors agreed that the ſaid moſt illuſtrious prince then choſen, as ſoon as he ſhould aſſume the government of his kingdom, ſhould, at his own charge, maintain a navy ſufficient for the defence of the ports, and of the ſovereignty of the ſea belonging to the kingdom and dominions of Poland.

The FRENCH.

Though the French have ſometimes, in oppoſition to the ENGLISH, declared for the community of the ſea, yet it is very certain they have pretended to the dominion of it, and even of part of the Britiſh Seas. Charondos Caronæus, in Not. ad Cod. Henrici III. lib. 20. tit. 7. Conſtit. 1 and 28. ſays, The king is ſovereign of the ſeas which flow about his kingdom, becauſe the univerſal right of all things common by the laws of nature and nations, is transferred into his dominion. With which aſſertion agree ſeveral paſſages of Stephanus, Paſchaſius, Ludovicus, Servinus, Popellenerius, and others.

They pretend to derive a title to the ſea that flows about the coaſt of Britany, from the poſſeſſion of that continent, which they allege had once a ſovereignty in the ſea; for the proof of which they inſtance one Rotlandius, mentioned by Eginhart in his life of Charlemagne. He is there ſpoken of as governor of that ſhore, where they affirm it was uſual to exact a certain cuſtom of ſhips that navigated there; whereas that cuſtom was only a ſort of pilotage or conduct-money, which was principally paid by the inhabitants, or at moſt by ſuch only as traded upon the coaſt, for pilots to conduct them ſafe from the ſhore of Bretagne, which is very dangerous.

That this was the nature of that exaction is plain, by the account Bertandus Argenterus gives of its origin, in his book ad Conſuet. Brit. art. 46. where he ſays, the ancient kings of Britany, conſidering the frequent ſhipwrecks that happened upon that rocky ſhore, which then was almoſt deſtitute of havens, made a law, that none ſhould go to ſea without taking guides and paſſes, for which they paid a certain ſum, called in Bretagne, to this day, droit de ſalvage.

The French kings have been ſo far from diſowning the ſea is not capable of dominion, that they have uſurped a ſovereignty which does not belong to them, by pretending to that part of the Britiſh Seas: for Henry II. and Henry III. publiſhed two edicts, requiring all foreign ſhips navigating in the neighbouring ſeas, and meeting with any of their ſhips, to ſtrike their top-ſails, in acknowlegement of their pretended ſovereignty; which edicts they endeavoured to get the convention of States to confirm, but never could effect it: on the contrary, the latter of them was declared void, and of no effect in law, in a notable caſe, in which ſome Hamburgh merchants were plaintiffs, againſt Mich. Butardus and other defendants, before an aſſembly of the States of that kingdom, held at Tours by Henry IV.

We ſhall not in this place anſwer the vain arguments brought by the French authors, to prove their king's title to the ſovereignty of the ſea flowing about their coaſts: for by aſſerting and proving that there can be no legal dominion of any part of the Britiſh Sea, but what is veſted in the crown of Great Britain, all the French pretend to the contrary will be at once deſtroyed, and appear to be groundleſs. See our article SEA BRITISH. Having taken notice of the dominion of the ſea claimed by the nations of Chriſtendom, we muſt now obſerve what naval ſovereignty the

TURKS

Pretend to in the Levant. The Grand Signior, ſucceeding by right of conqueſt to the ſea dominion of the emperors of Conſtantinople, changed the name of the Egean and Euxine, into thoſe of the White and Black Seas, of which he in a very ſolemn manner ſtiles himſelf lord. This is particularly remarkable in the league concluded at Paris, the 20th of March, 1604, between Henry IV. of France, and Achmet the Ottoman emperor; by which, Achmet granted the French liberty to fiſh, and ſearch for coral, in certain ſtreights and bays upon the coaſt of Africa, ſubject to the Sultan. Beſides this, Coriolanus Cippicus, in his hiſtory of Pietro Mocenigo, ſays, The Turks had built two very ſtrong caſtles, oppoſite to one another, on both ſides the Helleſpont, at its narroweſt paſſage, which being well provided with ordnance and ammunition, the governors had orders to ſink all ſhips that ſhould attempt to paſs without the permiſſion of the Grand Signior. See the article ROMANIA in Turkey.

As to the opinion of the DUTCH in relation to the ſovereignty of the ſea, they, as well as the Hanſeatic towns, have declared for a community of the ſea; but that is becauſe they once being the greateſt traders in the world, got more by that community than any other people, and have very little to pretend to by a ſea dominion. Whatever their real ſentiments are, they ſeem to be againſt any ſuch ſovereignty. But what is their oppoſition to right, reaſon, and the practice of almoſt all countries and ages?

The HANSEATIC TOWNS, in a diſpute about the Venetians aſſerting the ſovereignty of the Adriatic Sea, urged by their advocates, that Inter res communes, utl ipſe imperator numerat mare, & ideo nemo in mari piſcari aut navigare prohibitur, & adverſus inhibentem competit Actio Injuriarum, l. 10. ſiquis in mare, l. Injuriarum, ſect. ult. de Injuriis. Sin littora quoque communia ſunt, l. 2. re diverſ. Quia acceſſorium ſunt mercis, & acceſſorium ſequitur naturam principalis, l. 2. de Peculio Legat. c. Acceſſorium de Reg Juris 6. Ad littus maris igitur accedere quivis poteſt, non piſcandi tantum gratia, ſed etiam ædificandi & occupandi cauſa. l. quod in Litt. de Acquir. rer. Dom. l. in Lit. ne quid in loc. pub. Jo. Angelius J. C. de Repub. Hanſiat. par. 6. fol. 85. edit. Francof. An. Dom. 1641. But theſe arguments were eaſily anſwered by the Venetian lawyers, Quemadmodum communi littorum reſtringitur ad populum æquo occupata ſunt, lib. 3. ſect. Littora D. de quid in loc. pub. Ita etiam communia maris, adeo ut per mare a nemine occupatum, navigatio ſit omnino libera; per mare autem occupatum ab aliquo principe liberam habeant navigationem, qui ſunt illi principi ſubjecti; alii vero eatenus, quatenus idem princeps permittit. Julius Tacitus de Dom. Maris Adriatici.

The infringements the Hollanders have made on the dominion of the Britiſh Sea, have coſt them dear; but now the two nations are ſo nearly allied by intereſt, it is to be hoped they will rather help us in maintaining that juſt dominion, than ever think of abridging any part of it; ſince it will appear, under our article SEA BRITISH, that the ſovereignty and dominion of the Britiſh Seas are the ſole and undoubted prerogative of the king of Great-Britain.

REMARKS.

Our reaſon for introducing this article, which aſſerts and proves a right to the dominion of the SEA, is, in order not only to vindicate and maintain, in its proper place, this nation's right of ſovereignty in the Britiſh Seas, on which the preſervation of our fiſheries, &c. depends, but to confront a late certain French writer, who has endeavoured to ſubvert thoſe principles, with a view to pave the way ſome time or other, we may preſume, to ſome intended encroachments and uſurpations of his Grand Monarque on the Britiſh rights of navigation. The author to whom I allude is Monſieur Deſlandes, in his Eſſay on Maritime Power, publiſhed during the late war. This gentleman was encouraged to write this eſſay by the count de Maurepas, who had the care of the French marine. The deſign in writing it is pretty evident; that miniſter has been long endeavouring to inſpire the councils of that country with an ardent paſſion of retrieving the naval power of France, and ſetting it again on the foot upon which it ſtood in the reign of Lewis XIV. In order to bring this gradually to bear, the count de Maurepas, from time to time, cauſed ſeveral treatiſes to be written and publiſhed on navigation and commerce, in ſuch a method as was moſt likely to ſtimulate the pride, and excite the jealouſy, of the French nation; and in juſtice to the learned and judicious author, I think it in many reſpects a very ingenious and maſterly performance of its kind, notwithſtanding I am about to cenſure the following paſſage, which is as follows, viz. 'I think it proper 'to obſerve, ſays this excellent writer*, that moſt of the 'ſtates of Europe have been for appropriating to themſelves 'the ſovereignty of ſuch ſeas as waſh their coaſts, and ex-'cluding others the uſe of them. As for France, incapable 'of giving into ſo vain a notion, ſhe has always ſupported 'her right of navigating ſhips in ALL SEAS; and the king 'of Denmark having dared, in 1637, to diſturb ſome veſſels 'that were employed in the whale-fiſhing on the coaſt of 'Greenland, Lewis XIII. cauſed him to be informed, by 'count d'AVAUX, his ambaſſador, that ALL SEAS were 'open to his ſubjects, and that he was able to maintain them 'in the poſſeſſion, of which he would ſuffer no body to 'doubt. And it is, indeed, one of the firſt principles † in 'the

* To confirm what he urges upon this head, he has the following note: 'To be perſuaded, ſays this gentleman, be-'yond all poſſibility of doubt, that there is nothing more 'frivolous, or worſe founded, than theſe ſort of preten-'ſions, one need only read two excellent works compoſed 'upon this ſubject, the one by the learned HUGO GRO-'TIUS, under the title of MARE LIBERUM; the other by 'THEODORE GRASWINCKEL, advocate fiſcal of the do-'maines of the States of Holland, under the title of MA-'RIS LIBERI VINDICIÆ.'

† This learned author diſcovers here no ſmall prejudice in favour of his country; he ought certainly, in juſtice, to have mentioned

mentioned the book written in anſwer to Grotius, by our learned SELDEN, under the title of MARE CLAUSUM, SEU DE DOMINIO MARIS, LIBRI DUO, LONDINI, 1636, 8vo; and his anſwer to the other book cited by our author: in which two works he has fully proved, that a RIGHT may be acquired over the SEA, that ſuch a RIGHT has been acquired over OUR SEAS by our anceſtors, and that it has always been ſubmitted to by our neighbours, nay, that our kings have granted commiſſions to hear complaints, even againſt the FRENCH king for injuries done at SEA. We ſay, our learned SELDEN has proved all this as fully as any thing can be proved by reaſon, authority, or evidence; and to his treatiſes, therefore, we refer the Engliſh reader, for full ſatisfaction on this head.

'the law of nature, as eſtabliſhed by our old lawyers, MARE 'COMMUNE OMNIUM EST, ſay they, & LITORA, SICUT 'AËR, & EST SÆPISSIME RESCRIPTUM, NON POSSE 'QUEM PISCARI PROHIBERI: i. e. The ſea is common 'to all, and ſo are its coaſts; and it is often ſet down as 'law, that no body has a right to prohibit fiſhing in them.
'LEWIS XIV. puſhed his authority ſtill farther, and em-'ployed it not only in favour of his ſubjects, but alſo of his 'allies: for the king of England, Charles the Second, in-'clining to diſturb the Hollanders, and even French, in 'fiſhing in the channel, or along the coaſt of Flanders, 'LEWIS XIV, in 1661, charged the count D'ESTRADES, 'his ambaſſador, to tell him, That he was in the wrong to 'extend his prohibition of fiſhing, to the prejudice of com-'mon right, which gave that liberty to all the world; that 'beſides the intereſt he had in this, in reſpect to his own 'ſubjects, he could not help aſſiſting, in this caſe, the 'Dutch, his allies, or refuſe them his interpoſition, having 'a maritime force, ſufficient to render him not afraid of be-'ing oppoſed in this reſpect by any prince in the world*.'—'Such were the terms, continues Monſieur Deſlandes, in 'which this prince expreſſed himſelf, who having had the 'aſſiſtance of good councils, knew how to render himſelf 'powerful in ſhipping, and formidable at ſea.'—However, as a more ſatisfactory anſwer to what this learned Frenchman has ſuggeſted in regard to this matter, we ſhall refer to the article following.

* This is another very indifferent proof of the French independency at SEA. They engaged in war with us, in conjunction with the DUTCH, with no other view than they afterwards engaged in a war on our ſide, againſt the DUTCH, to make the maritime powers weaken each other, and to gain ſtrength and experience at our coſt. If there was any weight in count D'ESTRADES's declaration, in favour of the DUTCH right to fiſhing on our coaſt without our permiſſion, it was certainly taken away, by the FRENCH king's joining with us in a war againſt HOLLAND; among the cauſes of which, this was one, that they had FISHED in our SEAS without leave: ſo that if the FRENCH king's authority could avail any thing in this caſe, here it is on both ſides.

SEA BRITISH. The ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas, maintained and aſſerted to have always been, and ſtill continues to be, the undoubted right of the kings and queens of Great-Britain.
We ſhall firſt ſettle the bounds of the Britiſh Sea. The eaſtern and ſouthern coaſts of Britain are waſhed by the German Ocean, and that which Ptolemy calls particularly the Britiſh Sea, and which according to Mela, in his treatiſe de Situ Orbis, lib. ii. cap. 3. reaches as far as the northern coaſt of Spain. And the Arabian geographer, (Clim. 4. part 1.) ſays, Towards the North Andaluſia, by which name the Arabians comprehend all Spain, is waſhed with the Engliſh Sea; adding, there are nine ſtages from Toledo to St James's, which place he ſays (Clim. 5. part. 1.) is ſituated on a promontory of the Engliſh Sea. St James's is a town in the province of Galicia. On the weſt ſide of Britain lies the Vergivian Sea, which, where it waſhes the coaſt of Scotland, takes from thence the name of Deucaledonian Sea: of this Vergivian Sea, the Iriſh, or St George's Channel, is a part. Upon the north of Britain flows the Caledonian Sea, in which are ſituate the Orcades. Thus the Britiſh Sea, or the channel lying between England and France, the Vergivian, the Deucaledonian, and the Caledonian Seas, are properly called the Britiſh Seas, and, as ſuch, are ſubject to the Britiſh empire.
Hugo Grotius, in the ſecond book of his treatiſe of Peace and War, chap. 3. §. 11. ſpeaking of the ſea, has theſe words: 'The bare poſſeſſion of the ſhore is not ſufficient to intitle 'any people to a right to the adjoining ſea: nor is it enough 'for a prince to imagine, or write himſelf lord of the ſea, 'without proclaiming himſelf by ſome OVERT-ACT to be 'ſo.'—By which he certainly means, that it is not from a bare occupation or poſſeſſion of the neighbouring land, but from an actual and peculiar uſe and enjoyment of the ſea itſelf, and exerting all the functions of a ſovereign upon it, ſuch as preſcribing rules of navigation to thoſe that frequent it, puniſhing delinquents, protecting of others, and receiving from all that homage and advantage due to every lawful ſovereign, that ſufficient arguments can be derived for proving a lawful title to the dominion of it. Now, if we make it appear, that the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh Sea was at firſt acquired, and ever ſince aſſerted, in the very manner ſpecified by that author, though he wrote againſt it, we hope there will be no room for objection, by which the argument can be invalidated.
Before we proceed further, it may be proper to obſerve, that the extent of the Britiſh dominions in the Eaſtern and Southern Seas was ſettled by a treaty concluded in the year 1674, between king Charles II. and the States-General; by which it was to reach from the middle point of the land Vanſlaten in Norway to Cape Finiſterre. The dominion of the ſea intitles the lawful poſſeſſors to the ſix following prerogatives.
(1.) The royalty of granting the liberty of fiſhing for pearl, coral, amber, and all other ſuch precious commodities.
(2.) To grant licences to fiſh for whale, ſturgeon, pilchard, ſalmon, herring, and all other ſorts of fiſh whatſoever, as is uſual in Spain, Portugal, and ſeveral other places.
(3.) To impoſe tribute and cuſtom on all merchants ſhips, and fiſhermen fiſhing and trading within the limits of the ſea that is ſubjected to any particular dominion.
(4.) The regular execution of juſtice for protecting the innocent, and puniſhing the guilty for all crimes committed within the extent of ſuch ſea dominion.
(5.) To grant free paſſage through any ſuch ſea to any number of ſhips of war belonging to any other prince or republic, or to deny the ſame, according to circumſtances and occaſion of ſuch paſſage, in the ſame manner as any prince or ſtate may grant or deny free paſſage to the foreign troops through their territories by land, even though the prince or ſtate to whom ſuch ſhips or land forces belong be not only in peace, but in alliance, with the prince or republic of whom paſſage is deſired.
(6.) To demand of all foreign ſhips whatſoever within thoſe ſeas, to ſtrike the flag, and lower the topſail, to any ſhips of war, or others, bearing the colours of the ſovereign of ſuch ſeas.
All which prerogatives do unqueſtionably belong to the kings and queens of Great-Britain. And although the duty of the flag is but an indifferent honorary ceremony, yet it is a ſignificant acknowlegement that the abſolute ſovereignty of the ſeas in which the colours are required to be ſtruck, is veſted in the prince to whom that duty is paid. And ſuch is the high regard that the Britiſh nation puts upon the execution of this ceremonious homage, that a contempt thereof, according to the marine laws, is puniſhable as open rebellion or high treaſon.
That this acknowlegement was always taken for a confeſſion of the abſolute ſovereignty of the Engliſh Seas, appears by a memorable record among the marine laws, about the end of the reign of king John, viz. * 'That if a lieutenant in any 'voyage be ordained by common council of the kingdom, 'do encounter upon the ſea any ſhips or veſſels, laden or un-'laden, that will not STRIKE AND VEIL THEIR BON-'NETS, at the commandment of the lieutenant of the king, 'but will fight againſt them of the fleet, that, if they can 'be taken, they be reputed as enemies, and their veſſels, ſhips 'and goods taken and forfeited as the goods of enemies, 'though the maſters or poſſeſſors of the ſame would come 'afterwards, and allege that they are the ſhips, veſſels, and 'goods of thoſe that are friends to our lord the king; and 'that the common people in the ſame be chaſtized by the 'impriſonment of their bodies for their rebellion, at diſ-'cretion.'

* Inter Leg. Marina, ſub fine anni regni Henrici Secundi le Ordinance called Haſtings.

The claim of this Britiſh ſovereignty at ſea has the ſanction of no leſs than 17 or 18 centuries to countenance and uphold the like uninterrupted practice; and even ſo long ago as Cæſar's time the Britons aſſerted and maintained the like dominion, as may be ſeen in his commentaries, liv. iv. where he ſays*, 'That before his deſcent in Britain, having ſummoned 'the merchants and other ſeafaring Gauls together, and 'made a diligent enquiry concerning the ſituation of the 'Britiſh ſhore and ports, he found that none dared to croſs 'the ſeas to go into Britain, without permiſſion, but mer-'chants, and that they too were ſo ignorant of thoſe ſhores '(as being deprived of a free uſe of the ſea) that he was 'obliged to ſend Voluſenus, in a long ſhip, to ſound the Bri-'tiſh coaſts.' Whence it may be rationally inferred, that ſince the ancient Britons excluded the Gauls and others, at their pleaſure, from the free enjoyment of the ſea, they muſt certainly have been the lords of it. And that this was not a bare prohibition of coming into the iſland of Britain, but even of navigating within the extent of their maritime dominion, is plain from hence: that the merchants themſelves, who were allowed to go thither, ſeem to have only had the liberty of coming to an anchor, and diſpoſing of their goods upon the coaſts, without being admitted into the ports but

* —— quæ omnia ferè Gallis erant incognita. Neque enim temere præter mercatores, illò adit quiſquam; neque iis ipſis quidquam, præter oram maritimam, atque eas regiones quæ ſunt contra Galliam, notum eſt, &c.

very ſeldom; ſince thoſe that Cæſar had ſummoned to conduct his navy into Britain, could not undertake to do it, as being entirely ignorant of the ſituation of their ports. If they were permitted to come to any place, it is conceived to be Gaul's Town, near Yarmouth. They had a naval force to defend this naval dominion, which when Cæſar ſaw, he preferred their ſhips to the Romans: theſe ſhips coming to the aſſiſtance of the Gauls were the occaſion of his expedition to Britain, to revenge himſelf for the ſuccours the inhabitants had ſent their neighbours, his enemies.

Julius Cæſar ſubdued only an inconſiderable part of the coaſt; nor did the dominion of the Britiſh ſea fall into the hands of the Romans 'till the reigns of the emperors Claudius and Domitian, who having conquered the ſouthern parts of the iſland, the empire of the ſea, at leaſt in proportion to that part which was conquered on the ſhore, did neceſſarily devolve upon the poſſeſſor of the land, and was actually reckoned a part of his dominion, as well by his ſubjects as by himſelf.

Though Claudius was the firſt of the Roman Emperors who had ſubjected the Britiſh Sea to his dominion, yet the Romans were not then ſo fully in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh Seas, as they were afterwards in the days of the emperor Domitian; who ſending Agricola to be his lieutenant in the province of Britain, this general extended the Roman conqueſts much farther toward the North, than any had done before him: he alſo ſailed round the land, diſcovered the Orcades or Orkney Iſlands, ſituate on the North of Scotland, and 'till then unknown; and having conquered them, the empire of the Northern Britiſh Seas was poſſeſſed by the Romans, as well as that of the Southern.

Seneca alſo witneſſes, That Agricola deſigning to make war upon the Caledonians, provided a powerful fleet to favour, by a mighty diverſion by ſea, the enterprizes of his army by land. The Romans having acquired the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas, committed the management of naval affairs here to a great ſea-officer called Archiguburnus, who had a numerous fleet under his command, with which he was ordered to aſſert and maintain the Roman dominion in the Britiſh Seas; but the Romans abandoning afterwards their conqueſts in the North, retired into the ſouthern parts of Britain; and we may ſuppoſe, as they loſt the dominion of the land in the North, ſo they were obliged to give up the ſovereignty of the ſea there, which naturally returned to the Britons.

We find little mention made of the affairs of the Romans in Britain, eſpecially thoſe relating to the ſea, 'till the reign of Diocleſian, who ſent C. Carauſius to ſcour the Britiſh Seas, which were infeſted with Gauliſh and Saxon pirates. This Carauſius afterwards uſurped here, and maintained the ſovereignty by ſea and land ſeven years. Caius Allectus, who killed him, coined a medal, having on one ſide his name and image (for he alſo uſurped) and on the reverſe a three-oared galley, with this inſcription, Virtus Auguſta; by which repreſentation, he meant to expreſs the force and greatneſs of the empire of the Britiſh Seas. Conſtantius Chlorus, who reduced him, is complimented upon it by ſeveral authors; who, among other things, highly extolled him for the reſtitution of the ſea dominion to the Romans, and of freedom of traffic and commerce to all nations, by ſcouring the ſea from pirates, not only upon the coaſts of Gaul, but even of Spain and Africa.

About the time of Conſtantine the Great, an officer was eſtabliſhed in Britain, by the name of count of the Saxon ſhore; who, beſides his command at land, had under his government the ſeas flowing between France, Holland, Germany, Denmark, and this iſland; and that not as a bound, but as a diſtinct part of the Britiſh empire, as there was a præfect of the Euphrates, a count of the Danube, a count of the Rhine, &c. By the Saxon ſhore it is very plain, that the ſhores of all the above-mentioned countries are meant, becauſe the Saxons, being then the moſt potent people in Germany, enlarged their conqueſts all along the coaſts of Germany, Holland, and France; which appears by the Breviary of the imperial dignities, where ſpeaking of that tract of land extending from the mouth of the Loire to that of the Seine, it is ſaid, under the command of the duke of that province, there was a tribune of the firſt band of ſoldiers of Armorica and Grammona, on the Saxon ſhore. And again, ſpeaking of that ſhore which extends from the Seine to the Maeſe, including Normandy, Picardy, and Flanders, it is ſaid, there were Dalmatian horſemen lodged upon thoſe borders on the Saxon ſhore: and in effect, all the ſhores extending from the weſtern parts of Denmark to the weſtern parts of France, are in the Brevia y moſt expreſsly comprehended under the general term of the Saxon ſhore; the count of which reſided in Britain, as the ſeat of the ſovereignty of all thoſe ſeas.

It is very certain the Saxons never ſeated themſelves in Britain, 'till after the Romans had abandoned the iſland. Some deſcents they might probably have made as pirates, but never poſſeſſed themſelves of any part of the country, 'till after king Vortigern called them in againſt the Picts; whereas they had ſettled on the coaſts of Gaul and Belgia; and the Saxon ſhore cannot, without committing a great abſurdity, be ſuppoſed to mean that of Britain, where the Saxons had not ſeated themſelves, but that of Belgia and Gaul, where they had; which coaſt by the Breviary is plainly proved to be the Saxon ſhore, under the count above named, who reſided, as has been ſaid, in Britain. And for a confirmation that Britain and the Saxon ſhore were two different juriſdictions, we ſhall here inſert a liſt of other governors and officers, that were under the command of the magiſter militum * preſentalis, according to the very words of the Breviary.

* In the edition of Alciatus and Pancirolus, the word militum is by a miſtake inſerted for limitum.

Sub diſpoſitione viri illuſtris magiſtri peditum preſentalis comites limitum infra ſcriptorum.

Italiæ, Africæ, Tingitanæ, tractus Argentoratenſis, Britanniarum, littoris Saxonici per Britannias.

About the year 450, the Romans having entirely abandoned Britain, the Britons reſumed the ſovereignty of the ſea as ſoon as they found themſelves in poſſeſſion of that of the land. But having been weakened by the frequent levies that the Romans made of ſoldiers here, to ſerve them in other parts of their empire, the Scots and Picts, to revenge themſelves for old quarrels, fell upon them, and forced them to call in the Saxons to their aſſiſtance, declaring they were not capable of aſſiſting them. The Saxons by treachery got poſſeſſion of ſeveral parts of the iſland, turned their arms againſt thoſe they came to aſſiſt, and new adventurers coming from Germany to Britain to make their fortunes here, the leaders of each colony founded a kingdom, and from the number of theſe monarchies, the famous name of Heptarchy was given to the ſovereignty of this iſland; to which the dominion of the Britiſh Seas was always a certain appendant, where the Britons, Saxons, or Danes, were maſters of the iſland. It is ſaid, Arthur ſailed with his victorious fleet and army as far as Ireland, forcing thoſe northern people to pay obeiſance to his ſtandard, and acknowlege him for ſupreme lord, even from the Britiſh to the Ruſſian ſhore. Though this, perhaps, is in the fable, yet it is plain it was the received opinion, that the Britons pretended even then to the ſovereignty of the ſea.

Having ſpoken of the maritime ſovereignty of the Britons and Romans, that of the Saxons and Danes comes next to be treated of. The Saxons, even at the time of their firſt arrival in Britain, were very powerful at ſea, and very expert in the art of navigation, as it was practiſed in thoſe days, which is proved by the character given them by Bede and other authors of credit; the Saxons, ſay they, were ſo familiarly and particularly acquainted with maritime affairs, that by an almoſt incredible nicety in their obſervations they counted months and years only by the continual revolution of the tide, or ebbing and flowing of the ſea; calling the former in their language ledones, or lidunas, and the latter malinas; and Ethelberd, an antient writer, ſeems to inſinuate in his firſt book, that the Britons being then informed the Saxons were a people very expert in navigation, and well provided with all things neceſſary for war, they were the more deſirous of their alliance: to whom they ſent ambaſſadors with conſiderable preſents, and offers of a free trade and commerce; that they came, conquered, and were themſelves conquered by the Danes, is related in our Engliſh hiſtories.

All that can be expected from us is, to report as much out of them as proves, that both Saxons and Danes, while they were maſters here, were in poſſeſſion of the dominion of the Britiſh Seas.

Gildas relates, that Octa and Ebiſſa, two leaders of the Saxons, extended their dominions on the northern coaſt of this iſland, and Allor, with his ſons Ciſſa and Cimenus, on the ſouthern; and that they became ſoon maſters of the ſeas to the ſouthward of Scotland. The former with forty armed veſſels ſailing about that kingdom, invading and ſpoiling the Orcades, but minding their ſovereignty at land more than at ſea, their naval ſtrength fell to decay; which the Danes and Normans obſerving, it was a temptation to them to infeſt this iſland, and commit frequent robberies in the Britiſh Seas, in a ſort of long-boats or gallies of their own invention, with which they uſed to be too hard for the Engl ſh Saxons, 'till Alfred cauſed a great number of other ſhips to be built longer, deeper, and nimbler than the Danes; by which means he drove thoſe invaders out of the Engliſh Seas, and recovered the abſolute dominion of them; which was tranſmitted to the ſucceeding kings, of whom EDGAR became powerful at ſea.

Edgar began his reign in 957, according to the Saxon Chronicle; and as to his fleet, it conſiſted of near 1000 ſail; and he did not coaſt round his kingdom once a year in one of the three ſquadrons, as ſome ſay, but each ſquadron carried him to the extent of its cruize, and then he embarked on board the other ſquadron; and in the year 973, he cauſed himſelf to be rowed over the River DEE by eight kings, while himſelf ſteered the helm; and in his titles, he conſtantly uſed this, of LORD OF THE BRITISH SEAS. This is a fact of much greater certainty than can be produced for any naval

power within this period of time; and therefore it deſerves our attention.

We may ſee, by an extract of an old record, how far king Edgar pretended to the ſovereignty of the ſea. Albitonantis Dei largiſlua qui eſt rex regum, ego Edgarus Anglorum Baſileus, omniumque rerum inſularum oceani quæ Britanniam circumjacent, cunctarumque nationum quæ infra eam includuntur, imperator & dominus *: and Randulph of Cheſter, though he does not ſwell the number to above 400 ſhips, makes mention of his ſailing round the iſland, Idem quoque Edgarus 400 naves congregavit, ex quibus omni anno poſt feſtum paſchæ 100 naves, ad quamlibet Angliæ partem ſtatuit; ſic æſtate inſulam circumnavigavit: but the Danes afterwards, as they had been before, were very ſucceſsful in their attempts againſt the Saxons here both by ſea and land.

* Ex. Chart. Fundam. Eccleſ. Wigorn.

Inſomuch, that the Engliſh or Saxon-Britons, were forced to buy them off: and a tax call Danegelt, was levied here, to be paid them that they might not aſſault the inhabitants of this iſland, either by land or ſea. The Saxons, or Engliſh, maintained the Daniſh fleet, which was to be employed for the defence and guard of the Engliſh Seas, as well as of the kingdom. Edward the Confeſſor aboliſhed this tribute, as far at leaſt as it was to be paid to the Danes: ſome authors ſay, that this tax was levied after the Engliſh threw off their ſubjection to the Danes, for the maintenance of the Engliſh navy, which was afterwards ſtrong enough to defend the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas, 'till the Norman invaſion.

Hence it appears, that the dominion of the ſea went with that of the land; and that in Edgar's time, the Engliſh Saxons enjoyed it without competitors, as they did alſo under Canutus the Dane; of whom it is written, that deſigning to check the vanity of flatterers, by ſhewing them, that even the greateſt kings were, at their higheſt pitch of grandeur, only men, ſat down on a ſeat on Southampton ſhore, to make a trial before them of the obedience of the ſea, to whom he thus addreſſed himſelf.

> Thou, O ſea! art under my dominion, as the ground upon which I ſit is mine, and none did ever diſobey me and was unpuniſhed. I command thee not to come up upon my land, nor to preſume to wet the feet or garments of thy lord. Matth. of Weſtminſter, anno 1035.

But the tide flowing in the ordinary manner, and wetting not only his Majeſty's feet, but his legs, the king leaping up reſigned his crown of gold to a crucifix, declaring none was worthy of the name of a king, but him alone, who can command both ſea and land, and they obey.

It can hardly be expected, that the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas ſhould be maintained without any intervals of invaſion by foreign powers, eſpecially in ſuch confuſed times as the Heptarchy, and the contention between the Engliſh and Danes; but it will be ſeen, that whenever the dominion of this iſland was ſettled, that of the ſea was always an appendant to it: and ſince the Norman invaſion, the kings of England have defended their ſovereignty againſt all foreign powers, and their dominion at ſea has been aſſerted and acknowleged, without any remarkable interruption, from the year 1066, to the preſent times: we ſhall now, therefore, prove, that the civil and natural poſſeſſion of the ſovereignty of the Engliſh Seas has been inveſted in the kings or queens of this nation, from the Norman invaſion to our times.

By a civil poſſeſſion (according to the explication of Hugo Grotius, in his treatiſe de Jure Civili, lib. 5.) we mean, That which is requiſite by law to found a right and title upon, and by a natural poſſeſſion we mean an actual poſſeſſion, which, according to the ſame author, is alſo neceſſary for proving the validity of any prince's title to the ſovereignty of the ſea: both of which we undertake to aſſert and maintain. As,

I. That the kings of England have, by many ſolemn overt-acts and declarations, aſcribed to themſelves the dominion of the adjacent ſeas; and that dominion has been both allowed and confirmed, not only by the laws and cuſtoms of the nation (as appears by the records of parliament, &c.) but alſo by the common and univerſal aſſent of all the neighbouring and other foreign nations concerned.

II. That the kings and queens of England have always exerciſed the dominion of the Engliſh Seas, as well as of the iſlands ſituate in them, as of a province belonging to them, in which they have levied tribute and cuſtoms of foreigners, and have alſo preſcribed laws of navigation to ſuch foreigners, as in time of peace have enjoyed their protection there, and that (in caſe of the violation of ſuch laws) foreign princes and ſtates, by making application to them, have thereby openly acquieſced and acknowleged them to be the ſovereign lords of the ſea.

III. That paſſage through the Engliſh Seas having been humbly deſired, has been ſometimes granted, and ſometimes refuſed, by the kings and queens of England, to the foreigners that petitioned for it; and alſo that all ſhips navigating in their ſeas, on certain occaſions, have been ſtopped and arreſted for the ſervice, and by the command, of the kings of England.

IV. That the liberty of fiſhing in the Britiſh Seas has been frequently obtained by licence of the kings and queens of Britain; and that protection has been given by them to the fiſhers, upon whoſe humble requeſt ſuch licence had been granted, and a tribute exacted for that protection.

To this ſhall be added ſeveral other corroborating evidences; but as for what happened from the Norman invaſion, to the union of the two crowns under James I. we ſhall not be ſo particular, as in what has fallen out ſince that time; becauſe that being of later date, will conſequently be of greater weight.

The order which we propoſe to obſerve, will naturally lead us to treat of the dominion of the Weſtern or Iriſh Sea, in diſcourſing of the eſtate of the maritime affairs of England, at the time that the ſovereignty of that ſea was added to that of the Engliſh, by the acceſſion of Ireland to the crown of England, under king Henry II. and king John, who conquered that iſland.

As to the dominion of the Northern or Caledonian and Deucaledonian Seas, we ſhall endeavour to evince, that it is the ſole and undoubted prerogative of his Britannic Majeſty, as a neceſſary appendant of the ſovereignty of the kingdom of Scotland, both which he has derived by an unqueſtionable right from his royal predeceſſors, the kings and queens of that country.

To begin with William the Norman, it appears by ſeveral paſſages in Doomſday-book, that he maintained the maritime affairs of England in a very flouriſhing ſtate. And other hiſtories ſpeak largely of his powerful navies, which, by the addition of the Norman fleet, muſt have been ſufficient to ſecure the dominion of the ſea; and though the Danes appeared in the northern parts, and committed ſome piracies in the weſtern, yet they dared not engage the royal navy of England; but what they performed was by ſtealth and ſurprize.

The Normans immediate ſucceſſors, William Rufus and Henry I. were as careful in maintaining their empire at ſea, as their father the firſt William had been. Florence of Worceſter and Hoveden relate, That being about to declare war againſt Robert duke of Normandy, who was then preparing for an exportation to England, he commanded his butſecarli, a ſort of ſea-officers then known by that name, to guard the ſeas, and take care that no perſon ſhould paſs over from Normandy towards the Engliſh coaſts. Beſides, this being a ſufficient proof of his ſtrength at ſea, the very office of theſe butſecarli proves, that he looked upon himſelf as lawful ſovereign of it; they being no other than Cuſtodes ipſius maris, or guardians of the Sea, as will be ſhewn more fully hereafter.

The confuſions that happened in Stephen's reign, hindered the growth of the Engliſh ſtrength at ſea; and, indeed, his dominion by land was rendered precarious, by the intereſt of Maud the empreſs, and her Son Henry II. in whoſe time, Ireland being conquered, the Weſtern Sea was added to the maritime empire of the kings of England; and that theſe kings have expreſsly vindicated and aſſerted their title to the dominion of thoſe ſeas, appears among other Iriſh ſtatutes, by an act made in the reign of Edward IV. ſtat. Hibern. cap. 6. forbidding fiſhing there without licences, and laying a tax on all boats and veſſels coming thither to fiſh: ſince which, king James I. did, by a ſolemn proclamation, poſitively forbid all fiſhing upon the Iriſh coaſts to foreigners, without permiſſion.

Many other inſtances might be given to prove, that the kings of England have, from time to time, aſſerted their right to the ſovereignty of the Iriſh, as well as of their other ſeas. Which warrants us, from the reign of king John, when Ireland was annexed to the crown of England, to reckon them a part of the Britiſh Seas; the empire of which we are now endeavouring to maintain, to be part of the ſovereignty of Britain.

King John, in the paſſage before cited, challenged the homage of the flag near 500 years ago, by that memorable ordinance at Haſtings, whereby this duty was required, not barely as a mark of courteſy, but as a matter of undoubted right, cum debita reverentia, and all that refuſed it were to be treated as enemies. This homage of the flag is a conſecutive acknowlegement, that the right and dominion of the ſeas are in him, to whoſe flag they ſtrike and pay that homage; implying, that the prince grants a general licence for ſhips to paſs through his ſeas, that are his friends, paying him that duty: like thoſe ſervices when lords grant out eſtates, reſerving a pepper-corn, or ſome ſuch trifle, the value of which is not regarded, but is only a ſignificant mark of the remembrance and acknowlegement of their benefactor's right and dominion. This ſalutation is to be paid, not only by foreigners, but alſo by natural-born ſubjects; and ſuch as refuſe to do it, may be brought to the flag to anſwer the contempt.

King John aſſerted his title to this homage, by a fleet of no leſs than 500 ſhips, in a voyage royal of his, when he ſailed to Ireland, commanding all veſſels, which he met in his way, to pay that duty and acknowlegement; and our ſucceeding kings

kings have done the ſame, with more or leſs vigour and ſucceſs according to the circumſtances of their affairs.

His ſon Henry III. was too much involved in his wars with the barons, to mind his naval dominion: but then Henry's ſon Edward I. coming to the crown about the year 1272, and entering into a war with Philip the Fair of France, both princes agreed upon a freedom of commerce (then called ſufferance of war) and each appointed commiſſioners to take cognizance of all things relating to this agreement, which they were to decide, according to the laws and cuſtoms of merchants, as far as it was allowed by the aforeſaid treaty of commerce.

When theſe two kings concluded a peace, they mutually obliged themſelves to be enemies to each others enemies, except ſome princes expreſsly mentioned in the treaty of peace and alliance*. But ſeveral complaints ariſing concerning injuries done, and violences offered to merchantmen upon that ſea, not only during the ſufferance, but after the peace; and the two kings foreſeeing the differences between the king of France and the earl of Flanders, might give occaſion to other complaints of that nature, they appointed each four commiſſioners, with full power to decide all controverſies of that kind that had happened, or might happen. Upon which a very remarkable remonſtrance was exhibited to them, not only in the name of the whole body of the people of England, but there alſo joined in it the procurators of all the nations in Europe, that were then in any manner conſiderable for trade and navigation, who all unanimouſly acknowledged the kings of England to have been time out of mind (quatenus kings of England) the LAWFUL SOVEREIGNS OF THE ENGLISH SEAS.

* Selden de Dom. Maris, l. 2. c. 14, 27, 28—Roll's 2 Parl. 174.

This is ſuch an authentic proof, that none can, with any colour of reaſon, object againſt it. The original writing is among the archives, kept in the Tower of London, in the old French or Norman tongue, in which it was then uſual to draw up ſuch ſort of inſtruments. The reader, perhaps, will not be diſpleaſed with a tranſlation of as much of it as relates to the preſent caſe.

'To you our lords, auditors, deputed by the kings of England and France, to redreſs the injuries done to their ſubjects, by ſea and land, in times of truce and peace; we the procurators of the prelates and nobles, and of the admiral of the Engliſh Sea, as well as of the cities and towns, and of the merchants, mariners, meſſengers, and foreign inhabitants, and all others belonging to the realm of England, and other dominions and territories belonging to the king of England; as alſo of divers other inhabitants of Genoa, Catalonia, Spain, Germany, Zealand, Friezland, Denmark, and Norway, and of ſundry other maritime places of the empire, moſt humbly ſhews: That whereas the kings of England, by right of the ſaid kingdom, have always been in peaceable poſſeſſion of the SOVEREIGN LORDSHIP OF THE ENGLISH SEAS, and of the ISLANDS ſituate within the ſame, with power of conſtituting and appointing of laws and ſtatutes, and of prohibiting the uſe of arms and paſſage of ſhips otherwiſe equipped than merchant-ſhips, and of taking ſecurity and granting protection, as occaſion ſhall require, and of appointing all other things neceſſary for the maintaining of peace, juſtice, and equity, among all manner of people, as well foreigners as their own ſubjects navigating in thoſe ſeas, and alſo of determining all cauſes and differences, and adminiſtering juſtice to high and low, according to the aforeſaid laws, ſtatutes, ordinances, conſtitutions, and prohibitions, and generally of doing and acting all other things incumbent and belonging to the exerciſe of their ſovereign juriſdiction within the aforeſaid ſeas; and whereas, &c.*'

* See Coke Inſtit. 142.

Though the Flemmings are not mentioned in this inſtrument, it appears in the records, Rot. Par. 14 Edw. II. part 2. membran. 26. that the ambaſſadors of the earl of Flanders to that king, fully acknowleged the undeniable right of the crown of England to the ſovereignty of the adjacent ſeas. The paſſage is this.

MEMORANDUM.

'That whereas for the reformation of certain injuries in an amicable way, done by the ſubjects of the earl of Flanders to the ſubjects of the kingdom of England, and by the ſubjects of the ſaid kingdom to thoſe of Flanders, ſince the time that our ſaid lord the king undertook the government of his kingdom, &c. And whereas the ſaid ambaſſadors had been admitted by our ſaid lord the king, to treat anew of this kind of injuries, theſe ambaſſadors or other ambaſſadors of the aforeſaid earl, in the aforeſaid treaties, did, among other particulars, that they required before all things, make ſupplication, that the ſaid lord the king, would at his own ſuit, by virtue of his royal authority, cauſe enquiry to be made, and do juſtice, about a certain depredation lately made by the ſubjects of England (as it is ſaid) upon the Engliſh Seas, of wines and divers other merchandizes belonging to certain men of Flanders, towards the parts of Cranden, within the territory and juriſdiction of our ſaid lord the king, alleging, that the aforeſaid wines and merchandizes taken from the ſaid Flemings, were brought within the juriſdiction and realm of the ſaid lord the king, and that it belonged to the king himſelf, ſo to do, for that he is LORD OF THE SAID SEA.

To theſe teſtimonies of the dominion of the crown of England in the neighbouring ſeas, we ſhall now add ſome other remarkable ones in the reign of Edward III. the originals of which are yet to be ſeen in the Tower of London: and the firſt is that king's commiſſion to Geofrey de Say, admiral of his Weſtern and Southern Seas, in which is this paſſage: 'We calling to mind that our progenitors, the kings of England, have in former times been LORDS OF THE ENGLISH SEAS on every ſide, and defended the ſame againſt all invaders; and conſidering, that it would extremely grieve us if (which God forbid) our royal honour ſhould, in any manner, be impaired, or ſhould ſuffer any diminution of this nature in our time, and deſiring,' &c. Nor was the commiſſion given at the ſame time to John de Norwich, admiral of the Northern Seas of England, in any manner different from that to Geofrey de Say.

There is yet another obſervation which may be made upon an action of the ſame Edward III. which is his coining of thoſe ancient pieces of gold called roſe nobles, in which he has been imitated by ſeveral of our kings of later date. Upon this piece is ſeen the repreſentation of a ſhip floating in the ſea, there being ſeated in the ſhip, as on a throne, a king armed with a ſhield, having a royal diadem on his head, and a ſword in his hand; by which, doubtleſs, that great prince intended to denote, that the Sovereignty of the Engliſh Seas belonged to him, nor was it ever ſubject to a maſter that defended it better. For king Edward III. is ſaid to have entertained 1100 ſhips of war, ſuch as were uſual in his time, for preſerving the freedom of the ENGLISH SEAS.

It is objected, indeed, that upon ſome pieces of money anciently coined in France, there were much the ſame figures, and that alſo ſome coins of Zealand bear the repreſentation of a lion riſing out of the ſea, &c. To which it is anſwered, That as to France, there was never any money coined there with theſe inſignia of the ſea, &c. except ſuch as were ſtamped by the kings of England, while they were in poſſeſſion of that country: and with reſpect to Zealand we ſhall allow, if ſhe pleaſes, her animal riſing unnaturally out of the ſea, to denote the ſituation of that iſland, but believe the owners will ſcarce pretend, that piece of money repreſents any dominion in the ſea. But there are innumerable other examples to prove, that the kings of England have always aſſumed, and aſcribed to themſelves, the dominion and ſovereignty of the adjacent ſeas; but the inſtances we have given are ſo full, that there will be no need of adding any more to them. And the taſk would be endleſs, if we ſhould attempt to cite all the paſſages out of our lawyers, that have ſupported this claim of the crown of England to the dominion of the BRITISH SEAS. There is one point univerſally known, and as univerſally acknowleged by all, viz. that in law theſe two phraſes intra regnum, within the kingdom, and intra quatuor maria, within the four ſeas, have one and the ſame ſignification; that is, that all the actions done within the limits of the Engliſh empire, in thoſe, are deemed to be done in England itſelf.

In the antient records concerning the cuſtom of the Admiralty, we read it was uſual in the time of Henry I. and of other kings of England, who reigned about the beginning of the 12th century, when any perſon accuſed of a capital crime committed at ſea, after being five times ſummoned by the public cryer, did not, within a certain limited time, make his appearance before the court of Admiralty, ſuch perſon or perſons were baniſhed out of England, and out of the SEAS belonging to the king of England, for a greater or leſs number of years, according to the pleaſure of the admiral. It was alſo formerly cuſtomary to enter actions in expreſs terms, concerning differences ariſing in thoſe ſeas, in the ordinary courſe of our common law.

However, the ſea province of the Engliſh empire does properly belong, according to the antient and received cuſtom of the kingdom, to the lord high admiral of England, or his deputies, not only with relation to its defence and ſafeguard, but to its government and juriſdiction, which the ſaid officers have always had cognizance of. As for the prerogative of the kings of England in conſtituting and appointing of naval laws, it is very ancient; for beſides what has been ſaid of our Saxon kings, Richard I. ſome years before his death, which happened in the year 1199, publiſhed the SEA LAWS, that to this day are famous by the name of the laws of Oleron [ſee the article OLERON's LAWS], which iſland he was then poſſeſſed of, and it is ſaid by ſome authors, he was then there. And ſince the king of England is univerſally acknowleged to have been the author of theſe laws, which have taken place ever ſince that time, it is to be ſuppoſed his right to give laws was univerſally allowed, or the making of them would have been impertinent, or of no uſe.

Edward I. prescribed a method to be observed for the more regular execution of those laws, as we find in the records of the Tower, de Superioritate Maris, and in the reign of his grandson Edward III. the judges of England were consulted, to the intent, 'That the form of proceeding, formerly instituted by Edward I. and his council, at the request of his subjects, might be resumed and continued for the better retaining and preserving the antient superiority of the seas of England, and the authority of the English Admiralty, in explaining and correcting the laws and statutes made by his progenitors the kings of England, for the maintenance of peace, and the administration of justice, to all nations and people navigating in the ENGLISH SEAS, and the taking cognizance of all attempts made against the liberties thereof, by punishing the guilty, and awarding satisfaction to the injured, according to the laws and ordinances made by the lord Richard, king of England, upon his return from the Holy Land, and declared and published in the aforesaid island of OLERON.' Which record proves sufficiently by whom, and where, the laws bearing the name of that island, were published.

The officers appointed by the kings of England for the management of maritime affairs, were the butsicarli, who were sometimes called guardians of the navy, and sometimes guardians of the sea. In the time of Henry III. authority to guard the Eastern Sea and shore was given to Thouron de Moleton, with the title of captain and guardian of the sea. Rot. Parl. 48 Henry III. numb. 3. & Rot. Claus. 48 Henry III. mem. 3. In the same prince's reign, Hugh de Crequeur is stiled warden of the Cinque Ports, and of the sea in those parts.

After him, in the year 1292, Edward I, dividing his fleet into three squadrons, gave the three officers commanding them the name of admirals; and the like command and character was given to three other such officers, in the time of his son and successor, Edward II; which prince being likewise succeeded by his son, Edward III, in his reign a parliament was called, to provide for the peace and security of the realm, by LAND and SEA. In the time of Richard II, Hugh Calverlee was made admiral of the sea, and so others, as appears by the general list of admirals; by which it is plain, provision was no less punctually made by the kings and parliament of England for the defence of the sea, than for the support of the government by land; and of what nature the commissions granted to those admirals were, may be seen by the form thereof, yet extant, of which we have transcribed as much as is necessary to express the extent of their jurisdiction in those days.

'We give and grant to N—— the office of our great admiral of England, Ireland, and Wales, and of the dominions and islands belonging to the same; also of our town of Calais, and our marches thereof, Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitain: and we made, appointed, and ordained, and by these presents we make, appoint, and ordain, him the said N—— our admiral of England, Ireland, and Wales, and our dominions and isles of the same, our town of Calais, and our marches thereof, Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitain: as also general governor over all our fleets and seas of our said kingdoms of England and Ireland, our dominions and islands belonging to the same. And KNOW YE further, that of our special grace, and upon certain knowlege, &c. we give and grant unto the said N——, our great admiral of England, and governor-general over our fleets and seas aforefaid, all manner of jurisdictions, authorities, liberties, offices, fees, profits, duties, emoluments, wrecks of the sea, regards, advantages, commodities, prehenninences, and privileges whatsoever, &c.

King Edward VI, in the third year of his reign, granted a commission to John earl of Warwick, his admiral, wherein he calls him 'Our admiral of England, Ireland, Wales, Calais, and Boulogne, and marches of the same, and of Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitain, as also governor-general of all our fleets and seas.'

From these forms of the commissions of our English admirals, for several ages past, we shall only infer, that the coasts of the transmarine provinces mentioned in the said commissions, are only inserted to denote the extent and limits of the sea that is thereby committed to their charge and protection; for either the names of the provinces of France inserted in these commissions must signify something or nothing: it is ridiculous to suppose they signify nothing; and if they denote any thing, it must be the bounds of our admiral's jurisdiction, for the following reasons.

I. It cannot be imagined the names of these provinces are there inserted in consequence of our king's pretensions to the crown of France, for then they would have given their admirals the title of admirals of England, France, &c. besides, the English were driven out of France, except Calais, and the English pale in Picardy, before the names of any of these provinces, Aquitain only excepted, were mentioned in the commissions of the admirals of England. By which it appears, II. That the kings of England only added the names of those provinces in their admirals commissions, for the better distinction of their boundaries: for while they possessed the maritime provinces of France, there was no necessity of mentioning them in their commissions, because the dominion of those seas belonged to them as kings of England, and not as dukes of Normandy, Aquitain, &c. but having been dispossessed of these, by adding them afterwards as bounds of the jurisdiction of their admirals, they intended to prevent all differences about the extent of their ancient dominion, as kings of England over the sea.

It appears by the instrument before mentioned, presented to the commissioners appointed by Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, to determine certain maritime differences, that, by the consent of all the trading nations in Europe, the kings of England had then been in peaceable possession of the dominion of the sea by immemorial prescription; that the sovereignty of the sea belongs to them, not because they were Domini utriusque ripæ, when they had both England and Normandy, and were lords of both shores: for Edward I, at that time, had not Normandy, but that it is inseparably appendant to the kingdom of England. Our kings being superior lords of the said seas, by reason, as the very record mentions, of the said kingdom; and since the sovereignty of the sea did always belong to the king of England, not in any other right than that of the kingdom, no prince or state ought, or can doubt, the title by which our present claim is deduced.

It is objected, That admirals were established many centuries ago in France, as well as in England. But this does not prove that they had the same power as the English admirals had; on the contrary, it is very evident that those officers were at first only occasional commanders of naval forces, on certain expeditions; and so far were they from pretending to any real jurisdiction in the sea itself, as belonging to the crown of France, that they were, in ancient times, for the most part foreigners and mercenaries, hired for some present service, for which we shall give a very unsuspected testimony, viz. that of Joannes Tillius, a clerk of the parliament of Paris, who in his second book de Rebus Gallicis says, 'The kingdom of France having been lessened by intestine divisions, and its kings reduced to narrow dominions by their potent vassals, (such as the kings of England, who possessed Normandy, Aquitain, and other countries, the dukes of Bretagne, the earls of Flanders, Provence, and Languedoc) and having for a long time no command in the sea, had consequently no occasion for admirals, 'till they undertook the expedition for the Holy Land, in which they made use of mercenaries, whom they hired of the Genoese, Spaniards, and other maritime nations expert in the art of navigation, with whom they agreed for the transportation of their forces,' &c. — Which appears to be very true, by the list of French admirals, where Engerenæus Concæus is the first that is said to have enjoyed that dignity, which was conferred upon him, according to Joannes Feronius, by Philip the Bold, king of France, about the year 1280. And Joannes Tillius makes the institution of that office of a later date; for, according to him, 'Amaurius, viscount of Narbonne, was first made admiral of France, about the year 1300: nor do the edicts and decrees of Charles V. and VI, Lewis XII, Francis I, Henry II. and III, and other French kings, concerning marine affairs, and the admiralty, seem to relate to any thing but to the goods and persons of the subjects of the crown of France, and of the enemies taken in time of war by them: for though the admirals of France be therein stiled our lieutenant-general, throughout the sea, and the shores thereof, yet that lieutenant-general, as they call him, never had any command over any part of the sea flowing between Britain and France, as a province, or dominion, belonging to his master the king of France, but only over the ships and naval forces of the said king passing through the British Seas, much in the same manner that any sovereign prince commands and governs the persons belonging to his own retinue, though in a foreign country, but without pretending to have any jurisdiction out of his own family, in that territory.'

As to the French kings having at the beginning, been in possession of Normandy, Picardy, and Flanders; (though it must be observed, that their kingdom was for a long time dispossessed of them), the possession of the shore, as we have already remarked out of Grotius, gives no title to the dominion of the sea flowing before it. And Julius Pacius de Domin. Maris Adriatici, writes, That the right to the sea arises not from the possession of the shores, for the sea and land make distinct territories. It is no more necessary that every sea-town should command 100 miles at sea, than that each city should command 100 miles by land.

By the laws of England, the land is called the REALM, but the sea the DOMINION; and as the loss of one province does not infer that the prince must resign up the rest; so the loss of the land territory does not, by concomitancy, argue the loss of the adjacent seas.

It appears further, that the office of admiral was at first occasional in France; for that, though all the great officers of the crown, as the constable, master of the horse, great master of the household, and others, have each their

particular

particular ſtation in the parliament of Paris; yet it was poſitively denied, in the time of Henry II, to Gaſpar de Coligni, admiral of France; and Henry of Montmerancy ſeemed to be convinced of the French admirals narrow juriſdiction, when, in the year 1612, cauſing a ſtatue to be erected at Chantilly, in honour of his father the duke of Montmerancy, he ſtiles himſelf only, in the inſcription, Navalis militiæ magiſter, or general of the militia by ſea, he being admiral of France. The poſſeſſion of the iſlands of Guernſey, Jerſey, and ſome other iſles on the coaſts of Normandy by the kings of England, is made uſe of as an argument to prove the extent of their dominion over the Channel, and that thoſe iſlands do not belong to them as an appendant or remainder of the duchy of Normandy; but it appears, by ſeveral treaties between the kings of England and other princes, that thoſe iſles are ſpoken of as belonging to the crown of England: and in the grant made of them by Henry V. to his brother John duke of Bedford, that prince was to enjoy the ſovereignty of them, without any recognition to be made to that king, or his heirs, notwithſtanding any prerogative of the crown for any other tenure held of him out of the ſaid iſlands, which may in any manner belong to the ſaid iſlands, caſtle, or dominions. And beſides it is certain, that Henry duke of Warwick was, by Henry VI, made king of thoſe iſlands, and of the Iſle of Wight. Now it is not probable that prince would have erected them into a kingdom, if he had not poſſeſſed them by a title ſuperior to that of an appendant of the duchy of Normandy.

Our kings have frequently forbidden hoſtilities between foreigners at war with one another, within ſuch diſtances from the ports and harbours of thoſe iſlands as to them ſeemed convenient: and we ſhall ſee, by a patent granted by Edward VI. to the inhabitants of Jerſey, that he gave them the privileges contained in it, from no other principle than as he was maſter of the BRITISH SEAS. This patent was confirmed by queen Elizabeth and king James I. By which 'all mer-'chants, natives or ſtrangers, and enemies as well as friends, 'are allowed, in time of war, freely, lawfully, and ſe-'curely, to ſail into and about, and frequent the ſaid iſland 'and the coaſts thereof, with their ſhips and goods, as well 'for ſhelter againſt foul weather, as upon any other lawful 'occaſions, and there to uſe free traffic and commerce, and 'to abide with all ſecurity and ſafety, and to come thence 'and return thither at pleaſure,' &c.

This dominion of the iſles on the coaſt of Normandy, and all the iſlands within the extent of the Britiſh Sea, is no inconſiderable proof of the ſovereignty of the kings of England over them.

That they had always a right of impoſing tributes for the protection given by them to foreigners within their ſeas, might be further evinced, from variety of other remarkable inſtances: we ſhall only inſert the following abſtract of the records of parliament, as it may be ſeen in the original Norman, Rot. Parl. 2 Rich. II. article 38. in ſchedula, of which the following articles are a tranſlation.

The merchants of London having been conſulted by the earl of Northumberland and the mayor of London, about the proper methods for the guard and defence of the NORTHERN ENGLISH SEAS, it was reſolved by the commons in parliament, That that ſea ſhould be guarded by two men of war, two barks, and two bilanders, armed for war, and exact of all ſhips as follows:

(1.) Of all ſhips and barks, of what burthen ſoever (except ſhips bringing goods from Flanders to London, or carrying wool or ſkins from London to Calais, which were alſo to pay for their convoy, if they required any) paſſing through the ſaid ſea, for the voyage going and returning, 6 d. per ton.

(2.) Of all fiſher boats fiſhing in that ſea for herring, 6 d. a week per ton.

(3.) Of all ſhips or boats fiſhing there for other ſorts of fiſh, 6 d. per ton every three weeks.

(4.) Of all Newcaſtle colliers, 6 d. per ton every three months.

(5.) Of all other ſhips and veſſels trading with Pruſſia, Norway, or any other of thoſe parts beyond ſea, for the voyage going and returning, 6 d. per ton.

Nor have the kings of England been contented with exacting tribute, as an acknowlegement of their dominion in the Britiſh Seas; they always obliged all foreigners paſſing through their ſeas to pay them ſuch other homages and tokens of ſubmiſſion, as are ſufficient to prove they acquieſced in the lawfulneſs of their title to that dominion. It was ever accounted even treaſon for any ſhip, of any nation whatſoever, to refuſe to acknowlege the ſovereignty of the kings of England, by ſtriking their colours, lowering their top-ſails, &c. or performing ſuch other ceremonies as have been required by the admirals, or captains, of any of the king's navies, or ſhips meeting with foreigners at ſea; and ſuch as refuſed ſo to do, forfeited ipſo facto, by that refuſal, all the privileges and rights to which they might otherwiſe be intitled as allies, and were puniſhable by the king of England, or his admirals, in the ſame manner as if they had committed a crime within the juriſdiction of his territories by land.

Theſe ceremonies, as we have ſhewn in the preceding pages, have been for many ages exacted by the Engliſh kings, with all imaginable rigour. By an article of the OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE LEAGUE, concluded between the French and Dutch, anno 1635, it was agreed, 'That if at any 'time the Dutch fleet (which, according to the league, was 'to ſcour the French coaſt in the Mediterranean from pi-'rates) ſhould meet with the French fleet, the Dutch ad-'miral ſhould, at his firſt approach to the French, ſtrike 'his colours and lower his top-ſail, and afterwards ſalute the 'French admiral with guns; which ſalutation the French ad-'miral was to return with guns only *.'—But even the duty of the flag there claimed by the FRENCH in the Mediterranean, is vaſtly inferior to that due to the ENGLISH in their ſeas, the firſt being only a bare token of reſpect, the refuſal of which could, at moſt, amount to no more than a breach of the league; whereas the homage paid to the ENGLISH being a real and fundamental prerogative of the crown, the contempt of it is, as has been ſaid, deemed to be open rebellion, and the contemners may lawfully be invaded in an hoſtile manner, according to the orders and inſtructions that are given to the admirals and commanders of the ENGLISH NAVIES and SHIPS.

* Leo ab Aitzmet Hiſt. Tract. Pacis Belg. pag. 177. edit. Lugd. Batav. 4. 1054.

Another point, in relation to the ſovereignty of the kings of England to the dominion of their ſeas, is the practice very much uſed of old by them, to extend their embargoes all over the BRITISH SEAS, and ſeize foreign ſhips paſſing there, as well as if they had been within their own harbours, and employing them in their own ſervice, as will appear by the following mandate, iſſued out by king John to this purpoſe.

'The king to all STUREMANNI (ſea captains and officers) 'and MARINELLI (mariners or ſea ſoldiers) and merchants 'of England uſing the ſea, greeting: KNOW YE, that we 'have ſent Alanus Juvo of Sorham, Walter Staltun, Vin-'cent of Haſtings, and Wimund of Winchelſea, with 'others of our barons of the Cinque Ports, &c. four faith-'ful STUREMANNI and MARINELLI of our gallies, to 'arreſt and ſafely bring into England all ſhips that they can 'find, with all that ſhall be found in them: and therefore 'we command you to be aiding to them in this buſineſs, 'ſo that ye be in England with your ſhips and goods at ſuch 'ports as they ſhall appoint: and if any ſhall attempt to 'reſiſt them, contrary to our command, YE our liege 'men are required to aſſiſt them with all your power, as 'you tender yourſelves and your chattels, and your quiet 'and reſidence, and that of all your kindred within our 'dominions.'

Much the ſame order was given by Edward III, to Thomas de Wenlock, vice-admiral of his weſtern fleet, to ſeize and arreſt all ſhips for his immediate ſervice. However, a competent hire was always allowed for ſhips ſo impreſt, according to their burthen, and the number of their hands.

That it was cuſtomary for the kings of England to grant paſſports, or ſafe-conducts, to ſuch foreigners as deſired liberty to paſs through their ſeas, may alſo be ſufficiently proved, out of the records of parliament, where will be found the conditional clauſe of ſuch paſſports, 'That the 'perſons who had obtained them ſhould not convey, or 'cauſe any thing to be conveyed, nor in any manner re-'lieve nor impart any thing to be conveyed, nor in any man-'ner relieve nor impart any thing to the king's enemies in 'France.' And in Edward the Firſt's time it was always a peculiar injunction laid upon his ſea commanders, That they ſhould take ſpecial care to vindicate and maintain the ſovereignty which his predeceſſors, the kings of England, were wont to have in the SEA, concerning the explication and amendment of the laws, which had been by them inſtituted for the government of all nations and people navigating in the Engliſh Seas; than which nothing can more explicitly demonſtrate that they poſſeſſed the dominion of them.

In a paſſport granted by Henry IV. of England, to Farrando Urtis de Sarachione, a Spaniard, that king permits him to ſail freely from the port of London through his kingdoms, dominions, and juriſdictions, to the town of Rochelle. And what can be meant by DOMINIONS and JURISDICTIONS here, but thoſe of the ſeas flowing between London and Rochelle? And the ambaſſadors of Charles VI. of France, and Robert III. of Scotland, in the paſſports they obtained of the ſame king Henry, are therein allowed free paſſage through all the places, territories, and dominions, under his power, by ſea as well as by land: whereas the paſſports granted by ſeveral kings of France to the embaſſadors of the kings of England, only run thus:

'P——, by the grace of God, king of France, to all our 'governors and ſubjects, greeting,' &c.

The reaſon of which muſt certainly be this, that the king of England being himſelf lord of the ſea, there was no neceſſity that the kings of France ſhould ſecure them within the bounds of their own juriſdiction; which John king of Sweden ſeems very well to underſtand, when in his letter to queen Elizabeth, in the year 1587, he deſires leave for

Olaus Wormæus, one of his ſubjects, to paſs through her Majeſty's SEA DOMINIONS, to carry ſome merchandize into Spain.

The * Hamburghers and the Hanſe-Towns petitioned for licence to tranſport corn thither about the ſame time, and were poſitively forbidden, being told plainly, That ſuch as ſhould preſume to go beyond a former licence, 'ſhould 'for that bold preſumption ſuffer the loſs of all their goods 'and effects, in caſe they fell into the hands of any of her 'Majeſty's ſhips of war, or others.'

* June 30, anno 1598.

Wetefeldius and Bernſcovius, ambaſſadors from Chriſtian IV, king of Denmark, deſiring the ſame liberty of tranſporting corn to Spain, by order from their maſter, were anſwered, 'That her Majeſty could by no means conſent 'to the king of Denmark's demands; neither would ſhe 'grant ſuch a liberty to her own ſubjects, or any elſe, 'till 'the war between her and the Spaniards was at an end.'

If queen Elizabeth was not ſovereign of the ENGLISH SEAS, why did ſo many ſtates humbly requeſt her for privileges which ſhe had no right to grant or refuſe? The frequent applications that have been made by foreign potentates for obtaining liberty to fiſh in the ENGLISH SEAS, and the conditions upon which that privilege has been granted, are other proofs of the lawfulneſs of the Engliſh dominion in their ſeas.

Mention has already been made of the tribute impoſed upon fiſhermen in the ENGLISH SEAS, in the time of Richard II, and in the Iriſh Seas in the reign of Edward IV, to which we ſhall now add ſome notable inſtances of the ſame nature.

We find in the Rolls of Parliament, in the reign of king Edward I, a protection was granted by that prince for the men of Holland, &c. to this purpoſe:

'The king to his truſty and well-beloved John de Buteturtu, 'warden of the port of Jernemouth, greeting: being informed 'that men of Holland, Zealand, and Friezland, who are now 'in amity with us, deſign to come and fiſh in our ſea, near 'Jernemouth, we require you to cauſe public proclamation 'to be made once or twice a week, forbidding all manner 'of perſons whatſoever employed in our ſervice, to preſume 'to do, or cauſe to be done, to theſe men, any injury or 'damage, &c.'

The records are full of ſuch protections in the reigns of that king's ſucceſſors, Edward II, Edward III, Richard II, Henry IV, Henry V, and Henry VI; the laſt of whom, as appears by Rot. Franciæ, 38 Henry VI. mem. 9 and 14. frequently gave licences, eſpecially to the French, to fiſh in HIS SEAS, preſcribing a certain time, as well as the ſize of the boats, they or others were to fiſh in. So jealous have our princes always been of this prerogative, that Edward VI. appointed cuſtodes, conductores, and waſtores, guardians, conductors, and waſters, with a ſpecial power to protect the FISHERMEN upon the coaſt of Suffolk; for which protection a tribute was levied on the fiſhers, according to their burthen.

The words of their commiſſion will ſhew us what their office was: they had power to 'raiſe and collect all coſts, charges, 'and expences, to arreſt and apprehend all perſons who ſhould 'pretend to protect, conduct, or waſte the fiſhermen, and to 'commit them to the next gaol, there to be kept ſecurely, 'till the king ſhould be pleaſed to give order for their de-'livery.' And in the patents of that nature granted by Richard III. and Henry VII, theſe officers were impowered to exact this tribute, 'even though any one or more of the 'ſaid fiſhermen may have obtained letters of ſafe-conduct '[ſee the article of SAFE-CONDUCT] from any other king, 'prince, potentate, or governor whatſoever.'

Queen Mary I. being married to Philip II. of Spain, granted, for a fine and a yearly revenue of 1000 l. to be paid into the treaſury of Ireland, a general licence for the NETHERLANDERS TO FISH ON THE NORTHERN PARTS OF THAT KINGDOM. Mr Camden in his Britannia, ſpeaking of the Northern Sea, which waſhes the coaſt of Yorkſhire, ſays, 'The Hollanders and Zealanders firſt obtaining leave ac-'cording to the ancient cuſtom, of the governor of Scarbo-'rough caſtle, made a very plentiful and advantageous HER-'RING-FISHING: the Engliſh reſerving only the honour 'and privilege to themſelves, have, by a very condemnable 'negligence, always reſigned the PROFIT TO STRANGERS.'

This liberty of FISHING in the ENGLISH SEAS has been always requeſted by STRANGERS, and particularly by the FRENCH, though they would gladly uſurp a ſhare of the MARINE SOVEREIGNTY, if they had power to maintain it. HENRY IV. of FRANCE, his admirals uſually aſked of our QUEEN ELIZABETH licences for the FRENCH FISHERMEN TO FISH IN THE NEIGHBOURING SEAS FOR SOLES FOR THAT PRINCE'S OWN TABLE.

The Engliſh do not pretend that their kings were ſovereigns of the Caledonian and Deucaledonian Seas, 'till the kingdom of Scotland was united to that of England, under James I. Though the ancient Scots enjoyed, without any competitors, the ſovereignty of the greateſt part of the ſeas with which their ſhores are waſhed; yet they had, for many ages together, a continual controverſy with their neighbours, the Danes and Norwegians, about the more northerly parts of the Caledonian Sea, to the poſſeſſion of which they all pretended; and, in the main, the government of thoſe ſeas did for the moſt part accompany the ſovereignty of the Orcades, and other iſlands ſituate near them; which, after many revolutions and changes of maſters, did at length devolve upon the kings and queens of Scotland, who peaceably poſſeſſed them a long time: for about the year 1468, Chriſtiern, king of Denmark, ſurrendered the Orcades and Scotland to James III, king of Scotland, who had married his daughter Margaret, and reſigned the right to thoſe iſles to him and his heirs for ever. By which ſurrender and reſignation, the Scots kings became poſſeſſed of the ſovereignty of the Northern Seas, in which they are ſituate, as well as of the iſles. Nor have the Scots neglected, on ſeveral occaſions, to aſſert their dominion of the adjacent ſeas. Mr Welwood, an eminent lawyer of that nation, in a treatiſe he wrote of the dominion of the adjacent ſeas, takes notice of a quarrel that had happened between the DUTCH and the SCOTS, about the propriety of the ſea, which, at laſt, was compoſed on the following conditions, 'That the DUTCH FISHER-BOATS ſhould not 'come within 80 miles of the ſhore, and that, in caſe they 'ſhould be driven in thither by ſtreſs of weather, they ſhould 'pay a certain tribute at the port of ABERDEEN, where a 'caſtle was built and fortified chiefly on that occaſion; and 'the DUTCH, for ſome time, did really and effectually pay 'that tribute,' &c.

In a parliament held in the ſixth year of the reign of Mary queen of Scotland, that dominion was again aſſerted, and all foreigners were expreſsly forbidden to FISH within the extent of the SCOTTISH SEAS, without licence. King James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England, had that act confirmed and enlarged: 'And all fiſhers, or other perſons whatſoever, oc-'cupying the SCOTTISH SEA, and FISHING for herrings 'or white fiſh, were enjoined to bring the ſame to be ſold 'at FREE PORTS within the kingdom of Scotland, that his 'Majeſty and his ſubjects might not be deprived of the ad-'vantages and emoluments which God had appointed for 'them.'

Since the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, the ſovereignty of the SCOTTISH SEA, and the other ſeas with it, which we have taken notice of in ſpeaking of the extent of the BRITISH SEAS, devolved upon the kings and queens of Great-Britain; and we ſhall, in the ſequel, obſerve how they have been careful to aſſert and maintain it.

But we muſt firſt take notice, that the Engliſh had great privileges and immunities in the Northern Seas granted them by the kings of Denmark and Norway, who had at firſt excluded them from all commerce and traffic in ſome parts of them. At laſt it was agreed, by a treaty made in the year 1485, between Henry VII. and John II, kings of England and Norway, that the Engliſh ſhould for ever enjoy the liberty of fiſhing, trading, and ſailing ſafely and ſecurely to IRELAND, called in the treaty the iſland of Tyle, and of buying, ſelling, and merchandizing in thoſe ſeas, upon payment of the ordinary duties of the ports, provided that by petitioning for ſuch liberty once in ſeven years, they acknowledged the ſovereignty of the kings of Norway in thoſe ſeas.

Thus we find the dominion of the ſea is not only capable of being poſſeſſed, but that other princes, beſides the kings of England, have claimed and enjoyed it. 'Frederic II, king of 'Denmark and Norway, in a letter to queen Elizabeth, in 'the year 1585, ſays, That if the Engliſh abſtained from 'doing any injury, they ſhould enjoy their former liber-'ties and privileges, without petitioning any more for li-'cences.'

This privilege depended on the good will of the ſovereign of thoſe ſeas at firſt, but having been long enjoyed, the Engliſh pleaded a right of it by preſcription. It is certain, however, that they have a better title to the dominion of the Northern Sea towards the coaſts of Greenland: for their Muſcovy company firſt acquired a right to that ſea by actual occupation, their MARINERS being the diſcoverers of it, and their FISHERS improved the whale-fiſhing.

An actual and primary poſſeſſion is much more ſufficient than an intentional one, to veſt the diſcoverers with a title to the propriety of the thing ſo diſcovered: of which king James I. ſeemed very ſenſible, when in his letters of credence given to Sir Henry Wotton, his ambaſſador to the States-General of the United Provinces, he ſays, 'That the FISHINGS in the 'Northern Seas, towards the coaſts of GREENLAND, were 'acquired by right for him, and his only.' Notwithſtanding which, it is certain that the Hollanders have been too unfriendly, by incroaching upon the BRITISH FISHERIES, not only on the NORTHERN OCEAN, but even on the coaſts of GREAT-BRITAIN.

We ſhall now obſerve how the kings and queens of Great-Britain have aſſerted the dominion of the Britiſh Seas, ſince the union of the two crowns of England and Scotland.

When king James I. ſucceeded to the kingdom of England, the nations of Europe were almoſt all in profound peace, except the Dutch and Spaniards; and the quiet of the Engliſh Seas was in ſome meaſure diſturbed by the frequent hoſtili-

ties that happened between the Spaniards and Dutch; upon which he publiſhed a proclamation, forbidding (as lord of thoſe ſeas) any ſort of injury or violence to be offered by either party, within certain limits which he appointed, as may be ſeen by the proclamation itſelf.

'Our pleaſure is, that within our ports, havens, roads, creeks, 'or other places of our dominion, or ſo near to any of our 'ſaid ports and havens as may be reaſonably conſtrued to be 'within that title, limit, or precinct, there ſhall be no force, 'violence, or offence, ſuffered to be done, either from men 'of war to men of war, or men of war to merchantmen, or 'merchantmen to merchantmen, of either party, &c.'

And though that proclamation did only prohibit the committing of hoſtilities within or near certain creeks, bays, ports, and harbours, (which were called the king's chambers, ſome of which took in 30 leagues of the ſea) no inference can be brought thence to deſtroy that prince's title to the ſovereignty of the more diſtant parts of the ENGLISH SEA; for he allows the two nations at war between themſelves (but both at peace with him) to invade, attack, and make prize of one another in the open ſea: nor did the SPANIARDS make any ſcruple to claim the king of England's protection againſt their enemies the DUTCH, and all others whatſoever, not only within the ſeas abovementioned, but all over the ENGLISH SEAS, which they looked upon to be as much a part of his dominion as the land, as appears by the diſcourſe of their advocate here, who pleads it in expreſs terms; adding, 'That 'towards the north and weſt the kings of Great-Britain's SEA 'DOMINIONS were of a vaſt extent; for that the northern 'coaſt of Britain having no oppoſite ſhore, their ſea juriſdiction that way had no limits; and the ſouth of Ireland lying oppoſite to Spain, and the weſt to the Indian 'countries belonging to that crown, were conſequently 'bounded by them.' So far did this Spaniſh lawyer make the dominion of our kings extend. Whether he has extended it too far or not, we ſhall not undertake to determine, but make no difficulty to affirm, that the Hollanders have, of all nations, been too free with the Engliſh on this occaſion, and encroached too much on our MARINE SOVEREIGNTY. This is ſaid without any deſign to revive old miſunderſtandings, or to put any Briton out of humour with our ancient and natural allies, who have appeared ſo reſolutely in the cauſe of liberty, and are now, we hope, in a ſtrict alliance with Great-Britain *.

* However incompatible the intereſts of Great-Britain and the United Provinces may appear in the eyes of ſome, in relation to their commercial concerns, we cannot but think it poſſible to promote and cement a union in this great and eſſential point, which, if it could be happily effected, would tend more ſubſtantially to the reciprocal laſting intereſt of both powers, than treaties and alliances founded on any other principles only: for this commercial concert and good underſtanding would enable us, by means of our joint maritime ſtrength, both mercantile and otherwiſe, not only to preſerve that ſhare of trade and naval power we both at preſent poſſeſs, but to increaſe them at the expence of our common enemies, and ſo keep them in ſubjection, that they may never have it in their power to injure either ſtate. Let it be ſuppoſed, for inſtance, that ſuch a ſtrict and intereſting connection ſubſiſted at preſent between theſe two powers, would not that effectually prevent thoſe meaſures that the French ſeem to be now taking to injure our trade in the Eaſt-Indies, and elſewhere? And if the French carry the point at which they aim in Aſia, againſt Great-Britain, and ſettle the French empire there, according to the ſyſtem that it is ſaid Dupleix has formed, may not the Dutch likewiſe ſoon feel the effects of the French power in that part of the world? If the Engliſh ſhould be extirpated from the trade of the Eaſt-Indies, and the French power and commerce is raiſed there, in the like proportion as that of England ſhall decline, what hinders but that France may ſoon totally deſtroy the Dutch power there alſo? For when the power that England and France now have in the Eaſt-Indies, is united in the hands of France alone, it would be ſcarce poſſible for the Dutch to ſupport themſelves in their poſſeſſions and commerce in that part of the world. On the other hand, if the Engliſh and the Dutch ſhould heartily unite in preſerving and increaſing that empire and commerce which they now have in theſe Indies, it would be impoſſible for France there to withſtand their united force; and would not this enable Great Britain and Holland to give law to all other European powers who ſhould attempt any trade in this part of the world? The like conſequence would follow in regard to the commerce of theſe two potentates in Europe, provided their intereſts in commerce and navigation could become one, and happily coincide, for the mutual preſervation and glory of both ſtates. Would ſome of the wiſeſt and ableſt men of both theſe Proteſtant maritime empires, think ſeriouſly of a matter of this high conſequence to them, we ſhould ſoon experience the weight and influence of ſo happy a commercial concert; it would prove, in its conſequences, a far more effectual preſervative of the ballance of power than any other expedient, not only in Chriſtendom, but throughout the whole globe, becauſe Great-Britain and Holland, in concert with other of their Proteſtant allies, would then be able to give law, whenever occaſion ſhould require. And this deſirable union between theſe maritime powers, in regard to their trading intereſt, may not appear impracticable, if ever it ſhould be thought of in earneſt by the joint wiſdom of both nations. See the articles UNITED PROVINCES, HOLLAND, FLANDERS, and NETHERLANDS.

Notwithſtanding king James exerciſed great forbearance towards the Dutch and others, yet there was no point of which he was more jealous than of the ſovereignty of the ſea, which may be ſeen by the following proclamation, which he iſſued in the year 1609.

'Whereas we have been contented, ſince our coming to the 'crown, to tolerate an indifferent and promiſcuous kind of 'liberty to all our friends whatſoever, to fiſh within our 'ſtreams, and upon any of our coaſts of Great-Britain, Ire'land, and other adjacent iſlands, ſo far forth as the per'miſſion or uſe thereof might not redound to the impeach'ment of our prerogative royal, nor to the hurt and damage 'of our loving ſubjects, &c. finding our continuance herein 'hath not only given occaſion of over-great encroachments 'upon our regalities, or rather queſtioning of our right, but 'hath been a means of daily wrongs to our own people that 'exerciſe the trade of fiſhing, &c. which is a matter of great 'conſequence to our eſtate, conſidering how much the 'ſtrength thereof conſiſteth in the power of ſhipping, and 'uſe of navigation; We have thought it now both juſt and 'neceſſary (in reſpect that we are now, by God's favour, 'lineally and lawfully poſſeſſed, as well of the iſles adjacent) 'to bethink ourſelves of good and lawful means to prevent 'thoſe inconveniencies, and many others depending upon 'the ſame: in conſideration whereof, &c. we have reſolved 'firſt to give notice to all the world, that our expreſs plea'ſure is, that, from the beginning of the month of Auguſt 'next coming, no perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever, 'being not our natural-born ſubject, be permitted to fiſh up'on any of our coaſts and ſeas of Great Britain, Ireland, and 'the reſt of the iſles adjacent, &c. until they have orderly 'demanded and obtained licences from us, &c. upon pain of 'ſuch chaſtiſement as ſhall be thought fit to be inflicted upon 'wilful offenders.'

The Dutch got too much by their fiſhings on our coaſt, to be frightened with a proclamation: and this pacific king had no great inclination to any harſher methods than what words would effect. The Hollanders knowing his temper, preſumed upon it ſo far, as to plead immemorial poſſeſſion. Upon which king James commanded his ambaſſador at the Hague to give the States-General to underſtand, that he expected other ſatisfaction with reference to the fiſhings. And indeed the Dutch dealt with him ſo unfairly in that matter, that a prince of more martial temper would have been provoked to a rupture; but negociations were king James's beloved way of concluding affairs, and a long one commenced about this, in which we ſhall ſee what was urged by the Engliſh on this ſubject.

We ſhall begin, therefore, with an abſtract of a letter written by the ſecretary of ſtate in England, to the Engliſh ambaſſador at the Hague, dated December 21, 1618, viz.

'As to their [the Dutch] claiming an immemorial poſſeſſion, 'founded by the law of nations, his Majeſty will have them 'told, That the kings of Spain have ſought leave to fiſh 'there (in the Britiſh Seas) by treaty from this crown, and 'that the king of France (a nearer neighbour to our coaſt 'than they) to this day requeſts leave for a few veſſels to fiſh 'for proviſion for his own houſhold, and that it appears ſo 'much the more ſtrange to his Majeſty, that they, being a 'ſtate of ſo late date, ſhould be the firſt that would preſume to 'queſtion his Majeſty's ancient right, ſo many hundred years 'inviolably poſſeſſed by his progenitors, and acknowleged by 'all other ancient ſtates and princes. That themſelves, in 'their public letters of the laſt of June, ſeemed then to con'firm their immemorial poſſeſſion (as they term it) with di'vers treaties, as by that of the year 1550; and another be'tween his Majeſty's predeceſſor and Charles V, as prince of 'thoſe provinces, and not by the law of nations. To which 'their laſt plea, his Majeſty would have them told, That he 'being an iſlander prince, is not ignorant of the laws and 'rights of his own kingdom, nor doth expect to be taught 'the laws of nations by them nor their Grotius: for his Ma'jeſty taking this for a high point of his ſovereignty, will not 'have it ſlighted in any faſhion whatſoever, &c. Let them 'adviſe to ſeek leave from his Majeſty, and to acknowlege 'him his right, as other princes have done, and do; or it 'may well come to paſs that they that will needs bear all the 'world before them with their Mare Liberum, may ſoon 'come to have neither Terram and Solum, nor Rempubli'cam Liberam.' To which letter the ambaſſador returning an anſwer, among other things ſays, 'I told the prince of 'Orange, That howſoever his Majeſty, both in honour of 'his crown and perſon, and intereſt of his kingdom, neither 'could nor would any longer deſiſt from having his right ac'knowleged by this ſtate, as well as by all other princes and 'commonweals; eſpecially finding the ſame openly oppugned 'both by their States men of war, and the writings of Grotius, 'and the taking of John Brown the laſt year, may teſtify; 'yet this acknowlegement of a right and due was no exclu'ſion of grace and favour, and that the people of this country

'paying

'paying that ſmall tribute upon every one of their buſſes '(which is not ſo much as diſputed by any other nation 'whatſoever) ſuch was his Majeſty's well-wiſhing to this 'ſtate, that I preſumed of his permiſſion to ſuffer them to 'continue their courſe of fiſhing, which they might uſe 'thereby with more freedom, and leſs apprehenſion of mo-'leſtation and lett than before, and thereby ſpare the coſt of 'ſome of their men of war, which they yearly ſend out, to 'maintain that by force which they might have of courteſy. 'The prince anſwered, He would do his beſt endeavour to 'procure his Majeſty contentment, but he doubted the Hol-'landers would apprehend the ſame effect in their payment 'for fiſhing, as they found in the paſſage of the Sound, where 'at firſt an eaſy matter was demanded by the king of Den-'mark, but now more exacted than they can poſſibly bear. 'And touching their men of war he ſaid, They muſt ſtill 'be at the ſame charge with them, becauſe of the pirates. 'He aſked me whether this freedom of fiſhing might not be 'redeemed with a ſum of money. To which I anſwered, 'It was a matter of royalty, more than of utility, though 'princes were not to neglect their profit.' The ſame am-baſſador wrote home afterwards, That the States had acknowleged their commiſſioners in England had gone beyond their inſtructions in uſing of the term of immemorial poſſeſſion. But this diſpute dropped, and nothing came of it in king James's reign, except a verbal acknowlegement of his dominion in the Britiſh Seas, with which this king ſatisfied himſelf; and his eaſineſs encouraged our neighbours to contemn the authority of his ſon Charles I. in the beginning of whoſe reign they committed innumerable abuſes, which provoked his Majeſty to equip a fleet, and publiſh a proclamation, declaring the reaſon of his making that armament, A. D. 1636. Wherein having ſhewn what outrage had been done to his father's and his own prerogative, by ſeveral people fiſhing in their ſeas without licence, he ſays:

'We being very ſenſible of the premiſes, and well knowing 'how far we are obliged in honour to maintain the rights of 'our crown, eſpecially of ſo great conſequence, have thought 'it neceſſary, by the advice of our privy-council, to renew 'the aforeſaid reſtraint of fiſhing upon our aforeſaid coaſts 'and ſeas, without licence firſt obtained from us; and by 'theſe preſents to make public declaration, that our reſolu-'tion is (at times convenient) to keep ſuch a competent 'ſtrength of ſhipping upon our ſeas, as may (by God's bleſ-'ſing) be ſufficient both to hinder ſuch further encroach-'ments upon our regalities, and aſſiſt and protect thoſe our 'good friends and allies who ſhall henceforth, by virtue of 'our licence (to be firſt obtained) endeavour to take the be-'nefit of fiſhing upon our coaſts and ſeas in the places ac-'cuſtomed.'

The Dutch expreſſing their apprehenſions of theſe naval preparations to Sir William Boſwell, then reſident at the Hague, he acquainted the miniſters in England with it, and Sir John Cook, then ſecretary of ſtate, ſent a letter, wherein, after he had ſet forth the ſeveral encroachments made by the Hollanders on the fiſhings in the Britiſh Seas, and other marine offences, he writes thus: 'Conſidering that peace and 'war muſt be maintained by the arm of power, which only 'keeps down war by keeping up dominion, his Majeſty thus 'provoked, finds it neceſſary, even for his own defence and 'ſafety, to reaſſume and keep his ancient and undoubted 'right in the dominion of theſe ſeas, and to ſuffer no other 'prince or ſtate to encroach upon him, thereby aſſuming to 'themſelves, or their admirals, any ſovereign command, 'but to force them to perform due homage to his admirals 'and ſhips, and to pay them acknowlegements as in former 'time they did. He will alſo ſet open and protect the free 'trade of his ſubjects and allies, and give them ſuch ſafe-'conduct and convoy as they ſhall reaſonably require: he 'will ſuffer no other fleet, or men of war, to keep any guard 'upon theſe ſeas, &c.' In the ſame letter the ſecretary ſays, 'We hold it a principle not to be denied, that the king of 'Great-Britain is a monarch at land and ſea, and that it con-'cerns him as much to maintain his ſovereignty in all the 'Britiſh Seas, as within his three kingdoms, becauſe with-'out that theſe cannot be kept ſafe, nor he preſerve his ho-'nour and due reſpect with other nations.'

This fleet, however, did not finiſh the work it was deſigned for; and king Charles being afterwards involved in a war with his parliament, it was not likely he ſhould then much mind his dominion at ſea. But when the Rump had the government, they, out of jealouſy of the neighbouring commonwealth, fitted out a fleet, to maintain the right of ſovereignty of the new pretended ſovereigns to the Britiſh Seas. This fleet was ſcarce arrived in the Downs, when the Dutch, thinking to ſurprize it, fell upon it, and hoped to deſtroy the naval ſtrength of the Engliſh at once; but Blake, who commanded the Engliſh fleet, making his party good with them, though they had two ſhips to his one; and Oliver, after they had been well beaten in ſeveral naval fights, obliging them to beg a peace of him, the duty of the flag was heartily agreed to, and the ſovereignty of the Engliſh Seas very plainly acknowleged by the Dutch, in the 15th and 16th articles of the treaty concluded between the two nations, November 15, 1653. The ſubſtance of which two articles is as follows:

ARTICLE XV.

'That the ſhips and veſſels of the ſaid United Provinces, as 'well men of war as others, be they in ſingle ſhips or in 'fleets, meeting at ſea with any of the ſhips of the ſtate of 'England, or in their ſervice, and wearing the flag, ſhall 'ſtrike the flag, and lower their top-ſail, until they be paſſed 'by, and ſhall likewiſe ſubmit themſelves to be viſited, if 'thereto required, and perform all other reſpects due to the 'commonwealth of England, to whom the dominion and 'ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas belong.'

Leo ab Aitzma, fol. 847, ſays, The States would have this addition inſerted, after paſſed by, 'In ſuch manner as the 'ſame has been formerly obſerved in any times whatſoever.' This article was from hence tranſcribed into the tenth article at Whitehall *, and afterwards into the 19th article at Breda; from thence into the 6th article made at Weſtminſter after †; and that clauſe of ſearching each other's ſhips made reciprocal; by the 5th article of the marine treaty at London. By the Britiſh Seas in this article are meant the four ſeas, and not the Channel.

* September 14, 1662.
† December 18, 1674.

ARTICLE XVI.

'All Dutch ſhips are allowed to paſs and repaſs in the Britiſh 'Seas, either men of war or others, without any wrong or 'injury, not exceeding ſuch a number as ſhall be agreed up-'on, &c. but, in caſe the ſaid States-General ſhall have oc-'caſion to paſs through the ſaid ſeas with a greater number 'of men of war, they ſhall give three months notice of their 'intention to the commonwealth, and obtain their conſent 'for the paſſing of ſuch a fleet.'

Whatever infringements were made of theſe articles, we queſtion whether king Charles II. would ever have broken the peace on that account. There is nothing more certain, than that the firſt Dutch war in this reign was owing to French councils: however, the effects anſwer our deſign, and prove that the Dutch, who have moſt openly oppugned the title of the Engliſh to the ſovereignty of their ſeas, have moſt ſolemnly acknowleged it, as may be ſeen by the 19th article of the treaty of peace concluded between that king and the States-General, July 29, 1667, to this purpoſe: 'That 'the ſhips and veſſels of the ſaid United Provinces, as well 'men of war as others, meeting any of the ſaid king of 'Great-Britain's men of war in the BRITISH SEAS, ſhall 'ſtrike the flag, and lower the top-ſail, in ſuch manner as 'the ſame hath been formerly obſerved in any times what-'ſoever.'

When the Dutch applied to queen Elizabeth for ſuccours, one argument for her aſſeſſing them, made uſe of by their agent, was, that the ſituation of their provinces would be a great ſecurity for the preſervation of her empire in the ocean; as may be ſeen in Stowe. And how that wiſe ſtate came to forget themſelves ſo far afterwards, as to put the realm of England to the charge of two or three wars to bring them to reaſon, we cannot comprehend: for the homage the Engliſh require at ſea is a trifle, in compariſon of the advantages they reap by their alliance, and the ſecurity of their protection. It is probable the imperious methods uſed by the Engliſh in demanding the flag of the Dutch, might exaſperate that ſtate, and that the court of England were excited by the French, who under Richlieu began firſt to apply themſelves vigorouſly to the increaſing their traffic and ſtrength at ſea: but Richlieu left that undertaking to the famous Colbert, who had the glory to finiſh it, and to ſee the French fleets in a condition to contend with the moſt powerful maritime ſtates. He formed companies for trading to Africa, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, and founded a polity for the government of the marine. But knowing all the French naval ſtrength would ſignify little, while the Engliſh and Dutch continued theirs, he may reaſonably be ſuppoſed to adviſe his maſter to ſet them one againſt the other, in order to deſtroy them both; and how far he proceeded in that fatal deſign, the hiſtories of the reign of king Charles II. will make appear.

England then connived at the growing greatneſs of France at ſea, than which nothing could more endanger her maritime ſovereignty. She not only ſuffered, but aſſiſted the French to build a fleet; and had not the parliament, though almoſt too late, put a timely end to the miſunderſtanding which the French did very induſtriouſly foment between Great-Britain and Holland, with a deſign to ruin the naval power of both, Lewis XIV. would not have found it ſo difficult a taſk to acquire the dominion of all the European ſeas, as he did to defend his own coaſts and harbours againſt the victorious fleets of the queen of Great-Britain, and the States-General of the United Provinces.

The great efforts the French court made to encourage and improve navigation, were ſeconded by the labours of ingenious perſons, appointed by the miniſtry * to write tracts, in

* Monſieur Savary's French Dictionary of Commerce was undertaken in France from this motive; and we find that there

there engaged in that work, written many years ſince, not only two brothers of diſtinguiſhed abilities, who ſpent a conſiderable part of their lives therein, but that merchants of the firſt claſs, the public offices of the kingdom, the council of commerce itſelf, perſonages of various ranks, eminent for their knowlege in trade, and even the firſt miniſters of ſtate, unanimouſly concurred to encourage the compoſition and publication of that performance, for the benefit of their country: and doubtleſs they judged wiſely, that nothing could more effectually raiſe an emulous ſpirit both amongſt themſelves, and in oppoſition to foreigners, than the whole nation experiencing the greateſt men in it devoted to the general improvement of trade, and earneſtly labouring, by their example, to render the knowlege and practice thereof univerſal in the kingdom: and the event has verified their penetration and foreſight. — The preſent author of this Engliſh Dictionary of Commerce never was ſo happy as to meet with any aſſiſtance in this, or any other of his labours in the public ſervice; never met with any patronage from any man whatſoever, nor any ſort of public or private encouragement; but on the contrary, he has met with a ſeries of mal-treatment and diſcouragement, for his zealous and public-ſpirited endeavours to ſerve his country.

order to raiſe the ſpirit of commerce in the kingdom, and to excite people of all qualities to be more or leſs concerned in the trading companies that were then forming; wherein the king, and moſt of the princes of the blood, and the lords of the court, had very conſiderable ſhares, that, by their examples, others might be induced to venture in the ſame bottoms. And to one of theſe authors we are obliged for an acknowlegement of the Engliſh dominion in the ſeas lying between us and France, which we ſuppoſe fell from him accidentally. This paſſage is to be found in a treatiſe intitled Le Parfait Negotiant, written by the Sieur Savary, and firſt publiſhed at Paris in the year 1675, with the order and approbation of MONSIEUR COLBERT, prime miniſter for the marine, to whom it was dedicated.

This author, pages 118 and 119, ſpeaking of the diſcovery of the Canary Iſlands, ſays, 'That the duke of Burgundy 'joining with the king of England, an enemy of France, 'made a deſcent into Normandy, with 1000 ſhips, ſo that 'the war being broke out, and the Engliſh poſſeſſing the 'ſea and our ports, the admiral could not get,' &c. Now if the Engliſh poſſeſſed the ſea in ſuch a manner, that the admiral of France himſelf durſt not equip a few tranſport-ſhips, to ſend men and proviſions to the Canaries, to the diſcovery and right of which the French pretend, none can imagine the French at that time preſumed to cope with us at ſea; and if ſuch a poſſeſſion as that attributed by the French themſelves, was not an authentic proof of dominion, we cannot tell what is.

It is true, the French may anſwer to this, When we loſt their ports, we loſt the dominion of the ſea; but it has been ſhewn, that the Britiſh naval ſovereignty was not founded upon ſo precarious a poſſeſſion, but is as old as hiſtory, and as undeniable as any thing can be, which is proved by the acknowlegement of all nations and ages. We have looked into the hiſtories of moſt of our kings, from the Norman invaſion, to king Charles the IId's reign, and have found they all aſſerted and maintained their dominion of the ſea.

King James II. was buſied about other things, and what navy he had was intended rather to ſecure his arbitrary government by land, than to defend his ſovereignty at ſea. King William, his ſucceſſor, glorioufly aſſerted and maintained it, in conjunction with the Dutch, by giving laws to all nations, in all the ſeas in the world where a royal fleet ever appeared. And queen Anne did with the ſame vigour and ſucceſs uphold that dominion at ſea which king William left her, the French managing their ſea affairs like pirates, and pretending to no dominion but what they got by ſurprize, as corſairs do over ſhips they can maſter.

In the late queen Anne's reign we have an inſtance of her aſſerting her ſovereignty at ſea; for admiral Whetſtone, in July 1706, meeting with a fleet of Swediſh merchantmen, under convoy of a Swediſh man of war, her Majeſty's ſhip the Worceſter fired a gun, as a ſignal to command the Swedes to ſtrike; but the Swediſh captain ſent his lieutenant aboard, to acquaint the Engliſh commander that he had poſitive orders not to ſtrike to any flag whatſoever, even in the Channel itſelf. The captain of the Worceſter receiving that meſſage, inſtead of the ordinary marks of homage to be expected from all foreigners in the Engliſh Seas, fired a ball, which being anſwered with a broad-ſide by the Swede, the Worceſter, and another Engliſh man of war, engaged the Swediſh man of war, killed and wounded about 150 of her men, with ſome loſs on their ſide, and brought her and all the merchant ſhips into the river; nor were they diſcharged 'till ſatisfaction was given the queen for the affront put upon her admiral in her own ſeas. Some inſtances of the ſame nature, though not ſo ſolemn, happened in king William's reign, and will, we hope, be ſufficient to induce other nations not to invade the right which the kings and queens of Great-Britain are as lawfully poſſeſſed of, to the ſovereignty of the Britiſh-Seas, as to the dominion of the Britiſh empire at land.

REMARKS.

It is an obſervation worthy the ſerious attention of every Engliſhman, That empire has always followed trade, travelling (as it were) from one part of the world to another, as commerce has ſhifted its ſtation; and, in all countries, ſtill growing or declining in power, in proportion as traffic has been encouraged or diſregarded. And the commerce of this nation depends on our dominion at ſea.

Cicero ad Attic. ſays, Qui mare teneat, eum neceſſe rerum potiri: which ſhews this to have been the opinion of a very great man, who had been at the head of affairs in a powerful ſtate, above ſeventeen hundred years ago: and the practice of all princes who have lived ſince that time, and have ever deſigned either to extend their dominion, or to render themſelves conſiderable to their neighbours, fully proves the obſervation to be true.

The Romans (who aſpired to nothing leſs than univerſal empire) while their conqueſts were confined within the narrow bounds of Italy, were ſo much prejudiced with the notion of a landed intereſt, that, as Livy relates, they thought it ſcandalous for a man of faſhion to exerciſe any merchandize; and, in conſequence of that prepoſſeſſion, they were not in a capacity to make any figure by ſea, an element little practiſed on by them, and leſs underſtood. But this notion laſted only 'till they had an opportunity to look more abroad into the world: then experience taught them, as they came to quarrel with the Carthaginians (who at that time were the great trading people) that commerce was neceſſary to eſtabliſh their empire, and that not only their conqueſts were at an end, but the poſſeſſion of the territories they had conquered was precarious, unleſs they could acquire and ſecure to themſelves the dominion of the ſea.

We have ſeen that it is not an empty title, which the kings of England have always taken to themſelves, of being ſupreme lords and governors of the ocean ſurrounding the Britiſh ſhore, but a right which they have conſtantly maintained, at the expence of numerous fleets. In that famous accord, made between our great king Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, it appears, that the French king was by him called to an account for piracies, committed by his ſubjects within the Britiſh Seas: and by that memorable ordinance made at Haſtings, in the reign of king John of England, the honour of the flag (ever claimed by the Engliſh) is decreed to take place univerſally, not barely as a civility, but as a right to be paid (cum debita reverentia) with due deference.

This due maintenance of the ſovereignty of the Britiſh Seas has animated the Engliſh nation to endeavour likewiſe to maintain, in concert with other allies, a ſuperiority of maritime power in general; whereby, from time to time, the ballance of power amongſt the European States has been hitherto preſerved, and ſince the Revolution, the Proteſtant intereſt, and the liberties of millions of people, may be truly ſaid to owe their exiſtence to the MARITIME PROWESS of theſe kingdoms in particular; for if this power had not been occaſionally exerted, the united maritime power of all other ſtates and empires together, could not have prevented that univerſal empire of ſlavery, that has been ſo ſteadily purſued by a neighbouring power. See our article FRANCE.

The nations recorded in hiſtory to have been at any time poſſeſſed of the empire of the ſea, have always eſteemed a neighbouring prince's offering to ſet up a naval power, by building more ſhips of war than were requiſite to ſecure the trade of his ſubjects from piracies, &c. to be as juſt a foundation of political jealouſy, as the raiſing of new forts upon his frontiers, or the levying of a formidable army in a time of profound peace: and, therefore, they have always taken meaſures either to prevent ſuch attempts, or to deſtroy them in their birth. This was the practice of the Romans, and this has been the practice of his Majeſty's royal predeceſſors the kings of England.

The Romans, as ſoon as they had acquired the ſovereignty of the ſea (which they thought not dearly purchaſed with the loſs of above 700 ſhips) immediately entered upon meaſures to preſerve ſo valuable an acquiſition. They grew watchful over this new dominion, and were ſoon alarmed by the ſmalleſt umbrage from any power that did but ſeem to interfere with them in NAVAL AFFAIRS. It was from theſe political conſiderations that they would not permit the Carthaginians to fit out any fleets, and that they forbad ANTIOCHUS (at that time the greateſt king in the Eaſt) TO BUILD MORE THAN TWELVE SHIPS OF WAR.

Upon the like principles his late Majeſty king George acted, when the Spaniſh fleet was deſtroyed by Sir George Byng in the Mediterranean. This ſingle action rendered the king of Great-Britain, at that time, as much maſter of the Mediterranean, as he has been always acknowleged to be ſovereign over the Britiſh Seas. This many years prevented the growth of the naval power of Spain: and did not England and Holland act in concert, from the like motive, when they inſiſted

on the diſſolution of the late Oſtend Eaſt-India company, in the Auſtrian Netherlands? [ſee AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY]: for the chief reaſon given by the maritime powers was, leſt A NEW NAVAL POWER ſhould ariſe in Europe, in conſequence of this commercial eſtabliſhment.

There is no occaſion for troubling my readers with a detail of examples to the preſent purpoſe, ſince nothing is more known in our Engliſh hiſtory, than that our kings have ever been jealous of their neighbours making uſe of any pretext to increaſe their naval ſtrength, and have accordingly judged it of the greateſt importance to fruſtrate ſuch deſigns, though at the riſk of war: for what leſs did our immortal queen Elizabeth riſk, when ſhe ſent to the French king, to prohibit his building any more ſhips of war than what he then had, without her leave firſt obtained? This was an inſtance of wiſdom and reſolution worthy a princeſs who claimed the ſovereignty of the ſea.

Our maritime force is undoubtedly our chief bulwark againſt foreign invaſions, and what hath given us ſo great a weight and influence over our neighbours. It is this only which raiſed us from a little, deſpiſed, inhoſpitable people, to a great, polite, and formidable ſtate. To this we are obliged for our trade, our riches, the improvement of our land, the conſumption of our manufactures, and the poſſeſſion of all our valuable colonies and plantations abroad, as well as the dominion and ſovereignty of thoſe ſeas which ſurround us at home.

It therefore behoves us, in the ſtrongeſt manner, not to ſuffer the royal navy of England to be inſulted, trifled with, or brought under contempt, by friend or foe, under any pretence, or upon any occaſion whatſoever. National honour, once loſt or impaired, is, like the honour of a private perſon, very hard to be retrieved. Thoſe nations which have, for ſeveral ages, ſtood in awe of us, will begin to act the part of bullies, if ever we give them the leaſt reaſon to ſuſpect we are afraid of them. Moſt people are too apt, through vanity and ſelf-love, to conſtrue the effects of lenity, forbearance, and a pacific diſpoſition, as the reſult of puſillanimity, and a ſudden dread of offending them; which may produce another bad conſequence, by depreſſing the ſpirits of our ſailors, and eraſing that laudable partiality for the native valour of their country, which inclines them to believe that no oppoſition, nor inequality of numbers, is able to withſtand it. I think it proper, in the firſt place, to lay before the reader the inſtructions, which (as I am informed) are given to all the captains and lieutenants of our men of war, to this effect.

Inſtructions to the captain.

—Upon your meeting with any ſhip or ſhips within his Majeſty's ſeas (which, for your better guidance herein, you are to take notice extend to Cape Finiſterre) belonging to any foreign prince or ſtate, you are to expect that in their paſſage by you, they ſtrike their top-ſail, and take in their flag, in acknowlegement of his Majeſty's ſovereignty in thoſe ſeas; and if any ſhall refuſe to do it, or offer to reſiſt, you are to uſe your utmoſt endeavours to compel them thereunto, and in no wiſe to ſuffer any diſhonour to be done to his Majeſty.

Inſtructions to the lieutenant.

You are to take upon yourſelf the intire charge and conduct of his Majeſty's ſaid ſhip, and ſtand accountable for the well executing the whole duty of commander thereof, during the abſence, or in caſe of the death of your ſaid commander, with reſpect as well to the printed general inſtructions given to commanders (a copy whereof is hereunto annexed) as any other particular orders of his Majeſty, &c.

I ſhall now give an inſtance or two of the ſtrictneſs with which theſe orders have been executed in former reigns, and begin no higher than that of king James the Firſt, who, though perhaps the moſt inactive monarch that ever ſat upon the Britiſh throne, protected one of the officers of his navy (who had obliged a French ſhip to ſtrike to him under very particular circumſtances) againſt the ſtrongeſt repreſentations of that court, and even refuſed to make them any ſatisfaction himſelf, as appears from cardinal Richlieu's Teſtament Politique, in that chapter treating of the neceſſity which France is under to be powerful at ſea. The cardinal addreſſes himſelf to Lewis the XIIIth in the following terms, viz.

'—England being ſituated as it is, if France was not ſtrong 'in its fleets, might undertake whatever ſhe thought proper 'to the prejudice of France, without apprehending any 'return to her diſadvantage. She might deſtroy our fiſheries, 'diſturb our commerce, and, by blocking up our greateſt 'rivers, oblige our merchants to pay her what tribute ſhe 'ſhould think fit to impoſe upon them. — She might unmo'leſted make deſcents on our iſlands, and even on our con'tinent. — In a word, the ſituation of the native country of 'that proud nation is ſuch, [proud only, I ſay, of preſerv'ing her own, as well as the liberties of thoſe whom France 'would enſlave *] that they have no reaſon to fear the great'eſt powers of the earth; and the ancient hatred † they bear 'this kingdom, might probably make them undertake any 'thing againſt us, ſhould there ever come a time that we 'ſhould be ſo weak as not to have it in our power to act of'fenſively againſt them.

* See the article FRANCE.

† If England bears any hatred to France, ſee the reaſons why, under our article PLANTATIONS, where we have ſet forth the perfidy of the ſtateſmen of that nation, for above a century paſt.

'The inſolence which the Engliſh were guilty of towards 'the duke de Sully, in the reign of the king your father, 'ought to oblige us to put ourſelves in ſuch a poſture, as not 'to ſuffer ſuch an affront another time.

'That duke being appointed by Henry the Great, ambaſſa'dor extraordinary to the court of England, and having 'embarked at Calais, on board a French ſhip, carrying the 'flag of France upon her main topmaſt-head, was no ſooner 'got into the Channel, but being met by an Engliſh yacht, 'that was ſent to receive him, the captain of the yacht 'commanded the French ſhip to ſtrike.

'The duke, thinking his quality of ambaſſador ſufficient to 'protect him from ſuch an affront, manfully refuſed to ſtrike; 'but this refuſal being anſwered by three cannon-ſhot from 'the Engliſh yacht, which pierced his ſhip, and, at the 'ſame time, pierced the hearts of all good Frenchmen, 'force obliged him to do that which reaſon ought to have 'defended him againſt; and to all the complaints he made, 'he could receive no other ſatisfaction nor anſwer from the 'Engliſh captain but this, That as his duty obliged him to 'honour him as an ambaſſador, it obliged him alſo to ſee 'the honour done to his maſter's flag, that was due to the 'ſovereign of the ſeas. — And though king James expreſſed 'himſelf upon this affair in civil terms, his words had no 'other effect than to oblige the duke to find his only ſatis'faction in his own prudence, by feigning himſelf to be 'cured, at the ſame that he felt the greateſt ſmart, and that 'his wound was not to be healed.

'The king your father was obliged to diſſemble upon this 'occaſion; but with a reſolution, upon ſome other oppor'tunity, to ſupport the honour of his crown, by the naval 'force which time ſhould make him maſter of.

'I repreſent to myſelf this great prince, upon that occaſion, 'laying the ſcheme which your majeſty ought now to put in 'execution.'

The war between the parliament of England and the ſtates of Holland, in the year 1652 (the ſharpeſt ſea-war that was ever known between any two nations) was occaſioned by this punctilio of the honour of the flag, which the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, refuſed to pay to our admiral, the immortal Blake.

In the reign of king Charles the Second, another bloody ſea war was commenced between England and Holland, on the ſame account, with this very particular circumſtance, that the captain of a ſingle yacht, ſent over to Holland to bring home Sir William Temple's lady, was ordered to demand this acknowlegement from the whole Dutch fleet. I confeſs the Engliſh miniſtry, at that time, did this in order to pick a quarrel with Holland; but I mention it only to ſhew the obligation which officers of the navy are under to perform their duty; for whatever the intention of theſe orders might be, the captain was undoubtedly obliged to execute them, under pain of being diſmiſſed the ſervice with infamy at leaſt.

The late king William, of immortal memory, had the ſame regard for this right of the honour of the flag, and made it one of his reaſons for declaring war againſt the late French king, as appears from the following article of the declaration itſelf: 'The right of the flag, inherent in the crown of 'England, hath been diſputed by his, the king of France's 'orders, in violation of our ſovereignty of the Narrow Seas, 'which in all ages hath been aſſerted by our predeceſſors; 'and we are reſolved to maintain the honour of our crown, 'and of the Engliſh nation.'

We ſhall conclude theſe inſtances with a paſſage out of Sir John Borough's treatiſe upon this ſubject.

'The ſovereignty of our ſeas (ſays he) being the moſt pre'cious jewel of his Majeſty's crown, and next under God 'the principal means of our wealth and ſafety, all true Eng'liſh hearts and hands are bound, by all poſſible means and 'diligence, to preſerve and maintain the ſame, even with 'the uttermoſt hazard of their lives, their goods, and for'tunes.'

SEAMEN. Their importance to this kingdom is too well known to need animadverſion; the eſſential point to be conſidered is, how they may be rendered more uſeful to the kingdom than they are, and be kept from going into foreign ſervice, by preferring that of their own country.

It is obſervable, that whenever this kingdom is engaged in a war with any of its neighbours, two great inconveniencies conſtantly follow, one to the king, and one to trade.

I. That

I. That to the king is, That he is forced to preſs ſeamen for the manning of his navy, and force them involuntarily into the ſervice: which way of violent dragging men into the fleet, is attended with ſundry ill circumſtances; as,

(1.) Our naval preparations are retarded, and our fleets always late, for want of men, which has expoſed them not a little, and been the ruin of many a good and well-laid expedition.

(2.) Several irregularities follow, as the officers taking money to diſmiſs able ſeamen, and filling up their complement with raw and improper perſons*.

* This has been the caſe ever ſince the days of the great Sir Walter Raleigh, and it is certainly high time to redreſs a grievance ſo injurious to the public.

As concerning the muſters and preſſes, ſays Sir Walter, for ſufficient mariners to ſerve in his Majeſty's ſhips, either the care therein is very little, or the bribery very great; ſo that of all other ſhipping, his Majeſty's are ever the worſt manned: and at ſuch times as the commiſſions come out for the preſſing of mariners, the officers do ſet out the moſt needy and unable men, and (for conſiderations to themſelves beſt known) do diſcharge the bettter ſort, a matter ſo commonly uſed, that it is grown into a proverb amongſt the ſailors, That the muſter-maſters do carry the beſt and ableſt men in THEIR POCKETS; a cuſtom very evil and dangerous, where the ſervice and uſe of men ſhould come in trial. For many of theſe poor fiſhermen and idlers, that are commonly preſented to his Majeſty's ſhips, are ſo ignorant in ſea-ſervice, as that they know not the name of a rope, and, therefore, inſufficient for ſuch labour. That which might eaſily be redreſſed, if the vice-admiral of the ſhire where men are muſtered, and two juſtices, had directions given to join with the muſter-maſters, for the preſſing of the beſt men, whom they well know, and would not ſuffer the ſervice of their prince and country to be bought and ſold, as a private muſter-maſter would do. Beſides, the captains themſelves of the ſhips, if they be bare and needy (though pity it were that men of ſuch condition ſhould have ſuch charge committed unto them) will oftentimes, for commodity, chop and change away their good men; and therefore it were fitly provided to bridle ſuch odd captains, that neither they themſelves, nor any of their men, ſhould receive his Majeſty's pay but by the pole, and according as they were ſet down in the officers books when they were delivered, without changing of any names, except to ſupply ſuch men as are wanting by death or ſickneſs, upon good teſtimony, under the hands of the maſter, the boatſwain, the maſter-gunner, the purſer, and other officers of the ſhip: for it nearly concerns them to look well thereunto, having daily uſe of them (a).

(a) See Raleigh's Works, by Dr Birch.

(3.) Oppreſſions, quarrelings, and oftentimes murthers, by the raſhneſs of preſs-maſters, and the obſtinacy of ſome unwilling to go.

(4.) A ſecret averſion to the ſervice, from a natural principle, common to the Engliſh nation, to hate compulſion.

(5.) Kidnapping people out of the kingdom, robbing houſes, and picking pockets, frequently practiſed, under pretence of preſſing for ſeamen.

With various abuſes of the like nature, ſome towards the king, others towards the ſubject.

II. To trade; by the extravagant price ſet on wages for ſeamen, which they impoſe on the merchant with a ſort of authority, and he is obliged to give, by reaſon of the ſcarcity of men; and that not from a real want of men, for in the height of a preſs, if a merchantman wanted men, and could get a protection for them, he might have any number immediately, and none without it; ſo ſhy are they of public ſervice.

The firſt of theſe things has coſt the nation more millions of money, during the three laſt wars, than I care to ſay, in theſe three particulars.

(1.) Charge of preſſing on ſea and on ſhore, and in ſmall craft employed for that purpoſe.

(2.) Ships lying in harbour for want of men, at a vaſt charge of pay and victuals for thoſe they had.

(3.) Keeping the whole navy in conſtant pay and proviſions all the winter, for fear of loſing the men againſt ſummer, was done for ſeveral years, beſides bounty-money, and other expences, to court and oblige the ſeamen.

III. The ſecond of theſe, viz. the great wages paid by the merchant, has coſt trade alſo above 20 millions ſterling. The coal-trade gave, in king William's time, a ſpecimen of this, for the firſt three years of the war, 9l. a voyage was given to common ſeamen, who before ſailed for 36s. which, computing the number of ſhips and men uſed in the coal-trade, and of voyages made, at eight hands to a veſſel, does, modeſtly accounting, make 896,000l. difference in one year, in wages to ſeamen in the coal-trade only, at that time. In the ſucceeding wars, the like has taken place, though not quite to ſo great a degree.

For other voyages, the difference of ſailors wages has been 50s. per month, and 55s. per month, and upwards, to foremaſt-men, who before went for 26s. per month, beſides ſubjecting the merchant to the inſolence of the ſeamen, who are not to be pleaſed with any proviſions, will admit no half-pay, and command of the captains even what they pleaſe; nay, the king himſelf can hardly pleaſe them.

For the cure of theſe inconveniencies, various propoſals have been ſubmitted to the public attention; the ſubſtance whereof we ſhall lay before the reader with all brevity.

The firſt propoſal is as follows, viz.

That by an act of parliament, an office, or court, be erected, within the juriſdiction of the court of admiralty, and ſubject to the lord high admiral, or otherwiſe independent, and ſubject only to a parliamentary authority, as the commiſſion for taking and ſtating the public accounts.

In this court or office, or the ſeveral branches of it (which to that end ſhall be ſubdivided, and placed in every ſea-port in the kingdom) ſhall be liſted and entered into immediate pay, all the ſeamen in the kingdom, who ſhall be divided into colleges, or chambers, of ſundry degrees, ſuitable to their ſeveral capacities, with pay in proportion to their qualities, as boys, youths, ſervants, men able and raw, midſhipmen, officers, pilots, old men, and penſioners.

The circumſtantials of this office.

(1.) No captain, or maſter of any ſhip or veſſel, ſhould dare to hire, or carry to ſea with him, any ſeamen but ſuch as he ſhall receive from the office aforeſaid.

(2.) No man whatſoever, ſeaman or other, but applying himſelf to the ſaid office to be employed as a ſailor, ſhould immediately enter into pay, and receive for every able ſeaman 24s. per month, and juniors in proportion, to receive half pay while unemployed, and liberty to work for themſelves, only to be at the call of the office, and leave an account where to be found.

(3.) No ſailor could deſert, becauſe no employment would be to be had elſewhere in the kingdom.

(4.) All ſhips, at their clearing at the cuſtom-houſe, ſhould receive a ticket to the office for men, where would be always choice, rather than ſcarcity, who ſhould be delivered over by the office to the captain or maſter, without any trouble or delay; all liberty of choice to be allowed both to maſter and men, only ſo as to give up all diſputes to the officers appointed to decide.

☞ By this would be avoided the great charge captains and owners are at, to keep men on board before they are ready to go; whereas now the care of getting men will be over, and all come on board in one day; for the captain carrying the ticket to the office, he may go and chuſe his men, if he will, otherwiſe they will be ſent on board him, by tickets ſent to their dwellings, to repair on board ſuch a ſhip.

(5.) For all thoſe men that the captain or maſter of the ſhip takes, he ſhall pay the office, not the ſeamen, 28s. per month (which 4s. per month overplus of wages, will be employed to pay the half-pay to the men out of employ) and ſo in proportion of wages for juniors.

(6.) All diſputes concerning the mutinying of mariners, or other matters of debate between the captains and men, to be tried by way of appeal, in a court for that purpoſe to be erected, as aforeſaid.

(7.) All diſcounting of wages and time, all damages of goods, averages, ſtopping of pay, and the like, to be adjuſted by ſtated and public rules, and laws in print, eſtabliſhed by the ſame act of parliament; by which means all litigious ſuits of this nature in the court of admiralty (which are infinite) would be prevented.

(8.) No ſhip that is permitted to enter at the cuſtom-houſe, and take in goods, ſhould ever be refuſed men, or delayed in the delivering them above five days after demand made, and a ticket from the cuſtom-houſe delivered, general caſes, as arreſts and embargoes, excepted.

The conſequences of this method.

(1.) By this means the public would have no want of ſeamen, and all the charges, and other inconveniencies of preſſing men, would be prevented.

(2.) The intolerable oppreſſion upon trade, from the exorbitance of wages, and inſolence of mariners, would be taken off.

(3.) The following ſums of money ſhould be paid to the office to lie in bank, as a public fund for the ſervice of the nation, to be diſpoſed of by order of parliament, and not otherwiſe; a committee being always ſubſtituted, in the intervals of the ſeſſion, to audit the accounts, and a treaſury for the money, to be compoſed of members of the houſe, and to be changed every ſeſſion of parliament.

(1.) Four ſhillings per month wages advanced by the merchants to the office for the men, more than the office pays them.

(2.) In conſideration of the reducing mens wages, and, conſequently, freights, the owners of ſhips, or merchants, ſhall pay, at the importation of all goods, 40s. per ton freight, to be ſtated upon all goods and ports in proportion, reckoning it on wine-tonnage from the Canaries as the ſtandard, and on ſpecial freights in proportion to the freight formerly paid; and half the ſaid price in times of peace.

Note, This may well be done, and no burthen; for if freights are reduced, as they will be if wages are ſo too, then the merchant may well pay it.

The payment of the aboveſaid ſums being a large bank, for a fund, and it being ſuppoſed to be in fair hands, and currently managed, the merchants ſhall further pay upon all goods ſhipped out, and ſhipped on board from abroad, for and from any port of this kingdom, 4 l. per cent. on the real value, bona fide, to be ſworn to, if demanded: in conſideration whereof, the ſaid office ſhall be obliged to pay and make good all loſſes, damages, averages, and caſualties whatſoever; as fully as by the cuſtom of aſſurances now is done, without any diſcounts, rebates, or delays whatſoever; the ſaid 4 l. per cent. to be ſtated on the voyages to Barbadoes, and enlarged or taken off, in proportion to the voyage, by rules and laws, to be printed and publickly known.

Reſerving only, that then, as reaſon good, the ſaid office ſhall have power to direct ſhips of all ſorts, how, and in what manner, and how long they ſhall ſail with, or wait for, convoys; and ſhall have power (with limitations) to lay embargoes on ſhips, in order to compoſe fleets for the benefit of convoys.

Theſe rules, formerly noted, to extend to all trading by ſea, the coaſting and home-fiſhing trade excepted; and for them it may be ordered,

Firſt, for coals: the colliers being provided with men at 28 s. per month, and convoys in ſufficient number, and proper ſtations from Tinmouth-bar to the river, ſo as they need not go in fleets, but as wind and weather preſent, run all the way under the protection of the men of war, who ſhould be continually cruizing from ſtation to ſtation; they would be able to perform their voyage in as ſhort a time as formerly, and at as low pay, and conſequently could afford to ſell their coals 20 s. per chaldron, as well as formerly at 15 s.

Wherefore, there ſhould be paid into the treaſury appointed at Newcaſtle, by bond to be paid where they deliver, 10 s. per chaldron, Newcaſtle meaſure; and the ſtated price at London to be 27 s. per chaldron in the pool, which is 30 s. at the buyer's houſe, and is far from being dear, in a time of war eſpecially, as it is cheaper than ever was known in a war; and the officers ſhould by proclamations confine the ſeller to that price.

In conſideration alſo of the charge of convoys, the ſhips bringing coals ſhall all pay 1 l. per cent. on the value of the ſhip, to be agreed on at the office; and all convoy-money exacted by commanders of ſhips, ſhall be relinquiſhed, and the office make good all loſſes of ſhips, not goods, that ſhall be loſt by enemies only.

Theſe heads, indeed, are ſuch as would need ſome explication, if the experiment were to be made, and, with ſubmiſſion, would reduce the ſeamen to better circumſtances; at leaſt it ſhould ſeem to bid fair to have them in readineſs for any public ſervice, much eaſier than by all the methods of encouragement that have hitherto been tried.

For, by this method, all the ſeamen in the kingdom would become the king's hired ſervants, and receive their wages from him, whoever employed them; and no man could hire, or employ them, but from him: the merchant ſhould hire them of the king, and pay the king for them; nor would there be a ſeaman in England out of employ, which would prevent their ſeeking ſervice abroad: if they were not actually at ſea, they would receive half-pay, and might be employed in works about the ſhip-yards, ſtores, and naval concerns, in order to keep all things in repair.

By this means, if a fleet or ſquadron was to be fitted out on any ſudden emergency, they would be manned in a week's time, for all the ſeamen in England would be ready: nor would they be ſhy of the royal ſervice, for it is not an averſion to the king's ſervice, nor is it that the duty is harder in the men of war than the merchant-men; neither is it fear of danger which makes our ſeamen lurk and hide themſelves in a time of war, but it is the article of wages is the matter: 24 s. per month in the king's ſervice, and from 40 to 50 s. and upwards per month from the merchant, which is the true cauſe; and the ſeaman is in the right of it, for who would ſerve his king and country, and fight, and run the riſk of being knocked on the head, at 24 s. per month, that can have 50 s. without the like degree of hazard? and 'till this be remedied, in vain are all the encouragements which can be given to ſeamen; for they tend but to make them inſolent, and encourage their extravagance.

Nor would this proceeding be any damage to the ſeamen in general, for 24 s. per month wages, and to be kept in conſtant ſervice, or half-pay when idle, is really better to the ſeamen than 45 or 50 s. per month or upwards, as they now take it, conſidering how long they often lie idle on ſhore, out of pay: for the exorbitant rate of ſeamens wages, though it has been an intolerable burthen to trade, has not viſibly enriched the ſailors, and they may as well be content with 24 s. per month now as formerly.

On the other hand, trade would be ſenſibly revived by it, the intolerable price of freights would be reduced, and the public would reap an immenſe benefit by the payments mentioned in the propoſal: for,

(1.) Four ſhillings per month upon the wages of all the ſeamen employed by the merchant, which if we allow 200,000 ſeamen always in employ, as there cannot be leſs in all the ſhips belonging to England, is 40,000 l. per month.

(2.) Forty ſhillings per ton freight upon all goods imported.

(3.) Four per cent. on the value of all goods exported or imported.

(4.) Ten ſhillings per chaldron upon all the coals ſhipped at Newcaſtle, and 1 per cent. on the ſhips which carry them.

What theſe four articles would pay to the Exchequer yearly, it would be very difficult to calculate: but, perhaps, few ſingle taxes ever given in time of war, have exceeded it.

It is true, out of this the public would be to pay half-pay to the ſeamen, who ſhall be out of employ, and all the loſſes and damages on goods and ſhips; which, though it might be conſiderable, would be ſmall, compared to the payment aforeſaid; for as the premium of 4 per cent. is but ſmall, ſo the ſafety lies upon all men, being bound to inſure: for I believe any one will grant, that it is not the ſmallneſs of a premium ruins the inſurer, but it is the ſmallneſs of the quantity he inſures; and, perhaps, if a premium of 4 per cent. be paid into one man's hand for all goods imported and exported, and any man might be the general inſurer of the kingdom, and yet that premium could never prejudice the merchant adventurer.

So that the large revenue which this ſhould raiſe, would be felt no where; neither poor nor rich would pay the more for coals; foreign goods would be brought home cheaper, and our own goods carried to market cheaper; owners would get more by ſhips, merchants by goods, and loſſes by ſea would be no loſs at all to any body, becauſe repaid out of the public ſtock.

Another unſeen advantage would ariſe by it; we ſhould be able to out-work all our neighbours, even the French and the Dutch themſelves, by ſailing as cheap, and carrying goods as cheap in time of war as in peace; an advantage, which has more in it than is eaſily thought of, and would have a noble influence upon all our foreign traffic. For what could the Dutch or the French do in trade, if we could carry our goods to Cadiz at 50 s. per ton freight, and they give 8 or 10 l. and the like in other places? Whereby we could be able to ſell cheaper, or get more than our neighbours.

There are ſeveral conſiderable clauſes might be added to this propoſal, ſome of great advantage to the general trade of the kingdom, ſome to particular trades, and more to the public; but I avoid being too particular in things which are but the product of a private opinion.

If the government ſhould ever proceed to the experiment, no queſtion but much more than has been hinted at would appear; nor do we ſee any great difficulty in the attempt, or who would be aggrieved at it; and there I leave it, rather wiſhing than expecting to ſee any thing like this undertaken.

Another PROPOSAL ſuggeſted by the judicious Mr Carey, late of Briſtol, merchant, in his *Diſcourſe on Trade*.

That gentleman obſerves, 'That navigation is the medium between our inland and foreign traffic: the latter is carried on by ſhips and ſailors; the former are the ſea-waggons, whereby we tranſport and carry commodities from one market to another; and the latter are the waggoners, who drive and manage them: theſe are a ſort of jolly fellows, who are generally bold in their undertakings, and go through any kind of labour in their own way, with a great deal of chearfulneſs; are undaunted by ſtorms and tempeſts, the ſea being as it were their element, and are allowed by all to be the beſt navigators in the world; they are our wealth in peace, and our defence in war, and ought to be more encouraged than they are in both, but eſpecially in the latter; which might be done, if better methods were uſed to engage them in the ſervice, and better treatment when they are there: now I ſhould think, if no man was forced into the king's ſhips 'till he had been three years at ſea, nor to ſtay there above that time without his free conſent, and then to be permitted to take a merchant's employment ſo much longer, and ſo totois quotois, it would encourage them to come willingly into the ſervice, which they look upon now to be a ſlavery, whereto they are bound for their lives: this, and the manner of preſſing them, hinders very much the making of ſailors, landmen not caring to put their hands to the oar, leſt the next day they ſhould be hauled away to the fleet, though they underſtand nothing of the ſea: by this means our men of war would be manned with able ſeamen, and not with ſuch who only ſtand in the way, and are uſeleſs, when they are moſt wanted; nor do I take embargoes to be any help towards it, for many ſailors do then lie hid, who would appear to ſerve in merchants ſhips, and might be eaſily met with at the return of their voyages: by theſe means, in a ſhort time,

there

there would be a double ſet of mariners, enough both for the ſervice of the fleet and of trade, the laſt of which would every year breed more.

This would alſo prevent great miſchiefs, which ariſe from preſſing ſailors out of merchant-ſhips whilſt on their voyages, many of them being thereby loſt at ſea, and others have been detained in the Weſt-Indies, to the diſcouragement of trade; and it would alſo prevent another miſchief, too much practiſed abroad, where captains of men of war preſs ſailors from one merchant-ſhip, only to make advantage by ſelling them to another.'—Thus far Mr Carey.

There has lately appeared a treatiſe, drawn up with no leſs judgment than zeal towards the public intereſts, entitled, An ESSAY towards a method of ſpeedily MANNING a FLEET, upon any SUDDEN EMERGENCY. — After this ingenious gentleman has ſhewn the neceſſity of the nation being always in a condition to man and equip a reſpectable fleet at ſhort warning, he then modeſtly ſubmits his own propoſal for a voluntary REGISTER for SEAMEN to public conſideration, the ſubſtance of which is as follows, viz.

'I. When a king's ſhip returns from a voyage or cruize, &c. and is to be paid off, the captain or commanding officer ſhould have power to declare to the ſhip's company, that any able-bodied man, deſirous to enter his name, &c. in the regiſter for ſeamen, is at liberty to do it, under the conditions therein mentioned and preſcribed; which are to be then publickly and audibly read to the men, that no perſon may afterwards plead ignorance.

II. The men ſhould be called over by their names, according to the ſhip's book; and each man aſked ſeparately, whether he chuſes to enter his name in the REGISTER or not. If he does not, he ſhould be at full liberty to refuſe it, but having once refuſed it, ſhould not afterwards be admitted, ſo long as a ſufficient number of others offer themſelves to complete the REGISTER.

III. A liſt being thus taken of the names of ſuch as are willing to enter, and are fit for the ſervice, proper columns are to be made for entering, at the ſame time, each man's age, complexion, ſtature, marks, if any trade, county or country, and the city, town, hundred or hamlet, he declares his intentions to go to for the preſent.

IV. A copy of this liſt, ſigned by all the commiſſion and warrant officers on board, is to be forthwith ſent to the admiralty or navy-board, from whence præcipe's or orders will be iſſued to the ſeveral magiſtrates of the cities, towns, &c. to which theſe men go (according to the liſt) to enter the name of every man that comes into his diſtrict, with all his deſcriptions, and the name of the place he laſt came from.

V. A return is to be made to the admiralty, &c. every month, more or leſs, by the mayor, bailiff, or neareſt juſtice of the peace, of the name and deſcription of every regiſtered man that has come into, or left his diſtrict during that month, taking particular care to mention the place he declared an intention to go to; whilſt the other magiſtrate, of or near the place he goes to, makes in the ſame manner his return, ſpecifying the place from whence any new man laſt came.

Let it be taken for granted, ſays this gentleman, that a REGISTER for SEAMEN would be a ſucceſsful and proper method to engage their ſervice: the next point to be conſidered, is what number of men would anſwer that purpoſe.

I ſhall leave that entirely to the wiſdom of my ſuperiors.—But permit me to ſuppoſe at preſent, that the number was to be 10 or 12,000 men; and that each man was to receive after the rate of 5 l. per ann. or 2s. a week, which amounts to 5 l. 4s. a year. The ſum neceſſary to pay 10,000 men, would then be 50,000 l. or 52,000 l. a year, and ſo in proportion for any greater or ſmaller number.

After the rate of 500 men to a ſhip, this number would equip 20 or 24 line of battle ſhips: and if theſe be not ſufficient, this method does by no means preclude the preſſing of vagrants, idle, looſe, and diſorderly men, without any viſible means of maintaining themſelves in an honeſt induſtrious calling. On the contrary, let the magiſtrates exert themſelves, and be every where encouraged to ſeize, impriſon, and convey to the ſeveral ſea-ports, all perſons under that deſcription: and by dividing theſe diſſolute fellows amongſt the ſeveral ſhips, more hands would be added, more ſhips equipped, and the country cleared of theſe noxious irreclaimable villains. This would be preſſing in a legal manner, and perhaps the only method for putting a ſtop to the outrages daily committed in all parts of the town and country.

Fifty thouſand pounds a year may, perhaps, at firſt view, be eſteemed a very large additional expence to the nation: but when the advantages ariſing from it ſhall be conſidered, I flatter myſelf, that every well-wiſher to his country would think that ſum, or even a much larger, well employed. Some few of theſe advantages are as follow:

Firſt, This may be a means of ſaving a large expence to the nation, by deterring our neighbours from any ſudden and raſh attempts upon the rights and privileges of the crown and ſubject. For when they know us in a condition to do ourſelves juſtice, as well as diſpoſed to reſent an injury, they may not be ſo forward in diſturbing our tranquillity and peaceable diſpoſition.

Secondly, A great many lives may hereby be ſpared. For if this ſcheme ſhould prevent inſults and incroachments, which are generally the firſt ſeeds of war; the conſequence is, that many officers and ſeamen who would be engaged, and loſe their lives in that war, are hereby ſaved to the public.

Thirdly, Theſe men, who have been employed in the ſervice of their country in time of war, would, in time of peace, have ſome gratification for their former fatigues and dangers, inſtead of being turned adrift to ſtarve, rob, and murder, as they actually do; or being driven, by neceſſity, into foreign ſervice.

Fourthly, Large annual ſums are now raiſed and paid, as rewards, for apprehending highwaymen, footpads, &c. who are brought to the gallows and gibbet; a great part of which might probably be ſaved, as well as the lives of theſe miſerable wretches, were this ſcheme to take place.

Men who have been forcibly taken from their trade and family, and have been kept four or five years abroad, who have loſt almoſt all the ſkill they had in their ſeveral callings, and, perhaps, been deprived of their friends by death, removals, &c. can ſcarce ſettle immediately to any uſeful and induſtrious way of life, when turned aſhore. But this ſcheme would, in a great meaſure, prevent them from taking any deſperate courſes; it would give them an aſſurance of not wanting ſome proviſion for the future, the want of which generally drives ſuch men to extremities. And as the lords of the admiralty would have a power to diſcharge any man who behaved ill, this would oblige the men to a more ſober and regular behaviour. The very regiſter would be a great check to ſuch irregularities: for, as the place of each man's reſidence, and his deſcription would hereby be well known, he would certainly, ſooner or later, be diſcovered: he would be juſt in the ſame condition as a deſerter from the army, few or none of which eſcape puniſhment.

But, moreover, an encouragement of this ſort might probably draw many of our men out of foreign ſervice, to that of their country again. An advantage of ineſtimable value, as it not only weakens their hands, but ſtrengthens ours.

It is true, they receive, when paid off, the wages due to them: but this only leads them into lewdneſs, debauchery, and bad company; which ſo far corrupt their morals, whilſt the money laſts, that, when it is gone, they aſſociate into bands of the moſt abandoned ſort, and perpetrate all manner of wickedneſs, to enable them to continue in and ſupport the way of life they have fallen into.

As a farther encouragement to be given to ſuch ſeamen as ſhall voluntarily enter themſelves, it is propoſed,

Firſt, No man ſhould be allowed to ply a boat on any river, in any port or harbour, unleſs he be regiſtered, if a regiſtered man offers himſelf for that purpoſe.

Secondly, A worn-out regiſtered man, not admitted into Greenwich-Hoſpital, ſhould be allowed to ply a boat, as above, in preference to any other regiſtered man, and conſequently to any man not regiſtered.

Thirdly, Preference ſhould be given to a man regiſtered before a war, to remain upon the liſt in time of peace (if able and fit for ſervice) before any man regiſtered during the war, and before the peace.

Fourthly, All warrant-officers doing duty on board any ſhip in ordinary, by a deputy, ſhould be obliged to take a deputy from amongſt the regiſtered men (if any ſuch offers, that is fit for the buſineſs) rather than any other man, under a penalty.

Fifthly, A regiſtered man to be received into Greenwich-Hoſpital, in preference to a man not regiſtered; and when ſtruck off the liſt, as no longer fit to ſerve, to be conſtantly received there.

Theſe regulations neceſſarily require the keeping an exact account of the date of each man's regiſtery.

As this ſcheme propoſes the keeping up the number of 10 or 12,000 men, excluſive of thoſe employed on ordinary occaſions in time of peace, it becomes neceſſary, that as ſoon as any regiſtered man is taken into the king's ſervice (except in time of war) another man be admitted to regiſter in his ſtead. I have here inſerted an exception, which, in my humble opinion, had better have been omitted. For if a fund were once raiſed, and appropriated to that ſole uſe, I do not perceive the leaſt inconveniency that could ariſe from continuing that method in time of war likewiſe; that is, when any regiſter for ſervice, the ſame ſhould be completed as ſoon as poſſible: otherwiſe our enemies, knowing that our ſtock of ſeamen is drained, would no longer ſtand in awe of any further armaments. But, in the height of a war, it can ſcarce be ſuppoſed we ſhould have men enough completely to man our fleet, and to fill the regiſter at the ſame time. If ſo many men ſhould be found, then we have

have always 10 or 12,000 men ready upon any occaſion. If, as is moſt likely, men ſhould be wanting, then the fund would thereby be ſo long increaſing, and enabled, at the concluſion of the war, to provide for ſo many more men as ſhould be judged proper.

The only inconvenience I can foreſee that may attend this meaſure is, that, at the end of the war, the regiſter may poſſibly be full, and, conſequently, no room left for ſuch as have ſerved during the war. But that is not at all likely; and if not, then the increaſe of the fund will admit of ſo many additional men, for a time at leaſt: and we preſume to hope, that a ſcheme of this nature will be ſo generally approved, as in time to meet with all the encouragements at this day beſtowed upon other generous and charitable inſtitutions, no one of which can be put in any competition with this, for the importance of, and advantages ariſing from, it, to the nation in general, and every individual.

Perhaps it will be ſaid, That every body is convinced of the neceſſity of encouraging our ſeamen, and having always a certain number ready to be called together at ſhort warning: but the difficulty is, how to find a proper fund for that purpoſe.

How difficult ſoever that may be, if it is neceſſary, if the mercantile intereſt, and our general ſafety, ſuffer by that neglect, the difficulty ſhould be no objection. Large ſums are annually expended in buildings, and other, perhaps, neceſſary works; but ſurely no one of them can be compared to this for expediency, and general advantage.

When our real intereſt is in queſtion, it is not to be doubted but a Britiſh houſe of commons will find the proper reſources.' See An Eſſay towards a Method of ſpeedily MANNING A FLEET upon any SUDDEN EMERGENCY. Printed for Sandby in Fleet-Street.

REMARKS.

In the year 1740, the houſe of commons gave leave to bring in a bill for regiſtering all ſeamen, watermen, fiſhermen, keelmen, bargemen, and ſeafaring men, capable of ſervice at ſea, throughout his Majeſty's dominions; but it being judged by the houſe to be overloaded, and too arbitrarily to affect the liberties of the ſubject, it was dropped; upon which the houſe reſolved itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to conſider of heads of a bill for the further and better encouragement of ſeamen to enter voluntarily into his Majeſty's ſervice; in which committee ſeveral reſolutions were agreed to, but nothing further done.—It may be uſeful, however, here to give the ſeveral reſolutions of the houſe of commons upon this occaſion, which are as follow, viz.

1. That a voluntary regiſter of ſeamen will be of great utility to this kingdom.
2. That it ſhall extend to all the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain.
3. That the fraternity of Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strond be intruſted with the management of the ſaid regiſter, with power of appointing inferior officers and ſervants neceſſary for the execution of the ſaid truſt.
4. That a certain ſum of money be paid to every man who is willing to regiſter.
5. That every regiſtered man ſhould be obliged to give an account of the place of his abode to the regiſter office.
6. That the regiſtered men ſhall be divided into claſſes.
7. That a yearly penſion be allowed to every regiſtered man who ſhall be diſabled in fight, over and above ſuch allowances as are now given, and a yearly penſion to every widow of a regiſtered man ſlain in fight, over and above the preſent allowances made to ſuch widow; and if the party leaves any children, that each of them have a yearly penſion, until they arrive at the age of fourteen.
8. That every regiſtered man be exempted from paying the king's or pariſh taxes, or ſerving any pariſh offices, or ſerving in, or contributing towards, the militia.
9. That none be preferred to be petty officers in any of his Majeſty's ſhips but regiſtered men.
10. That all petty officers in merchants ſhips, as boatſwains, gunners, &c. be choſen out of the regiſtered men.
11. That all men who ſhall regiſter themſelves do remain on the regiſter no longer than to a certain age.
12. That all men who ſhall have continued on the regiſter a certain age, do enjoy all the advantages of regiſtered men during life.
13. That all regiſtered men ſhall have the preference of being admitted into Greenwich Hoſpital.
14. That all captains and commanders of his Majeſty's ſhips of war, who ſhall be applied to in foreign parts, ſhall take on board any regiſtered men, and the men ſo taken on board ſhall, from that time, be deemed part of the ſhip's company, and receive wages accordingly.
15. That regiſtered men be allowed to go into the merchants ſervice, when the ſervice of his Majeſty ſhall not require them, and that the proper officers do give them certificates for the ſame.
16. That regiſtered men be intitled to receive their wages in certain proportions.
17. That all ſeamen now abſconding in foreign parts, or at home, on account of running goods, who ſhall enter on board any of his Majeſty's ſhips, and claim the benefit of this regiſter, ſhall be intitled to their pardon, except perſons who have been concerned in actual murder.
18. That all regiſtered men who ſhall be ſummoned to appear on board any of his Majeſty's ſhips, and ſhall neglect or refuſe to do the ſame, ſhall be ſubject to be puniſhed as deſerters.
19. That all foreign ſeamen who ſhall claim the benefit of this regiſter, ſhall be intitled to all the rights and privileges of natural-born ſubjects.
20. That the truſtees of charity ſchools for the education of boys, ſhall be obliged to put forth apprentices to the ſea-ſervice, ſuch as ſhall find maſters willing to take them.
21. That the regiſtered men ſhall wear ſome honourary mark of diſtinction.
22. That the regiſter-office be obliged to give an account to the lord high admiral, or the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral, for the time being, of all the men that ſhall be regiſtered.
23. That the regiſter-office ſhall, on the receipt of an order from the lord high admiral, or the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral for the time being, for any number of men contained on the regiſter, iſſue out their order for the ſaid number of men to appear, according to the order directed to them as aforeſaid.

FURTHER REMARKS.

Were an act of parliament to be paſſed for eſtabliſhing 10,000 able ſeamen certain for ever, for the king's ſervice, we may preſume to affirm, that it may be plainly demonſtrated, that the advantages which would accrue therefrom to every part of the nation in general, would render the extraordinary expence of ſuch eſtabliſhment, if any at all, very inconſiderable. Should any one be ſtartled at the very ſound of ſuch a large number of men, without giving himſelf either time to conſult the merits of another propoſal we are about to offer, which may be drawn from what has been ſaid, aſk, in objection to it, what occaſion the government would have, during the time of peace, which may ſometimes hold, very probably, for ten or twenty years, to encumber itſelf with ſuch numbers of a ſet of people, who, in their opinion, muſt be very unneceſſary? we ſhall requeſt of him a candid peruſal of what follows, and doubt not but to find him much better reconciled.

By the advance money that ſhould be given, and the certainty of not being diſmiſſed, after any ſhort expedition, from his Majeſty's ſervice, to make what proviſion they can for themſelves, in that of others, the number of volunteers that would immediately offer themſelves, would very quickly make up the liſt propoſed; nor would the manner in which they ſhould be employed, even at thoſe times when the fleet may have a call but for a very few of them, be a leſs temptation for them to enter.

As his Majeſty's docks and yards do continually maintain a very large number of workmen, in the ſeveral articles relating to the navy, one part of the ſaid ſeamen might, with little prejudice to the hands already employed, be made uſe of in time of peace, in the work there: at firſt, in ſuch parts only of it, as may be moſt eaſily attained in a very little time, 'till by degrees they may arrive to ſuch a tolerable knowlege in the others, as will not only enable them, by the money they ſhall earn, to maintain themſelves and families very comfortably, but render them, when required to their original province of ſailing, more uſeful and expert in the intire management of every particular belonging to the ſhip; whilſt the other part of them, or as many as there may be a call for, provided it does not exceed one half of the number, unemployed in his Majeſty's fleet, ſhall have a permit for a year, to ſail in ſuch veſſels as are coaſters, or make ſhort voyages, ſuch as to France, Ireland, Norway, &c. by which means they will acquire ſuch perfect knowlege of the many rocks and ſands that almoſt intirely ſurround us, that they may prove, when ſummoned again into his Majeſty's navy, of very important uſe, even in the quality of pilots. And to prevent any difficulty, or diſpute, that may ariſe between the maſters of ſuch veſſels and the king's ſailors, that want to ſhip themſelves on board them, the merchants or maſters, bound for any ſuch ports as abovementioned, ſhall be obliged to receive into their veſſels one half of their complement of the KING'S MEN, at the common wages, who ſhall likewiſe have a written power, or authority, granted them, to ſhip themſelves on board any coaſters or veſſels trading as beforementioned, in any port of Great-Britain where they are, provided they do not exceed the number of other hands ſhipped on board of the ſaid veſſels.

A REGISTER may alſo be kept at every port, of the number of hands each veſſel ſhips, that the government may be aſſured of the punctual and ready compliance of the merchants, or captains, in receiving one half of their complement of king's men, without any manner of evaſion or objection, if ſuch offer themſelves. And if it ſhould ſo chance, that many of theſe ſailors ſhould ſeek employment all at the

ſame port, where there were veſſels lying in expectation of hands, there may be ſuch regulations, that no one veſſel ſhould take in more than an equal proportion of the ſaid ſailors. As for inſtance, if three veſſels lay in the ſame port, ſuppoſing each veſſel carry ten hands, and five of his Majeſty's men ſhould offer themſelves only to one of theſe three ſhips, they ſhall not be allowed to go all together in that one veſſel, but ſhall diſtribute themſelves amongſt the three, and that veſſel, whoſe lot it was to have but one, ſhall receive the next king's man that comes to enter himſelf at that port, as his fair dividend.

No owners, or maſters of the veſſels beforementioned, ſhall prefer, in their firſt choice of the hands they propoſe to ſhip, any other ſailors to thoſe belonging to his Majeſty; but if no application is made from any of them, the captains may be at their own diſcretion to receive others for the whole voyage. And for the future eaſe of the ſaid eſtabliſhed number of ſeamen, and to make them in every degree more uſeful to the government, after the expiration of the year, for which the permit was granted to one half of them to go into the merchants ſervice, there may be an exchange of ſtations for the ſame length of time, between them and the other half that were left and employed at home. By theſe meaſures the grandeur and ſecurity of the nation will ſtand upon an immoveable and unperiſhable baſis; and the inconveniencies which it may otherwiſe ſuſtain, from having moſt of the hands in their veſſels, during the time of war, impreſſed, perhaps, juſt as they are clearing out for their voyage, and loaden with commodities which may be in danger of being greatly damaged by ſuch a retardment to their ſailing, will immediately vaniſh, and the approach or declaration of a war carry with it none of the ill effects on the apprehenſions of the trading people, which it may at preſent.

The number of ſailors which the government, upon this ſcheme, may have occaſion to diſtribute amongſt them, ought, very far from being judged an act of compulſion, to be received as the ſtrongeſt inſtance of its lenity, tenderneſs, and regard for their intereſt. The king's men, it is to be preſumed, will be as good, if not better, than what they may otherwiſe be obliged to take up with; nor, if any exigency of affairs ſhould conſtrain the government to call off theſe men into the royal ſervice, can they poſſibly think the loſing a part of their complement an hardſhip, as their voyages will be ſo very ſhort, that they may have time enough, from the firſt ſummons of his Majeſty for his ſailors to return, 'till the time limited for ſuch return (which may be three weeks, or a month) to provide themſelves with a ſupply, and even without being neceſſitated to pay any ſuch exorbitant wages as the ſcarcity and timidity of the ſeamen, during the time of a preſs, exacts from them. If, as I am informed by ſome perſons who pretend to have made a pretty exact computation of the number of ſeamen employed in the home and neighbouring trades, there may really be 30,000, then, were the whole eſtabliſhed number of his Majeſty's ſeamen diſtributed equally among the merchants, in the room of ſome of the others, ſuch ſeamen would be but one third of each ſhip's complement; ſo that the merchants can neither ſcruple to receive ſo few, to the prejudice of the other ſailors, nor think it any grievance to part with them, when his Majeſty's occaſions demand them.

As it is an inherent principle in every Engliſhman, to ſubmit with reluctance to any thing that ſeems to carry a check upon his liberty and free choice; ſo I would not, in this engagement to his Majeſty's ſervice, have men conſtrained to bind themſelves up either for life, or for a long term of years, but chuſe to leave it to their own diſcretion to quit the ſervice when they have an inclination, on this eaſy and reaſonable condition only, that they ſhall be obliged to give a year's notice of their intention, on the failure of which, proper penalties may be thought of to be inflicted. Such an argument as this will be no more than what is entered into almoſt every day between man and man, in every branch or kind of buſineſs; but for their encouragement not only to enter, but to continue in the ſervice voluntarily, I could wiſh an eaſy fund might be found out, whereby the government might be enabled to cloath them from head to foot, once in two years, with a badge of the flag of England, as a peculiar and honourable diſtinction from all other ſailors: thoſe cloaths to be worn by ſuch as work in the yards, only at ſuch times as they ſhall be abſent from their work.

So many brave and ſkilful men, all appearing in a national livery, cannot but affect the minds of every thinking Britiſh ſpectator with the moſt ſenſible ſatisfaction, when he beholds the true protectors of the kingdom's grandeur and happineſs ſo deſervedly cheriſhed; and every foreigner will have the ſtrongeſt ſentiments as well of our gratitude and policy, as of our undoubted ſecurity. The men themſelves, when the neceſſity of affairs may have recourſe to a ſtrong navy, will think themſelves under the greateſt obligations to repay, with extraordinary chearfulneſs and bravery, ſuch extraordinary marks of the nation's bounty and regard for them. For the firſt three years, any able ſeamen may be admitted upon this eſtabliſhment, not exceeding forty years of age, but, after the ſaid three years, none ſhall exceed the age of thirty. And as a further reward and inducement for their long continuance in the ſervice, it is propoſed, that thoſe who have ſerved for ſuch a term of years, or done ſuch ſervices as the diſcretion of the board of admiralty, or the commiſſioners, ſhall judge worthy of it, ſhall receive a ſmall penſion for life, though they are not any way diſabled in the ſervice; and in caſe any of them leaves a widow, ſhe ſhall enjoy for her life one moiety of what was before his allowance; but if any of them quit the ſervice, and afterwards re-enter, they ſhould have but half the benefit of the time they ſerved before. And if any of them, whilſt in the merchants ſervice, ſhould, by any accident that might happen to the veſſel, in uſing their endeavours for its ſafety or otherwiſe, ſuſtain any damage in their limbs, ſo as to render them incapable of earning their bread as ſailors for the future, they ſhould be conſidered, notwithſtanding, as the king's men, and receive the ſame benefit of a penſion, or the hoſpital, as if they had ſuſtained ſuch wounds or damage in the king's own ſhips. And at laſt, to all theſe conſiderable and inducing advantages, I would join that great and moſt neceſſary encouragement of all, the certainty of having their pay, whatever capacity they ſerve in, whether in merchant-ſhips, or the governor's own, on the moſt eaſy regulations both to themſelves, their creditors, friends, or relations, who may be their executors, or poſſeſſed of their powers of attorney, without any unneceſſary delays upon account of unjuſt and vexations claims, and free from exorbitant and unwarrantable deductions, which has been but a too frequent and enormous practice.

During our wars with the French in our late reigns, complaints of this kind were ſo loud, ſo miſerable, and ſo numerous, that they pierced the hearts of every Engliſhman, excepting ſuch as were the principal authors of their oppreſſion, and made a very guilty gain from their miſeries.

In that melancholy time their hardſhips, I have been aſſured, were as great, as if ſome of the perſons to whom a part of the inſpection and management of the naval affairs was entruſted, had been in an actual league with the French to deſtroy them.

That they were impreſſed from their callings at home, or on their return, perhaps, from a tedious Eaſt-India voyage, when they were big with the hopes of refreſhing themſelves on ſhore for a few weeks, and regaining, in their own native air, their health and vigour, which might be impaired by a long continuance in a foreign climate.

This was a grievance that might eaſily allow of a mitigation, and be rendered in ſome part juſtifiable, from the neceſſities of the ſtate at that time, provided they had not been forced into a ſervice, where, from the corrupt management of ſome avaricious perſons, there was not only an uncertainty of receiving the pay they ſhould be intitled to in ſuch ſervice, on any reaſonable terms, but danger of being defrauded of the greateſt part of it, together with a probability, from too ſevere a confinement on board the fleet (which was ſometimes for two or three years together) of forfeiting, by their deaths, the benefit of what was due to them from the merchants, from whoſe ſervice they were ſo abruptly taken, or leaving it, at leaſt, a diſputable legacy to their widows, or other relations.

From this inability of the ſailors to make ſuch convenient returns of their pay as would have been a comfortable ſubſiſtence to their diſtreſſed families, the pariſhes were loaded with inſupportable taxes for their relief, whilſt the purſers were ſuſpected and accuſed, by the miſerable ſufferers, of burthening the ſailors with large demands for the little conveniencies they were obliged to take up of them, that ſome, when they had the favour of having their accounts in ſome manner ſtated, had not, perhaps, one farthing to receive. To this manifeſt diſcouragement of the ſailors, when on board, was owing the abſolute neceſſity of impreſſing them during all thoſe wars, in ſuch a violent manner, that he who could hide himſelf from the diligent purſuit of a preſs-gang, thought it as great happineſs, even though he was almoſt ſtarving all the while, as if he had eſcaped falling into the hands of an Algerine rover; and the merchants have been obliged to advance their wages from 24s. to 50s. and 3l. and upwards, a month per man, after the inconvenience of waiting a long time, before even that would be a ſufficient temptation for any of them to venture. Nor were the colliers forced to give leſs extravagant hire in proportion, for the bringing their veſſels up the river.

I mention theſe inconveniencies, which in the times before named affected not only the merchants and the ſeamen, but the whole nation, not ſo much as an handle for a general outcry againſt the cuſtom of impreſſing men into his Majeſty's fleet, as from a melancholy reflection, that the ſaid œconomy at that time uſed in diſtributing their due encouragement to each ſailor, ſhould force the government to ſuch rough meaſures as it then did, to obtain an able one: whereas, had it been otherwiſe, and each man knew how to come at what he had earned in a leſs dilatory and diſadvantageous manner, I ſincerely believe that above half the money that was allowed for impreſſing men had been ſaved, and that abundance of ſeamen would have thought the glory of ſerving in the navy preferable to ſome advanced wages they might gain from the merchants.

Should

Should any of the methods we have ſuggeſted for executing what is propoſed, appear to the judgment of others, not ſo entirely practicable, as we have the zeal to imagine they may be, we are confident, the numerous advantages preſaged therefrom, for the good of our king and country, will render any errors of that zeal pardonable. To be ſo well fortified in that moſt valuable branch of Great-Britain's ſecurity (its maritime force) as not only to be in a conſtant readineſs to engage in a war, but from the reputation of ſuch an armament, in a capacity to prevent the approaches of one, appeared to me ſuch a deſirable bleſſing, that no difficulties ought to diſcourage any true and honeſt lover of his country, from uſing his utmoſt abilities to obtain it.

To give a chearful and ſuitable encouragement to the ſailors, is no more than an act of juſtice and gratitude due to them as our protectors, and of prudence to ourſelves, as being protected and aggrandized by them. And we have engaged the more ſtrenuouſly in favour of this one point, as it is but too manifeſt, that from a deficiency of ſuch encouragement, and the want of means to make ſome certain proviſion for them, after they are diſcharged from on board the fleet, many out of the numbers that are unemployed at the ſame time, are obliged to go into foreign ſervice, that only great and dangerous poſſibility of rendering our preſent imagined ſuperiority over all other nations precarious for the future; every foreign realm, whoſe intereſt it is to turn its genius to maritime affairs, ſearching diligently after, and receiving greedily, ENGLISH SEAMEN, preferably to thoſe of their own, or any other nation; whilſt others of them, too frequently from a dearth of employment, are tempted to ſupply their neceſſities, by plundering, robbing in the ſtreets, breaking open houſes, &c. too notorious an evidence of which is, that at almoſt every ſeſſions at the Old-Bailey, there has been, at ſuch times, generally one or more ſeamen among the people convicted of capital crimes. A prevention, therefore, of theſe grievances, is to be wiſhed, as much for the ſecurity of the government, as for the eaſe of the people. That the merchants ſhould ſuffer as little as poſſible, either from the damage done to their goods, or the loſing ſome part of the benefit of the foreign markets, from being detained too long in their home ports, by the ſeizure of their men, or by being obliged to give extravagant wages for ſeamen, who, perhaps, may be only foreigners, old men, or boys, as few others will venture themſelves during the time of a preſs, ſhould be the ſpeedieſt caution of a government, whoſe REVENUE is ſo much intereſted in the flouriſhing or oppreſſed condition of the trading part of the nation. That the pariſhes ſhould not be overburthened by an extraordinary charge of poor, which muſt be the caſe, when perſons, who are, perhaps, ſettled in a tolerable way of buſineſs, able to ſupport themſelves and families, are involuntarily hurried on board the fleet; and, in ſhort, that no ſudden preparations for war, ſhould be of ſo ill conſequence to the meaner ſort of people, as to diminiſh the benefit of what they earn by hard labour, by creating any advanced prices on the moſt common neceſſaries, demands the conſideration of their ſuperiors, not leſs from humanity than policy.

Thus, from ſuch regards as theſe being ſhewn for the ſtrength of the kingdom, and the felicity of all the members of it, every thing muſt flouriſh in the moſt delightful manner, the ſovereign fortified againſt all attempts of his enemies, and the people ready to make him the moſt grateful returns for their proſperity.

REMARKS upon the whole of the article SEAMEN.

The reader has now before him, under this article SEAMEN, the ſubſtance of what has been propoſed ſince the Revolution, in regard to the meaſures requiſite to be taken, in order to the ſpeedy manning of the royal navy upon any emergency. Which of theſe propoſals may deſerve the preference, or whether any of them may be eligible, I ſhall not take upon me to declare; the judicious, perhaps, may find ſomething in every one that may deſerve their attention, and may, from the whole, form one better than either. It is obſervable, that the ſenſe of the parliament has been to promote a voluntary regiſter; and the ſcheme propoſed in the eſſay before cited ſeems to be built upon the ſame principles; and, indeed, all compulſory methods upon this occaſion ought to be avoided, becauſe they are likely to have no better effect than the violent means of impreſſing men by force have hitherto had, and, therefore, can by no means anſwer the ſalutary end propoſed. Moreover, whatever hath a tendency to ſtrike at the liberties of the whole ſeafaring body of the people, ſhould be ſtudiouſly guarded againſt in a land of liberty. Nor will the violent and arbitrary example of France, or that practiſed in any other nation, have any weight with Great Britain, to induce her to follow it; and, therefore, every thing that can be urged from topics of this kind, will loſe its weight with a Britiſh parliament. That ſomething effectual is indiſpenſably neceſſary to be done, to anſwer an end ſo much for the ſafety and glory of the kingdom, is agreed on all hands.

The methods which the French and Spaniards have lately taken, have rendered them, in caſe of a war, much more powerful enemies than they were ſome years ago. Our trade can never be ſaid to be ſafe, unleſs our ſhips of war are, at leaſt, equal, if not ſuperior, to theirs in number. That we exceed them as yet in number, as well as in goodneſs of ſhips, is a point not to be diſputed: may this ſuperiority long continue! I think it muſt, and will, if we are not wanting to ourſelves; but it behoves us to have a watchful eye upon their motions. Theſe neighbours of our's are daily increaſing their fleets, and ſending large armaments (in time of peace) to different parts of the globe, in order to make new ſettlements, enlarge their commerce, and protect their ſubjects. It is notorious that the Spaniards, with a high hand, encourage their guarda coſtas in the Weſt-Indies, even to inſolence, as well as injuſtice. And it is allowed that the French, by ſecret methods, and by open and hoſtile attempts, are endeavouring to diſturb and endanger our ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies, as well as thoſe in America. The preſent ſtate of their maritime power muſt, undoubtedly, be the true cauſe and foundation of all theſe outrages. Such attempts would be uſeleſs and impolitic, if they apprehend any probability of our calling for an immediate reparation of damages; but they are perfectly acquainted with our ſituation, and bid defiance to our number of ſhips in harbour. They know it would be exceedingly difficult for us to equip even a ſmall fleet, upon any ſudden emergency; wherefore they preſume upon our not doing it, 'till we are driven to it by ſome great and abſolute neceſſity. They are apprized of the impediments ariſing from our conſtitution, and the time it takes to man a fleet, let the circumſtances be ever ſo preſſing, and perceive that their ſhips may be at ſea, and poſſibly have ſtruck their ſtroke, before a ſmall ſquadron of our large ſhips can be manned and equipped.

At the concluſion of the laſt war, when the firſt ſhip was paid off, there were, if I miſtake not, 65,000 ſeamen on board his Majeſty's fleet; and yet, when a few ſhips were, a little while ago, to be fitted out for the Eaſt-Indies, we were obliged to have recourſe to ſevere methods, in collecting a ſufficient number of hands to man them, ſo as to ſail in due time. Nay, further, when only four ſhips were ordered, the laſt ſpring, to take on board the troops for Gibraltar and Minorca, they were, if I am rightly informed, detained a conſiderable time, only for want of hands to man the ſhips for ſo ſhort a ſervice. Our ſeamen, as well as artificers, are ſaid to be engaged in foreign ſervice, where they meet with proper encouragement: whereas we take little or no care of them, any longer than whilſt we want their aſſiſtance. Thus when preſs-warrants are iſſued, the poor fellows abſcond, and run any hazards, rather than be forced into the ſervice; the few that voluntarily enter, or are taken in their lurking-holes, are no better than ſlaves; for as new ones are no where to be found, ſo thoſe no ſooner return from a long and hazardous voyage, than they are turned over to other ſhips, and are ſent upon ſome diſtant expedition.

Of our LAWS relating to SEAMEN.

Every ſeaman in the ſervice of the crown, or any ſubject, except of hoys, ſmacks, &c. belonging to London, employed in bringing corn, fiſh, or proviſions, to pay 6d. per month to Greenwich-Hoſpital. Maſters of ſhips to detain the 6d. per month out of ſeamens wages.

The 6d. a month paid by ſeamen, ſhall extend to ſhips belonging to Great-Britain and Ireland, and the iſlands in America, &c. and collectors to be appointed, who may examine all maſters of veſſels; and they to pay the duty before ſhips are cleared, under the penalty of 20l.

Only the ſeamen in the king's ſervice were entitled to a place in Greenwich-Hoſpital; whereupon the following act was made, ſetting forth, that

As there is no proviſion made for ſuch ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, as are diſabled by accidental misfortunes, or for thoſe worn out by age, or for the widows or children of ſuch as ſhall be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice; and as the ſeamen in the ſaid ſervice are willing to allow 6d. per month out of their wages, to be applied for the relief of ſuch as ſhall be diſabled or worn out by age, and of the widows and children of thoſe killed in the ſaid ſervice;

It is provided that Alexander Hume, John Briſtow, John Bance, Henry Gough, &c. ſhall be one body corporate and politic, by the name of the preſident and governors for the relief and ſupport of ſick, maimed, and diſabled ſeamen, of the widows and children of ſuch as ſhall be killed, ſlain, or drowned in the merchants ſervice; and that by the ſame name of the preſident and governors, they ſhall have perpetual ſucceſſion; and that they may receive and enjoy in truſt, for the purpoſes of this act, all ſuch ſums of money as are granted, and ſhall be raiſed by virtue of this act, or ſhall be contributed or bequeathed by well-diſpoſed perſons; and that they may at any time hereafter, without licence in mortmain, purchaſe or receive any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or any eſtate or intereſt therein, ſo that the ſame be only for the ſcite of, or to be converted into, an hoſpital, with offices and appurtenances neceſſary for the ſaid purpoſes.

The

The preſident and governors ſhall provide in the ſaid hoſpital for the reception of ſeamen rendered incapable of ſervice, or ſhall allow them certain penſions, or otherwiſe, as they ſhall think moſt for the advantage of the ſaid charity; and ſhall alſo relieve the widows and children of ſuch ſeamen as ſhall be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, provided ſuch children are not of the age of 14, or if, of that age or upwards, they are incapable of getting a livelihood, by reaſon of lameneſs, blindneſs, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity: and ſhall make reaſonable allowances to thoſe who ſhall loſe an eye or limb, or be otherwiſe hurt in fighting, defending, or working the ſhips in which they ſerve, or in loading or unloading the cargoes, or otherwiſe howſoever in doing their duty, in proportion to the damage they ſhall receive, ſo far as the revenues will extend for the ſaid purpoſes, according to ſuch rules, orders, and regulations, as ſhall be eſtabliſhed in purſuance of this act.

No ſeaman ſhall be provided for by a penſion or otherwiſe, as decrepit or worn out, unleſs he ſhall have ſerved five years in the merchants ſervice, and paid 6d. per month out of his wages for that time for the purpoſes of this act.

If any perſon ſhall at one or more payments contribute 50l. for the purpoſes of this act, he ſhall be declared a governor of the ſaid corporation.

Every ſeaman, or perſon employed in any veſſel belonging to a ſubject of England, and every maſter or owner navigating the ſame (other than ſuch apprentices, under the age of eighteen, as are exempted from payment of 6d. per month to the hoſpital at Greenwich, by an act of 2 Anne, and perſons employed on the coaſts of England, in taking of fiſh brought freſh on ſhore; and perſons employed in boats or veſſels that trade only from place to place within any river in England, or in open boats upon the coaſts thereof), and pilots employed on board veſſels, ſhall, after the 29th of September 1747, pay 6d. per month, and proportionally for a leſſer time during their employment, for the purpoſes aforeſaid.

The maſter, owner, or commander, of every veſſel, is to deduct out of the wages, &c. of every ſuch ſeaman, &c. (except as before excepted) the ſaid duty of 6d. per. month, and ſhall pay the ſame to ſuch receivers as the preſident and governors, or the truſtees of the out-ports, ſhall appoint, if ſuch ſeamen, &c. ſhall have or be intitled to any wages, ſhares, or profits.

Thoſe ſeamen who ſhall have been longeſt in the ſaid ſervice, and contributed moſt towards the ſaid duty, ſhall be firſt provided for as worn out or decrepit.

If any ſeaman, or other perſon employed on board any veſſel, ſhall, in the diſcharge of his duty, either on ſhore or on board, break any limb, or be otherwiſe hurt, ſo that immediate care is neceſſary to be taken of him, the preſident and governors of the port of London, and the reſpective truſtees for the out-ports, ſhall provide proper relief for ſuch perſon, until he be ſo well recovered of ſuch hurt, as to be removed and ſent with ſafety to the port to which ſuch veſſel belongs; and the expence thereof, not exceeding 2d. per mile, ſhall be paid by the preſident and governors at the port of London, or by the truſtees for the out-port to which ſuch perſon ſhall be ſent.

If any ſeaman or other perſon ſhall ſerve five years or more in the merchants ſervice, and ſhall have paid the 6d. per month for that time, and ſhall be adjudged by the preſident and aſſiſtants, or the reſpective truſtees, a proper object of relief, he ſhall be provided for at the port where he ſhall have paid the greateſt part of the ſaid duty for the laſt five years of his ſervice.

If it ſhall happen that ſeamen employed in the merchants ſervice, within the limits of this act, ſhall be ſhipwrecked, or taken by the enemy, and on their return from their impriſonment may be travelling with paſſes to the place of their abode, the preſident and governors, and the reſpective truſtees, may relieve them in ſuch manner as they ſhall think proper.

Whereas the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies, have at their own expence provided for ſuch ſeamen employed by them as have been rendered incapable of ſervice, and have eſtabliſhed a fund for that purpoſe, and are therefore deſirous that the perſons employed in the ſaid ſervice, may be exempted from the payment of the ſaid 6d. per month; it is therefore enacted, that no officer, ſeaman, &c. of any veſſel, employed in the ſervice of the ſaid company, ſhall, during the time of ſuch ſervice, be liable to the payment of the ſaid duty.

No officer or ſeaman, &c. during his employment in the ſervice of the ſaid company, nor the widows or children of ſuch as ſhall be killed or drowned, ſhall be entitled to any benefit by this act, during the time they ſhall be employed in the ſaid ſervice.

The act for making perpetual an act for the better regulation and government of ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, and for extending the proviſions thereof to his majeſty's colonies in America, was made in the 1ſt year of George III.

From and after the 1ſt of May, 1764, all the proviſions, penalties, matters and things, in the act of 2d of Geo. II. are extended to his majeſty's colonies in America; and the forfeitures applicable to Greenwich Hoſpital are to be paid there, to the officer conſtituted by the admiralty; and maſters of ſhips deducting any of the ſaid forfeitures out of the ſeamens wages, and not duly paying over the ſame, forfeit treble the value to the uſe of the ſaid hoſpital.

SHIP-BUILDING, ſee ARCHITECTURE MARINE.

SHIPPING.

The dimenſions, tonnage, and number of guns of ſome men of war built in Spain, the Indies, France, England, and Genoa; and the rules of the Spaniards, French, Engliſh, and Dutch, in regard to their ſailors and mariners, according to Don Geronimo Uztariz, the celebrated Spaniard.

In the collection of the laws of the Indies, and ſome other books publiſhed in Spain, there are inſtructions and directions for building ſhips; and there were plans drawn up by lieutenant-general Don Antonio Gaſtaneta, and approved by his Majeſty, in the years 1713 and 1720. Though both theſe ſchemes met with oppoſition from the variety of opinions uſual upon ſuch occaſions, and the diſagreement between kingdoms in this article, which not only differ from one another in their rules, but even from themſelves in practice, we ought to prefer the plan laid down by this general for his Majeſty's ſhips of war, both from his great experience in navigation, and his ſkill in naval architecture, acquired both by theory and practice; and purſue it at leaſt, 'till his Majeſty ſhall think proper to preſcribe another.

In each of theſe plans are expreſſed the particular dimenſions and other circumſtances, that ought to be obſerved in building men of war and merchant ſhips; however, I ſhall give the dimenſions, number of guns, and men of a ſhip, built after the rules practiſed in Cantabria, and alſo of ſome others built in France, England, Genoa, and Campeachy, within the laſt five and twenty years; and at the ſame time ſay ſomething of our old method of building; that as we obſerved the great diſagreement already mentioned, by comparing our own rules with thoſe of foreigners, we may be moſt likely to diſcover the beſt and ſafeſt plan. This account is taken with great care from the papers drawn up at Cadiz in the year 1718, by ſome officers of his Majeſty, of great experience in the ſea ſervice, who made a very particular ſurvey of theſe and the reſt of the ſhips and frigates of his Majeſty's fleet that year. The extracts which I have taken from this memorial, are as follow:

The ST LEWIS, built in Cantabria in the year 1715, a third rate.

	Span.	cub.	In.
Length by the head of the keel		60 1/3	0
Length on the gun-deck		70 1/2	0
Breadth on the beam		18 1/2	0
Depth		9 1/4	0
Main-tack		19	2
Quarter-deck		17 1/4	0

	Pound.	Guns.
The lower tier	18	26
The ſecond tier	12	26
The third tier	6	8
Total of guns		60

It is to be obſerved, that in manning ſhips of war at Cadiz, they neither obſerve the old cuſtoms of Spain, nor yet that of the French, Engliſh, or Dutch, and therefore I ſhall give each of them diſtinctly.

The number of hands on board the ſhips of the Spaniſh fleet in general, was after the rate of 26 ſailors and 26 marines to a hundred tons. But in the capitana and admiral's ſhip, after the rate of 28 of each ſort to a hundred tons, and upon account of the ſignals a hundred hands more, viz. 50 ſailors and 50 marines, were added to the complement of each ſhip, agreeable to ſeveral royal ordinances, made between the years 1677 and 1682.

To a ſhip of 60 guns were allowed as many gunners, and a fourth more, making in all	75 gunners.
There was added a fourth of this number 75, viz. 18 ſea-officers, which makes	18 ſea-officers
There were ſailors equal in number to both theſe ſums, and a fifth more, or	111 ſailors.
Boys equal to a third part of the ſailors, or	37 boys.
Total	241
To theſe 241 mariners were added the ſame number of marines	241 marines.
Both ſums, in which their officers are included, make	482 hands.

The complement of a French man of war is three men, a gunner, a marine, and a ſailor, to every four pounder.

To a — — — — — 6 pounder,	5	men.
To an — — — — — 8 ———	7	
To a — — — — — 12 ———	9	
To an — — — — — 18 ———	11	
To a — — — — — 24 ———	13	
To a — — — — — 36 ———	15	
So that a ſhip of ſixty guns, viz. the St Lewis, which mounted 26 eighteen pounders, 26 twelve pounders, and 8 ſix pounders, according to this rate, has for her complement -		560 hands
The Engliſh and Dutch ſay, they have a man leſs than the French to every gun, ſo that their complement of ſixty gun ſhips muſt be after this rate - - - -		500 hands
A Spaniſh ſhip's complement for ſixty guns	482	hands.
French - - - -	560	
Engliſh and Dutch - - - -	500	

A diſtinct liſt of the officers, ſailors, marines, &c. making up the 500 hands, which, according to the cuſtom of Spain, were allowed to a ſixty-gun ſhip, including fifteen ſwobbers, that were not reckoned in the 482; becauſe the full complement was ſhipped according to the rate of the men of war, independent of theſe, there having been a reform made in reſpect to the number of marines, which before made up half the ſhip's crew, that they might be reinforced with troops in caſe of their making any invaſion aſhore; but as engagements at ſea are now decided by great guns, ſailors are fitteſt for this ſervice.

Superior officers.

Captain - - - - - -	1	
Lieutenants - - - - -	2	5
Enſigns - - - - - -	2	
Chaplain - - - - - -	1	
Secretary - - - - - -	1	4
Surgeon and mate - - - - -	2	

Sea officers.

Maſter - - - - -	1	
Pilate de Altura - - - -	1	
Coaſting pilot - - - -	1	
Pilotines - - - - -	2	
Maſter's firſt and ſecond mate - -	2	
Armourers - - - -	2	21
Carpenters and mate - - - -	2	
Alguacil of water - - - -	1	
Diver - - - - -	1	
Quarter-maſters - - - -	8	

Artillery officers.

Conſtable and mate - - - -	2	
Gunners - - - - -	4	7
Gunſmith - - - - -	1	

Mariners.

Quarter-gunners - - - -	75	
Sailors - - - - -	193	308
Boys - - - - -	25	
Sweepers - - - - -	15	

Marines.

Cadets, or guards marine - - - -	8	
Serjeants - - - - -	12	
Corporals - - - - - -	15	155
Marines - - - - - -	120	
Total of the ſhip's crew	500	

To theſe 500 men are appropriated 509 ratios, or allowances per day, in conſideration that 6 ratios are aſſigned to the captain of every large ſhip, and to the cadets or guards marine, during any expedition, half a ratio extraordinary. So that theſe multiplied by 30, the number of days in a month make 15,270 ratios.

The following articles make up a thouſand ratios.

Biſcuit	—	11 Quintals, 25 pounds.
Wine	—	46 Arrobs, 7 azumbres.
Bacon	—	1 Quintal, 9 ½ pounds.
Beef	—	1 Quintal, 46 pounds.
Bacallao	—	86 Pounds.
Cheeſe	—	54 Pounds.
Butter	—	1 Quintal, 25 pounds.
Oil	—	1 Arrob, 2 pounds.
Vinegar	—	1 Arrob, 4 azumbres.
Wood	—	15 Quintals.
Water	—	125 Arrobs.
Salt	—	1 Celemin.

In the 30 ratios, or day-allowances, are included the following articles for every thouſand.

White biſcuit	—	22 ½ Pounds.
Mutton	—	10 Pounds.
Fowls	—	2 4/7 Fowls
Eggs	—	30 Eggs.
Raiſins	—	3 Pounds 10 ounces.
Almonds	—	2 ¾ Pounds.
Sugar	—	14 ⅔ Ounces.
Charcoal	—	15 Pounds.

The ſhip Nueſtra Senora de Begona, built at Genoa, in the year 1703.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel - - -		63 ¼
Length on the gun-deck - - - -		70 ¼
Breadth on the beam - - - -		20 ¼
Depth - - - -		9
Main-tack - - - -		20
Quarter-deck - - - -		19
Tons -	905	
Men -	450	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier -	24 pounders - -	10
Ditto - -	12 - - -	12
Upper tier -	8 - - -	22
Forecaſtle -	6 - -	8
Stern-chaſe -	8 - -	2
Total of guns		54

The ſhip Nueſtra Senora de Guadaloupe, built at Campeachy in the year 1702.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel - -		55
Length on the gun-dock - - -		64
Breadth on the beam - - -		17 1/3
Depth - - - -		9 1/3
Main-tack - - - -		17 1/3
Quarter-deck - - - -		16 ¾
Tons -	725	
Men -	358	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier -	18 pounders - -	22
Upper tier -	8 - - -	20
Forecaſtle -	4 and 6 - -	8
Total of guns		50

N. B. In the memorial it is mentioned, that notwithſtanding this ſhip was ſeventeen years old, it might ſtill be fit for ſervice twelve or fourteen years more, on account of the goodneſs of the timbers.

The Hermione frigate, built at Breſt in the year 1702.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel - -		56
Length on the gun-deck - -		64
Breadth on the beam - - -		16
Depth - - - - -		7
Main-tack - - - -		16
Quarter-deck - - - -		15 ½
Tons -	500	
Men -	300	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier -	8 pounders - -	24
Upper tier -	6 - - -	22
Forecaſtle -	3 - - -	6
Total of guns		52

The St Joſeph frigate, built in England in the year 1704.

Fifth rate.		Cubits.
Length by the head of the keel - -		45 ⅔
Length on the gun-deck - - -		52 ¾
Breadth on the beam - - -		14 ⅔
Depth - - - -		6 ¼
Main tack - - - -		14
Quarter-deck - - - -		12 ⅓
Tons -	338	
Men -	160	

Metal.		Guns.
Tier of guns -	6 pounders - -	22
Forecaſtle -	3 - - -	4
Total of guns		26

The ſhip Conde de Toloſa, built at Toulon.

Third rate.	Cubits
Length by the head of the keel	65
Length on the gun-deck	75
Breadth on the beam	20 1/4 1/2
Depth	8 1/2
Main-tack	19 1/2
Quarter-deck	11 1/4
Tons — 752	

Metal.	Guns.
Lower tier — 18 pounders	24
Upper tier — 12	22
Forecaſtle	10
Total of guns	56

Engliſh packet, or advice-ſhip, built in England.

	Cubits.	Inch.
Length by the head of the keel	24	00
Length on the gun-deck	28 1/2	00
Breadth on the beam	10	00
Depth	5 1/4	00
Main-tack	00	00
Quarter-deck	8	18
Tons — 102		
Men — 82		

Metal.	Guns.
3 pounders	10

The ſhip the Conquiſtador, built in England.

	Cubits.
Length by the head of the keel	63
Length on the gun-deck	73
Breadth on the beam	18 1/2
Depth	8 1/4 1/2
Main-tack	18 1/2
Quarter-deck	17
Tons — 776	
Men — 530	

Metal.	Guns.
Lower tier — 18 pounders	26
Upper tier — 12	28
Forecaſtle — 8	10
Total of guns	64

Of the ROYAL SHIPPING, or MARINE of FRANCE, and other STATES, being an abſtract from M. DESLANDES, drawn up by the order of, and addreſſed to, the Count DE MAUREPAS, ſecretary of ſtate and of the marine in France.

Every body knows the ſeveral eſtabliſhments of the marine in France; every one knows, at leaſt in the groſs, what pains, what labour, what vaſt ſums of money they have coſt; how many experienced arts and artiſans have been drawn together, all of them, in point of curioſity, as well as utility, worthy the particular attention even of ſuch as are uſed to, and well verſed in, theſe ſort of things. Theſe eſtabliſhments are likewiſe remarkable, by a great number of officers of all ranks, placed in ſuch a relation to each other, as that their ſubordination aſſiſts, and never prejudices, their duty; and as, in the marine, there are three principal objects, that, by turns, command and employ all their care, ſo theſe officers are divided into three claſſes, who have, indeed, different parts aſſigned them, but who, by the diſcharge of their ſeveral duties, contribute all to one great end.

The firſt object of the marine in France is, as it were, a prologue to the reſt; and conſiſts in aſſembling the materials that are proper, in ſorting and in diſpoſing them, ſo as to render them applicable, with the greateſt eaſe, to all the uſes of navigation. Theſe preliminaries relate to the viewing, purchaſing large falls of timber, and appropriating them to their proper uſes, on the knowlege of buying and ſo ting an infinite number of all kinds of commodities, on the manner of employing them, and drawing the greateſt utility from them, in the conſtruction, careening, and equipment of veſſels. It is diſcernable at firſt ſight, that to be maſter in this art, there is required a judicious mixture of theory and practice, joined to a very extenſive genius, perfected by a conſtant experience.

Hence it is that France have never had, in the marine, but two intendants of conſummate abilities, viz. Deſclouſeaux and Vauvre, both choſen by M. de Seignelai, both of them men of elevated genius, who had high conceptions, and who never conſidered difficulties in any other light, than as ſteps conducing to the glory of ſurmounting them.

The ſecond object comprehends the management of the different branches of duty on ſhip-board, and the conduct of ſhips at ſea, or navigation, ſtrictly and properly taken: and this ſuppoſes two parts, viz. the art of piloting and of working: the firſt reſpects the uſe of the compaſs, maritime charts, inſtruments for taking the height of celeſtial bodies, or for meaſuring the ſhip's run, with the rules and conjectures neceſſary to make a good eſtimate [ſee the article NAVIGATION]. The other regards the management of the ſails and of the helm, as well with regard to her courſe, as to the advantages that may be obtained from the winds, and from currents, and with reſpect to the ſhip's driving or altering her courſe through their force *. How many opportunities are there here for exerciſing all the faculties of the human underſtanding!

* Mr Pitot, one of the members of the Royal Academy of Sciences, has given us an excellent work on that ſubject, which far exceeds any hitherto publiſhed. The book mentioned by our author, is entitled, The Theory of working Ships applied to Practice, containing the Principles and Rules for Sailing with the greateſt Advantage poſſible.

The laſt object of the marine ſeems only to comprehend what is acceſſary; and yet this, by little and little, comes to be conſidered as the principal part. The acceſſary conſiſts in certain forms and methods, which are ſettled in every port, in order to bring all expences to a juſt account, fixing the eſtimate, muſter-rolls, and other things of a like nature, and, in ſhort, what is called keeping the ſhip's books. It is true, that, generally ſpeaking, theſe things are neceſſary and uſeful, eſpecially in providing againſt frauds and abuſes; and yet it may be that even theſe frauds and abuſes had better be borne with, than the tedious and troubleſome parade of formalities invented to get rid of them.

To theſe three claſſes anſwer three ſorts of officers, who keep themſelves each to his province, and never pretend to carry their views farther. This is all that is expected at this time of day: ſo that every profeſſion is bounded, and any one of them is thought ſufficient for the exerciſe of one man's capacity.

This is, in groſs, what concerns the royal marine. As to the marine in the hands of private perſons, it is diſtributed through, and flouriſhes in, all the maritime provinces of the kingdom, where it is more or leſs diſtinguiſhed, firſt, according to the degree of fortune, ability, and induſtry of thoſe concerned in it; ſecondly, in proportion to the quantity of gold or ſilver that circulates; thirdly, according to the critical circumſtances, which increaſe and diminiſh, quicken or retard, this circulation. Hence it is, that the ſame places are not always equally powerful, or poſſeſſed of an equal ſhare of trade. Repoſe and inaction frequently ſucceed the greateſt hurry; ſometimes, alſo, that luxury, which follows riches at the heels, as they again are produced by trade; that luxury creates ſuch a diſſipation of wealth, that, before it is well ſeen, it vaniſhes away.

Upon this ſubject I will juſt mention one of thoſe happy obſervations that every body makes, and no body minds. Moſt of our traders burn with vehement deſire of growing rich: to do this, they ſpare neither pains nor labour, but run all hazards, and endure all toil, to attain this end; but when they are once become exceſſively rich, by all their aſſiduity and fatigues, they think of nothing but procuring pompous titles, and noble alliances, of which they find juſt cauſe to repent, every vein of their hearts: they are deſpiſed and ſlighted, while they fooliſhly conſume what with ſuch infinite labour they acquired.

There cannot be then any thing more uſeful for exciting and recompenſing judicious and able traders, than to teach them that ſenſible maxim of the author of Oeconomies Royal and Politic, viz. To baniſh intirely luxury and ſuperfluity, whence their ruin is drawn on, and thereby a wide gap opened in ſociety.

Commerce by ſea is carried on in three different ways: the leaſt conſiderable is that from one port or creek to another, and which is called coaſting: it ſerves principally for maintaining a conſtant correſpondence between all the maritime provinces of the kingdom, by ſupplying from one what is wanting in another. This commerce is ſo much the more advantageous in France, becauſe it incourages induſtry, and may be carried on with equal eaſe and ſafety in almoſt all ſeaſons of the year; whereas, in the northern countries in England, and even in Holland, they are blocked up the beſt part of the winter by the ice, which hems in their veſſels, and expoſes them to greater inconveniencies, by unexpected ſhocks when at ſea: France is, beſides, much leſs expoſed to ſudden inundations of the ſea, and there happen fewer ſhipwrecks on its coaſts than on thoſe of other countries, though even its coaſts are not every where free from danger.

The ſecond kind of maritime commerce is, that which is carried on throughout Europe, and comprehends thoſe real and effectual ſuccours which one country lends another, and by which all its ſeveral kingdoms become reciprocally uſeful.

Theſe ſuccours conſiſt either in the products of their ſoil, in the works of manufacturers, or in curioſities; and it is eaſy

to diſcern, that the better any kingdom is ſtocked with theſe, the more ſtrangers will reſort thereto, and the more trade will flouriſh. The two branches of which it is compoſed in all countries are, as I have ſaid, the product of a fruitful ſoil, and the labours of an induſtrious people.

France, in her hemp and flax from Bretagne; in the ſalts of Broüage, of Marennes, and of Croiſie; in the red wines of Bourdeaux; in the white wines of Anjou; in the brandies of Nantes, of Cognac, and the Iſle of Rhé; in the papers of Auvergne and Angoulême; in the parchments of Normandy, and the gold and ſilver brocades fabricated at Lyons; in all ſorts of grain, wheat, barley, oats, rye, has ſufficient reſources for commerce, which never can fail her. I muſt confeſs, that ſince the revocation of the edict of Nantes, over which we ought to draw a veil, as the moſt unlucky event in the reign of Lewis XIV. I muſt confeſs, I ſay, that many of our manufacturers are naturalized in foreign countries; but there are ſtill enough left in the kingdom, if they were well managed, both to employ its inhabitants, and to inrich them. All that we ought to fear is remiſſneſs, bad working, and, if I may dare to ſpeak out, a ſpirit of fraud and deceit; for we ought not to flatter ourſelves, that through the wiſe rules, and from the authority of many royal ordinances, which direct the obſervations of thoſe rules, our manufactures are no longer ſubject to theſe three ſorts of revolutions.

From the time that Edward the Third drew over a vaſt number of artizans, who eſcaped from the exceſſive cruelty committed by the Spaniards in Ghent, Louvaine, and other cities of Brabant, and made uſe of them for eſtabliſhing in England woollen manufactures, theſe manufacturers have never degenerated, have never loſt their credit or reputation *; they are ſtill on the ſame foot, and furniſh fine cloths of all colours, with which the Engliſh carry on a large trade, as well in Germany, by means of the ſtaple they have eſtabliſhed at Dort, as in the Levant, by the way of Smyrna. Heretofore, neither they nor the Dutch could approach the coaſts of the Grand Seignior's dominions, but under the banner of France [ſee the article LEVANT TRADE], but at this day they trade there in their own name, and in their own right; and one may very ſafely ſay, that, in proportion as their trade has increaſed, our's has ſuffered by many loſſes, bankruptcies, and other cauſes of declenſion, that many very much queſtion whether it will ever be able to recover its ancient luſtre.

The voyages of which I have been hitherto ſpeaking, even ſuch as carry us to the very extremities of Europe, merit only a curſory attention: the true commerce by ſea is that which embraces the other three parts of the globe, that which requires the whole force and ſkill of the nautic art. As the dangers therein are greater, and the riſks run more than ordinary, ſo its profits are alſo very conſiderable; and it is thence that we derive ſo many ſhining fortunes, acquired by lawful means, and which ought never to be confounded with thoſe haſtily raiſed and odious eſtates drawn out of the miſeries of the people, and tinctured, if I may ſo ſay, with their blood.

* We wiſh what Monſieur Deſlandes ſays upon this occaſion was true; but ſome recent inſtances prove the contrary, to the great ſcandal, as well as detriment, of the Engliſh woollen manufacture: but it is to be hoped that the legiſlature will take due notice of a practice ſo pernicious in its conſequences. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, and ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

Almoſt all the nations of Europe carry on, at this day, ſome commerce either with Aſia, Africa, or America; but we are not to conceive from thence, that this renders them all equal. Though the Portugueze are very juſtly conſidered as the reſtorers of the marine, and of navigation, as having heretofore great territories in Aſia, inſomuch, that ſeveral Arab kings were in their pay, and many pagan princes thought themſelves honoured by the commands of theſe new maſters, their authority, however, is now but the ſhadow, and their power but the ſkeleton, of what it was. [See the article PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE.] They ſupport themſelves on the remains of their old reputation, which time has almoſt worn out; and Goa itſelf is no longer known but for its terrible inquiſition, that horrible tribunal *, where no forms of juſtice are obſerved, and where natural equity never finds a place in their decrees. The Hollanders, at preſent, are the great maſters of the commerce in the Eaſt-Indies, which they manage with infinite addreſs, mingling com-

* The hiſtory of this inquiſition was written by a phyſician, who had proved not its ſalutary, but its unjuſt rigours. Happy France, to have looked always with horror on a tribunal which has ſo much dicredited, and rendered ſo odious the Chriſtian name! More happy ſtill, if the prieſts do not, ſome how or other, find means to introduce it under another name!

The phyſician mentioned above, was one Mr Dellon, and a very good book his is; but the beſt that I have ever ſeen on the ſubject, and that which deſerves to be read by every curious perſon, is the Memoires Hiſtoriques pour ſervir a l'Hiſtoire des Inquiſition. A Collogne 1716, 2 vols. 12mo.

plaiſance with a ſpirit of dominion, and having equally recourſe to artifice and force. An ancient writer wiſhed, that arms were always ſubject to the gown; at Batavia, and in the reſt of the Dutch colonies, they are both ſubject to trade.

All the world knows that the beſt part of America belongs to the Spaniards: I muſt confeſs I am a little in the dark as to their title; nor can I poſitively ſay, whether the ill uſage they have given the natives, and the many thouſands of their throats they have cut, has created them a good one: but this is certain, that their power is too extenſive in itſelf, too ruinous, by the conduct of their biſhops and governors, who purchaſe all their dignities and employments, and too much hurt by that fraudulent ſpirit of private gain, which poſſeſſes all who reſide there, to ſubſiſt long. Beſides this, their government grows daily worſe and worſe, there being little union between the principal who manage there, and a kind of inſenſible uſurpation growing up, which the Spaniards themſelves do not perceive, or, which is worſe, affect not to perceive.

The principal fault in the government of theſe vaſt kingdoms appertaining to the Spaniſh monarchy is, that their orders never arrive in time, and, when they do arrive, it is next to an impoſſibility to get them executed; two things which uſually cauſe the miſcarriages of all great affairs.

Within about half a century paſt, the Engliſh have found the true method of managing affairs in America, and without which they will hardly ever ſucceed: all their ſteps in that country are directed with the utmoſt prudence; they ſearch for, and embrace, every new branch of commerce that induſtry can diſcover, or that chance preſents; they protect and perfect all their old colonies, and, at the ſame time, do not neglect planting new; in ſhort, they act as if fortune had reſerved for them, ſome time or other, the intire dominion of that mighty country *.

* The Engliſh reader ſhould be here put in mind, not to be led away with the praiſes beſtowed upon their nation by this writer, and of their wiſdom in conducting their colonies. Theſe are not to be conſidered as genuine and candid repreſentations, flowing from the real ſentiments of the author, but as artificial colourings, neceſſary to raiſe the jealouſy of thoſe to whom he writes, and making his countrymen thereby the more keen for the deſtruction of this kingdom.

As to the advantages, continues this writer, which regard the marine, and which France, in her ſituation, may find in her own proper boſom, they may be reduced to four; of which the firſt, without contradiction, is her ſituation, the moſt commodious, and the moſt advantageous that can be in the world, as well for attacking as defending, and for diſturbing the commerce of others, as for cultivating her own; ſending to all places, and receiving trading veſſels from all parts of the earth: hence it was ſaid to the late Czar, Peter I, whoſe head was always full of great projects, and to the king of Sweden, Charles XII, ſo unfortunately aſſaſſinated before Frederickſhal, That, if any kingdom could aſpire to be the miſtreſs of all her neighbours, it muſt be FRANCE. In effect, ſhe is placed in the middle of Europe: nothing can impede, nothing can prove an obſtacle to her; ſhe commands, on the one ſide, over the ocean, and it ſeems, by the extent of her coaſts, by their turnings and windings, that the ſeas of Spain, Germany, and Flanders, ſtruggle to pay her HOMAGE; on the other, ſhe is bounded by the Mediterranean, looking full upon Barbary, having on her right-hand Spain, at her left Nice, Genoa, the dominions of the Grand Duke, and all the reſt of Italy. What a ſituation is this, if we knew but how to make uſe of it, and if, opening our eyes to our intereſt, we no longer languiſh in ſoft effeminate idleneſs!

The Engliſh and the Dutch are forced to ſtrike out far for whatever is neceſſary to them, and are conſtrained to put out to ſea, in order to reconnoitre and attack their enemies; whereas FRANCE is able to attack them, as it were, hand to hand, to combat with advantage, and to retire with eaſe; which are advantages of no ſmall conſequence at ſea: but, what is ſtill more, foreign veſſels that return from long voyages, worn and beaten by the wind, and by the tempeſts, foul in themſelves, and weakly manned, paſs, as it were, under our eyes, in the view and at the mercy of FRANCE, as cardinal d'Oſſart obſerves, and, in ſpite of themſelves, muſt approach our coaſt. One may eaſily judge what a facility this gives of carrying them off, or, at leaſt, diſturbing their navigation, which muſt turn, ſays the ſame cardinal, to the profit and commodity, to the ſafety, grandeur, and reputation, of the crown of FRANCE.

As to the reſt, all that I have been ſaying here is not to cry up, or to make an elogium on war, in order to turn mens minds thereto, who have, perhaps, but too great an inclination for it already. I know, on the contrary, all the merit of a gentle and moderate government, of a government where juſtice and good faith preſide, where all endeavours are uſed to drive out the ſeeds of hatred and jealouſy, and where no pains are ſpared in the cultivation of

tranquillity

tranquillity and peace; but to avoid being deceived, ſays cardinal Richlieu, we muſt ſleep like the lion, WITHOUT SHUTTING OUR EYES, which ought to be continually open, in order to foreſee the ſmalleſt inconveniencies that may happen. For hence it is that we often ſee in ſtates, that ſuch evils as were imperceptible in their origin, and which were leaſt thought of, are the moſt dangerous, and thoſe which prove of the greateſt conſequences in the end.

In effect, a wiſe prince, and one who has regard to his intereſt, ought to watch attentively over every thing that may contribute to the ſervice, or to the prejudice, of his crown. He ought, with the ſame vigilance, to weigh duly the preſent ſituation of his own kingdom, and of the other kingdoms that ſurround him. While the ballance continues even, an eaſy and pleaſant union will certainly reign; but, as ſoon as this fails, quarrels, animoſities, and diſſentions, will ariſe, and will encreaſe: FRANCE is too clear-ſighted ever to be ignorant of the EXTENT OF HER POWER, and nothing can outrage her more ſenſibly, than to ſuſpect her being ignorant of it. Always ready to DECLARE WAR, ſhe ought, however, never to attempt it unjuſtly; ever in a condition to defend herſelf, ſhe ſhould never be in a diſpoſition to bear injuries: Veniendum tunc ad arma, ſaid Theodoric, king of Italy, cum locum apud adverſarias juſtitia non poteſt reperire; i. e. We are then to have recourſe to arms, when juſtice no longer finds place amongſt our adverſaries.

It is reported, that Henry III. imagined one night that he was in the midſt of a troop of lions, tygers, and leopards, ready to devour him; and the next morning, quite out of his wits, and terrified about the conſequences of a dream, which he ought to have deſpiſed, flew to the caſtle of Madrid, where he kept a great many foreign wild beaſts, and ordered them to be all killed in his preſence. This tragedy ſettled his mind, as idle and ridiculous as it was. Any one might have whiſpered in his ear, The animals that threatened you, were not thoſe in your menagerie, but, on the contrary, your neighbours, always diſpoſed to hurt you, and above all, your MARITIME neighbours.

The ſecond advantage in which we ought to think ourſelves happy is the ſecurity of our coaſts, which in a manner defend themſelves, and which have hitherto defeated all the deſcents that ever were attempted on them. Witneſs thoſe that admiral Tromp would have made in 1674, not only at the mouths of the Loire and of the Groyne, but along the coaſts of Bretagne, Poitou, Saintongue, and Guienne. He found that all was ſo well guarded, and that every where ſo good orders were given, that he durſt attempt nothing conſiderable. Witneſs again the deſcent attempted by the lord Berkley in 1694, at Camaret, in which the Engliſh loſt upwards of 1200 men, with general Talmaſh, who commanded the troops that were debarked. The French, however, oppoſed him with no more than two independent companies of marines and the militia appointed for the defence of the coaſt. Piqued at this unfortunate expedition, lord Berkley attempted ſeveral other deſcents on Normandy and Flanders, none of which, however, were attended with any better ſucceſs.

To this natural ſecurity of our coaſts, which enables us to ſave a mighty expence, may be added the fertility of our MARITIME PROVINCES, as well as thoſe that are waſhed by the ocean; a fertility which renders them extremely agreeable, opulent, and populous, by drawing to them a vaſt concourſe of ſtrangers. All the other kingdoms of Europe, on the contrary, complain of the unlucky ſituation of their coaſts. Here they are abſolutely barren and full of mountains of ſand; there grows nothing that is uſeful, nothing that comes to maturity farther off; both country and people ſeem alike neglected by nature.

Theſe kingdoms, however, have an advantage that is peculiar to them, and which I could almoſt envy them; it is this, that the ſea waſhes their principal cities where the court makes their reſidence, and where we ſee united all the politeneſs attending a royal preſence, with all the force that depends on a maritime ſtrength. We admire there the art and intelligence that is neceſſary to make the ſeveral parts of ſo vaſt a machine move in regular order, and in ſuch a manner as to aſſiſt each other; they take by the hand, if I may be allowed ſo to ſay, riches and conveniencies from all quarters; every body intereſts himſelf in the proſperity of trade *, and none are ſo blind as not to ſee, none ſo obſtinate not to acknowlege, that upon this depends the happineſs of the ſtate.

* It is to be wiſhed, that what this French author ſays, was really the caſe in Great-Britain.

This is what happens every day in Portugal, Muſcovy, Denmark, Sweden, Great-Britain, and Holland, of which all the capital cities ſtand upon, or very near the ſea; Paris, on the contrary, knows nothing of it, but by maimed relations, and, if I may ſo ſpeak, ſtories at ſecond hand. We behold there a voluntary indolence throughout, which concerns itſelf about nothing that does not conduce either to amuſement or to pleaſure; and I am very poſitive, that as to half the things that are conſumed, and half the rarities that are admired there, they know not by what country, or by whoſe induſtry they are ſo obliged.

This ignorance, which is almoſt general, of what is produced in our own country, and what comes from abroad of the neceſſaries of life, or that ſerve to nouriſh lazineſs and increaſe luxury, affords room for that ſlight regard, or rather abſolute contempt, that is had for navigation and commerce *. But this unjuſt contempt would be quickly extinguiſhed, if inſtead of a ſedentary education, always within the ſhadow of the houſe in which they were born, we took care to make ſuch young people travel, as ſeem deſtined, either by their birth or fortune, to the firſt places in the government. If we explain to them exactly all that relates to our colonies, all that is indiſpenſably neceſſary to ſupply the wants of this kingdom, which daily grows more and more: if we inſtructed them in the principal manufactures that employ and enrich our ſeveral provinces, and pointed out to them ſuch as are beginning to decay, and ſuch as, though they are abſolutely decayed, might yet be reſtored, and brought to be of infinite benefit to the kingdom, by preventing going out of great ſums into foreign parts: if, in fine, they were made perfectly to comprehend the three branches that conſtitutue the riches of the kingdom, viz. eſtates in land, trade, and manufactures: if we ſhewed them the connection of theſe three branches, and how they ought mutually to prop and ſupport each other, how the real effects of any country augment in value in proportion as commerce and manufactures are themſelves augmented, and thereby the circulation of gold and ſilver, which is become the ſtandard, the common meaſure of the confidence of the public, and the authority of the ſovereign: if all this ſhould be laid down in a clear and familiar method, and in juſt and evident calculations, in order to avoid loading the memory too much; would not ſuch an education be infinitely more valuable, than thoſe of which we are at preſent ſo fond? Would there not ariſe from thence both greater reſpect for, and greater profit to, the common-weal †?

* This is apparently calculated to animate the French nation to the ſtudious regard of its trade and navigation.

† We are willing to flatter ourſelves that the work wherein we are engaged, will not a little contribute to the cultivation of ſuch kind of knowledge among the nobility, gentry, and merchants of this kingdom. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

The third advantage which France enjoys is, that the moſt conſiderable armaments may be there made with the greateſt readineſs and facility. She not only draws out of her own ſtores almoſt all the materials requiſite to a maritime force, but ſhe nouriſhes alſo, within the compaſs of her dominions, an infinite number of able artificers, capable of employing theſe materials in the beſt manner.

There are likewiſe amongſt theſe workmen, ſome ingenious diſcoveries, very little known abroad, and which having been made at different times, have paſſed as a kind of legacies from parents to their children. Theſe diſcoveries do not conſiſt in perplexed reaſonings, but in EXPERIMENTS and FACTS, which ſuffice for the current ſervice of the MARINE, where, generally ſpeaking, it is of far greater conſequence to execute quickly, than to think how a thing may be done nicely, and where whatever is performed by mens labour, is preferable to what is done by machines. The concluſion of all this matter is, that we cannot be too careful in preſerving this race of workmen, [ſee our articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS], whoſe induſtry is perpetual, and increaſes as it continues; a race of mean people it is true, but who ſurpaſs, in my humble opinion, the lazy nobility, who make the purſuit of pleaſure their ſole occupation; a nobility, as M. de Sully ſays, among whom we find more mongrel gentlemen, who are fit to make buffoons, gameſters, or porters, than to apply themſelves in a generous way, in carrying arms for the ſervice of their king, or the defence of their country.

What I have been ſaying recals to my mind an excellent remark inſerted by M. Colbert, with his own hand, in the inſtruction which he cauſed to be drawn up in 1681, for the dyeing of wool of all colours, and for improving drugs, and other materials employed therein: 'One cannot look, ſays 'he, on the fertility of France, or ſee ſo great a number of 'lazy fellows, who ſit uſeleſs, and with their arms folded, 'while they might be ſo advantageouſly employed, either in 'the cultivation of the earth, or in many other ways, which 'nature has pointed out for their benefit, in order to live at 'the expence of the blood and ſubſtance of others, without 'blaming the form of government, and negligence of our 'anceſtors, and their attachment to uſeleſs employments; 'which ſerved only to fill their heads with wind and ſmoke, 'and thereby very often produce ſuch ſtorms and tempeſts, 'as went very near deſtroying the ſtate by the fury of civil 'wars.' Before the time of M. Colbert, we were obliged to bring from Holland almoſt every kind of ſea-ſtores, down to the iron-work for our anchors, match, cordage, cables

cables ready made, ſaltpetre, and even cannon powder, as if there had not been in this kingdom forges, hemp, iron, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, or men capable of going through hard labour.

M. Colbert was determined to baniſh foreign manufactures, and to eſtabliſh things of this ſort at home, upon ſo much better footing, as that they ſhould quickly excel thoſe which we formerly employed. He farther reſolved, that we ſhould extract from the natural riches of the kingdom, whatever it was poſſible it ſhould produce. He created in France, ARTS, TASTE, GENIUS, of which, 'till then, France was utterly ignorant, and which ſhe has ſince carried to ſo great a perfection; and with regard to particular manufactories, he brought from countries where ſuch manufactures were in the higheſt perfection, perſons who thoroughly underſtood them, ſettled them in this kingdom, and whoſe poſterity, enriched by his favours, do, even at this day, honour to his choice. How much does ſuch an example deſerve to be followed! and how many illuſtrious ſtrangers would an obliging reception bring amongſt us!

I muſt confeſs, that there are ſome ſorts of commodities and merchandize neceſſary to the marine, which only the northern countries produce. But it will be always eaſy for us to provide ourſelves with theſe, by adhering conſtantly to the two following precautions; the firſt, maintaining a cloſe alliance with one of the three great powers in the Baltic: the ſecond, carrying on all this trade on our own bottoms, without ever receiving them at the ſecond or third hand, without paying commiſſions, which are always heavy and ruinous.

I ſhall here take notice of a very ſenſible regulation that is obſerved in England, that ought to be regarded as the baſis of all her commerce: the Engliſh themſelves are alone permitted to export the commodities of their own country, or to import thoſe of foreign nations. This practice puts that great iſland in continual motion, and is the reaſon that money never circulates there at a price conſiderably above its real value. It likewiſe hinders a ſpirit of indolence from communicating itſelf, and ſpreading from one to another; that dangerous ſpirit, more dejecting, through a too quick ſenſe of evils, than thoughtful how to repair them, and which proves thereby, in the end, the ruin of the ſtate. The connection there is between all the different parts of the ſociety is ſo cloſe, that it is ſimply impoſſible that a ſingle perſon ſhould be hurt, without the reſt feeling the blow.

Though the times were then very perilous and difficult, yet we were not altogether ignorant of the value of ſuch a cuſtom, even in the days of Charles IX. In effect, that prince, ſupported by an ordinance of Henry II, his father, prohibited, about the middle of the year 1567, all his ſubjects to freight any foreign ſhips, and all foreigners exporting French commodities in any other than French bottoms, under pain of confiſcation: ſalt only was excepted on account of the prodigious ſale, which is much ſunk ſince the Hollanders, and other people of the North, have thought fit to purchaſe it in Portugal, and to be content with the ſort that country yields. Will it be believed, that the cutting off ſo antient and ſo valuable a branch of commerce, which cardinal Richlieu eſteemed more than the Spaniſh Indies, is owing to nothing but certain ILL-CALCULATED DUTIES, to which we have endeavoured to ſubject it? What happineſs! could this kingdom be brought once to underſtand, that every operation in FAVOUR of the REVENUE which hurts commerce is miſchievous in itſelf, and that, with regard to commodities that are indiſpenſably neceſſary to life, the conſumption is always proportionable to the duties impoſed upon them.

The only remark as can be made, in ſupport of this, regards the wants we begin to feel in FRANCE, of all ſorts of wood fit to be employed in building. Neither ought this obſervation to be confined only to that ſort of wood, but to all others, that ſerve either for carpenters, makers of carriages, or even which is deſtined for the fire: theſe laſt are particularly grown, almoſt every where, exceſſively ſcarce, and prodigiouſly dear: forges, glaſs-houſes, the luxury of great cities, the too great curioſity exerciſed about dreſſing good cheer, have conſumed prodigious quantities, and we have taken no care to replace them: we feel every where the want of wood, and ſtill we let it every where decay.

Theſe are certainly conſiderations important enough to ſtir up the zeal of ſuch as are intruſted with the management of our WATERS and FORESTS, conſiderations which ought to induce them to ſay, with one of the ableſt men of the Roman empire, That we ought never to felicitate ourſelves on having done any thing, while there is yet any thing that remains to be done; and how many remain to be done which we know not! How many things are they ignorant of, who are intruſted with theſe offices, and of which they will always remain ignorant, while they retain ſo great a concern for their own baſe intereſt *!

* That the royal ſhipping of the kingdom of Great-Britain has been ſubject to much greater expences than has been neceſſary, is a matter which, in the opinion of ſome of the wiſeſt, greateſt, and honeſteſt men in the kingdom, requires ſevereſt ſcrutiny into. This was the ſentiment of a late able miniſter, who, I am perſuaded, would have probed this matter to the bottom, had he lived.

No body can poſſibly doubt that wood, properly ſtiled foreſt-wood, was heretofore much more common than it is at preſent: moſt towns, moſt boroughs, a great part of the abbies, that are at ſuch a diſtance from them at this day, were not only near, but even in the midſt of, theſe woods. I have travelled acroſs a long chain of mountains, which extend from weſt to eaſt, and, in a manner, thwart the whole country of Bretagne: the ancient tradition of the place reports, that all theſe mountains, which in a manner touch one another, were formerly a continued foreſt; and, in effect, having cauſed an infinite number of places to be bored, to the depth of 35 or 40 feet, and have there found, amongſt prodigious ſpoils of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, trees in a manner quite intire, and as found as if they had been but that moment cut down. This could have proceeded from nothing elſe but the quality of the ſoil in which they were planted, a ſoil dry and ſtony, mingled with a red ſand, and particles of iron, eaſily taken up by a knife touched with a loadſtone.

But the greateſt miſchief that has been done to the marine is, that of not having preſerved the foreſts ſituated near the ſea-coaſt, or on the banks of navigable rivers. Theſe foreſts, condemned one after another, have been cut down out of caprice, or under ſeveral frivolous pretences. How much coſt and expence, what an infinite labour, might have been ſpared, if they had ſtill ſubſiſted! It ſeems they made, here tofore, ſome ſuch reflections, and that the governors of MARITIME PROVINCES were particularly charged with the care of WOODS, and with the inſpection of the ſea and rivers; whence it came to paſs, that thoſe governors, officers removeable at the pleaſure of our princes, while as yet ſons never ſucceeded their fathers in their offices, on a ſuppoſition of their inheriting their virtues, took the title of foreſters. This title was principally in vogue under the ſecond race of our kings; and we are aſſured, that Charlemagne was the firſt that beſtowed that title, and that he conferred on a Saxon lord, who ſettled himſelf in Flanders, the coaſts of which were then altogether naked, and expoſed to the incurſions of the Danes.

It is very probable that theſe great foreſters performed the functions of a ſort of officers, who began to be known, in the reign of the emperor Conſtantine, under the titles of comites litoris Saxonici per Britanniam, of comites Cimbrici & Batavici litoris, of duces tractus Aremoricani, &c. Theſe officers were very powerful, and acknowleged none for their ſuperiors but the præfectus prætorio of Gauls; they were equally charged to look to the ſafety of the coaſts, and to the preſervation of the foreſts, caſtles, and other edifices which ſtood in or near the coaſts.

The celebrated John de Tillet, firſt ſecretary to the parliament of Paris, obſerves, that the word Foreſt is derived from an old Low-Dutch term, which ſignifies rivers, as well as woods. He cites, in ſupport of this, ſeveral authentic charters, which are ſtill preſerved in the archives of the palace: amongſt the reſt, one by which Childebert, founding the abbey of St Germain des Prez, yields to it all his rights on the river Seine, as he then held them, adding, as the ſame Tillet obſerves, and as they were his foreſts. The true ſignification of which term is certainly to be learned from hence, that anciently all the banks and ſhores, indeed all the places adjacent to the ſea, and to rivers, were filled with trees; and as they were firſt inhabited, grubbed up, and cultivated, they beſtowed the name of foreſt equally on all places where wood and water were joined. The neighbourhood retained its denomination after it became more peopled; but by degrees, as inhabitants began to increaſe, and barbariſm gave way to ſofter manners, to more poliſhed converſation, and to pleaſures, towns were formed, arts were introduced, and the conveniencies of life were refined and improved every day. It was neceſſary to ſacrifice to theſe uſes a great quantity of wood, in order to give people, if we may ſo ſpeak, room to breathe: hence it came to paſs, that, preſerving a few trees for ornament, they cut down all the reſt, without reflecting, that a very tranſitory ſatisfaction would induce frequent and grievous fits of repentance: in effect, the common complaint throughout almoſt every part of the kingdom is, that there is no wood left, or, at leaſt, that the people are ruined by the expence of its carriage.

The late marquis Seignelai, whoſe views extended to futurity, had formed a deſign of cauſing all the ſea-ſhore to be planted with timber fit for SHIP-BUILDING. I don't know what obſtacle hindered that deſign, which was undoubtedly worthy the moſt clear-ſighted miniſtry: it may be that, after mature deliberation, M. de Seignelai began to diſtruſt the French genius, always ready to ſeize, with ardour, new ſchemes, and to abandon them afterwards out of pure diſtaſte. He was afraid that a project which required an age, or an age and a half, to bring it to perfection, would appear a chimerical project: for the bulk of our nation, through a rapidity and intemperance of taſte, would have us purpoſe and execute at the ſame time, and would have invention and perfection appear almoſt together: works that require great application, ſays cardinal Richlieu, are little agreeable to our humour or natural diſpoſition.

The

The laſt advantage reſpects the order of government, and, in one word, the whole ſyſtem of our marine. The different uſages, regulations, and employments, and all ſorts of labours, are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, that they enter into, and corroborate each other, ſo as to afford mutual aſſiſtance. We have nothing to fear from what gave ſo much uneaſineſs to the famous duke de Sully, when he became ſuperintendant of the finances: as he found himſelf ſtopped at every turn by a heap of uſeleſs formalities, diſputes, and very ill-founded remonſtrances, he could not help ſaying in a briſk tone, which exceedingly became him, 'Great kingdoms are not governed 'by ſlips of paper, ſkins of parchment, ſtrokes of a pen-knife, 'ſcratches of a pen, vain words, or, in ſhort, by imagina-'tions, fancies, ſhrugs, and grimaces.' The aim of this miniſtry was to quicken, and to render more ſimple the operations of the treaſury; and he was juſtly afraid, that a long train of formalities, and round-about methods, ſhould render the moſt eſſential and deciſive parts of all affairs leſs attended to.

In regard to the marine, it is divided into two corps, who are ſo perfectly well acquainted with their reſpective privileges and prerogatives, as to obſerve one another with ſome degree of jealouſy, and to put each other reciprocally in mind of their duty; and, while one of theſe corps devotes itſelf to the fatigues of war, and diſtinguiſhes itſelf by its firmneſs and bravery, on the moſt ſhining and perilous occaſions, the other, more tranquil in appearance, ſaves it a thouſand cares, and a thouſand inquietudes, which would conſume that body to no purpoſe. Courage begins to grow cold, when deprived of its liberty of acting in its full extent, or when depreſſed by many important cares; it wants only favourable occaſions to appear and diſtinguiſh itſelf: at leaſt, this is what the great M. Turenne believed, eſpecially in the latter part of his life, and which he generouſly expreſſed, with a frankneſs and confidence worthy of ſo great a man. I have, ſaid he, only one thing to do, which is to conquer. Choiſi has put all the frontier places into a ſtate of defence, Du Metz takes care of the artillery, and Jacquier makes it his buſineſs to prevent my ever ſuffering for want of proviſions.

And ſince I have been ſpeaking of M. Turenne, give me leave to report a fine ſaying of his in 1665, to Lewis XIV, who aſked him, in confidence, 'What would be proper to 'be done, in caſe Philip IV. of Spain, who was very ill, 'ſhould happen to die?' M. de Turenne anſwered, upon the ſpot, 'In that caſe, Sire, the augmentation of your ſhips 'of war and gallies, would be of as great utility as the in-'creaſe of your land troops, as well in reſpect to what the 'king of Spain has in the Indies, in Italy, and in Sicily, as 'with regard to Spain itſelf, the entrance of which lies fair 'and open, by the way of Portugal.' An anſwer like this appears to me deciſive; and if we had reaſoned in this manner when the crown of Spain devolved on a branch of the houſe of Bourbon, all had ended well, and we had brought ENGLAND and HOLLAND, joined together, to the laſt EXTREMITY, by weakening their TRADE. I will add further, that, though in virtue of his rank as marſhal-general of the camps and armies of the king, M. de Turenne ought to have given his advice only in that ſort of war which was properly his province, yet, ſuch was the extent of his genius, and ſo quick his apprehenſion of truth, as enabled him to diſcern, that there were certain occaſions in which a MARITIME POWER ALONE ought to be employed, and where one victory at SEA is of equal value to a long ſeries of victories obtained by land: the very perfection of policy is to know how to enter into the differences, which are ſure to eſcape ſuperficial minds.

I return to the eſtabliſhed order in the MARINE of FRANCE: and I muſt confeſs, that what diſtinguiſhes it in a particular manner is, that MILITARY CORPS of which it is compoſed, and which has an air of dignity, which diffuſes itſelf over all its parts. Conſidered in this light, there is not one in EUROPE which ought not to yield to it with reverence. The character of the maritime power of the DUTCH is œconomy, and that of the maritime force of the ENGLISH is activity: the firſt, according to the republican genius, place all honour in ſaving, and direct all their views this way; whatever ſhould contribute to the ſtrength or ſecurity of their ſhips, they pare off to ſave charges, as far as poſſible, and by repeated endeavours this way, they expoſe their veſſels to frequent ſhipwrecks. I lay it down as a thing pretty certain, that, for want of thoſe neceſſary precaution, the DUTCH loſe a third of the ſhips they equip every year. As for the ENGLISH, who are more judiciouſly covetous, they more than recover, by quickneſs and diligence, what they lay out in extraordinary expences.

One of their ſhips makes as many trips in four months, as a Dutchman can in five, or even in ſix; and there is certainly no kind of profit more real, or more certain, than that which ariſes from the ſhortneſs of campaigns, or of voyages at ſea. The French hold a middle character, as it were, between theſe two; without having the œconomy of the Dutch, or the activity of the Engliſh, they ſurpaſs them, without difficulty, in the arrangement and exactneſs of their ſervice; they have gained by this I know not what title, the SUPERIORITY AND EMPIRE.

But there happens from hence ſometimes two inconveniencies. The firſt is, that we think ourſelves checked, as the marquis de Montlue ſays, if we don't march with all the attendance of a prince, and yet this ſometimes leads us into great inconveniencies. It is better to move like a private gentleman, and not to play the prince, than, by ſtraining things to a great height, to run the hazard of bringing upon one ſelf ſome miſchief. The ſecond, that, through too great attention to the procuring every thing neceſſary, we ſometimes go too far, and provide alſo for ſuperfluities; ſo that by an exceſs of prudence, we fall ſhort in expedition. However, it is frequently neceſſary to diſpatch, for ſucceſs depends on a certain degree of boldneſs, and not ſeldom on a ſingle ſtroke. In great affairs, ſays cardinal d'Oſſet, in a letter to M. Villeroy, in order to avoid a great evil, or to gain a great good, one muſt venture, and put ſomething to the riſk, and reſolve at once, and, without delay, to get out of a bad ſituation in the briſkeſt and quickeſt manner poſſible.

It is eaſy to judge, from what I have been ſaying, that French veſſels ought, in general, to be better armed, and better equipped, than thoſe of all other nations. In them there is nothing wanting, as to what is requiſite for the campaign, or for the preſervation of the ſeamen and ſoldiers embarked. For in our marine, we know perfectly well the value of mens lives, and eſteem it the higheſt point of prudence to take all the care that is poſſible for preſerving them.

There is ſtill more than all this; we have in France, as it were, an entire nation, who, exempt from all other charges and impoſitions, apply themſelves entirely to, and think of nothing elſe but, SEA AFFAIRS. Their courſe of life is undoubtedly very thorny and laborious. But as they are bred to it from their infancy, and as they are pleaſed, by a continual variety of objects, they accuſtom themſelves to it by little and little, and paſs from one campaign to another, almoſt without perceiving it: theſe people, with all this, are infinitely brave; of IRON, in point of LABOUR, of STEEL, in point of COURAGE, as Cæſar ſays of the ancient GAULS. They attempt beſides things aſtoniſhing, and, in reſpect to which, nothing but an apprenticeſhip * could have diminiſhed, in their eyes, the peril and the riſque. It is true that our ſeamen have one diſadvantageous quality, which is, that, on the ſlighteſt diſcontent, they withdraw, and go into foreign ſervice: but this fault, however, is not ſingular in them, it is, indeed, the fault of the whole nation; curious after novelties, and full of vain caprice, they often quit the kingdom. Hence it is, that one every-where ſees Frenchmen, and that we find them fighting under every banner, Nullum bellum ſine milite Gallo.

* The claſſes of the marine, is one of the fineſt eſtabliſhments in the kingdom of France, and, at the ſame time, one of the moſt uſeful and advantageous. Mr Armoux and Bonrepos, intendant of the marine, eſtabliſhed them, though, as it but too often happens, the prime miniſter ran away with the credit.

'Theſe claſſes, that our author talks of, are no other than 'the enrolled ſeamen in France, and this was the firſt fixed, 'by an ordinance, dated 22 Sept. 1688: the ſeamen were 'then divided into three claſſes, of which one was obliged 'to ſerve annually on board the king's ſhips, and the other 'two were at liberty to ſerve the merchants. They have 'been ſince diſtributed into five claſſes. In the year 1681, 'there were 60,000 men enrolled.

Behold the principal advantages of which France has a right to boaſt, and which ſhe cannot neglect, but to her ſhame, and to her prejudice. Her ſituation is ſuch, that, I repeat it again, all the nations of Europe cannot help looking upon her with an eye of JEALOUSY. It may be, that I ſhall have an objection ſtarted to me here, of little ſolidity indeed, but which, notwithſtanding, has d zzled and miſled many perſons of merit. 'A maritime power, ſay they with diſ-'dain, however uſeful, however beneficial it may be ſup-'poſed at bottom, draws after it too great an expence, and 'has too ruinous a train at its heels; conſequently it ought 'rather to be abandoned, on account of the immenſe ſums 'it muſt coſt, than preſerved for the ſake of the profits that 'from it enſue.'

To this objection, which they endeavour to render ſo much the ſtronger, by many affected computations, I ſhall offer three things in anſwer, which are not only very weighty, but altogether deciſive; and I hope they will ſtrike the reader in ſo forcible a manner, as to leave him no inclination to demand any farther, or more ample explication.

In the firſt place, it is true, that the marine demands expence, and even expences that are pretty large. But what part of government, what branch of the ſtate does not demand them? Can one ſuſtain a war, can one adjuſt the management of the revenue, can one give a proper air of magnificence to the king's houſhold, can one ſecure the good-will, or entertain correſpondences with foreign nations, without having in one's hands conſiderable ſums of money, and diſpoſing of them in a proper manner, and as neceſſity requires? In great affairs, ſays the cardinal de Retz, one ought never

to

to regard money. A ſovereign is too rich, while diſcovering a noble courage, a greatneſs of ſoul, quick parts, and ſtrong penetration, even in his moſt trival actions, he favours the COMMERCE and MANUFACTURES of his ſubjects. Before him, the cardinal de Richlieu had remarked, 'That 'he ought to be careful in laying up money to ſupply the 'neceſſaries of the ſtate, and religiouſly exact in preſerving 'them, when no occaſions offered for laying them out; but 'that he ought to be equally liberal in employing them 'whenever the good of the public required it, and to do it 'in time, and in proper meaſure; otherwiſe any retardment 'on ſuch occaſions, coſts the ſtate very often extremely dear, 'by making it loſe opportunities that never are to be re-'covered.'

Beſides, if for maintaining the marine, it is requiſite to be continually advancing money, and providing things long beforehand, I dare aver, that the marine will indemnify with uſury, and not be at all ſlow in paying. Is it not that which protects and enlivens trade, both at home and abroad? Is it not that which ſecures all our traders, all our merchants, who are diſperſed through all the different parts of the world; that preſerves them, in the midſt of the Grand Signior's dominions, from pillages and inſults, to which they would be otherwiſe ſubject; that procures them capitulations, and valuable privileges on the coaſt of Barbary, and in the ſeas of the Levant, and enables them to ſail in ſafety, wherever the French flag hath appeared? Is it not that which, in a time of war, keeps off the enemies from our coaſts, which would be otherwiſe ravaged, and preſerves a free paſſage for the navigation between one maritime province to another? In a word, is it not that which ſo amply fills the coffers of our kings, and that which gives their ſubjects ſo favourable an opening for diſcharging their ſuperfluities, by ſending into foreign countries the fruits of their harveſt, or of their induſtry? The abbé de St. Pierre has obſerved, in one of his Political Memoirs, That the ballance of our commerce with foreigners, amounts to, at leaſt, one hundred and fifty millions a year (that is, about 7,000,000l. ſterling) which makes, one month with another, twelve millions and a half. Is it not the maritime power that preſerves this ballance, and by preſerving it, ſuſtains our credit, always on the point of falling, through the jealouſy of our neighbours?

Secondly, If cardinal de Richlieu thoroughly underſtood the thing, and has not carried it too far in his Political Teſtament, we ought to agree, that the principal riches of a ſtate is its reputation, ſo important to a great prince, that it is impoſſible to purpoſe to him any advantage, that can in any degree compenſate the loſs of it. But how is that reputation to be acquired and preſerved, that reputation, I ſay, which Machiavel looked upon to be ſo neceſſary to all ſovereigns, that he called it, The apple of their eyes? How can a prince ever reckon on his fame? Or ſuppoſe it ſhould force ſtrangers, delicate as to point of honour, to acknowlege his ſuperiority, the ſame cardinal de Richlieu has pointed out two methods equally noble and ſure; the firſt is, to entertain in all courts ambaſſadors, whoſe birth, conduct, train, and expence, may do honour to the maſter who employs them; the other, to ſeize, with the utmoſt briſkneſs, whatever has the leaſt tendency to increaſe the domaine of the marine; to cauſe conſiderable ſquadrons to be yearly fitted out, and to let them rendezvous regularly every year at certain places, ſuch as Cadiz, Genoa, before Algiers, at Copenhagen, and in the paſſage of the Sound. It is there, ſo to ſpeak, where all the nations of Europe aſſemble, and where it is proper to ſtrike their eyes, by the appearance of ſtrong ſquadrons. It is there that a prince, who has a good reputation, does more by the bare interpoſition of his name, than others can do, who are leſs eſteemed, with all their menaces and intrigues. I do not ſpeak of ſtill more numerous ſquadrons, that it may be convenient to equip from time to time, and to ſend to America, and into the Eaſt-Indies; it ſuffices me to repeat here what that great miniſter, whom I before cited, has ſaid, that nothing is more indiſpenſable to a ſtate, than its reputation; the diminution of which, however ſlighted it be, may prove a ſtep to create an unlucky diſpoſition towards its abſolute declenſion.

In the third place, if there be any exceſs in the marine, if things relating thereto are ſometimes puſhed too far, it is not that which ought to be accuſed, but the preſent ſyſtem of affairs in this kingdom, in which, to ſay the truth, we ſcarce diſtinguiſh any thing that looks like frugality, œconomy, or diſintereſtedneſs. All things are now executed at a prodigious expence, and all we do is ſwallowed up in pomp and decoration; private intereſt, in moſt mens minds, overballances the love of public good*, and that regard which is due to their country. Happy the hand, who ſhall eſtabliſh things in their natural ſituation! Happy the age, in which there ſhall be ſeen a nobility, accuſtomed from their very infancy to a maſculine and generous virtue, above little intereſts, deſpiſing frivolous occupations, and even life itſelf, when oppoſed to the grandeur of their ſentiment. I would ſhew, ſays the M. de Montlue, to thoſe whom I leave behind me, that I am this day the oldeſt captain in France, that I never ſought repoſe, but endeavoured to acquire honour by doing ſervice to the kings, my maſters, which was the ſole end and aim of my life, flying all thoſe pleaſures and delights, which turn out of the road of virtue and true greatneſs young men, whom God hath endowed with commendable parts, and who are on the point of advancement.

In regard to frugality, it is more neceſſary to ſoldiers, than to any other ſort of men. Is it not then ſhameful, while their life is thick ſtrown with riſks and hazards, to be thinking how they may invent new delights, and pique themſelves on refining luxury and pleaſure? An emperor was, heretofore, treated as looſe and effeminate, becauſe, after his death, a looking-glaſs was found in his tent. What an example this of Roman auſterity! Charles V. being once on the point to take the field, the townſmen of Antwerp and Bruges went to make him a preſent of Flemiſh pictures, of infinite value, in which were repreſented Bacchanalian ſports, marriages, and country feaſts. The emperor, who ſcarce deigned to look upon them, putting on a ſerious air, ſaid, Carry back your preſents, they don't by any means ſuit me, I ſee nothing in them but cramming*.

* Our kings have often endeavoured, though to very little purpoſe, to repreſs, during a war, the expence and ſumptuouſneſs of tables, of which Tacitus ſpeaks well, when he calls them luxurioſos apparatus conviviorum, &c. irritamenta libidinum.

I ought not to forget here, a queſtion that hath been often handled among the Engliſh. They enquire whether the gentry are fitter for maritime ſervice than ſoldiers of fortune, who have nothing to ſubſiſt on, but their merit and their experience? and with them it ſeems to be decided in favour of the latter. It is true, according to cardinal de Richlieu, that all men being equal by nature, muſt ſuffer, with regret, that difference, which protection and riches put between them. It is alſo true, that many, who are obliged to give way, blame, with reaſon, thoſe who command them to ſhew, that though they are inferior to them in power, yet, in merit, they ſurpaſs them.

But without weighing critically what, perhaps, belongs in a peculiar manner to England, I ſhall only ſay, that in France the marine has gained conſiderably ſince it has been compoſed of ſelect youths, and of officers choſen out of the beſt families. It is not that I would exclude certain men, who may be ſaid to be privileged, and who indemnify themſelves from an obſcure birth, by a diſplay of talents ſuperior to any birth. I willingly compare them to that plebeian, ſo famous in the Roman Hiſtory, and to whoſe ſpeech I will give a place here, in order to humble thoſe who want every thing but birth.

'I cannot, ſaid he, expoſe to the eyes of the public, the 'portraits, the triumphs, or the conſulates, of my anceſtors: 'But if you incline to ſee them, I can produce abundance 'of pikes, ſtandards, horſe-harneſs, and other military re-'wards, beſides many wounds. Theſe are my charters, 'theſe are my nobility, which it is true I have not received 'from my fathers, but have purchaſed, by my own proper 'toils, and at the expence of my blood. There is nothing 'of deceit in my words; that is a kind of art with which I 'am abſolutely unacquainted. Virtue is beſt ſeen and diſtin-'guiſhed by her own light. Let thoſe who have been want-'ing to their honour, and have committed baſe and ſcanda-'lous actions, ſeek to varniſh them over by the pomp of 'their diſcourſes; for my part, I never learned the ſciences 'of the Greeks, which I don't ſee have rendered either 'wiſer or more virtuous many of thoſe, who boaſt of be-'ing well verſed in them. But I have learned what the re-'public ought to adviſe and to approve; to attack the ene-'my, to ſuccour ſpeedily ſuch as are under my orders, to 'fear nothing but infamy; to brave, by turns, the ſcorch-'ing heat of ſummer, and the winter's pinching cold; to 'lie upon the ground; and, in fine, to ſuffer all that is moſt 'tedious or tireſome in war.'

Nobility, without doubt, owes its ſplendor to fair and generous actions; but as it degenerates every day, ought we to complain that ſuch actions are revived, and appear in other men? The nobility brigue and intrigue, in order to acquire charges and employments, without ever thinking how to merit, or to execute them. What madneſs in theſe vain men! Their anceſtors have left them, it is true, all that depend on them, riches, great names, and ſhining titles; but they have not left them perſonal merit; that lay beyond the extent of their power; that alone they could not communicate, that alone is the thing not hereditary. They ſay that I am a brutiſh fellow, and without the leaſt tincture of good manners, becauſe I am aſhamed to own a player for my companion, diſdain either ſhewy or effeminate pleaſures, and give leſs wages to my cook than to any other of my

* Patriæ rem unuſquiſque, non ſuam, augere debet. Melius eſt enim pauper in divite, quam dives in paupere imperio verſari. Val. Max. lib. 4. i. e. A man ought to ſtudy to augment the public ſtock, not his own. For it is much better to be poor under a rich government, than to be rich under a poor one.

my domeſtics. What mighty crimes! and yet they are all mine.

I thought this elogium due to ſeveral officers of great merit, who have rendered the marine illuſtrious, by ſo many heavy campaigns; and who, in ſpite of the obſtacles they met with at every turn, in ſpite of their rivals, who ſeem to block up their way to preferment, have acquired it notwithſtanding, and that too with the higheſt applauſe; ſuch, even in late times, was M. de Gué Troüin, as much diſtinguiſhed by his undaunted bravery, as by his ſuperior capacity, who expoſed himſelf rapidly and boldly to all ſorts of dangers, even to thoſe which he had not foreſeen, and which his intrepidity ſeemed to ward off, by not ſuffering them to confound him.'

REMARKS, regarding the laſting ſecurity and glory of the BRITISH EMPIRE.

Thus far Monſ. Deſlandes, who has zealouſly endcavoured to raiſe a ſpirit in France for a boundleſs advancement of the maritime power of that kingdom; and who does not diſcern this to be the grand ſyſtem, which now prevails at that court?

The Romans, though their city was ſituated very conveniently for maritime affairs, not being above fifteen miles diſtant from the Tyrrhenian Sea, and having the river Tyber running through it, capable of receiving the ſmaller veſſels, yet ſeem wholly to have neglected all naval concerns for many years after the building of Rome; and ſome eminent writers have been willing to aſſign this as one of the principal cauſes which preſerved that ſtate ſo long in its primitive innocence and integrity, free from all thoſe corruptions, which an intercourſe with foreigners might probably have brought into faſhion.

But, as an inſtance of what may be done by a vigilant people, we find, that, about the year of the city 492, the Romans obſerving, that the coaſts of Italy lay expoſed to the depredations of the Carthaginian fleet, which frequently made deſcents upon them, and conſidering that the war with that republic was likely to continue, they determined to render themſelves maſters of a naval army: which they accompliſhed, with ſuch wonderful bravery and reſolution, as ſoon to be capable of trying their naval ſtrength againſt their more formidable enemy, and afterwards to give many ſignal defeats to the Carthaginians, who, 'till that time, held the dominion of the ſea uncontеſted, derived down to them from their anceſtors.

Whoever conſiders this fluctuation of power, from the Carthaginians to the Romans, muſt perceive a dangerous parity in that acceſſion of naval ſtrength which has accrued to the crown of France, from the beginning of the reign of Henry IV. to the end of the reign of Lewis XIV. Who could have imagined that France, in ſo ſhort a time, could have been able to equip a fleet capable of diſputing the dominion of the deep againſt the united navies of England and Holland? But after the diminution of her maritime power during the war with queen Anne, who could have ſuſpected that France ſhould have ſo ſpeedily recruited and augmented her navy, ſo as frequently to deride the Britiſh power, before the French had the inſolence to conduct Navarro out of Toulon, and commence that inglorious engagement, wherein a brave Britiſh admiral was not only ſhamefully unaſſiſted by his colleague, but afterwards diſgraced for nobly defending the honour of his country? And who could have thought, that the French after the reduction of their fleets in its two interceptions by the admirals Anſon and Hawke, and after the loſs of 2185 ſhips taken from them by us, during the courſe of the late war, ſhould be able ſo expeditiouſly to reſtore their debilitated navy, and retrieve their commerce to a ſtronger, and in a better condition than it ever enjoyed before? — But all this has been, and now is, unhappily for us, the caſe! which ſhould rouſe Britain from that apathy, ſhe has too long and too tamely ſuffered, while her enemies have been audaciouſly inſulting her in too many parts of the univerſe.

It is the invariable policy of France to amuſe her neighbours with deluſive negociations, while ſhe is ſecretly preparing to afflict them with the rapacity of her arms. See our REMARKS on the article PLANTATIONS. Was not this the unkingly conduct of Lewis XIV. that grand ravager, in his barbarous deſtruction of the Palatinate, and his perfidious invaſion of the United Provinces? Was not this the behaviour of Lewis XV. to her Hungarian Majeſty, when he as unkingly renounced the Pragmatic Sanction, and, inſtead of preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian inheritance, was the firſt to lop the branches of ſo fair a tree, by his invaſion of Bohemia? And what can Great-Britain expect will be the conſequence of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, 'for eſtabliſhing a chriſtian, univerſal, and perpetual peace, as well by ſea as land; and for preſerving a ſincere and inviolable friendſhip between the ſeveral high powers at war, both as principals and auxiliaries, their heirs, ſucceſſors, kingdoms, ſtates, provinces, countries, ſubjects, and vaſſals, of what rank or condition ſoever they may be, without any exception either of places or perſons?' Why, from the French nation we can expect nothing but French policy; that is, whenever France is able to unſheath the ſword, ſhe will think it no diſhonour to cancel the moſt ſacred engagements ſhe has made with the pen. This is certainly the policy of France; and this we have been told by ſome of our miniſters themſelves, who, as they are ſo well acquainted with the practice of our moſt inveterate enemy, ought to be perpetually on the guard for our own ſecurity.

The French navy is now grown to an enormous liſt, and our brave admiral Vernon, more than a year ago, ſhewed an account which he had procured of the French navy then in the ports of Breſt and Toulon; whereby it appeared that, excluſive of what were in the harbour of Rochefort, the ſhips of force amounted to near one hundred ſail. What a wonderful augmentation ſince the cloſe of the year 1747, when, according to the moſt accurate accounts of many, the whole royal navy of France amounted to no more than 31 ſhips of the line, from 80 to 90 guns, beſides ſeven frigates; of which 7 were old and unſerviceable, and the remainder too few to attempt any thing in oppoſition to the navy of England! But let us alſo remember, that the Britiſh nation at the ſame time, notwithſtanding the detriment ſhe had ſuſtained by the interception of commerce, and the loſs in the royal navy, was ſtill capable of continuing the maritime war, and of proſecuting it with redoubled vigour; her royal navy in 1747, conſiſting of 126 ſhips of the line, beſides 75 frigates, 43 ſloops, 16 bombs, and 11 fire-ſhips, in all 279, of which 225 were in commiſſion, being 96 more than thoſe in employment at the commencement of the Spaniſh war; but, at the concluſion of the war, in the beginning of 1749, on the reduction of the Britiſh navy, the ſhips continued in commiſſion were only 71 of the line, with 29 frigates, beſides ſloops and tenders for which 10,000 ſailors have been ſince continued in the ſervice of the royal navy.

Therefore, we ought not to be intimidated at the views of France, but rather vigilant in our own.

Every court in Europe knows, that ſuch has been the ſteady conduct of Great-Britain for many years paſt, to act perfectly conſiſtent with her treaties and alliances, and chiefly upon the DEFENSIVE, to preſerve not only the rights and liberties of her own people, but to protect her allies from being oppreſſed and over-run by the power of France, whereby all Chriſtendom muſt have been involved in the calamitous event. England cannot be charged in any reſpect, during the reign of the preſent family eſpecially, with having violated her engagements with any ſtate or empire, or with having attempted to act OFFENSIVELY againſt any power without very great provocation; and the exertion of their maritime ſtrength on theſe occaſions has been with the greateſt moderation, and in order only to preſerve that ballance of power, which has hitherto preſerved the liberties of all Europe. But this will not long continue in the power of Great-Britain, if other nations increaſe and ſtrengthen their maritime power, for the ſake of protecting and extending their trade, and the Engliſh, at the ſame time, do not uſe all poſſible means to keep up theirs: if we are regardleſs of our well-being in this reſpect, our rivals in trade muſt ſooner or later become our ſuperiors, and this muſt produce very injurious and fatal effects to this kingdom. For as trade is the chief ſource of our affluence, and conſequently, the great inſtrument of power, ſo, if we ſuffer our trade to decline for want of due protection by a maritime force, our influence, as a maritime ſtate, and all our preſent affluence and ſecurity, muſt neceſſarily dwindle in a juſt proportion to it. That we may be the better apprized of the ſchemes and meaſures of France for many years paſt to augment her marine, in order one day to aſſert and maintain an aſcendancy over the Engliſh and Dutch in maritime proweſs, we refer the reader further to the article NAVAL AFFAIRS. To make ſtill a further judgment upon concerns of this nature, ſee alſo the articles MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, NAVAL STORES, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS.

As we would not omit any thing eſſential under ſuch intereſting heads, as thoſe we have juſt referred to, we ſhall take notice of a particular or two more, which ſeem to require the ſerious attention of the public at this time: the firſt is, that Spain, as well as France, ſeems at preſent to be engaged in ſuch meaſures, that can ſcarce fail to raiſe not only her royal navy, but her mercantile ſhipping, to a height ſuperior to what it ever was. See the articles CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FACTORS, FLORIDA, MEDITERRANEAN, MANUFACTURES, MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, NAVAL AFFAIRS. In regard to ſome of our laws relative to ſhipping, ſee the article MASTERS of SHIPS. See alſo MEXICO.

There are likewiſe many other of the leſſer ſtates, that are either raiſing a new maritime power, or augmenting what they have; and as the machinations of certain potentates may hereafter be productive of ſuch alliances, as may one day occaſion a union of maritime power that may prove formidable to Great-Britain, it behoves her to guard betimes againſt thoſe poſſible evils; and more eſpecially ſo, ſeeing

ſeeing that the marine, as well as the finances of our natural ally, the States General, are, by certain intrigues and diſtractions fomented amongſt them, in worſe plight and condition than they have been for half this century: nor is this the only melancholy ſituation of Holland, that may prove diſadvantageous to theſe kingdoms on urgent occaſions; there is another circumſtance, that relates to the affairs of that ſtate, which is no leſs detrimental to the joint intereſt of England and the United Provinces: I mean the preſent unſettled ſtate of the barrier, which has been poſtponed too long, and may be attended with conſequences equally injurious to the common cauſe with what elſe has been intimated. See the articles HOLLAND, FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS. — Theſe conſiderations taken with their united force, ſhould, methinks, have their due weight with Great-Britain to preſerve and augment the power of her royal navy to ſuch a degree, that ſhe may be able to aſſert and maintain that ſuperiority of maritime ſtrength for which ſhe has been ſo long renowned, and which has hitherto proved the ſalvation of the liberties of the whole Proteſtant intereſts. See the articles SEA DOMINION and SEA BRITISH.

Nor does it appear to me, that the augmentation of our royal navy to the height requiſite at this or any other conjuncture, need be ſo great a burthen to the ſtate, as ſome are wont to apprehend; eſpecially if thoſe marine concerns were managed with that œconomy and ſagacity, which many judge neceſſary: and if, beſides this, due meaſures were taken to provide ourſelves wholly with naval ſtores of every kind, and not to be under the neceſſity of taking any from other ſtates, or, at leaſt, ſuch a proportion only as may be politic, in order to uphold and cement ſuch a mutual degree of commercial intereſt as good policy may ſuggeſt; for we cannot expect to be ſellers to all nations, and buyers of none. If, however, we are wiſe enough to ſupply ourſelves with ſuch a proportion of our naval ſtores in general, as will keep the bulk of the treaſure thereon expended within ourſelves, an expence of this kind may, perhaps, add riches to the nation, inſtead of being an incumberance to it. See what I have urged in this light in particular, under the article NAVAL AFFAIRS. See alſo the article NAVAL STORES.

SHROPSHIRE is bounded on the eaſt by Staffordſhire, on the north by Cheſhire, on the ſouth by Worceſterſhire, Herefordſhire, and Radnorſhire, and on the weſt by Montgomery and Denbighſhire in Wales, and is computed to be 134 miles in compaſs. The air of this county is very healthy, as it generally is in ſuch as are mountainous or hilly. The ſoil is various, the hilly parts not being altogether ſo fruitful as the low grounds. Here are mines of coal, copper, lead, iron-ſtone, and lime-ſtone.

SHREWSBURY, the county town, is delightfully ſituated on the Severn. Here is a market every Thurſday for Welch cottons and flannels, of which there are ſold as much as comes to 1000l. a week one with another.

BRIDGNORTH, on the ſame river, is a place of great trade, carried on both by land and water: its markets are well ſtocked with all neceſſaries, and its fairs are reſorted to from moſt parts of the kingdom for horſes, black cattle, ſheep, butter, cheeſe, bacon, linen cloth, hops, and moſt other goods and merchandize. The town is well furniſhed with artificers, who deal in making and ſelling clothes, leather, iron-tools, and the common manufactures of the kingdom, and is as famous as any other for making of ſtockings.

OSWESTRY has a great traffic on its market-day for the Welch flannels and freizes, of which it is the ſtaple.

SIAM, a kingdom of Aſia, beyond the Ganges, in the farther Eaſt-Indies, bounded on the north by the kingdoms of Pegu and Ava; on the eaſt by Cambaya, Lao, Jancoma, and Tanga; on the ſouth by a bay of its own name; and on the weſt by the bay of Bengal; making a ſemicircle of about 450 leagues, though others make it larger, and bounded by Pegu and Lao on the north, the China and Indian Ocean to the eaſt and weſt, with the kingdom of Malacca to the ſouth.

SIAM PROPER, or the UPPER SIAM. The air is very temperate, and the ſoil in general very fat and fruitful. The country abounds with rice, cotton-trees, and others, from whence they extract oils for divers uſes. They have abundance of trees that yield a gum, which is the chief ingredient of the Japan and Chineſe varniſh. The beſt ſort of benjamin comes from hence, it being pure, clear, and white, with little ſtreaks of an amber colour.—They till their lands after the rains, and gather their harveſt of rice after the waters are retired, though ſometimes they do it before, in boats; for, according to ſome hiſtorians, it grows ſo faſt, that the ear is always above water, though it riſes a foot in 24 hours.—The rice which grows where the rivers do not overflow, and which is nouriſhed by great ciſterns, or trenches of rain-water, is more ſubſtantial, durable, and better reliſhed than the other. They raiſe ſeveral ſorts of herbs, pulſe, and roots.— They have alſo lemons, citrons, pomegranates, and oranges, which they call cryſtal ones, becauſe of their value, ariſing from their uſe to ſick people. — In fine, the country abounds with all the fruits of the Indies; the moſt eſtimable is the arrac-tree.— Their fruits are large figs, like ſauſages in form, jaikes, ſhaped like large melons, and of a delicate taſte and ſmell, ſugar-canes, pepper-trees, cocoa's, anana's, and that remarkable plant called ginſeng, which they drink like tea, in a morning faſting.

They have mines of gold and ſilver, lead, tin, iron, loadſtone, marble, agats, ſapphires, cryſtals, antimony, emeralds, and tambank, which is a mixture of copper, with a little gold and ſilver. They have ſteel, of which the inhabitants make ſabres, poignards, and knives, but they are in general bad ſmiths. A diamond-mine was diſcovered here once, but neglected for want of encouragement, becauſe the mines are entailed on the crown, which has the ſole benefit of them.— Here are various kinds of beaſts, as elephants, rhinoceroſes, leopards, tygers, with all the other tame and wild beaſts of the Indies; but they eat little fleſh, and only catch deer, whereof they breed great numbers, for their ſkins, which they ſend yearly to Japan.

They are ignorant of the arts, except the ordinary ſorts of mechanics, but are dexterous at gilding, and beating of gold into plates. They make a coarſe ſort of cotton cloth, and are good at embroidering. The common people employ themſelves in fiſhing, and the better ſort in merchandizing. The women are the chief merchants, ſome of whom trade conſiderably, though none of them get eſtates by foreign trade, that being appropriated to the king.

The chief places are,

CHANTEBON, or as ſome call it, LIAM, ſtands at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, near the gulph of Siam, and in the extreme ſouth-eaſt part of this country. The river is navigable for large ſhips, and there is a tolerable trade carried on here.

BANKASOY, on a river which lies four or five leagues to the eaſt of the bar of Siam, where are two iſlands called the Dutch iſlands, at which ſhips are obliged to ſtay in the ſouthweſt monſoons, when they cannot get water over the bar that bears off it ſouth-eaſt and by ſouth, about nine leagues diſtant. It is a place not much frequented by ſtrangers, though it produces much aquila and ſapan-wood, and elephants-teeth, which are all ſent to the king, who traffics with them. This place is of chief note for ballichang, or a ſauce made of dried ſhrimps, cod, pepper, ſalt, and ſea-weed, or graſs, all mixed, and beaten up to the conſiſtency of thick muſtard. Many hundred tons hereof are expended in Siam, and the adjacent countries.

BANCOCK, or BENCOCK, in an iſland formed by the river Menan. Moſt ſhips bound to India put in here, to give an account from whence they came, as well as of their lading, and complement of men, &c. and to pay cuſtom, the acquittance for which they ſhew at another place up the river, called Canon-Bantenau, within a league of the town of Siam, and then they have liberty to trade any where through the kingdom without paying any thing, but for their cocket, which they are obliged to do on penalty of forfeiting the ſhip.

The capital of the country, and the ſeat of the king, is

SIAM, a large city, formed by three ſtreams of the river Menan, or Memnan, which is generally full of ſhips, prows, &c. 30 leagues from Bontempia.

The Dutch have a factory here, about a mile below the town, on the ſame ſide of the river, and their chief makes a good figure here, though the Siam market takes off but little of European goods; and their greateſt traffic is in tin, ſapan-wood, and deer-ſkins, which they buy up for the Japan market. The Portugueze had a great trade here formerly, 'till they obſtructed the commerce of the natives with the Dutch, and attacked the latter in the river Menan; which ſo incenſed the king, that he became an enemy to the Portugueze ever after, and encouraged the Dutch, whoſe trade here is very advantageous with reſpect to the iſles of Java and Sumatra.

The Engliſh had a factory here for many years, 'till about 1686, the Eaſt-India company had a quarrel with the Siameſe, and withdrew it. The ſuburbs, which are inhabited chiefly by ſtrangers, lie on both ſides of the river.

TENNASERIM is a city of great trade, near a river of its own name, which falls into the bay of Bengal with three mouths, and is above 200 miles north-weſt of Siam, and 20 leagues within the bay, amongſt ſeveral ſmall iſlands.

CUI, or COUIR, is a place on the coaſt hereabouts, which produces great quantities of tin and elephants-teeth; but all are ſent to Siam, for the king's uſe.

MARGUI, MERJEE, ſtands in an iſland near Tennaſerim, 140 miles ſouth-weſt from Siam, and is eſteemed, by ſome, the beſt port in the Indies. It is a ſafe harbour; and the country produces rice, timber, tin, elephants teeth, and aquila-wood. A large number of Engliſh merchants ſettled here formerly, and carried on a conſiderable traffic, but were obliged to quit it in 1687, by the Old Eaſt-India company; who having a mind that the Engliſh here ſhould reſide at Fort St George, threatened the king of Siam with a war, if he did not deliver them up, or force them out of his country: and the officer whom they ſent with the meſſage behaving inſolently to the government, and putting ſome of the Siameſe to

death without cauſe, the enraged populace maſſacred 76 of the Engliſh, by way of revenge. This place, and Tennaſerim, is the road where ſhips from Guzaratte arrive, in June and July, and merchants tranſport their goods from hence over land to Siam.

LIGOR, the capital of a country of the ſame name, which was formerly a kingdom of itſelf, 'till by civil diſſenſions it became a prey to the king of Siam; it ſtands above 380 miles ſouth of Siam. The Dutch have a factory here, which trades in tin and pepper, the country producing abundance of the former, which they engroſs all to themſelves.

SANGOR ſtands on the ſide of a large river, about 12 leagues ſouth of Ligor; it produces tin, elephants-teeth, aquila-wood, and ſome gold; but the inhabitants meet with ſuch diſcouragement in digging for tin, that there is little to be got, and what is manufactured is bought up by the Dutch factory at Ligor.

JONSALAM, or JUNCALAN, or JONKUYLOAN, on the weſtern coaſt, is an iſland within a mile of the continent, but the ſouth end is about three leagues from it. Between this and the continent there is a good harbour for ſhipping, in the ſouth-weſt monſoons, and on the weſt ſide of the iſland; Puton Bay is a ſafe one in the north-eaſt winds; between this iſland and Merjee there are ſeveral other good harbours; but the ſea-coaſt is very thinly peopled, becauſe of great numbers of freebooters, called Salleiters, who inhabit iſlands along the coaſt, and both rob and take people for ſlaves, whom they tranſport to Achim, in Sumatra, and there ſell them: this town often ſuffers by their depredations. Thoſe iſlands afford for traffic ambergreaſe, the horns of the rhinoceros, good maſts, and abundance of tin; but few people dig for it, by reaſon of the abovementioned out-laws; beſides, their governors being generally Chineſe, buy their places at the court of Siam, and fleece the people to reimburſe themſelves: yet the villages on the continent drive a ſmall trade with ſhips that come from Coromandel coaſt and Bengal, but both the buyer and the ſeller deal by retale; ſo that a ſhip's cargo is a long time in ſelling, and the product of the country as long in purchaſing: the iſland is about 80 leagues north-eaſt of Achim, and was formerly called a kingdom.

MARTABAN, or MARTAVAN, once a kingdom independent on the bay of Bengal, which Moll places in the empire of Ava, and the Sanſons ſay it formerly belonged to Pegu, but it is now a province ſubject to Siam. It abounds with corn, medicinal herbs, oil of jeſſamy, roſes, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, cheſnuts, &c. mines of gold, ſilver, iron, ſteel, lead, copper; it has alſo rubico, lacque, benzoin, and they make a ſort of porcelain veſſels, varniſhed black, much eſteemd for keeping liquors. It is ſaid to extend 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, and 115 where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt. Father Piemento ſays, it formerly yielded three harveſts a year; but about 1597, much of it was laid waſte by the Siameſe. Bouſingault ſays it has ſo good an air, that the inhabitants never have the head-ach. It has Pegu on the north, Siam on the ſouth and eaſt, and the Indian Ocean, and bay of Bengal, on the weſt. The capital, of the ſame name, is a well-built populous town, and has one of the beſt havens in the country, with a free entrance at all ſeaſons, to which ſhips trade from Malacca with pepper, china ware, camphire, &c. and make their returns in rice, which they likewiſe export to Cochin. Moll places it 223 miles north weſt of Siam, on the eaſt ſide of the gulph of Pegu, from which city it ſtands about 92 miles to the ſouth, and it was reckoned its principal haven.

The GOLD and SILVER WEIGHTS of SIAM

Are by tual, which weighs neareſt 9 dwts. 10 grs. and is $9\frac{1}{2}$ dwts. better than ſtandard ſilver.

GREAT WEIGHTS

Are from their coins likewiſe, as

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
80 Tuals is 1 catty, or - -	2	9	$4\frac{3}{4}$	Avoir.
50 Cattys is 1 pecul, or - -	129	0	13	Ditto

But 50 cattys of Siam ſhould make 1 pecul China, of 132lb. for they weigh all their goods by the China dotchin; but it is never found that the king's dotchin at Siam gives more than 129 lb. which ſhould be 132 lb.

COINS.

Their coins are tuals, miams, tuangs, and ſamporſs.

2 Samporſs is - - - - - -	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs - - - - - - -	1 Miam
4 Miams - - - - - - -	1 Tual

Their accounts are kept in cattys, tales, tuals, miams, tuangs, and cowries.

800 Cowries is - - - - - -	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs - - - - - -	1 Miam
4 Miams - - - - - -	1 Tual
4 Tuals - - - - - -	1 Tale
20 Tales - - - - - -	1 Catty

10 miams paſs for a tale China, and 85 tales Siam are always reckoned at 8 tales China.

CUSTOMS.

The Chineſe, Moors, and Banians, pay 8 per cent. cuſtoms. The Engliſh, at preſent, pay no cuſtoms, but pay meaſurage for their ſhips; a ſhip of 200 tons burthen pays from 1150 to 1200 rupees meaſurage, and ſo for other veſſels, in proportion to their burthen.

REMARKS.

In order to make a right judgment of the nature of the Eaſt-India trade in general, and conſequences of the ſame trade to theſe kingdoms in particular, the reader is deſired to conſult the following articles throughout this work, viz. BENGAL, CAMBODIA, CARAVANS, CHINA, COMPANIES, COROMANDEL, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, EAST-INDIA COMPANY of ENGLAND, EUROPE, FRANCE, in regard to its Eaſt-India trade in particular; GOLD, with reſpect to the gold brought from the Eaſt-Indies into Europe; JAPAN, INDOSTAN, MONOPOLIES, ORIENTAL TRADE, OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, PEGU, PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Under theſe heads, and what we ſhall further lay before the reader in the ſequel, he will find ſuch FACTS, and ſuch argumentative matter ſtated, naturally deducible therefrom, as will enable him to determine within his own breaſt, that great point, whether it is for the intereſt of the nation that the Eaſt-India company ſhould be continued under its preſent conſtitution, or whether it ſhould be annihilated, and the trade laid open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects.

And as the ſubſtance of what has been urged againſt the company will be found faithfully repreſented under the preceding articles, ſo will alſo the anſwers thereunto; but there having lately appeared an anſwer to ſome of the principal objections which have been ſtarted againſt the company, and that in a light ſomething different from what has been given throughout the preceding parts of this work; I ſhould be charged with partiality, if I was to omit this additional argument in favour of the company, ſince I have ſuppreſſed nothing of weight that has been urged in oppoſition to that corporation. Another inducement to this is, that I ſhall ſcarce have another opportunity of ſaying any thing more in relation to the Eaſt-India trade before this work is completed; and, therefore, all evidence in regard to a ſubject of this importance, will be expected to be fairly laid before the public, for their information.

—The ſubſtance of this argument in vindication of the company is as follows, viz.

'The remoteſt traffic is always moſt beneficial to the kingdom's ſtock; for example—Suppoſe pepper to be always worth two ſhillings the pound, and a merchant ſhould fetch it from Holland, and pay there twenty-pence the pound, he will gain well by the adventure; but if he fetch this pepper from the Eaſt-Indies, he cannot give above five-pence the pound to obtain the like gain, clear of all charges; which ſufficiently proves the great advantage we have by purchaſing commodities in remote countries, not only for our own conſumption, but for exportation: ſo that it is plain we make a much greater ſtock by gain upon many commodities, than thoſe nations do where they grow; and ſurely there is not leſs honour and judgment by getting riches in this manner, than by an increaſe of our own means, eſpecially when this latter is advanced for the benefit of the former, as hath been found in the Eaſt-Indies by ſale of our native commodities.

But for the better underſtanding thereof, we muſt diſtinguiſh between the gain of the kingdom and the profit of the merchant; for although the kingdom pays no more for this pepper than is before ſuppoſed, nor for any other commodity purchaſed in foreign countries, more than the ſtranger receiveth from us for the ſame; yet the merchant payeth not only that price, but alſo the FREIGHT, INSURANCE, INTEREST, CUSTOMS, and many other CHARGES, which are exceeding great in long voyages: but all theſe, in the kingdom's account, are but commutations among ourſelves, and no privation of the public ſtock; they remain ſtill in the kingdom.

It is of great importance to the nation, that the price of lands ſhould be improved [ſee our article LANDED INTEREST], which never hath, nor can be done, but by a ſucceſsful foreign trade, the ballance whereof is the only means and rule of our treaſure; that is to ſay, when, either by iſſuing out of the realm yearly, a greater value in wares than we conſume of foreign commodities, we grow rich; or, by ſpending more of ſtrangers goods than we ſell them of our own, we are impoveriſhed: for the firſt of theſe courſes brings in the money which we have; the laſt will carry it away again when we have got it. See our article BALLANCE of TRADE.

It is a true ſaying, That plenty or ſcarcity of money makes all things dear or cheap in a commonwealth [ſee our articles MONEY, CASH, CIRCULATION]; but it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the ſeeming plenty of money from that which only is ſubſtantial, and able to perform the work; for there are many

many ways and means to procure money into a kingdom (for a ſhort time) which therefore do not enrich, but rather impoveriſh the ſame, by the ſeveral inconveniencies which ever accompany ſuch alterations; for inſtance, if we ſhould melt down our plate into coin [ſee our article COIN], it would cauſe plenty for a time, yet ſhould we be nothing the richer, but rather this treaſure being thus altered, is made the more apt to be carried out of the kingdom, if we exceed our means by exceſs in foreign wares, or maintain a war by ſea or land, where we do not feed and cloath the ſoldier, and ſupply the armies, with our own native proviſions; by which diſorders our treaſure will be exhauſted, for it is not the merchants exchange by bills that can prevent the laſt of the abovementioned evils. [See the article EXCHANGE.]

But whether it be the ſtranger or the Engliſh merchant brings money into this country, it muſt ever be done upon a valuable conſideration, either for wares carried out already, or after to be exported, which helps us nothing, except the evil occaſions of exceſs or war aforementioned be removed, which will exhauſt our treaſure; for otherwiſe, the money that one man bringeth in for gain, another man ſhall be forced to carry out for neceſſity, becauſe there ſhall ever be a neceſſity to ballance our accounts with ſtrangers, although it ſhould be done with great loſs upon the rate of money, which is exported at great riſk and danger of confiſcations, for neceſſity or gain will ever find ſome means to violate the laws.

So that the treaſure which is brought into the realm by the ballance of our foreign trade, is that money which only doth abide with us, and by which we are inriched; and by this plenty of money thus gotten (and no otherwiſe) do our lands improve; for when the merchant diſpoſes of his cloth well abroad, he preſently buys a greater quantity, which raiſeth the price of wool, and other commodities, which improves the landlord's rents, as the leaſes expire daily; and alſo by this means money being gained, and brought more abundantly into this kingdom, it doth enable many men to buy lands, which muſt make them the dearer; but if our foreign trade come to a ſtop or declination, by neglect at home, or injuries abroad, whereby the merchants are impoveriſhed, and ſo the commodities of the growth and product of the nation leſs iſſued, then do all the benefits abovementioned ceaſe, and our land fall daily in price; wherefore the flouriſhing eſtate of our general trade is the only means to make our lands improve: ſo the particular trade to the Eaſt Indies is a PRINCIPAL INSTRUMENT therein, becauſe it hath much increaſed the general traffic of this kingdom.

In the courſe of a foreign trade there are three degrees of gain; the firſt is that of the commonwealth, which may be done when the merchant (who is the principal agent therein) ſhall loſe. The ſecond is the gain of the merchant, which he ſometimes doth juſtly and worthily effect, although the commonwealth be a loſer. The third is the gain of the king, whereof he is ever certain, even when the commonwealth and the merchant ſhall be both loſers.

It hath been already obſerved, that the commonwealth may be inriched in the courſe of trade, by the ballance of the ſame, when exceſſes are avoided; but it may be affirmed, that ſuch happineſs may be in the commonwealth, when the merchant, for his particular, ſhall have no occaſion to rejoice. As for example: ſuppoſe the Eaſt-India company ſhould ſend out one hundred thouſand pounds in goods, or money, into the Eaſt-Indies, and receive home for the ſame the full value of three hundred thouſand pounds; hereby it is evident, that this part of the public ſtock is trebled: and yet it may be proved, that the company ſhall be loſers by the adventure, if the returns be made in bulky commodities; for the freight, the charges abroad and at home, his Majeſty's duties and cuſtoms, and other charges, will be above two hundred thouſand pounds; which being added to the principal, produceth loſs. And thus we ſee, that not only the kingdom, but alſo the king, may get very much, when the merchant ſhall loſe; which gives good occaſion to conſider how much more the nation is inriched by this trade, when all things paſs ſo happily, that the merchant is a gainer alſo, together with the king and kingdom.

But for the better explaining of that which hath been affirmed as above, we muſt underſtand, that if the ſaid one hundred thouſand pounds ſhould be trebled by the return of ſo much ſilks, and other fine commodities, out of the Indies, then the merchant likewiſe ſhould gain by ſuch an adventure, becauſe thoſe commodities would require but five hundred tons of ſhipping to bring home the ſame, which is but a very ſmall charge, in reſpect of four thouſand five hundred tons of ſhipping, which would be required to lade home the like value in bulky commodities.

The ſecond ſort of gain in the courſe of trade is, when the merchant, by his laudable endeavours, may both bring in and carry out wares and commodities to his advantage, by buying them, and ſelling them to good profit, which is the end of his labours; yet nevertheleſs the commonwealth ſhall decline, and grow poor, by a diſorder in the people, when through pride, and other exceſſes, they conſume more foreign wares in value than the wealth of the kingdom can ſatisfy and pay, by the exportation of our own commodities; which is the very quality of an unthriſt, who ſpends beyond his means. See our articles EXPORTATION and IMPORTATION.

The third ſort of gain is the king's, who is ever ſure to get by trade, when the commonwealth and the merchant ſhall loſe ſeverally, as aforeſaid, or jointly, as it may and ſometimes doth happen when the merchant is unſucceſsful, and when our commodities are overballanced by foreign wares conſumed: but if ſuch diſorders be not prevented, his Majeſty in the end ſhall be the greateſt loſer, when his ſubjects be impoveriſhed.

The ſafety of this kingdom conſiſts not only in its own ſtrength and wealth, but alſo in the laudable and lawful performances of thoſe things, which will weaken and impoveriſh ſuch powerful princes, as either may or are become our enemies in remote countries.

All nations (who have no mines of their own) are enriched with gold and ſilver by one and the ſame means, which is already ſhewed to be the BALLANCE of their foreign trades; and this is not ſtrictly to be done in thoſe countries where the fountain of treaſure is, but rather with ſuch order and obſervations in their trade, and againſt exceſs, as are beforementioned: for ſuppoſe England, by commerce with Spain, may get and bring home five hundred thouſand ryals of eight yearly, yet if we loſe as much by our trade in Turkey, and therefore carry our money thither, it is not then the Engliſh, but the Turks, who have got this treaſure, although they have no trade with Spain, from whence it was firſt brought. But if England having thus loſt with Turkey, does notwithſtanding gain twice as much by France, Italy, and other members of her general trade, then there will remain five hundred thouſand ryals of eight clear gain by the ballance of the ſame; and this compariſon holds between all other nations, both for the manner of getting, and the proportion that is yearly gotten. But if yet a queſtion was made, whether all nations get treaſure, and Spain only loſe it, I anſwer no; for ſome countries by war, or by exceſs, do loſe that which they had gotten, as well as Spain, by war, and want of wares, doth loſe that which was its own.

The induſtrious Hollanders wanting means in their own hands, do find rich mines in his Majeſty's ſeas; golden mines they may be termed, for the States ſo call them in their public proclamations [ſee our article FISHERIES], which they have ſet forth on all occaſions for the better preſervation of their fiſhing: a treaſure it is (indeed) ineſtimable, and an employment moſt profitable: from hence originally proceed the increaſe and maintenance of their people, their arts, their private wealth, their public treaſure, the multitude of their ſhips which fetch materials to build ſhips, the ſwarms of their ſmall veſſels which catch fiſh, to lade their great ſhips which trade with fiſh; the produce whereof doth furniſh them with all their wants of foreign commodities, and make them alſo rich in treaſure, with which treaſure they do alſo enlarge their trade into all the quarters of the world, whereby they become the magazines for England, France, Spain, and other places. In which courſe of trade, they are not leſs injurious to ſupplant others (eſpecially the Engliſh) than they are careful to ſtrengthen themſelves, with more than ordinary diligence; for they know well, that trade hath raiſed their fortunes, and doth feed their hopes.

We have no other means to get treaſure but by foreign trade; for mines we have none: and how this money is gotten in the management of our trade is already ſhown; that it is done by making our commodities, which are exported, to overballance in value the foreign wares which we conſume: ſo that it remains only to ſhew, how our money may be added to our commodities, and being jointly exported, may ſo much the more increaſe our treaſure.

And here let it be ſuppoſed, that our yearly conſumption of foreign commodities is to the value of twenty hundred thouſand pounds, and our exportations to exceed that two hundred thouſand pounds, which ſum it may be affirmed is brought to us in treaſure to ballance the account: but if we add three hundred thouſand pounds more in ready money, into our former exportation in wares, what profit can we have (will ſome men ſay) although by this means we ſhould bring in ſo much ready money, ſeeing that we have carried out the like value?

To this the anſwer is; that when we have prepared our exportation of wares, and ſent out as much of every thing as we can ſpare or vend abroad, it is not therefore ſaid, that then we ſhould add our money thereunto to fetch in more money immediately, but rather firſt to enlarge our trade therewith, by enabling us to bring in more foreign commodities; which being ſent out again into the places of their conſumption, they will in due time much increaſe our treaſure: for though in this manner we do yearly multiply our importations to the maintenance of more ſhipping and mariners, improvements of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, and other benefits, yet our conſumption of thoſe foreign commodities is no more than it was before; ſo that all the ſaid increaſe of commodities brought in, by the means of our ready money ſent out, as aforeſaid, doth in the end become an exporta-

tion

tion unto us of a much greater value than our ſaid monies were, which is proved by the three ſeveral examples following.

Firſt, ſuppoſe that one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, being ſent in our ſhipping into the eaſt countries, and that it will buy there one hundred thouſand quarters of wheat, clear of all charges on board the ſhips, which being after brought into England and houſed, to export the ſame at the beſt time for vent thereof in Spain or Italy, and that it there ſells for two hundred thouſand pounds to make the merchant but a ſaver, yet by this reckoning we ſee the kingdom hath doubled that treaſure.

But the profit will be far greater when we trade thus with our money in remote countries; as for example, if we ſend one hundred thouſand pounds into the Eaſt-Indies to buy pepper there, and bring it hither, and from hence ſend it to Italy or Turkey, and that it yields there five hundred thouſand pounds, at thoſe places, in regard to the exceſſive charges which muſt be diſburſed in thoſe long voyages in ſhipping, wages, victual, intereſt, cuſtoms, and the like, all which charges the king and the kingdom gain; and it may be here obſerved, that as the public profit by foreign trade is the only means whereby we gain our treaſure, ſo the trade to the Eaſt-Indies (in its proportion) doth far excel all others.

The third example is, where the voyages are ſhort, and the commodities rich, which therefore will not employ much ſhipping, the profit to the kingdom will be far leſs; as when another hundred thouſand pounds ſhall be employed in Turkey in raw ſilks, and brought hither to be exported from hence, the merchant ſhall have good gain, though he ſells for one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds; and thus, take all the voyages together in their medium, the ready monies exported will be returned to us near treble. But if any man will yet object, that theſe returns come to us in wares, and not really in monies as they were iſſued out,

The anſwer is; that if our conſumption of foreign wares be no more yearly than is before ſuppoſed, and that our exportations be ſo mightily increaſed by this manner of trading with ready money, it is not then poſſible (in the courſe of trade) but that all the overballance or difference ſhould return in either money, or ſuch commodities as we muſt export again; which, as is before plainly ſhewed, will be ſtill a greater means to increaſe our treaſure; for it is in the ſtock of a kingdom as in the eſtates of private men, who, having ſtore of wares and merchandize, do not therefore ſay, that they will not venture out or trade with their money (for this would be ridiculous) but do alſo turn that into wares; whereby they multiply their money, and ſo by a continual and orderly change of one into the other grow rich, and when they pleaſe turn all their eſtates into treaſure, for they that have wares cannot want money; for what originally begot the monies ſent out, but our wares?

Neither is it ſaid that MONEY is the life of trade, as if it could not ſubſiſt or paſs current without the ſame; for we know that there has been great trading by way of commutation or barter, when there was but little money ſtirring in the world. There are ſome nations which have ſuch remedies againſt this want, that it can neither decay nor hinder their trade; for they transfer bills of debt, and have other ways whereby they aſſign their credit from one to another daily for very great ſums, with eaſe and ſatisfaction by writing only; whilſt, in the mean time, the maſs of treaſure, which gave foundation to theſe credits, is employed in foreign trade as a merchandize which doth much increaſe their traffic. It is not, therefore, THE KEEPING THE MONEY IN THE KINGDOM, WHICH MAKES A QUICK AND AMPLE TRADE, BUT THE USE OF OUR WARES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND OUR WANT OF THEIR COMMODITIES, WHICH CAUSES THE VENT and CONSUMPTION ON ALL SIDES.

And here it may be obſerved, that Leghorn is one of the moſt famous places for trade in Europe, and yet the merchant hath but little means to make their returns from thence, but only in ready money; which they may, and do carry away freely at all times, and without cuſtom, to the great advantage of the duke of Tuſcany and his ſubjects, who have been much enriched by the continual great concourſe of merchants, from all the ſtates of princes their neighbours, bringing them money daily to ſupply their want of the ſaid wares; and thus we ſee that the current of merchandize, which carries away their treaſure, becomes a flowing ſtream to fill them again in a greater meaſure with money.

Therefore, let no man doubt but that MONEY muſt ever attend on MERCHANDIZE, for they go together: and it is worthy the noting, that there are princes who are content to part with their treaſure, only to enjoy the trade of the wares which are brought them, for which (to encourage the merchant) they take no cuſtom; whereas we, by ſending out our MONEY, do gain the employment of our SHIPPING, the trade of our WARES, and the profit of the CUSTOMS, which is a TREBLE benefit.

Some men have thought, that thoſe countries which permit money to be carried out, do it becauſe they have few or no wares to trade withal; but we have great ſtores of commodities, and therefore their action ought not to be our example.—To this it may be anſwered, that if we have ſuch a quantity of wares, as doth fully provide us of all things needful from beyond the ſeas, why ſhould we then doubt that our monies ſent out in trade muſt not neceſſarily come back again in treaſure, together with the great gains which it may procure in ſuch manner as is before-mentioned? and on the other ſide, if thoſe nations which ſend out their money, do it becauſe they have few wares of their own, how come they to have ſo much treaſure as we ever ſee in thoſe places, which ſuffer it freely to be exported at all times, and by whomſoever? The anſwer is, Even by TRADING with their MONIES; for by what other means can they get it, having no mines of GOLD or SILVER?

It may now be expected, that I ſhould give my thoughts with reſpect to the great complaints which have been this year publiſhed, againſt the India company's exportation of gold and ſilver bullion; but I chuſe rather to obſerve,

That the foreign bullion exported by the Eaſt-India company, their officers and ſervants, for five years, commencing at Michaelmas 1711, and ending at Michaelmas 1716, amounted to l.	1,636,257
Beſides, more than one tenth part of the whole export, was yearly ſent to the Eaſt-Indies in goods of Engliſh product.	
In five years, from Chriſtmas 1712 to Chriſtmas 1717, the Eaſt-India goods exported from England to foreign parts, amounted on their nett value to - - - - -	3,335,928
Excluſive of the drawbacks and prompt payment allowed the merchants.	
By which it is apparent, that over and above the value of the bullion exported to India, there was a ballance accruing from foreign parts to the amount of - - - - -	1,699,671
Which have been anſwered to Great-Britain by goods, exchange, or bullion. Beſides this ſum,	
The company have paid for cuſtoms in five years to Chriſtmas 1717 - - -	1,848,070
The drawbacks on exportation of goods in the ſame time - - - - -	898,179
So that the remaining ſurplus towards clearing the debt of the nation, amounted to -	949,873

To which is to be added, as a further gain to the nation, all the ſalpetre, drugs, tea, coffee, pepper, cotton, yarn, raw ſilk, muſlins, and callicoes, expended in Great-Britain in the ſaid five years, which otherwiſe muſt have been purchaſed at much dearer rates of our neighbours.

Note, The Eaſt-India company did licence foreign bullion for purchaſe of diamonds, from Michaelmas 1711 to Michaelmas 1716, l. 123,537.

But, becauſe much the greateſt part of the ſaid diamonds are again exported, this ſum is not added to the above bullion.

I ſhall now only obſerve, that I think the trade to the Eaſt-Indies will entirely be loſt to this nation, if it ſhould be laid open; but as I may probably publiſh too much on this ſubject for our natural enemies, or our profeſſed friends and allies to hear at this time, ſo I will defer giving my thoughts thereupon 'till a more proper opportunity offers.' Some Thoughts relating to Trade in general, and to the Eaſt-India Trade in particular, printed for Baldwin.

That the reader may have a ſummary view of what has been urged for and againſt the Eaſt-India trade and company, the following ſhort queries may not be unneceſſary.

I. In favour of the TRADE and COMPANY.

1. Quere. Whether the Eaſt-India trade in general be beneficial or otherwiſe, upon the whole, to the European potentates intereſted therein?

If it has been, and ſtill continues to be, detrimental to the Europeans upon the whole, can it be ſuppoſed that they would be ſo infatuated as to carry on a loſing trade for many years? And,

If it is a commerce detrimental to the reſpective ſtates that are engaged, how comes it to paſs that other nations are endeavouring to eſtabliſh this trade?

If the trade to the Eaſt-Indies could be moſt advantageouſly carried on by the ſeveral powers therein concerned, in a manner free and open to all the ſubjects of theſe powers, how happens it that every one of them ſhould rather prefer large joint-ſtock excluſive companies?

If all the European ſtates, engaged in this trade, carry on the ſame by the means of rich and powerful joint-ſtock corporations, with privileges and immunities excluſive of the ſubjects of ſuch ſtates, and Great-Britain alone was to attempt to carry on this trade different from them all by a regulated company, and to leave the ſame free and open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects—Quere, Could Great-Britain be preſumed to carry the trade on with the like degree of profit and ſafety that other nations do?

Whether the importation of gold from the Eaſt-Indies, and the re-exportation of Eaſt-India commodities to Europe America, and Africa, together with the building, employment of the ſhipping concerned therein, breeding of ſeamen,

the benefits ariſing from freight, aſſurance, cuſtoms, and all other charges, are not of far greater advantage to the kingdom, than the exportation of ſilver is a detriment? And whether, if the trade was laid abſolutely open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects, the exportation of ſilver would not rather be augmented than diminiſhed?

Whether gold and ſilver, or bullion, ought not to be eſteemed by the legiſlature as a commodity, or merchandize, and ſuffered, like other wares, to be freely exported? [See our article BULLION, Vol. I.] And if ſo, whether all objections raiſed againſt the company, by reaſon of their exportation of ſilver, are not inconcluſive, and of no more weight againſt the company than againſt the trade itſelf, if laid open, becauſe it cannot be carried on without ſuch exportation?

Whether, if all the ſilver that has been produced in America was now circulating, as money *, in Europe, Europe would be the richer for it? And whether ſilver, if that was the caſe, would not have been as cheap as tin, or, perhaps, copper?

REMARKS.

* It may be here neceſſary to obſerve, that it muſt be beneficial to trade, that our princes, nobility, and gentry, ſhould wear the richeſt gold and ſilver cloathing, and uſe ſuch utenſils, and adorn their palaces and houſes with thoſe precious metals, as much as the revenues of the crown, or income of the eſtates of the nobility and gentry will admit; only with this difference, that crowned heads may lay out this way, whatever the extent of their revenues will allow; but the nobility and gentry muſt act in this, with ſuch regard to their families, that they may all be properly provided for, whilſt the heir only ſhould fill up ſuch ſplendid appearances.

The reaſon of which is this, that as the gold and ſilver (i. e. money) increaſes in greater proportion than the people increaſe, ſo will the prices of every thing advance, and that in much greater proportion than the rents will or can riſe; wherefore it cannot but be beneficial even for trade, that as much of theſe metals be uſed in ſplendor, as is conſiſtent with the above-mentioned circumſtances; becauſe, by thus keeping ſo much of thoſe metals out of trade, the more juſt diſtinction will it keep up amongſt the ſeveral ranks and ſtations of men, whilſt at the ſame time it will give ſo much greater employment, and that in the moſt nice and curious arts, to mechanics, &c. and to prevent our markets from riſing ſo high, as to hinder the exportation of our commodities, or give too great encouragement to the importation of foreign goods.

I am induced to make this remark, from the practice of the Eaſt-Indians, who, as I have often heard, carry this matter ſo far, as to bury the money they get by trade; as E. Philips, Eſq, p. 7. alſo ſays, that they have, ſince the year 1602, buried above 150 millions of ſilver, which hath been brought into Europe (a).

(a) Money is the tradeſman's working tools, without which he cannot proceed in trade at all; therefore, ſince the increaſe of money amongſt the people will increaſe the price of things in greater proportion than the rents can be raiſed; the more money circulates in trade, the more muſt the traders have in their hands to carry it on; and this will neceſſarily raiſe tradeſmen ſo much nearer the rank of gentry, as the quantity of caſh they circulate is greater in proportion to the rents, than it would be if the prices of things were kept lower, the way above ſuggeſted.

Whether this trade extends to exhauſt our wealth, or whether, on the contrary, our re-exportations of Eaſt-India goods do not, in the BALLANCE of TRADE with other countries, compenſate US for the money paid for them; and whether we could carry on theſe TRADES ſo extenſively, and to that advantage, without Eaſt-India goods to make up our aſſortments, as theſe goods are now, by the preſent channel and courſe of trade, become neceſſary for our foreign markets? But,

Whether, if the trade is laid open, private traders, who are diſunited in their intereſts, can have ſuch large capitals lodged in the Indies, and ſuch a degree of weight and influence there, as are neceſſary to carry on trade with the natives; and whether numbers of ſeparate tradeis going to India will not raiſe the price of the Indian commodities, and leſſen the price of our own?

II. IN OPPOSITION TO THE COMPANY.

Query—If the Eaſt-India trade is ſo eſſentially connected with many other branches of our trade, whether it would not, if laid open, very much enlarge our trade in GENERAL, increaſe our NAVIGATION, and add to the wealth and riches of this kingdom?

Whether this trade is not carried on by the company with greater prejudice to the nation than it would be if made free and open, as they export leſs of its manufactures, and ſet their own price upon what they import, at the expence of the people of Great-Britain?

Whether, if the trade was laid open, a much greater number of ſhips would not be employed in this trade than at preſent, and thoſe the ſtrongeſt and moſt warlike, which, by this means, would be more extenſive and enlarged in places already traded to, and to others hitherto unfrequented; and, conſequently, whether more of our fellow-ſubjects would not find employment both abroad and at home, more of our woollen, and other manufactures, be exported, and we have thoſe goods much cheaper from thence for our own conſumption, which we cannot well be without, and not interfere with our own; and whether thoſe which we re-export, whereby our traffic with them in foreign markets would be very much enlarged, and the conſumers of thoſe goods take them from US, which they now do from OTHER nations?

Would not laying open this trade prove the means to carry on a great coaſt-trade in the Indies, and our coarſe and fine cloths, and other manufactures, in all probability, be ſold in greater quantities than hitherto, and a very great profit ariſe to the kingdom, by the additional freight which our ſhips will be able to make, in carrying of goods and paſſengers from one country to another?

Whether thoſe who may be againſt this trade being laid open, as thinking the nation would be the more exhauſted, ought not to examine what commodities are brought from thoſe parts of the Eaſt-Indies, that take from US the greateſt quantity of our product and manufactures, and in return, give US commodities that we cannot well be without; that are partly re-exported, and that do not interfere with, or hinder the conſumption of, our own; and what from thoſe parts, to which we chiefly export gold and ſilver? And whether upon theſe enquiries it will not be found, that thoſe people who take from US moſt of our product and manufacture, give US in return ſaltpetre, pepper, cowries, &c. indico, and other dyeing goods, as well as drugs of moſt kinds, and very often gold and ſilver, particularly the former, which is afterwards exchanged for goods at Madraſs; and whether thoſe places to which we chiefly ſend gold and ſilver, do not give US, in return, goods MANUFACTURED, INTERFERING WITH, AND HINDERING THE CONSUMPTION OF, OUR OWN, or ſuch as ſerve us only for LUXURY, and whereof a very ſmall value is re-exported to foreign countries independent of Great-Britain?

Whether, therefore, if this trade is now carried on to the diſadvantage of the nation, it would not be the contrary, when laid open; eſpecially if we are as careful as our intereſt obliges us to be, to encourage the different TRADES to SOME of thoſe places, and with ſome of thoſe people, and to diſcourage it to and with others? And whether, if this trade was laid open, under proper regulations and reſtrictions by the LEGISLATURE (whoſe buſineſs it is to diſcourage the trading to all diſadvantageous ports of India, by DUTIES on commodities ſerving only for luxury, or interfering with, or hindering the conſumption of, our own manufactures) the nation would be ſo far from being thereby the more exhauſted, that a more extenſive and beneficial trade would not be carried on, and greater employment given to our navigation and ſeamen? For when a trade is confined to a FEW, who are in no apprehenſion to be outdone by any rival, they are not like to take any extraordinary pains to improve it; whereas, when MANY carry on a TRADE, their induſtry and ingenuity are always at work to outvie one another; and to this it is we owe the increaſe of our trade in the courſe of 100 years paſt, and the extenſiveneſs of our commerce at preſent.

Whether the government, or a number of gentlemen that a REGULATED COMPANY ſhall be compoſed of, cannot apply money to the maintenance of forts and caſtles with good garriſons, as well as a number of gentlemen of whom an excluſive company is compoſed; and whether the ſervants of the government, or the factors of a REGULATED COMPANY, cannot do all in INDIA that the ſervants or factors of an excluſive company can do, touching TRADE, PRESENTS, and ALLIANCES? &c.

SIBERIA, or ASIATIC RUSSIA, formerly denominated GREAT TARTARY, is ſituated between 60 and 130 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 47 and 72 degrees of north latitude, being bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north, by the Pacific Ocean, China, and Chineſian Tartary on the eaſt, by the Mogul's and Uſbec Tartars on the ſouth, and by the rivers Oby and Irtis, which ſeparate Aſiatic from European Ruſſia on the weſt, being upwards of 2000 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 1500 miles in breadth from north to ſouth; the north of it a cold, barren, uninhabited country, covered with ſnow eight or nine months in the year; the ſouthern provinces, a more fruitful ſoil, but moſt of the natives live a vagrant life like the ancient Scythians and Tartars, depending chiefly on what they take by hunting and fiſhing, or the produce of their flocks and herds: there are very few towns, and very little of the land cultivated, except near Tobolſki the capital, to which part of it the Swediſh priſoners were baniſhed ſome years ago, and to which the Ruſſians ſend moſt of their priſoners and ſome large colonies; but ſtill there want hands to manure the ground, and great part of Siberia remains a deſert. They have ſcarce any trade or manufactures; the principal traffic of the Muſcovites of Siberia, is by ſledges over the lake and frozen country to China in the winter, and they have been endeavouring to find a way into the ſea of Japan and China, by their rivers

which fall into the Frozen Ocean, but have not ſucceeded yet, as I can learn; but they relate they have met with ſome rich mines of ſilver and copper in the mountains of Siberia, which they have begun to work. We include the Calmuc Tartars within the limits of Siberia, as they acknowlege themſelves ſubject to the empire of Ruſſia.

TOBOLSKI, or TOBOLSKA, the chief city of Siberia, is ſituate on the confluence of the rivers Tobol and Irtiſk, in latitude 58, longitude 67. 10, eaſt. It is ſeated on a high hill of a large compaſs, the lower part of which is inhabited by Mahometan Tartars, who drive a good trade up the river Irtiſk, and carry their merchandizes acroſs Great Tartary, quite to China.

This city is, likewiſe, a famed mart for all the commodities which are brought thither, not only from moſt parts of Muſcovy, but likewiſe from Tartary, and other countries: and the concourſe of thoſe merchants doth daily increaſe, and is vaſtly advantageous to the Ruſſians.

Here is plenty of all ſorts of proviſions, and very cheap. An hundred weight of rice is ſold for ſixteen pence, and a good ox for two rixdollars, and the reſt in proportion, eſpecially fiſh, which is here in great plenty and variety; inſomuch that a ſturgeon of forty pounds weight is ſold for five or ſix pence, and the ſame may be ſaid of all kinds of game. In this city are held the ſupreme courts of judicature for all Siberia and Dauria; and here is likewiſe the reſidence of a metropolitan, ſent hither from Moſcow, who has a ſupreme ſpiritual juriſdiction over thoſe two provinces.

The river Irtiſk, which runs along one ſide of the town, is reckoned as rapid as the Danube, and flows thither from the ſouth, and empties itſelf into the Oby. That of Tobol, which runs along the other ſide, and from which the town takes its name, is ſuppoſed to have its ſpring-head from the ſame territory with the Irtiſk, and falls into it a little below it, and both bring a conſtant flow of merchandizes into it all the ſummer.

DEMIANSKI, ſeated on the river Irtiſk, fifty leagues north of Tobolſka, is a town of good traffic.

SOMAROSKOI JAM, is another town of ſome trade on the ſame river, about 50 leagues below Demianſki, and about 20 above its confluence with the Oby.

TINNCEN, TINNEN, alias TINNA, is ſituated in latitude 56. 50, longitude 65. 10, on a river of its name, called alſo TORA: it ſtands about 40 leagues ſouth of Tobolſka, and is a great market for all kinds of furrs. It is large, populous, and ſurrounded with ſtout walls and ramparts; and is chiefly inhabited by Tartars, who are very affable and courteous, and carry on a conſiderable trade with other nations.

JAPANZIN ſtands in latitude 58. 10, longitude 63. 25, about 45 leagues north-eaſt of Tinncen, on the river Toza, and was built for a ſtage for perſons who travelled on this road; as was alſo Vergaleria, the firſt town of Siberia, for thoſe who travelled thence in Perſia. It was built anno 1590, and is the reſidence of a governor, and of a numerous garriſon, who yearly diſtribute out the corn, and other proviſions, to other fortreſſes and garriſons ſeated in countries not tilled.

TARA, ſituate in latitude 57. 5, longitude 71. 45, almoſt in the middle of the province, upon the river Irtiſk, is another conſiderable place for trade, and built by the Muſcovites for the ſecurity of it down that river.

SURGUT is ſeated on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Oby, and is a poor town, thinly inhabited, and worſe built; and in ſhort, in the whole territory of it the people are ſo poor, that they can ſcarcely afford cloaths to keep themſelves warm. They cultivate but little land, and that very indifferently; and ſubſiſt almoſt wholly on their hunting of ſables, ermins, black foxes, beavers, and ſuch-like creatures, with which this territory abounds; ſome of which they catch in traps, others they hunt with dogs, and traffic for their ſkins. The ermines are here the fineſt and largeſt in all Siberia; and the black foxes are in ſuch eſteem, that a ſkin of that ſort is ſold for two or three hundred rubles. Hyenas and beavers are, likewiſe, in great plenty here.

NARIM, in latitude 58. 50, longitude 82. 53, capital of a territory of that name, is, likewiſe, ſituate on the Oby, a little below where that river receives the Keta. It is large and populous, and defended by a ſtrong fortreſs, and a good garriſon of Coſſacs. The territory about it abounds with foxes, beavers, ermines, ſables, &c.

TOMSKAI is a ſtrong frontier town, and the capital of a province of its name. It is ſeated on the river Toza, which falls into the Oby a little below it. It ſtands about 30 leagues ſouth of Narim, latitude 56. 50, longitude 84. 37, eaſt.

Other towns along thoſe rivers above-named are, SIBER, or SIBIER, BERESAI, JURGOET, which laſt ſtands on an iſland in the Oby; and the fortreſs of Comgoſcoi on the river Telt, which hath a good garriſon.

REMARKS.

The inhabitants of this laſt Narim, were a little above 30 years ago ordered to get upon their ſledges, and make what farther diſcoveries they could towards the eaſtern part of this province. They travelled eaſtward through ſeveral waſte and deſert countries, which had, however, abundance of rivers, trees, and a good ſoil; and, at the end of three weeks, found a champaign country, inhabited by a ſort of wild people, who lived in huts, and called themſelves Tingoeſi. They were ſeated along the river Jenizea, which is larger than the Oby, and runs in almoſt a ſtrait courſe northward, the length of 25 degrees, from the lake Baykal, where it riſes, to the Northern Ocean, into which it diſcharges itſelf. This river is obſerved to overflow in ſummer, like the Nile in Egypt, to above 70 leagues of the flat land; during which time, theſe Tingoeſe move up, with all their cattle, towards the mountains, 'till the waters are dried up; and then return, and make the beſt of that fine paſture land.

The next year a new ſet of Muſcovites were ſent with the former, and ſome Samoiedes and Tingoeſe, who were their guides, and here and there their interpreters; and theſe ſtill kept towards the eaſt, not daring to decline towards the ſouth. In their way they met with ſome wild people on this ſide the river Perſida, which is not ſo wide, but is as rapid as the Jenizea; and theſe were a ſtout robuſt people, with little eyes, who made ſigns as if to tell them, that on the other ſide of that river, there was heard an omom, which ſome underſtood of thunder, others of the ſound of bells. The report they made at their return, excited the curioſity of others; and the waiwode ſent thither, the year after, about 700 men, who penetrated again as far as the river Perſida, and encamped there along its banks, waiting for the ſpring, that they might ſee it thawed and open. Here they perceived, when the wind ſat towards them, the confuſed ſound of bells, of men, and horſes, on the other ſide of the river, though they met with no men on this ſide: they fancied likewiſe, that they ſaw ſome veſſels, with their ſails of a ſquare form, ſuch as are uſed in India. In the months of April and May they ſaw, with pleaſure, the whole country covered with variety of flowers, plants, fruits, beaſts, birds, &c. and, by ſlow journeys, returned, and arrived in Siberia in autumn, where they gave an account of what they had ſeen.

This river of Perſida is ſuppoſed to be the boundary of the kingdom of Cathai, on that ſide which lies between India and China, and this gave them great hopes of more conſiderable diſcoveries in proceſs of time; but the troubles which happened in Muſcovy, put an end to the embaſſy they had deſigned to ſend thither, in a ſummer or two. However, the governor of Siberia ſent thither a freſh caravan by land, and a number of covered veſſels down the Oby into the Northern Sea, to diſcover the coaſts of it as far as the mouth of the Jenizea; and the firſt that come, whether by land or water, were to wait for the others a whole year, and then return by the ſame way. Both performed their parts, and made a faithful report of what they had obſerved, which was ſent, ſealed, to the court of Moſcow, to be made uſe of as ſoon as the war was ended. But by the little notice that has ſince been taken of it, it is probable, that the account has been either loſt, or diſcouraged; and that the Muſcovites have returned, in a great meaſure, to their priſtine averſion to all diſcoveries of this kind, and all commerce with other nations: otherwiſe they have very great conveniencies, by means of thoſe rivers, moſt of them navigable, to carry their enquiries a great deal farther after the ſo much deſired NORTH-EAST PASSAGE into CHINA and JAPAN. For inſtance, they have here a large river called the Taas, which falls into the Oby, and which ſeems to come down from a foreſt not far from the Jenizea; whence ſprings another river not far from the former, which falls into the Jenizea; ſo that from the Oby one might, by means of the Taas above mentioned, croſs part of Siberia and Samoieda, and, after about two or three leagues march by land, come to another called the Torgalf, and ſail down it into the Jenizea, the Torgalf having been lately diſcovered by the Tingoeſe and Samoiedes, and found to be navigable, quite into the Jenizea above mentioned.

The Jenizea, ſo lately mentioned, is another river that would no leſs contribute to ſuch uſeful diſcoveries, and, conſequently, may deſerve a particular deſcription in this place. It hath its ſpring-head in ſome lakes near high mountains on the ſouth ſide by Siberia, and thence running towards the northweſt, croſſes the land of the Curges, or Kurgiſſes, where it grows conſiderably larger, by the addition of a great number of brooks and rivers; particularly the Angara, which ſprings out of the lake Baykal above named, and waters the city of Jenizea in the territory of the Tonguſcan Tartars, and called, by moſt travellers, Jenizeſkoi, the Padkamena, and Tonguſca, both of them alſo very conſiderable.

A good way below this it enters into Samoiedia, where it receives, among many of a leſſer ſize, thoſe of Nizaia Tonguſca, which runs through the territories of the Tonguſci, a little below the confluence of which is the monaſtery of Troitzcogo, and ſomewhat lower ſtill, on the oppoſite ſide, the town of Turnganſcoi, where the Turngan falls again into the Jenizea. Next to it, it receives thoſe of the Schoriga, Coreſiga, Gataka, and Ubo; and below theſe one branch of the Guſkina; and a few leagues farther the other, by which is formed the iſland of that name; and, after a great winding

winding along the eaſt ſide of a vaſt ridge of mountains, it divides itſelf, before it falls into the Frozen Sea, and forms a ſecond iſland over-againſt Nova Zembla. We ſhall only obſerve farther, concerning the courſe of this river, that it receives a great number of others, for ſome of which we hardly find any names in maps.

A ſhort account of the many attempts that have been made for the diſcovery of a NORTH-WEST PASSAGE.

The firſt perſon who attempted this diſcovery was John Cabot, employed by Henry VII. of England, towards the end of the fifteenth century, but was prevented from finiſhing his diſcovery by his people mutinying. He was always of opinion there was a paſſage, and that he ſhould have diſcovered it if not prevented by his men.

It was almoſt fourſcore years before another attempt was made, and then undertaken in the year 1576 by Sir Martin Forbiſher, who was ſo little diſcouraged by an unſucceſsful voyage, that he made two more, though with the ſame ſucceſs. In 1583 Sir Humphry Gilbert went on the ſame expedition, but went no farther than Canada, in which voyage he ſettled the cod-fiſhery at Newfoundland. In 1585, Capt. John Davis made an attempt, but without ſucceſs, and two more in the two following years, but without ſucceeding in his great attempt of diſcovering the north-weſt paſſage, though he proceeded to the height of 72 degrees north.

Mr Hudſon, in the year 1610, after having in vain made a trial of the north-eaſt paſſage, attempted the diſcovery of the north-weſt, paſſing through the ſtreights that have ſince borne his name into an open ſea; but was, like John Cabot, prevented from proceeding by a mutiny among his ſeamen, who refuſed to proceed any farther. After him Baffin made three voyages in the years 1612, 1615, and 1616.

In the year 1618, Mr Henry Button, afterwards Sir Henry, attempted to improve upon the diſcoveries made by Mr Hudſon, and wintered at port Nelſon, where, by the extreme cold, he loſt great part of his men. He was the firſt perſon who wintered in thoſe countries.

During theſe attempts of the Engliſh, the king of Denmark, thinking to perfect their attempts by the vicinity of his country, in the year 1605 fitted out two ſhips, and ſent them on the ſame expedition, under the command of Capt. Cunningham, a Scotſman, who ſucceeded no better than the Engliſh; which did not prevent another expedition in the year 1607, when the men mutinied, and obliged the captain to return. This ill ſucceſs only occaſioned the king of Denmark to change the people; and having fitted out two ſhips, ſent them under the command of a Dutchman, named Chriſtian Richardſon, manning his ſhips from Norway and Iceland, but with the ſame ſucceſs, the men mutinying before they ſaw the land of Greenland. In 1619, the Danes ſent Capt. Munk, who wintered there, and loſt all his men but two, with whom he got home in the pinnace, leaving the ſhip behind.

In the year 1631, the Engliſh reſumed the undertaking, and ſent two ſhips, one from London under the command of Capt. Fox, and one from Briſtol under the command of Capt. James, who met near port Nelſon in the month of Auguſt. Fox came home that year, but James wintered in that country, and endured almoſt incredible hardſhips, but at laſt arrived ſafe in England.

The ill ſucceſs of theſe attempts put a ſtop for many years to any ſhips being fitted out for this diſcovery, eſpecially as the Hudſon's-Bay company, which was eſtabliſhed in Charles the IId's time, had taken that diſcovery under their more immediate care, being by their charter obliged to fit out ſhips to ſend on that diſcovery; though we read of only two expeditions, one under the command of Capt. Barlow, who was loſt, and another unſucceſsful under the care of Mr John Scrogg, in the year 1722.

From this time 'till Capt. Middleton's expedition in the king's ſhip Furnace, in the years 1741 and 1742, we hear of no attempt. This voyage occaſioned a controverſy between Arthur Dobbs, Eſq; now governor of North Carolina, and the captain, on his return, but with little ſatisfaction to the public, the principal intent of the voyage, the diſcovery of the paſſage, not being completed.

In the year 1744, an act was paſſed, promiſing a reward of 20,000 l. to be paid by the lords of the treaſury, to any perſons who ſhould ſucceed in diſcovering the north-weſt paſſage. This, with other advantages, which the undertakers propoſed to themſelves by ſuch an attempt, encouraged a ſubſcription for fitting out two ſhips from London, called the Dobbs and California, under the command of the captains Moor and Smith, who ſailed the 20th of May, 1746, and after wintering at port Nelſon in Hudſon's-Bay, to be ready to go on with their expedition early the next year, and making many attempts, which proved to them only the probability of a paſſage, and not the certainty by ſucceſs, they arrived ſafe in Yarmouth-roads on the 14th of October, 1747. The laſt voyages that we have heard of, are thoſe made by Capt. Swaine from Philadelphia, but with as little ſucceſs as any of the former.

Of the NORTH-EAST PASSAGE.

The north-eaſt paſſage has likewiſe been often attempted by the Engliſh, the Dutch, and the Danes, but hitherto unſucceſsfully. There have been, however, as I am informed, ſome diſcoveries made within theſe few years, that have not only a tendency to facilitate ſuch a diſcovery, but are of ſuch a nature, as ſeem to prove demonſtrably the CERTAINTY of ſuch a paſſage: and theſe diſcoveries, if I am rightly informed, are now in the poſſeſſion of an Engliſh gentleman, who has been at no inconſiderable trouble and expence ſilently to come at ſuch intelligence, by reſiding ſeveral years in Ruſſia, and there employing proper people to purſue ſuch meaſures as have been inſtrumental thereunto. Such a happy diſcovery, made by a ſubject of the crown of Great-Britain, muſt not only give eternal glory to the kingdom, but be attended with unſpeakable advantages. As I know ſomething of this gentleman's character, I am confident that he would be the laſt perſon who would offer any thing of this kind to the public, if it was not grounded upon very rational principles.

SICILY. See NAPLES.

SILESIA, a duchy in Germany. This country lies between Bohemia, Moravia, and Luſatia, on the ſouth-weſt, and Poland on the north-eaſt. On the ſide next Bohemia are many barren mountains; but the reſt of the country is good ſoil, abounding with corn, wine, ſweet-cane, or galengal, madder, and flax; and in the mountains which divide it from Moravia are mines of ſilver, the richeſt in Germany: there are others of copper, lead, iron, quickſilver, ſalt, ſalt-petre, and chalk.

TESCHEN, which ſtands between the two rivers Oels and Weichſel, has a good trade in wine and fruit from Hungary, with ſtore of veniſon, wild fowl, and fiſh, and two ſorts of beer, the one of wheat, the other of barley, both much eſteemed.

FREYSTAT, on the river Oels, is noted for mines of iron, and is a great thoroughfare from Cracow to Vienna.

STRIGA ſtands on the river Polſnitz, and is noted for excellent beer, and that remarkable mineral called terra ſigillata.

BRESLAW, which is the metropolis of Sileſia, ſtands at the conflux of the Oder and Olaw, and two other rivers. It is a very populous city, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Poliſh, and other foreign merchants. Here is a ſquare near a mile round, where are, on one ſide, three grand warehouſes, about 500 paces in length, like market-halls, full of ſhops, where they ſell ſilks, ſtuffs, fine cloth of all colours, iron wares, &c. and on the other ſide are the houſes of the merchants to whom they belong. But the ſalt-market, in reſpect to the magnificent houſes round it, is reckoned the fineſt of all its ſquares.

CROSSEN ſtands near the conflux of the Oder and Boben: it is a neat old city, and has a conſiderable trade, particularly in linen cloth and earthen ware, by its rivers.

REMARKS.

A miſunderſtanding having ſome time ſubſiſted between the crowns of Great-Britain and Pruſſia, in relation to the SILESIA LOAN, it may be of uſe to poſterity to know the anſwer that was given, by his Britannic Majeſty's order, to the king of Pruſſia's memorial upon that occaſion; and eſpecially ſo, becauſe there is great knowlege therein contained of maritime and commercial affairs, and the whole is drawn up with ſuch extraordinary judgment and accuracy, as will ever do honour to thoſe celebrated lawyers whoſe names are ſuperſcribed thereto.

The duke of NEWCASTLE's LETTER, by his MAJESTY's order, to Monſieur MICHELL, the king of PRUSSIA's ſecretary of the embaſſy, in anſwer to the memorial, and other papers, delivered by Monſieur MICHELL to the duke of NEWCASTLE, on the 23d of November, and 13th of December laſt. Publiſhed by authority. London, printed by Edward Owen, in Warwick-Lane. 1753.

SIR, Whitehall, Feb. 8, 1753.

I loſt no time in laying before the king the memorial which you delivered to me, on the 23d of November laſt, with the papers that accompanied it.

His Majeſty found the contents of it ſo extraordinary, that he would not return an anſwer to it, or take any reſolution upon it, 'till he had cauſed both the memorial, and the Expoſition des Motifs, &c. which you put into my hands ſoon after, by way of juſtification of what had paſſed at Berlin, to be maturely conſidered, and 'till his Majeſty ſhould thereby be enabled to ſet the proceedings of the courts of admiralty here in their true light; to the end that his Pruſſian Majeſty, and the whole world, might be rightly informed of the regularity of their conduct, in which they appear to have followed the only method which has ever been practiſed by nations

tions where diſputes of this nature could happen, and ſtrictly to have conformed themſelves to the law of nations, univerſally allowed to be the only rule in ſuch caſes, when there is nothing ſtipulated to the contrary, by particular treaties between the parties concerned.

This examination, and the full knowlege of the facts reſulting from it, will ſhew ſo clearly the irregularity of the proceedings of thoſe perſons to whom this affair was referred at Berlin, that it is not doubted, from his Pruſſian Majeſty's juſtice and diſcernment, but that he will be convinced thereof, and will revoke the detention of the ſums aſſigned upon Sileſia, the payment of which his Pruſſian Majeſty engaged to the empreſs queen to take upon himſelf, and of which the reimburſement was an expreſs article in the treaties by which the ceſſion of that duchy was made.

I, therefore, have the King's orders to ſend you the report made to his Majeſty upon the papers abovementioned, by Sir George Lee, judge of the Prerogative Court; Dr Paul, his Majeſty's advocate-general in the courts of civil law; Sir Dudley Ryder and Mr Murray, his Majeſty's attorney and ſollicitor-general. This report is founded on the principles of the law of nations, received and acknowleged by authorities of the greateſt weight in all countries; ſo that his Majeſty does not doubt but that it will have the effect deſired.

The points upon which this whole affair turns, and which are deciſive, are,

Firſt, That affairs of this kind are, and can be, cognizable only in the courts belonging to that power where the ſeizure is made; and conſequently, that the erecting foreign courts, or juriſdictions, elſewhere, to take cognizance thereof, is contrary to the known practice of all nations in the like caſes, and therefore a proceeding which none can admit.

Secondly, That thoſe courts, which are generally ſtiled courts of admiralty, and which include both the inferior courts, and the courts of appeal, always decide according to the univerſal law of nations only, except in thoſe caſes where there are particular treaties between the powers concerned, which have altered the diſpoſitions of the law of nations, or deviate from them.

Thirdly, That the deciſions in the caſes complained of appear, by the incloſed report, to have been made ſingly, upon the rule preſcribed by the law of nations; which rule is clearly eſtabliſhed, by the conſtant practice of other nations, and by the authority of the greateſt men.

Fourthly, That in the caſe in queſtion, there cannot even be pretended to be any treaty that has altered this rule, or by virtue of which the parties could claim any privileges which the law of nations does not allow them.

Fifthly, That as, in the preſent caſe, no juſt grievance can be alleged, nor the leaſt reaſon given, for ſaying, That juſtice has been denied, when regularly demanded; and as, in moſt of the caſes complained of, it was the complainants themſelves who neglected the only proper means of procuring it, there cannot, conſequently, be any juſt cauſe, or foundation, for reprizals.

Sixthly, That, even though reprizals might be juſtified by the known and general rules of the law of nations, it appears by the report, and indeed from conſiderations which muſt occur to every body, that ſums due to the king's ſubjects by the empreſs queen, and aſſigned by her upon Sileſia, of which ſums his Pruſſian Majeſty took upon himſelf the payment, both by the treaty of Breſlau, and by that of Dreſden, in conſideration of the ceſſion of that country, and which, by virtue of that very ceſſion, ought to have been fully and abſolutely diſcharged in the year 1745, that is to ſay, one year before any of the facts complained of did happen; could not, either in juſtice or reaſon, or according to what is the conſtant practice between all the moſt reſpectable powers, be ſeized, or ſtopped, by way of reprizals.

The ſeveral facts which are particularly mentioned above, are ſo clearly ſtated and proved, in the incloſed report, that I ſhall not repeat the particular reaſons and authorities alleged in ſupport of them, and in juſtification of the conduct and proceedings in queſtion. The King is perſuaded, that theſe reaſons will be ſufficient, alſo, to determine the judgment of all impartial people in the preſent caſe.

It is material to obſerve upon this ſubject, that this debt on Sileſia was contracted by the late emperor Charles the Sixth, who engaged not only to fulfil the conditions expreſſed in the contract, but even to give the creditors ſuch further ſecurity as they might afterwards reaſonably aſk. This condition has been very ill performed by a transfer of the debt, which had put it in the power of a third perſon to ſeize and confiſcate it.

You will not be ſurprized, Sir, that, in an affair which has ſo greatly alarmed the whole nation, who are intitled to that protection which his Majeſty cannot diſpenſe with himſelf from granting, the King has taken time to have things examined to the bottom, and that his Majeſty finds himſelf obliged, by the facts, to adhere to the juſtice and legality of what has been done in his courts, and not to admit the irregular proceedings which have been carried on elſewhere.

The late war furniſhed many inſtances, which ought to have convinced all Europe how ſcrupulouſly the courts here do juſtice upon ſuch occaſions. They did not even avail themſelves of an open war, to ſeize or detain the effects of the enemy, when it appeared that thoſe effects were taken wrongfully before the war. This circumſtance muſt do honour to their proceedings, and will, at the ſame time, ſhew, that it was as little neceſſary as proper, to have recourſe elſewhere to proceedings intirely new and unuſual.

The King is fully perſuaded, that what has paſſed at Berlin, has been occaſioned ſingly by the ill-grounded informations which his Pruſſian Majeſty has received of theſe affairs; and does not at all doubt, but that, when his Pruſſian Majeſty ſhall ſee them in their true light, his natural diſpoſitions to juſtice and equity, will induce him immediately to rectify the ſteps which have been occaſioned by thoſe informations, and to complete the payment of the debt charged on the duchy of Sileſia, according to his engagements for that purpoſe.

I am, with much Conſideration,

SIR,

Your moſt Obedient,

Humble Servant,

HOLLES NEWCASTLE.

To the KING's Moſt Excellent MAJESTY.

May it pleaſe your Majeſty,

In obedience to your Majeſty's commands, ſignified to us by his grace the duke of Newcaſtle, we have taken the memorial, ſentence of the Pruſſian commiſſioners, and liſts marked A and B, which were delivered to his grace by Monſieur Michell, the Pruſſian ſecretary here, on the 23d of November laſt, and alſo the printed Expoſition des Motifs, &c. which was delivered to his grace the 13th of December laſt, into our ſerious conſideration; and we have directed the proper officer to ſearch the regiſters of the court of admiralty, and inform us how the matter appeared from the proceedings there, in relation to the caſes mentioned in the ſaid liſts A and B, which he has accordingly done.

And your Majeſty having commanded us to report our opinion, concerning the nature and regularity of the proceedings under the Pruſſian commiſſion, mentioned in the ſaid memorial, and of the claim, or demand, pretended to be founded thereupon, and how far the ſame are conſiſtent with, or contrary to, the law of nations, and any treaties ſubſiſting between your Majeſty and the king of Pruſſia, the eſtabliſhed rules of admiralty juriſdiction, and the laws of this kingdom:

For the greater perſpicuity, we beg leave to ſubmit our thoughts upon the whole matter in the following method:

Firſt, To ſtate the clear eſtabliſhed principles of law.

Secondly, To ſtate the fact.

Thirdly, To apply the law to the fact.

Fourthly, To obſerve upon the queſtions, rules, and reaſonings alleged in the ſaid memorial, ſentence of the Pruſſian commiſſioners, and Expoſition des Motifs, &c. which carry the appearance of objections, to what we ſhall advance upon the former heads.

Firſt, As to the law.

When two powers are at war, they have a right to make prizes of the ſhips, goods, and effects, of each other, upon the high ſeas: whatever is the property of the enemy, may be acquired by capture at ſea; but the property of a friend cannot be taken, provided he obſerves his neutrality.

Hence the law of nations has eſtabliſhed,

That the goods of an enemy, on board the ſhip of a friend, may be taken.

That the lawful goods of a friend, on board the ſhip of an enemy, ought to be reſtored.

That contraband goods, going to the enemy, though the property of a friend, may be taken as prize, becauſe ſupplying the enemy with what enables him better to carry on the war, is a departure from neutrality.

By the maritime law of nations, univerſally and immemorially received, there is an eſtabliſhed method of determination, whether the capture be or be not lawful prize.

Before the ſhip or goods can be diſpoſed of by the captor, there muſt be a regular judicial proceeding, wherein both parties may be heard, and condemnation thereupon as prize, in a court of admiralty, judging by the law of nations, and treaties.

The proper and regular court for theſe condemnations, is the court of that ſtate to whom the captor belongs.

The evidence to acquit or condemn, with or without coſts or damages, muſt, in the firſt inſtance, come merely from the ſhip taken, viz. the papers on board, and the examination, on oath, of the maſter, and other principal officers; for which purpoſe there are officers of admiralty in all the conſiderable ſea-ports of every maritime power at war, to examine the captains, and other principal officers of every ſhip, brought in as prize, upon general and impartial interrogatories: if there do not appear from thence ground to condemn, as enemies property, or contraband goods going to the

enemy, there muſt be an acquittal, unleſs, from the aforeſaid evidence, the property ſhall appear ſo doubtful, that it is reaſonable to go into further proof thereof.

A claim of ſhip, or goods, muſt be ſupported by the oath of ſome body, at leaſt as to belief.

The law of nations requires good faith: therefore every ſhip muſt be provided with complete and genuine papers, and the maſter, at leaſt, ſhould be privy to the truth of the tranſaction.

To inforce theſe rules, if there be falſe or colourable papers; if any papers be thrown over-board; if the maſter and officers examined in PREPARATORIO groſsly prevaricate; if proper ſhips-papers are not on board; or if the maſter and crew cannot ſay whether ſhip or cargo be the property of a friend or enemy: the law of nations allows, according to the different degrees of miſbehaviour or ſuſpicion, ariſing from the fault of the ſhip taken, and other circumſtances of the caſe, coſts to be paid, or not to be received, by the claimant, in caſe of acquittal and reſtitution. On the other hand, if a ſeizure is made without probable cauſe, the captor is adjudged to pay coſts and damages: for which purpoſe, all privateers are obliged to give ſecurity for their good behaviour; and this is referred to, and expreſsly ſtipulated by, many treaties *. [See our articles PRIVATEERS, and MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, and TREATIES of COMMERCE.]

* Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 13.—Treaty 1 Dec. 1674, art. 10.—Treaty between England and France, at St Germains, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 10.—Treaty of commerce at Ryſwick, Sept. 20, 1697, between France and Holland, art. 30.—Treaty of commerce at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, between Great-Britain and France, art. 29.

Though from the ſhips papers, and the preparatory examinations, the property does not ſufficiently appear to be neutral, the claimant is often indulged with time, to ſend over affidavits to ſupply that defect: if he will not ſhew the property, by ſufficient affidavits, to be neutral, it is preſumed to belong to the enemy. Where the property appears from evidence not on board the ſhip, the captor is juſtified in bringing her in, and excuſed paying coſts, becauſe he is not in fault; or, according to the circumſtances of the caſe, may be juſtly intitled to receive his coſts.

If the ſentence of the court of admiralty is thought to be erroneous, there is in every maritime country a ſuperior court of review, conſiſting of the moſt conſiderable perſons, to which the parties who think themſelves aggrieved may appeal; and this ſuperior court judges by the ſame rule which governs the court of admiralty, viz. the law of nations, and the treaties ſubſiſting with that neutral power whoſe ſubject is a party before them.

If no appeal is offered, it is an acknowlegement of the juſtice of the ſentence by the parties themſelves, and concluſive.

This manner of trial and adjudication is ſupported, alluded to, and inforced, by many treaties *.

* As appears with reſpect to courts of admiralty adjudging the prizes taken by thoſe of their own nation, and with reſpect to the witneſſes to be examined in thoſe caſes, from the following treaties:—Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 9 and 14.—Treaty 1 Dec. 1674, art. 11.—Treaty 29 April, 1689, art. 12, 13.—Treaty between England and Spain, 23 May, 1667, art. 23.—Treaty of commerce at Ryſwick, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 26 and 31.—Treaty between England and France, 3 Nov. 1655, art. 17 and 18.—Treaty of commerce between England and France at St Germains, 29 March, 1632, art. 5 and 6.—Treaty at St Germains, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 7.—Treaty of commerce between Great-Britain and France, at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, art. 26 and 30.—Treaty between England and Denmark, 29 Nov. 1669, art. 23 and 34. Heineccius, who was privy-counſellor to the king of Pruſſia, and held in the greateſt eſteem, in his treatiſe de Navibus ob vecturam vetitarum mercium commiſſis, cap. 2. § 17 and 18. ſpeaks of this method of trial.
With reſpect to appeals, or reviews:—From treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674, art. 12. as it is explained by art. 2. of the treaty at Weſtminſter, 6 Feb. 1715-16.—Treaty between England and France, at St Germains, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 12.—Treaty of commerce at Ryſwick, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 33.—Treaty of commerce at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, between Great-Britain and France, art. 31 and 32; and other treaties.

In this method all captures at ſea were tried, during the laſt war, by Great-Britain, France, and Spain, and ſubmitted to by the neutral powers. In this method, by courts of admiralty acting according to the law of nations, and particular treaties, all captures at ſea have immemorially been judged of, in every country of Europe: any other method of trial would be manifeſtly unjuſt, abſurd, and impracticable.

Though the law of nations be the general rule, yet it may, by mutual agreement between two powers, be varied or departed from; and where there is an alteration or exception, introduced by particular treaties, that is the law between the parties to the treaty, and the law of nations only governs ſo far as it is not derogated from by the treaty.

Thus, by the law of nations, where two powers are at war, all ſhips are liable to be ſtopped, and examined to whom they belong, and whether they are carrying contraband goods to the enemy: but particular treaties have enjoined a leſs degree of ſearch, on the faith of producing ſolemn paſſports, and formal evidences of property, duly atteſted.

Particular treaties too have inverted the rule of the law of nations, and, by agreement, declared the goods of a friend, on board the ſhip of an enemy, to be prize; and the goods of an enemy, on board the ſhip of a friend, to be free, as appears from the treaties already mentioned, and many others *.

* Particularly by the aforeſaid treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674; and the treaty of Utrecht between Great-Britain and France.

So likewiſe, by particular treaties, ſome goods reputed contraband by the law of nations, are declared to be free.

If a ſubject of the king of Pruſſia is injured by, or has a demand upon, any perſon here, he ought to apply to your Majeſty's courts of juſtice, which are equally open and indifferent to foreigner or native: ſo vice verſa, if a ſubject here is wronged by a perſon living in the dominions of his Pruſſian Majeſty, he ought to apply for redreſs in the king of Pruſſia's courts of juſtice.

If the matter of complaint be a capture at ſea during war, and the queſtion relative to prize, he ought to apply to the judicatures eſtabliſhed to try theſe queſtions.

The law of nations founded upon juſtice, equity, convenience, and the reaſon of the thing, and confirmed by long uſage, don't allow of repriſals, except in caſe of violent injuries, directed or ſupported by the ſtate, and juſtice abſolutely denied, in re minime dubiâ, by all the tribunals, and afterwards by the prince.

* Grotius de Jure Belli ac Pacis, lib. 3. cap. 2. §. 4, 5.
Treaty between England and Holland, 31 July, 1667, art. 31. Repriſals ſhall not be granted 'till juſtice has been demanded according to the ordinary courſe of law.
Treaty of commerce at Ryſwic, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 4. Repriſals ſhall not be granted, but on manifeſt denial of juſtice.

Where the judges are left free, and give ſentence according to their conſcience, though it ſhould be erroneous, that would be no ground for repriſals. Upon doubtful queſtions, different men think and judge differently; and all a friend can deſire is, that juſtice ſhould be as impartially adminiſtred to him, as it is to the ſubjects of that prince in whoſe courts the matter is tried.

Secondly, As to the FACT.

We have ſubjoined here two liſts, tallying with thoſe marked A and B, which were delivered to his grace the duke of Newcaſtle, by Monſ. Michell, with the ſaid memorial, the 23d of November laſt, and are alſo printed at the end of the ſaid Expoſition des Motifs, &c. from whence it will appear, that as to the liſt A, which contains 18 ſhips, and their cargoes,

4	If ever taken, were reſtored by the captors themſelves, to the ſatisfaction of the Pruſſians, who never have complained in any court of juſtice here.
1	Was reſtored by ſentence, with full coſts and damages, which were liquidated at 2801 l. 12 s. 1 d. ſterling.
3	Ships were reſtored by ſentence, with freight, for ſuch of the goods as manifeſtly belonged to the enemy, and were condemned.
4	Ships were reſtored by ſentence, but the cargoes, or part of them, condemned as prize or contraband, and are not now alleged, in the liſts A or B, to have been Pruſſian property.
5	Ships and cargoes were reſtored by ſentence, but the claimant ſubjected to pay coſts, becauſe, from the ſhip-papers, and preparatory examinations, there was ground to have condemned, and the reſtitution was decreed merely on the faith of affidavits afterwards allowed.
1	Ship and cargo was reſtored by ſentence upon an ap-
—	peal, but, from the circumſtances of the capture, with-
18	out coſts on either ſide.

There need no obſervations upon this liſt. As to the eight caſes firſt above-mentioned, there cannot be the colour of complaint.

As to the four next, the goods muſt be admitted to have been rightly condemned, either as enemy's property or contraband, for they are not now mentioned in the liſts A or B.

If contraband, the ſhip could have neither freight nor coſts, and the ſentences were favourable in reſtoring the ſhips, upon preſumption that the owners of the ſhips were not acquainted with the nature of the cargo, or owners thereof. If enemy's property, the ſhips could not be entitled to freight, becauſe the bills of lading were falſe, and purported the property to belong to Pruſſians.

The ſhips could not be entitled to coſts, becauſe the cargoes, or part of them, being lawful prize, the ſhips were rightly brought in.

As the ſix remaining ſhips and cargoes were reſtored, the only queſtion muſt be, upon the paying or not receiving coſts, which depends upon the circumſtances of the capture, the

fairneſs

fairneſs of the ſhip's documents, and conduct of her crew; and neither the Pruſſian commiſſioners, the ſaid memorial, or ſaid Expoſition des Motifs, &c. alleges a ſingle reaſon why, upon the particular circumſtances of theſe caſes, the ſentences were wrong.

As to the liſt B.

Every ſhip on board which the ſubjects of Pruſſia claim to have had property, was bound to, or from, a port of the enemy; and many of them appeared clearly to be, in part, laden with the goods of the enemy, either under their own, or fictitious names.

In every inſtance where it is ſuggeſted that any part of the cargo belonged to a Pruſſian ſubject, though his property did not appear from the ſhip's papers, or preparatory examinations, which it ought to have done, ſufficient time was indulged to that Pruſſian ſubject, to make an affidavit that the property was bona fide in him; and the affidavit of the party himſelf has been received as proof of the property of the Pruſſian, ſo as to intitle him to reſtitution.

Where the party won't ſwear at all, or ſwears evaſively, it is plain he only lends his name to cover the enemy's property, as often came out to be the caſe, beyond the poſſibility of doubt.

It appears by a letter $\frac{29\text{ May}}{9\text{ June}}$, 1747, from Monſ. Andrié, to his Pruſſian Majeſty, exhibited in a cauſe, and certified to be a true extract by Monſ. Michell, under his hand, that this colourable manner of ſcreening the goods of the enemy was ſtated in the following words:

'Your Majeſty's ſubjects ought not to load on board neutral 'ſhips any goods really belonging to the enemies of England, 'but to load them for their own account, whereby they may 'ſafely ſend them to any country they ſhall think proper, 'without running any riſk: then, if privateers commit any 'damage to the ſhips belonging to your Majeſty's ſubjects, 'you may depend on full juſtice being done here, as in all 'the like caſes hath been done.'

Liſt B contains thirty-three caſes:

2 Two of them never came before a court of juſtice in England, but (if taken) were reſtored by the captors themſelves, to the intire ſatisfaction of the owners.

16 In ſixteen of them, the goods claimed by the Pruſſian ſubject appear to have been actually reſtored, by ſentence, to the maſters of the ſhips in which they were laden; and, by the cuſtoms of the ſea, the maſter is in the place of the lader, and anſwerable to him.

14 In fourteen of the caſes, the Pruſſian property was not verified by the ſhip's papers, or preparatory examinations, or claimant's own affidavit, which he was allowed time to make.

1 And the other cauſe, with reſpect to part of the goods,

— is ſtill depending, neither party having moved for judg-

33 ment *. And ſo conſcious were the claimants that the court of admiralty did right, there is not an appeal, in a ſingle inſtance, in liſt B, and but one in liſt A.

* The Pruſſian has ſince applied for judgment, on the 29th of January, and obtained reſtitution.

Thirdly, To apply the LAW to the FACT.

The ſixth queſtion in the ſaid Expoſition des Motifs, &c. ſtates the right of repriſals to be, Puiſqu'on leur a ſi long tems denié toute la juſtice, qu'ils étoient fondes de demander.

The ſaid memorial founds the juſtice and propriety of his Pruſſian Majeſty's having recourſe to repriſals, becauſe his ſubjects, N'ont pu obtenir juſqu'à preſent aucune juſtice des tribunaux Anglois qu'ils ont reclamès, ou du gouvernment auquel ils ont portè leurs plaintes. And in another part of the memorial it is put, Apres avoir en vain demandè des reparations de ceux qui ſeuls pouvoient les faire.

The contrary of all which is manifeſt, from the above ſtate, and liſts hereto annexed.

In ſix of the caſes ſpecified, (if ſuch captures ever were made) the Pruſſian ſubjects were ſo well ſatisfied with the reſtitution made by the captors, that they never complained in any court whatſoever in this kingdom.

The reſt were judged of by a court of admiralty, the only proper court to decide of captures at ſea, both with reſpect to the reſtitution and the damages and coſts, acting according to the law of nations, the only proper rule to decide by: and juſtice has been done by the court of admiralty ſo impartially, that all the ſhips alleged in liſt A to have been Pruſſian, were reſtored; and all the cargoes mentioned in either liſt, A or B, were reſtored, excepting 15, one of which is ſtill undetermined.

And, in all caſes in both liſts, juſtice was done, ſo intirely to the conviction of the private conſcience of the Pruſſian claimants, that they have acquieſced under the ſentences, without appealing, except in one ſingle inſtance, where the part of the ſentence complained of was reverſed.

Though the Pruſſian claimants muſt know, that, by the law of nations, they ought not to complain to their own ſovereign, 'till injuſtice, in re minime dubiâ, was finally done them, paſt redreſs; and though they muſt know that rule of the law of nations held more ſtrongly upon this occaſion, becauſe the property of the prize was given to the captors, and ought, therefore, to be litigated with them. The Pruſſian, who, by his own acquieſcence, ſubmits to the captors having the prize, cannot afterwards, with juſtice, make a demand upon the ſtate. If the ſentence was wrong, it is owing to the fault of the Pruſſian that it was not redreſſed. But it is not attempted to be ſhewn even now, that theſe ſentences were unjuſt in any part of them, according to the evidence and circumſtances appearing before the court of admiralty, and that is the criterion.

For as to the Pruſſian commiſſion to examine theſe caſes, ex parte, upon new ſuggeſtions, it never was attempted in any country of the world before: prize, or not prize, muſt be determined by courts of admiralty belonging to the power whoſe ſubjects make the capture: every foreign prince in amity has a right to demand that juſtice ſhall be done his ſubjects in thoſe courts, according to the law of nations, or particular treaties, where any are ſubſiſting. If in re minime dubiâ theſe courts proceed upon foundations directly oppoſite to the law of nations, or ſubſiſting treaties, the neutral ſtate has a right to complain of ſuch a determination.

But there never was, nor ever can be, any other equitable method of trial. All the maritime nations of Europe have, when at war, from the earlieſt times, univerſally proceeded in this way, with the approbation of all the powers at peace. Nay, the perſons acting under this extraordinary and unheard-of commiſſion from his Pruſſian Majeſty, don't pretend to ſay, that, in the four caſes of goods condemned here, for which ſatisfaction is demanded in liſt A, the property really belonged to Pruſſian ſubjects: but they profeſs to proceed upon this principle, evidently falſe, that, though theſe cargoes belonged to the enemy, yet being on board any neutral ſhip, they were not liable to enquiry, ſeizure or condemnation.

Fourthly, From the queſtions, rules, reaſonings, and matters alleged in the ſaid memorial, ſentence of the Pruſſian commiſſioners, and Expoſition des Motifs, &c. the following propoſitions may be drawn, as carrying the appearance of objections to what has been above laid down.

First PROPOSITION.

That, by the law of nations, the goods of an enemy cannot be taken on board the ſhip of a friend: and this the Pruſſian commiſſioners lay down as the baſis of all they have pretended to do.

Anſwer. The contrary is too clear to admit of being diſputed: it may be proved by the authorities of every writer upon the law of nations; ſome of different countries are referred to *. It may be proved by the conſtant practice, ancient and modern; but the general rule cannot be more ſtrongly approved, than by the exception which particular treaties have made to it †.

* Il Conſolato del Mare, cap. 273, expreſsly ſays, The enemy's goods found on board a friend's ſhip, ſhall be confiſcated. And this is a book of great authority.
GROTIUS de Jure Belli ac Pacis, lib. iii. cap. 1. § 5. numero 4, in the notes, cites this paſſage in the Il Conſolato, in his notes lib. iii. cap. 6. §. 6.
LOCCENIUS de Jure Maritimo, lib. ii cap. 4. §. 12.
VOET de Jure Militari, cap 5. nu 21.
HEINECCIUS, the learned Pruſſian before quoted, de Navibus ob Vecturam vetitarum Mercium commiſſis, cap. 2. §. 9, is clear and explicit upon this point.
BYNKERSHOEC Quæſtiones Juris Publici, lib. i. cap. 14. per totum.
ZOUCH (an Engliſhman) in his book de Judicio inter Gentes, pars 2 §. 8. numero 6.
Treaty between Great-Britain and Sweden, 23 Oct. 1661, art 12 and 13.—Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark, 29 Nov. 1669, art 2d.—And the paſſport, or certificate, ſettled by that treaty, are material as to this point.

† Treaty between France and England, 24 Feb 1677, art. 3. Treaty of Utrecht between France and England, 1713, art. 17.—Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 10.—Treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674, art. 8.—Treaty between England and Portugal, 10 July, 1654, art. 23.—Treaty between France and the States General at Utrecht, 11 April, 1713, art. 26.

Second PROPOSITION.

It is alleged that lord Carteret, in 1744, by two verbal declarations, gave aſſurances in your Majeſty's name, that nothing on board a Pruſſian ſhip ſhould be ſeized, except contraband; conſequently, that all effects not contraband, belonging to the enemy, ſhould be free, and that theſe aſſurances were afterwards confirmed in writing, by lord Cheſterfield, the 5th of January, 1747.

Anſwer. The fact makes this queſtion not very material, becauſe there are but four inſtances, in liſts A or B, where any goods on board a Pruſſian ſhip have been condemned, and no ſatisfaction is pretended to be demanded for any of thoſe four cargoes and liſts A and B: however, it may be proper to ſhew how groundleſs this pretence is.

Taking the words alleged to have been ſaid by lord Carteret, as they are ſtated, they don't warrant the inferences endeavoured

voured to be drawn from them; they import no new ſtipulation, different from the law of nations, but expreſsly profeſs to treat the Pruſſians upon the ſame foot with the ſubjects of other neutral powers under the like circumſtances, i. e. with whom there was no particular treaty: for the reference to other neutral power, cannot be underſtood to communicate the terms of any particular treaty. It is not ſo ſaid. The treaties with Holland, Sweden, Ruſſia, Portugal, Denmark, &c. all differ. Who can ſay which was communicated? There would be no reciprocity; the king of Pruſſia don't agree to be bound by the clauſes to which other powers have, by their reſpective treaties, agreed. No Pruſſian goods, on board an enemy's ſhips, have ever been condemned here; and yet they ought, if the treaties with Holland were to be the rule between Great-Britain and Pruſſia; nay, if theſe treaties were to be the rule, all now contended for, on the part of Pruſſia, is clearly wrong: becauſe, by treaty, the Dutch, in the laſt refort, are to apply to the court of appeal here.

Treaty of alliance between Great-Britain and Holland, at Weſtminſter, the 6th of February, 1715-16, article 2.

'Whereas ſome diſputes have happened, touching the explanation of the 12th article of the treaty marine, in 1674, it 'is agreed and concluded, for deciding any difficulty upon 'that matter, to declare, by theſe preſents, that, by the 'proviſions mentioned in the ſaid article, are meant thoſe 'which are received by cuſtom in Great-Britain and in the 'United Provinces, and always have been received, and 'which have been granted, and always are granted, in the 'like caſe, to the inhabitants of the ſaid countries, and to 'every foreign nation.'

Lord Carteret is ſaid twice to have refuſed, in which Monſ. Andrié acquieſces, to give any thing in writing, as not uſual in England.

Suppoſing the converſations to mean no more than a declaration of courſe, that juſtice ſhould be done to the Pruſſians, in like manner as to any other neutral power with whom there was no treaty; there was no occaſion for inſtruments in writing, becauſe in England the crown never interferes with the courſe of juſtice. No order, or intimation, is ever given to any judge. Lord Carteret, therefore, knew that it was the duty of the court of admiralty to do equal juſtice, and that they would, of themſelves, do what he ſaid to Monſ. Andrié.

Had it been intended, by agreement, to introduce between Pruſſia and England a variation, in any particular, from the law of nations, and, conſequently, a new rule for the court of admiralty to decide by, it could only be done by a ſolemn treaty, in writing, properly authorized and authenticated; the memory of it could not otherwiſe be preſerved, the parties intereſted, and the courts of admiralty could not, otherwiſe, take notice of it.

But lord Cheſterfield's confirmation, in a letter of the 5th of January, 1747, being relied upon, the books of the ſecretary's office have been ſearched, and the letter to Monſ. Michell is found, which is verbatim as follows:

'Monſieur, à Whitehall, le 5 Janvr, 1747-8.

'Ayant eu l'honneur de recevoir les ordres du roy ſur ce qui 'a formé le ſujet du memoire, que vous m'avez remis, du '8 de ce Mois, N. S. Je n'ai pas voulu tarder à vous in'former, que ſa Majeſté, pour ne rien omettre, par où elle 'peut temoigner ſes attentions envers le Roy votre maitre, 'ne fait nulle difficulté de declarer, qu'elle n'a jamais eu 'l'intention ni ne l'aura jamais, de donner le moindre em'pechement à la navigation des ſujets Pruſſiens, tant qu'ils 'auront ſoin d'exercer leur commerce d'une maniere licite, 'et conformément à l'ancien uſage établi et reconnu parmi 'les puiſſances neutres.

'Que ſa Majeſté Pruſſienne ne peut pas ignorer, qu'il y a 'des traités de commerce qui ſubſiſtent actuellement, entre 'la Grande Bretagne, et certains etats neutres, et qu'au 'moyen des engagements formellement contractés de part et 'd'autre, par ces mêmes traités, tout ce qui regarde la ma'niere d'exercer leur commerce reciproquement, a été finale'ment conſtaté et regle.

'Qu'en même tems il ne paroit point, qu'aucun traité de la 'nature ſuſdite exiſte à preſent, ou a jamais exiſtè, entre ſa 'Majeſté et le roy de Pruſſe; mais, que pourtant, cela n'a 'jamais empeché que les ſujets Pruſſiens n'ayent été favorisès 'par l'Angleterre, par raport à leur navigation, autant que 'les autres nations neutres: et cela ètant, ſa Majeſté ne pre'ſuppoſe pas, que l'ideè du Roy votre maitre, ſeroit d'exiger 'd'elle des diſtinctions, encore moins de preferences, en fa'veur des ſujets à cet égard.

'Que de plus ſa Majeſté Pruſſienne eſt trop eclairée pour ne 'pas connoitre, qu'il y a des loix fixes et etablies dans ce 'gouvernement, dont on ne peut nullement s'écarter; et 'que s'il arrivoit que la marine Angloiſe s'avisâ de faire la 'moindre injuſtice aux ſujets commerçans du Roy votre 'maitre, il y a un tribunal ici, ſavoir, la haute cour de l'ami'rauté, à laquelle ils ſe trouvent en droit de s'addreſſer et de 'porter leurs plaintes; aſſurés d'avance, en pareil cas, qu'on 'leur y rendra bonne juſtice; les procedés juridiques de la'dite cour étant ayant été de tout tems hors d'atteinte, et 'irreprochables; temoin, nombre d'exemples, où des vaiſ'ſeaux neutres, pris illicitement, ont été reſtitutés avec fraix 'et dommages aux proprietaires.

'Voici ce que le Roy m'a ordonné de vour repondre ſur le 'contenu de votre dit memoire; et ſa Majeſté ne ſauroit que 'ſe flatter, qu'en conſequence de ſe que je viens d'avancer, 'il ne reſtera plus rien à deſirer au Roy votre maitre relative'ment à l'objet dont il eſt queſtion; et le Roy s'en croit d'au'tant plus aſſuré, qu'il eſt perſuadé que ſa Majeſté Pruſſienne 'ne voudroit rien demander, qui ne fut équitable.

'Je ſuis avec bien de la conſideration,

'Monſieur,

'Votre très humble, &

'Très obeiſſant Serviteur,

'CHESTERFIELD.'

There need no obſervations. It is explicit, and, in expreſs terms, puts Pruſſia upon the foot of other neutral powers with whom there was no treaty, and points out the proper way of applying for redreſs.

The verbal declarations made by lord Carteret in 1744, which are ſaid to have been confirmed by this letter from lord Cheſterfield, cannot have meant more than the letter expreſſes.

And it is manifeſt, by the above extract from Monſ. Andrié's letter to his Pruſſian Majeſty, that in May 1747, Monſ. Andrié himſelf underſtood, that goods of the enemy, taken on board neutral ſhips, ought to be condemned as prize.

It is evident, from authentic acts, that the ſubjects of Pruſſia never underſtood that any new right was communicated to them.

Before the year 1746, the Pruſſians don't appear to have openly engaged in covering the enemy's property.

The men of war and privateers could not abſtain from captures, in conſequence of lord Carteret's verbal aſſurances in 1744, becauſe they never were nor could be known: and there was no occaſion to notify them, ſuppoſing them only to promiſe impartial juſtice. For all ſhips of war were bound to act, and courts of admiralty to judge, according to the law of nations and treaties.

'Till 1746, the Pruſſian documents were, a certificate of the admiralty, upon the oath of the builder, that the ſhip was Pruſſian built; and a certificate of the admiralty, upon the oath of the owner, that the ſhip was Pruſſian property.

From 1746, the Pruſſians engaged in the gainful practice of covering the enemy's goods, but were at a loſs in what ſhape, and upon what pretences, it might beſt be done.

On board the ſhip 3 Soeurs, was found a paſs, bearing date at Stettin the 6th of October 1746, under the royal ſeal of the Pruſſian regency of Pomerania, &c. alleging the cargo, which was ſhip-timber, bound for Port l'Orient, to be Pruſſian property, and, in conſequence thereof, claiming freedom of the ſhip.

Claiming freedom to the ſhip, from the property of the cargo, being quite new, the propoſition was afterwards reverſed: and on board a ſhip called the Jumeaux, was found a paſs, bearing date at Stettin the 27th of June 1747, under the royal ſeal, &c. alleging the ſhip to be Pruſſian property, and, in conſequence thereof, claiming freedom to the goods.

But this paſs was not ſolely relied on, for there was alſo found on board the ſame ſhip, another paſs, bearing date at Stettin the 14th of June 1747, under the royal ſeal, &c. alleging the cargo to be Pruſſian property.

And it is remarkable, that the oaths, upon which theſe paſſes were granted, appeared manifeſtly to be falſe: and neither of the cargoes to which they relate, are now ſo much as alleged to have been Pruſſian property in ſaid liſts A. or B.

It being mentioned, in the ſaid Expoſition des Motifs, &c. that Monſ. Michell, in September 1747, made verbal repreſentations to lord Cheſterfield, in reſpect to the cargo taken on board the ſaid ſhip called the 3 Soeurs, which was claimed as Pruſſian property; and no mention being made in liſts A and B of the ſaid cargo, we directed the proceedings in that cauſe to be laid before us, where it appears in the fulleſt and cleareſt manner, from the ſhip-papers and depoſitions, that the cargo was timber, laden on the account, and at the riſque of Frenchmen, to whom it was to be delivered at Port l'Orient, they paying freight according to charter-party. That the Pruſſian claimant was neither freighter, lader, or conſignee; and had no other intereſt or concern in the matter, than to lend his name and conſcience: for he ſwore that the cargo was his property, and laden on or before the 6th of October 1746; and yet the ſhip was then in ballaſt, and the whole of the cargo in queſtion was not laden before May 1747.

Several other Pruſſian claims had, in like manner, come out ſo clearly to be merely colourable, that Monſ. Andrié, from his ſaid letter, $\frac{29 \text{ May}}{9 \text{ June}}$, 1747, appears to have been aſhamed of them.

Third PROPOSITION.

That lord Carteret, in his ſaid two converſations, ſpecified, in your Majeſty's name, what goods ſhould be deemed contraband.

Anſwer. The fact makes this queſtion totally immaterial, becauſe no goods condemned as contraband, or which were alleged to be ſo, are ſo much as now ſuggeſted to have been Pruſſian property in the ſaid liſts A and B; and, therefore, whether as enemy's property or contraband, they were either way rightly condemned; and the bills of lading being falſe, the ſhips could not be entitled to freight.

But, if the queſtion was material, the verbal declarations of a miniſter in converſation, might ſhew what he thought contraband by the law of nations; but never could be underſtood to be equivalent to a treaty, derogating from that law. All the obſervations, upon the other part of theſe verbal declarations, hold equally as to this.

Fourth PROPOSITION.

That the Britiſh miniſters have ſaid, that theſe queſtions were decided according to the laws of England.

Anſwer. They muſt have been miſunderſtood, for the law of England ſays, that all captures at ſea, as prize, in time of war, muſt be judged of in a court of admiralty, according to the law of nations, and particular treaties, where there are any.

There never exiſted a caſe, where a court, judging according to the laws of England only, ever took cognizance of prize.

The property of prizes being given during the laſt war to the captors, your Majeſty could not arbitrarily releaſe the capture, but left all caſes to the deciſion of the proper courts, judging by the law of nations and treaties, where there were any: and it never was imagined, that the property of a foreign ſubject, taken as prize on the high ſeas, could be affected by laws peculiar to England.

Fifth PROPOSITION.

That your Majeſty could no more erect tribunals for trying theſe matters than the king of Pruſſia.

Anſwer. Each crown has, no doubt, an equal right to erect admiralty-courts, for the trial of prizes taken by virtue of their reſpective commiſſions; but neither has a right to try the prizes taken by the other, or to reverſe the ſentences given by the other's tribunal. The only regular method of rectifying their errors, is by appeal to the ſuperior court.

This is the clear law of nations, and, by this method, prizes have always been determined, in every other maritime country of Europe, as well as England.

Sixth PROPOSITION.

That the ſea is free.

Anſwer. They who maintain that propoſition in its utmoſt extent, don't diſpute but that when two powers are at war, they may ſeize the effects of each other upon the high ſeas, and on board the ſhips of friends: therefore, that controverſy is not in the leaſt applicable upon the preſent occaſion *.

* This appears from Grotius in the paſſages above cited, lib. iii. cap. 1. ſect. 5. num. 4. in his notes. And lib. iii. cap. 6. ſect. 6. in his notes. See our article SEA DOMINION.

Seventh PROPOSITION.

Great-Britain iſſued reprizals againſt Spain, on account of captures at ſea.

Anſwer. Theſe captures were not made in time of war with any power.

They were not judged of by courts of admiralty, according to the law of nations and treaties, but by rules, which were themſelves complained of, in revenue courts: the damages were afterwards admitted, liquidated at a certain ſum, and agreed to be paid by a convention, which was not performed. Therefore reprizals iſſued, but they were general. No debts due here to Spaniards were ſtopped, no Spaniſh effects here were ſeized. Which leads to one obſervation more.

The king of Pruſſia has engaged his royal word to pay the Sileſia debt to private men.

It is negociable, and many parts have been aſſigned to the ſubjects of other powers. It will not be eaſy to find an inſtance, where a prince has thought fit to make reprizals upon a debt, due from himſelf to private men. There is a confidence that this will not be done; a private man lends money to a prince, upon the faith of an engagement of honour, becauſe a prince cannot be compelled, like other men, in an adverſe way, by a court of juſtice. So ſcrupulouſly did England, France, and Spain adhere to this public faith, that, even during the war, they ſuffered no enquiry to be made, whether any part of the public debts was due to ſubjects of the enemy, though it is certain, many Engliſh had money in the French funds, and many French had money in ours.

This loan to the late emperor of Germany, Charles the VIth, in January 1734-5, was not a ſtate tranſaction, but a mere private contract with the lenders, who advanced their money, upon the emperor's obliging himſelf, his heirs and poſterity, to repay the principal with intereſt, at the rate, in the manner, and at the times in the contract mentioned, without any delay, demurr, deduction, or abatement whatſoever; and, leſt the words and inſtruments made uſe of ſhould not be ſtrong enough, he promiſes to ſecure the performance of his contract, in and by ſuch other inſtruments, method, manner, form, and words, as ſhould be moſt effectual and valid, to bind the ſaid emperor, his heirs, ſucceſſors, and poſterity, or as the lenders ſhould reaſonably deſire.

As a ſpecific real ſecurity, he mortgaged his revenues, ariſing from the duchies of Upper and Lower Sileſia, for payment of principal and intereſt; and the whole debt, principal and intereſt, was to be diſcharged in the year 1745. If the money could not be paid out of the revenues of Sileſia, the emperor, his heirs and poſterity, ſtill remained debtors, and were bound to pay. The eviction or deſtruction of a thing mortgaged, don't extinguiſh the debt, or diſcharge the debtor.

Therefore the empreſs queen, without the conſent of the lenders, made it a condition of her yielding the duchies of Sileſia to his Pruſſian Majeſty, that he ſhould ſtand in the place of the late emperor, in reſpect of this debt.

The ſeventh of the preliminary articles, between the queen of Hungary and the king of Pruſſia, ſigned at Breſlau, the 11th of June, 1742, is in theſe words; 'Sa Majeſté le roi 'de Pruſſe ſe charge du ſeul payement de la ſomme hypothé-'quée ſur la Sileſie, aux marchands Anglois, ſelon le con-'tract ſigné à Londres, le 7me de Janvier, 1734-5.'

The ſtipulation is confirmed by the ninth article of the treaty between their ſaid Majeſties, ſigned at Berlin, the 28th of July, 1742.

Alſo renewed and confirmed by the ſecond article of the treaty between their ſaid Majeſties, ſigned at Dreſden, the 25th of December, 1745.

In conſideration of the empreſs queen's ceſſion, his Pruſſian Majeſty has engaged to her, that he will pay this money, ſelon le contract, and conſequently has bound himſelf to ſtand in the place of the late emperor, in reſpect of this money, to all intents and purpoſes.

The late emperor could not have ſeized this money, as reprizals, or even, in caſe of open war between the two nations, becauſe his faith was engaged to pay it, without any delay, demurr, deduction, or abatement whatſoever. If theſe words ſhould not extend to all poſſible caſes, he had plighted his honour to bind himſelf, by any other form of words, more effectually to pay the money; and therefore was liable at any time to be called upon, to declare expreſsly, that it ſhould not be ſeized as repriſals, or in caſe of war; which is very commonly expreſſed, when ſovereign princes or ſtates borrow money from foreigners. Therefore, ſuppoſing for a moment, that his Pruſſian Majeſty's complaint was founded in juſtice, and the law of nations, and that he had a right to make reprizals in general, he could not, conſiſtent with his engagements to the empreſs queen, ſeize this money as reprizals. Beſides, this whole debt, according to the contract, ought to have been diſcharged in 1745. It ſhould, in reſpect of the private creditors, in juſtice and equity, be conſidered, as if the contract had been performed; and the Pruſſian complaints don't begin 'till 1746, after the whole debt ought to have been paid.

Upon this principle of natural juſtice, French ſhips and effects, wrongfully taken, after the Spaniſh war, and before the French war, have, during the heat of the war with France, and ſince, been reſtored, by ſentence of your Majeſty's courts, to the French owners. No ſuch ſhips or effects ever were attempted to be confiſcated, as enemies property here, during the war; becauſe, had it not been for the wrong firſt done, theſe effects would not have been in your Majeſty's dominions. So, had not the contract been firſt broke, by non-payment of the whole loan in 1745, this money would not have been in his Pruſſian Majeſty's hands.

Your Majeſty's guarantee of theſe treaties is entire, and muſt therefore depend upon the ſame conditions, upon which the ceſſion was made by the empreſs queen.

But this reaſoning is, in ſome meaſure, ſuperfluous; becauſe, if the making any reprizals upon this occaſion, be unjuſtifiable, which we apprehend we have ſhewn, then it is not diſputed, but that the non-payment of this money would be a breach of his Pruſſian Majeſty's engagements, and a renunciation, on his part, of thoſe treaties.

All which is moſt humbly ſubmitted to your Majeſty's royal wiſdom.

GEO. LEE,
G. PAUL,
D. RYDER,
W. MURRAY.

January 18, 1753.

TRANSLATION of the earl of CHESTERFIELD's letter to Monſ. MICHELL.

SIR, Whitehall, Jan. 5, 1747-8.

Having had the honour to receive the king's orders upon the ſubject of the memorial, which you delivered to me on the 8th inſtant, N. S. I would not delay informing you, That his Majeſty, in order to omit nothing, whereby he may ſhew his attention to the king your maſter, makes no difficulty in declaring, That his Majeſty has never had, or will have, any intention to give any interruption to the navigation of the Pruſſian ſubjects, as long as they ſhall take care to carry on their commerce in a lawful manner, and conformable to the ancient uſage as eſtabliſhed and acknowleged amongſt neutral powers.

His Pruſſian Majeſty cannot be ignorant, that there are treaties of commerce actually ſubſiſting between Great-Britain and certain neutral ſtates, and that by means of the engagements formerly contracted on each ſide by thoſe treaties, every thing relating to the manner of reciprocally carrying on their commerce, has been finally ſettled and regulated.

At the ſame time, it does not appear that any ſuch treaty exiſts at preſent, or ever did exiſt, between his Majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: nevertheleſs, that has never hindered the Pruſſian ſubjects being favoured by England, with reſpect to their navigation, as much as other neutral nations: and his Majeſty does not ſuppoſe, that the king your maſter means to require diſtinctions from his Majeſty, much leſs any preferences, in favour of his ſubjects in this point.

His Pruſſian Majeſty is too well informed not to know, that there are in this government fixed and eſtabliſhed laws, which cannot be departed from; and that in caſe any Engliſh ſhips of war ſhould commit the leaſt injuſtice to the trading ſubjects of the king your maſter, here is a tribunal, viz. the high court of admiralty, where they have a right to apply, and make their complaints; and they may be previouſly aſſured, that, in ſuch caſe, impartial juſtice will be adminiſtered to them; the juridical proceedings of the ſaid court being, and having ever been, unimpeached and irreproachable, as appears by numerous examples of neutral veſſels illegally taken, having been reſtored, with coſts and damages, to the proprietors.

This is the anſwer the king has ordered me to give, upon the contents of your ſaid memorial; and his majeſty cannot but flatter himſelf, that, in conſequence hereof, the king your maſter's deſire will be fully anſwered, with relation to the point in queſtion; and of which his Majeſty is the more aſſured, as he is perſuaded that the king of Pruſſia would not require any thing, but what is equitable.

I am, with much Conſideration,

SIR,

Your moſt obedient,

And moſt humble Servant,

CHESTERFIELD.

TRANSLATION of Mr PETER TRAPAUD's declaration of his having made ſatisfaction to the Pruſſians for the damage received by the ſhip St John, No. 16. in liſt A.

In the Expoſition which his Pruſſian Majeſty has publiſhed, of ſuch ſhips of his ſubjects as were taken by the Engliſh in the laſt war, I have obſerved in the liſt A, No. 16, that the ſhip St John, John Groſſe captain, is therein mentioned, as having received ſome damages to the prejudice of the Pruſſian owners. As the fact is known to me, as I was the ſole owner of her cargo, I do hereby as ſuch teſtify the truth, for the ſatisfaction of all whom it may concern. And I cannot conceive, how the Pruſſian ſubjects dare demand an indemnification, which they have already more than received, as I am going to convince them.

In the month of November 1747, I ordered the ſaid ſhip to be freighted at Bourdeaux, and loaded at Libourne with 158 ¾ tons of white wine. On the 1ſt of December following, that ſhip put out to ſea; on the 11th of the ſaid month, ſhe got as far as the Downs, where ſhe was met by an Engliſh privateer, called the Prince of Orange, who ſent ſix of his men on board the Pruſſian ſhip, and had the Pruſſian pilot brought on board him, with the ſhip-papers and documents, in order to their being examined. On the 12th of the ſaid month, as ſhe lay at an anchor, a great ſtorm aroſe from the weſt ſouth-weſt, which obliged the Pruſſian captain, with the conſent of his crew, and of the ſix Engliſhmen who were then on board his ſhip, to cut his cable, in order to drive off to ſea. The ſhip got afterwards into Browerſhaven inlet in Holland, on the 15th of the ſaid month of December, without any other damage, than the loſs of part of her cable and of an anchor, and arrived at Rotterdam the 21ſt of the ſaid month. All this is proved by the declaration of both the captain and his crew, made on the 4th of January, 1748, before Jacob Bremer, notary public in Rotterdam; and afterwards ſworn to on the 6th of the ſaid month, before the commiſſioners of the chamber of maritime affairs.

After the ſhip was unloaded, the captain gave in to me his account for groſs average, conſiſting of the following articles:

1. For the loſs of his cable and anchor.
2. For the maintaining, during eight days, the ſix men who had been put on board his ſhip by the Engliſh privateer.
3. For a paſſport I procured for him, from the Pruſſian envoy at the Hague, which coſt 3 or 4 florins.

I paid him for my ſhare in that groſs average 704 florins, Holland currency, over and above 105 florins which I gave Capt. Groſſe as a preſent, and 10 florins 10 ſtivers I gave as a preſent to the crew of his ſhip: beſides all this, it coſt me 20 florins, or thereabouts, in England, which Meſſrs Simond (brothers) had diſburſed, by my order, for the Pruſſian pilot, who remained on board the privateer, after the ſtorm had parted them.

Thoſe who underſtand the navigation and fitting out of ſhips, muſt allow, that the Pruſſian owners will find themſelves more than reimburſed for all their pretenſions, by means of the 839 florins 10 ſtivers, Holland currency, which I have paid them; and that they cannot, with any foundation, make any other demands.

All that I have alleged above, can be verified by authentic vouchers (except the preſents or gratuities to the captain and his crew, amounting to 115 florins 10 ſtivers, for which I took no receipt). In witneſs whereof I have ſigned this preſent declaration. Rotterdam, January 30, 1753.

PETER TRAPAUD, jun.

LIST of all the PRUSSIAN ſhips taken by BRITISH armaments at ſea, during the laſt war, as well thoſe detained for examination only, as thoſe judicially proceeded upon, together with the judgments given in the admiralty-courts of GREAT-BRITAIN thereupon, tallying with his PRUSSIAN Majeſty's LIST marked A.

No. of ſhips.	Ships, which (if-taken) were reſtored by the captors, upon examination, without either party applying to a court of juſtice.	Ships and goods reſtored, with all coſts and damages attending the capture.	Ships reſtored with freight, according to the bills of lading, for ſuch goods, which were found to be the property of the enemy, and condemned as prize.	Ships and goods reſtored, but without coſts, from circumſtances ariſing from the caſe.	Ships and cargoes reſtored, paying coſts. In theſe caſes, it either appeared, that the ſhip had not the uſual evidence of property, according to the cuſtom of the ſea; or from the ſhip-papers, or examination of the crew, there appeared juſt reaſon to preſume the cargo to belong to the enemy, and the neuter claimant declined proving his property, by ſtrict legal evidence; and obtained reſtitution, on the faith of his own affidavit; and, in theſe caſes, courts of admiralty have always made the like decrees.	Cargoes, or part of them, condemned as contraband, and not now alleged, in liſt A or B, to have been Pruſſian property, and therefore were certainly prize of war.	Appeals from the admiralty decrees.
1	La Fred. Amitie, Capit. Sprenger.						
2	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Les Jumeaux, Capit. Kruth.	
3	— — — —	L'Anne Elizab. Cap. D. Schultz, coſts and damages, 2801l. 12s. 1d.					
4	La Cat. Chriſtine, Cap. Fre. Berend.						
5	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	La Dame Juliene, Capit. Mar. Preſt.		
6	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Fred. II. Roy de Pruſſe, Capit. Chretien Schultz.		
7	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Vaiſſeau au bon Vent, Capit. Michel Jurianſen.		
8	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Soleil D'Or, Cap. Jac. Ridder.	
9	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	La Daageroud, Cap. M. Sperwien.		
10	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Fred. II. Roy de Pruſſe, Capit. Chretien Schultz.	
11	— — — —	— — — —	L'Aigle D'Or, Cap. On. Arends.				
12	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Les Deux Freres, Capit. Jon Hallen.		
13	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Jeune André, C. H. Barkhorn.	
14	— — — —	— — — —	La Dor. Sophie, Ca. P. Kettelhuth.				
15	— — — —	— — — —	La Deux Freres, C. A. Auguſtinus.				
16	Le St Jean*, Cap. Jean Groſſe.						
17	Le Jeune Tobie, Capit. Paul Otto.						
18	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Petit David, Cap. M. Bugdahl.	— — — —	— — — —	Le Petit David, Cap. M. Bugdahl.

On the 3d of February, the duke of Newcaſtle received a letter from Mr Wolters, his Majeſty's agent at Rotterdam, incloſing the following declaration:

DANS l'Expoſition que ſa Majeſté Pruſſienne a donnée au public, des vaiſſeaux de ſes ſujets pris par les Anglois dans le derniere guerre; j'ai remarqué dans a liſte A. no 16. que le navire le St Jean, Capit. Jean Groſſe, y eſt notté comme ayant reçû quelques dommages, au prejudice des proprietaires Pruſſiens. Comme le fait m'eſt connu ayant été ſeul propriétaire de ſa cargaiſon, je veux en cette qualité rendre témoignage à la verité, pour ſervir où il appartiendra. D'ailleurs, je ne puis comprendre, comment les ſujets Pruſſiens oſent demander un dedommagement, qu'ils ont deja plus que reçû, comme je vais les en convaincre.

Dans le mois de Novembre 1747, je fis fretter à Bordeaux, et charger à Libourne le dit navire avec 158¾ tonneaux de vin blanc. Le 1er de Dec. ſuivant, ce navire mit en mer; le 11. du dit mois, il ſe trouva à la hauteur des Dunes; là il fut rencontré par le corſaire Anglois, nommé le Prince d'Orange, qui envoya à bord du navire Pruſſien ſix hommes de ſon equipage, et fit venir à ſon bord le pilote Pruſſien avec les papiers de mer, pour en faire l'examen. Le 12. du dit mois, étant à l'ancre ſous les cingles, il s'eleva une furieuſe tempête de la part du W. S. W. qui obligea le capitaine Pruſſien, du conſentement de ſon equipage, et des ſix Anglois pour lors dans ſon bord, de couper le cable pour gagner la mer. Ce navire entra enſuite dans le paſſage de Browerſhave en Hollande, le 15e du dit mois de Decembre, ſans avoir eu d'autre dommage que la perte d'une partie de ſon cable et d'une ancre, et arriva enſuite à Rotterdam le 12e du ſuſdt. mois. Tout ceci eſt conſtaté par la declaration du capitaine et de ſon equipage, paſſée le 4 Janvier 1748, pardevant Jacob Bremer, notaire public dans Rotterdam; enſuite fermentée, le 6e. du dit mois, pardevant les commiſſaires de la chambre de la marine.

Après que le navire fuit dechargé, le capitaine me fit fournir ſon compte d'avaire groſſe, dans lequel il portoit les articles ſuivants:

1. Pour la perte de ſon cable, et de ſon ancre.
2. Pour la nourriture de 8 jours à 6 hommes qui avoient été mis, par le corſaire Anglois, ſur ſon bord.
3. Pour une paſſeport que je lui fis donner à la Haye par l'envoyé de Pruſſe, qui couta 3 à 4 florins.

Je lui payai, pour ma portion, dans cette avaire groſſe, 704 florins, argent courant d'Hollande, en outre 105 florins dont je fis preſent au Capit. Groſſe, et 10. 10ˢ. auſſi de preſent aux matelots, qui compoſoient ſon equipage. Outre tout ceci, il m'en a couté 20 florins ou environ, en Angleterre, pour autant que Meſſ. Simond, freres, avoient debourſé par mon ordre pour le pilote Pruſſien qui etoit reſté à bord du corſaire, lorſque la tempête les ſepara.

Ceux qui ſe connoiſſent en navigation, et en armement de navire, ne pourront diſconvenir, que les proprietaires Pruſſiens ſe trouvent, au moyen de 839. 10ˢ. courans d'Hollande, que je leur ai payés, plus que rembourſés de toutes leurs pretenſions; et s'ils peuvent, avec quelque fondement, en demander d'autres.

Tout ce que j'avance ci deſſus peut ſe verifier par des pieces authentiques, (à la reſerve des preſents, ou gratifications, au capitaine ou à ſon equipage montant á 115, 10ˢ. dont je n'ai pas retiné de quittance,) en vertue dequoi j'ai ſigné la preſente declaration. Rotterdam, ce 30 Janvier 1753.

PIERRE TRAPAUD, le jeune.

The above declaration was ſigned in my preſence; and the original vouchers quoted in the ſame, have been produced to me. Witneſs my hand and ſeal.—Rotterdam, January the 30th, 1753.

R. WOLTERS. (L. S.)

LIST of all the neutral ſhips, taken by BRITISH ſhips during the laſt war, in whoſe cargoes the ſubjects of PRUSSIA claim to have been intereſted; together with the judgments given by his Britannic Majeſty's courts of admiralty thereupon, tallying with his Pruſſian Majeſty's LIST marked B.

No. of ſhips	Ships names.	If taken, releaſed by the captors, on examination, without either party applying to a court of juſtice.	In what voyage taken.	Judgment as to ſhip.	Judgment, as to goods.	For what cauſe.	Appealed.
1	La Cecile, Capitaine Bois Swenſen.	— — —	Cette to Altena	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
2	Le Nahring, Capit. Chrêtien Tiedeman.	— — —	Rochelle to Bourdeaux	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
3	La Demoiſelle Jean, Capit. Joachim Peyn.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
4	Le Carlſhaven, Weifft, Capit. Jean Holme.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
5	L'Anne Elizabeth, Capit. Chrêtien Mau.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits as to property.	
6	Le Guſt. Prince Royal, Capit. Barthow Muhl.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
7	Le Jeune Benjamin, Cap. H. Newſchilling.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
8	Le Prince Frederic, Capit. Jean Hartmann.	— — —	Hamb. to Bilb. and Bayonne.	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavit of property.	
9	Le Marie Joſeph, Capit. Feurier Rouge.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On the ſhip-papers.	
10	L'Union, Capit. Jean Struckmann.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
11	Le Neptune, Capit. Sonder Heeren.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
12	Le St Paul *, Capit. Gent Hinſichren.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					The reſt ſtill depending	Want of affidavits of property.	
13	La Couronne, Capit. Pierre Claſſen.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
14	La Demoiſelle Cather. Capit. Wilche de Vries.	— — —	Rochelle to Altena	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
15	La Concorde, Capit. Claes Eichels.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
16	La Feaune, Capit. Gerhard Roger Altag.	— — —	Charente to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
17	L'Amitie, Capit. Jean Quimann.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
18	Le Jeune Pri. Chrêtien, Cap. J. Corn. Leuwen.	— — —	Marſeilles to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
19	La Dem[l]. Marguerite, Capit. Hen. Bielenberg.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
20	Le Roxier, Capit. Pierre Claſſen.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
21	La Marie Sophie, Cap. Chrêtien Gregerſen.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
22	L'Anne Sophie, Capit. Hen. Horn de Wolgaſt.	Releaſed.	Bourdeaux to Koningſberg				
23	Le Hop Danzig, Capit. Conrade Harlach.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Dantzic	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
24	Le Jeune Jeane, de Peterſb. Cap. T. Siefers.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
25	Le Gregoiret de Breme, Capit. Jacob Muller.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
26	La Jeune Catherine, commandeè par le Cap. Kupper, enſuite par le Capit. Elker.	Releaſed.	Bourdeaux to Hambourg				
27	Les Six Soeurs, de Lubec, Cap. Pierre Zaan.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Lubec	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
28	La Ste. Anne, de Hamb. Capit. Abr. Peterſon.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
29	Le Jeune Eldert, de Hamb. Cap. G. Auven.	— — —	Roan to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
30	Le Juſte Henri, de Hamb. Cap. H. Elkes.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Reſtored	Part reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
					Part condemned -	Want of affidavits of property.	
31	L'Elizabeth, Capit. Soeren Paterſen.	— — —	Hambourg to Bourdeaux	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
32	La Demoiſelle Claire, Cap. Herm. Claſ. Prieſt.	— — —	Hambourg to Roan	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	
33	L'Adolph Frederic, Capit. Jonas de Haſpen.	— — —	Marſeilles to Hambourg	Reſtored	Reſtored - -	On affidavits of property.	

* On the 29th of January, affidavits were exhibited in the court of Admiralty, and ſentence prayed on the part of the Pruſſian claimant, and the goods were decreed to be reſtored.

SILK-

SILK-WORMS.

MEMOIR upon the breeding of SILK-WORMS in FRANCE, and all other climates where mulberry-trees can be cultivated. By M. de Goyon de la Plombanie.

'A pretty long ſtay which I made in the ſouthern provinces of the kingdom where ſilk-worms are bred, together with what I have read in the beſt authors, have enabled me to ſhew the public, that the method commonly followed for this purpoſe does not anſwer the end propoſed.

In the Indies, and all other places where the climate allows people to breed ſilk-worms on the trees, like our caterpillars, the ſilk is very fine, very ſtrong, and in great abundance. Whence we conceive that a pure and temperate air is neceſſary to thoſe very delicate animals, which muſt be kept very clean, and breathe with difficulty in a confined and thick air, from which they contract diſorders. In thoſe happy eaſtern climates, nature of herſelf performs her operations; but with us, ſhe requires the aſſiſtance of art; art, therefore, ought to correſpond with nature, ſo as to aid her effectually, without ever doing her the leaſt violence.

When I was in Languedoc, I obſerved that in the cold mornings the ſilk-worms were benumbed, and moved but very little, and that, of all the chambers in which they were bred, thoſe which had moſt light, the freeſt air, and were expoſed to the ſouth, ſucceeded infinitely better than the reſt; that thoſe people who were leaſt careful in keeping them clean, could never turn them to account, and, for want of this precaution, a number of them periſhed, after they had been raiſed at a great expence. In this reſpect they are ſo delicate, that the leaſt impure or ſtrong ſmell throws them into convulſions; people of ſtinking breaths, rank reſpiration, or they whoſe ſweat is of a diſagreeable odour, nay, the ſmell of women at certain times, is pernicious to theſe animals, and does them more injury than one would imagine.

A variety of food, gathered from different ſoils and different trees, contributes to render the ſilk unequal: the leaves gathered wet, given after they are faded, or mixed together, without ſeparating the tender from the harſh, the worms eating at intervals, or of what they diſlike, all theſe circumſtances, which too often occur in the method of breeding them practiſed in France, greatly contribute to the little ſucceſs and returns of the manufacture: yet, hitherto, I have not ſeen one perſon employ himſelf as he ought, in finding means to remedy theſe inconveniencies. This conſideration has determined me to communicate to the public my own ideas of the ſubject; and after I ſhall have given a detail of them, any perſon can try the experiment in miniature, that he may aſſure himſelf of the utility of my method.

Some methods which may be uſed in making ſilk in France, ſo as to render it abundant, and of good quality.

Pains muſt be taken to have a number of mulberry-trees; they may be planted in all ſorts of ſoils where they will grow, but they muſt not be ſhaded by any other ſort of trees. Almoſt all the ſoils that produce walnut-trees and elms, will agree with the mulberry: and they muſt be carefully engrafted with that kind whoſe leaf is the moſt broad and ſmooth.

REMARKS upon the different ſoils and qualities of the trees.

All thoſe trees that riſe in light, barren, ſandy grounds, that have little moiſture, will produce the fineſt and ſtrongeſt ſilks; whilſt thoſe which are produced in fertile fat ground, abounding in juice, yield a coarſer and weaker ſilk; young trees, from 6 to 12 years old, will produce ſilk that is neither ſo fine nor ſo good as that from trees of 18 or 20 years growth; ſo that the oldeſt are always to be preferred. It is the ſame caſe with mulberry-trees for ſilk, as with vines for fruit, which is different in quality, according to the different ages of the trees, and the difference of ſoil. Nature always makes one thing atone for another; the old vines, and thoſe that are planted in a meagre ſoil, produce the beſt wine, though in ſmall quantity; thoſe raiſed in a fat ſoil, produce a larger quantity, but of an inferior quality: ſo that both kinds nearly yield the ſame profit. The ſame thing will happen in ſilk, if we do not mix the produce of different ſoils and different trees. This is an eſſential remark for the œconomiſt, though he has not hitherto regarded it. The practice is to mix the leaves, and give them indifferently to the worms; but it has been obſerved, that a worm, fed with leaves of different qualities, always makes an ill-formed ſilk, as may be perceived by the microſcope: worms thus managed will be like a ſpinſter, who puts indiſcriminately flax and hards upon her diſtaff, and cannot poſſibly ſpin thread ſo good and equal, as if it had been made ſolely from one of theſe materials. If the Indian ſilk is ſo beautiful, uniform, and ſtrong, it is becauſe the worms eat only of the leaves of one tree, on which they have been bred, and care is taken to pick the cods, ſo as that the beſt are kept together. From theſe remarks it follows, that we ought to furniſh thoſe little animals with a lodging that would procure to them, as much as poſſible, the ſame advantages they enjoy in thoſe countries where they thrive without care; that is, to ſhelter them from the injuries of our climate, to procure for them a pure temperate air, that ſhall be continually renewed, and give them a great deal of light, which contributes to their health; to clean them gently every time they receive new food, without touching them with the hand, or any ſort of inſtrument: finally, if we cannot ſecure them from the noiſe of thunder, at leaſt, to free them from the ſight of lightning, which gives them more diſturbance, by the quick and violent vibration of their little optic nerves, which incommodes their circulation, and affects them with diſtempers. If care be taken to prevent all theſe dangers, by the means which I am going to deſcribe, we may be aſſured of having worms that will ſucceed to a miracle.

Of the lodging of SILK-WORMS.

When the deſign is to raiſe a great quantity of ſilk-worms, ſo as to profit by the income they will produce, it will be neceſſary to build on purpoſe a lodging wholly detached, for raiſing the worms, proportioned to the quantity of the owner's trees. For example: if the ſcheme is, to make 500 lb. weight of raw ſilk, the lodging muſt be 80 feet long, and 20 feet broad, with three ſtories, comprehending the ground-floor; and every ſtory muſt be 10 feet high, excluſive of the thickneſs of the roofs, which ſhould be plaſtered, if plaſter is to be eaſily got; if not, there muſt be a cieling of boards, joined together as well as poſſible, upon which ſeveral folds of brown paper muſt be glued, to hinder dirt and duſt paſſing from one floor to another, for nothing is more hurtful to the worms.

The houſe ſhall extend from north to ſouth, fronting the eaſt and weſt; the ends oppoſed to the north and ſouth ſhall be built up without any opening, ſo as that there ſhall be no admiſſion either to the north wind or ſouth ſun, which are equally prejudicial to the worms: but the two fronts to the eaſt and weſt ſhall have windows oppoſite to each other, ſix feet broad, and in height from the cieling to the floor, with an interval of four feet only between them. Each of theſe windows muſt be ſhut by two ſaſhes of glaſs, or at leaſt, in lieu of glaſs, be covered with white oiled paper: theſe ſaſhes muſt open ſideways, upon little ſliders, like the ſcenes in the opera; each ſhall be three feet and an inch broad, and ſlide behind the frame of the window, one againſt the other, for the ſake of convenience; and, in order to keep out the lightning in tempeſtuous weather, there ſhall be within ſide, at the top of the window, an umbrella of wax cloth, to exclude every ray of light. When this is to be uſed, the glaſs or paper ſaſhes may be ſhut, by means of a roller, at one end of the apartment, a cord communicating with all the umbrellas may be drawn, ſo as to make them act together at once, either for admitting or excluding the light. Every artiſt will eaſily comprehend the nature of the contrivance. It will alſo be neceſſary to have a ſecond umbrella, of coarſe canvas, on the outſide of every window, which will occaſionally ſerve to break the too violent action of the wind and ſun, and even of the hail, without excluding too much air or light.

Such a building may be executed of wood and mud covered within and without by plaiſter, or lime; if in a country abounding with ſtone, it may be executed in ſtone; the greateſt expence will be in the glaſs-work and umbrellas.

At the two extremities of this houſe there muſt be ſtoves, a foot and a half broad, ſix feet long, and two feet high, made of plates of caſt iron. Round each ſtove, at the diſtance of half a foot, a little wall muſt be built of brick, or tiles, which ſhall ſurround it, ſo as to hinder its heat from being abſorbed by the external air. In this interval however, formed on all parts between the ſtove and the wall, a neceſſary quantity of air ſhall be introduced, by a ventilator, or bellows, made for the purpoſe, to be worked either by the wind, or a little horſe. In cold weather the ſtove muſt be furniſhed with fire, to the neceſſary degree of heat, which may be communicated through the funnels, in the firſt appartment, or hall, in order to be diſtributed; but great care muſt be taken to prevent ſmoke. The air being heated in the intermediate ſpace of the ſtoves, will in like manner be diſtributed through the whole firſt hall by means of a tin pipe, which muſt run the whole length of it, and be furniſhed with ſmall holes, proportioned to the diſtances; that is, the farther they are removed from the ſtove, they muſt be the larger, and more numerous. Thus the air being treated between the furnace and its cruſt, will warm that of the hall, give it a ſuitable degree of temperament, and continually renew that which was foul, and this, as the ſaſhes were ſhut, in going out through the joinings, will reſiſt the external cold air, which would otherwiſe enter.

It will be ſufficient to warm one hall in a houſe conſiſting of three, becauſe that will be enough for rearing the little worms, during the cold mornings of the ſpring; and, when they grow large, they may be diſtributed into the other halls, in the order which we ſhall now deſcribe.

We muſt plant little poſts of oak, half a foot broad on one ſide, and three inches on the other, at the diſtance of ſix feet between them. They muſt be fixed in a line acroſs the hall, and united by ledges of wood, at the diſtance of twelve inches from one another; ſo that the poſts being 10 feet high, there will be nine ledges: an interval of three feet and a half muſt be

be left from one range of poſts to the other, for the convenience of paſſing between them: the ledges being one inch thick, and three inches broad, ſhall be placed horizontally, and mortiſed in each poſt; then boards of fir, a foot broad, and ſix feet long, ſhall be tied to theſe ledges, with bits of leather, or ſheep-ſkin, in the manner of hinges, one on each ſide. Theſe hinges will allow the boards to be raiſed or lowered, like the lid of a coffer; a cord at each end of the boards paſſing through pullies at the roof, and fixed to a hook at the lower part of the poſts, will actuate all the boards of the ſame ſide, like lattices; and if all theſe boards be kept in a horizontal poſition, they will ſerve as ſo many ſhelves, upon which the leaves and the worms may be ſpread. Care muſt be taken to put nothing upon the board which is next to that where the worms ſhall reſide; but when you would renew the leaves, gently raiſe up the board on which the new leaves are placed, ſo that the worms may ſee and ſmell them; they will not fail to go thither, and abandon that on which they were: and this migration will afford them an opportunity to clean the firſt, and prepare it for the reception of new food, when it ſhall be thought proper to furniſh it: and this gentle and continual exerciſe of the ſilk-worms paſſing and repaſſing alternately from one board to another, will keep up their appetites, and ſtrengthen their bodies. In order to make them yield ſilk, they muſt be preſented with bits of ſtraw and heath, in the uſual way; theſe ſmall branches muſt be prepared on the next board, when it is perceived they will no longer eat, but ſeek to depoſit their ſilk, and make their cods.

I ſhall not here treat of the different diſtempers to which the worms are ſubject during their moulding, abundance of authors having already performed that taſk; my ſole aim is to prevent the dangers to which they are expoſed, by deſcribing the attention which ought to be given, and the precautions to be taken in their lodging, in preſerving the air pure and temperate, and in managing the light ſo as to ſtrengthen their bodies, and to excite them to eat.

There muſt be two places for the ſtore of leaves; in one they muſt be wiped upon cloth, or a very clean board, when they are wetted by the rain; and in the other they muſt be preſerved cool and freſh, that they may not be too much faded. Beſides, it muſt be obſerved, that in very hot weather there falls upon the leaves a kind of manna, or honey, which is viſcous, and very pernicious to the ſilk-worms, for it afflicts them with looſeneſs, makes them ſick, and languiſh to death, or, at leaſt, deſtroys the beauty of the ſilk. The duſt of the roads too, that often ſticks to the leaves, incommodes and diſguſts the worms. Theſe inconveniencies may be alleviated, by putting the freſh gathered leaves in oſier baſkets, and rinſing them ſeveral times in pure limpid water, which will waſh away the duſt, honey, or manna. But theſe leaves muſt not be given to the worms until after they have been wiped upon ſheets; and care muſt be taken not to let them lie any time in heaps, except in a very cool place, otherwiſe they will ferment, and become ſtill more pernicious. By the choice of food and regimen the cauſes of diſeaſe are prevented. Over and above theſe precautions, thoſe who have the charge of breeding ſilk-worms will be very attentive in chuſing the cods, and dividing them into three or four claſſes, that they may have the finer ſilk, and that it may not be rendered defective by a mixture of the good with that which is common; afterwards, no pains muſt be ſpared in unwinding the ſilk with all poſſible art, and if the threads break, as will often be the caſe, they muſt be ſupplied by other cods, in the room of thoſe which have broke, and theſe muſt be thrown among the refuſe, as being of a defective ſilk, which would ſpoil the other. This advice I give with great confidence, being perſuaded that thoſe who follow it will find it turn to advantage.

Reflections upon the above Remarks.

This memoir will meet with abundance of oppoſition, eſpecially among people bigoted to old cuſtoms; and therefore I propoſe to write to thoſe only who conduct themſelves by the rules of good ſenſe and reaſon, and are in a condition to profit by the new lights they receive.

What I propoſe is demonſtrated from nature, but, if practiſed, the expence may ſeem to exceed the profit. It may therefore be neceſſary to undeceive thoſe who allow themſelves to be prejudiced againſt this memoir, by furniſhing them with means to try the experiment at a ſmall expence; for it will be prudent to try the ſcheme in miniature, before it is undertaken at large, not only for informing one's ſelf whether or not the author has ſpoke truth, but likewiſe to know if there would be any real advantage in following his advice. In order to avoid all miſtakes, we muſt exactly obſerve the leaſt circumſtances, keep account of the time and expence which have been employed, together with the profits which have been drawn, and to compare this with the uſual method, in due proportion, that we may ſee which of the two is preferable: this ſpirit of curioſity, inquiry, and application, is always uſeful; by ſuch occupation we acquire inſtruction, and are inſenſibly conducted to uſeful and curious diſcoveries, which flatter us the more, as they are the fruit of our own ſtudy and meditation.

To begin we may uſe a cloſet, or any little place, which may reſemble the large building I have deſcribed; that is, be equally windowed, enlightened, aired, and glazed, furniſhed with umbrellas to keep out the lightning, and the joinings may be ſecured with paſted paper. We muſt try to ſupply it with freſh air, to leave nothing that yields a bad ſcent, and without uſing a ſtove, to procure warmth by a proper circulation of warmed air. When this ſmall apartment is put in order, furniſhed with moving boards ſuch as I have deſcribed, ſo as to fill up the whole capacity of the lodging, as much as may be, without impairing the convenience of paſſing; it may be tenanted by a quantity of worms, ſuitable to the extent of the place.

In order to aſcertain the number, we muſt obſerve that one worm, come to its natural growth, occupies the ſpace of two inches ſquare. As it increaſes in bulk it requires more air: and when the ſeaſon is temperate, we run no riſque in opening the caſements in the day-time, but they muſt be carefully ſhut at night. According to this dimenſion, a board four feet long and one broad may hold about 300 worms; and a cloſet 12 feet ſquare, and 10 feet high, will contain 18,000; if we can make 10 ſtories, and three rows of ſhelves, theſe 18,000 may produce as many cods; but as ſome of them always die, I reckon 15,000 may turn to account: 150 cods ought to produce an ounce of ſilk, when they are good; ſo that the 15,000 will yield about ſix pounds of raw ſilk. Thus the curious obſerver will ſee whether his trouble and expence exceed that of the ordinary method, by comparing the charge and profit on each ſide, and by including in this account the loſs which is occaſioned by want of care, he will find, if he is judicious, that his crop will ſometimes be augmented one half, or at leaſt one third. If he is ſatisfied with this experiment, he may afterwards work at large, in proportion to the number of his mulberry-trees, build an houſe for the purpoſe, ſituated on a riſing round, well ſecured from bad winds, and not in a bottom, which is always ſubject to miſchievous fogs and ſqualls of wind.

At the ſame time, he muſt take care to increaſe the culture of his mulberry-trees, without, however, planting ſuch a number as will hinder the cultivation of other neceſſary proviſions, and to make woods of them, as people make coppices; in which caſe the leaves will be finer, and more eaſily gathered, and the wood will ſerve for firing. They may alſo be planted at random, without being ſubject to any ſort of cultivation, for we cannot have too many. This tree, when the ſoil is naturally good, may be uſeful by its wood, in a great many ſhapes: its leaves are a treaſure; the poultry and hogs are fed by its fruit, which, indeed, is eaten by all ſorts of animals.

Remarks before the laſt war.

Under the article British America, particularly under the colony of Georgia, and alſo in our Remarks on that article, I have taken notice of the production of the ſilk-worm, which was the firſt motive to the eſtabliſhment of that plantation, in order to raiſe ſilk for the carrying on, in ſome degree, within ourſelves, that eſtimable manufacture, and to ſave ſome proportion of that ready money we are obliged to expend on the importation of foreign raw ſilk. How it hath come to paſs that a deſign of this kind ſhould miſcarry, in a climate confidently declared, time after time, to be proper for it, has never yet been cleared up to the ſatisfaction of the public; but certainly this is neceſſary, after the nation has been at ſo great an expence on the occaſion. England is not eſteemed a climate ſo ſuitable as Georgia, and other of her plantations on the continent of America, for the brood of this delicate animal; and yet there have been inſtances which ſeem to bid fair for ſucceſs in a deſign of this kind even in England, provided it had been properly and reſolutely purſued by ſome reaſonable public encouragement; but perſeverance and public ſpirit ſeem to be wanting in this kingdom, to bring many important concerns for the benefit of trade to their ultimate perfection, or to give them a fair experimental trial.

How far we have ſucceeded even in England, in regard to the production of the ſilk-worms, may deſerve notice in the following ſingle inſtance, and divers others that might be mentioned: and if ſo, certainly in Georgia, and other contiguous colonies, this matter might be brought to far greater perfection; and this is my chief reaſon for laying before the reader the following experiments, that were made in Chelſea Park, in the months of May, June, and July, 1719. Philoſophical Tranſactions.

April 27, I received a ſmall parcel of ſilk-worms eggs from Languedoc.

May 6, early in the morning I found them hatched of themſelves; the wind ſhifting in the night from eaſt northerly, to the weſt ſoutherly, changing the air of a ſudden to warm, two days before the change of the moon.

After feeding and managing them according to art, through the whole courſe of their four ſickneſſes, they were come to their ſtate of perfection, being then as thick as a man's little finger, and from four to five inches long, of a yellowiſh colour, and, when held againſt the light, they might be ſeen through, as you may an egg, being of the ſame colour and conſiſtence, filled with the matter that makes the ſilk. This

is a certain ſign that they will begin to ſpin in 24 hours, or leſs. They then forſake their food (being very voracious before) and hunt about for a convenient place to fix their hold-faſts for ſupporting the balls, or cones, that they are to make, which they do in a moſt wonderful mathematical manner, with a mixture of a gummy ſubſtance, that ties all together; and when the looſe furzy ſubſtance is taken off, and ſome of the ſilk is wound off, the remainder is ſo ſmooth and compact, ſhining like ſattin, that they are made uſe of for artificial flowers, and eſteemed the beſt of any thing yet known for that purpoſe, for which they are generally kept in boarding-ſchools. I weighed many hundred of theſe ſilk-balls, or cones, which I found to weigh from 35 to 40 grains, with their aurelia's, or chryſalis, within them.

June 27, they began to ſpin, having been hatched ſeven weeks and three days, and in four or five days finiſhed their laborious and curious work; but their balls were not fit to be removed until eight or ten days.

July 7, Monſ. Lachivre began to wind off their ſilk-balls, with a machine that made great diſpatch, winding much fine ſilk in a day. I found that an ounce of ſilk-balls would make about a drachm of fine ſilk; but, to be more certain, I weighed out to the winder 12 pounds of ſilk-balls, at four times, and told the balls in every three pounds as followeth, viz.

The firſt three pounds contained - -	812 Balls
The ſecond three pounds contained - -	842
The third three pounds contained - -	797
The fourth three pounds contained - -	868
So that the whole 12 lb. weight contained	3319 Balls,

Which, when wound off, was found to yield and make one pound and an ounce, or 17 ounces of fine ſilk, and about ſeven ounces of coarſe refuſe, unwound, in all a pound and half, avoirdupoiſe weight, or two pounds Troy; which is as great, or greater, making or yielding, as in any part of the world, and the ſilk as fine. I ſhewed it to a noted ſilk broker, who ſaid it was Italian ſilk (not knowing it was made in England) and worth about 20s. per pound, if I had ever ſo many bales of it, &c.

Now upon this experiment, finding that 3319 ſilk-balls would make one pound and one ounce of fine ſilk, I was deſirous to know what quantity of ſilk might be expected from the worms hatched from one ounce of eggs.

Of which to obtain the knowledge, I made uſe of the following method: by often weighing and telling, I found that 100 eggs weighed but one grain: ſo that if one grain contains 100, a ſcruple muſt contain 2000, and a drachm 6000, and an ounce, at eight drachms to the ounce, muſt contain 48,000 eggs. Now if every egg hatch a worm, and every worm makes a ſilk-ball, there muſt be, from one ounce, 48,000 ſilk-balls; and if 3319 balls will make one pound and one ounce of fine ſilk (which by experience I found they did) then 48,000 ſilk-balls will make 15 lb. 6 oz. of avoirdupoiſe weight in fine ſilk, or 18 lb. 8 oz. of Troy weight, which is very conſiderable. And in the ſame proportion, 1 lb. of ſilk-worms eggs will produce worms ſufficient to make above 180 lb. of ſilk. But allowing for caſualties, and ſuppoſing but 12 lb. of fine ſilk made from the worms and their ſilk-balls, produced from an ounce of ſilk-worms eggs, it will be found much to exceed moſt countries, according to Auguſtino Gallio's computation: for he ſaith, that in the ſouthern parts of France, viz. Languedoc and Provence, they make but 7 or 8 lb. of ſilk from ſilk-worms hatched from an ounce of eggs; and in Breſcia in Italy, but 8, 9, or 10 lb. of ſilk from an ounce of eggs; only in Calabria, where the ſilk-worms and their eggs are larger, they make 11 or 12 lb. of ſilk from an ounce of eggs, which ſtill does not exceed, nay hardly comes up to, what we make in England.

I have only this to add, that experience hath taught me how to hatch ſilk-worms twice in a year, ſo as to have two crops of ſilk in one year; and that the mulberry-trees will have leaves in England twice in a year, without prejudice to either tree or fruit, is moſt certainly true.

REMARKS on our article SILK, ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE, 1763.

The ſilk we have from Italy is generally thrown, and ſerves for warp for our manufactures, and the greater part we import from PIEDMONT, the whole principality not being larger than a ſmall Engliſh county; yet it is reckoned that the king of Sardinia receives at leaſt 200,000 l. of us yearly for that commodity, and all in ready money, for he hath loaded all our manufactures with very high duties, which is in effect a prohibition, and admits thoſe of France at a ſmall cuſtom; for which reaſon they ſupply his dominions with WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.

The prices we pay him for THROWN SILK are alſo extravagant, being in general above TWENTY SHILLINGS for every pound; nevertheleſs he appears to be very fond of keeping us dependent upon him; for an engine or machine being erected in this kingdom [ſee DERBYSHIRE] for throwing RAW SILK into ORGANZINE, to prevent the uſe thereof, we are told, he hath prohibited the exportation of RAW SILK out of his dominions; and we have now none from thence but what is got by ſtealth; however, the markets are open in other parts of Italy.

As we have but one water-engine of the quality of that in Derbyſhire for throwing ſilk in this kingdom, if that ſhould be deſtroyed by fire, or any other accident, it would make the throwing fine ſilk among us very precarious; and it is very much to be doubted, whether all the men now living in the kingdom could make ſuch another.

As we have commodious rivers for that purpoſe, whoſe ſtreams hold all the year, and run through large towns, where ſcarcely any manufactures are carried on, it would be matter of great conſequence to our ſilk manufacture to have three or four more erected, according to the model of that at Derby, though at the PUBLIC CHARGE, which would give us hopes of preſerving that manufacture among us for ever; and we ſhould come in for a part of the fine raw ſilk of Granada, Valentia, Murcia, and other provinces in Spain, as well as the products of ſeveral parts of Italy, in exchange for our woollen manufactures, and not be tied down to the ſtrict rules of paying our ready money, as we are now, to the duke of Savoy; and when once fully employed, the profit in a ſhort time might defray the whole expence. See the article SILK.

It certainly is extremely impolitic for us to depend for ſilk imported from any foreign country, provided we can be able to furniſh ourſelves with ſo valuable a material in our own plantation; a matter that has been long hoped for and expected hitherto in vain. Some have attributed this to the unkindlineſs of the climate in our continental colonies; [ſee our article SILK WORMS] but it being aſſerted many years ſince, that Georgia did actually produce ſilk of a good quality, as good, as was then ſaid, as that of the Piedmonteſe itſelf; and yet no conſiderable quantities hitherto having been there produced in ſo many years, many have doubted the veracity of the production. Whether it has been owing to want of the proper care, and effectual encouragement, we cannot ſay; but this others have thought to have been the real cauſe, and not any unfavourableneſs in the clime. It has been judged by many, who have been well acquainted as reſidents in our plantations of Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Penſylvania, more northerly climes than Georgia, that thoſe colonies would produce the beſt ſilk, and as fit for organzine as any in the world; for theſe countries afford vaſt numbers of white and other mulberry-trees, which grow wild, and ſpring up almoſt every where in great abundance, which looks as if nature had called us thither to propagate that manufacture, long before now, in thoſe plantations: but if theſe climes are rather too northerly for the delicate tenderneſs of the ſilk-worm; now we are poſſeſſed of the FLORIDAS, the moſt ſoutherly of thoſe continental plantations, we can have no excuſe, if we are wanting in our efforts to attempt this capital material, and that in the moſt effectual and vigorous manner, that the climate will admit of.—It is to be hoped, that no poſſible care, or even expence, that can be afforded, will be ſpared to ſet this deſign a-foot; for in time it certainly will prove of as great advantage to this nation, as any employment in the plantations; the manufacture of ſilk being a more profitable undertaking, where the air and land are happily adapted to raiſing the production needful in competent quantities.

It has been a diſpute, whether the manufacture of ſilk, woollen, or linen, is moſt conſiderable in the world. Many travellers ſay the ſilk manufacture exceeds either of the other two; and they aſſign this reaſon for it, that the people of CHINA, who are computed to be two hundred millions in number, are chiefly cloathed with ſilk garments, which indiſputably demonſtrates it to abound with the greateſt quantity of ſilk of any country in the world, it being there ſo very plentiful and cheap, that ſeveral of the Jeſuits affirm, five ſuits of ſilk there do not exceed the price of one ſuit of woollen in Europe.

Certain it is that Perſia, India, and China, had the manufacture of ſilk long before it came into Europe, the firſt that was brought being in the time of Auguſtus.—We manufacture at preſent very great quantities of thrown and raw ſilk in this kingdom; it is thought to be ſix times, at leaſt, as much as it was about threeſcore years ago; for then we were ſupplied with French and Italian ſilks, all fully manufactured. The vaſt riches of China, ariſing from this manufacture, is ſufficient to demonſtrate the great advantage thereof; and the extraordinary treaſure the duke of Savoy draws into his country by ſilk, which is made in the little principality of Piedmont, as before obſerved, is alſo another inſtance: we may judge, if he draws above 200,000 l. ſterling a year from this kingdom, what his profits are, which he draws from Holland, and other places where the manufacture is carried on to a very great degree.

We are informed the very land for planting of mulberry-trees, in many parts of Italy, is worth from three to five pounds an acre; and gentlemen there, as well as in Sicily, ſell their mulberry leaves to the poor for one half the ſilk they make,

make, and the money is equally divided between them upon ſale of the ſilk; and that the leaves of a tree there have yielded three or four pounds.

Now if the manufacture of ſilk, and the planting of mulberry-trees has raiſed the land to be ſo valuable, and ſome gentlemen receive ſuch conſiderable revenues from their crops of leaves, very great things may be expected by our effectually encouraging and promoting the manufacture of ſilk in our colonies, where as much land may be had for ſixpence, as in Italy for five pounds. And if great numbers of mulberry-trees were planted among the Indian nation, when they ſhall be duly reconciled to our people, bordering on our ſettlements, and ſome ſkilful, good-tempered, perſons employed to inſtruct them in the proper ſeaſons for gathering leaves, and feeding the worms, and rewarding them bountifully for their pains, thoſe people might be brought to be very profitable ſubjects to this nation. The Spaniards, while FLORIDA was in their hands, notwithſtanding their pride, were condeſcending enough to inſtruct ſome of the Indians, under their juriſdiction, to render them very ſerviceable in carrying on and improving the manufactures of indigo, cochineal, and ſeveral others, to the great advantage of New Spain. The French alſo, while they poſſeſſed CANADA, in their ſettlements about the river St. Lawrence and the great lakes, and on the Miſſiſſippi, took a great deal of pains to inſtruct them in every thing they thought might contribute towards enriching their mother-country. They went with them on their long travels in their hunting ſeaſons; and while they had CAPE BRETON, made theſe INDIANS inhabiting that part of the continent, very uſeful to them in their FISHERIES. If the Spaniards and French engaged thoſe people to be ſo ſerviceable to them, I do not ſee it is impoſſible, if kindneſs, juſtice, and good nature was duly exerciſed towards them, but they may be brought to be highly ſerviceable to Great-Britain alſo.

No part of the world ſhould ſeem to be better adapted to the brood of the ſilk-worm than our colonies now are; conſiſtent not only with philoſophic ſpeculation on the various climes and ſituations thereof, but from the unqueſtionable experience of moſt other parts of the world, where this material is produced of the beſt qualities, and the greateſt emolument. It is generally obſerved, that all thoſe countries which afford the beſt ſilk, border upon the ſea, and lie pretty near the ſame latitude; our plantations, the province of Gilon and Nanking, and Chekian in China, all border upon the ſea, and are pretty near the ſame latitude. Thoſe places in Turkey that produce ſilk, border upon the ſea, and Italy and Sicily are, in a manner, environed by the ſea; likewiſe the provinces of Granada, Murcia, and Valentia in Spain; the places that yield the beſt ſilk, as well as Languedoc and Provence in France; all lie upon the ſea.

Provided we ſhould never be able to induce our neighbouring Indians in North-America to become uſeful to us in this valuable production, may not the negroes from Africa prove ſo? As the great advantages that accrue to Portugal and Spain, as well as to ourſelves in our ſugar and tobacco plantations, is by the cheap labour of negroes, may not the ſame cheapneſs of labour be alſo of prodigious benefit to us, if employed in our COLONIES, in producing and making of ſilk? And when that ſeaſon is over, may not the ſame negroes ſervants turn their hands to raiſing and dreſſing of hemp and flax, the charge being little more than their cloathing from England; for the earth there produces proviſions in abundant plenty?

We are told by gentlemen of good intelligence, that the whole charge of making a pound of ſilk in China does not ſtand in above five ſhillings, and almoſt any perſon, man, woman, or child, may work at it; and a man or woman, with a child to aſſiſt in directing the thread of the ſilk, may, with a proper machine, reel from the coocone or ſilk-bag, one pound in a day.

Where we have, at preſent, proper land in our plantations for little or nothing, and might have labour performed as above, it is not unreaſonable to ſuppoſe that ſilk could ſtand us in ſo much as it may do the Chineſe. A manufacture of this kind might be brought, in a little time, to ſo great a degree of perfection, and ſuch quantities raiſed, that I ſhould conceive the labour of negroes employed in this work would produce above twice as much as thoſe that are employed in planting either ſugar or tobacco: and as this nation now greatly inclines to the wearing of ſilk garments in imitation of the French, to the great diſcouragement of our woollen manufactures, the manufacture of ſilk from our plantations would not only enable us to ſupply ourſelves amply therewith, but enable us to export large quantities of ſilk fully manufactured.

SILK MANUFACTURE of CHINA. It may be ſaid that China is the country of ſilk, and ſeems to be an inexhauſtible ſource of that commodity. It not only furniſhes ſilk to a great number of nations in Europe and Aſia, but alſo the emperor, the princes, the mandarins, the literati, the women, and, in a word, all thoſe in eaſy circumſtances, wear habits of ſilk, and are cloathed with ſattin or damaſk; very few, except the vulgar or country people, wear cotton painted blue.

The ſeveral provinces of China furniſh perfectly beautiful ſilks, yet ſuch as come from Tche-hiang are undoubtedly the beſt and fineſt. The Chineſe judge of good ſilk by its whiteneſs, ſoftneſs, and fineneſs; for if, in handling it, it is rough to the touch, it is a bad ſign. Sometimes, to make it look well, they prepare it with a certain rice-water, mixed with lime, which burns it, and renders it incapable of being manufactured when tranſported into Europe.

This is not the caſe with that which is pure, for nothing can be more eaſily wove, and a Chineſe workman will work upon it in an hour without breaking a ſingle thread.

Their looms are very different from thoſe of Europe, and much more ſimple. Two or three windles and a wheel are ſufficient to do it; and, in a word, it is ſurprizing to ſee the ſimplicity of the inſtruments with which they make the moſt beautiful ſtuffs. At Canton there is a ſort of ſilk, which comes from Tong-hing, but it is not comparable to that brought from the province of Tche-hiang, provided this laſt is not too moiſt, which we ought to beware of; for the Chineſe, who are generally wont to cheat, ſometimes put into the heart of the packet one or two parcels of coarſe ſilk, widely different from that on the ſurface. See the article CHINA.

Of this ſilk the moſt beautiful ſtuffs are made in the province of Kiang-nan; for to this province moſt of the good workmen repair, and it furniſhes the emperor with all the ſilks he uſes, and thoſe he makes preſents of to the grandees and lords of his court. The great trade of Canton, where foreign merchants abound, alſo draws a vaſt number of good tradeſmen to it.

They could make ſtuffs as rich as thoſe of Europe, if they were ſure of their ſale; but they generally employ themſelves on the moſt ſimple kind, becauſe the Chineſe are fonder of what is uſeful than of what is beautiful.

They, indeed, make gold ſtuffs, but they do not paſs their gold through the drawing-mill, as they do in Europe, in order to twiſt it with the thread, but are content to gild a long leaf of paper, which they cut into narrow ſlips, with which they cover the ſilk, with a great deal of dexterity.

Theſe ſtuffs are very beautiful at firſt, but do not laſt long; neither are they very proper for wearing apparel, becauſe the air and the moiſture ſoon tarniſh the ſplendor of the gold. They are moſt proper for curious pieces of furniture, and the ornaments of churches; and none but the mandarins and their wives cloath themſelves with theſe ſtuffs, and that very ſeldom.

The pieces of ſilk moſt uſed by the Chineſe are gauzes, both of the plain and flowered kind, of which they make ſummer habits; damaſks of all ſorts and colours; ſtriped ſattins, and the black ſattins of Nankin; corded taffeties, which wear well; ſeveral other ſorts of taffeties, ſome with flowers, and others ſtriped in a beautiful manner; crapes, brocades, and different ſorts of velvets: of this laſt the crimſon is the deareſt, but it is eaſy to be deceived in it; the beſt method of diſcovering the fraud, is to take lemon-juice, mixed with lime, and ſprinkle ſome drops of it on different parts, and, if the colour changes, it is a ſign that it is bad.

The Chineſe alſo make a prodigious number of other ſtuffs, two of which are moſt generally uſed among them.

Firſt, a ſort of ſattin, ſtronger, and leſs gloſſy than that made in Europe. This is ſometimes plain, and ſometimes adorned with flowers, trees, birds, and butterflies.

Secondly, a particular taffety, of which they make drawers, and other ſorts of wearing apparel. It is thick, and yet ſo pliant, that we may fold it and preſs it with our hand, without leaving any mark in it. They alſo waſh it, like other ſtuffs, without loſing a great deal of its luſtre.

The Chineſe workmen give the luſtre to this taffety with the fat of the river-porpoiſe, which they purify by waſhing and boiling; then with a fine bruſh they give the taffety two beds in the ſame direction, on the ſide they intend to render gloſſy. When they work in the night-time, they uſe this fat melted in their lamps inſtead of oil, becauſe its ſmell baniſhes the flies from the place, which is looked upon as a great advantage, ſince theſe inſects, by lighting on the work, are very detrimental to it.

The province of Cang-tong furniſhes a particular ſilk, which is found in large quantities on the trees and in the fields. When it is ſpun, they make a ſtuff of it called kein-tcheou, and this ſilk is produced by ſmall inſects, which nearly reſemble caterpillars. They do not ſpin it round nor oval, as ſilk-worms do, but in very long threads, which adhere to the buſhes and ſhrubs, as the wind puſhes them to one ſide or another. They gather theſe threads, and make of them ſilk ſtuffs, coarſer than thoſe which are ſpun in houſes. Theſe worms are wild, and eat indifferently the leaves of the mulberry, and thoſe of other trees. Perſons unacquainted with this ſtuff, would take it for a rough ſtuff, or a coarſe drugget.

The worms which ſpin this ſilk are of two kinds; and the firſt, which is larger and blacker than our ſilk-worm, is called tſouen-kien; and the ſecond, which is ſmaller, is called tiao-kien. The cotton of the firſt is of a reddiſh grey; but that of the other is blacker; and the ſtuffs made of them retain theſe two colours. It is very cloſe, does not cut, laſts long,

waſhes

waſhes like ſtuff, and, when it is good, ſpots do not ſpoil it, not even thoſe of oil, but come out of their own accord. This ſtuff is much eſteemed by the Chineſe, and is ſometimes as dear as the ſattins and beſt-made ſilks. As the Chineſe are very dexterous in counterfeiting, they make falſe kien-tcheou, with the refuſe of the ſilk of the hiang, and it is very eaſy to be deceived, if we are not very careful.
The workmen of Canton alſo make ribbands, ſilk ſtockings, and buttons, to great perfection.

An ACT of PARLIAMENT for repealing the DUTIES payable on CHINA RAW SILK, and for granting other DUTIES in lieu thereof, made in the year 1750.

'Whereas the duties now payable upon raw ſilk imported from China are a great diſcouragement to the importation thereof: and whereas a conſtant and plentiful ſupply of that valuable commodity to be manufactured in this kingdom, will be a public benefit, and greatly contribute to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures: therefore we, your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the commons of Great-Britain, being deſirous to promote and encourage the manufactures of this kingdom, do moſt humbly beſeech your Majeſty, that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the 24th of June, 1750, the ſeveral rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, now payable upon the importation of raw ſilk of the growth or produce of China, by virtue of ſeveral acts of parliament now in force, ſhall ceaſe, determine, and be no longer paid.
And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the ſaid 24th of June, all raw ſilk imported from China into this kingdom, by the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies, or by any licence from the ſaid company, ſhall, in lieu of the ſaid rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act repealed, as aforeſaid, be charged with, and pay the ſame rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, as are now charged upon, and payable for, raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Italy; which ſaid rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act granted, ſhall be paid by the ſaid united Eaſt-India company, at the ſame times, and in the ſame manner, as the ſeveral rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act repealed, as aforeſaid, have been paid.
And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That the ſeveral rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act granted, ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected, paid, and applied, in ſuch manner, and for the ſame purpoſes, as the ſaid ſeveral rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act repealed, as aforeſaid, are now reſpectively raiſed, levied, collected, paid, and applied; and all the proviſions of or in any act or law now in force for raiſing, levying, collecting, paying, and applying the rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, hereby repealed, as aforeſaid, ſhall be in full force, and ſhall be put in execution for raiſing, levying, collecting, paying, and applying the rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act granted, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purpoſes, as if the ſaid proviſions were particularly repeated and re-enacted in the body of this preſent act.
And it is further enacted and declared, by the authority aforeſaid, That all raw ſilk of the growth or produce of China, imported after the ſaid 24th of June, ſhall, upon the exportation thereof from this kingdom, be entitled to, and receive the ſame drawbacks and allowances only, as are now by law directed to be paid upon the exportation of raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Italy, any law or uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding.'

An ACT of PARLIAMENT for encouraging the CULTURE of RAW SILK in his MAJESTY's COLONIES, or PLANTATIONS, in AMERICA.

'Whereas it will greatly tend to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom, to encourage the growth and culture of ſilk in his Majeſty's dominions in America, may it therefore pleaſe your Majeſty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the 24th of June, 1750, it ſhall and may be lawful to import any raw ſilks of the growth and culture of any of his Majeſty's colonies, or plantations in America, directly from thence into the port of London, without paying any ſubſidy, cuſtom, impoſition, or other duty whatſoever, for the ſame, ſo as a due entry be firſt made thereof in the cuſtom-houſe, at the time of importation, and in the ſame manner and form (expreſſing the package, marks, and numbers, together with the quantities and qualities of the reſpective goods) as was uſed and practiſed before the making of this act, and ſo as the ſame be landed in the preſence of, and examined by, the proper officer or officers of the cuſtoms appointed for that purpoſe, and ſo as the ſame be imported in ſhips or veſſels that may lawfully trade to his Majeſty's plantations, manned as by law required: and on failure of the ſaid conditions, or directions, herein laſt mentioned, ſuch ſilks ſhall be liable to the payment of the reſpective duties, as if this act had never been made.
Provided always, and be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That in order to intitle the importer and importers of raw ſilk to the exemption intended by this act, every merchant, or other perſon or perſons whatſoever, who ſhall, after the 24th of June, 1750, load any raw ſilk on board any ſhip or veſſel, in any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, ſhall, before the clearing out of the ſaid ſhip or veſſel from thence, make proof on oath, before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, at the port or place where ſuch raw ſilk ſhall be put on board, or any of them, that the raw ſilk, which he, ſhe, or they, hath, or have, ſhipped on board the ſaid ſhip, or veſſel (expreſſing the quantity thereof) is bona fide of the growth and culture of ſome or one of the Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America, expreſſing the pariſh or place in ſuch plantation where the ſame was cultivated and produced, and by whom, producing ſuch perſon's oath thereto, made before the governor of ſuch iſland or province, or before the next juſtice of the peace (which oath the ſaid governor, or juſtice of the peace, collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, are hereby required and impowered to adminiſter without fee or reward) and the maſter, commander, or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip, or veſſel, on board which ſuch raw ſilk ſhall be loaded, ſhall alſo bring with him a certificate, or certificates, from ſuch collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, as aforeſaid, under their hands and ſeals of office (which certificate, or certificates, ſuch collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, are hereby required and directed to grant without fee or reward) expreſſing the marks, number, tale, and weight of the raw ſilk in each bale, parcel, or other package whatſoever, ſo ſhipped, or loaded on board ſuch ſhip, or veſſel, with the names, place, or places of abode, of the exporter, or exporters thereof, from the ſaid Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America, and the name or names, place or places of abode, of ſuch other perſon or perſons, who ſhall have ſworn the goods therein mentioned to have been of the growth and culture of the ſaid Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America, and the name, or names, of the perſon, or perſons, to whom the ſame are conſigned in the port of London; which certificate, or certificates, the ſaid maſter, commander, or other perſon taking charge of ſuch ſhip, or veſſel, ſhall, on his arrival in the ſaid port of London, deliver to the collector, comptroller, or other chief officer of his Majeſty's cuſtoms at the ſaid port, at or before the entry of the ſaid raw ſilk; and at the ſame time ſhall make oath, before any one of them the ſaid collector, comptroller, or chief officer of his Majeſty's cuſtoms (who are hereby required and impowered to adminiſter the ſame without fee or reward) that the ſaid bales and parcels, and goods mentioned in ſuch certificate, are the ſame bales and parcels, and goods, as were taken on board in the ſaid Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America; and if any raw ſilk of the growth and culture of the Britiſh colonies or plantations, in America, ſhall, after the ſaid 24th of June, 1750, be imported as herein before mentioned, without ſuch certificate, ſigned and delivered as herein before required, and oath made as before directed, by the maſter, commander, or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip, or veſſel, in which the ſame is imported, all ſuch raw ſilks ſhall be liable to the payment of the reſpective duties, as if this act had never been made, any thing herein before contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.
And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall, from and after the ſaid 24th day of June, 1750, make, or cauſe to be made, an entry, or entries, of any foreign raw ſilk, under the name, or deſcription, of raw ſilk of the growth, or culture, of any of the Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America, or ſhall mix, or cauſe to be mixed, any foreign raw ſilk with raw ſilk of the growth or culture of the Britiſh colonies, or plantations, in America, with intent to evade the payment of the duties payable on foreign raw ſilk, every perſon or perſons ſo making, or cauſing to be made, ſuch entry, or entries, or mixing, or cauſing ſuch mixture or mixtures to be made, ſhall forfeit and loſe the ſum of 50l. for every ſuch offence, and all ſuch foreign raw ſilk; and in caſe of any mixture, the quantity ſo mixed, both of foreign and Britiſh-plantation culture or growth, or the value thereof, together with the bales, or other packages containing the ſame, ſhall be forfeited, and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſecuted, or the value thereof be ſued for by any officer, or officers, of his Majeſty's cuſtoms; one moiety of which penalties and forfeitures ſhall be to the uſe of his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or them that ſhall ſeize, proſecute, or ſue for the ſame, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter.
Provided always, that if any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe, whether the ſaid raw ſilk, or any part thereof, ſo to be imported as aforeſaid, is of the growth or culture of the Britiſh

colonies or plantations in America, or of foreign growth or culture, the onus probandi ſhall lie on the owner or claimer thereof, and not on the informer and proſecutor; any law, cuſtom, or uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced againſt any perſon or perſons for any thing done in purſuance of this act, the defendant or defendants, in ſuch action or ſuit, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act and the ſpecial matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the ſame was done in purſuance and by authority of this act: and if it ſhall appear ſo to have been done, then the jury ſhall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff ſhall be nonſuited, or diſcontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants ſhall have appeared, or if judgment ſhall be given upon any verdict or demurrer againſt the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants ſhall and may recover treble coſts, and have the like remedy for the ſame, as defendants have in other caſes by law.'

REMARKS.

Such has been the encouragement given by the legiſlature, to the culture of raw ſilk in our AMERICAN colonies. An ample ſupply of this commodity, however, can be brought only from ASIA, unleſs we make ſome very extraordinary improvements. EUROPE, during the laſt war, did not produce the uſual quantity, nor has the price of ſome particular kinds declined ſince that time: for the conſumption of this article increaſes rather than diminiſhes. The EAST-INDIA company, therefore, having, we preſume, previouſly taken their meaſures, applied to parliament for an alteration of the duty on CHINA ſilk (as we ſee by the preceding act), the obtaining of which affords an encouragement to the importation of it; and, no doubt, by means of the company, we ſhall have a ſufficient quantity *; which will prove highly beneficial to the ſilk manufacture of this kingdom. And,

For the further encouraging this important manufacture, the following act paſſed in the year 1753.

* In 1752 we find accordingly a large ſupply of CHINA raw ſilk arrived.

An act for encouraging the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom, and for ſecuring the duties payable upon the importation of velvets, wrought ſilks, and ſilks mixed with other materials, not manufactured in Great-Britain.

'Whereas the payment of the duties charged and made payable by divers acts of parliament, upon the importation of velvets, wrought ſilks, and ſilks mixed with other materials not manufactured in Great-Britain, is frequently evaded by the ſubtil and fraudulent practices of evil-diſpoſed perſons, to the great diſcouragement of the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom, and the loſs of his Majeſty's revenue: therefore, for preventing ſuch frauds and abuſes for the future, be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That all velvets, wrought ſilks, and ſilks mixed with any other materials (ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, and ſilks mixed with any other materials, not being manufactured in Great-Britain, and ſuch wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, not being prohibited to be worn therein) which ſhall be imported into this kingdom, after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-three, ſhall after the ſame have been entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and before they are diſcharged by the officers, and delivered into the cuſtody of the importer or his agent, be marked or ſealed at each end of every piece, with ſuch mark or ſeal, and by ſuch officer or officers, as the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain ſhall direct and appoint for that purpoſe.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the ſaid twenty-ninth day of September, every perſon intending to export any ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed with any other materials, as herein before are mentioned and deſcribed, which ſhall have been imported into this kingdom, after the ſaid twenty-ninth day of September, ſhall before ſuch goods are ſhipped in order to be exported, give notice to the proper officer or officers to be appointed for that purpoſe, by the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, when and where he will pack up the ſaid goods in order to be exported; and the ſaid commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are hereby impowered and required to cauſe ſuch officer or officers, to take care that ſuch ſeals, ſtamps, or marks, be taken off from every piece ſo intended to be exported, without fee or reward; and no perſon ſhall be intitled to the drawback allowed upon the exportation of ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, unleſs he ſhall have given ſuch notice as herein before is directed, and until ſuch ſeals, ſtamps, or marks, ſhall be taken off by the proper officer or officers as aforeſaid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-four, in caſe any velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed with any other materials (ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed with any other materials, not being manufactured in Great-Britain, and ſuch wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, not being prohibited to be worn therein) ſhall be found in any ſhop, warehouſe, or other place whatſoever, upon land within this kingdom, not being marked or ſealed as herein before directed, upon both ends of every whole and entire piece, or upon one end of every remnant of ſuch velvet, wrought ſilk, or ſilk mixed as aforeſaid, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, and ſhall and may be ſeized by any officer or officers of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in ſome or one of his Majeſty's warehouſes; and ſuch officer or officers is and are hereby indemnified for ſo doing; and all ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, ſo ſeized and ſecured, ſhall, after condemnation thereof in due courſe of law, be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder, and one moiety of the produce ariſing by the ſale of ſuch velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, ſhall be to the uſe of his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to the officer or officers who ſhall ſeize and ſecure the ſame as aforeſaid; and the perſon in whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion the goods ſo ſeized and ſecured ſhall be found, ſhall alſo, for every ſuch offence, forfeit the ſum of two hundred pounds, to be recovered and divided in manner herein after directed.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That no velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed with any other materials as aforeſaid, which after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-four, ſhall be ſeized and forfeited by virtue of this act, or for any other cauſe of forfeiture, ſhall be conſumed or uſed in this kingdom, but ſhall be exported again, and not ſold otherwiſe than on condition to be exported, and ſhall not be delivered out of the warehouſe wherein the ſame ſhall have been ſecured, until ſufficient ſecurity be given, that the ſame and every part thereof ſhall be exported, and not landed again in any part of Great-Britain.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall at any time forge or counterfeit any ſtamp, mark, or ſeal, to reſemble any ſtamp, mark, or ſeal, which ſhall be provided or uſed in purſuance of this act, or ſhall forge or counterfeit the impreſſion of any ſuch ſtamp, mark, or ſeal, upon any goods required by this act to be ſtamped, marked, or ſealed, or ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any of the ſaid goods with a counterfeit ſtamp, mark, or ſeal thereon, knowing the ſame to be counterfeited; all and every ſuch offender and offenders, their aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants, ſhall, for each and every ſuch offence, forfeit the ſum of five hundred pounds, and ſhall alſo be adjudged to ſtand on the pillory in ſome public place for the ſpace of two hours.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That all pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act impoſed, ſhall and may be ſued for and recovered in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh reſpectively, by action, bill, plaint, or information, in the name of his Majeſty's attorney-general, or in the name of his Majeſty's advocate in Scotland, or in the name or names of ſome officer or officers of the cuſtoms; and that one moiety of every ſuch penalty and forfeiture ſhall be to his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety thereof to the officer or officers of the cuſtoms who ſhall inform and proſecute for the ſame.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That if any officer or officers of the cuſtoms ſhall neglect or refuſe, for the ſpace of one month, to proſecute to effect any perſon or perſons for any pecuniary penalty or forfeiture by this act inflicted upon offenders againſt the ſame, that then it ſhall be lawful for any perſon or perſons whomſoever to ſue for, proſecute, and recover the reſpective pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act inflicted, in like manner as is herein before directed with regard to the officers of the cuſtoms; and one moiety of the ſaid reſpective forfeitures, when recovered, ſhall, in ſuch caſe, go and be applied to the uſe of his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to the perſon or perſons who ſhall ſue or proſecute for the ſame reſpectively.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That upon every action, bill, plaint, or information, entered and filed as aforeſaid, for any pecuniary penalty impoſed by this act, a capias in the firſt proceſs ſhall and may iſſue, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for; and the defendant or defendants ſhall be obliged to give ſufficient bail or ſecurity by natural-born ſubjects, perſons naturalized or denizens, to the perſon or perſons to whom ſuch capias ſhall be directed, to appear in the court out of which ſuch capias ſhall iſſue, at the day of the return of ſuch writ, to anſwer ſuch ſuit or proſecution; and ſhall likewiſe, at the time of ſuch appearance, give ſufficient bail or ſecurity, by ſuch perſons as aforeſaid, in the ſaid court, to anſwer and pay all the forfeitures and penalties incurred for ſuch offence or offences, in caſe he, ſhe, or they ſhall be convicted thereof, or to yield his, her, or their body or bodies to priſon.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced againſt any perſon or perſons

perſons for any thing done in purſuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in ſuch action or ſuit may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, and the ſpecial matter in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon; and that the ſame was done in purſuance, and by authority of this act: and if it ſhall appear ſo to have been done, then the jury ſhall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff ſhall be nonſuited, or diſcontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants ſhall have appeared; or if judgment ſhall be given upon any verdict or demurrer againſt the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants ſhall recover treble coſts, and have the like remedy for the ſame as defendants have in other caſes by law. And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, ſhall be ſeized by virtue and in purſuance of this act; and if any doubt or queſtion ſhall ariſe, where the ſaid velvets, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed as aforeſaid, were manufactured, the proof ſhall lie upon the owner or claimer thereof, and not upon the proſecutor; any law, uſage, or cuſtom to the contrary notwithſtanding.

REMARKS.

Silk is a material for a very conſiderable manufacture; which being brought from abroad raw, we here twiſt, dye, and weave into different goodneſſes, both plain, ſtriped, and flowered, either by itſelf, or mixed with gold and ſilver; ſo richly brocaded, that we are allowed to exceed thoſe from whom we had the art. Of this material alſo are made great quantities of ribbons, ſtockings, and other things; not only to ſerve ourſelves, but alſo to export.

Our importation of raw and thrown ſilk is from Turkey, Italy, Sicily, and India.

1. Thrown ſilk comes chiefly from Leghorn, Genoa, Naples, and Meſſina.

2. Raw ſilk from Turkey, that is, Perſia by the way of Turkey, Bengal in India, and from China.

All this ſilk is manufactured in Great-Britain, very little excepted, which is ſometimes re-exported unwrought, chiefly to Ireland. The growth and increaſe of the conſumption of ſilk in theſe kingdoms, has been much owing to the high duties on French wrought ſilks, particularly their alamodes, luſtrings, [ſee ALAMODES and LUSTRINGS] and rich broad ſilks of every kind; but more eſpecially to the prohibiting the uſe and wearing of EAST-INDIA wrought ſilks, which were formerly worn in England to an extraordinary degree; inſomuch that one ſhip from India, namely, the Taviſtock, brought in one article of wrought ſilk 9000 pieces of damaſk (beſides a great many of ſeveral other ſorts) each of which was worth at market, one with another, 9 l. or more: ſo that the ſaid damaſk only amounted to 89,000 l. ſterling.

At the making of the treaty of Utrecht, the ſtate of the ſilk trade was then repreſented as follows *.

* See The Britiſh Merchant.

'As to our increaſe of the ſilk manufacture at home, this will appear in ſome meaſure by the vaſt increaſe of the importation of raw and thrown ſilks from foreign countries, from Turkey, Italy, and the Eaſt-Indies.

But here I muſt acknowlege, that the importation of ardaſs, or coarſe Perſia ſilk, from Turkey, is vaſtly abated. This has been principally occaſioned by the impoſition of ſuch duties on it as it could not bear. But then this loſs has been in part ſupplied by a vaſt importation of grogram yarns; and beſides this, the importation of bellandine, or white Turkey ſilk, and of ſherbaffee of Perſia, is greater now, than that of theſe and the cheap ardaſs ſilk, joined together, ever was before the beginning of the firſt war. All the work, therefore, that was formerly done with ardaſs ſilks, and is now performed by grogram yarn, together with the whole increaſe of the number of bales imported from that country more than formerly, muſt be placed to the account of the increaſe of the ſilk manufacture in England.

I will not pretend to determine the value of this increaſe; all I will ſay here, ſhall be only to explain it. Suppoſe then, that formerly our annual importation of ardaſs, and other ſilks imported from Turkey, amounted to 1500 bales, and that, at this time, the importation of bellandine and ſherbaffee amounted to 1600 bales of ſilk; at firſt ſight, this would look as if only a hundred bales of ſilk more were brought into the Engliſh manufacture: but if the grogram yarn, which is for the moſt part a new importation, ſhould be allowed to ſupply 500 bales of ardaſs ſilk, and that, nevertheleſs, 1600 bales of raw ſilk from Turkey are imported; then it would be manifeſt, that not only 100, but 600 bales of our preſent annual importation, muſt either be re-exported, or added to our ſilk manufacture. If it ſhall be allowed that the Turkey trade, by this means, furniſhes 600 bales of ſilk per annum to our manufacture, more than it did before, I ſhall be very glad to be informed, whether ſuch a quantity is not ſufficient to produce 80 or 90,000 lb. weight of wrought ſilk? The Turkey merchants, or rather the weavers of Spitalfields, might certainly anſwer this queſtion; and alſo, whether, at leaſt, 600 bales of Turkey ſilk are not brought annually to our looms, more than before the beginning of king William's war.

But we are yet more ſure of our importation of Piedmonteſe and Bergamo ſilks; this amounts to near a thouſand bales in a year, and is wholly new. Of theſe, and other Italian thrown and raw ſilks, we uſe at leaſt 1200 bales annually at our looms more than we did before the beginning of the firſt war. And whence is this prodigious increaſe of our ſilk manufacture, but from the interruption of our commerce with France, and the prohibition of Eaſt-India ſilks?

I have by me an account of the Eaſt-India raw ſilks imported for ſeveral years laſt paſt; the whole quantity, at a medium, will make 400 bales per annum: ſo much of this as is not re-exported, is uſed at the Engliſh looms. If, by theſe ſeveral articles, 2000 bales are uſed at our looms, more than formerly, the weavers will be ready to anſwer, whether the produce will amount to leſs than 280,000 lb. weight of wrought ſilk; and this quantity, at 50 l. per pound, will make the increaſe of our ſilk manufacture 700,000 l. per annum. I am very ready to believe that ſuch has been the increaſe, from what was aſſerted at the bar of the laſt Houſe of Commons, by a gentleman well ſkilled in theſe matters.

He aſſerted, that our manufacture of luſtrings, alamodes, and other black ſilks, for hoods and ſcarves only, amounted to - - -	300,000 l. per ann.
Of ſilks for linings of clothes, in imitation of perſians, to - -	150,000
Of ſilk handkerchiefs -	200,000
The whole of theſe articles -	650,000 l. per ann.

All this, beſides the recovery of ſtuffs and cottons mixed with ſilks, which before were almoſt loſt to this kingdom.

Luſtrings and alamodes are now very little uſed; the ſilks that are uſed in their ſtead, are raſtiegeans and mantua ſilks, which are quite a different fabric. But the whole value, it ſeems, of our black ſilks is 300,000 l. per annum. This is an entire new manufacture to England, with which, before the firſt war, we were wholly ſerved by France. This is not ſuch a prodigious ſum as people may imagine; it amounts to little more than 1 s. 8 d. per annum, for every one of the female ſex; and we may very well conceive, that 300,000 of this ſex are in theſe ſilks every one at the charge of 20 s. per annum, which makes up the whole ſum: but whatever is the quantity, France ſerved us with the whole before.

For brocades, and other rich ſilks, almoſt the whole quantity uſed in England, were the manufacture of that nation, as well as great part of the perſians for linings: and if this laſt ſort made in England amounts to 150,000 l. per annum, the whole of theſe two articles imported, may very well be believed to be the value of 200,000 l. per annum.

The above-mentioned articles, and that of ſilk handkerchiefs, make it credible, that I am not much miſtaken in my computation of 2000 bales of ſilk manufactured by our own looms, more than were before the interruption of the French commerce, and the prohibition of Eaſt-India manufactures: whether ſuch a manufacture, of ſo much value, deſerves our care or our contempt, is the next thing to be conſidered.

In the firſt place, I muſt inſiſt upon it, that the whole price of this increaſe of our ſilk manufacture, from the worm to the mercer's ſhop, is paid to the product of our lands, and to the labour of our people.

There can be no queſtion of the ſilks which are imported raw from Turkey, and manufactured here in England. No bullion is ſent to that country. The raw ſilks are purchaſed there for our woollen manufactures; and as a part of the price of theſe is paid to the land-holder for his wool, and the reſt to the labour of our people that made it up, it muſt be affirmed that the whole value of Turkey raw ſilk, is indirectly paid to our own people, by being paid to them for the goods that are exchanged for it: and as for the whole new value that is ſuperadded to it, for the charge of importing, throwing, weaving, and dyeing of this ſilk, it is entirely, and directly paid to the labour of our own people.

The ſame thing may be affirmed of the raw and thrown Italian ſilks; they are both purchaſed by an over-ballance of Engliſh manufactures exported to that country *; and if the whole value of theſe is directly paid to the Engliſh lands and labour, and if we could not hope to preſerve our Italian markets for them, without taking off their ſilks, it muſt be acknowleged, that our land-holders and labourers are indirectly paid the value of theſe ſilks, by being paid for the goods that are exchanged for them.

* Although ſilver is not ſent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet, in fact, it is the ſame thing; for the ballance of ſome other trade is carried thither, which otherwiſe would be remitted to us.

The only difficulty is concerning Eaſt-India raw ſilks, which are purchaſed partly by our ſilver, and partly by our manufactures.

factures. But of thoſe it muſt be acknowleged, that the whole price of importing and working them up is paid to the labour of our people. But as Eaſt-India raw ſilks are the leaſt part of our importation *, ſo it is of theſe that we make the greateſt re-exportations, and the countries to which we do it, reimburſe us not only our whole coſt of the re-exported raw ſilk that is imported from the Eaſt-Indies. However, the throwing of raw ſilk employs ſo many little and otherwiſe uſeleſs hands, that I ſhall never quarrel with the Eaſt-India trade for the ſilver it exports for thoſe uſeful materials.

* The caſe is greatly altered, ſince the act of parliament to encourage the importation of China ſilk.

But this can never be ſaid in defence of a trade, which exchanges our ſilver for foreign ſilks already manufactured to the very utmoſt perfection; for what can theſe be ſaid to pay our lands? what to the labour of our people? It were better for us to ſend our money to the Eaſt-Indies than to France, for theſe manufactured ſilks, not only becauſe they are purchaſed cheaper in the former, but becauſe the coſt of a long importation is all paid to our own navigation; beſides that, it were leſs dangerous to enrich a country at ſo great a diſtance, than ſo near a neighbour as the French nation.

But that which I am chiefly aiming at is, that this whole increaſe of the ſilk manufacture in England, is ſo much loſt to other nations: for all that pretend that we are not richer nor more populous than we were before the war, will grant, that our conſumption of wrought ſilks cannot be greater than it was before. Whence then is this increaſe of a manufacture to the value of 700,000l. per ann. gained? and to what countries is it loſt? It muſt be wholly loſt to France and the Eaſt-Indies, and how is this loſs to be proportioned?

Our whole quantity of black ſilks was heretofore brought from France; our own manufacture of this commodity amounts to 300,000l. per ann. France therefore has loſt in this article the ſelling us ſo great a value.

There is no reaſon to believe, that the whole value of Eaſt-India wrought ſilks annually conſumed in England ever amounted to 200,000l. per ann. It remains therefore to make up the whole 700,000l. per ann. that the value of 200,000l. per ann. more in brocades and other rich ſilks muſt have been imported from France.

Then let the cuſtom-houſe accounts make the wrought ſilks imported from France as much or as little as they pleaſe, the increaſe of the ſilk manufacture in England will demonſtrate, that our importation of this commodity from France was heretofore 500,000l. per annum.

By the extraordinary induſtry and ingenuity of our ſilk manufacturers, we have the ſatisfaction to obſerve, that the wear of French ſilks in general, is in this kingdom greatly diſcountenanced, by the wiſe and glorious example of his Majeſty and all the royal family: and, indeed, the fabrics of Spitalfields are now eſteemed to be ſuperior to thoſe of France. We have likewiſe many excellent deſigners among our weavers, which has not a little contributed to the increaſe of this manufacture, to that ſuperlative height to which it is arrived. See the article ENGRAVING. And if our manufacturers would follow the example of the French in making a very light and cheap ſort of ſilks, our exportation of theſe manufactures might reaſonably be expected to increaſe.

The late encouragement given by the legiſlature to the importation of China raw ſilk, it is to be hoped, will have a happy tendency to render a great part of our ſilk manufactures much cheaper than without this ſilk. For,

The China ſilk is not only of excellent ſtaple, but comes at little above one third of the price of Italian Piedmont ſilk. Before the late act, the duty of Bengal raw ſilk being one third more, and China near three times as much as that of the Italian, hindered our being ſupplied ſo fully as we ought, and was a great detriment to the nation; for we pay the duke of Savoy moſtly ready money for what we have from him, which as effectually drains us of our bullion, as the India or China trade does; with this aggravation, that according to Mr Gee, almoſt three pounds of China ſilk may be purchaſed for the money that one pound of Piedmont ſilk coſts us.

Although ſilver, as before obſerved, is not ſent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet in fact it is the ſame thing; for the ballance of ſome other trade is carried thither, which otherwiſe would be remitted to us.

The ſilk of China will anſwer, in moſt reſpects, the uſe of Italian ſilk, provided we could be conſtantly ſupplied with the fine raw ſilk of which they make their damaſks, ſattins, and other fine manufactures, which, by the curioſity of thoſe ſilks, muſt come up to the goodneſs of Italian ſilk.

The China ſilk that we commonly receive, is purchaſed at Canton, the neareſt port we trade to in China; but their fine ſilk is made in the province of Nankin and Chekiam, where their fine manufactures are carried on, and where prodigious quantities of raw ſilk are made, and the beſt in all China. We have never 'till lately imported any of the ſuperfine here, but two or three ſhips have brought extraordinary good, the beſt of which, we are informed, was brought from Amoy; and doubtleſs, if encouragement was given for the importation of that fine ſilk, it might be thrown here, and our manufactures carried on at a ſmall expence to the nation: the countries of Chekiam and Nankin that produce it, are much to the northward of the places we now trade to, and near Chuſan, about five or ſix hundred miles to the northward of Canton, an iſland in which we formerly had a factory, and were admitted to trade.

That country is very cold in winter, and I have been informed, ſome of our woollen goods have ſold very well there, eſpecially our callimancoes and long-ells.

Beſides, the countries of Chekiam and Nankin are near the heart of the empire, where the greateſt trade is drove; and Nankin being the metropolis of trade in that country, as London is in England, ſhe ſends out her manufactures and merchandize to Canton, as we do to Briſtol, and other outports. But, as Canton is the neareſt port, ſome captains and ſupercargoes raiſe objections againſt going further down the coaſt, alleging that it is a difficult pilotage, and in danger of loſing their paſſage back that year; that the mandarins, and other officers, impoſe upon them, which makes it difficult to trade with them. But when private traders had liberty to go to China, they were of another opinion; they went to thoſe places where they could get moſt money, and the people of Chuſan (where the merchants of Nankin as well as of Hamcheu and Nimpo, two other great trading cities, lodge great quantities of merchandize) would be as ready to cultivate a correſpondence with our captains and ſupercargoes, as the people of Canton are; and it is hoped we may find as much encouragement to trade to thoſe parts, as we now do to Canton, their intereſt being the ſame among them all. A trade of this nature cannot be immediately ſettled, good and prudent management and time muſt do that. Some of our ingenious gentlemen have found, that ſeveral of our commodities, as well as our woollens, would do very well towards the heart of China; and to ſpeak freely, every lover of his country ought to have the advantage thereof in view, as well as his own private gains. If this trade could be fixed, and any quantities vended in that vaſt country, and the fine ſilk above-mentioned imported, it would exceedingly add to the profits we already receive by the Indian trade, and bring thoſe advantages with it, that may enable us to vie with any kingdoms in Europe in the SILK MANUFACTURES; for as cheapneſs and goodneſs always give preference, SILK ſo imported from China will anſwer in both reſpects. And it is to be hoped, improvements of this kind will be readily undertaken by the company, and be an acceptable ſervice to them, as well as to the nation in general.' Joſhua Gee.—And we find that the company, from the preceding act of parliament, have in earneſt engaged in this affair; and we may hope for ſuch ſucceſs in our ſilk manufacture, by means of the Eaſt-India and Turkey raw ſilks, that we may not be outdone therein by any other country.

For more matter relating to the ſilk trade, ſee the article RUSSIA, in regard to the ſilk of Perſia being imported through Ruſſia. See alſo the articles LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE, for hints tending to ſome improvements to be made in our ſilk manufactures.

An ACT for explaining, amending, and rendering more effectual, an act made in the nineteenth year of the reign of king Henry the ſeventh, intitled SILK-WORKS.

'Whereas by an act paſſed in the nineteenth year of the reign of king Henry the ſeventh, intitled SILK-WORKS, it is, amongſt other things, ordained and enacted, that no manner of perſon ſhall from thenceforth bring, or cauſe to be brought, into the realm of England, to be ſold, any manner of ſilk wrought by itſelf, or with any other ſtuff, in any place out of the ſaid realm, in ribbands, laces, or girdles, upon pain of forfeiture of all the ſaid ribbands, laces, and girdles, and every of them, in whoſe hands ſoever they be found, or the values of the ſame, the one moiety to the king, and the other moiety unto any of the king's ſubjects that would ſue for the ſame: and whereas notwithſtanding the aforeſaid act, and the other laws now in being, great quantities of foreign manufactures, and particularly ribbands, laces, and girdles, are brought into, and ſold in this kingdom, to the great diminution of the trade and manufactures of this kingdom, and to the great prejudice, hindrance, and impoveriſhment, of great numbers of his majeſty's ſubjects; an evil which, if not timely prevented, will affect and greatly leſſen the public revenue, and greatly diſtreſs the ſilk trade and manufactures of this kingdom: for remedy whereof, be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, that if any perſon or perſons ſhall, after the twenty fourth day of June, 1763, import, bring, or convey, or cauſe to be imported, brought, or conveyed, into this kingdom, any ribbands, laces, or girdles, not made and manufactured in Great-Britain, whether the ſame be wrought

wrought of ſilk alone, or wrought of ſilk mixed with any other materials; all ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, ſhall be, and the ſame are hereby declared to be forfeited; and the ſame ſhall and may be ſeized and detained by any perſon or perſons whatſoever, in whatever importers, venders, or retailers hands the ſame may be found or diſcovered; and ſhall be diſpoſed of as herein after is mentioned; and the perſon or perſons bringing, conveying, or importing ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, into this kingdom, or cauſing the ſame to be ſo brought, conveyed, or imported, ſhall alſo forfeit, for every offence, the ſum of one hundred pounds; and all and every perſon and perſons who ſhall be aiding, abetting, or aſſiſting in the bringing and conveying or importing into this kingdom, any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, ſhall ſeverally forfeit and pay the ſum of fifty pounds, over and above any intereſt which he, ſhe, or they, may have, or may have had, in any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That all and every perſon and perſons, being a vender or venders, retailer or retailers, of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles reſpectively, in whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, or any of them, ſhall be found, or who ſhall ſell or expoſe to ſale, any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, or who ſhall conceal any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, with intent to prevent the forfeiture or ſeizure of the ſame, ſhall, over and above the forfeiture and loſs of ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, and all intereſt which he, ſhe, or they, may have therein, for every ſuch offence, forfeit and pay the ſum of fifty pounds.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That all pecuniary forfeitures and penalties incurred under this act, ſhall be paid, one moiety to our ſovereign lord the king, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or them who will ſue or proſecute for the ſame reſpectively; ſuch of the ſaid penalties which ſhall ariſe in that part of Great Britain called England, to be ſued and proſecuted for in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in which no eſſoin, protection, or wager of law, or more than one imparlance, ſhall be allowed; and ſuch of them as ſhall ariſe in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, to be ſued and proſecuted for in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh, in ſuch manner as any penalties and forfeitures for offences againſt the laws touching the cuſtoms may be ſued or proſecuted for there reſpectively.

Provided always, and be it alſo further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That whenever ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, ſhall be found and ſeized in that part of Great-Britain called England, and out of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and the limits of the weekly bills of mortality, and the ſame ſhall not exceed in value the ſum of twenty pounds, it ſhall and may be lawful for two or more of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace for ſuch county, city, borough, or place, where the ſame ſhall be ſo found and ſeized, upon any information before them, that ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, were ſeized as ribbands, laces, or girdles, unduly brought into, and not manufactured within, this kingdom, to hear and determine the ſame, and to procced to condemnation or diſcharge thereof, as ſhall ſeem juſt; any thing herein before contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And, for the utter prevention of all and every ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, ſeized and condemned as aforeſaid, from ever being made uſe of to the prejudice of the trade and manufactures of this kingdom, be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that all and every ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, after condemnation thereof, ſhall, by order of the court, judge or judges, or juſtices, where or before whom ſuch condemnation ſhall be had, be publickly burnt and entirely deſtroyed; but the execution of ſuch order ſhall and may be ſuſpended for ſo long time only as may be thought juſt and meet, for the better attaining the ends of juſtice, with regard to any ſuit or proſecution had, or to be had, for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty or penalties by this act inflicted.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That forthwith, after the ſeizure of any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, the ſame, until they ſhall be condemned, burnt, and deſtroyed, as aforeſaid, or diſcharged as unduly ſeized, ſhall be depoſited in one of the king's warehouſes belonging to the Cuſtom-houſe, in caſe ſuch ſeizure happens to be within the cities of London or Weſtminſter, or the weekly bills of mortality, where the ſame ſhall be received and admitted at all times by the proper officer or officers there, who is and are hereby impowered and required to receive and preſerve the ſame until they ſhall be condemned, burnt, and deſtroyed, or diſcharged as aforeſaid; and in caſe ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made out of the ſaid cities of London and Weſtminſter, and the weekly bills of mortality, then the ſame ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the chief magiſtrate of ſuch city, town, or place, where the ſame ſhall be ſeized, or in the hands of the conſtable of the next adjacent village, who is and are hereby impowered and required to receive and preſerve the ſame, until they ſhall be condemned, burnt, and deſtroyed, or diſcharged as aforeſaid; and all and every ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, may, from time to time, be viewed and inſpected by any perſon or perſons, on behalf of the proſecutor or proſecutors, or of the perſon or perſons intereſted in, or claiming, the ſaid ribbands, laces, and girdles, with the leave of the court, officers, judges, or juſtices, where or before whom any proſecution or ſuit ſhall be carried on for condemnation thereof, or for recovery of any penalty by this act inflicted, who are and is hereby required to make and give ſuch order, from time to time, for that purpoſe, as may be juſt and reaſonable.

And, for the better diſcovering and detecting any offender or offenders againſt this act, be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That upon an information in writing made upon oath before any two or more of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace for the reſpective county or place (which information ſhall be ſigned by the party or parties making the ſame) that there is good ground and reaſon to ſuſpect that ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, have been imported into this kingdom, and are concealed by, or are in the poſſeſſion or cuſtody of any retailer or ſeller of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles, contrary to the true intent of this act, it ſhall and may be lawful for ſuch juſtices reſpectively, to iſſue their warrant or warrants to any conſtable or conſtables, or other peace officer or officers, within the ſaid county or place, impowering him or them to ſearch, in the day-time, the houſe or houſes, out-houſe or out-houſes, warehouſes, ſhops, cellars, rooms, and other places, belonging to, or hired, employed, or made uſe of, by ſuch retailer or ſeller who ſhall be ſuſpected to conceal or have in his, her, or their poſſeſſion or cuſtody, any ribbands, laces, or girdles, not made or manufactured within Great-Britain; and if any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, not being made or manufactured within Great-Britain, ſhall be found, to ſeize and carry away the ſame, for the purpoſe of carrying this act into execution, and to diſpoſe thereof as is herein before directed.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced againſt any perſon or perſons for any thing done in purſuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in ſuch action or ſuit, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, and the ſpecial matter, in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the ſame was done by the authority of this act; and if it ſhall appear to have been ſo done, then the jury ſhall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff ſhall be nonſuited, or diſcontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants ſhall have appeared; or if judgement ſhall be given upon any verdict or demurrer againſt the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants ſhall recover treble coſts, and have the like remedy for the ſame, as defendants have in other caſes by law.

Provided always nevertheleſs, and it is hereby enacted, That in every ſuch action, it ſhall and may be lawful for the defendant or defendants, by leave of the court where ſuch action ſhall be depending, at any time before iſſue joined, to pay into court ſuch ſum of money as he or they ſhall ſee fit, as amends for the matter or cauſe complained of in ſuch action; whereupon ſuch proceedings, orders, and judgements, ſhall and may be had, made, and given, in and by ſuch court, as in other actions where the defendant is allowed to pay money into court.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if any ribbands, laces, or girdles, wrought of ſilk alone, or of ſilk mixed with any other materials, ſhall be ſeized by virtue and in purſuance of this act, and any doubt or queſtion ſhall afterwards ariſe, where the ſaid ribbands, laces, or girdles, ſo wrought as aforeſaid, were manufactured, the proof ſhall lie upon ſuch perſon or perſons, being a vender or venders, retailer or retailers, of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles reſpectively, in whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion the ſame were found, and not upon the proſecutor or proſecutors, plaintiff or plaintiffs; and in caſe no ſuch proof ſhall be given, that ſuch ribbands, laces, and girdles, were manufactured within Great-Britain, then the ſame ſhall, without any further proceeding, be taken and held to have been manufactured out of Great Britain, and contrary to, and in violation of, this act; any law or cuſtom to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, That if any ſuch perſon or perſons, in whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, ſhall be ſeized by virtue and in purſuance of this act (ſuch perſon or perſons not importing or concealing the ſame) ſhall diſcover, upon oath, before any one or more juſtice or juſtices of the peace, the perſon or perſons who ſold ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, to ſuch perſon or perſons, in whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion the ſame ſhall be ſeized, ſo as that ſuch perſon or perſons ſo ſelling the ſame ſhall or may be proſecuted and convicted according to the intent of this act, as the ſeller thereof, in caſe the ſame ſhall be, or be taken and held to be, within the intent and meaning of this act, manufactured out of Great-Britain; ſuch perſon or perſons ſo diſcovering as aforeſaid, ſhall be, and is and are hereby freed and diſcharged of and from all and every penalties and forfeitures by this act

act inflicted, upon all and every perſon and perſons, being a vender or venders, a retailer or retailers, having in their cuſtody or poſſeſſion, any ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, not made or manufactured in Great-Britain, and of and from any proof that ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, ſo ſeized as aforeſaid, are manufactured in Great-Britain.

Provided alſo, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That nothing in this act contained, ſhall extend, or be in any wiſe conſtrued to extend, to ſubject any perſon or perſons whatſoever, who ſhall wear or make uſe of ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforeſaid, as part of his, her, or their apparel or dreſs only, to any forfeiture, or to any pecuniary penalty or penalties inflicted by this act, or to any proof that ſuch ribbands, laces, or girdles, are manufactured within Great-Britain.' 3 Geo. III. c. 21.

SILVER, a metal too well known to need a definition. By the art of metallurgy it is found to be the fineſt, pureſt, moſt ductile, and moſt precious, according to its natural properties, of all metals, except gold. See the articles METALLURGY and METALS, and the ſeveral heads from thence referred to.

There are ſilver mines, more or leſs, in all the quarters of the world. See the article MINES. Thoſe of Peru and Mexico, and of ſome other parts of America, are much the richeſt. See the articles AMERICA, PERU, MEXICO, and ORES.

The mineral ſtones or ores, dug out of the earth, are not all of the ſame quality, conſiſtence, or colour; ſome are white and aſh-coloured, others ſpotted with blue or red, and ſometimes with both; others are black: theſe laſt are the richeſt, and the eaſieſt wrought.—Others of a yellowiſh red, and of a greeniſh colour.

The uſual way of ſeparating ſilver from the ore, in Europe, is the ſame as that of gold: i. e. by means of mercury [ſee MERCURY] with the difference only of adding ſalt. See the articles GOLD and REFINING.—How ſilver ore is aſſayed, ſee the article ASSAY.

REMARKS.

In the large way of buſineſs, ſilver and gold ores are treated either by amalgamation with mercury [ſee AMALGAMATION], or by ſmelting and refining them with lead [ſee SMELTING, and REFINING]. That by amalgamation is only uſed where the ore is exceeding rich, particularly at the ſilver mines of Potoſi: for by grinding ſuch rich ores with mercury, the nobler metals will be drank up by it, and may be readily ſeparated from it again by diſtillation; which carries over the quickſilver, and leaves the nobler metals behind. Lead is uſed with the poorer ores, in order to imbibe the richer metals they contain; which it does much after the ſame manner by fuſion, as quickſilver does without it, ſo as to ſeparate the heterogeneous parts, by keeping them floating, and afterwards reſtoring the nobler metals by cupellation.

The large way of ſmelting gold and ſilver ores is analogous to the ſmall one of aſſaying [ſee ASSAY]; all things being proportionably larger, the fire animated with bellows, and the blaſt directed upon the ſurface of the melted metal, ſo as to blow off the lead in the form of litharge, before it is fully vitrified [ſee the article LEAD.] But here the ſilver is not perfectly refined at one operation; ſome proportion of lead ſtill remaining mixed among it, that requires to be burnt out, after the ſame manner, in a ſtronger fire: and even thus it is with great difficulty that ſilver can be obtained pure, or totally ſeparated, either from lead or copper. This large way of working might, perhaps, be improved in reſpect of the veſſel or teſt employed, and the management of the fire, ſo as to work by the means of flame, without the aſſiſtance of bellows.

With regard to the teſt, we are to obſerve, that bone-aſhes, though ever ſo well waſhed and ſifted, are not, perhaps, the fitteſt matter to make teſts of; the teſt ſo made being apt to crack in the fire, unleſs dried, very gently, for many days, before they are uſed. But there is a particular kind of talc, or unvitrifiable ſperth ſtone, that being calcined to fine powder, as it readily may, and made up with a ſmall ſolution of vitriol in water, affords ſuch teſts as may be almoſt immediately uſed without danger of cracking.

Again; the flame of a wind-furnace may be made to play upon the ſurface of the melted metal, ſo as readily to perform this operation, without blowing with bellows, that violently tear away the ſilver along with the lead, in the form of litharge. And this farther convenience may be obtained, that not only ſmaller and cheaper wood, but even pit-coal, ſhall here ſerve for the fuel, provided the ſtructure of the furnace be contrived for the purpoſe. And in ſome places, particularly in Flintſhire, they have of late advantageouſly uſed common pit-coal for teſting in the large way, and the ſame improvement might alſo be made in the ſmall way of aſſaying. The methods of obtaining ſilver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the ſilver is mixed or allayed. If copper be mixed therewith, the beſt and cheapeſt way to purify the ſilver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common ſulphur, then melt the whole together, and throw into the pot, at ſeveral times, a due quantity of clean and new iron filings; which will immediately make the ſulphur quit the ſilver, catch hold of the iron, and form a ſcoria at top, leaving the ſilver free from copper, iron, or ſulphur, at the bottom. See the article FLUX.

One method of ſeparating GOLD from SILVER is by QUARTATION. See the article QUARTATION. See alſo that of AQUA FORTIS and AQUA REGIA, as applicable to GOLD and SILVER. See alſo the article REFINING.

Of trafficking in SILVER BULLION, ſee the article BULLION.

Of the fixing a PAR between GOLD and SILVER, ſee the article COIN.

Of ſilver bullion being a commodity, exportable as well as importable like other wares, ſee the articles BULLION and COIN.

Of the quantity of ſpecie requiſite to circulate the commerce of a nation, ſee the articles CASH and CIRCULATION.

Of the augmentation and diminution of coin in denomination, ſee the article COIN.

Sir Iſaac Newton's repreſentation laid before the lords of the treaſury relating to the ſcarcity of SILVER COIN, and the meaſures taken to prevent the ſame. See the article COIN.

Of the laws of England relating to its coin, ſee COIN.

Of the exportation of ſilver by the Eaſt-India company in particular, ſee the articles PEGU and SIAM, and all other articles relating to the EAST-INDIA TRADE.—For further inſight into ſubjects having an affinity with the circulation of ſilver, ſee the articles CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT] PUBLIC CREDIT, FUNDS, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], and MONEY.

In order to render our native commodities cheap and money plenty, ſee our articles LABOUR, MANURE, and POOR.

TABLES of GOLD and SILVER, compoſed from the authority of Mr LOWNDES, who inſpected the original indentures, and from Biſhop FLEETWOOD.

Reigns.	GOLD TABLE. Specie.	Diviſion. s. d.	Tale. l. s. d.	Stand.fine. Car. Gr.	SILVER TABLE. Specie. d.	Tale. s. d.	Stand.fine. Oz. dwt.	Propor. 1000
28 Edw. I.						XX III	11 2	13 83
18 Edw. III.	Florins - -	VI - -	15 00 0	23 3½	- - -	- - -	- - -	
Eodem ann.	Nobles -	VI VIII	13 3 4	Ditto -	- - -	- - -	- - -	
20 - - -	Ditto -	Ditto - -	14 0 0	Ditto -	- - -	XXII VI	Ditto	
27 - -	Ditto -	Ditto - -	15 0 0	Ditto -	IV II I	XXV -	Ditto	
30, 37, 46, 18 Ric. II. 3 H. IV.	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto	
9 Hen. V.	Ditto -	Ditto -	16 13 4	Ditto -	IV II I ½ ¼	XXX -	Ditto	
1 Hen. VI.	Royals -	X -	22 10 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	XXXVII VI	Ditto	
	Angels -	VI VIII						
4 - -	Nobles -	VI VIII	16 13 4	- - -	Ditto -	XXX -	Ditto	
24 - -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto	
39 - -	Angels -	VI VIII	22 10 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	XXXVII VI	Ditto	11 1
4 Edw. IV.	- - -	- - -	20 16 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto	
5 - -	Nobles -	X						
	Angels -	VI VIII	22 10 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto	
8, 11, 16, 22 - - 1 Ric. III. 9 H. VII.	- - - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	
1 Hen. VIII.	Sovereigns -	XXII VI	27 00 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	XXXV -	Ditto -	11 17
	Royals -	XI III						
	Angels -	VII VI						
	Nobles -	VI VIII						
	Crowns -	V -	Gold ſtand. lowered.					
	½ Ditto -	II VI	25 2 6	22 0	Ditto -	- - -	Ditto -	
							Silver ſtand. lowered.	
34 - -	Sovereigns -	XX -	28 16 0	23 0	XII VI III ½ ¼	XLVIII -	10 0	
	Angels -	VIII -						
36 - -	Crowns -	V -	30 00 0	22 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	6 0	
37 - -	- - -	- - -	30 00 0	20 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	4 0	
1 Edw. VI.	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -		Ditto -	Ditto	
3 - -	Ditto -	Ditto -	34 00 0	22 0	XII -	LXXII -	6 0	
4 - -	Sovereigns -	XXIV -	28 16 0	23 3½	- - -	- - -	Ditto	
	Angels -	VIII -						
5 - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	Ditto -	Ditto -	3 0	
6 - -	Sovereigns -	XXX -	36 00 0	23 3	s. s. d. V 2 6	LX -	11 1	
	Angels -	X -			d. XII VI III I ½ ¼ d.			
	Sovereigns -	XX -	33 00 0	22 0				
	Crowns -	V -						
1 Mary -	- - -	- - -	36 00 0	23 3½	- - -	LX -	11 0	
2 Eliz. -	Sovereigns -	XXX -						
	Royals -	XV -	36 00 0	23 3½	VI IV III II ½ I ¼	Old ſtand.		
	Angels -	X -				LX -	11 2	11 16
	Sovereigns -	XX -	33 00 0	22 0	- -			
	Crowns -	V -						
19 Eliz. -	Angels -	X -	36 00 0	23 3½	Ditto -	LX -	11 2	
26 - -	Nobles -	XV -	36 00 0	23 3½	- - -	- - -	- - -	
35 - -	Sovereigns -	XX -	33 00 0	22 0	- - -	- - -	- - -	
	Crowns -	V -						
43 - - -	Angels -	X -	36 10 0	23 3¼	s. s. d. d. V 2 6 XII d. VI II I½	LXII -	11 2	
	Sovereigns -	XX -	33 10 0	22 0				
	Crowns -	V -						
2 Jac. I.	Unites -	XX -						
	Dub. crow.	X -	37 4 0	22 0	Ditto -	Ditto -	11 2	
	Britiſh crow.	V -						
	Thiſtl. crow.	IV -						
3 - - -	Royals -	XXX -	40 10 0	23 3½	- - -	- - -	- - -	
	Angels -	X -						
10 - - -	Ditto - -	Ditto -	44 00 0	Ditto	- - -	- - -	- - -	
	Unites -	XXII -	40 18 4	22 0	- - -	- - -	- - -	
	Doub. Carolus's, &c.	XI -						
2 Car. I.	Roſe Royals	XXX -	44 10 0	23 3½	s. s. d. d. V 2 6 XII d. VI II I½	LXII -	11 2	
	Spur Royals	XV -						
	Angels -	X -						
	Unites -	XX -	40 00 0	22 0	- - -			
	Dub. crow.	X -						
	Britiſh crow.	V -						
12 Car. II.	- - -	- -	The ſame of both kinds and value gold and ſilver.					
22 - - -	Guineas -	XX -	44 10 0	22 0	Ditto -	LXII -	11 2	14 54
	½ Guineas -	X -						
	2 Guineas -	XL -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	
	5 Guineas -	C -						
1 Jac. II.	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto -	Ditto	
1 W. & M. Queen Anne George I. George II.	I do not find any alteration in the ſtandard of the gold or ſilver down to the preſent time. 22 Carats fine and 2 alloy is the lb. of gold, and 11 oz. 2 dwts fine, and 18 dwts alloy, the ſtandard lb. of ſilver; and the diviſion of the pound gold continues the ſame; that is to ſay, into 44 guineas ½, and the ſilver into the uſual number of crowns, &c. but the guineas have varied in the nominal value ſeveral times, riſing up to xxxs. and declining to xxi, the preſent current value; but never have been reduced again to their intended level of xxs. nor indeed ought: when compared with the Portugal pieces of 3l. 12s. or 1l. 16s. it appears to be better worth xxi s.								15 21

A ſtate of confuſion.

		to the lb. Troy.	
Portugal -	l. 3 12	- 13	l. 46 16 0
Engliſh guineas -	1 1	- 44 ½	46 14 6
			00 1 6
And the Portugal ſtandard worſe ¼ grain		-	00 2 6
Total worſe lb. Troy by ſtandard and tale		-	00 4 0

This, with the difference in point of exactneſs in coining, wherein the Portugal is much more defective than the Engliſh coins, may be very good reaſons for their being refuſed in payments in any of the receipts of the public revenue; but anſwer very well the purpoſe of thoſe who benefit by the irregularity, in trading with the heavier and paſſing off the lighter by tale; and which, if they can turn into guineas or heavy ſilver, make another gain.

How our ſtandard is proportioned to that of other countries, and thence what the true par of exchange is between us, ſee the article COIN, where you will find Sir Iſaac Newton's tables and the explanation thereof, and his repreſentation afterwards to the lords of the treaſury upon our coin.

SKIE, the biggeſt but one of all the weſtern Iſlands of Scotland, is a part of Inverneſs, from which it is divided by a narrow channel. The ſoil is generally a black mould, though there is ſome of a red colour, wherein iron is ſometimes found. The arable land is for the moſt part black, yet affords clay, white, red, and blue; and in ſome places there is fine white marble, various marcaſites, [ſee MARCASITES] agate, and variegated ſtones; cryſtals of ſeveral colours, plenty of free-ſtone and lime-ſtone. Here are the lapis hecticus, the lapis ceraunius (a ſort of cramp-ſtone) and plenty of good ſprings, ſome of wich are medicinal.

It is very high land, both on the coaſt and within the country; and almoſt to the center of the iſland, there are ſeven high mountains that lie near one another. The ſoil is fruitful enough in the low grounds, and produces plenty of thoſe ſpecies of cattle and corn, which are to be found in the other weſtern iſlands; eſpecially of the latter, for it ſupplies the neighbouring continent with barley and oats.

Cod and ling are common upon the coaſt, and herrings in great abundance, for the taking of which here are many convenient harbours and bays, with about thirty rivers that afford ſalmon and other fiſh. [See the article SCOTLAND.] The country is populous, the people handſome, and very healthy. Their cattle are horſes, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs.

SKINS. After various dreſſings of ſkins, ſome of which are only ſimply preſerving them, others conſiſt in penetrating, ſuppling, and ſtrengthening the ſkin by means of oil on the fleſh ſide only, (for the hair ſide is carefully covered during the operation) our furriers begin by employing the furrs of our common wild beaſts, ſuch as foxes, pole-cats, moles, badgers, otters, rabbets, hares, mountain-cats, and ſome others, and they find means to make them valuable, by the judicious aſſortments they make of the moſt beautiful of them.

The mountain-cat is a very wild animal, bigger than the fox, and which, for its ſparkling eyes, is looked upon by ſeveral naturaliſts to be the lynx of the Ancients. Its ſkin is, perhaps, one of the moſt beautiful in the world. But the creature is found in the foreſts of France as well as in other countries; and people there, as well as in other countries, had rather pay a high price for ſome ſkin of a diſmal colour, and frequently counterfeited and dyed, if they can pleaſe themſelves with the thoughts that it comes from ſome remote clime. It is true, that the northern parts of Europe and America furniſh us with furrs of great ſoftneſs and luſtre *. The countries which ſend us the moſt valuable, are Siberia on the confines of Tartary and Muſcovy, Nova Zembla, Spitſberg, Groenland, Terra de Labrador, or New Britain, and Canada. The Oſtiacks and Samoids †, who inhabit the northern parts of Siberia near the ſea, venture on the ice into uninhabited countries, in order to hunt rain-deer, elks, and foxes. The tributes which the Tartars owe, ſome to the emperor of China, others to the courts of Perſia, Conſtantinople, or Peterſbourg, are paid in furrs only: and thoſe petits-gris, which the French merchants bring from China, probably are not the produce of China, but of Chineſe Tartary.

* Waſſerſchleb's Memoirs.

† Peyrere's Relation of Groenland.

Siberia is the true magazine of fine furrs [ſee the article SIBERIA.] But our merchants do not go into that country, but purchaſe theſe goods either at Archangel or Peterſbourg. The Czars have for a long time paſt claimed the whole property of the moſt valuable product of Siberia, as the fine ſkins, and the gold-duſt which is found in ſome of their rivers: and the ſituation of the country facilitates this ſubjection.

Siberia is open only on the ſide of Tartary, of which it makes a part, and where furrs are of little or no value. To the north and weſt it is defended by the ice: towards Ruſſia it is hemmed in by a ledge of mountains, the paſſages of which are commanded by ſo many forts and barriers, where all thoſe who come out of the country are ſearched with the utmoſt rigour, even to the breaking up of the carriages, to ſee if there is nothing valuable concealed in them. The criminals, who are exiled from Muſcovy to Siberia, are obliged to go a hunting. They are maintained, but their captures belong to her Czarinian Majeſty. The other inhabitants who hunt likewiſe, are not allowed to ſell their goods out of the country: but the beſt ſkins which they have to ſell, muſt be carried to the governor of Siberia. He pays them ſomewhat above the common price, which is a mere trifle; then puts a ſtamp on them, and ſends them to the ſenate of Ruſſia, which diſtributes them at Moſcow, Peterſbourg, Archangel, and other places of trade. They hunt with gins, or long poles, or blunt darts, which either kill or ſtun the beaſt without injuring the ſkin.

The northern furrs in moſt eſteem are the ſable, the black fox, the ermine, and the petit-gris.

The ſable is a ſort of weeſel, found in Biſcay, Pruſſia, Canada, and many other places; but the moſt eſteemed is the Siberian, which we call xibiline: the blackeſt is the moſt valuable. But there are tricks played under the polar circle, as well as in the temperate zone. The Siberians and Ruſſians have found out a way to dye the brown ſable to the colour of that which is naturally of the moſt beautiful black. Lemon-juice is the beſt thing we know to diſcharge this artificial colour, and lay the cheat open.

The deareſt furrs of the Siberian ſable are thoſe which are made of the tips of the tails of this creature, and which can only ſerve for ſmall things.

The black fox, which is as well known as the ſable in the coldeſt countries, and is not common any where elſe, may undeceive us of a vulgar error. Some of them, indeed, are found perfectly white, which would naturally be of another colour in other countries: and ſome, which were brown in ſummer, turn grey or white in winter, and reſume their colour in ſummer: but there are many which never change colour.

Ermine, ſo much eſteemed for its whiteneſs and luſtre, is alſo a kind of pole-cat, or weeſel. Some dictionaries confound it with the ſquirrel, of which we are going to ſpeak; and to increaſe the confuſion, with the Siberian ſable, although they are three different animals. The ſable and ermine differ as much as black and white. In order to heighten the charming white of the ermine, the furriers uſually prick them here and there with little black ſuffs, which are bits of the ſkin of a lamb from Lombardy, which is of a very ſhining black.

The fourth furr, which we have from the North, is the petit-gris. It is the ſkin of the ſquirrel of cold countries. It differs from ours in this, that from brown, like ours, in ſummer, it turns grey in winter, and continues grey after death. Two very different ſorts of furrs are made of this ſkin. The black makes the petit-gris, and the belly is as white, and more ſhining, than ermine. It is bordered on each ſide with a black ſtreak, which is carefully preſerved. When the furr is alternately varied with the back and belly of the ſkin, it is much the richer: and this is what was formerly called the little vair, which frequently occurs in the coats of arms of ſome ancient families.

From that branch of the ſkinner's trade which dreſſes ſkins intire, we may paſs to the other, which generally dreſſes them without the hair. It is ſubdivided into ſeveral claſſes, which have ſome operations in common, and others peculiar to each claſs.

Although there is a great difference between the dreſſes of ſhammoy, allum leather, Hungary leather, Morocco leather, [ſee LEATHER] the tanner, and parchment-maker; yet the ſkins which paſs thro' the hands of theſe ſeveral workmen, ought to have been, for the moſt part at leaſt, waſhed of the blood and impurities in a running water, ſet to drain, worked with the hands, or pounded with wooden peſtles in a tub, or vat; put into the pit (which is made in the ground, and bordered with wood, or ſtone and mortar) filled with water, in which quick lime is diſſolved, in order to looſen the hair, that it may be eaſily rubbed off, without injuring the ſkin; drawn out, and ſet to drain on the edge of the pit; ſtretched on the leg, or horſe, in order to have the hair ſcraped off with a blunt iron knife, or ſometimes with a cylinder of wood; pared off the fleſh and membranes on the fleſh ſide, and of the ſcabs, or roughneſs, on the grain ſide, with a ſharp knife; rubbed with a whetſtone on the ſame horſe, to take off any particles of the lime, or other thing which may occaſion hardneſſes; thickened by different ſorts of powders, whereby they become greater in bulk, and ſo much lighter, as gradually to riſe to the ſurface of the water; ſtretched out green, or half-dried, and piled one over another, or put up ſeparate, after being dried to a cruſt; hung out to air upon poles, lines, or any other way; which muſt be done ſeveral times in dreſſing ſmall ſkins.

This alternate tranſition from the liquid of the air into that of water, and from water into the air, with the aſſiſtance of the lime, ſalts, and oil, opens the inmoſt fibres of the ſkin ſo effectually, as greatly to facilitate the introduction of ſubſtances proper for making them pliant, without rendering them thinner.

Natural philoſophy would be much embarraſſed to ſettle the order and great number of theſe operations, by the dint of reaſon alone. But what the moſt penetrating genius has never been able to invent, frequent handling of the ſame thing brings a man to practiſe with ſucceſs. Common workmen continue to do the ſame thing ſcrupulouſly by habit. One of them more expert than the reſt, and whoſe experience makes up all his philoſophy, overſees the whole, judges of the degree of dryneſs and moiſture, of the hardneſs and ſoftneſs, determines juſtly, and either repeats, lengthens, or ſhortens the proceſſes.

Theſe proceſſes, though really the ſame in the four or five principal dreſſings of leather, are ſo different in regard to the manner of executing them, and the time required in them, that the knowlege of all the minute particulars is requiſite for him only who intends to practiſe the trade. We will content ourſelves with what conſtitutes the true objects of ſome of theſe trades; of the ſkinner, becauſe this is of moſt general concern.

The allum leather-dreſſer dreſſes all ſorts of white leather, from the ox-hide to the lamb-ſkin. He works chiefly for the ſadler and glover. For dreſſing the ſadler's leather, he uſes bran, ſea-ſalt, and allum. For that which the glover uſes, after the common preparatives, he firſt employs bran, and then with ſalt, allum, fine flour, and yolks of eggs, mixed in hot water, he makes a ſort of pap, with which the ſkins are daubed and ſed, in a trough or tub.

The ſhamoy-dreſſer ſoaks in oil not only the ſkin of the true ſhamoy, which is a wild goat, but likewiſe thoſe of all other goats, though much inferior to the true, and even ſheeps-ſkins, which he dreſſes like ſhamoy.

The tanner uſes the bark of young oaks, from 18 to 30 years old, ground in a tanning-mill, in which he ſoaks ſkins more or leſs, according to the different ſervices expected from them, and their chief uſe is to remain firm, and keep out water.

Whereas the tanner's way of dreſſing leather, in lime and tan, takes up two or three years; the Hungary leather-dreſſer allows but three or four weeks to that which paſſes through his hands. He ſupplies the harneſs-makers, ſadlers, belt-makers, and all other trades that uſe not only white and allum leather, or oiled and tanned leather, but alſo ſkins coloured grey with ink, and dreſſed in tallow, which is the diſtinctive work of the Hungarian leather-dreſſer *.

* Our curriers in England dreſs this ſort of leather.

His name (Hongreyun in French) and method came from Hungary, whither a French workman went, by order of Henry IV. to learn the trade by ſtealth, and thereby to lower the price of harneſſes and ſeveral other things made of leather, wanting in his armies.

The tanner in certain caſes, inſtead of tan, uſes redon, which is a plant cultivated in Gaſcony, and very common in Poliſh Ruſſia. It ſerves chiefly for tanning rams and ſheeps-ſkins, which the French call baſſanes: but it is alſo uſed in dreſſing Ruſſia leather, which the Poliſh Ruſſians make a great myſtery of, though there is a very good manufacture of that ſort at St Germain en Laye.

The confit and ſumach are in little uſe but for Morocco leather. The confit, into which goats-ſkins are put after the common preparation, is a large tub of warm water, wherein they are thrown, after having diſſolved therein a very cheap ſubſtance, taken from the animal kingdom, and that is the ſweepings of dog-kennels.

The ſumach is taken from the vegetable kingdom: it is a duſt which comes on the leaves and ſmall branches of the plant called rhus, or ſumach. It is ſumach, with galls and allum, that the Morocco leather-dreſſer chiefly uſes, whoſe intention is to give a grain to goat ſkins, and thereby to render them ſuſceptible of the moſt beautiful colours. They call grain thoſe little wrinkles, or furrows, which run all over the ſurface of Morocco leather, as alſo that of calves and cows-leather, which they bring to a reſemblance of it, by dint of waſhing, pounding, waſhing again, wringing, and folding the ſkins different ways. We ſhall ſay nothing either of the water tinged with ruſt of iron, which ſerves to give a black colour, nor of the lac, and other ſubſtance, which colour the ſkins red, yellow, &c.

The workmen who give the grain, and the moſt lively colours, to the ſkins of ſhamoy, or other goats, and who dreſs calves and ſheeps-ſkins in the ſame manner to imitate Morocco, make a great ſecret of certain parts of their art, which they ſay are the niceſt parts of it. The precautions and miſtruſts of tradeſmen are ſometimes very diverting. In my walks among them, I found a rope-maker who refuſed to let me take a draught of the mechaniſm of making a horſe-girt, without a compulſive order.

As the grain and beautiful dyes of goats-ſkins are the work of the Morocco leather-dreſſers, the laſt preparation and dyes given to certain tanned leather, are the buſineſs of the currier: ſo, likewiſe, when ſkins dreſſed white by the ſkinner, are deſtined for writing or drawing, the parchment-maker puts the finiſhing hand to them.

REMARKS.

Skins, and the hair of beaſts, manufactured, become parchiment and vellum, leather, of which are made ſhoes and boots, ſaddles, harneſs and furniture for horſes, gloves and garments, coaches and chairs, houſhold ſtuffs, covers of books, drinking veſſels, &c. and furrs for cloathing, hats and caps. Theſe branches of trade that are derivable from the ſkin trade, render it a very conſiderable concern, and well deſerving preſervation as much as we can within ourſelves.

The Engliſh have greatly increaſed their quantity of furrs and ſkins of all ſorts, from their northern colonies, ſince they have ſettled and planted northward to Nova Scotia, Annapolis, and other places towards the river Canada.

Theſe ſeveral ſorts of ſkins brought to Europe from theſe parts, are of the following kinds, viz. deer-ſkins, bear, beaver, otter, raccoon, fox, elk, cat, wolf, marten, mink, muſqueſh, fiſher, &c. all which furniſh us with materials within ourſelves to carry on divers valuable and extenſive branches of our commerce, without being obliged to import them from other nations; and for which raw materials we pay in the manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and thereby the mother-country, as well as our colonies, become more and more inriched. And this is likely to be the caſe to a very conſiderable degree; ſince CANADA is annexed to the crown of Great-Britain by the Treaty of 1763. See AMERICA, CANADA, MISSISSIPPI, INDIAN AFFAIRS in NORTH-AMERICA.

SLAVE TRADE. See AFRICAN TRADE, and ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY See alſo DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY, and PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN COMPANY.

SLESWIC, or SOUTH JUTLAND. This duchy is an ancient dependence on the king of Denmark. It has North Jutland on the north, from which it is ſeparated by a line drawn from the city of Bypen, on the German Ocean, to Colding on the leſſer Belt; on the eaſt it is bounded by the Baltic; on the ſouth by the duchy of Holſtein; and on the weſt by the North Sea or German Ocean. Its greateſt length, from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, is about 86 miles, and its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 60.

It is watered by a great number of rivers, which render it very fruitful; it abounds with meadows and paſtures. The eaſtern part of this duchy lies higher than the weſtern; and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all ſorts of corn.

The iſlands of North Strand, Fora, Sylt, Amron, Rom, and Manoc, belong to this duchy.

It is divided into ſeveral bailiwicks.

The whole duchy of Sleſwic belongs to Denmark, the king having conquered it, during the minority of the duke of Holſtein, in the late war of the North; and the poſſeſſion has been ſecured to him by the guaranty of the kings of Great-Britain and France. The nobility of this province is very powerful, and divided into four circles, which are, thoſe of Haderſleben, Tonderen, Flenſburgh, and Gottorp. The chief towns in the duchy of Sleſwic are as follow:

SLESWIC, or SLEYZWIC, the capital of this duchy, is ſeated on a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, at the diſtance of about 22 miles from Keil, toward the north-weſt, 38 from Gluckſtadt, to the north-eaſt, and 28 from Lunden, to the eaſt.

In 1100 it was a place of very great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great-Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. This city was even ſo conſiderable, that Adam Bremenſis, who flouriſhed about the year 1100, called it Civitatem opulentiſſimam ac populoſiſſimam, a moſt rich and populous city: but its trade is now almoſt dwindled to nothing. The ſoil, eſpecially towards the ſouth and eaſt, is not very fruitful, but the town is ſufficiently ſupplied with all neceſſaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fiſh. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable, but they import ſome from abroad, as well as wine, which is here pretty cheap.

GOTTORP was the ancient ſeat and patrimony of the dukes of Holſtein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or ſurname of Gottorp. It is about ſix miles diſtant from Sleſwic, to the ſouth-weſt, and ſtands on the Sley, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and carries veſſels of ſmall burthen to and from the Baltic.

ECRENFORD ſtands on a little gulph on the Baltic, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords a pretty conſiderable trade, it being one of the ſafeſt ports on that ſhore; it is about 22 miles diſtant from Gottorp to the eaſt, and ſix from Kiel, towards the north.

FREDERICKSTADT, was thus called from its founder Frederick duke of Holſtein and Sleſwic, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured, alſo, to ſettle a ſilk trade there, and, for that purpoſe, ſent a famous embaſſy to Muſcovy and Perſia, which gave occaſion to Adam Olearius, ſecretary of it, to publiſh an account thereof, in an excellent book

of travels. This town ſtands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 42 miles diſtant from Sleſwic, towards the weſt, and 42 from Gluckſtadt, to the north.

TONINGEN is alſo ſituated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickſtadt, and about 14 from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a pretty good trade, which increaſes daily, by means of its commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder.

HUSUM, the capital of a bailiwic of the ſame name, ſtands on the gulph of Hover, and is about 10 miles diſtant from Toningen, to the north, and 20 from the German Ocean. It has a harbour capable of ſmall veſſels; and as the neighbouring country abounds with paſtures, they keep here, every week, a market for cattle; and it has been obſerved, that, in time of war, they have ſold here above 4000 horſes in a year. In the gulph on the weſt of the town, they fiſh vaſt quantities of excellent oyſters.

FLENSBURG, the capital of a bailiwic of the ſame name, is ſo called from the bay, or gulph of Flens, on which it ſtands, and which is formed by the Baltic. The town is about eight miles diſtant from Sleſwic, to the north, and near 30 from Toningen, to the eaſt. The bay, on the bottom of which it ſtands, makes here a fine haven, where ſhips of great burthen may ride ſafe, and come up to the very warehouſes, to load and unload. On the land ſide it is encompaſſed with mountains, which ſhelter it from winds, and ſupply it with water.

APENRAGE ſtands on another gulph of the Baltic, and is 16 miles diſtant from Flenſburg, to the north-weſt, and about 14 from Huſum, to the eaſt. It has a port at the bottom of the bay, which is much frequented by the Daniſh fiſhermen, and affords it a pretty good trade with the adjacent iſlands: this is alſo the chief place of a bailiwic of the ſame name.

HADERSLEBEN is a good ſea-port town, near 20 miles diſtant from Apenrade, to the north. It is watered on the weſt by the lake of Haderſledam, and on the eaſt by the canal, or gulph, called Haderſlebfoerd, which is ſo ſhallow near the town, that veſſels of burthen are obliged to anchor at the diſtance of two miles from it. That gulph into which the lake runs is very narrow, and about nine miles lower falls into the Baltic Sea. The country about this town abounds with fruitful corn-fields, and excellent paſtures, which, together with the fiſh taken out of the lake and gulph, render this a pretty flouriſhing place.

TUNDER, or Tunderen, a ſmall but well-built town, ſtands on the ſouthern bank of the river Wydaw, about 12 miles diſtant from Haderſleben to the weſt, 20 from Huſum to the ſouth, and near 14 from the German Ocean. It lies in a fruitful ſoil, and had formerly a conſiderable trade, which is now loſt, its harbour being choaked up with ſand *.

* This is an inſtance, amongſt numberleſs others in this work, to ſhew that when trade declines, poverty enſues.

The moſt conſiderable iſlands adjacent to the duchy of Sleſwic are as follow:

NORTHSTRAND, in the German Ocean, lies overagainſt the bailiwic and town of Huſum, and was, it is ſaid, ſeparated from the continent by a violent ſtorm. When it became an iſland, it was about 12 miles long, and four broad in ſome places, and in others leſs. Its ſoil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the great inundation that happened; it had alſo very fat paſtures, where they fed exceeding good cattle: and they uſed to ſend daily to Huſum, and other places, a prodigious number of ſheep, fowls, ducks, and geeſe, and great quantities of butter.

AMRON, or AMROEN, is a ſmall iſland to the north-weſt of Northſtrand, from which it is about ſeven miles diſtant. It is in the form of a creſcent, and is not conſiderable, but for its oyſter-fiſhery.

FORA, VOOREN, FOCTER, or FOCBER, lies towards the north-eaſt of Amron, neareſt the coaſt of Sleſwic, between Northſtrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorſhip of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about ſix miles in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle and corn, and has about 4200 inhabitants, and ſeveral villages.

SYLT lies to the north of Fora, from which it is ſeparated by the Rode Tift, or Red Channel. It is of a triangular form, about 14 miles long. The greateſt part of its ſoil is nothing but ſand and heath; but towards the eaſt and weſt there are ſome paſtures, where they feed cattle. There are no woods here, and the people are obliged to fetch from the continent what they want for firing. Their number amounts to about 1750 ſouls. A great part of the men and boys ſet out every year for the whale-fiſhery on the coaſt of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen.

ROM, or ROEM, towards the north-eaſt of Sylt, is about ſeven miles long, and about four broad, and has about 1500 inhabitants, and ſeveral villages. The eaſtern coaſt of the iſland has good paſtures, and on the weſt there are harbours capable to receive middle-ſized veſſels.

There are ſeveral other iſlands on the coaſt of Sleſwic, but they are ſo ſmall and inconſiderable, that they do not deſerve mentioning.

SLIGO, or SLEGO, a county in Ireland, lies full upon the ſea, to the north and north-weſt, where it is alſo bounded by the river Trobis; it has Mayo on the weſt; part of that county, and Roſcommon on the ſouth; and the county of Leitrim on the eaſt. The greateſt extent from north to ſouth, is 35 miles, and from eaſt to weſt, 33; or, as ſome ſay, 44, it being very unequal both ways, and runs out in a point to the north, as far as Donnegal-Bay. It is computed to contain 241,550 acres. Great part of the country is mountainous and boggy, but its lower grounds and bottoms have a good ſoil, both for the ploughman and the grazier.

SLEGO, which lies on a bay of the ſame name, is a market-town, and the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ſhips of 200 tons may come up to the town-key. The town is populous, but not large, nor is the trade here conſiderable, though much better than in any of the other places beyond it.

SMELTING, among metalliſts, the melting of the metal in the ore, in a ſmelting furnace, in order to ſeparate the metallic from the earthy and other parts. Smelting, in propriety, is reſtrained to the large way of working upon ores from the mines, and reducing them to a pure metal, ſo as to fit the produce for civil, mechanical, and œconomical uſes. For the methods of ſmelting the ſeveral metals from their reſpective ores, ſee the articles COPPER, LEAD, TIN, IRON, GOLD, SILVER, and MERCURY. See alſo the articles ASSAY, FLUX, METALLURGY, MINERALOGY, MINES, MINERALS, ORES, REFINING.

Preparatory to the ſmelting of ores, the following operations are requiſite.

EXPERIMENT I.

The method of roaſting of ores.

We took a pound of the common Corniſh mundic, and breaking it into ſmall lumps, expoſed it upon the grate of a furnace, whilſt the fire was made below, and thus at firſt gently heated and terrified the mundic; but afterwards by degrees increaſed the fire, ſo as to make the lumps glow, or appear red-hot: in which ſtate we kept them for half an hour, or 'till no more ſulphureous vapour, or ſtench, roſe from them.

OBSERVATIONS.

This experiment ſhews the common method of roaſting ores, in order to diſcharge their ſulphureous, arſenical, or antimonial parts, that might otherwiſe hinder their fuſion, or elſe carry off a conſiderable proportion of the truly metallic matter in melting. For fear this metallic matter ſhould fly off, we made the fire gentle at firſt, but increaſed it, by degrees, 'till the lumps became red-hot, otherwiſe the ſulphur would not quit its hold, for ſulphur requires a naked fire, and the aſſiſtance of the open air, before it will burn, or go intirely off.

The richer and more tractable ores have no occaſion to undergo this previous operation of roaſting, but are uſually committed to fuſion ſoon after being dug up, and ſeparated from their ſtone, or mine. However, if they contain any conſiderable quantity of ſulphur, or arſenic, it is uſual to roaſt even theſe a little.

But ſome copper ores are ſo refractory, or hold their ſulphur ſo tenaciouſly, as to require many roaſtings before they will let it go, being either ſtamped or melted after every operation; ſo that all the parts may, at ſeveral times, be equally expoſed to the fire, and have their ſulphur diſcharged.

In the large way of buſineſs, which is ſmelting, this operation is uſually performed in a trench, cut ſomewhat aſlope on the ground, that the air may have the freer acceſs at the bottom; then they place a layer of billet-wood in the trench, and upon this a layer of the ore, in little lumps; and ſo continue, interpoſing a layer of wood and a layer of ore, for three or four ſtories, when the pile being completed, they ſet fire thereto, and make it continue to burn ſlowly for ſeveral days together, during which time there ariſes a large quantity of ſulphureous vapour, that may be perceived to a conſiderable diſtance.

But when the ore, by repeated roaſting, ſtamping, and fuſing, is become tolerably pure, they now finiſh the operation, by throwing it into a particular furnace, having a funnel to increaſe the draught, ſo as to make the fire the ſtronger, and diſcharge the ſulphureous fumes in greater plenty. And this furnace is ſo contrived, that the open flame of the wood may play directly upon the ore; whence all its volatile part is ſeparated, and the remainder left fit for the laſt waſhing and ſtamping.

When the ores contain a large quantity of ſulphur, this uſually ſweats out, and runs down into cavities made on purpoſe to receive it, whence it may be laded out, and caſt into moulds. But perhaps the moſt frugal method of roaſting ores, ſo as to ſave, or collect, all the ſulphur, or arſenic, they contain, is not generally known and practiſed: for, in the common way, a large proportion is loſt, which may be collected, by means of a proper hood, in the form of flowers; and alſo the riſing fume might, by a particular ſtructure of

the

the furnace, be made to paſs into a large veſſel of cold water, and there be condenſed, as we ſee in certain chemical diſtillations and ſublimations.

After the poorer and more ſtubborn ſorts of copper ore have been thus ſucceſſively roaſted, and come to be quenched in water, or waſhed, they often impregnate the water with a vitriolic matter; ſo that ſometimes profit may be made, by evaporating theſe waters, and ſuffering the vitriol to ſhoot: for the acid part of the ſulphur, here ſeparated by the fire, is greatly diſpoſed to enter the metallic part of the ore, and diſſolve it, ſo as to form an actual blue vitriol, or vitriol of copper, which ſells for a conſiderable price.

And here it ſhould be remembered, that ores rarely yield the leſs metal for roaſting, unleſs the fire were made too ſtrong, eſpecially at the firſt: for when the yield proves ſmall, the general complaint of the ſmelters is, that the ore, when ſent to their furnace, was too little roaſted; though indeed the fault is often their own, in neglecting to make the fire ſufficiently briſk and ſtrong from the firſt, which is a very conſiderable ſecret for increaſing the yield of an ore.

There are, however, ſome reaſons to believe, that many imperfect ores loſe conſiderably of their metal by roaſting, eſpecially when they are mixed with arſenical or antimonial matters, which have a known property of volatilizing the impurer metals, and carrying them off in fume: whence, doubtleſs, it is that ſome poor ores and mundics are commonly treated with little ſucceſs.

The remedy, in this caſe, we apprehend to be the due uſe and application of ſome fixing ſubſtances, whether of an abſorbent, alkaline, or neutral nature; ſuch as quick-lime, kelp, or pot aſh, dry river mud, clay, iron-filings, or the like, mixed, or ſtratified, along with the ore. And by certain additions of this kind, we doubt not but the yield of ſome poorer ores might be conſiderably increaſed.

The buſineſs of roaſting of ores may be improved, and reduced to a few eaſy rules. (1.) We ſee it is of two kinds, or ſimple and compound; that is, either with or without addition. No addition is wanted when the ore proves rich, or in itſelf nearly of a metallic nature, as ſome ores are found to be; but additions are principally required, when arſenical, antimonial, or ſulphureous matters are naturally mixed with the ores.

(2.) The fire is to be ſo regulated, from the firſt, that only the lighter, or more volatile, ſulphureous, or arſenical fumes, may go off, otherwiſe the more metallic part alſo would fly away, and, without ſome proper contrivance to catch it, be loſt. Yet the ore muſt feel the force of an open flame at laſt, otherwiſe all the ſulphur, arſenic, antimony, and other immature mineral ſubſtances, will not be diſlodged.

(3.) The more theſe immature ſubſtances abound in the ore, the gentler the fire ſhould be at firſt; and when the greater part of them is thus exhaled, the fire is to be quickened by a freer admiſſion of the external air.

(4.) Laſtly, where ſuch additions are uſed as are not metalline, for example, lime, mud, &c. they ought to be ſeparated by ſtamping and waſhing, before the infuſion, which would otherwiſe be hindered, or uſeleſsly incumbered.

EXPERIMENT II.

The method of ſtamping and waſhing of ores.

We took the mundic roaſted in our former experiment, and beat it fine in a metalline mortar; then ſearced it; and now putting it into a budding-diſh, we waſhed it in ſeveral waters, with care to ſeparate the heavier portion from the lighter, and drying this heavier part, which is always the more metallic.

OBSERVATIONS.

Theſe operations of ſtamping and waſhing are not neceſſary in the richer ſorts of ores, but ſometimes abſolutely required in the poorer and more flinty kinds. If a large quantity of mere ſtony matter adheres to the ore, it is ſometimes knocked off with hammers, ſo as to leave the more metallic part free from this barren or ſuperfluous ſubſtance.

If ſtill the ore proves hard and flinty, it is ſometimes ſoftened by lying, for ſeveral months, expoſed to the open air, which thus renders it fit for the ſtampers, though it ſometimes alſo requires to be ignited, and quenched in water, to fit it for that purpoſe. Thus a large heap of hard, and otherwiſe untractable ore, may be heated red-hot, by interſperſing it with billets, and ſetting them on fire; after which it may readily be quenched, and rendered friable, by throwing cold water upon it, or by driving and paſſing a ſmall ſtream of water through it, from ſome adjacent river. And ſometimes this operation is required to be repeated, before the ore will grow ſoft and tractable.

It is uſual to ſtamp moſt ores in a ſtate of moiſture, or wetneſs, to prevent the avolation of their duſt, or powder, but eſpecially ſuch as require much waſhing to ſeparate their barren and lighter earthy parts, which would otherwiſe uſeleſsly encumber the ſmelting-furnace. To perform this ſtamping the more commodiouſly, a ſtream of water is made to paſs under the ſtampers, ſo as to make various windings and turnings, and, in part, run into certain cavities, made on purpoſe to catch and detain the heavier matter, whilſt the lighter is waſhed away to a greater diſtance by the current.

But the method of waſhing the ores of the nobler metals is more exact and curious, particularly in waſhing of ſand for gold, on the banks of the Rhine and Danube, where gold is frequently found, eſpecially in ſuch places where the ſands are raiſed into large heaps, or a kind of mountains, by the rapidity of the ſtream.

Theſe ſands are uſually waſhed by the hand, in a particular long trough, made with a deſcent, or current, for the purpoſe, and lined at the bottom with flannel, for thus the ſand being artificially agitated with the hand, the lighter and larger ſtony matter riſes uppermoſt, whilſt the heavier deſcends, and is catched in the pores of the woolly cloth at the bottom: in the mean time, the lighter matters are waſhed farther off, by a ſtream running down the declivity: and when the flannel has thus collected a conſiderable quantity of the richer metallic matter, the whole cloth may be eaſily taken off, and rinſed in a proper veſſel of water, where all the metallic matter, before adhering to it, readily falls off, and ſinks to the bottom of the veſſel; where, the water being decanted, the metal may be collected alone, and dried. And this is the method of procuring the gold, where the ſand is fine, or extremely ſmall.

In the large works, or where the gold is mixed with big ſand, gravel, or ſtones, they make uſe of wire ſieves, whoſe meaſh is always of one certain ſize; ſo as readily to tranſmit the fine ſand, or gold duſt, and retain the larger gravel and ſtones behind: for it is extremely rare to meet with any grain of gold, ſo large as a barley-corn, in the ſands of rivers. Whence this method by the ſieve is highly ſerviceable, and conducive to the former operation: for though a large quantity of fine ſand, thus preſſes the ſieve, it may be readily ſeparated in the trough, after the method already deſcribed.

And this may ſuffice to ſhew the general and particular methods of ſtamping and waſhing of ores. We ſee the end of theſe two previous operations, is to get rid of the matters which are not metalline; that ſo the furnace may not be uſeleſsly employed upon ſuch ſubſtances as will themſelves yield no metal in the fire, and only hinder the metallic parts of the ore from coming together, and affording a yield anſwerable to the expence and trouble of the ſuſion.

After the heterogeneous parts have thus been thrown off, by roaſting and waſhing, from the proper earth of the ore, the pure metal now remains to be ſeparated from this earth by ſuſion.

But there are two difficulties, at leaſt one or other of them, always found in this affair. For, (1.) This proper mineral earth, how flexible ſoever it may prove in gold and ſilver, yet ſcarce comes up to the fuſibility of the pure metal, but rather flows thick and ſluggiſh, unleſs the fibre be very intenſe indeed: but 'tis plain, that if this ſubſtance remains viſcous, the moleculæ of the metal cannot ſink through it, in order to form a metalline maſs at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only, a very ſmall quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vaſt body of ſuch adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matters of other metals; whence one of theſe two inconveniences muſt ariſe, viz. either that the ſmall quantity of metal cannot well, under ſo great a load of recrement, come into a little maſs; or elſe, if it could, it muſt of neceſſity be ſo violently agitated and toſſed about, by the ſtrong fire required to keep ſo large a bulk of ſlag in fuſion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles, among the pappy maſs of the ſcoria *.

* Scoria is the droſs, cruſt, or ſlag, found at the top of a melted metal, or metallic matter; being often in the form of a vitrous maſs, or glaſſy matter, and proceeding from the flux employed and united with ſome ſtony recrementitious matter contained there. But when a large proportion of a ſaline flux is uſed, the ſcoria will diſſolve, or give, by the influence of the air.

Theſe two inconveniencies have their two remedies. (1.) The firſt is to add ſuch ſubſtances as promote vitrification, and at the ſame time cauſe a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such ſubſtances [ſee the article FLUX] are for the large work, SAND, FLUXILE MUD, ALKALINE SALTS, TARTAR, NITRE, &c. and for the ſmall, GLASS OF LEAD, a little BORAX, or any compound flux ſalt; the baſis whereof is commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The ſecond is to add metal itſelf: this is a common way, and ſeems greatly improveable, if it can be brought to anſwer the expence. In this caſe, as a greater maſs of metal cannot, by the ſame fire, be ſo much agitated and toſſed about, as a leſs; or if it could be agitated as much, yet all its particles would cohere more firmly, in a large maſs, than in a ſmall one; hence, by ſuch an additional metal, the little maſs that would otherwiſe be with difficulty collected from the ſeveral falling particles of the melted matter, is artificially enlarged, ſo as to cover the whole bottom of the melting pot; in conſequence whereof, all the ſingle metallic particles that fall afterwards, are eaſily catched and detained below, by the large metalline maſs, which there lies ready to receive them.

The metal uſually employed to encreaſe the maſs in this manner, is lead: but Becher, with great probability of much better ſucceſs, recommends the uſe of ſilver in its ſtead, where the

the perfect metals are expected. For ſilver, in this caſe, does not only remain unaltered by the fire and flux, but alſo by a ſpecific efficacy, not to be known but by tryal, collects together, and fixes the ſame potential atoms of the metallic principles that are lodged in an exceeding ſubtile form, remote from one another, up and down in the ore, and actually deduces them to perfect metal. Upon which property of ſilver it is, that Becher has built his minera arenaria, ſand mine, or inexhauſtible method of extracting the perfect metals out of ſand; where, by uſing ſilver inſtead of lead, he undertakes to produce a ten times greater increaſe of the nobler metals.

But as this latter method can only, or principally, be uſed to profit in the ſeparation of gold from its ore, by fuſion; ſo lead remains a very convenient addition for the reception of ſilver, as performing a double uſe in the operation, viz. by imbibing the metal pure, and at the ſame time promoting the vitrification of the earth, mixed along with the ſilver.

Copper being in itſelf of difficult fuſion, requires ſuch a fire as is able to melt its glaſſy ſcoria ſufficiently thin, at the ſame time that it is melted itſelf; and this it does, unleſs the flints ſhould prove very obſtinate indeed. Hence bare fuſion, ſometimes without any other aſſiſtance, will bring out this metal from its ore, and throw it down into a maſs, the ſcoria here flowing ſo thin, as readily to ſuffer the metalline particles to ſink through it; but when the ore is more ſtubborn, its ſeparation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as above-mentioned.

In ſhort, the difficulty of thus ſeparating the metal from its proper earth, is principally founded in the ores of ſilver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin being very fuſible bodies, are much eaſier melted from their adhering mineral matter.

There are, upon the whole, three things to be principally regarded in the ſmelting of ores, viz. (1.) The fuſibility of the metal. (2.) The fuſibility of the ſcoria. And, (3.) The contact or mixture of the metallic matter, with the inflammable part of the coals.

(1.) Different metals run in different manners from their ores. Thus lead, though extremely fuſible in the metal, yet runs with difficulty from the ore, ſo as to require a conſiderable violence of fire. This ſtubbornneſs not belonging to the metal muſt be attributed to the ſtony, ſulphureous, or other mineral matter, wherewith the ore is mixed; which matter ſeems to require a degree of heat, capable of vitrifying the lead, before the metal will run: but then, the lead thus vitrified, recovers a metallic form again, by coming in contact with the coals, eſpecially charcoal.

Tin runs from its ore with greater eaſe than lead, and is therefore ſmelted in much leſs furnaces; but copper requires an intenſe heat, or a blaſt furnace; and iron, the greateſt heat that can be given in a furnace: and both iron and copper abſolutely require immediate contact with the fuel employed. Hence it appears, that each metal muſt have its determinate degree of heat, to run it with advantage from the ore or ſtone.

In order, likewiſe, to obtain the metal from the ore, to beſt advantage, the ſcoria, or ſlag, muſt be neceſſarily made to run thin and fluid; otherwiſe it entangles or inviſcates the metal, and will not let it ſeparate fully. And hence we frequently obſerve, in the aſſaying of copper ores, ſmall grains of metal interſperſed here and there among the ſcoria, that require to be ſeparated by ſtamping and waſhing the whole maſs; which labour might have been prevented, by uſing a proper degree of heat, capable of procuring a thin fuſion, and a ſuitable flux, ſo as to have made all the metal fall to the bottom of the furnace; which it frequently does, when the operation is well performed, by means of a well-adapted flux.

To promote a thin fuſion of the ſlag, in the larger furnace, it is often proper to uſe the more ſoft and fuſible ſands as a flux; and ſometimes that loamy ſand, which the ſmiths employ for the welding of iron; this ſand readily vitrifying, and adhering to the metal in the fire: and, where it will anſwer the charge, even litharge, or droſs of lead, might be uſed for this purpoſe in the larger furnace; for ſcarce any thing procures ſo thin a fuſion of the ſlag as lead.

In the large work, ſulphur is found to adhere tenaciouſly to copper; which metal, therefore, ſeldom comes out pure in the furnace, without repeated fuſions. The beſt method of ſeparating of this ſulphur, is, to uſe a violent heat, no additional flux at all, and the greateſt draught of air that can any way be procured; ſo that all things may conſpire to burn out, or carry off the ſulphur, and introduce in its ſtead, a thing of a different nature, viz. the inflammable matter of the wood and coals, and the vitrification of their aſhes; whereon ductility appears to depend. But where iron is mixed with copper, no better addition is found than ſulphur, and the more ſulphureous marcaſites, or what they, at the ſmelting-huts, call marcaſite-blocks: for the ſulphur which theſe contain, cauſes the copper readily to run away from the iron, and leave it behind in the furnace. And here the power which ſulphur has upon the ſeveral metals, is very remarkable: it renders ſilver almoſt as fuſible as lead: it alſo greatly increaſes the fuſibility of iron, and regulus of antimony; but renders tin much leſs fuſible than it is of itſelf; and lead, even refractory in the fire: whence certain rules might be formed, for the uſe and application of ſulphur to metals, for the improvement of metallurgy. And thus the whole art of ſmelting ſeems to depend upon knowing the degree of heat required by every ore; ſo as to make the ſlag, as well as the metal, run thin, and evaporate or diſcharge the ſulphureous parts; and laſtly, introduce the proper metallic, ductile form, by means of ſome unctuous or inflammable matter.

It ſeems principally owing to a defect in the knowlege of fuſion, that ſo many recrements, or ſlags of metals, anciently thrown, as uſeleſs, from the furnace, have been wrought to conſiderable profit, of late, by more ſkilful workmen; at leaſt, it ſeems more rational to attribute the ſucceſs to this courſe, than to any ſuppoſed growth of metals in ſuch ſlags: ſo, likewiſe, it is currently believed, that lead has grown rich in ſilver, by lying expoſed to the open air, or by long covering churches, or other buildings; whilſt, perhaps, it is rather owing to the unſkilfulneſs of the former workmen, who were not able to ſeparate all the ſilver naturally contained in the lead.

And thus it appears certain, that the ancient metallurgiſts were unacquainted with any way of extracting, to profit, a ſmall quantity of ſilver out of copper; which is now commonly done by ingenious contrivance: whence the ancient copper, found upon temples, or other buildings, frequently contains ſilver. So likewiſe, in the foreſt of Dean, they at this day work the ſlag of their old iron works over again to profit.

SMOLENSKO, a duchy and palatinate in Muſcovy.

This province is ſtiled the great duchy, or palatinate, and extends about 200 miles from eaſt to weſt, though not half the breadth from north to ſouth. It hath on the north, the principality of Bela; on the weſt, Lithuania, unto which it formerly was ſubject, 'till ſubdued by the Muſcovites; on the ſouth, it hath the duchy of Severia; and, on the eaſt, that of Moſcow.

The river Niepper, or Boriſthenes, hath its ſpring-head on the north-eaſt borders of this province, and runs quite a-croſs it, directly from eaſt to weſt. As for the territory, it is not over fertile; but abounds with ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, whoſe ſkins fetch a good price. It lies from the 55th to the 56th deg. 30 min. of latitude. Its chief cities and towns are,

SMOLENSKO, ZUERCOVA-LOUKI, GRAVISK, DRAGABUSA, and BOGLOVESTINE; all of them inconſiderable, except

SMOLENSKO, capital of the duchy, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the Nieper above-mentioned, near the confines of Lithuania, and is a large and well-built populous city. It is almoſt ſurrounded with woods, wherein are taken the beſt furrs in all Muſcovy.

As it ſtands on the frontiers, between Muſcovy and Poland, it hath often ſhifted from one to the other, 'till yielded, with the whole province, to the czar, by the treaty of 1686.

SMUGGLER, a cant word for one that illegally evades the payment of the duties, laid by the ſtate, on any kind of merchandize.

An Abſtract of the chief LAWS of ENGLAND relating to SMUGGLERS.

By ſtat. 8. Geo. I. cap. 18. Any perſons found paſſing knowingly with any foreign goods landed without due entry and payment of the duties, from any of the coaſts, or within twenty miles thereof, and ſhall be more than five in company, or ſhall carry any offenſive weapons, or wear any maſk or diſguiſe, when paſſing with ſuch goods, or ſhall forcibly reſiſt any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe, in ſeizing run goods, ſhall be guilty of felony, and tranſported for ſeven years; and if he return before that time, it is felony without benefit of clergy.

And all perſons receiving or buying any goods, wares, or merchandizes, clandeſtinely run or imported, before the ſame ſhall have been legally condemned, knowing the ſame to be ſo clandeſtinely run or imported, being convicted on the oath of one or more credible witneſſes, or confeſſion, before one juſtice of peace, ſhall forfeit 20 l. to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale, &c. and for want of diſtreſs, ſhall be committed to priſon, without bail or mainpriſe, for three months; the one moiety of the above penalty to the informer, the other to the poor of the pariſh where the offence was committed.

All ſeizures of veſſels or boats of 15 tons or under, which ſhall be made after the 25th of March, 1722, by virtue of act, 1 Ann. cap. 7. for granting to her Majeſty new duties of exciſe, &c. and of an act for continuing ſeveral impoſitions, &c. to raiſe money by loan for the ſervice of the year 1710, or any other act relating to the revenue of cuſtoms for carrying uncuſtomed or prohibited goods from ſhips inwards, or for relanding certificate or debenture goods from ſhips outward-bound; and all ſeizures of horſes, or other cattle, or carriages whatſoever, for being uſed in the removing, carriage or conveyance of ſuch goods, contrary to the ſaid acts, are to be examined into, proceeded upon, heard, adjudged, and determined, by two or more juſtices of peace,

peace, reſiding near the place where ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made, whoſe judgment ſhall be final, and not liable to appeal or certiorari. Stat. 8. Geo. I. cap. 18.

Any two juſtices for London and Weſtminſter, ſhall have the like power in determining ſuch ſeizures as ſhall be made within thoſe cities, as any two juſtices of any other county or place have. Ibid.

This act to continue for two years commencing from the 25th of March 1722, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſions of parliament.

By 6. Geo. II. when any officer of the cuſtoms ſhall neglect to ſeize and proſecute any veſſel, horſes, or carriage, which ſhall be forfeited for running of brandy, ſuch officer being convicted upon the oath of one witneſs, before one juſtice of the peace, ſhall forfeit for every neglect 50 l. one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant of ſuch juſtice; and, for want of ſuch diſtreſs, ſuch offenders ſhall be committed to priſon for ſix months.

By 9. Geo. II. cap. 35. intitled, An Act for indemnifying perſons who have been guilty of offences againſt the laws made for ſecuring the revenues of cuſtoms and exciſe, and for inforcing thoſe laws for the future, it is enacted, That all his Majeſty's ſubjects, their heirs, &c. who before the 27th of April, 1736, have incurred any penalty by clandeſtine running of goods, &c. making falſe entries of goods, or abuſing officers, &c. ſhall be indemnified, and may plead the ſaid act for their diſcharge; paying only 1 s. 4d. for entering the plea, provided that they ſtop all proceedings brought againſt officers, or their aſſiſtants, for, or concerning any matter, cauſe, or thing, committed by ſuch officer, or his aſſiſtants, on occaſion of any offences, &c. intended by the ſaid act to be releaſed and diſcharged; and in caſe any perſon ſhall claim the benefit of this act, and ſhall afterwards bring an action againſt an officer, &c. ſuch officer, &c. ſhall be diſcharged, may plead the general iſſue, &c. and may recover coſts againſt ſuch plaintiff.

All perſons taking, or being intitled to, the benefit of the ſaid act, and ſhall be afterwards guilty of the like offences, ſhall be liable to be proſecuted for both the former and new offence, and for ſmuggling bonds, &c. The act is not to diſcharge any judgment for monies actually levied, nor the informer's part of the penalty; and all perſons liable to be tranſported for any ſuch offences, committing the like after claiming the benefit of the ſaid act, ſhall ſuffer death as a felon, without the benefit of clergy; and all perſons neglecting to pay compoſition money (before agreed to be paid) ſhall be excluded from the benefit of the ſaid act.

Excepted out of the ſaid act, all ſeizures of goods, veſſels, &c. money due on entry of goods or bond debentures, fraudulently obtained, and actions depending; and the treaſury may compound, in caſes where judgment was given for his Majeſty on the 11th of May, 1736, relating to debentures, &c.

That from and after the 24th of June, 1736, upon information, upon oath, before any one or more juſtices of the peace, that three or more perſons, are or have been, after the ſaid 24th of June, 1736, aſſembled together for any the purpoſes aforeſaid, and are or have been armed with fire-arms, or other offenſive weapons, may grant a warrant for apprehending them, and may (if upon due examination he or they find cauſe) commit them to the next county gaol, there to remain without bail or mainpriſe, until diſcharged by due courſe of law; and upon conviction of their being aſſembled to aſſiſt in the running of goods, they ſhall be tranſported for ſeven years, as other felons, by the acts of 4 and 6 Geo. I. and returning before the expiration of ſuch term, ſhall ſuffer death as felons, without the benefit of clergy.

Any perſon apprehending any other perſon, guilty of any of the laſt-mentioned offences, ſhall have a reward of 50 l. and the like ſum of 50 l. ſhall be paid to any perſon maimed in the apprehending; and if any one is killed, his executors ſhall have 50 l. and an offender diſcovering two or more accomplices, within three months after the offence committed, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſhall himſelf be diſcharged, and ſhall be intitled to the like reward of 50 l.

That from and after the ſaid 24th of June, 1736, if two or more perſons are found paſſing together within five miles of the ſea, or a navigable river, with horſe, carts, &c. whereon ſhall be laden ſix pounds weight of tea, or five gallons of brandy, or other ſpirits, &c. not having paid the duty, and having offenſive arms, or being maſked, &c. ſhall be deemed runners of foreign goods, within the meaning of the act of 8 Geo. I. and the proof of the entry, and payment of the duties, ſhall lie on the perſons found with the goods; ſuch perſons, upon conviction, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and be tranſported for ſeven years; and, returning before the expiration of the term, ſhall ſuffer death, without the benefit of clergy.

All goods, weapons, cattle, and package of goods, &c. ſo found, ſhall be forfeited and loſt.

The 50 l. reward to perſons wounded in apprehending, and to the executors of perſons killed, and to the diſcoverers of their accomplices, are to be paid to the reſpective receivers-general, by order of the commiſſioners, on certificate of the judge, of the offender's conviction; and the commiſſioners ſhall adjuſt each perſon's ſhare in caſe of difference.

Upon information, on oath, before one or more juſtices of the peace, that perſons are lurking within five miles of the ſea, or navigable river, and there is reaſon to ſuſpect that they wait with intent to be aiding and aſſiſting in the running, landing, or carrying away, any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, may grant a warrant for apprehending them; and they not giving a ſatisfactory account, may be ſent to the houſe of correction, and be whipped, and be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one month; and the commiſſioners ſhall pay 20s. to the informer, for every offender ſo taken as aforeſaid; yet perſons ſo apprehended, deſiring time to clear themſelves of the accuſation, ſhall only be committed to priſon 'till ſatisfaction or ſecurity be given, not to be guilty of the like offences again.

That after the 24th of June, 1736, perſons offering tea, brandy, &c. to ſale, with or without a permit, may be ſtopped on ſuſpicion, and the perſon ſtopping the ſame may proſecute in his own name; and, on recovery, ſhall be intitled to a third part of the produce on ſale; and the commiſſioners ſhall advance one ſhilling per pound for tea, and one ſhilling per gallon of brandy ſo ſeized, to the proſecutor, 'till ſale.

That after the ſaid 24th of June, 1736, all watermen, carmen, porters, and other perſons whatſoever, found with prohibited or run goods, knowing the ſame to be prohibited or run, being lawfully convicted, on the oath of one or more credible witneſſes, or by confeſſion before one or more juſtices of the peace, where the offence ſhall be committed, or the goods found, ſhall forfeit treble the value; half to the informer, and half to the poor, where, &c. to be levied by diſtreſs, and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant from the juſtice or juſtices before whom ſuch offender ſhall be convicted; and, for want of diſtreſs, the offender to be committed to the houſe of correction, there to be whipped, and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding three months.

Veſſels arriving from foreign parts, with ſix pounds of tea on board, or brandy, &c. in a caſk under ſixty gallons, (except for the uſe of the ſeamen, not exceeding two gallons a man) hovering within a league of the ſhore, all ſuch goods, with the package, ſhall be forfeited.

After 29 Sept. 1736, foreign goods taken in or put out of any veſſel, within four leagues of the Engliſh coaſts, without payment of cuſtoms (unleſs in caſe of apparent neceſſity) ſhall be forfeited, and the maſter, &c. ſhall forfeit treble the value; and the veſſel, if not above 100 tons, ſhall be forfeited; and perſons offering to bribe an officer to connivance, ſhall forfeit 50 l. the forfeitures, one half to the king, and the other to the informer, who ſhall proſecute in any of the courts at Weſtminſter; and actions, &c. for aſſaults upon officers, may be tried in any county of England.

All goods found concealed, after the maſter's report at the cuſtom-houſe, ſhall be forfeited; and the maſter ſhall forfeit treble the value; and perſons forcibly obſtructing or wounding officers on board, in the execution of their offices, ſhall, on conviction, be tranſported, not exceeding ſeven years; and, upon returning before the expiration of the time, ſhall ſuffer death as a felon, without benefit of the clergy.

Officers may go on board coaſting veſſels, and ſearch for prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, and may continue on board during the veſſel's ſtay in the port; and perſons obſtructing ſuch officers, forfeit 100 l. and likewiſe 100 l. penalty is laid on all houſes, men, &c. knowingly harbouring any perſon againſt whom proceſs hath iſſued for obſtructing officers, &c. but no forfeiture herein, unleſs public notice ſhall have been firſt given, in two ſucceſſive gazettes, of ſuch perſon's abſconding, and a writing fixed to the door of the church.

Sheriffs, mayors, &c. on requeſt in writing, of a known ſollicitor for the cuſtoms or exciſe, to grant ſpecial warrants for apprehending offenders; and the perſons granting ſuch warrants, ſhall be ſaved harmleſs from all eſcapes.

But, in trials of ſeizures, judges are to proceed according to the merits of the cauſe, without enquiring into the fact or form of making the ſeizure; and officers and their aſſiſtants, may oppoſe force to force, and when carried before a juſtice for wounding or killing any perſon, in ſuch caſes ſhall be admitted to bail.

The ſaid act ſhall not indemnify any perſon proſecuted by the Eaſt-India company.

Any perſon ſued for any thing done in purſuance of the ſaid act, may plead the general iſſue, and give the ſpecial matter in evidence; and if found for him, ſhall have treble coſt.

Provided, That nothing in the ſaid act ſhall extend to reſtrain his Majeſty's court of king's-bench, or any of the judges thereof, or the court of juſticiary in Scotland, from bailing any perſon committed for felony, by virtue of the ſaid act, in ſuch manner as they may, by law, do in other caſes of felony.

A warrant to bring offenders before a juſtice, upon the aforeſaid ſmuggling act of 9 Geo. II.

Whereas I have been informed upon oath, that ſince the 24th day of June, 1736, A. B. of, &c. C. D. of, &c. and E. F. of

of, &c. have been aſſembled together, for the purpoſe of clandeſtine landing and running of prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, and were armed with fire-arms and other offenſive weapons, contrary to the form of the ſtatute in that caſe lately made and provided: theſe are therefore to require you to apprehend and bring the ſaid A. B. C. D. and E. F. before me, or ſome other juſtice of the peace for this county, to anſwer the premiſes aforeſaid. Given under my hand and ſeal, &c.

By 19 Geo. II. reciting that divers diſſolute perſons aſſociated themſelves to ſupport one another, and appeared in gangs, carrying fire-arms, and have been aiding in running prohibited goods, or liable to duties, or in the illegal landing of goods which have been ſhipped or exported upon debenture or certificate, or in reſcuing the ſame after ſeizure, or in obſtructing the officers of the revenue in their office, and that ſeveral officers had been killed, &c. by the ſaid diſſolute perſons; it is enacted, That if any, to the number of three or more, armed with fire-arms, or other offenſive weapons, ſhall, after the 24th day of July, 1746, be aſſembled in order to be aiding in the illegal exportation of wool, or other goods prohibited to be exported, or the carrying of wool or ſuch other goods, or liable to pay duties which have not been paid or ſecured; or in the illegal relanding of any goods which have been exported upon debenture or certificate; or in reſcuing the ſame after ſeizure from any officer of his Majeſty's revenue, or other perſon or perſons employed by them; or in reſcuing any perſon who ſhall be apprehended for any of the offences made felony by this, or any other act; or in preventing the apprehending any perſon who ſhall be guilty; or in caſe any perſons, to the number of three or more, ſo armed, ſhall, after the ſaid 24th day of July, be ſo aiding; or if any perſon ſhall, after the 24th day of July, have his face blacked, or wear any vizard or other diſguiſe, when paſſing with ſuch goods, or ſhall forcibly reſiſt any of the officers in the ſeizing ſuch goods; or if any perſon, after the ſaid 24th day of July, ſhall maim, or dangerouſly wound, any officer of the revenue, in his attempting to go on board any veſſel within any port of this kingdom, or ſhoot or maim, or dangerouſly wound him when in ſuch veſſel, and in his office; every perſon ſo offending, and convicted, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſuffer death without benefit of clergy. And every perſon who ſhall at any time be convicted of any of the ſaid offences in Scotland, ſhall ſuffer death and confiſcation of moveables.

If any perſon ſhall be charged of any of the offences aforeſaid, before one or more of his Majeſty's juſtices of peace, or of the king's-bench, if committed in England; or before the lord juſtice-general, or one of the lords of the juſticiary, or any one or more of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace in Scotland, if the offence in Scotland, by information of one or more credible perſons upon oath ſubſcribed, ſuch juſtice of the peace, &c. before whom made, ſhall forthwith certify, under his hand and ſeal, and return ſuch information to one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate to his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, who is to lay the ſame before his Majeſty, his heirs, &c. in privy council; whereupon it ſhall be lawful for his Majeſty, his heirs, &c. to make an order, thereby commanding ſuch offenders, &c. to ſurrender, within 40 days after the firſt publication in the gazette, to the lord chief juſtice, or any juſtice of B. R. or to any one juſtice of peace, if the offence in England, or to any of the lords of juſticiary, or to any juſtice of peace in Scotland, if the offence there, who is required, upon ſuch ſurrender, to commit him or them without bail, &c. to the county-gaol or priſon of the place where the ſurrender is, that he may be forth-coming to anſwer; which order the clerks of the privy council ſhall cauſe to be printed in the two ſucceſſive gazettes, and to be ſent to the ſheriff of the county where the offence was, who ſhall, within 14 days after the receipt, cauſe the ſame to be proclaimed between ten in the morning and two in the afternoon, in the market-places, upon two market-days, in two market-towns, near to the place where the offence was committed, and ſhall be fixed in ſome public place in the ſaid towns; and in caſe ſuch offender, &c. ſhall not ſurrender, he eſcaping after ſuch ſurrender, ſhall, from the day appointed to ſurrender, be adjudged to be convicted of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death, as if attainted by verdict and judgment, without benefit of clergy, if the offence is in England; and ſhall be adjudged to be convicted of a capital crime, and ſuffer death and confiſcation, as in caſe of a perſon found guilty of a capital crime, and under ſentence, if the offence be in Scotland; and the court of B. R. or the juſtices of oyer and terminer for the county or place where ſuch perſon is, may award execution againſt ſuch offender, &c. in ſuch manner as if he, &c. had been convicted in B. R. or before juſtices of oyer and terminer, if the offence be in England; and the juſticiary, or the lords of juſticiary in their circuits, may award execution againſt ſuch offender, &c. in ſuch manner as if found guilty and condemned in the ſame court of juſticiary, or in the circuit.

Every perſon who (after the time appointed for ſurrendering) harbours or ſuccours ſuch perſon, knowing him to be ſo charged, and to have been required to ſurrender, and who has not, being proſecuted for the ſame within one year after the offence, and lawfully convicted thereof, ſhall be guilty of felony, and ſhall be tranſported for ſeven years, according to 4 Geo. I. and 6 Geo. I. and if ſuch offender ſhall return into Great-Britain or Ireland before the ſame term, he ſhall ſuffer as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

Nothing therein ſhall prevent any judge or juſtice, or any magiſtrate or miniſter of juſtice whatever, from ſecuring ſuch offender, againſt whom information ſhall be made, and ſuch order in council ſhall be made, by the ordinary courſe of law; and in caſe ſuch offender, &c. ſhall be taken, in order to be brought to juſtice, before the time required to ſurrender, in ſuch caſe, no proceeding ſhall be had upon ſuch order, but he ſhall be brought to trial by due courſe of law.

Every offence by this or any other act relating to the revenue, ſhall be determined in any county in England, as if the fact had been committed therein: provided that no attainder for any offence by this act ſhall make any corruption of blood, loſs of dower, or forfeiture of lands, &c. That if any officer, &c. or other perſon employed in ſeizing wool or other goods, not having paid or ſecured the duty, ſhall be beat, wounded, maimed, or killed, by any offender againſt this act, or if the ſaid wool, &c. be reſcued by perſons armed as aforeſaid, the inhabitants of every rape or lath, or hundred in England, ſhall make full amends for ſuch beating, &c. and for ſuch loſs of goods, and ſhall pay 100 l. for each perſon killed to his executors or adminiſtrators; and ſuch officers, their executors, &c. are enabled to ſue and recover the ſame, the ſum for beating, &c. not to exceed 40 l. The ſum raiſed for that purpoſe to be proportionably aſſeſſed on the inhabitants of ſuch rape, &c. for the damages and expences in recovering the ſame, in ſuch manner as damages and coſts are raiſed in hundreds in caſe of robberies, and for paying the expences according to 8 Geo. II. If the plaintiff be nonſuited, the charges of the defence, &c. to be levied as the ſaid act directs; and every action ſhall be proſecuted in the ſame manner as the ſaid 8 Geo. II. directs.

No perſon to recover, unleſs notice be given of the offence four days after the commiſſion of it unto two inhabitants of ſome town, &c. near the place where the fact was done; and ſhall within eight days after ſuch fact declare, on oath before ſome juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the ſame was committed; which examination every juſtice ſhall be obliged to take, whether he or they ſo examined do know the perſon, &c. who committed ſuch fact, or any of them; and if it be declared that he or they knew the perſon, &c. who committed the ſame, or any of them, then he or they ſhall be bound by recognizance to proſecute according to law; and no ſuch perſon or perſons ſhall recover damages by virtue of this act, unleſs he or they, beſides the ſaid notice and recognizance, give ſuch notice, and enter into ſuch recognizance, as perſons robbed are by the ſaid 8 Geo. II. directed to give and enter into.

Provided, That where any offender ſhall be apprehended and convicted of the offence within ſix months after the offence, no hundred, &c. or inhabitant thereof, ſhall make any ſatisfaction for ſuch damages, or pay the ſaid 100 l. to the executors, &c. of ſuch killed perſon.

No action to be brought againſt the inhabitants of any hundred, &c. unleſs the ſame ſhall be commenced within one year after the offence committed.

All perſons who ſhall apprehend, or diſcover ſo as he may be taken, any perſon in England ſo advertiſed, who ſhall not have ſurrendered within forty days, and cauſe him to be brought before the chief juſtice of B. R. or any one of the juſtices of the ſaid court, or any juſtice of the peace for London or Middleſex (who is hereby required to commit ſuch perſon to Newgate for ſuch felony), ſhall have for every ſuch perſon who ſhall be ſo apprehended 500 l. to be paid in one month after execution ſhall be awarded againſt ſuch offender, by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe reſpectively, who are required to receive the applications of ſuch who are concerned, and to determine who are entitled to the ſaid reward and ſhares thereof, and to divide the ſame as they the ſaid commiſſioners, or the major part of them, ſhall think reaſonable. And if any offender, againſt whom no order of council ſhall have been made, ſhall himſelf diſcover any other offender againſt whom ſuch order ſhall have been made, he ſhall be diſcharged of his own offence (if no proſecution commenced) and ſhall have his ſhare of the reward. And if any perſon loſe a limb or an eye, or be otherwiſe maimed, &c. in apprehending or making purſuit after ſuch offender, every ſuch perſon ſhall receive 50 l. over and above any other reward he may be intitled to by this act. And if any perſon, &c. ſhall be killed in the taking or purſuing, &c. then the executors, &c. of ſuch perſon, &c. ſhall have 100 l. All which rewards to be paid by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, or caſhier of the exciſe.

If any of the ſaid offender or offenders in England ſhall, before his Majeſty's order in council ſhall be made, diſcover two or more accomplices to the commiſſioners, &c. and apprehend them, or cauſe them ſo to be, ſo as they or two of them at leaſt be brought to juſtice and convicted, the offender or offenders ſo diſcovering ſhall have 50 l. and every perſon, &c. ſo diſcovering, ſhall be clear of his or their offence,

for which no profecution ſhall have been commenced, to be paid as aforeſaid. Provided, that nothing in this act ſhall reſtrain B. R. or any of the judges thereof, or the court of juſticiary of Scotland, or any of the judges thereof, from bailing any perſon committed on this act, and not convicted or attainted, in ſuch manner as they may do by law in other caſes of felony.

Perſons guilty of any of the above offences, againſt whom no proſecution ſhall have been commenced, or compoſition made, before the ſaid 24th of June, ſhall be acquitted on the following terms, viz. That he do, before 29 Sept. 1746, enter into his Majeſty's fleet, and ſerve as a ſailor for one year, and before ſuch time regiſter his name, employment, and place of abode, with the clerk of the peace of, &c. in a book, which the ſaid clerk is to keep among the records of the ſeſſions for the ſaid county, &c. and ſhall ſign ſuch regiſter, ſignifying that he claims the benefit of this act, and that he has * entered himſelf with a commiſſion-officer, by name, of his Majeſty's fleet, to ſerve as a ſailor; which entry muſt be as follows:

* N. B. Though the time is expired for entering ſailors, yet it is now of uſe to ſee whether perſons have entered purſuant to the ſtatute.

A. B. claims the benefit of an act of the 19th year of the reign of his Majeſty king George II. and has entered himſelf with a commiſſion-officer of his Majeſty's fleet, and has regiſtered his name in the book kept by the clerk of the peace of this county, riding, or diviſion, this day of purſuant to the directions of the ſaid act.

For which entry ſhall be paid to the clerk of the peace 1 s. And the clerk of the peace is immediately after the ſaid Sept. 29, to tranſmit to the ſaid commiſſioners, an exact account of the perſons who have by ſuch entry entitled themſelves to the benefit of this act.

Perſons who ſhall claim the benefit of this act, and ſhall afterwards commit the like offences, or ſhall within the ſaid year procure their diſcharge, ſhall be ſubject to be proſecuted not only for the new offence, but alſo be liable to the pains they would have incurred, in caſe the above indemnity had not been given.

If any officer of his Majeſty's navy by any means ſuffer ſuch perſon to avoid the ſervice, ſuch perſon ſhall loſe the benefit of the act, and the officer forfeit 500 l.

In caſe any information ſhall be brought to trial on account of the ſeizure of any ſhip as forfeited for illegally carrying goods, or of any wool, goods, wares, or merchandizes as accuſtomed, or illegally carried or exported, or intended ſo to be, or as illegally relanded after having been ſhipped or exported, upon debenture or certificate, wherein a verdict ſhall be found for the claimer thereof, and it ſhall appear a probable cauſe of ſeizure, the judge or court ſhall certify the ſame on the record, and the defendant ſhall not be entitled to coſts, nor ſhall the perſon who ſeized the ſame be liable to any action, &c. And in caſe any ſhall be commenced wherein a verdict ſhall be given for the defendant, the court or judge ſhall certify on the ſaid record, that there was a probable cauſe for ſuch ſeizure, then the plaintiff, beſides his ſhip and goods, or the value thereof, ſhall not have above 2 d. damages, nor any coſts of ſuit, nor ſhall the defendant be fined above one ſhilling. The ſaid act to continue ſeven years. See the Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe at the end of every Letter.

SMUGGLING.

The following are ſome genuine SMUGGLING ANECDOTES, in relation to the ISLE of MAN.

The Iſle of Man is, and has been many years, a common ſtorehouſe for all manner of goods and merchandizes that pay high duties in Great-Britain or Ireland, or are prohibited to be imported into theſe kingdoms.

The merchants in that iſland have conſtant ſupplies of large quantities of tobacco, both in leaf and roll, tea, in cheſts, with all ſorts of Eaſt-India and Dutch goods from Holland: one cargo landed there from Rotterdam, though contrary to law, conſiſted of 345 cheſts of tea: they are likewiſe ſupplied with tobacco and other things from Dunkirk, Oſtend, Norway, and even ſome parts in Great-Britain; with tea and India goods of all ſorts from Gottenburgh and Denmark; with vaſt quantities of brandy and wines from France, and with rum from America: the Scotch and others ſend veſſels to our plantations on purpoſe for that commodity, and land it there, contrary, as is ſuppoſed, to the act of navigation.

Theſe goods are all warehouſed in that iſland, and afterwards put into packages of leſſer quantities and weights, ſuch as may be moſt handy and convenient for running into Great-Britain and Ireland.

There are nine or ten large wherries, and above twenty boats in the iſland, conſtantly employed in the ſmuggling trade, and go weekly from thence, if the weather permits, loaden with high-duty or prohibited goods; the wherries and boats from Piel-town ſupply the eaſt and north parts of Ireland; the Highlands and weſt of Scotland; thoſe from Douglas and Derbyhaven, Wales, Cheſhire, and Lancaſhire; and thoſe from Ramſey, Cumberland, and all the country on each ſide of Solway Firth; but their chief trade is up the river at Boulneſs, into the Scotch borders near Annan.

Ten or twelve of theſe boats are almoſt every week ſeen in a fleet paſſing Whitehaven, all laden, ſteering for the ſaid river, where they land their cargoes at noon-day, the country being all ready to aſſiſt and protect them, in ſuch numbers as no officer dare offer to moleſt.

Theſe cargoes, which generally conſiſt of brandy, rum, tea, and ſilks, are afterwards brought out of the Scotch border on horſeback in the night, under an armed force of fifteen or twenty men, into England, and guarded by them up into the country, 'till they have paſſed all the preventive officers on the Engliſh border.

Thus all the northern counties on this ſide Trent, if not further, are ſupplied from that iſland with theſe commodities at a cheap rate, for the ſmuggler generally buys his brandy and rum there at two ſhillings the gallon, or under, and other goods in proportion, and by paying no duties is enabled to under-ſell the fair trader.

It was ſeveral years ago made appear, that the clandeſtine trade carried on from this iſland, was then above 100,000 l. yearly loſs to the revenue of Great-Britain and Ireland, and it is computed now to be near twice as much, not to mention its carrying away the coin, the detriment to the honeſt merchant, landholder, and even ruin to the labouring people; for being conſtantly ſupplied with brandy, rum, and Dutch geneva, at ſo cheap a price, induces them to drink ſo much as not only weakens their conſtitutions, but corrupts their morals.

There is no other method, it is feared, can be thought on to put a ſtop to this great and growing evil (all the laws hitherto having proved ineffectual), but either by lowering the duties, or purchaſing the iſland of the preſent proprietor.

From July 16, 1753, to July 11, 1754, a manufacturer of tobacco, with eight working men, manufactured and ſhipped off to Ireland 166 hogſheads, containing 8397 rolls, 175,358 pounds neat tobacco. There is now in the Iſle of Man ſeveral workhouſes, in which are employed 50 men and upwards, all workers of Iriſh roll tobacco.—Say but 48 men, that in the ſame proportion with the manufactory in England, will be 996 hogſheads, containing 50,382 rolls, 1,052,148 pounds neat tobacco, which muſt all be run into Great-Britain or Ireland, but chiefly to Ireland.

Iriſh duties on 1,052,148 lb. tobacco, is	l. 24,001 16 7½
Loſs per annum will be Engliſh -	22,155 10 9

N. B. The ſupply for tobacco to the iſland is chiefly from Dunkirk.

Tobacco imported into the Iſle of Man, makes a conſiderable article of the lord proprietor's revenue, who receives half a pound duty on the ſame, which is allowed on all hands, to bring him in 1500 l. per annum.

One factor only, named W. T. for the merchants and dealers in tobacco in Dublin and other parts of Ireland, actually paid near 1000 l. to the proprietor's collector for tobacco only, in the year 1753. And there are three or four more factors in that iſland for tobacco dealers, who pay leſs ſums annually.

Theſe tobaccoes are moſtly manufactured in the iſland into fine pig-tail and coarſe roll, and run into Great-Britain and Ireland.—The working manufacturers were firſt procured from Dublin and Glaſgow; there are not now leſs than fifty of theſe hands, and a number of boys employed in ſeveral workhouſes in the iſland.

Further OBSERVATIONS on the preſent ſtate of SMUGGLING from the ISLE of MAN.

The lords of the treaſury, conſidering the intolerable growing evils ariſing from ſmuggling, ordered (the beginning of this ſummer) the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms to order the ſeveral collectors of his Majeſty's revenue in Great-Britain, to tranſmit to them the moſt accurate eſtimate poſſible of the nature and quantity of the clandeſtine trade carried on in their reſpective diſtricts, with their own obſervations thereon, and their opinions of the moſt feaſible methods of ſuppreſſing the ſame, and whatever elſe might tend to the improvement and better eſtabliſhment of his Majeſty's revenue in the cuſtoms and exciſe, that the ſame might be conſidered by their lordſhips, and laid before parliament, &c. or to that effect. One of theſe orders addreſſed to the collector of the port of———————by the ſecretary of the cuſtoms, I ſaw. The ſaid collector, who is an able and intelligent officer, and with whom I have often conferred on theſe matters, did accordingly acquit himſelf to his principles. He alſo informed me, that the like orders had iſſued from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Ireland to the reſpective collectors in that kingdom, with ſome of whom, the moſt notable, he had kept a cloſe correſpondence on this head, as well as with ſeveral in the ports of Great-Britain. That upon the whole of their informations and eſtimates he found, that the ſmuggling trade from the Iſle of Man alone to Ireland, could not amount to leſs than a loſs of 200,000 l. per ann. to his Majeſty's revenue in that kingdom.—And from the ſaid iſland to England, Wales, and

and Scotland, at leaſt 300,000 l. per ann.—And to the Eaſt India company and the fair trader 200,000 l. per ann. more, in the whole 700,000 l. per annum, excluſive of the horrid conſequences attending the ſaid clandeſtine trade from the ſaid iſle; the chief of which are, the deſtruction of the health, breed, and morals of the Britiſh ſubjects ſtretching round the ſaid iſland.—The death and daggers of their manufactures and agriculture.—The decay and conſumption of the fair trader, and the temptation, and almoſt neceſſity they are thereby daily brought under, of countenancing and connecting themſelves with the ſaid ſmugglers, in order to keep out of a gaol.—The inevitable forerunners of the decay and deſtruction of his Majeſty's cuſtoms and exciſe, if ſuffered to continue much longer.—Add only one conſideration more, the nouriſhing and ſtrengthening the trade and commerce of foreign powers, particularly one, our moſt dangerous neighbour, by deſtroying our own, and draining us conſtantly of our caſh, &c. &c.

A MEMORIAL or petition of the merchants, owners of ſhips, &c. in the ports of Cumberland, has been lately preſented to the lords of the treaſury, ſetting forth the grievances they labour under from the clandeſtine trade carried on from the Iſle of Man [ſee the ſequel], to which I could add many more facts and conſiderations in ſupport thereof, very intereſting.—For inſtance, not one merchant along the coaſt of that county, has for ſeven years paſt, imported and paid duty for any French brandy, the county being glutted with the ſame by the ſmuggling-boats and night-carriers from the Iſle of Man, though for four years paſt, that iſland has been chiefly ſupplied with coarſe Spaniſh brandy from Cette and Barcelona, which they purchaſe there at about 10d. Engliſh, per gallon, and is ſold out again to the ſmuggling-boats in the Iſle of Man, at 18 d. Engliſh, per gallon, the duty on importation of the ſame in the Iſland being but 1 d. per gallon to the lord of the Iſle, and the freight.—This brandy may be bought afterwards on the ſouth and weſt coaſts of Scotland, for about 2 s. 2 d. per gallon in great quantities.

Above 4000 gallons of this brandy were laſt year ſeized at different times, put up to ſale at the cuſtom-houſe at Whitehaven, but it would not fetch even the king's duty. Is not this a plain demonſtration that the country about was ſupplied with it by the ſmugglers at a much lower price? Yet by the ſeizures of brandy brought to that cuſtom-houſe laſt year as juſt mentioned, it is MOST CERTAIN, that not one ſmuggling-boat load from that iſland in a hundred, is taken by the cruizers or coaſt-officers, or any other ways. Almoſt every ſoul along the coaſt of Cumberland, &c. even the beggars and their brats, if they can ſteal any thing to purchaſe coarſe ſugar, drink tea once or twice a day, eſpecially the damnified teas imported from Gottenburgh, &c. into the Iſle of Man, much of which is ſold by the ſmugglers from thence for 6 d. or 1 s. per pound, ſo that the exciſe on this article is dwindled to nothing along the coaſt. By ſuch deplorable means, punch, bumbo, rumbo, and dry drams, have univerſally prevailed among all degrees of people on the coaſts of Great Britain and Ireland lying round the ſaid iſland, to the inconceivable detriment of both the cuſtoms and exciſe, and it leſſens in proportion the conſumption of malt liquor, and the neceſſary motives of brewing it well.

REMARKS on the annexing the Iſle of Man to the crown.

True it is, no leſs than eight ſhips arrived in the Iſle of Man in the compaſs of 14 days in July laſt paſt from foreign parts, with brandy, rum, geneva, tobacco, arrack, teas, ſilks, &c. At one town called Douglas, the ſtreets of which were ſcarce paſſable for ſeveral weeks, on account of the hogſheads, all the warehouſes in the town not being able to contain their cargoes, 'till room was made by running off the ſtock then in cellar. The ſmugglers laſt ſummer marched in the night in bodies of twenty men armed, and as many horſe-loads of brandy, teas, &c. into and through ſome of the towns in Cumberland.—There are no troops in the whole country, except a ſmall garriſon at Carliſle on the eaſt ſide thereof.

The above-mentioned obſervations, together with the following memorial of the merchants, do truly diſcover the preſent ſtate of ſmuggling from the Iſle of Man to the Britiſh dominions.—It remains now to examine the utility of ſuppreſſing the ſame effectually,—The preſent ineffectual means uſed for that end,—And, laſtly, what may effectually and ſpeedily do it.

It is now admitted by all the intelligent, that the abovementioned trivial duties to the lord proprietor of the Iſle of Man do not amount to leſs than 5 or 6000 l. per annum, at one penny a gallon upon ſpirits of all denominations imported there, a halfpenny a pound on tobacco ditto, and 2 ½ per cent. on all dry goods ad valorem: by which, if there were no other lights, a reaſonable judgment might be formed of the bulk of the clandeſtine trade carried on from thence to the Britiſh dominions round them, and the ſhocking loſs it muſt be to his Majeſty's cuſtoms and exciſe in particular, excluſive of the fatal conſequences to his ſubjects.

From which it cannot but be admitted, that the government had better give the lord proprietor of that iſland, and his heirs for ever, a conſideration of 5, or even 10,000 l. a year, for his ſovereignty, than let it remain 12 months more as it is, it being obvious that the ſum the government would ſave thereby, in a year or two, would more than pay ſuch conſideration for ever, at 3 per cent. even excluſive of the annual fair revenue of that iſland, which would then belong to the crown, and may be reckoned at 2000 l.

Thus much in regard to the propriety and neceſſity of purchaſing and annexing it to the crown, and making it a part and parcel of the realm of England, by act of parliament. See the article MAN [ISLE of MAN] and what follows.

It is ſaid (and I believe with reaſon) that the preſent annual expence to the crown, in ſupporting cruizers, and additional coaſt officers, all along the coaſt of the three kingdoms, round the ſaid iſland, and chiefly on account of the ſmuggling from thence, amounts to no leſs than 20,000 l. per annum.

How improper! how injudicious theſe lofty-maſted and decked ſloops and cruizers are for the purpoſe intended, I ſubmit to the cabbin-boy, without repeating any more, than that they do not catch one ſmuggling boat in a hundred.

I ſhall be aſhamed to repeat, that ſuch lofty cruizers muſt be diſcovered by the ſmuggling, open, four-oared boats, with their two low maſts and ſmall ſails, above an hour or two, at leaſt, before the cruizer can diſcover them; the natural conſequence of which is, the boats immediately clap to windward, and ſtand a wide courſe from the cruizer, by which they are ſeldom diſcovered, except in a fog, when it is always calm enough to give the boats an advantage by their oars. Moreover, ſuch cruizers draw too much water to purſue the ſmuggling-boats in ſhore, and, before ſuch can reach them with their boats, their cargoes are landed, and numbers of people always ready to convey them away. So much for the inſignificancy of ſuch cruizers!

I come now to offer effectual means totally to ſuppreſs the ſmuggling from that iſland.

And firſt that of purchaſing and annexing the ſame to the crown, which, indeed, is to be preferred on every account. This would infallibly put a final end to ſmuggling from that iſland; becauſe all ſuch foreign goods as mentioned above, muſt then be brought to the iſland in ſhips of burthen, and landed in one of their four ports, and this could not be done without the knowlege of a king's governor, collector, and the proper officers, in the face of day, the whole coaſt of that iſland being rocky and dangerous, except their four ports, and open boats cannot ſupply them with ſuch goods from France, Holland, Spain, Denmark, and Sweden.

But if the lord proprietor ſhould decline taking a reaſonable conſideration for his ſovereignty thereof, or aſk an unreaſonable one for the ſame, which I would not ſuppoſe, except he ſhould eſtimate the growing revenue thereof in proportion as it has increaſed ſince the year 1736, when he came to the inheritance thereof, viz. to have increaſed from 1000 l. in the aforeſaid duty, to 5000 l. a year: if this ſhould be the caſe, it may properly fall under conſideration, as a moſt important national concern, whether it be not abſolutely neceſſary to have an act of parliament for commiſſioners immediately to inquire into, and aſcertain, the value of the ſaid iſland, and to oblige him to receive ſuch valuable conſideration in lieu thereof, &c. as in the caſe of the heritable juriſdictions in North Britain.

But if meaſures of this kind ſhould be thought improper, I doubt not means may eaſily be found to induce him to alter his inclinations in a ſhort time,—viz. By diſmiſſing the preſent ſett of improper cruizers employed for ſuppreſſing the running trade from that iſland, and employing the annual expence of their eſtabliſhment in fitting out and ſupporting half a ſcore light open boats, or cutters, carrying 9 or 10 men each, having two low maſts, equal to thoſe of the ſmuggling-boats, to ſail and row ſix oars at a time, to be ſtationed on proper cruizes round the ſaid iſland.—Theſe muſt ſee and be ſeen at the ſame time; but being light, and better adapted for ſailing and rowing, and drawing equal water, would ſoon come up with the ſmuggling-boats.

Suppoſe, alſo, the captors were intitled to 40 s. per head for each ſmuggler ſo taken in the fact; and beſides one moiety of the clandeſtine goods then taken, the 40 s. per head to be paid them out of the remaining moiety of the goods, or, in caſe of a deficiency therein, to be inſtantly paid them by the collector of the port where the prize and ſmugglers are landed, upon delivering over to the civil power ſuch captive ſmuggler, or ſmugglers, who are to be impowered to commit the ſaid delinquents to gaol, 'till they can be conveniently turned over to ſerve on board the royal navy for the ſpace of ſeven years at leaſt; ſuch cruizers, nevertheleſs, to be intitled only to one third of the goods taken, except they deliver over to the civil magiſtrate one or more of the ſmuggling delinquents then taken in the fact.

If ſome people ſhould think this puniſhment too light for ſuch atrocious enemies to the public, they have my conſent and approbation either to tranſport them to America for life, or even to exchange them for our Chriſtian ſlaves in Barbary: all which I think much too favourable for ſuch who promote the deſtruction of their fellow-creatures and country at the ſame time.

Upon this laſt method it muſt be obſerved, as the reaſon of its effectualneſs, that at preſent the ſmuggling merchants and factors in the iſland give, for freight to each of the ſmuggling boats, five guineas, which is paid to the ſaid crew immediately, upon their producing a certificate of their having delivered their ſaid cargo to their conſignment in Scotland, England, Wales, &c. But as the captures would be at leaſt as 20 to 1 under this diſpoſition, ſo would the danger to the boat-crews be, on account of the penalties annexed, which would quickly diſcourage all freight at any price: this would ſoon ſtagnate all ſtock on hand in the iſland, ſtop farther importation of ſuch goods, and with it the lord's duties. Moſt of theſe Mank's boatſmen are very hardy able-bodied ſeamen, moſtly married and wedded to their own home, and to whom a ſervitude and abſence of ſeven years, or more, would, I am confident, be a kind of death. In ſhort, SOMETHING MUST SPEEDILY BE DONE TO PUT AN EFFECTUAL END TO THE ENORMOUS SMUGGLING TRADE CARRIED ON FROM THAT ISLAND, OR ALL THE EVILS ABOVE MENTIONED MUST INFALLIBLY CONTINUE.

N. B. No Leeward Iſland rum is now imported into the Iſle of Man, but coarſe, ſtinking North America rum, drawn from molaſſes, carried there by their lumber ſhips from the Leeward Iſlands, particularly French molaſſes, from St Euſtatia. French and Spaniſh wines abound in the iſland, and great quantities of Dutch geneva, very coarſe Spaniſh ſilks, Barcelona handkerchiefs. The Liverpool Guinea-men alſo take in ſtores at the Iſle of Man; and their toys and trinkets imported there from Holland, France, &c. Horrible!

The MEMORIAL before mentioned, of the merchants and owners of ſhips in the port of Whitehaven.—Humbly addreſſed to the right honourable the lords commiſſioners of his MAJESTY's treaſury.

'We the merchants and proprietors of ſhips in the port of Whitehaven, in the county of Cumberland, beg leave to repreſent to your lordſhips the great damage which this nation in general, (and more eſpecially the ports of this county) ſuſtains from the clandeſtine trade carried on from the ISLE of MAN, to the ſeveral parts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and humbly ſubmit to your lordſhips judgment the means we apprehend to be the moſt conducive to remove the ſame.

It is well known that this Iſland is the great ſtorehouſe wherein the French, and other nations, depoſit prodigious quantities of wine, brandy, coffee, tea, ſilks, and other India goods, which are there admitted upon very low duties, and afterwards ſmuggled upon the coaſt of Great-Britain and Ireland, in ſmall boats and wherries, built for that purpoſe; beſides the frauds committed in the article of TOBACCO, which being firſt entered in the ſeveral ports of Great-Britain, for foreign parts, after receiving the drawback, are frequently landed in this iſland, and afterwards run back again in this kingdom and Ireland.

For the carrying on of which clandeſtine trade, the ſituation of the Iſle of Man is extremely commodious, being within ſeven hours ſail of the ſeveral coaſts of England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales.

The loſs, by this illicit trade, to his Majeſty's revenues in the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, hath, by competent judges, been computed at no leſs than TWO HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS annually, beſides the damage to the fair traders in general, and to the honourable Eaſt-India company in particular, which may reaſonably be computed at no LESS SUM. And if the duties alone upon theſe foreign commodities, thus fraudulently imported, amount to ſo exceſſive a ſum, we may judge, in part, what an immenſe treaſure in SPECIE is annually drained from theſe kingdoms, and principally from the circumjacent ſea coaſts, for the purchaſe thereof, which, in the ſame proportion, tends to the impoveriſhing his Majeſty's dominions, and the inriching a neighbouring ſtate, the formidable rival of our power, as well as our commerce.

But the greateſt loſs which the public ſuſtains by this deteſtable trade, proceeds from the alienation of ſuch numbers of his Majeſty's ſubjects from the honeſt arts of life, from agriculture, from manufactures, or from lawful commerce, to an employment which tends both to the deſtruction of their lives, and the debauching of their morals, by the exceſſive importation of ſpirituous liquors.

Theſe evils, though extending in ſome degree to all parts of Great-Britain and Ireland, are yet moſt ſenſibly felt by the port of Whitehaven, and other neighbouring ports of this county, by reaſon of their vicinity to the Iſle of Man.

We beg leave, therefore, to repreſent to your lordſhips the peculiar hardſhips which the trade of this port labours under, from the clandeſtine practices above mentioned, which, of late, have been carried on to a moſt exorbitant height.

A conſiderable trade hath formerly been carried on from the port of Whitehaven, by the exportation of Britiſh manufactures, to Virginia and Maryland, and other of his Majeſty's plantations in America, and the importation of tobacco, and other products of thoſe colonies, and alſo the exportation of coals to Dublin, and other parts of the kingdom of Ireland, by means whereof the commerce of theſe kingdoms hath bee enlarged, his Majeſty's revenues increaſed, and great numbers of able-bodied ſeamen have been raiſed ready upon any emergency, to be applied to the defence of their king and country. Both theſe trades are at preſent in a very declining ſtate, occaſioned chiefly by the exorbitant growth of the ſmuggling trade in the Iſle of Man: for whereas formerly a profitable branch of the trade of this port conſiſted in ſupplying the Iriſh markets with tobacco, this hath been greatly diminiſhed by the manufactories of this commodity which have been ſet up, and greatly increaſed of late in the ſaid iſland, by means whereof thoſe markets are chiefly ſupplied with manufactured tobacco, in a clandeſtine way, to the great prejudice of the trade of this place, and the fair trader in general.

We beg leave likewiſe to repreſent to your lordſhips the difficulties which the coal-trade labours under, as it is at preſent carried on from Whitehaven and the neighbouring ports, to Dublin and other parts of the kingdom of Ireland, ariſing from the ſame cauſe. And whereas, by an act made in the 12th year of his late Majeſty George the Iſt, No goods or commodities whatſoever, other than ſuch that are of the growth, product, or manufacture of the Iſle of Man, are allowed to be brought from the ſaid iſland, into the kingdoms of Great-Britain or Ireland, on any pretence whatſoever, under the penalty of a forfeiture of ſhip and goods; which makes it neceſſary that the owners of ſhips employed in the trade, for the ſafety of their property, ſhould uſe the greateſt caution and circumſpection, in appointing the moſt faithful maſters and ſailors to navigate them that are to be met with, yet it frequently happens that ſmall quantities of prohibited goods are taken on board, on the coaſt of the ſaid iſland, where boats are continually plying to ſupply them, by reaſon whereof, ſhips of great value are forfeited and ſold, to the great prejudice of their innocent proprietors, who are often without redreſs, inaſmuch as the nature of the trade will allow only ſuch low wages to the maſters of coal veſſels, that few perſons who are poſſeſſed of any conſiderable property will accept of that office. By this means, this once-flouriſhing trade is now reduced to a very declining ſtate, few people being willing to venture their ſubſtance upon ſo precarious a foundation.

For the removal of theſe obſtacles to lawful commerce, by which the nation in general (and more eſpecially the port of Whitehaven, and other neighbouring ports) are greatly affected, we humbly beg leave to mention to your lordſhips the expedient, which, by the wiſdom of the legiſlature, has been judged moſt conducive to this end, viz. by purchaſing the ſovereignty of the ſaid Iſland of the right honourable the proprietor, and annexing it to his Majeſty's government; for the carrying of which uſeful deſign into execution, your lordſhips have been veſted with a proper authority.

But if this cannot be effected, we humbly deſire your lordſhips would vouchſafe to take under your conſideration the ſtate of the ſmuggling trade from this iſland, and apply ſuch further remedies as in your wiſdom ſhall ſeem moſt expedient, ſince it is evident from experience, that the laws now in being are not ſufficient to reſtrain the illicit practices complained of, which are grown to ſo exorbitant a pitch, that the ſmuggling boats go publicly in large fleets, and at a common riſk: ſo that when any of his Majeſty's cruizers fall in with them, it is ſcarce poſſible to take more than one at a time, and then the law hath provided no other puniſhment but the loſs of the boat and goods, which loſs is abundantly made up by the ſucceſs of their confederates. But this ſeldom happens, for the cruizers employed in the channel are but ſlow ſailors, and eaſily ſeen at a diſtance, and eaſily avoided, ſo that ſcarce one in a hundred of the ſmuggling boats or wherries ever falls into their hands.

It ſeems neceſſary, therefore, that a greater number of ſmall boats, well manned, ſhould be employed in apprehending theſe ſmuggling veſſels, and that ſome further proviſion ought to be made by law, for the puniſhment of thoſe who are employed in navigating them, either by tranſportation to the Britiſh colonies in America, or by ſending them, for a limited time, on board his Majeſty's navy, or by ſome other way which may be judged more expedient.'

Signed by 40 of the principal merchants and owners of ſhips.

ANNUAL REVENUE of the ISLE of MAN to the LORD PROPRIETOR.

	l.	s.	d.
Lords rents, certain and impropriate tythes	1500	—	—
Fines certain, payable upon deaths of tenants and alienations of eſtates, and fines levied on the people for breach of penal laws, com. annis -	500	—	—
Duties and cuſtoms upon imports neceſſary for the home conſumption of the iſland, com. annis - - -	500	—	—
Duties and cuſtoms on goods imported into the iſland, and afterwards ſmuggled into Great-Britain and Ireland, com. annis - -	4000	—	—
Revenue in groſs - -	6500	—	—

	l.	s.	d.
Revenue in groſs (brought over)	6500	—	—
From which deducting his annual civil liſt	700	—	—
Then his preſent income will be -	5800	—	—
But were the ſmuggling trade ſuppreſſed, whereby the lord would annually loſe the duties ariſing thereon, viz.	4000	—	—
Then the lord's annual income, upon a fair trade, would amount only to	1800	—	—

N. B. Brandy, rum, &c. pay only one penny per gallon duty in the Iſle of Man.

Teas, India goods, &c. pay ad valorem 2 ½ per cent.

By which it is evident how great the importation of clandeſtine goods into the iſland muſt be, to raiſe annually 4000 l. upon ſuch low duties.

But it is now believed theſe low duties amount annually to 6000 l.

The tobacco alone imported into the iſland brings in to the lord, at a halfpenny per pound, 1500 l. per annum.

Further Remarks on Smuggling.

Although the ſmuggling trade carried on by means of the Iſle of Man is exceeding great, and attended not only with very great detriment to the revenue, but of unſpeakable injury to the fair trader, who pays the legal duties for thoſe commodities that others ſmuggle; yet it is to be wiſhed that all the ſmuggling in the kingdom centered in this iſland only, for then the annexing the ſame to the crown of Great-Britain might prove an effectual remedy againſt ſo great an evil. Certain, however, it is, that this illegal and pernicious practice has ſpread itſelf too much over the whole kingdom, and calls aloud for an effectual redreſs, if there is a poſſibility. But while men are weak or wicked enough to perſuade themſelves, that there is nothing criminal in robbing the king of his revenue, or taking a falſe cuſtom-houſe Oath, it is to be feared that thoſe evils will never be extirpated from amongſt us. See the articles Affidavit and Oath.

Nor do mankind ſeem to be ſenſible of the conſequences to the public of thus robbing the royal revenue: for whatever the revenue is illegally plundered of, occaſions the raiſing of new funds, or taxes, to ſupply that deficiency; and this has been the occaſion of the continuance of the national debts and taxes: for if all thoſe ſums of money of which the public revenue has been, ſince the Revolution, deprived, by the infamous practice of ſmuggling, had been ſaved, it is to be queſtioned whether the nation would have been much in debt at this time of day. So that it may be ſaid with truth, that ſmuggling has been one principal cauſe of the continuance of our debts and taxes; and, therefore, ſuch who perpetrate acts of this kind, are the greateſt bane to theſe kingdoms, if the perpetuity of our debts and taxes is one of the greateſt of evils.

Nor does the miſchief thus terminate to the injury and oppreſſion of the community in general; it ſtrikes directly at the immediate ruin and deſtruction of every individual fair and honourable trader in the kingdom; for he that evades the payment of the legal duties upon the commodities wherein he traffics, will, as he can well afford it, underſell him who juſtly pays the duties; and thus the honourable trader muſt either be undone, or turn ſmuggler to prevent it. Whence it is apparent, that one ſmuggler breeds many, and is the ſource of ſo general a depravity in trade, that ſmuggling traders are, in a great meaſure, become the great inſtruments of the ruin of all the reſt.

The ſeverity that has been ſhewn towards the moſt outrageous of theſe miſcreants, has, indeed, had ſuch happy effects, as to break the knot of thoſe terrible banditti; yet this has not ſtruck at the root of the miſchief, and in the opinion of moſt, it can never be extirpated while the temptation from high duties remains ſo great: for where the avoiding them makes the profit great, no riſk, no danger, can prevent mens attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fiſh; he will ſnap at it, though ruin enſues. Beſides, it being chiefly the articles of luxury that are ſmuggled, as brandy, tea, French wine, laces, ſilks, &c. it ſpreads their conſumption among the lower claſs of people, who are tempted to imitate, at a leſs expence, the luxuries of their ſuperiors; and the ſame ſmugglers that bring us theſe ſuperfluities, carry off prodigious quantities of raw wool, to the great prejudice of our manufactures, and the nation in general.

High cuſtoms prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own conſumption, but alſo for exportation, which might enlarge the vent of our goods ten times more than it now is; for if a merchant now exports woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to more than the coſt of his woollen goods; ſo that he muſt have a double capital for ſuch an adventure, or let it quite alone, where the ſales of great quantities of woollen goods are loſt to the nation.

As high cuſtoms enhance the expences of our navigation, the freight muſt be raiſed accordingly, whereby the prices of the ſoap, oyl, and dye ſtuff uſed in manufacturing our wool, are advanced to the maker, and the freights on the cloths, or ſtuffs, exported, being alſo raiſed, are additional clogs upon the ſales of our woollen goods.

High duties prevent the carrying on fiſhing trades, the great nurſeries of ſeamen; whereby our ſailors being few, and their expences raiſed by taxes, they have the higheſt wages of moſt people in Europe, which is another additional advance on the freighters, to the prejudice of our woollen trade, as above.

Great duties taking away ſo great a part of our merchants ſtocks, they are thereby deprived of driving that great trade, and purchaſing thoſe quantities of woollen goods they would otherwiſe do; beſides our merchants riſks in trade being greater than thoſe in Holland, and their loſſes heavier by our cuſtoms, their bankruptcies muſt be more frequent: this ſenſibly affects our manufacturers, who are generally conſiderable creditors; for broken merchants may be well compared to ninepins, one of which ſeldom falls without beating down many others.

High duties recommend foreign manufacturers of fine goods, by making them expenſive, which vanity, on that account, ſoon renders faſhionable; whilſt our own are deſpiſed, though ſuperior in goodneſs, and are a great diſcouragement to our manufactures.

Large cuſtoms are the cauſe of the ſmuggling of wool; becauſe the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the high duties, hath raiſed the contraband trade to a great pitch, and the ſmugglers cannot make their returns in any commodity of ſo quick and certain a vent, or that gives ſo good a profit as our wool; for the French being leſs taxed than we, can work cheaper; and their own wool being coarſe, Engliſh and Iriſh wools are ſo much in demand, that they will give great prices for them, for which reaſon they receive vaſt quantities, to the ruin of our manufactures.

High cuſtoms on aſhes, bay ſalt, cotton, copper, coals, drugs, foreign ſoap, flax, fruit, furrs, hemp, iron, leather, linens, oil, paper, rice, tobacco, tallow, threads, tapes, ſilk, and ſugar, being neceſſaries of life, or materials of manufacture, moſt neceſſarily made all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewiſe, (though our workmen ſhould have no exciſe to pay) and ſuch diſcouragements give opportunity to foreigners to ſend their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and ſmuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the ruin of our manufactures; for all the above cuſtoms are as much taxes on our woollen manufacture, as if they were laid on the wool itſelf, or more; for the workman muſt raiſe the money on the woollen goods he makes, to pay the duties of what he uſes of the above articles, with the advances, in all the hands they paſs through, before they come to him.

'Tis by theſe high duties that we ourſelves drive away our own manufacturers, and prevent our ever getting more; and foreigners could not rival the people of ſo fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furniſh them with the means, by our high taxes and reſtraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though deſigned to amend it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the moſt rigorous penal law: of which Mr Locke gives an inſtance, in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 116. 'Tis death in Spain to export money; and yet they who furniſh all the world with gold and ſilver, have leaſt of it among themſelves: trade fetches it away from that lazy and indigent people, notwithſtanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it there; it follows trade againſt the rigour of their laws; and their want of foreign commodities, makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.'

This ſeems to be a parallel of the ſtate we are coming to, and which ſome foreigners may by and by make.

'Tis felony in England to export wool, and yet they who furniſh all the world with wool, have leaſt of the manufacturing of it among themſelves; the ſmuggling trade fetches it away from that exciſed and cuſtom-loaded people, notwithſtanding all their artificial and forced contrivance to keep it there: it follows the ſmuggling trade, againſt the rigour of the laws, and their want of taking off the taxes on their manufactures makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

By this we ſee that neither death or baniſhment can force trade to an unnatural channel; and it may be compared, in one reſpect, to water, which cannot be compreſſed within its natural dimenſions: the more force is exerted, the ſooner is the veſſel broke that contained it, and the water let looſe never to return.

The great De Wit, in his Memoirs, Ratiſbon edit. p. 77, aſſerts, 'That the navigation, the fiſhery, the trade, and manufactures, which are the four pillars of the ſtate, ſhould not be weakened or encumbered by any taxes; for 'tis they that give ſubſiſtence to the moſt part of the inhabitants, and which draw in all ſorts of ſtrangers, unleſs the neceſſity was ſo great, that the country was threatened with an intire deſtruction, and theſe fundamentals ſhould be attached upon the hopes that theſe taxes would not laſt long; at leaſt haſte ſhould be made, as ſoon as the ſtorm was over, TO TAKE THEM OFF: again, this diſtinction ſhould be made, that

S M U

'that manufactures ſhould not, or cannot be taxed at all, be-
'cauſe they are not fixed to the country, and we muſt fetch
'from foreign countries the ſtuffs and materials to work
'them up.'.

Smuggling ſends away our ſpecie.

Britain having no mines of gold or ſilver, has no other means of getting, or preſerving its treaſure, but by foreign trade. As cuſtoms confine our trade to mere importation, for our own neceſſaries or vanities, and at the ſame time ruin our manufactures; what we want in exports to balance the imports, muſt be paid in ſpecie, making the balance of trade every year more and more againſt us; for as we raiſe the prices of our goods ſo high, by taxes, that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their ſuperfluities, which we now chiefly, and in time muſt intirely, pay for with our gold and ſilver, as appears by the bills of entry in every week we are obliged to do; and our high duties encourage ſmugglers, who have ſeldom a ſettled habitation, or any ſtock of our manufactures by them, to carry out vaſt quantities of SPECIE to purchaſe their cargoes: ſuch large draughts make our mint lie idle; we ſee but little new-coined gold, and hardly any ſilver; we find our money diſappear, and grow ſcarcer every year; our trade decline, and our people ſtarve. In regard to high duties and their effects, ſee further the articles BONDING at the cuſtom-houſe, LABOUR, TAXES, FUNDS, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT.]

That the lowering of the duties on ſome branches ſhould ſeem to be the moſt natural and effectual way to ſuppreſs ſmuggling, and, indeed, to augment the national revenue, may be judged from the lowering of the DUTY ON TEA; the duty thereupon being very conſiderably augmented ſince that time, and the ſmuggling of that commodity proportionably diminiſhed: and this was obtained by the indefatigable application of the right honourable Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq; late lord mayor of the city of London; to whom I am indebted for theſe anecdotes, relating to the ſmuggling carried on by means of the Iſle of Man, and for many other curious particulars, which I ſhall endeavour to render as uſeful to the public as I am able. See LINEN and TEA.

Further REMARKS on SMUGGLING ſince the laſt War.

Since the Reports on the infamous practice of ſmuggling, made by the committee of the houſe of commons, and lately publiſhed by Mr. Alderman Janſſen, now Chamberlain of the city of London, the true idea of thoſe practices ſeems to be revived, and has induced the government, after ſo long and ſhameful difregard of the proper meaſures recommended throughout the ſaid Reports, to put them in execution: and we hear daily of the good effects of the ſalutary means at length exerted.

It is ſaid likewiſe that the Iſle of Man WILL AT LAST BE ANNEXED to the crown of England; that Iſland having been reckoned a PETTY FRANCE, within this kingdom, it being a capital rendezvous for French ſmugglers, and a prodigious magazine for all ſorts of French commodities and manufactures. See the ISLE of MAN. The preſent vigilance of the government, in this reſpect, is not only manifeſt all around the Britiſh and Iriſh coaſts, but is exerted in our American plantations. For the French, under the pretence of carrying on their fiſhery in North America, purſuant to treaty, have been taken ſmuggling in the river St Lawrence, and as well our Britiſh furrs from Canada as their own wares, among Britiſh ſubjects: but his Majeſty's cruizers there, being very active at preſent, it is to be hoped, will put a ſtop to theſe practices of the French in this part of the world.

The goods lately ſeized by the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, trading to and from the Iſle of Man, and the Iſles of Guernſey and Jerſey, are ſaid not to amount to ſo little as 300,000 l.

The Dutch, no leſs than the French, alſo make their fiſheries on the coaſts of Great Britain and Ireland ſubſervient to their ſmuggling practices; and therefore there is no leſs need for the officers of the revenue to be watchful over theſe our good friends and allies, leſt we ſhould be as great ſufferers by their ſmuggling arts, as we are by their fiſheries on our coaſts.

England is certainly the beſt market in the world for ſuch ſmugglers to bring their wares to, they ſelling here the deareſt, and fetching the beſt prices, becauſe our own commodities and manufactures ſell the deareſt to our own ſubjects of any in the whole world. This, we apprehend, to be the great inducement to ſmuggling in general in theſe kingdoms; and till the cauſe is effectually removed, it is to be feared, the effect will never greatly ceaſe; for the high duties heighten the temptation to ſome, and the low price of our competitors goods, to others. The immenſity of our national debts, and the tax-incumbrances under which our whole commerce labours, for the payment of intereſt only, and a great proportion of that to foreigners alſo, occaſions the ſmuggling with which we ſo greatly abound in every part of this kingdom; and while people can purchaſe two or three ſmuggled ſuits of clothes, for the price of one, and perhaps, not ſo gay, we cannot ſuppoſe any great obſtruction will be put to ſmuggling.

An abſtract of an act made in the year 1762 for the further improvement of the revenue of cuſtoms; and for the encouragement of officers making ſeizures, and for the prevention of the clandeſtine running of goods into any parts of his Majeſty's dominions.

Veſſels or goods ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms to be publicly ſold, after condemnation, to the beſt bidder, at ſuch places as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall think proper; one moiety of the produce to go to the ſaid officers, and the other to be paid into the exchequer. Officers to be allowed, after all charges deducted, two third parts of the produce upon wrought ſilks, bengals, ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of Perſian or Indian manufactures, and callicoes, ſeized and condemned in purſuance of act 11, 12 Will. III. the other third to be paid into the exchequer; and upon wool, and other goods enumerated act 12 Geo. II. the produce after all charges; and upon tobacco and ſnuffs burnt, &c. purſuant to act 24 Geo. II. 3d. per lb. and for tobacco ſtalks 1d. per lb. and for tea, not exceeding 2s. 6d. per lb.

Where the produce of any ſeizure ſhall not anſwer the expences of condemnation and ſale, or a verdict be given for the claimant, the charges to be paid out of any branch of the revenue applicable to incidents. The king to direct, by order of council, or proclamation, how the ſhare of ſuch ſeizures as ſhall be made by veſſels in his ſervice, ſhall be divided amongſt the officers and men.

Where any foreign brandy, arrack, rum, or other ſpirits, not being for the ſhip's uſe, ſhall be imported, &c. in any veſſel of 50 tons, or under, the ſame, together with the veſſel and furniture, ſhall be forfeited; and in like manner, where any ſpirits, tea, tobacco, tobacco ſtalks, or ſnuff, are liable to forfeiture by act 9 Geo. II. or act 24 Geo. II. the veſſel on board which the ſame ſhall be found, if under 50 tons, ſhall be forfeited, with her apparel: and the veſſels, &c. ſeized and condemned, are to be diſpoſed of as veſſels of 40 tons, or under, forfeited for importing foreign brandy, &c.——No writ of delivery to be iſſued out of the exchequer for any ſuch veſſel, unleſs the officer delay proceeding to trial and condemnation three terms; and ſecurity be given, in double the value, to return the veſſel upon condemnation. ——Clauſes in act 8 Annæ, & 15, 16 Geo. II. Claimant, upon entering his claim, to give ſecurity in 60 l. to pay coſts; and in default thereof, the goods and veſſel to be condemned. —Clauſes in act 5 Geo. I. The recited clauſes, reſpecting cuſtomable or prohibited goods on board veſſels of 50 tons or under, found hovering on the coaſt of this kingdom, extended to all ſuch like veſſels found hovering on any of the coaſts of Ireland; and the ſaid offences to be tried, and penalties recovered in any of the four courts of Dublin.—Offences in other ports, to be proſecuted in the court of admiralty, or other court of record of the place; and the forfeitures to be divided and applied as theſe in Great-Britain.

REMARKS ſince the laſt Edition.

In the Reports of the committee of the honourable houſe of commons, appointed to enquire into the cauſes of the moſt INFAMOUS PRACTICE of SMUGGLING, and lately publiſhed by Mr Chamberlain Janſſen, late lord mayor and repreſentative of the city of London, it is obſerved, that 'upon the rupture with Spain in 1739, it was clearly foreſeen, that the inſidious practices of France would neceſſarily involve us in a war likewiſe with that power; wherefore it became an indiſpenſible conſideration, what would be the moſt effectual methods to ſtop thoſe channels, through which we were daily pouring in our wealth among the people of that perfidious nation; enriching them with our ſpecie, merely to purchaſe ſuperfluous commodities; and, at the ſame time, impoveriſhing and weakening ourſelves, previous to a war which was upon the point of breaking out with them.

The Britiſh parliament, impreſſed with a deep ſenſe of the mighty evils reſulting from this imprudent and baneful intercourſe, ſeized the earlieſt opportunity of putting a ſtop to it. They were ſufficiently apprized, that this nation paid annually to France, a prodigious ſum of money for French cambric; and that our Eaſt-India company, out of their ſtock then in hand, with what they could import, would be able to furniſh a commodity equally fit for every purpoſe; and therefore very judiciouſly paſſed an act, in 1744, for prohibiting the wear of French cambric; and ſo general was the ſenſe of both houſes, at that juncture, for this prohibition, that ſeveral members declared in their ſpeeches, (doubtleſs in hopes that their example would be univerſally followed) that they took it for granted, not a ſingle member of either houſe would appear in French cambric by that time twelvemonth. This act, however, not anſwering effectually the purpoſe intended, other acts have paſſed ſince to enforce the intention of the firſt; and theſe ſeveral acts have, at laſt, completed the diſuſe of this pernicious commodity among us; and that we may hope for ever.

But the parliament did not ſtop here: for, the next ſeſſion, finding the ſmuggling of tea was got to ſo exorbitant a height, that the large revenue, which ought to have ariſen from it, was ſinking daily; and in danger of ſuffering a much greater diminution, unleſs a ſpeedy remedy were applied; and be-

ing at the ſame time well informed, that one million and a half of pounds weight of the tea ſo ſmuggled in upon us, (together with brandy and other goods) came from France, for all which we paid them our ready money; they paſſed an act, to commence at Midſummer 1745, for taking off one half (being two ſhillings per pound) of the exciſe upon that article; by which wiſe law, the practice of ſmuggling was found immediately to leſſen; and our ſpecie was conſequently, in a great degree, preſerved from being ſent to France. Our India company thereupon increaſed their importation of tea very conſiderably, and the revenue increaſed with a moſt ſurprizing rapidity *; as will fully appear in a large and curious ſheet at the concluſion of this treatiſe. It is computed there have been ſaved to the nation, by theſe two ſalutary laws, not leſs than three hundred thouſand pounds annually; which exorbitant ſum had been ſent in ſpecie from hence to France, before the prohibition of the wear of French cambric; and the check put to the ſmuggling of French tea.

* For ſome years before the paſſing this act, the exciſe and cuſtom upon tea (together) produced but little above one hundred and ſeventy thouſand pounds ſterling, communibus annis. But ſo immenſe has been the increaſe of this branch of the revenue from that period, that upwards of five millions and a half ſterling have been paid into the exchequer, more than would have been, if this act had not paſſed; whilſt the Eaſt-India company has, on the other hand, increaſed her importation of tea, near fifty-three millions of pounds weight.

The ſucceeding ſeſſion, the parliament found, from cuſtom-houſe accounts laid before them, that ſmuggling ſtill continued to a much greater exceſs than could have been ſuſpected, when the act of the laſt ſeſſion paſſed. They were likewiſe ſenſible, that ſuch † numerous and deſperate gangs of men, ſo well mounted and ſo well armed, might greatly add to the diſturbance ‡ already broke out in the kingdom. They knew that theſe banditti carried the earlieſt intelligence to France, into whoſe ports they were freely admitted, although in the time of open war, and an open rebellion; and they alſo knew they were hardy ſailors and ſkilful pilots. All theſe circumſtances were ſo very alarming, that a committee was moved for, and appointed accordingly, to inquire into the cauſes of the moſt infamous practice of ſmuggling, &c. which committee made the two following Reports, that now appear in print for the firſt time.

† See page 7, to 11, of the firſt Report.

‡ The beginning of the winter 1745, when the rebels were in England.

The reader will find, in theſe Reports and the papers annexed, an abundance of particulars, not only new, but uſeful and curious. He will ſee in what manner the laws, for levying the taxes and guarding againſt frauds, have been ſuffered for a long courſe of years to be trampled upon, to the manifeſt detriment of the fair trader, the very affecting diminution of the revenue, and the utter diſgrace of government. He will ſee, with aſtoniſhment, thoſe laws violated by avowed and open acts of force. He will ſee too many inſtances of the infringement of thoſe laws, through the fraudulent connivance of thoſe very officers, who were appointed to ſecure the ſtrict obſervance of them. In a word, he will ſee the revenue plundered, in ſo barefaced a manner, and in ſuch a variety of ſhapes, that he will be ſtruck with amazement, that practices ſo oppoſite to all principles of government, and pregnant with evils of ſuch fatal conſequence, could have been permitted to reign ſo long. And, finally, he will diſcover, in the courſe of theſe ſheets, very probable methods propoſed, (if not very certain ones) for collecting the old taxes, in a due and regular manner; whereby the frequent impoſition of new ones, ſo oppreſſive to our manufactures, and ſo deſtructive to our trade, might have been ſpared; and the loſs of ſome important branches of our commerce thereby prevented.

Jovis, 6 Die Februarii, 1745.

Ordered nemine contradicente, That a committee be appointed to enquire into the cauſes of the moſt infamous practice of ſmuggling, and conſider of the moſt effectual methods to prevent the ſaid practice, and to report their opinion therein to the houſe.

And a committee was appointed accordingly; and all that come to the committee, are to have voices; and the committee have power to ſend for perſons, papers and records.'

Anno tertio Georgii III. regis. Cap. XXII.

'An Act for the further improvement of his Majeſty's revenue of cuſtoms; and for the encouragement of officers making ſeizures; and for the prevention of the clandeſtine running of goods into any part of his Majeſty's dominions.

'Whereas, by an act paſſed in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majeſty King George the Firſt, intitled, An act for the improvement of his Majeſty's revenues of cuſtoms, exciſe, and inland duties, the commiſſioners of thoſe revenues are reſpectively impowered and directed to cauſe all tea, coffee, foreign brandy, rum, or other foreign exciſeable liquors, which ſhall be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe, after condemnation, to be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder, at ſuch places as the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall think proper; and to allow the officers making ſuch ſeizures, for their encouragement, one third part of the full ſum ariſing from the public ſale of all ſuch tea, coffee, foreign brandy, rum, or other exciſeable liquors, free from all charges of condemnation and ſale; and to cauſe the remaining part of the produce of ſuch ſales, after paying the reward to the officer, and the charges of condemnation and ſale for ſuch ſeizures, to be paid into the receipt of his Majeſty's exchequer, in lieu of his Majeſty's moiety, as was then practiſed: And whereas, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts of parliament, one moiety of all fines, penalties, and forfeitures, impoſed by any act relating to the duties of exciſe; or any other duty under the management of the commiſſioners of that revenue, is given to his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or them who ſhall diſcover, in form, or ſue for the ſame; in purſuance of which laws the officers of exciſe ſeizing any of the commodities herein before enumerated, have been allowed a moiety thereof; but the proviſions in thoſe ſubſequent laws, not extending to ſuch ſeizures when made by officers of the cuſtoms, they have hitherto been allowed only one third of the produce thereof, purſuant to the directions of the before-recited act of the twelfth of George the Firſt: And whereas the power given by the ſaid recited act to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms and exciſe, to cauſe the goods therein enumerated to be publickly ſold, has been found very advantageous to the revenue; and if the like power was extended in general to all ſorts of goods, it would prevent many frauds and illicit combinations practiſed by bidders in the court of exchequer, to the great detriment of the public revenue and the fair trader: And whereas it is highly reaſonable and juſt, as well as of public utility, that the officers of the cuſtoms and exciſe ſhould have equal encouragement to be vigilant in the exertion of their duty, to ſuppreſs the pernicious practice of ſmuggling; to which end, may it therefore pleaſe your Majeſty, that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the firſt day of May, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, to cauſe all ſhips, veſſels, and boats, and all goods of what kind ſoever they may be (excepting only ſuch veſſels, boats, and goods, as are by law liable to be burnt) which ſhall be ſeized by any officers of the cuſtoms, for unlawful importation, or for non-payment of duties, or for any other cauſe of forfeiture, and condemned according to law, to be ſold publickly to the beſt bidder, at ſuch places as the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall think proper; and all and every officer who ſhall ſeize ſuch goods, ſhall, for his and their encouragement, be allowed, by the ſaid commiſſioners, one moiety of the net produce ariſing by the ſale of ſuch ſeizure, after deducting the charges of condemnation and ſale from the whole; and the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall cauſe the other moiety thereof to be paid into the receipt of his Majeſty's exchequer, in lieu of his Majeſty's ſhare thereof (excepting in thoſe caſes which are otherwiſe provided for by this act) any law, cuſtom, or uſage, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared and enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That after deducting the charges of condemnation and ſale from the groſs produce of all wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt-India, and all callicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there, which ſhall be ſeized and condemned in purſuance of an act paſſed in the eleventh and twelfth years of the reign of the late king William the Third, (intitled, An act for the more effectual employing the poor, by encouraging the manufactures of this kingdom) the ſaid commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall allow to the officer or officers who ſhall ſeize the ſame, two third parts of ſuch net produce, and cauſe the remaining third part thereof to be paid into the receipt of his Majeſty's exchequer; and that for all wool, and any other of the ſpecies of goods enumerated in an act paſſed in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majeſty king George the Second (intitled, An act for taking off the duties upon woollen and bay-yarn imported from Ireland to England, and for the more effectual preventing the exportation of wool from Great-Britain, and of wool, and wool manufactured, from Ireland to foreign parts) after deducting the charges of condemnation and ſale, the remainder of the produce ſhall be paid to the officer who ſhall ſeize the ſame, in ſuch manner as by the ſaid act is directed; and that for all tobacco, tobacco ſtalks, and ſnuff, which ſhall be burnt or deſtroyed, in purſuance of an act paſſed in the twenty-fourth year of the reign of his late Majeſty king George the Second (intitled, An act for the more effectual ſecuring the duties upon tobacco) the officer or officers ſeizing the ſame, ſhall be paid, in the manner directed by that act, three pence for every pound weight of ſuch tobacco and ſnuff, and one penny for every pound weight of tobacco ſtalks; and that for ſuch tea as ſhall be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, by order of the reſpective

reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe, purſuant to the laws now in being, the officers making the ſeizures ſhall be rewarded in ſuch manner as the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall think proper, ſuch reward not exceeding two ſhillings and ſix-pence for each pound weight of ſuch tea, in lieu of all other allowances; any thing in this or any other act to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided alſo, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That if the produce of any particular ſeizure, ſold in purſuance of this act, ſhall not be ſufficient to anſwer the expences of condemnation and ſale; or if, upon the trial of any ſeizure, a verdict ſhall be given for the claimant, and the ſhip or goods ſhall not be condemned; in either of thoſe caſes, it ſhall and may be lawful for the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, to order the charges attending the ſeizing and proſecuting ſuch ſhip or goods, to be paid out of any branch of the revenue of the cuſtoms, which is by law applicable to the payment of incidents; any thing in this, or any other act of parliament to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And whereas, for the more effectual prevention of the infamous practice of ſmuggling, it may be neceſſary to employ ſeveral of the ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, on the coaſts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and of the other dominions and colonies belonging to the crown of Great Britain; therefore, for the better encouragement of all the officers and ſeamen employed in ſuch ſervice, to do their duty therein, be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That it ſhall and may be lawful to and for his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, to direct and appoint the moiety herein before mentioned, or any other part of all and every the ſeizure and ſeizures that ſhall be made by ſuch officers or ſeamen reſpectively, ſo employed as aforeſaid, to be divided amongſt all ſuch officers and ſeamen of ſuch ſhip or veſſel of war, who ſhall make any ſuch ſeizure as aforeſaid, in ſuch proportions, and in ſuch manner, as his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, ſhall think fit to order and direct, by any order or orders of council, or by any proclamation or proclamations to be made or iſſued, from time to time, for that purpoſe; and ſuch moiety, or other part of the ſaid ſeizure or ſeizures, ſhall be ſo paid and divided to and amongſt all the officers and ſeamen of ſuch ſhip or veſſel of war accordingly.

And whereas the laws already made to prevent the clandeſtine importing and landing of foreign brandy, rum, ſtrong waters, or other ſpirits, tea, tobacco, tobacco ſtalks, and ſnuff in ſmall veſſels, which hover upon the coaſts of this kingdom, have been found inſufficient for that purpoſe; be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the firſt day of June, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, if any foreign brandy, arrack, rum, ſtrong waters, or ſpirits of any kind whatſoever, ſhall be imported or brought into Great-Britain, or into any port, harbour, haven, or creek thereof, in any ſhip, veſſel, or boat, of the burthen of fifty tons, or under (except only for the uſe of the ſeamen then belonging to and on board ſuch ſhip, veſſel, or boat, not exceeding two gallons for every ſuch ſeaman) every ſuch ſhip, veſſel, or boat, with all her tackle, furniture, and apparel, and alſo all ſuch brandy, arrack, rum, ſtrong waters, or ſpirits, or the value thereof, ſhall be forfeited and loſt; and where any brandy, arrack, rum, ſtrong waters, or other ſpirits, or any tea, tobacco, tobacco ſtalks or ſtems ſtript from the leaf, or ſnuff, is or are liable to forfeiture, by virtue of an act made in the ninth year of the reign of his late Majeſty king George the Second, intitled, An act for indemnifying perſons who have been guilty of offences againſt the laws made for ſecuring the revenue of cuſtoms and exciſe, and for inforcing thoſe laws for the future; and by another act made in the twenty-fourth year of the reign of his ſaid late Majeſty king George the Second, intitled, An act for the more effectual ſecuring the duties upon tobacco, or either of them, for being found on board any ſuch ſhip or veſſel at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any of the ports of this kingdom, or within two leagues of the ſhore, as is particularly expreſſed in thoſe acts: It is hereby further enacted, That in every ſuch caſe the ſhip or veſſel on board of which ſuch goods ſhall be ſo found, with all her tackle, furniture, and apparel, ſhall alſo be forfeited and loſt, provided ſuch ſhip or veſſel doth not exceed the burthen of fifty tons.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That every ſhip or veſſel forfeited by this act, ſhall be ſeized and proſecuted, and after condemnation be burnt, deſtroyed, or uſed in his Majeſty's ſervice by the officers of the cuſtoms or exciſe, and the tackle, furniture, and apparel diſpoſed of and divided, and the tonnage aſcertained in the ſame manner as is directed by the laws now in force, with reſpect to veſſels of forty tons or under, forfeited for importing foreign brandy or other ſpirits.

And it is alſo further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That no writ of delivery ſhall be granted out of the court of exchequer, for any ſhip, veſſel, or boat, that is liable to be burnt, deſtroyed, or uſed in his Majeſty's ſervice, by virtue of this act, or any other act relating to the cuſtoms or exciſe, unleſs the officer ſeizing the ſame ſhall delay proceeding to the trial and condemnation thereof for the ſpace of three terms; and in that caſe, not without good ſecurity being given in double the appraiſed value of ſuch ſhip, veſſel, or boat, to return the ſame upon condemnation, in order to be burnt, deſtroyed, or uſed in his Majeſty's ſervice according to law.

And whereas, by an act paſſed in the eighth year of the reign of her late Majeſty queen Anne, for granting to her Majeſty new duties of exciſe, and upon ſeveral imported commodities; and by another act paſſed in the fifteenth and ſixteenth years of the reign of his late Majeſty king George the Second, for further regulating the plantation trade, and ſeveral other purpoſes; it is amongſt other things enacted, That every perſon, upon entry of any claim in the court where any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or any ſhip, veſſel, or boat, ſhall be proſecuted, ſhall be obliged to give ſecurity, in the penalty of thirty pounds, to anſwer and pay the coſts occaſioned by ſuch claim; and in default of giving ſuch ſecurity within the time limited by the courſe of that court, for entering ſuch claim, ſuch goods, ſhips, veſſels, or boats, ſhall be recovered: And whereas many perſons have, from the ſmallneſs of the penalty, been induced to enter groundleſs claims in fictitious names, with a view to put the officers of the revenue to vexatious trouble and delay, as well as to deter them from proſecuting ſeizures legally made, by putting them to an extraordinary expence, oftentimes more than the value of the goods ſeized, which tends very much to the prejudice of the public revenue, and to the diſcouragement of the officers thereof, in the execution of their duty: To remedy therefore this inconvenience for the future, be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the firſt day of May, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, every perſon, upon entry of any claim in the court where any goods, ſhips, veſſels, or boats, ſhall be proſecuted, ſhall be obliged to give ſecurity, in the penalty of ſixty pounds, to anſwer and pay the coſts occaſioned by ſuch claim; and in default of giving ſuch ſecurity within the time limited by the courſe of that court, for entering claims, ſuch goods, ſhips, veſſels, or boats, ſhall be adjudged to be forfeited, and ſhall be condemned; any thing in the before-recited acts, or any other act of parliament, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And whereas, by certain clauſes in an act made in the fifth year of the reign of his late Majeſty king George the Firſt, intitled, An act againſt clandeſtine running of uncuſtomed goods, and for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the cuſtoms; (which clauſes have been continued by ſeveral ſubſequent acts) it was declared and enacted, That where any ſhip or veſſel, of the burthen of fifty tons, or under, laden with cuſtomable or prohibited goods, ſhould be found hovering on the coaſts of this kingdom, within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage for foreign parts, or to ſome other port of this kingdom, wind and weather permitting, it ſhould and might be lawful to and for any officer or officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, to go on board every ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and to take an account of the lading, and to demand and take ſecurity from the maſter, or other perſon having or taking the charge or command of ſuch ſhip or veſſel in that voyage, by his own bond, by him to be entered into, unto his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, in ſuch ſum or ſums of money as ſhould be treble the value of ſuch foreign goods then on board, with condition that ſuch ſhip or veſſel, as ſoon as wind and weather, and the ſtate and condition of ſuch ſhip or veſſel permitted, ſhould and would proceed regularly on ſuch voyage, and ſhould land ſuch foreign goods in and at ſome foreign port or ports; and if ſuch maſter, or other perſon, having or taking the charge or command of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhould, upon ſuch demand, refuſe to enter into ſuch bond; or, having entered into ſuch bond, ſhould not depart or proceed regularly on ſuch voyage, as ſoon as wind and weather, and the ſtate and condition of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhould permit, unleſs otherwiſe ſuffered to make a longer ſtay by the collector, or other principal officer in his abſence, of ſuch port where ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhould be, not exceeding twenty days, then, and in either of the ſaid caſes, all the foreign goods ſo on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhould and might, by any officer or officers of the cuſtoms, by direction of the collector, or other principal officer as aforeſaid, be taken out of and from ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and forthwith brought on ſhore and ſecured; and in caſe the ſaid goods were cuſtomable, the cuſtoms and other duties ſhould be paid for the ſame: and as concerning wool, or any prohibited goods, or other goods liable to forfeiture, which might be found on board ſuch ſhips or veſſels at the time of their unlading as aforeſaid, the ſame were thereby declared to be ſubject to forfeiture, and the officers of the cuſtoms ſhould and might proſecute the ſame, as alſo the ſhip or veſſel, in caſe ſhe ſhould be liable to condemnation, as in the manner therein after mentioned; and that after ſuch goods were ſo taken out of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and brought on ſhore, and ſecured by ſuch officer or officers, ſuch bonds ſo to be given as aforeſaid, ſhould be void and delivered up, without any fee or reward for taking or delivering up the ſame; and ſuch bond, not being otherwiſe diſcharged, ſhould, on a proper

certificate, returned under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate in any place or places beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants upon the place, that ſuch goods were there landed, or upon proof by credible perſons, that ſuch goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas (the examination and proof thereof being left to the judgement of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms) ſhould be vacated and diſcharged: And whereas the extending of the ſaid clauſes to the reſt of his Majeſty's dominions, may be a means of preventing illicit trade; be it therefore enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the firſt day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, the ſaid clauſes, and every part of them, ſhall be extended to all ſhips and veſſels of the burthen of fifty tons, or under, which ſhall be found hovering on the coaſts of Ireland, or any other of his Majeſty's dominions or territories belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; and ſhall be of equal force in every reſpect, in regard to all ſuch ſhips and veſſels found hovering on any of the coaſts aforeſaid, as ſuch clauſes now are, or ſhall be conſtrued to be, in regard to any ſhips or veſſels hovering on the coaſts of this kingdom; and all offences which ſhall be committed againſt the ſaid clauſes, or any part of them, on the coaſts of Ireland, ſhall be tried, and the penalties and forfeitures thereby incurred, ſhall be proſecuted for and recovered in any of his Majeſty's courts of record in Dublin in the ſaid kingdom; and all offences which ſhall be committed againſt the ſaid clauſes, or any part of them, on the coaſts of any other of his Majeſty's dominions or territories (except this kingdom) ſhall be tried, and the penalties and forfeitures thereby incurred, ſhall be proſecuted for and recovered, in any court of admiralty, in the dominion or territory on the coaſt whereof ſuch offence ſhall be committed (which court of admiralty is hereby authorized, impowered, and required, to proceed to, hear, and determine the ſame) or in any court of record in ſuch dominion or territory, at the election of the informer or proſecutor, according to the courſe and method uſed and practiſed there in proſecutions for offences againſt penal laws relating to the cuſtoms or exciſe; and ſuch penalties and forfeitures ſo recovered there, ſhall be divided and applied in ſuch and the ſame manner as penalties and forfeitures recovered in Great-Britain for the like offences are, or in purſuance of this act may be, directed to be divided and applied.

SOAP, a ſort of paſte, either hard and dry, or ſoft and liquid; uſed in cleanſing and bleaching of linen, and for other purpoſes by the dyers, perfumers, fullers, hatters, &c. See BLEACHING and LINEN. Some peculiar ſorts are alſo uſed medicinally.

To make ſoap requires an intimate union of the ſalt of pot-aſhes with oil, or any vegetable or animal fat: this union, in the preſent method of ſoap-making, is procured by a tedious operation, or by long boiling a weak lye of pot-aſh and quick lime with the fat, adding a ſtronger and a weaker lye occaſionally by degrees, 'till the requiſite point to the perfection of the ſoap is hit.

REMARKS.

It might greatly contribute to ſhorten this operation, and eaſe the expence thereof, if a mechanical motion or engine were employed inſtead of fire, to procure this intimate union of the lye and oil. And that ſomething of this kind is practicable, appears from hence; that if, for example, half a pint of the ſoap-boilers ſtrongeſt, or capital lye, as they call it, be briſkly ſhook in a phial, with an ounce or more of oil olive, for half a quarter of an hour, and then the phial be ſuffered to reſt, there will, in a ſhort time after, be found a ſolid cake of tolerable ſoap at the top of the liquor, and may be eaſily preſerved in that form, by breaking the phial, and rendered harder by being expoſed to the air.

The art of ſoap-making depends upon the following particulars. (1.) The nature and quality of pot-aſh. (2.) The nature of oils and fats. And (3.) The ſeveral ways of uniting them to advantage.

(1.) A due enquiry into the nature of pot-aſh [ſee the article POT-ASH, NORWAY] ſhews wherein the ſuperiority of the foreign aſhes, particularly thoſe of Marſeilles, Caſtile, Venice, and Joppa, conſiſts; why the ſoaps, at preſent made in England, fall ſhort of the perfection of ſome foreign ſoaps; and will inform us of the ways whereby even Joppa ſoap might be equalled in England. For ſuch an enquiry will trace out the real phyſical differences betwixt one ſort of pot-aſh and another, with the ways of converting any one of them into the reſt; ſo as to fit them for the ſoap-boiler, glaſs-maker, &c. reſpectively: it ſhews alſo, how the mildeſt pot-aſh is obtainable, for the more curious ſoaps; and eſpecially for thoſe intended to be uſed medicinally, &c. And, by the way, there is room to ſuſpect, that a thorough enquiry into this ſubject, would ſhew the matter of all pot-aſh to be the matter of nitre; or that all the vegetables which yield pot-aſh by calcination, might be brought to afford nitre by putrefaction; or that pot-aſh is nearly the ſame thing, both in nature and ſubſtance, with fixed nitre.

(2.) A due inquiſition alſo into the nature of oils and fats, would ſhew likewiſe, how one ſort might be converted into another, or hard animal fats into liquid oils, and liquid oils into ſolid fats, by digeſting oils with certain coagulating acids, &c.—How all the foreign ſolid oil ſoaps might be imitated in England, and how a great variety of liquid ſoaps might be prepared for many different purpoſes; the foundation of the thing entirely depending upon the uſe of a highly ſubtilized and thin vegetable oil.

(3.) An enquiry into the beſt methods of uniting fixed vegetable ſalts with oils, might naturally ſuggeſt ſeveral machines for the purpoſe; whereby many tons of ſoap ſhould be readily made by means of mills, wrought by the wind or water; and this either with or without fire. It might alſo inform us of ſeveral menſtruums, or connecting mediums, which ſhould, either alone or with little aſſiſtance, procure an intimate union.

SOIL. See the article MANURE, and thoſe others from thence referred to.

SOISSONNOIS. This province, in France, is bounded on the north by Laonois, on the eaſt by Champaigne, on the ſouth by Brie, and on the weſt by Valois. It abounds in corn, paſtures, and wood.

SOISSONS is ſituated in a very agreeable and fruitful vale, on the banks of the river Aione. It is ſeventeen leagues diſtant from Paris to the north-eaſt, and about eight from Rheims to the weſt. It is a large city, well built, and drives a great trade in corn.

SOMERSETSHIRE has Devonſhire on the weſt, Dorſetſhire on the ſouth, the Britiſh channel on the north, and Wiltſhire on the eaſt, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The air is the mildeſt, and the ſoil, for the moſt part, the richeſt in the kingdom: it abounds with grain of all kinds, of which it ſupplies home and foreign markets with vaſt quantities. Its hills afford mines of coal, lead, and copper; woad thrives well here; and teazles, a ſort of thiſtles uſed by cloth dreſſers, grow ſcarce any where elſe; and of lapis calaminaris, without which there is no making braſs, more is dug up here than in all the kingdom beſides.

All ſorts of cloth are manufactured here; as broad and narrow kerſeys, druggets, ſerges, duroys, and ſhalloons, together with ſtockings and buttons; and in the ſouth eaſt parts are made great quantities of linen. The value of the woollen manufacture alone here, in the firſt hands, has heretofore been rated at a million a year.

BRISTOL, the ſecond city in Great-Britain, for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants, ſtands on the conflux of the rivers Froom and Avon. As to the trade of it, 'tis well known to be the moſt conſiderable, London only excepted, eſpecially to the Weſt-Indies, to which its merchants were the firſt adventurers, and always greater traders in proportion, than that metropolis. Liverpool is now ſaid to vye with them. It was even computed, above 30 years ago, when it employed no leſs than 2000 ſail of ſhips, that the trade, in proportion to the bigneſs of the two cities, was above three times as great as that of London. Indeed the Briſtol merchants had a very good trade to the Weſt-Indies, at the time of the civil war, which they have increaſed much more, not only thither, but to all parts of the world, ſince the Revolution. Before that, they knew little of the Guinea trade, and hardly any thing of the Dutch, the Hamburgh, the Norway, and the eaſt-land commerce; all which have ſince been very flouriſhing here.

In time of peace, 50 Weſt-India ſhips, many of them of conſiderable burthen, have arrived here in a fleet, or very near one another. The ſhopkeepers here, who are in general wholeſale men, have ſo great an inland trade, that they maintain carriers, as the London tradeſmen do, to all the principal counties and towns, from Southampton to the banks of the Trent.

Moreover, by means of thoſe two great rivers, the Severn and Wye, they have the whole trade of South Wales, as it were, to themſelves; and the greateſt part of that of North Wales. And how their trade may be greatly increaſed, ſee the article RIVERS.

The largeſt ſhips lie at Hungroad, four miles down the river; two miles below which is Kingroad, another ſtation, in the merchandize brought to the key by lighters.

One of this city's principal branches of trade, and which has been prodigiouſly increaſed ſince the Revolution, is that to Ireland; from whence it imports tallow, linen, and woollen, and bay-yarn. The Streights trade, for all ſorts of fruit, oil, &c. is very conſiderable.

They have alſo ſome conſiderable manufactures of woollen ſtuffs, particularly cantaloons, which are carried on chiefly by French refugees. Glaſs ware is as plenty and cheap here, as in any place in the world, here being no leſs than fifteen glaſs-houſes, (which are ſerved by the Kingſwood and Mendip-hills coal-mines) ſome for glaſſes, others for bottles.

BRIDGEWATER, on the river Parret, has a pretty good coaſt trade to Briſtol, and all down the Severn to Wales for coals, to Cornwall for ſlate, &c. Its foreign trade is chiefly to Portugal and Newfoundland. Wool is brought hither in good quantities from Ireland, for a trade to which kingdom, this port lies as convenient as any in the Severn ſea. They have, beſides, a great retale trade; and for cheeſe there are few, if any,

any, greater markets in the kingdom, many waggon loads being brought here, on a market day, for Devonſhire.

MINEHEAD has a ſafe harbour in the Briſtol channel, much frequented by paſſengers to and from Ireland; from whence alſo about 40 veſſels come hither yearly with wool, that being its chief trade. Here are ſeveral rich merchants, who have ſome trade alſo to Virginia, and the Weſt-Indies; and they correſpond much with the merchants of Barnſtaple and Briſtol, in their foreign commerce. They ſhip off alſo about 3 or 4000 barrels of herrings yearly, for the Mediterranean, &c.

TAUNTON, on the river Thone, is a populous town, the inhabitants being computed at above 20,000; ſome thouſands of whom are employed in the manufacture of ſerges, duroys, ſagathees, ſhalloons, &c. Some of them, indeed, are, of late years, removed to the neighbouring town of Wellington.

WELLINGTON is chiefly of note for its ſeven weekly fairs, for cattle from the weſt country; and its manufacture is ſerges, druggets, &c.

YEOVIL, or IVEL, is a good large town, on a river of the ſame name. Its chief manufacture is gloves, though ſome cloth is made here, and it has a conſiderable market for corn, cheeſe, hemp, flax, linen, ſail-cloth, &c.

CHIDDER is famed for the fineſt cheeſe in the world, except the Parmeſan: the pariſh is about 23 miles in compaſs, abounding with paſture. 'Tis common here for 3 or 4 dairies to join their milk, to make one great cheeſe of 100, or 150 lb. weight, value ſix-pence a pound on the ſpot. There are, moreover, ſuch great plantations of apples in this pariſh, that 3000 hogſheads of cyder have been made in a ſeaſon, and 36 horſe-loads of apples have been ſent in a week, for 26 weeks together, to Shepton-Mallet, &c. for ſale; and 200 bags of wool are produced in it every year.

BRUTON, on the river Bru, drives a great trade in ſerges and ſtockings.

SHEPTON-MALLET is a populous town, with many very conſiderable clothiers.

Some cloth is alſo made at CROSCOMB, but its chief manufacture is ſtockings.

FROME-SELWOOD is alſo remarkable for its woollen manufacture. The cloths made here, are for the moſt part medleys, of about 7 or 8 ſhillings a yard.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

A ſhort HISTORY of the SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

This company was erected by act of parliament, in the ninth year of the late queen Anne, entitled, An act for making good deficiencies, and ſatisfying the public debts, and for erecting a corporation to carry on a trade to the South Sea, and for the encouragement of the fiſhery, &c. The preamble recites, That the debt due to the navy, the army, &c. amounted to 9,000,000 l. and upwards, and thereupon it was enacted, that the duties following ſhould be impoſed for paying an intereſt or annuity, after the rate of 6 per cent. per ann. for all the ſaid ſum, which intereſt amounted to the annual ſum of 568,279 l. 10 s. The duties conſtituting the fund for payment of the ſaid intereſt, were all the impoſitions and duties upon wines, vinegar, tobacco, Eaſt-India goods, wrought ſilk, whale-fins, &c. granted by an act of the 8th of queen Anne, 'till the year 1720, continued by this act to the crown for ever, together with the duties on candles, and money given with apprentices. And the queen was impowered, by letters patent, to form the ſaid creditors, intereſted in the navy-bills, &c. into a company, who, on their ſubſcribing their bills, tickets, debentures, &c. were to be admitted into the joint-ſtock, and become members thereof, in proportion to the ſums due to them. And the ſaid corporation were, by the ſaid act, to be veſted in the ſole trade to and from all kingdoms and lands on the eaſt ſide of America from the river Oroonoko, to the ſouthernmoſt part of Terra del Fuego; and on the weſt ſide thereof, from the ſouthernmoſt part of the ſaid Terra del Fuego, through the South Sea, to the northernmoſt part of America, not exceeding 300 miles from the continent on the ſaid weſt ſide (excepting Brazil, and other places in the poſſeſſion of the king of Portugal, and the country of Surinam in poſſeſſion of the States-General) the company to be ſole proprietors of all iſlands, forts, &c. which they ſhould diſcover within theſe limits, to be held under the annual rent of one ounce of gold.

The crown alſo was impowered, by letters patent, to direct a ſtock to conſiſt of 20 s. in every 100 l. of the capital ſtock of the company, to be raiſed by the members thereof, and employed in improving, enlarging, and carrying on the fiſhery of this kingdom, for the uſe of the company.

In purſuance of this act, the proprietors of the navy-bills, tickets, and any debentures aboveſaid, were incorporated, by the name of The Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery. And on the peace that followed, anno 1713, the late queen transferred to the ſaid company, the benefit of the ASSIENTO CONTRACT with Spain, which was the furniſhing the Spaniards with ſlaves for their mines and plantations in America, by which they were alſo entitled to ſend a large ſhip annually with European goods, conſiſting chiefly of our woollen manufactures, to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. [See the article ASSIENTO CONTRACT.] By an act of 1 Geo. I. cap. 21. the ſum of 822,032 l. 4 s. 8 d. was added to the capital ſtock of the South Sea company, to make it up juſt the ſum of 10,000,000 l. With this large capital, we don't find that the company ever applied themſelves to foreign trade, (which ſeemed to be the principal deſign of incorporating them) unleſs in ſending the ſhip above mentioned with European goods to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, and furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; nor did they make any attempt to promote the fiſhery (another grand deſign in eſtabliſhing this corporation) 'till of late years, and then only by ſending a ſmall number of ſhips annually to fiſh for whales; but what they chiefly make a merit of is, their being inſtrumental to the leſſening of the national debt, and rendering ſome of thoſe debts redeemable, which could not have been redeemed otherwiſe, without a breach of the public faith. They boaſted—That they had not only added above 50 per cent. to the eſtates of all the old proprietors of the ſtock, but had been continually promoting the public good, by ſavings and reductions of intereſt.—That it appeared by a ſtatute of 3 Geo. I. cap. 9. that the capital of the company then amounted to 10,000,000 l. for which a yearly fund of 600,000 l. was payable to them, after the rate of 6 per cent. and that they ſubmitted to accept, after Midſummer 1718, of an annuity of 500,000 l. being after the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. for their ten millions.—That the company agreed alſo to advance the government the further ſum of two millions, for the diſcharge of lottery-tickets that carried 6 per cent. and accepted another fund to pay them an intereſt of 5 per cent. for the ſaid two millions.

That afterwards the South Sea company procured as many annuities, redeemable, and irredeemable, and other public debts, to be ſubſcribed into their ſtocks, as with their original capital amounted to 33 millions and upwards, taking an intereſt of the government of 5 l. per cent. for the preſent, and ſtipulated to take 4 l. per cent. for the whole after Midſummer 1727; by which reduction of intereſt, the nation was provided of a fund uſually called the SINKING FUND; whereby the public would have been enabled to have diſcharged the whole debt within the compaſs of forty years, or very little more, without laying any new burthens on the ſubjects.

And whereas it was objected to them, that the change that was made in the long annuities, by the company's redeeming them at twenty years purchaſe, had brought the nation in debt three millions more than it was before, the annuitants not having paid ſo much money for them by three millions; the company anſwered, that the nation was in debt on account of the annuities, according to the payment ſhe was to make to the annuitants, and according to the time ſhe was obliged to continue thoſe payments; and if their bargain makes no alteration in that matter, if it neither adds to or leſſens thoſe payments, or the time of continuing them, then it leaves the debt of the nation juſt as it found it, neither increaſed nor diminiſhed by it: but if it either leſſens the annual payments, or ſhortens the time of making ſuch payment, it muſt be ſo far ſaid to leſſen the national debt to the annuitants.

In the year 1716, there was publiſhed a calculation of the ſtate of the national debt, in which the long annuities granted at ſeveral times were ſtated and valued, according to the ſums paid into the Exchequer for them, which was about eleven years and a half purchaſe for thoſe in king William's, and under ſixteen years purchaſe for thoſe in queen Anne's, time. This calculation, therefore, ſtates the debt of the nation on the account of the annuities according to the ſums they were firſt granted at.

Becauſe this could neither be reckoned the debt of the nation with regard to the annuitants, nor the value of the annuities. It could not be reckoned the debt of the nation with regard to the annuitants, becauſe the nation had contracted with them not to pay them off at pleaſure, by returning them the money they at firſt paid into the Exchequer, but in an abſolute engagement for the payment of ſuch annuities for a certain term of years: neither could it be reckoned the value of the annuities, for their value muſt be ſtated (as the value of every thing elſe muſt be) not according to what was given for them at firſt, or what they were worth at that time, but according to what they are worth at the time they are propoſed to be purchaſed: for as they then were only of ſuch a value, becauſe money bore ſuch an intereſt, ſo if the ſtate of intereſt is altered ſince that time, the value of ſuch annuities muſt be in the ſame degree altered; for their value muſt riſe in the ſame degree that the intereſt of money decreaſes, which was the reaſon that they were worth above 20 years purchaſe in the year 1720, and therefore could not be purchaſed at a lower rate, unleſs a power had been taken in parliament of fixing the price, which was ſuppoſed to be a ſtep inconſiſtent with the ſafety of the public credit. The ſtating, therefore, the national debt to the annuitant according to the ſums firſt given for them, was a great miſtake.

But yet upon this foundation, that the degree of the debt is to be thus ſtated, an argument is formed, that the buying the annuities by the South Sea company at 20 years purchaſe, makes

makes an addition to the national debt, becauſe here is 3,000,000l. &c. more paid for them than they were at firſt granted at. This ſuppoſes that the nation owed the annuitants no more than their firſt purchaſe money, and could oblige them to take it when they pleaſed; and if this had been the caſe, then it muſt have been granted that the 3,000,000l. &c. given by this bargain, had been ſo far an increaſe to the national debt.

But if this ſuppoſition be contrary to the true ſtate of the caſe, if the faith of the nation was given abſolutely for the payments of ſuch annuities, and for ſuch a term of years, then the debt of the nation to the annuitants muſt be ſtated according to that grant. And then the queſtion will be, whether the nation is upon better terms with the annuitants by this new bargain, than ſhe was without it: and the only way to ſee this clearly, is to ſee whether the nation is to be ſooner quit of her payments to the annuitants, and therefore to pay leſs to them by virtue of this purchaſe, than ſhe muſt have paid to them, had they continued unpurchaſed in their firſt ſtate? At the time this purchaſe was made, the nation was to continue the payment of the annuities for about 83 years.

If, therefore, this term of payment is by this new bargain reduced to a term of years of about half the time, and this be done not by any farther money advanced by the nation, but only by a change made in the manner of her payments, and a change of the ſtate of the annuities, then it muſt be very obvious how much the nation is relieved in her debts to the annuitants. The change made in the manner of the payment is this; the South Sea company buy 100l. annuity with 2000l. ſtock, ſo that the nation is to pay intereſt for 2000l. ſtock inſtead of paying an annuity of 100l. Was the nation to continue this ſame payment to the ſtock, and for the ſame term of years that ſhe was to have continued her payments to the annuities, then it muſt have been granted, that ſhe had neither leſſened nor increaſed her debt by this bargain.

But if by virtue of this new bargain, and by this change in the manner of the payments, that is, by paying intereſt for 2000l. ſtock, inſtead of an annuity of 100l. the nation has not only a redeemable debt to deal with, but is alſo provided with a fund ſufficient for the redeeming or diſcharging of 2000l. ſtock in about half the time ſhe was to have paid the annuitants, then it muſt be equally granted, that ſhe has her debt in this great degree leſſened and relieved by this bargain. Now what is here only ſuppoſed as the effect of this bargain, is the true and real nature of it, and ſuch as it was ſufficiently fitted to produce, which may be thus made plainly to appear. The nation pays intereſt for 2000l. ſtock, inſtead of paying an annuity of 100l. but it is provided for in this contract, that in the year 1727, there ſhould be a reduction of intereſt at one per cent. So that inſtead of the 100l. annuity, there will be only 80l. per ann. paid to the 2000l. ſtock; and this abatement of intereſt, or deduction of 20l. per ann. from the 100l. annuity, will raiſe a fund ſufficient for the diſcharge of the 2000l. ſtock in about half the time that the payment of the annuities was to have been continued. So that by this meer change of the ſtate of the debt, and the manner of the payments, the nation is enabled to diſcharge the whole debt in about 34 years ſooner than it could have been diſcharged had the annuities not been thus purchaſed.—

That notwithſtanding all theſe advantages accruing to the nation by the ſcheme laid by the late South Sea directors, they had been evicted out of their eſtates, however long enjoyed, and by whatever means acquired.

As to the calamities of the year 1720, which altered the eſtates of ſo many private perſons, they ought not to be imputed altogether to the directors, or to the South Sea ſcheme itſelf, but to a more general cauſe; for there was not any order of men in the nation, that had not ſome ſhare in helping forward that general infatuation, and to whom therefore the common calamity ought to be attributed; ſo that it might have been juſtly expected, that every order of men in the kingdom ſhould have been inclined, either to have pardoned or gently puniſhed ſuch a ſtate of things, as they had not been mere ſpectators of. — That had the directors been allowed the benefit of a fair and candid trial, they might very juſtly have pleaded, that they had done nothing privately, or of their own heads; that they were driven into all the ſteps they took, by the irreſiſtable temper of men of all orders; that they had acted openly in the ſight of the legiſlature, and had the orders and authority of general courts for all they did, and their thanks after it was done.

Another cauſe the late directors aſſign for the ſudden riſe of their ſtocks, which occaſioned the calamities in the year 1720, was the Bank bidding againſt them. The propoſition made to the parliament at firſt, ſay they, was only for a voluntary ſubſcription of the proprietors of the irredeemable and redeemable debts into the South Sea ſtock, at the beſt terms the company could agree with them (which was no more than ſelling their ſtock by ſubſcription), a method the Bank has often purſued; and as the miniſtry knew the company had gained a ſum for their proprietors, by taking in part of the lottery 1710, the year before, beſides what they paid the government for ſo doing, they inſiſted the company ſhould pay a ſum of money to the government for the liberty of having the ſaid debts ſubſcribed into their ſtock.

Before this propoſition, the Bank had been applied to for undertaking this matter, but they refuſed it, treating it with contempt. But on the propoſition being made to the houſe of commons, they became bidders of above five millions and a half to the government, by which the ſcheme firſt propoſed was entirely altered, the ſame being then put up to the higheſt bidders; which influenced the minds of all ſorts of people, and was the occaſion of the extravagant riſe of ſtocks, whereby all the miſchievous conſequences to private perſons enſued; for it is plain the nation has received a great advantage by it, and therefore the ill conſequence can only be the increaſing ſome perſons eſtates, and decreaſing the eſtates of others. The ſecond reaſon of the ill conſequences of the ſcheme was owing to the bargain which the Bank ſolemnly made to the South Sea company, and never performed, whereby ſo many perſons were miſled, and thereby very greatly injured.

The company deſire alſo it may be obſerved further, that the directors and managers of that ſcheme were never charged with any frauds or embezzlements of the company's effects.

The late directors alſo in their defence, and in order to ſhew how inſtrumental they have been in reducing the intereſt of money, and putting the national debt in a way of being paid off in a few years, publiſhed a treatiſe, ſtiled, A true State of the South Sea Scheme, &c. wherein they inform us, that the method they firſt propoſed for executing their ſcheme was as follows:

The total of their capital was about -	l. 11,746,000
Total of the annuities and debts to be taken in were about - - -	30,981,000
Which would make the total of their capital	42,727,000

The whole ſum to be taken in by the company being ſo large, and conſiſting of annuities and debts of various kinds, it was judged impracticable to take in the whole at one time, and that by taking them in at different times, prices, and proportions, the proprietors thereof (through apprehenſion of being either entirely left out, or of coming in afterwards at a higher price) would be quickened to make their ſubſcriptions, whereby the execution of the ſcheme would be rendered more eaſy and certain. Though when the ſcheme was firſt formed, the price of the ſtock did not exceed 116l. to 118 per cent. yet it was ſuppoſed, if the propoſal was accepted by the parliament, that the acceptance would ſo much increaſe the credit of the ſtock, as the company might be able to take in the ſaid annuities and debts, at the rates, and in the proportions herein after mentioned: and if the Bank and Eaſt-India company, or either of them, would come in, they were propoſed to be admitted into the firſt ſubſcription at 130 per cent. or even lower, which would nevertheleſs have increaſed the profit to the South Sea company. But as their coming in was uncertain, the calculation was made only upon the other annuities and debts, viz.

6,500,000	Annuities and debts, ſubſcribed at 130 per cent. for the ſtock, would produce ſtock to the ſubſcribers - - -	l. 5,000,000
7,000,000	Ditto, ſubſcribed at 140 per cent. would be ſtock to the ſubſcribers	5,000,000
7,500,000	Ditto, ſubſcribed at 150 per cent. would be ſtock to the ſubſcribers	5,000,000
9,981,000	Ditto, ſubſcribed at 160 per cent. would be ſtock to the ſubſcribers	6,238,125
30,981,000	Total ſtock to the ſubſcribers -	21,238,125
	Stock gained to the company -	9,742,875
	Total ſtock to the company for the annuities and other debts to be taken in - - -	30,981,000
	Then the capital would ſtand thus:	
	Proprietors old capital -	11,246,000
	Proprietors new capital by ſubſcription - - -	21,238,125
	Total proprietors ſtock -	32,984,125
	Stock belonging to their company in their corporate capacity, gained by their ſubſcription -	9,742,875
	Total capital as above -	42,727,000
9,742,875,	Stock to be ſold by the company, at 160 per cent. amounts to in money -	15,588,600
	Out of which deduct to be paid to the public	3,500,000
	Reſt nett profit to the company - -	12,088,600
	The company's funds or income, for about 38,600,000l. at 5 per cent. per ann. -	1,930,000
	For 4,127,000l. at 4 per cent. per ann. -	165,080
	Total	

	l.
Total of the company's income, beſides the allowance to them for charges of management - - - - -	2,085,080
8 l. per cent. for a dividend upon 32,984,125 l. proprietors ſtock comes to - -	2,638,730
Towards which the company's income would be	2,095,080
Wanting to make an annual dividend of 8 per cent.	543,650

Which, by the gradual ſelling the ſtock, and what the company gained on the ſubſcription, would have ſupplied the ſame for above 12 years: before the expiration of which time it was ſuppoſed, the benefit of their trade to Africa, and the grants of Nova Scotia, and of the French part of St. Chriſtopher's, would have been ſufficient to have perpetuated the dividend, if not to have enlarged it. But the commons objecting againſt giving the South Sea company the African trade, Nova Scotia, and that which was the French part of St Chriſtopher's, the South Sea company were prevailed with to leave thoſe advantages out of their propoſals, which were the ſubſtantial things to have ſupported their credit; but ſtill with aſſurance from thoſe in the ADMINISTRATION, of uſing their utmoſt endeavours to obtain them for the company: But the price of South Sea ſtock, from the time of accepting their propoſals to the paſſing the act, riſing very conſiderably, and the Bank and their friends always oppoſing whatever appeared to be for the benefit of the South Sea company, they could never obtain thoſe advantageous grants, which they had much depended on (as ſolid ſupports to the ſtock) though they frequently importuned and preſſed the miniſtry for the ſame.

The extraordinary riſe of the South Sea ſtock before the paſſing the act, together with the oppoſition of the Bank, having defeated the company of thoſe grants and ſettlements which they had depended upon as the ſolid ſupports of the ſtock, as has been already hinted, nothing was left them but the opinion of mankind to enable them to execute the act, which put them under a more than ordinary neceſſity of complying with the general diſpoſition of the people; and, therefore, though their original deſigns and intentions were to have no ſubſcriptions but of the ſeveral annuities and debts that were to be taken in, yet there being, immediately after paſſing of the act, a prevailing notion among many of the proprietors and others without doors (for it did not proceed from the directors) of taking in money ſubſcriptions; and this opinion growing univerſal, the directors found themſelves under a neceſſity to depart from the method they had firſt intended to proceed in, and to begin the execution of the act with a money ſubſcription; to which they were the more eaſily induced, finding the method preſcribed by the act would require a great many months to effect the taking in but a part of thoſe public debts; and that unforeſeen accidents might ſo reduce the price of ſtocks, as wholly to defeat the execution of the act, and yet the company would remain under the obligation of paying to the public 4,667,000 l. though no part of the act ſhould be executed.

A further inducement to admit of a money ſubſcription was, that they might be thereby enabled to pay off ſuch of the redeemable debts, and to offer money to ſuch of the annuitants, as ſhall not be inclined to take ſtock for the ſame, they not being then certain, there would be ſuch an univerſal diſpoſition in thoſe proprietors to accept ſtock for their debts and annuities, as afterwards appeared; but when that diſpoſition did appear, the directors had no occaſion to apply the money to that uſe. By theſe and the like conſiderations, the directors were prevailed on to open a money ſubſcription at 300 per cent. with diſtant times of payment, and without limiting the ſum to be taken in, ſtocks being then 285 per cent.

The method they proceeded in was, that every director took the names of thoſe perſons who applied to them, and the ſums for which they deſired to be admitted into that ſubſcription; which, when brought together, amounted to ſo large a ſum, and the names were of ſo conſiderable perſons, that though their firſt intention was to have had that ſubſcription for no more than one million, or at moſt one million and an half; and though they permitted no perſon to have more than 4000 l. and the ſums deſired were generally reduced, yet the directors found they could not bring the ſubſcription to a leſs ſum than 2,250,000 l. without giving ſuch diſguſt, as might prove prejudicial to the company.

The firſt money ſubſcription being thus fixed, and the ſum it amounted to being 6,750,000 l. of which 60 per cent. being 1,350,000 l. paid down, the directors thought this ſubſcription a ſufficient fund to enable them to execute the reſt of the act, and accordingly came to an unanimous reſolution of taking no more money ſubſcriptions.

But this ſubſcription ſoon ſelling out at a conſiderable profit, it cannot be forgot how impatient perſons of all ranks and degrees were for another money ſubſcription, and by their importunity did prevail on the directors to agree the 28th of April to open one, which was done on the 30th of the ſame month at 400 per cent. of which 40 per cent. was paid down; and the ſame day reſolved it as their opinion, nemine contradicente, not to take any further SUBSCRIPTION in MONEY. This ſubſcription was intended alſo not to exceed a million, but the application to get into it was ſuch, that when the directors came to examine the names and ſums demanded, they found they could not reduce it under a million and half, without giving the greateſt offence.

But the directors thoughts being intent upon executing the act according to their firſt deſign, by taking in the annuities and redeemables, eſpecially the former, on which the parliament had laid ſo great ſtreſs; they (the ſame day it was agreed to open the ſecond money ſubſcription) previouſly reſolved on a ſubſcription for the annuities; which met with ſuch ſucceſs, that in a few days above two-thirds of them were brought in, and on the 19th of May (the price of ſtock being then 375 per cent.) the directors fixed the price for the ſubſcribed annuities at 32 years purchaſe, to be paid as follows, viz.

	For 100 l. per ann.	
Stock 700 l. at 375 per cent.	which amounts to	l. 2625
In money and the company's bonds - -		575
Total for 100 l. per ann. -		3200

This gave great ſatisfaction to all parties concerned, and the ſtock and ſubſcription advanced ſo faſt, that when the parliament roſe, the ſtock was at near 800 per cent. and the ſecond ſubſcription ſold for 500 per cent. profit.

At this time the price of ſtock being about 800 per cent. and the ſecond ſubſcription ſelling for about 500 per cent. advance, and great numbers of thoſe who deſired to be admitted into the third ſubſcription, having requeſted it at 1000 per cent. the directors thought they could not ſet it at a leſs price; but they allowed ſuch times of payment, as with the Midſummer dividend reduced it to about 800 per cent. This met with no blame from any perſon at that time, but, on the contrary, univerſal approbation; as appears by the price this third ſubſcription bore, it ſoon ſelling at 300 per cent. profit.

When this ſubſcription was completed, the directors came again to a reſolution of taking no more money ſubſcriptions, and applied themſelves to take in the remainder of the annuities and redeemables. To which end, on the 8th of July they agreed to open their books on the 12th of that month, to take in part of them; which was accordingly done, and in a few days, moſt of the irredeemables and annuities ſtanding out were ſubſcribed: but ſome of the proprietors of thoſe debts and annuities, by reaſon of their abſence, or other impediments, not having an opportunity to ſubſcribe before the books were ſhut, made great application to the directors to be admitted; who, being unwilling to complete the execution of the act with as much expedition as they could, did, on the 27th of July, reſolve to open books on the 4th of Auguſt following, for taking in the remainder of theſe debts and annuities, and moſt of thoſe which were ſtanding out were then brought in.

On the 12th of Auguſt the price of ſtock, incluſive of the Midſummer dividend, was upwards of 900 per cent. which made the ſtock, excluſive of that dividend, about 820 per cent. The directors agreed to fix the price of the ſubſcribed long annuities at 36 years purchaſe, and the redeemables at 105 per cent. and the price of ſtock to be given for the ſame at 800 per cent. ſo that the redeemables, conſidering they were taken in at 105 per cent. had the ſtock at about 60 per cent. under the current price, which gave general ſatisfaction at that time.

It farther appeared, that the terms allowed for the annuities and redeemables which were ſubſcribed, were very ſatisfactory, becauſe they were ſold at a much higher price than the unſubſcribed; and ſome time after this price was declared in the Gazette, many conſiderable proprietors of the unſubſcribed annuities and debts preſſed and aſked it as a favour to be, and were accordingly admitted to ſubſcribe, and particularly ſeveral foreigners and merchants, intruſted here by them, for their uſe. Although the directors had come to ſeveral reſolutions againſt any further money-ſubſcriptions, thoſe reſolutions were not ſufficient to ſtem the repeated application for the ſame, from multitudes of all ranks; and the proprietors of the ſtock began to clamour at their not being admitted to a ſhare of their proportions in the former ſubſcription, and ſome of them threatened to demand a general court, to order that the proprietors might be admitted to a ſubſcription in proportion to their ſtock; which obliged the directors to take that matter into conſideration: and the ſame day on which they fixed the price of ſtock for the two laſt ſubſcriptions of the annuities and redeemables, they agreed to take a ſubſcription of 20 per cent. on ſtock, for the proprietors only, the ſtock in ſuch ſubſcriptions to be valued at 1000 l. per cent. which, at that time, gave great pleaſure and ſatisfaction to the proprietors, and 40 per cent. was offered for the privilege of that ſubſcription.

But this did not take off the applications for another money-ſubſcription to all perſons indifferently, to which the directors ſhewed a great unwillingneſs; but, by the continued ſolicitations of multitudes of all degrees, and from all parts, they at length conſented to open a fourth money-ſubſcription, on

the 24th of Auguſt, at 1000l. per cent. excluſive of the Midſummer dividend (the third ſubſcription then ſelling at about 300l. per cent. advance) but, to prevent this ſubſcription running to an exceſſive ſum, they agreed that one fifth part, being 200l. per cent. ſhould be paid down, and none be admitted but thoſe who brought their money that very day. The eagerneſs for this ſubſcription was ſo great, that notwithſtanding this precaution, and the directors full intention that this ſubſcription ſhould not exceed a million, yet, in a few hours, there was 1,200,000l. ſubſcribed, although many were excluded, who preſſed very earneſtly to come in. Had not the directors taken that precaution in relation to this fourth ſubſcription, it would probably have ſwelled to a larger ſum than the third, as is manifeſt not only by the eager filling ſo great a ſum (as is mentioned) in ſo ſhort a ſpace, and the numberleſs letters the directors received from perſons who deſired to be admitted into it, but alſo by a memorable reply that a great miniſter of ſtate, ſince dead, made to them, upon their informing him of the method they intended to proceed in, who thereupon told them, That he himſelf had a liſt for above a million for that ſubſcription, and that therefore, if they would proceed in the method they had propoſed, without taking in liſts, as they had done in the third ſubſcription, he deſired that they would publiſh an advertiſement in the Daily Courant, That it was not in his power to ſerve his friends; that thereby he might clear himſelf of the clamour and charge that would ariſe againſt him for having neglected them.

As to the ſubſcriptions for 20 per cent. to be limited to the proprietors only, the ſame was afterwards (for ſeveral reaſons) thought fit, by the general court, to be omitted. The ſpring of the money-ſubſcriptions aroſe from without doors, and not from the directors themſelves, as already mentioned; and one may venture to ſay, thoſe ſubſcriptions were countenanced by the parliament; for that, after the firſt money ſubſcription was taken in, there having ariſen ſome doubts concerning the validity thereof, the parliament were pleaſed to paſs a clauſe in the act, for eſtabliſhing the two inſurance companies, confirming not only the ſubſcription taken, but alſo all ſuch ſubſcriptions as ſhould after be taken, and to make the receipts that ſhould be given out for the ſame aſſignable in law, which they would not have been without authority of parliament.

They obſerve further, that by the original ſcheme, the higheſt calculation of the ſtock was 160l. per cent. and that advance ſupported by ſuch beneficial grants to the company, which, if purſued and ripened into actual execution, would have kept the ſtock at leaſt to that price, without being detrimental to any. But ſeveral public advantages would neceſſarily have ariſen therefrom; as, firſt, the bringing the annuities into a ſtate of redemption, which had been always thought an inſurmountable obſtacle to getting the nation out of debt. Secondly, The reducing the intereſt of the public debts from 5 to 4 per cent. and thereby increaſing the ſinking fund above 540,000l. per ann. by which the whole debt of the nation might have been paid off in about 24 years. Thirdly, The lowering the common rate of intereſt, which would ſoon have followed as a neceſſary conſequence thereof. Fourthly, The trade and revenues of the kingdom would have been increaſed, by the peopling and cultivating Nova Scotia, and the French part of St Chriſtopher's; and eſpecially by enlarging and opening the trade to Africa into the INLAND PARTS of the CONTINENT, which has never yet been done, whereby they could ſcarce have failed of diſcovering the many rich gold mines which unqueſtionably are there, and from thence an immenſe treaſure might have been brought into this kingdom.

The South Sea directors, in the year 1720, inſiſted further, that the ſcheme was originally formed with a deſign of great advantage to the public, as well as to the original proprietors, and, notwithſtanding it received many alterations between its firſt formation and paſſing into an act, and that the execution of that act has been attended with many misfortunes; nevertheleſs there ſtill flow therefrom many and great benefits, as well to the public, as to the original proprietors: and yet the directors of the South Sea company are puniſhed in a manner beyond any precedent known in England, whilſt the projectors and managers of the innumerable BUBBLES ſet up, even without any legal foundation, and with no other intention than that of fraud and cheat, have not been ſo much as called in queſtion. [See the articles ACTIONS and BUBBLES.]

A SCHEDULE of the late DIRECTORS reſpective ESTATES, with their reſpective ALLOWANCES for their ſubſiſtence, and the SUMS taken from them.

	The nett value of the eſtates of the directors, by the report of the ſecret committee.			Their allowance for ſubſiſtence.	The fines, or ſums taken from each director.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	l.	s.	d.
Sir John Fellows	243,099	—	6	10,000	233,099	—	6
Mr Joye	40,105	2	—	5,000	35,105	2	—
Mr Aſtell	27,750	19	8¾	10,000	17,750	19	8¾
Sir Lambert Blackwell	83,529	17	11	15,000	68,529	17	11
Sir John Blunt	183,349	10	8¾	5,000	178,349	10	8¾
Sir R. Chaplin	45,875	14	5	10,000	35,875	14	5
Mr Cheſter	140,372	15	6	10,000	130,372	15	6
Sir W Chapman	39,161	6	8½	10,000	29,161	6	8½
Mr Child	52,437	19	1	10,000	42,437	19	1
Mr Delaport	17,151	4	6	10,000	7,151	4	6
Mr Edmonſon	5,365	—	—	3,000	2,365	—	—
Mr Eyles	34,326	16	7	20,000	14,326	16	7
Mr Gibbon	106,543	5	6	10,000	96,543	5	6
Mr Gore	38,936	15	5	20,000	18,936	15	5
Sir William Hammond	22,707	4	2	10,000	12,707	4	2
Mr Hawes	40,031	—	2¼	5,000	35,031	—	2¼
Mr Houlditch	39,527	10	4	5,000	34,527	10	4
Mr Horſey	19,962	5	3	10,000	9,962	5	3
Sir J. Jacobſon	11,481	4	—	11,000	481	4	—
Sir The. Janſſen	243,244	3	11	50,000	193,244	3	4
Mr Ingram	16,795	—	—	12,000	4,795	—	—
Sir J. Lambert	72,508	1	5	5,000	67,508	1	5
Sir Har. Maſters	11,814	12	3½	5,000	6,814	12	3½
Mr Morley	1,869	10	3	1,800	69	10	3
Mr Page	34,817	12	3¾	10,000	24,817	12	3¾
Mr Raymond	64,373	6	3	30,000	34,373	6	3
Mr Read	117 297	16	—	10,000	107,297	16	—
Mr Reynolds	18,368	12	2½	14,000	4,368	12	2½
Mr Sawbridge	77,254	1	8	5,000	72,254	1	8
Mr Tillard	19,175	14	4	15,000	4,175	14	4
Mr Turner	881	17	6	800	81	17	6
Mr Surman	112,321	10	—	5,000	107,321	10	—
Mr Grigſby	31,687	6	—	2,000	29,687	6	—

This act for the confiſcation of their eſtates was founded upon the following reſolutions of the lords and commons, viz. 2 February, 1720, reſolved by the Houſe of Peers, That the South-Sea directors declaring 30 per cent. dividend for the half year ending at Chriſtmas, and 50 per cent. per ann. for 12 years after, was a villainous artifice, to defraud and delude his Majeſty's good ſubjects.

16 February, 1720,

The ſecret committee of the Houſe of Commons made their report, from whence it appeared that the following portions of South-Sea ſtock were taken in for the ſeveral perſons following, viz.

	l.
For the earl of Sunderland, firſt lord of the treaſury, at the requeſt of James Craggs, ſen. Eſq.	50,000
For the ducheſs of Kendall	10 000
For the counteſs of P.	10,000
For the two nieces of the ducheſs of Kendall	10,000
For Mr Craggs ſenior	30,000
For Charles Stanhope, Eſq;	10,000
For the Swordblade company	20,000

It appeared alſo, that Mr Aiſlabie, chancellor of the Exchequer, had great quantities of the South-Sea ſtock given him, and that a great deal more had been taken in by the members of both Houſes of Parliament.

18 February, 1720,

Reſolved, That the ſetting the ſtock to ſale by ſubſcriptions, at high prices, above the intrinſic value, by the directors, was a groſs and notorious fraud, and one great cauſe of the ſinking the public credit, and bringing upon the nation the diſtreſs it at preſent labours under.

Reſolved, That the adviſing the late directors to ſet the ſtock to ſale by ſubſcriptions, at high and extravagant dividends aboveſaid, by any perſons in the adminiſtration, was a notorious breach of the truſt repoſed in them, to the prejudice of his Majeſty's government, and the intereſt of the kingdom.

20 February,

Reſolved, That the taking in, or holding of ſtock, by the South-Sea company, for the benefit of a member of parliament, or perſon in the adminiſtration, while the company's propoſals, or bill, was depending, without a valuable conſideration, or ſecurity, for the acceptance, or payment, for ſuch ſtock; and the company's paying, or allowing, ſuch perſons the difference ariſing by the advanced price of the ſtocks, were corrupt, infamous, and dangerous practices, highly reflecting on the honour and juſtice of parliament, and deſtructive of the intereſt of his Majeſty's government.

The

The Commons taking into their conſideration that part of the report of the ſecret committee which related to John Aiſlabie, Eſq; a member of that Houſe, Mr Aiſlabie was heard in his defence; and it being plainly proved that he had cauſed a book of accounts between him and Mr Hawes to be burned, and given him a diſcharge for the ballance, amounting to 840,000 l. it was reſolved nemine contradicente (among other things) That the ſaid John Aiſlabie had encouraged and promoted the dangerous and deſtructive execution of the late South-Sea ſcheme, with a view to his own exorbitant profit, and had combined with the late directors of the South-Sea company in their pernicious practices, to the detriment of great numbers of his Majeſty's ſubjects, and the ruin of the public credit, and the trade of this kingdom. They reſolved, alſo, That he ſhould be expelled the Houſe, and committed to the Tower, and a bill brought in for reſtraining him from going out of the kingdom, and from alienating his eſtate, as was done in caſe of the directors.

REMARKS.

The oppoſers of the South-Sea ſcheme ſuggeſted, That the confiſcation of the directors eſtates by the legiſlature was far from being unjuſt; nay, it is affirmed, that ſuch indulgence never was ſhewn before to people in their circumſtances; for though it ſhould be admitted that they were the proprietors of the ſinking fund, that they put the debt of the nation in a way of being paid, and rendered thoſe annuities redeemable which before were irredeemable, yet it was done by ſuch methods as ought never to be countenanced or encouraged. Had they not given out that they were able to make ſuch high dividends, the annuitants had never been drawn in to ſubſcribe their annuities, and others to purchaſe ſtocks at thoſe advanced rates. There is no doubt but the company had great advantages by the public debts being ſubſcribed, and by the high price at which their ſtocks were purchaſed; but what was the company's gain, was the loſs of thouſands and ten thouſands; nor does the competition of the bank at all excuſe the raſhneſs of the South-Sea company, in bidding ſo vaſt a ſum for the ſcheme as they were conſcious could never be paid, by any gains the company could fairly make. They had, it is true, improved their original ſtock, by taking in the debts; the bank ſaw it, and would have been glad to have engroſſed thoſe debts, for the very ſame reaſon the company was ſo fond of them: but one would think both the one and the other infatuated, as well as the people, to bid ſo many millions as they did for the execution of the ſcheme.

There is no doubt but the ſeeing theſe great bodies bidding againſt each other, did contribute to the advancing the price of ſtock; and if it ſhould be admitted that the bank had their ſhare in abuſing the people, and inducing them to part with their fortunes, to purchaſe what had no exiſtence in nature, it is not to be conceived how this ſtep of the bank can excuſe the South-Sea company, who led the way to all theſe extravagancies: and can it be ſuppoſed that the proprietors of the long annuities could ever have been prevailed on to ſubſcribe them, or other people to have given 3 or 400 l. for 100 l. ſtock, if they had not been aſſured by the directors it was worth ſo much, and that they could make dividends in proportion to theſe prices?

The merit, therefore, of procuring the annuities to be ſubſcribed, which before were irredeemable, by giving out that their ſtock was worth more than it really was (ſay the adverſaries of the ſcheme) was no more than the merit of a ſharper; for, had not the annuitants been deceived in the value, they never would have ſubſcribed, and, though the bringing them in might leſſen the national debt, and be a very great advantage to the company, yet, as it was accompliſhed by deceitful arts, has very little merit in it, the government may be very little gainers by the ſcheme, as well as the proprietors of the original ſtock: but if this gain has ariſen from the loſſes innocent people have ſuſtained, who confided in the veracity and probity of the directors, and who depended upon it that the ſtock was of the value they ſet upon it, what excuſe they can make for their conduct, it is not eaſy to ſay.

That there has been only a revolution of mens private eſtates and fortunes, and that what one has loſt another has gained, may be true; but the queſtion is, by what means the loſers were induced to part with their fortunes, and beggar their families? Whether the annuitants were not deceived in the value of ſtock when they ſubſcribed, by the directors ſetting a high price upon it, and aſſuring them they could divide 20, 30, nay 50 per cent? What ſatisfaction is it to a man, that he was tricked into a diſadvantageous contract, and not forced into it? How is public credit ſupported better the one way than the other?

As to the trade to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, by the South-Sea company, though it appeared at firſt view very beneficial, inaſmuch as they exported the manufactures of Great-Britain, and received treaſure (chiefly) in return; yet this (it is ſaid) was done with as great advantage formerly, by the way of Cadiz and the flota; and that the fraudulent practices of the company's agents in America have been one principal occaſion of the ill uſage we have met with on that ſide for many years paſt.

The eſtabliſhing a fiſhery, which was another grand motive for erecting the South Sea company, has been no leſs neglected than traffic: they employed 24 ſhips, indeed, for ſome years, but their agents and officers managed ſo ill, that they brought the company greatly in debt upon that article; whereupon they laid it down, though it be one of the moſt beneficial fiſheries the Dutch are engaged in. Thoſe who have their fortunes in South-Sea ſtock, content themſelves, at preſent, with the revenues ariſing from the funds ſettled upon them; and ſome of the moſt wealthy of the proprietors, find means to increaſe their fortunes by ſtock-jobbing. They ſeem to have perfectly forgot the original deſign of their inſtitution; namely, their ſending colonies to South-America, and putting in for a ſhare in the rich traffic of the South-Seas, which has been hitherto monopolized by the Spaniards, which might have been prevented, if this company had exerted themſelves in commerce, inſtead of being made the tools of men in power, who made a ſacrifice of the directors to ſave themſelves. For this really appears to be the caſe, upon an impartial review of this extraordinary affair; and which might be made very apparent from ſome anecdotes now before me, which may one day ſee the light in another ſhape, ſince I have not room for them here.

True it is, that many of the moſt judicious and experienced in commercial affairs, looked upon the South-Sea company, conſidered as an inſtitution for carrying on a trade to the SPANISH INDIES, as a romantic and chimerical project, and ruinous, rather than beneficial, to the national traffic, though the projector of it was cried up by his flatterers, as a perſon of uncommon genius; as a perſon remarkable for his learning, experience, and great ſagacity in public buſineſs.---This ſeems to be apparent, from the preamble of the act for erecting this company, which is as follows.

'Whereas it is of the greateſt conſequence to the honour and welfare of this kingdom, and for the increaſe of the ſtrength and riches thereof, and for the vending the product and manufactures, goods and merchandizes of, or brought into, this kingdom, and employment of the poor, that a trade ſhould be carried on to the SOUTH-SEAS, and other parts in AMERICA, within the limits herein after mentioned; which cannot be ſo ſecurely carried on, as by a corporation with a joint ſtock, EXCLUSIVE OF ALL OTHERS: now, for the better encouragement of all and every the perſon or perſons, who ſhall be or become members of the ſaid company or corporation, to be erected as aforeſaid; and to the end and intent that a trade to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, within the limits* herein after mentioned, may be carried on and promoted for the advantage and honour of this kingdom; be it enacted, &c.'

* What the nation was to expect from the ſtupendous trade that was pretended to be carried on by this company, may be ſeen in a treatiſe publiſhed in the year 1711, intitled, A View of the Coaſts, Countries, and Iſlands, within the Limits of the South Sea Company, &c.

It is plain here, that the company by its firſt inſtitution was to have an excluſive trade, and that our people of Jamaica, by this very act, are deprived of the trade to the South-Sea, which was to the great advantage of themſelves and the whole nation: ſo that this act for erecting this excluſive company of traders, deprived the nation of a very beneficial commerce. And, therefore, whatever might be the gain of the company, it could not be all profit to the nation; only ſo much could be eſteemed the gain of the nation, as the gain of the company exceeded that of the Jamaica merchants.

But what the company's gain has been, and what the loſs of the Jamaica merchants has really been, is notorious enough not to need animadverſion. Nor does it appear, that the company could hope for any profit by this excluſive trade. They were to build FORTS and CASTLES in the SOUTH-SEA, for their ſecurity in countries already ſettled by our enemies, at ſuch a charge, and at ſuch a diſtance from this kingdom. They might, perhaps, as well have thought of building caſtles in the air: for this reaſon, therefore, we might well be allowed to eſteem this project as romantic and chimerical. It was giving up the certain profit of the JAMAICA trade, to that imaginary one of a company, which was ſo far from having any proſpect of advantage by it, that they were in a fair way of loſing ſtock and block.

It is true, the Jamaica traders were not excluded, but only from Buenos Ayres, ſouthwards, and from the South-Sea; they had ſtill left the places in the Atlantic Ocean for themſelves. But the profit they annually introduced from the South-Sea was conſiderable, and the company's act gave it up for nothing.

This was the caſe of the South-Sea project, 'till the peace was made, and 'till the Aſſiento contract made an alteration.

By this the Jamaica traders were entirely excluded from the Spaniſh Indies, and the company's caſtles in the air were turned into an obligation to ſell the Spaniards 4,800 negroes per annum, and a permiſſion to ſend 500 tons of goods to Porto-Bello; but this, inſtead of turning to any account to the company, was ſo managed, as not only to be detrimental to them,

them, but highly injurious to the nation, by giving ſuch umbrage to the court of Spain, as contributed to occaſion a miſunderſtanding between Great-Britain and Spain for many years paſt; and which were not terminated in regard to the company, 'till the treaty concluded and ſigned at Madrid, the 5th of October, N. S. 1750, as we ſhall preſently ſee.

But this Aſſiento contract, however beneficial it might have been rendered, both to the nation and the company, was, by miſmanagement, ſomehow, in carrying into execution, rendered quite otherwiſe; it was, for many years, like the dog in the manger, it neither traded itſelf, nor would ſuffer thoſe that would have done ſo in the like branch.

The act for erecting the South-Sea company deprived Jamaica of trading to the South-Sea; but the Aſſiento contract ſhut them out of the Spaniſh Indies; yet their returns of gold and ſilver from the Spaniſh Indies, in exchange for negroes and other merchandizes, were only 2 or 300,000 l. per annum. Let the Spaniards have deprived us of this trade; but was it fit for ourſelves to give it up?

Thus there was no proſpect of the company's trading under this contract, as the ſtipulations of it were contrived, or getting any thing by it if they did. Could their goods, that were often kept three years in the king of Spain's warehouſes, and under his own lock and key, and in ſo hot a climate, be brought, in the general, to a good market? Or did not one half of them often periſh? Could the Aſſientiſts hope for profit from their negroes, that were to pay a heavy load of duties to the king? A treaty could ſcarce have been contrived of ſo little benefit to the nation; and yet of this kind one might have been ſo deviſed, as to have proved greatly beneficial to the kingdom, as well as to the company, if it had been wiſely and honourably executed.

One would have thought, that after theſe pompous declarations, which we have ſeen in the preamble to the South-Sea act, ſome attempt ſhould have been made to accompliſh ſo great a deſign: but ſo far from it, that ſoon after, and without the leaſt TRIAL, they gave up their pretenſions of trading to the South-Seas, or in any other manner, than was ſtipulated by the Aſſiento contract. Thus, by accepting of the Aſſiento, they excluded themſelves from trading to the South-Seas; and, by the act for incorporating the South-Sea company, all the reſt of the ſubjects of Great-Britain were forbid trading within their limits.—This is the more remarkable, ſince neither the Dutch nor French, nor any other nation, reſtrained their ſubjects from trading to thoſe parts; nor did they neglect to carry on a trade thither, with great profit to themſelves; whilſt thoſe of Great-Britain, by means of the South-Sea company, were denied that *.

* Quere, Whether Great-Britain has not the ſame liberty of trading to the South-Seas, as they had before the South-Sea company was eſtabliſhed as a trading corporation, although that company no longer exiſts as ſuch?

Had the South-Sea company put their original plan in execution, with vigour and honour, it would, indeed, have been a benefit to the kingdom, if not to the proprietors of the ſtock, by the increaſe of our exports and navigators; but the ſending an annual ſhip, under ſuch limitations as was done, though a new method of trade, was ſo far from being a benefit in point of trade, that it certainly leſſened our exports, and conſequently the trade of the kingdom, on a general balance with the Spaniſh nation. Cadiz, Seville, Port St Mary's, &c. were, before this trading company was eſtabliſhed, the places where the merchants, trading to the Indies, informed themſelves what ſpecies and quantities of goods were ſhipped off from time to time; but, on the ſending of the annual ſhips, they were under ſuch uncertainties, that they really declined dealing in our manufactures by theſe channels; which gradually and inſenſibly gave our rivals in this trade an open opportunity to eſtabliſh houſes of trade at theſe ports, and by exerciſing the trade to the Spaniſh Indies, in a way the moſt agreeable to the court of Spain, have greatly ſupplanted us in this once moſt ineſtimable branch of our commerce: and this may, in a great meaſure, be aſcribed to the South-Sea company's method of exerciſing their contract; for although we apprehend, that an Aſſiento under different ſtipulations, and fairly and honourably carried into execution, might have proved beneficial, both to the nation and the company; yet, as that we had was conditioned and exerciſed, it had quite contrary effects.

Thus we find, that the manner of the South-Sea company's exerciſing their trade *, was ſo far from being a benefit to the nation, by an increaſe of our exports and navigation, that it has been manifeſtly inſtrumental to leſſen them, and has only turned trade out of its former channel, which was before beneficial to great numbers of merchants and tradeſmen, as well as to the nation.

* What is here chiefly meant by the South-Sea company's exerciſing of their trade, is that illicit trade with which they were charged ſome years ſince by the court of Spain.

If the annual ſhip, all things conſidered, was of no advantage to Great-Britain, the company's trade, in general, muſt certainly have been of damage to it, and a conſiderable loſs to the proprietors; for the Aſſiento, for negroes only, was allowed, even by the Spaniards, to be a loſing contract; and it was on that expreſs conſideration, that the king of Spain granted the South-Sea company the liberty of ſending an annual ſhip of 500 tons, to the Weſt-Indies. If then the one was a certain loſs, and the other of no advantage, at leaſt not an equivalent, or preferable to the national trade which we had before, they were nothing more than amuſements, and ought to be thrown up, as tending to the prejudice of the proprietors, and the nation in general.

If the commerce of Great-Britain to Spaniſh America has been interrupted, and turned out of its courſe for ſome years, by means of this company, it is no little trouble to aſcertain the real loſs the nation has thereby ſuſtained, beſides the diſadvantages which the nation has many years laboured under, through the miſunderſtandings and heartburnings between this kingdom and Spain. And, as the judicious Mr. Locke obſerves, 'When trade is once loſt, it will be too late, by a 'mis-timed care, eaſily to retrieve it again; for the currents 'of trade, like thoſe of waters, make themſelves CHANNELS, out of which they are afterwards as hard to be di-'verted, as rivers that have worn themſelves deep within 'their banks.'—This is what has been urged in general againſt the South-Sea company, as a trading corporation.—Wherefore, the court of England, we may preſume, experiencing for a ſeries of years, that the court of Spain was greatly irritated with the South-Sea company's conduct, and the court of England having no leſs reaſon, perhaps, to be diſpleaſed with the South-Sea company for their non-compliance with the terms of the late convention between Great-Britain and Spain, which might have prevented the late war: upon theſe conſiderations, we apprehend, it ſeems probable, that the two courts were determined, by the following treaty, to put an end to the trade of this company.

A Treaty concluded and ſigned at Madrid, on the 5th of October, N. S. 1750.

'Whereas by the 16th article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it has been agreed between their Britannic and Catholic Majeſties, that the treaty of the ASSIENTO for the commerce of negroes, [ſee the article ASSIENTO] and the article of the ANNUAL SHIP, for the four years of non-enjoyment, ſhould be confirmed to Great-Britain upon the ſame foot, and upon the ſame conditions, as they ought to have been executed before the late war: and the reſpective ambaſſadors of their ſaid Majeſties having agreed, by a declaration ſigned between them, on the $\frac{13}{24}$ June 1748, to regulate, at a proper time and place, by a negociation between miniſters named on each ſide for that purpoſe, the equivalent which Spain ſhould give in conſideration of the non-enjoyment of the years of the ſaid Aſſiento of negroes, and of the annual ſhip granted to Great-Britain, by the 10th article of the preliminaries ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the $\frac{19}{30}$ April 1748.

Their Britannic and Catholic Majeſties, in order to fulfil the ſaid engagements of their reſpective miniſters, and to ſtrengthen and perfect, more and more, a ſolid and laſting harmony between the two crowns, have agreed to make the preſent particular treaty between themſelves, without the intervention or participation of any third power; ſo that each of the contracting parties acquires, by virtue of the ceſſions which that party makes, a right of compenſation from the other reciprocally: and they have named their miniſters plenipotentiaries for that purpoſe, viz. his Britannic Majeſty, Benjamin Keene, Eſq; his miniſter plenipotentiary to his Catholic Majeſty; and his Catholic Majeſty, Don Joſeph de Carvajal and Lancaſter, miniſter of ſtate, and Dean of his council of ſtate, who, after having examined the points in queſtion, have agreed on the following articles.

ARTICLE I.

His Britannic Majeſty yields to his Catholic Majeſty, his right to the enjoyment of the Aſſiento of negroes, and the annual ſhip, during the four years ſtipulated by the 16th article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

ARTICLE II.

His Britannic Majeſty, in conſideration of a compenſation of one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, which his Catholic Majeſty promiſes and engages to cauſe to be paid, either at Madrid or London, to the royal Aſſiento company, within the term of three months at lateſt, to be reckoned from the day of the ſigning of this treaty, yields to his Catholic Majeſty all that may be due to the company for ballance of accounts, or riſing in any manner whatſoever from the ſaid Aſſiento; ſo that the ſaid compenſation ſhall be eſteemed and looked upon as a FULL and ENTIRE SATISFACTION on the part of his Catholic Majeſty, and ſhall extinguiſh from this preſent time, for the future, and for ever, all right, pretenſion, or demand, which might be formed in conſequence of the ſaid Aſſiento, or annual ſhip, directly or indirectly,

on the part of his Britannic Majesty, or on that of the said company.

ARTICLE III.

The Catholic king yields to his Britannic majesty, all his pretensions or demands in consequence of the said Assiento and annual ship, as well with regard to the articles already liquidated, as to those which may be easy or difficult to liquidate; so that no mention can ever be made of them hereafter on either side.

ARTICLE IV.

His Catholic Majesty consents, that the British subjects shall not be bound to pay higher, or other duties, or upon other evaluations for goods which they shall carry into, or out of the different ports of his Catholic Majesty, than those paid on the same goods in the time of Charles II. king of Spain, settled by the CEDULAS and ORDONNANCES of that king, or those of his predecessors. And although the favour or allowance called Pie del Fardo be not founded upon any royal ordonnance, nevertheless his Catholic Majesty declares, wills, and ordains, that it shall be observed now, and for the future, as an inviolable law; and all the abovementioned duties shall be exacted and levied, now and for the future, with the same advantages and favours to the said subjects.

ARTICLE V.

His Catholic Majesty allows the said subjects to take and gather salt in the island of Tortudos, without any hindrance whatsoever, as they did in the time of the said king Charles II.

ARTICLE VI.

His Catholic Majesty consents, that the said subjects shall not pay any where, higher or other duties than those which his Catholic Majesty's subjects pay in the same place.

ARTICLE VII.

His Catholic Majesty grants, that the said subjects shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunities whatsoever, which they enjoyed before the last war, by virtue of cedulas or royal ordonnances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and comerce, made at Madrid in 1667; [see the article SPAIN] and the said subjects shall be treated in Spain, in the same manner as the most favoured nation, and consequently, no nation shall pay less duties upon wool, and other merchandizes, which tney shall bring into, or carry out of Spain by land, than the said subjects shall pay upon the same merchandizes, which they shall bring in, or carry out by sea. And all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunitions, which shall be granted or permitted to any nation whatever, shall also be granted and permitted to the said subjects; and his Britannic Majesty consents, that the same be granted and permitted to the subjects of Spain in his Britannic Majesty's kingdoms.

ARTICLE VIII.

His Catholic Majesty promises to use all possible endeavours, on his part, to abolish all innovations which may have been introduced into commerce, and to have them forborne for the future; his Britannic Majesty likewise promises to use all possible endeavours to abolish all innovations, and to forbear them for the future.

ARTICLE IX.

Their Britannic and Catholic Majesties confirm, by the present treaty, the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and all the other treaties, therein confirmed, in all their articles and clauses, excepting those which have been derogated from by the present treaty: as likewise the treaty of commerce concluded at Utrecht in 1713, those articles excepted, which are contrary to the present treaty, which shall be abolished and of no force, and namely, the three articles of the said treaty of Utrecht, commonly called explanatory.

ARTICLE X.

All the reciprocal differences rights, demands, and pretensions, which may have subsisted between the two crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, in which no other nation whatever has any part, interest, or right of intervention, being thus accommodated and extinguished by this particular treaty; the two said most serene kings, engage themselves mutually to the punctual execution of this treaty of reciprocal compensation, which shall be approved and ratified by their said Majesties, and the ratifications exchanged, in the term of six weeks, to be reckoned from the day of its signing, or sooner if it can be done.

In witness whereof, we the above-mentioned ministers plenipotentiaries, that is to say, Benjamin Keene, Esq; in the name of his Britannic Majesty; and Don Joseph de Carvajal and Lancaster, in the name of his Catholic Majesty, by virtue of our full powers, which we have mutually communicated to each other, have signed these presents, and have caused the seals of our arms to be put thereto. Done at Madrid, the 5th of October 1750, N. S.

(L. S.) JOSEPH DE CARVAJAL y LANCASTER.

(L. S.) B. KEENE.

His BRITANNIC MAJESTY's ratification.

George the second, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg, arch-treasurer of the holy Roman empire, and prince elector, &c. To all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting: Whereas a certain treaty between us and our good brother Ferdinand VI. Catholic king of Spain and the Indies, was concluded and signed at Madrid, the 5th day of October last past, N. S. by ministers plenipotentiaries, sufficiently impowered with orders and authority on each side, in the form and words following.

[Fiat insertio.]

We having considered the above written treaty, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the same, in all and singular its clauses, as by these presents we do approve, ratify, and confirm the same, for us, our heirs and successors, engaging and promising, on our royal word, sacredly and inviolably to perform and observe all and singular its contents; and never to suffer, as far as in us lies, any person to violate the same, or in any manner to act contrary thereto. In witness whereof, we have caused our great seal of Great Britain to be affixed to these presents, signed with our royal hand. Given at our palace at St James's, the 5th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1750, and of our reign the twenty-fourth.

GEORGE R.

His CATHOLIC MAJESTY's ratification.

Don Ferdinand, by the grace of God, king of Castille, of Leon, of Arragon, of the Two Sicilies, of Jerusalem, of Navarre, of Granada, of Toledo, of Valentia, of Galicia, of Majorca, of Seville, of Sardinia, of Cordova, of Corsica, of Murcia, of Jaen, of the Algarves, of Algeeira, of Gibraltar, of the Canary Islands, of the East and West-Indies, islands and Terra Firma, of the Ocean Sea, archduke of Austria, duke of Burgundy, of Brabant, and of Milan, count of Absburg, of Flanders, of Tyrol, and of Barcelona, lord of Biscay, and of Molina, &c. Whereas there having been agreed on and signed at Madrid, on the fifth day of October of this instant year, by Don Joseph de Carvajal and Lancaster, knight of the most illustrious order of the Golden Fleece, my gentleman of the bed chamber in ordinary, my minister of state, and dean of this council, governor of the supreme council of the Indies, president of the committee of commerce and money, and superintendant-general of the posts and mails within Spain, as well those that go out of Spain or come from abroad; and Benjamin Keene, Esq; minister plenipotentiary from the most potent king of Great-Britain to my royal person, by virtue of the full powers that have been given to them by me, and by the said most serene king, a treaty upon the equivalent that Spain is to give in consideration of the four years of the Assiento contract for negroes, and of the grant of the annual ship that Great-Britain has not enjoyed on account of the last war, and about all the differences that did subsist between our two crowns. The said treaty is actually as follows:

[Fiat insertio.]

Therefore, after having seen and examined the said treaty, I have thought proper to approve of and ratify the same; as by virtue of the present I do approve of and ratify the same, in the best and most ample manner I can, promising, in faith of my royal word, to fulfil it entirely in the manner as it is therein contained and expressed: to this end I have ordered the present to be dispatched, which is signed with my hand, sealed with my privy-seal, and countersigned by my underwritten counsellor of state and secretary of the universal dispatch of war, of Indies, marine, and of the revenues. Given at Buen Retiro on the 5th day of December, one thousand seven hundred and fifty.

(L. S.) I THE KING.

CENON DE SOMODEVILLA.

SPAIN is situate on the most western part of all the continent of Europe, and is encompassed on every side by the sea, except on the side of France, from which it is separated by a continued ridge of mountains called the Pyrennees. On the east and south it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the Streights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the same ocean; and on the north by the sea called the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrennees. Its site is in the temperate zone, between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitude, and consequently under the sixt, seventh, and eighth

eighth climates; and in length it extends itſelf from the 10th degree of weſt to the third degree of eaſt longitude, that is, 13 degrees from eaſt to weſt, and nine degrees from north to ſouth.

This kingdom is divided into fourteen provinces, viz.

1. Galicia,	6. Catalonia,	11. Eſtramadura,
2. Aſturias,	7. Valencia,	12. Andaluſia,
3. Biſcay,	8. New Caſtille,	13. Granada,
4. Navarre,	9. Old Caſtille,	14. Murcia.
5. Arragon,	10. Leon,	

The ſoil of Spain has been miſrepreſented as dry and barren by ſeveral writers, who appear to have had no knowlege of it. We may even affirm, that its moſt mountainous and barren parts do produce ſomething for uſe. Some are covered with ſtately trees of ſeveral ſorts, either for timber or fuel. The rocky parts abound with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which ſerve to feed a vaſt number of ſheep, goats, &c. and give their milks and fleſh a more exquiſite reliſh than any that is fed on the richeſt paſtures; and if theſe happen to be ſcorched with too much heat in ſummer, the cattle are driven down to the ſides of the hills, where they find plenty of thoſe herbs, and meadow grounds well watered by the great number of rivers with which the country abounds; ſo that at the worſt they never want a ſufficient quantity of herbage to ſupply their numerous flocks. Other mountainous and rocky lands produce quantities of a famed plant called by them eſparto, of which they make all kinds of ropes and other cordage.

The Spaniſh wheat is inferior to none, if not the very beſt in Europe, and the common product of it more than the natives can conſume. Barley is here very good, and in ſuch plenty, that it is the common grain for their horſes and mules, inſtead of oats, which are here very ſcarce; and the ſtraw of it ſerves them likewiſe inſtead of hay, of which they make hardly any through the kingdom.

Wine they likewiſe have in ſuch abundance, that the pooreſt people drink it; and as to its goodneſs and the great variety of it, we need ſay the leſs, as moſt men are ſufficiently acquainted with the various ſorts of it; ſuch as the Malaga, Sherry, Galicia, Alicant, Barcelona, and much greater number of others, which ſeldom, if ever, come among us, though nothing inferior to thoſe above named.

As for fruits, they not only have the different ſorts in much higher perfection, which either naturally grow, or which we cultivate with ſo much pains here in England, but likewiſe many others, which, with all our art, cannot be brought by us to any tolerable ripeneſs, and with which we are more eaſily ſupplied from them; ſuch as citrons, lemons, oranges, almonds, raiſins, prunes, olives, dates, figs, cheſnuts, pomegranates, capers, and a multitude of others too tedious to enumerate. The ſame may be ſaid of their herbs, flowers, and medicinal plants, which, though excellent in their kinds, yet grow moſt of them wild here, when in other places they could not be produced without great art and induſtry.

Their oil, wax, and honey, are allowed to be as good as any in the world. Few countries exceed this for plenty, goodneſs and variety of fowl, both wild and tame. Of four footed game, as deer, both red and fallow, hares, rabbets, and particularly wild boars. As for their tame ſwine, all that have had experience of it, allow that the Spaniſh bacon exceeds even that of Weſtphalia. Their ſheep are moſt exquiſite in taſte, but they are ſtill more valuable for their incomparable wool, which all their neighbours, and nobody more than our clothworkers, can teſtify to exceed any in Europe. Above all, we muſt not forget their horſes, greatly famed for their exceeding celerity, thoſe eſpecially that are bred in large quantities in Eſtramadura, and parts adjacent, are reckoned the fineſt and ſwifteſt. Other provinces breed, indeed, great quantities of them, and equally ſerviceable, but neither ſo beautiful nor of ſo great value. The Spaniards were, from the earlieſt ages, very curious in their breeding of good horſes, and very dextrous in the uſe and management of them, eſpecially in the field. As for the other ſervices of that uſeful creature, ſuch as carrying, drawing, plowing, &c. they have here their mules in great quantities, which ſeem much more fitted by nature for ſuch drudgery, as well as for going over the moſt craggy and mountainous parts of the country; being both larger, ſtronger, and ſurer footed, than the horſes, though nothing ſo ſwift. Many of them are 16, and ſome even 17 hands high, and carry very heavy burthens over ſuch rocky parts, and with ſuch eaſe and ſteadineſs, as is quite aſtoniſhing to thoſe who are not accuſtomed to them.

The ſilken manufacture is here ſo encouraged, that we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing ſilk-worms, and in ſpinning, weaving, and making all kinds of ſilks, ſuch as ſattin, damaſk, tabby, velvets, ſhags, and many other ſorts. The ſame may be ſaid of their cotton, hemp, and flax, which likewiſe grow here in large quantities, and employ a proportionable number of hands; not to mention their ſcarlet dye, ſaffron, ſugar, pitch, roſin, and other commodities, that grow above ground.

If we dive into the bowels of the earth, we ſhall find gold, ſilver, quickſilver, which latter they ſend in large quantities, into the Weſt-Indies, their lead, copper, and excellent iron, the beſt of which is dug from the mountains of Biſcay, and is ſent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodneſs; they have great plenty of ſulphur, allum, calamine, and other minerals; as likewiſe of jett, agate, cornelian, granates, cryſtal, marble, alabaſter, jaſper, and other ſtones. With relation to their gold mines, it muſt be owned that they have quite neglected them ever ſince they have been able to draw ſuch immenſe quantities of that metal from America. But anciently they had it in as great plenty, or much greater plenty, out of their own.

The healthfulneſs of this country may be gathered, not only from its excellent ſituation and ſerene ſky, but likewiſe from the ſtoutneſs and longevity of its ancient inhabitants, whilſt they gave themſelves up to a habit of exerciſe and temperance; in which laſt they always did, and do ſtill excel all the other nations in Europe.

Having thus far run through all that need be ſaid in general concerning this country, we ſhall now take a view of it, with reſpect to each of its particular kingdoms and provinces, in the ſame order as we have before ranged them.

The kingdom of GALICIA is waſhed on the weſt by the Ocean, on the north by the Cantabrian Sea or Bay of Biſcay, on the eaſt it borders upon Aſturias and Leon, and on the ſouth upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the ſea by the river Minho.

This ſmall kingdom produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle, eſpecially hogs, whoſe bacon far exceeds that of Weſtphali; ſtrong mules, good horſes, though not large; but it is moſt famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. They have plenty of firing and of timber for building houſes and ſhips. They have likewiſe quarries of fine marble, and ſome flax is here produced, with which they make a pretty good ſort of linen.

CORUNNA, a famed ancient ſea-port town on the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biſcay, called by our ſeamen the Groin. It is by its ſituation well fenced againſt the winds, and againſt the enemy by two ſtrong caſtles. It ſtands between the two famed promontories of Finiſterre and Ortegal, and is wealthy, being a place of conſiderable trade.

The principality of ASTURIAS. This principality lies on the north ſide, along the Bay of Biſcay, borders on the weſt on Galicia; on the ſouth it is divided from Caſtille and Leon by a ridge of mountains, called the Aſturian Mountains, ſince they are the boundaries between that and thoſe two provinces. On the coaſts it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow ſlip of land belonging to Old Caſtille, which runs into the ſea between Aſturias and Biſcay. The whole length of Aſturias is about 135 miles, and 60 in breadth. It is generally divided into two parts or diſtricts, the one called Aſturias de Orviedo, and the other of Santillana. But it is farther ſubdivided into ſeven merindades, or liberties, beſides a little province called Liebana.

This little province of LIEBANA is about 27 miles long, and 12 broad. It is one of the moſt craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, exceſſive high, and almoſt inacceſſible. Theſe mountains are called Europæ, and are in full front of the ſea, and produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game.

The lordſhip of BISCAY. Biſcay, as generally taken, is divided into three provinces, viz. Biſcay properly ſo called, Guipuſcoa, and Alaba or Alava. The whole is bounded on the weſt by that ſlip of Old Caſtille which reaches to the ſea, and, as was hinted under the laſt article, parts Aſturias from Biſcay on the ſouth. The ridge of mountains formerly mentioned as branching from the Pyrennees, parts it from Old Caſtille on the ſouth-eaſt, as the ſame mountains part it again from Navarre, and the river Cidarſo from France on the eaſt, and all the north ſide is waſhed by the Cantabrian Sea, called commonly the Bay of Biſcay.

The country is mountainous and barren, producing neither wheat, barley, wine, nor oil, but abundance of millet-ſeed and fruit, which make cyder in plenty. Some flax is likewiſe produced in their vallies, and abundance of timber for ſhipping on the hills. But their greateſt treaſure lies in their inexhauſtible mines of iron, which is reckoned the beſt in the world, and is tranſported thence into all parts. Here are whole towns of ſmiths, that carry on the ſmithery manufactory, and make all ſorts of iron-work, eſpecially ſwords and fire-arms, very elegant and in great quantities. There is likewiſe a great deal of wool ſhipped off from their ſea-ports into foreign parts, but moſt of it is brought hither from Old Caſtille. Some, however, they have here, but as it is neither ſo fine, nor in any quantity, they manufacture it wholly for their own uſe.

BISCAY, properly ſo called, borders on the weſt upon that ſlip of Old Caſtille which extends itſelf to the ſea, on the ſouth upon Caſtille, and part of Alava eaſtward upon Guipuſcoa, and has the Bay of Biſcay on the north.

BILBOA, though no city, is now the capital of Biſcay, it being a place of great trade, by reaſon it has a good port, ſmall veſſels coming up to the mole, and others of greater bulk lying farther out. The greateſt export here is of their fine wool and exquiſite iron, moſt of the latter in bars; though great quantities of that wrought metal alſo are ſhipped off, ſuch as

ſwords, fire-arms, horſe-ſhoes, and other ſuch-like military neceſſaries. The town ſtands ſix miles diſtant from the ſea on the river Ibaichaval.

GUIPUSCOA follows next, as it runs along the ſame coaſts of the northern Sea or Bay. It borders weſtward upon Biſcay Proper and part of Alava, ſouthward on Alava and Navarre, and eaſtward on Navarre and France.

ST SEBASTIAN, a noted port on the Bay of Biſcay, nine miles from Fuentarabia, and almoſt incloſed with rivers, which fall into the ſea in the neighbourhood of it, particularly that which they call the Branco. The mole will receive two hundred ſhips.

ALAVA borders weſtward on Biſcay and Old Caſtille, ſouthward on Caſtille hill, eaſtward on Navarre, and northward on Guipuſcoa and Biſcay.

The kingdom of NAVARRE. This country is divided from France on the north by the Pyrennees, which alſo cut it into two parts, diſtinguiſhed into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, and on the Spaniſh ſide, is the kingdom we are now to ſpeak of; the other beyond theſe mountains is by much the ſmaller, and belongs to France. This we are now upon, borders upon Biſcay and Old Caſtille on the weſt, on Caſtille and Arragon on the ſouth, and eaſtward upon Arragon. Its length is about ninety miles from north to ſouth, and about eighty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Navarre is divided into five diſtricts, viz. PAMPELONA, TUDELA, ESTELA, OLITE, and SANGUESSA, which are parted by prodigious high mountains, yet yielding good corn, and other grain, wine, oil, honey, fruits and herbs, and affording plenty of food and paſture for their cattle, beſides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. Theſe mountains produce metals and minerals, and had formerly ſeveral rich mines of gold and ſilver, though now either exhauſted or neglected. Here are likewiſe abundance of fine ſprings, hot baths, and other medicinal waters.

The kingdom of ARRAGON. This kingdom is bounded on the north by the Pyrennees, which divide it from France; on the weſt it has Navarre and New and Old Caſtille; on the ſouth the kingdom of Valencia; and on the eaſt, part of Valencia and the principality of Catalonia. The whole length from north to ſouth is 210 miles, and its breadth between 100 and 120. The country is mountainous, but full of delightful vales, and extraordinary fertile, which produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, ſaffron, and fruits of the moſt delicious kind. They breed alſo great quantities of cattle, and abound with all ſorts of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains are ſaid to have mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewiſe very conſiderable rivers, and plenty of good fiſh: the moſt remarkable of the rivers is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its ſlow and gentle courſe, which gives opportunity to the huſbandmen and gardeners to cut channels from it to water their lands, inſomuch that we are told their trees will bear fruits three, and often four, times a year; and not only in great plenty, but in ſuch variety, that they reckon no leſs than 400 ſorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and paſture-grounds, are likewiſe much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In a word, Arragon is on all theſe accounts, as well as for the extraordinary ſerenity of its air, compared to Egypt. The Mediterranean helps very much to enrich the country, both by foreign traffic, and the great quantity of fiſh which is caught on thoſe coaſts.

SARAGOSSA, the metropolis of this kingdom, is an ancient and opulent city, ſeated almoſt in the heart of it on the bank of the Ebro, and in a fertile and delightful plain, watered with three other rivers, viz. the Xalon, Gallego, and Guerva. It lies in the 41ſt degree of latitude, and in 1 ½ degree of weſt longitude. The city is of an oblong form. It is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, and a conſiderable number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls. The country round about it is very fertile and beautiful, and produces every thing that is neceſſary, comfortable, and delightful; corn, wine, oil, fruits in great plenty and variety, fiſh and fowl of all ſorts, and all chiefly owing to its excellent ſituation.

CATALONIA is bounded on the north by the Pyrennees, by which it is parted from the province of Rouſſillon in France, on the weſt by Arragon, and a ſmall part of Valencia; from the firſt of theſe it is ſeparated by the rivers Naguera and Mataruna, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the ſouth and eaſt it is waſhed by the Mediterranean, and has many convenient ſea-ports along thoſe ſhores. The inland is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the moſt mountainous, but farther in, it abounds with delightful and ſpacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from one degree to 30 20 eaſt longitude, is therefore neither ſo hot as Andaluſia, nor ſo cold as Aſturia, and the north part of Spain, being moreover ſheltered on the north by the Pyrennees, and on the eaſt by the ſea. This temperature, joined to the many ſtreams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding fertile and delightful. Its product, which is here in great plenty, is excellent wheat, rich wine, ſweet oil, exquiſite honey, delicious fruits of all ſorts, abundance of cattle, ſwarms of fowl, wild and tame, vaſt quantities of deer, hares, rabbets, and all other game: good hemp, fine flax, ſaffron, variety of corn, and other grain, herbs, &c. a conſiderable quantity of ſilk, fine wool, fiſh of all ſorts, and in the greateſt plenty, quarries of marble, alabaſter, and jaſper-ſtone, coral taken out of the ſea, ſalt, and many other commodities.

BARCELONA is the capital of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe that are not the courts of princes. It is pleaſantly ſeated on the Mediterranean coaſts, a little below the gulph of Lyons, and opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, which, together with its eminence and caſtle, and the beauty of its churches and other ſumptuous edifices, affords a moſt delightful proſpect to the ſhips that ſail by or to it, eſpecially as it ſtands between two conſiderable rivers, the Lobregat and Bezes, which pay their tribute to that ſea on each ſide of it. The coaſt it ſtands upon is a good ſafe road, and the port, though rather too ſmall, hath yet rendered it a place of great trade, eſpecially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt through the Mediterranean. Its ſituation is on a ſpacious plain, at the foot of the mountain Monjuyque. Its territory round is ſtored with all neceſſaries for ſuſtenance and delight, as wheat and other grain, oil, rich wines, fruits of all ſorts, cattle, fowl, honey, wood, and game of all kinds.

TARTAGONA, now the ſecond city in this province, ſtands commodiouſly ſituate, near the coaſt of the Mediterranean, on the brink of a pleaſant hill, at the foot of which is a ſafe and convenient harbour, for ſmall ſhips, between the rivers Gaya and Francoli.

The climate here is ſo temperate, and the ſoil ſo rich and warm, that the trees bear fruit, and bloſſom, in the coldeſt months. The territory is adorned with delightful gardens, orchards, and country-ſeats; the fields abound with corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, and fruit of all ſorts, in the higheſt perfection, with all kind of fowl and game, and of fiſh from the ſea.

TORTOSA is ſituate on the bank of the Ebro, not far from the ſea, and has a good bay, formed by that river, that comes up almoſt to the walls of it. Without the city is a moſt beautiful plain, 18 miles long, and 6 in breadth, watered by the Ebro, and producing corn, wine, oil, fruit, timber for ſhipping, great quantity of palm-trees, with cattle, fowl, game, and other neceſſaries, beſides ſilk in abundance, which is here made in ſarſenets. Here are likewiſe a great many curious ſprings, which fertilize the plain, and ſupply the city with water, beſides quarries of marble and jaſper, one within two miles of the city, and ſome ſalt-pits.

VICQUE is pleaſantly ſituate, in a kind of peninſula, made by the rivers Ter and Naguerra, which almoſt incompaſs it. It ſtands 36 miles north from Barcelona, at the foot of a hill, near a fertile and delightful plain. On the mountain Moſen, about ſix miles from the city, are found excellent white and purple amethyſts, and topazes: they are dug out of a fat, reddiſh, or yellowiſh earth, and the beſt ſort of theſe laſt are thoſe of the deepeſt violet. In the neighbouring mountains are likewiſe found ſome gold, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, but in ſo ſmall a quantity as not to anſwer the ſearching for them.

CARDONA ſtands about 60 miles diſtant from Barcelona: near this city is a mountain of ſalt, which yields an annual revenue of 30,000 pieces of eight: the ſalt is tranſparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white.

The kingdom of VALENTIA. This kingdom lies, on the eaſt, along the Mediterranean coaſts, facing the iſlands of Majorca and Ivica, except only a ſmall part towards Catalonia, which is parted from it by the river Cenia; on the north it has the kingdom of Arragon; on the weſt New Caſtille and Murcia; and the ſmall track of it which runs toward the ſouth, borders upon the laſt-named kingdom of Murcia. The greateſt length of Valentia is about 210 miles, and its greateſt breadth about 48.

This whole kingdom is ſo delightful, as to be compared to an earthly paradiſe. The air here is every where ſo temperate, that this part enjoys a perpetual ſpring: the trees are always covered with verdure and bloſſoms, the air very ſerene, and the weather ſo moderate and pleaſant, as never to be either exceſſively hot or cold, nor diſturbed by immoderate rains; upon all which accounts it is univerſally allowed to be the moſt delightful part of Spain, and, by many, even of all the world. The ſurprizing excellence of its ſoil and climate, is the cauſe that the whole country is filled with noblemens and gentlemens ſeats, and covered with exquiſite gardens, pleaſant orchards, delightful groves, fertile fields, and paſture grounds; and where the land is not employed for delight, it produces immenſe plenty of corn, wine, oil, honey, flax, and all kind of herbage; alſo flowers and fruit in great variety. To all which we may add, that the ſugar, rice, and ſilk it produces, one year with another, is reckoned to amount to three millions of pieces of eight. Here are likewiſe mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, beſides great quantity and

variety of precious ſtones, which formerly amounted to an immenſe value; but they are now wholly neglected. Here is alſo abundance of allum, the beſt and fineſt white lime, and plenty of cochineal.

The earth about Valentia, and other parts of this kingdom, is ſo well cultivated, that, by Mr Willoughby's confeſſion, they generally have five crops a year, eſpecially of mulberry-leaves for ſilk-worms, of wheat, and other grain, grapes, olives, maiz, or Indian wheat, and ſugar-canes.

VALENTIA, the noble and ancient capital of this kingdom, is ſeated on the ſhady banks of the river Turio, over which it has five ſtately bridges, and ſtands about two miles from the ſea. It lies in 39 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, and about 15 minutes eaſt longitude. Its diſtance from Madrid, the now metropolis of Spain, is about 180 miles, ſouth-eaſt; from Barcelona, ſouth-weſt, about the ſame number; and ſouth from Saragoſſa about 135. Its ſea-port, named Grao, which ſtands on the Mediterranean, about a mile and a half from the city, furniſhes it with every thing either for conveniency or delight, the ſea ſupplying it with an extraordinary variety of fiſh, the neighbouring lake of Albuſera, or little ſea, with great abundance of water-fowl and freſh-water fiſh; and the fertile country about with the greateſt plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, herbs, and other proviſions. It is inriched by the number of quality and gentry which live in it, by its great commerce, and the variety of manufactures that are carried on here, eſpecially the woollen, ſo that the cloth that is made here is reckoned the fineſt in all Spain.

ALICANT is a famous city and ſea-port on the Mediterranean, diſtant from Murcia, towards the north-eaſt, 42 miles, 60 ſouth from Valentia, and about 210 from Madrid. It is a place of great trade, by reaſon of its commodious harbour, and well known to the Engliſh, for the delicate wines and delicious fruits, which they bring from thence.

The kingdom of NEW CASTILLE. This country is bounded on the north by Old Caſtille, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries they run through; on the eaſt it is parted from Eſtramadura, by another chain of them, called Guadalupe, and la Sarena; on the ſouth from Andaluſia, by thoſe called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the eaſt by the river Segura, and mountains of Almanza and Requena from Valencia; and from Arragon by thoſe of Maya, Daroka, and Molina. The length of this kingdom, from ſouth to north, is about 180 miles, and pretty near the ſame in breadth, where it is wideſt, but its figure is irregular in the latter.

The country being all inland, and ſurrounded with ſuch high mountains, which contract the ſun's rays as it were into a focus, and, at the ſame time, ſuppreſs the free paſſage of the cooling ſea breezes, its climate is conſequently hotter in ſummer, and colder in winter, than thoſe which lie along the ſea-coaſts, under the ſame latitude. It is nevertheleſs very healthy, and its ſoil generally fertile, producing abundance of wheat, and other grain, plenty of wine, oil, fruit, and herbs, feeds a great quantity of cattle, all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and is very well ſupplied with variety of fiſh and green paſture, by the many rivers that run through it.

TOLEDO is built on a high, ſteep, and craggy rock, almoſt inacceſſible on all ſides, and made much more ſo by the courſe of the river Tagus, which encompaſſes it almoſt round, and over which it has two noble bridges. Here are a great number of merchants, tradeſmen, and artificers, eſpecially in the ſilk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are ſaid to have employed near 10,000 hands. Toledo is about 36 miles diſtant from Madrid.

TALAVERA DE LA REYNA is delightfully ſeated on the river Tagus, 36 miles weſt from Toledo, and is much famed for its woollen manufacture of ſtuffs, and particularly for an extraordinary kind of fine earthen ware that is made at it.

The kingdom of OLD CASTILLE. Old Caſtille was formerly part of the Roman Tarracconenſis, and borders all the way on the ſouth to New Caſtille, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains, which change their names according to the places of note they paſs through, as Motina, Siguenca, Segovia, &c. by that chain of them which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by thoſe of Pica and Banos, from Eſtramadura, on the weſt; and by thoſe of Avila and Perina, with the little rivers of Carrion, Piſuerga, and Heban, from Leon on the north-weſt. It is parted again on the north from Aſturias and Biſcay by another ridge of hills, branching out from the Pyrennees; only in the center, between theſe two provinces, it hath a narrow ſlip of land, which reaches quite to the bay of Biſcay; laſtly, on the eaſt, the Ebro and mountains of Doea, for a conſiderable length, part it from Navarre and Arragon. The greateſt extent of this province, from north to ſouth, reaches from 40. 10. to 43. 15. degrees of latitude and from 1. 30. to 4. 10. degrees of weſt longitude; that is, about 180 miles, and near about the ſame number from eaſt to weſt; that is, both ways taken where largeſt, for its figure is very irregular, and not near anſwerable in other parts.

The climate here differs ſomewhat from that of New Caſtille, on account of the country being more mountainous, which makes the ſeveral parts vary, according to their ſituation, the vallies being exceſſive hot, the upper ground proportionably cold and bleak, and others, according to the proximity of the hills, ſend down refreſhing gales, or cauſe a greater reflection of the ſun. But, upon the whole, the ſoil is generally good, in ſome ſenſe or other, the plains yielding plenty of all ſorts of grain, fruit, wine, and other proviſions, the ſides of the hills good paſture for their numerous cattle, and the tops timber for building and fuel. Some of theſe ſummits are ſo high, that they are covered with ſnow all the ſummer, which is carried and ſold to the towns, as is uſual through all Spain, to cool their wine.

WALLADOLID ſtands on the bank of the river Piſuerga, on a pleaſant riſing ground, and a noble proſpect all round it, as itſelf yields a delightful one to the beholders, from its fine ſituation and grand edifices.

This city is populous and opulent through not only the great number of rich and noble families who make their chief reſidence in it, but much more ſo by the large commerce, manufactures, and other inferior trades which are carried on here. The woollen manufacture is here the beſt and moſt conſiderable in all Spain, for here is a vaſt quantity of the fineſt wool produced, from innumerable flocks that are raiſed in the neighbouring plains; and the cloth that is made here is reckoned the beſt in all the world, and in high eſteem both at home and abroad. Here are alſo ſundry other manufactures and trades carried on, with great induſtry and ſucceſs.

The kingdom of LEON. This kingdom, properly ſo called, is now bounded by the Aſturian mountains; on the eaſt it has Old Caſtille, from which it is divided by the mountains of Pernia, and the rivers Carrio and Piſuerga, as far as the Ebro, then by thoſe of Heban and Reganno, 'till you come to the mountains Bonilla de la Sierra; on the ſouth, the mountains of Bannos, and another ridge, divide it from Eſtremadura; and, on the weſt, the rivers of Agueda, Duero, and a chain of mountains, part it from Portugal, as does the ſame ridge of hills continued, from Gallicia. The whole extent of Leon, from north to ſouth, is about 120 miles, that is, from 42 to about 40; and from eaſt to weſt about 90; that is, from 4. 20. to 5. 40. eaſt longitude. The river Duero runs almoſt acroſs the middle of it, leaving one half on the north, and the other on the ſouth.

As this kingdom lies in the ſame climate and latitude with that of Old Caſtille, to which it is contiguous, and is, like it, intermingled with ridges of high hill, capacious vallies, and campaign plains, which occaſion pretty near the ſame degrees of heat and cold, dry and moiſt; its ſoil and temperature differ very little from that, and its ground brings forth near the ſame productions, ſuch as excellent wheat, and other grain, paſture and cattle, fine wines, oil, honey, fruit, game fowl, and the like. The natives are here likewiſe robuſt, hardy, laborious, brave, temperate, and lovers of learning. The mountains have alſo ſome minerals, but chiefly quarries of excellent marble, and veined alabaſter, jaſper-ſtones, and ſometimes others of greater value, as turquoiſes, garnets, amethyſts, &c.

The province of ESTRAMADURA. This province is divided from Portugal, or from the Portugueze Eſtramadura, on the weſt, by the rivers Elya, Caya, and ſome others of leſs note; on the north it joins on the kingdom of Leon, without any noted mountains or rivers to part them; on the eaſt, the mountains of Banos, Pico, and Guadalupe, divide it from Old and New Caſtille; and on the ſouth it is parted from Andaluſia by the chain of hills called Sierra Morena. The rivers Tajo and Guadiana running through it from eaſt to weſt, divide it into three parts; the moſt northern is that which is beyond the Tajo, the next is between that and the Guadiana, and the laſt is that which is ſouth of the Guadiana. The length of the whole province, from north to ſouth, is 150 miles, that is, from 38. to 40. 30 latitude; and in breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 120, that is, from 4. 40. to 6. 20. weſt longitude.

The climate, indeed, is exceeding hot, and ſomewhat ſultry, being moſtly inland, and wanting thoſe cooling gales which the hills and the ſea communicate to the adjacent provinces; but in all other reſpects it may juſtly be reckoned the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile not only in all Spain, but perhaps in the world. For an evidence of which, we need but inſtance in the moſt celebrated plains called La Vera de Plaſentia, of which it might ſuffice to ſay, that ſeveral of the Ancients placed the elyſian fields in it, as knowing of no place more delicious and beautiful. This noble plain is about 36 miles in length, and 10 in breadth, and ſo ſweetly delightful, that it invites great numbers of the nobility and gentry to ſpend the ſummer in it. It hath 13 ſmall towns, or villages, and about 5000 houſes, all beautifully ſituated, and neat, and all the reſt is either covered with the greateſt variety of fruit trees which Europe affords, or beautifully variegated and diſpoſed into olive groves, vineyards, gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, producing plenty of corn, flax, &c. and watered with many pleaſant ſprings and ſtreams, yielding beſides abundance of excellent fiſh, eſpecially trout. Such is, in fine, the product of this valley, that of the territory of only four inconſiderable villages, out of the 13 that are in it, the pro-

duct is said to have amounted, in one year, to 150 tons of oil, 550 of wine, 60,000 bushels of chesnuts, an incredible quantity of wheat, and other grain; whilst other parts of it yielded not only the like, or even larger quantities, in proportion, of the same produce, besides fruits, flax, &c. but likewise abundance of silk, wax, honey, saffron, and such like, besides pasture, and great quantities of cattle.

ANDALUSIA province is divided, on the north, from Estramadura and New Castille, by the Sierra Morena mountains; on the east from Portugal, by the river Chanca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the south it has the ocean, the mouth of the Streights, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the south-east it has the kingdom of Granada.

No province in Spain exceeds this in fertility and commerce; the latter is owing to its maritime situation, and convenient harbour. The great quantity of wine and oil is so extraordinary, as to be almost beyond credit. Their cattle, also, are numberless. Fine oranges, citrons, raisins, almonds, pomegranates, and figs, are the natural growth of this province. They have great plenty of fine salt and sugar, and a celebrated breed of horses.

SEVILLE, its capital, situate on the river Guadalquivir, and in one of the most beautiful plains of Europe.—Here is an India-house, for the regulation of their West-India trade, a fine exchange, and mint.—The silk and silver stuffs are the most considerable manufactures carried on here, with those of soap and pottery-ware.—Without the city are salt-pits, and quarries of marble.—Along the river are many commodious keys, where ships of good burthen may safely lie.

CORDOVA stands on a delightful plain: besides the extraordinary fertility of its soil round about, which supplies it with plenty of fine wheat, oil, fruits, &c. it carries on a great variety of trades and manufactures; and, among the latter, the woollen and silken, of the finest kind, and that of a curious gilt leather. It is famed also for a breed of fine horses.

CADIZ is next in rank to the royal cities; it is very advantageously situated for commerce; the spaciousness of the harbour, seated upon the ocean, so near the Mediterranean, draws thither a concourse of ships and merchants, to purchase the product of Spain, and, of late years, of the West-Indies, which are now first brought hither.

XERES DE LA FRONTERA is well situate on the small river Guadaletta, about six miles from the sea. Its territory is so rich and fertile, that, besides great quantities of wheat, fruit, cattle, and other provisions, it yields 60,000 pipes of sherry yearly. It has also a good brood of horses.

EZIJA seated on the Xenil, and on a delightful plain, producing immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, silk, and cotton.

GIBRALTAR, a well-known sea-port, on the mouth of the Streights. See our article MEDITERRANEAN, for its consequence to Great-Britain, as being now in her possession.

BAEZA, situate about three miles from the Guadalquivir; it is remarkable for the dyeing of very fine scarlet cloth, and making of rich taffeties.

SAN LUCAR DE BARAMEDA, about 45 miles below Seville, and serves as a port to that famed city; it was much more considerable than at present, before the Spanish West-India fleets were allowed to set out from, and return to, Cadiz.

PORT ST MARY is seated on a plain, at the mouth of the Guadaletta river, and is much frequented, on account of its commodiousness.

CARMENA stands in the center of Andalusia, and has very fertile and spacious plains, which produce great plenty of all things.

LUCENA is as delightfully situated as most cities in Europe, few spots of ground producing greater plenty of delicious wine, oil, and choice provisions, than this territory does.

MOGUER, seated on the banks of the river Azige, or Tinto. Its river is remarkable for its colour, or dye, it being impregnated with some mineral, which not only gives a yellow tinge, but petrifies all the sand it runs over.—It has no other good quality, except that of curing worms in cattle.

There are in this province several towns of some note, though under the degree of cities; but as they are not remarkable for any considerable traffic, we shall pass them over in silence.

The kingdom of GRANADA. This kingdom is divided, on the north, from the province of Andalusia, by the mountains of Cazorla, Sierra Morena, Segura, and some others; on the east, another chain of mountains divides it from Murcia; on the south it is contiguous again to Andalusia, without any noted boundaries; and on the west it is bounded and washed by the Mediterranean. The whole length of it, from east to west, is about 210 miles; the greatest breadth exceeds not 72; and the whole circumference somewhat above 500.

This country, besides those immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, fish, &c. which it hath in common with the finest provinces in Spain, we have already taken notice of; here the most craggy mountains are every where covered with vines, fruit-trees in the highest perfection, and what would to some of our readers appear incredible, if not attested by so many undoubted eye-witnesses, here are bunches of grapes, that, like those of the promised land, are obliged to be carried on a pole, between two men; and some of them, we are assured from persons of veracity, have weighed 40 pounds. Sugar is here likewise cultivated in great plenty, and that which grows here exceeds any in Spain for fineness. Silk is likewise manufactured in such quantities, and great variety, as to be sufficient to serve the whole kingdom, besides what is exported.

Those fields, hills, and other places which are reckoned the most barren, are covered with thyme, marjoram, lavender, and other aromatic herbs, which their cattle feed upon, and give their flesh a delicious and exquisite taste; laurel, myrtle, sweet basil, and other odoriferous shrubs, grow likewise here, to such height and abundance, that they make their hedges of them: so that if we consider it either with respect to its surprizing fertility and plenty of all things for food and delight, or to the admirable prospect of its hills and dales, or the fragrancy of its fruits and herbs, no country seems to approach nearer to the idea we may have of an earthly paradise than this. If we add to all these, its excellent maritime situation, number of commodious harbours and ports, and its vast exports and imports, the number and opulence of its cities, we shall easily own, that this little kingdom must have been one of the noblest and finest in all Spain.

MALAGA is an ancient city, and commodious sea-port. There is nothing but conjecture can be offered about its name; yet, considering the commodiousness of its port, its situation, both for inland and foreign commerce, we need not doubt but it was built in some of the earliest times, and, in all likelihood, passed through the hands of those trading nations which occupied successively the Mediterranean coasts, in one of the pleasantest and most convenient parts of which it stands. As the situation of this place is in a fine fertile plain, surrounded with hills, mountains, and grounds, all of them covered with vines, and the greatest variety of fruits, it may be allowed to yield one of the most beautiful prospects, both from land and sea, of any place on these coasts: and how fine their wines, raisins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits are, is well known, from the great quantities of them brought hither from thence, besides the vast quantities that are exported into other parts of Europe. Its distance from Madrid is about 260 miles south, and a little to the west; 75 south-east from Seville; and about the same distance south-west from Granada.

ANTEQUERA is pleasantly seated on the banks of the Rio de la Villa, part of the town standing on a hill, and the rest on the plain.

Near this city is a famed salt-pit, three miles in length, near two in breadth, which supplies the whole territory with salt. About eight or nine miles from it is a spring, that dissolves the stone, and brings it away by urine.

This city stands about 220 leagues south from Madrid, 75 south-east from Seville, 72 south-west from Granada, and about 15 south from the sea.

The kingdom of MURCIA borders on the north upon New Castille; on the west it is parted from Granada and Andalusia, by the mountains of Segura, and some others, which stretch themselves into the sea, and partly by the kingdom of Valentia. Its greatest length, from north-west to south-east, is about 100 miles, and its greatest breadth, from north-east to south-west, about 70. Its latitude is from 37 degrees 30 minutes, to 38 degrees 50 minutes; and longitude 1 degree 40 minutes west.

The climate here is somewhat of the hottest; but the soil, though mountainous, is exceedingly fertile, never failing but through extreme drought, and generally yielding great plenty of wheat, barley, wine, oil, fruits, pasture, and honey, in great abundance: but what makes the chief wealth of it is, the great quantity of silk which is here made and exported, and employs the greatest number of hands.

MURCIA, the metropolis of this kingdom, is situate in a spacious and delightful plain, so very fertile, that it often yields an hundred-fold in corn, besides all other grain, wines, oil, mentioned in the general account of the product of the country. Round about this plain are planted an infinite number of mulberry-trees, with whose leaves they feed as many worms as generally make, every year, 210,000lb. weight of silk.

Murcia is computed to be distant about 200 miles south-east from Madrid, 20 north from Carthagena, and about 90 south-west from Valentia.

CARTHAGENA is seated on the side of a hill, on the Mediterranean coast, on the mouth of the river Guadalantin, and is a commodious, as well as one of the most noted sea-ports in Spain. The harbour is likewise well sheltered from storms, by a small island called Escombrada; it has good plenty of fresh water on the shore, and exports great quantity of wool for Italy. The air is so temperate in summer, and so mild in winter, that the trees are every where covered with leaves, blossoms, and fruit. Besides these productions of the earth on the surface, its bowels yield likewise amethysts, garnets, agates, and other such precious stones.

Its distance from Madrid is about 220 miles south-east, 27 south from Murcia, and 86 east from Granada.

ARTICLES of PEACE, COMMERCE, and ALLIANCE, between the CROWNS of GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN, concluded in a TREATY at MADRID, the $\frac{12}{22}$ day of May, in the year of our Lord God 1667.

I.

First, It is agreed and concluded, That from this day forward there shall be between the two crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, a general, good, sincere, true, firm, and perfect amity, confederation, and peace, which shall endure for ever, and be observed inviolably, as well by land as by sea and fresh waters; and also between the lands, countries, kingdoms, dominions, and territories, belonging unto, or under the obedience of either of them: and that their subjects, people, and inhabitants respectively, of what condition, degree, or quality soever, from henceforth reciprocally shall help, assist, and shew to one another all manner of love, good offices, and friendship.

II.

That neither of the said kings, nor their respective people, subjects, or inhabitants within their dominions, upon any pretence, may, in public or secret, do, or procure to be done, any thing against the other, in any place, by sea or by land, nor in the ports or rivers of the one or the other, but shall treat one another with all love and friendship; and may, by water and by land, freely and securely pass into the confines, countries, lands, kingdoms, islands, dominions, cities, towns, villages, walled, or without wall, fortified, or unfortified, their havens and ports (where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accustomed) and there trade, buy and sell, as well of and to the inhabitants of the respective places, as those of their own nation, or any other nation that shall be or come there.

III.

That the said kings of Great-Britain and Spain shall take care that their respective people and subjects, from henceforward, do abstain from all force, violence, or wrong; and if any injury shall be done by either of the said kings, or by the people or subjects of either of them, to the people or subjects of the other, against the articles of this alliance, or against common right, there shall not therefore be given letters of reprizal, marque, or counter-marque, by any of the confederates, until such time as justice is sought and followed in the ordinary course of law: but if justice be denied or delayed, then the king, whose people or inhabitants have received harm, shall ask it of the other, by whom (as is said) the justice shall have been denied or delayed, or of the commissioners that shall be, by the one king or the other, appointed to receive and hear such demands, to the end that all such differences may be compounded in friendship, or according to law. But if there should yet be a delay, or justice should not be done, nor satisfaction given within six months after having the same so demanded, then may be given letters of reprizal, marque, or counter marque.

IV.

That between the king of Great-Britain and the king of Spain, and their respective people, subjects, and inhabitants, as well upon sea, as upon land and fresh water, in all and every their kingdoms, lands, countries, dominions, confines, territories, provinces, islands, plantations, cities, villages, towns, ports, rivers, creeks, bays, streights and currents, where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accustomed, there shall be free trade and commerce, in such way and manner, that, without safe-conduct, and without general or particular licence, the people and subjects of each other may freely, as well by land, as by sea and fresh water, navigate and go into their said countries, kingdoms, dominions, and all the cities, ports, currents, bays, districts, and other places thereof, and may enter into any port with their ships, laden or empty, carriage, or carriages, wherein to bring their merchandize, and there buy and sell what and how much they please, and also at just and reasonable rates provide themselves with provisions, and other necessary things for their subsistence and voyage; and also may repair their ships and carriages, and from thence again freely depart with their ships, carriages, goods, merchandize, and estate, and return to their own countries, or to such other place as they shall think fit, without any molestation or impediment, so that they pay the duties and customs which shall be due, and saving to either side the laws and ordinances of their country.

V.

Item, It is likewise agreed, That for the merchandizes which the subjects of the king of Great-Britain shall buy in Spain, or other the kingdoms or dominions of the king of Spain, and shall carry in their own ships, or in ships hired or lent unto them, no new customs, toll, tenths, subsidies, or other rights or duties whatsoever, shall be taken or increased, other than those which, in the like case, the natives themselves, and all other strangers, are obliged to pay; and the subjects aforesaid buying, selling, and contracting for their merchandizes, as well in respect of the prices, as of all the duties to be paid, shall enjoy the same privileges which are allowed to the natural subjects of Spain, and may buy, and lade their ships with such goods, and merchandizes; which said ships being laden, and customs paid for the goods, shall not be detained in port, upon any pretence whatsoever; nor shall the laders, merchants, or factors, who bought and loaded the goods aforesaid, be questioned, after the departure of the said ships, for any matter or thing whatsoever concerning the same.

VI.

And to the end that the officers and ministers of all cities, towns, and villages belonging to either, may neither demand, nor take from the respective merchants and people, greater taxes, duties, stipends, recompences, gifts, or any other charges, than what ought to be taken by virtue of this treaty; and that the said merchants and people may know and understand with certainty what is ordained in all things touching this, it is agreed and concluded, That tables and lists shall be put up at the doors of the custom-houses and register of all the cities, villages, and towns of, or appertaining to, one or the other king, where such rights, and excises or customs, are usually paid; in which, how much, and of what quality, such rights, customs, subsidies, and payments either to the king's, or any of the aforesaid officers, are allowed, shall be put down in writing, declaring as well the species of what is imported, as what is carried out. And if any officer, or any other in his name, upon any pretence whatsoever, in public or secret, directly or indirectly, shall ask or receive of any merchant, or other person respectively, any sum of money, or other thing, by the name of right, due, stipend, allowance, or recompence (though it be by the way of voluntary donative) more or otherwise than aforesaid, the said officer or his deputy being in such manner guilty and convict before a competent judge in the country where the crime is committed, shall be put in prison for three months, and shall pay thrice the value of the thing so received; of which the half shall be for the king of the country where the crime is committed, and the other half for the denunciator, for the which he may sue his right before any competent judge of the country where it shall happen.

VII.

That it shall be lawful for the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, to bring out, and carry into Spain, and all or any lands and dominions of the king of Spain (where heretofore they have used trade and commerce) and trade there with all kind of merchandize, clothes, manufactures, and things of the kingdom of Great-Britain, and the manufactures, goods, fruits, and kinds of the islands, towns, and plantations to him appertaining, and what shall have been bought by English factors on this side, or farther on the other side of the cape of Buena Esperança, without being inforced to declare to whom, or for what price they sell their said merchandize and provisions, or being molested for the errors of the masters of ships, or others, in the entry of the goods; and at their pleasure to return again out of the dominions of the king of Spain, with all or any goods, estates, and merchandize, to any of the territories, islands, dominions, and countries of the king of England, or to any other place, paying the rights and tributes mentioned in the antecedent chapters; and the rest of all their lading which is not brought to land they may detain, keep, and carry away in their said ship or ships, vessel or vessels, again, without paying any right or imposition whatsoever for it, as if therewith they had never been within any bay or port of the Catholic king. And all the goods, estates, merchandize, ships, or other vessels, with any things introduced into the dominions or places of the crown of Great-Britain as prizes, and judged for such in the said dominions and places, shall be taken for goods and merchandize of Great-Britain, comprehended so by the intention of this article.

VIII.

That the subjects and vassals of the most serene king of Great-Britain, may bring and carry to all and singular the dominions of the king of Spain, any fruits and commodities of the East-Indies, it appearing by testimony of the deputies of the East-India company in London, that they are of, or have come from, the English conquests, plantations, or factories, with like privilege, and according to what is allowed to the subjects of the United Provinces by the royal cedulas of Contravando, bearing date the 27th of June, and the 3d of July 1663, and published on the 30th of June, and 4th of July the same year. And for what may concern both the Indies, and any other parts whatsoever, the crown of Spain doth grant to the king of Great-Britain and his subjects, all that is granted to the United States of the Low Countries and their subjects, in their treaty of Munster 1648, point for point, in as full and ample manner as if the same were herein particularly inserted, the same rules being to be observed, whereunto the subjects of the said United States are obliged, and mutual offices of friendship to be performed from one side to the other.

IX.

That the subjects of the king of Great Britain, trading, buying, and selling, in any of the kingdoms, governments, islands, ports, or territories of the said king of Spain, shall have, use, and enjoy, all the privileges and immunities, which

the ſaid king hath granted and confirmed to the Engliſh merchants that reſide in Andaluſia, by his royal cedulas or orders, dated the 19th day of March, the 26th day of June, and the 9th day of November 1645, his Catholic Majeſty by theſe preſents re-confirming the ſame, as a part of this treaty between the two crowns. And to the end that it may be manifeſt to all, it is conſented, That the ſaid cedulas (as to the whole ſubſtance thereof) be paſſed and transferred to the body of the preſent articles, in the name and favour of all and ſingular the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, reſiding and trading in any places whatſoever within his Catholic Majeſty's dominions.

X.

That the ſhips, or any other veſſels that ſhall belong to the king of Great-Britain or his ſubjects, navigating into the king of Spain's dominions or any of his ports, ſhall not be viſited by the judges of contraband, or by any other officer or perſon, by his own, or by any other authority; nor ſhall any ſoldiers, armed men, or other officers or perſons, be put on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels; nor ſhall the officers of the cuſtom-houſe of the one or the other party, ſearch in any veſſels or ſhips belonging to the people of the one or the other, which ſhall enter into their regions, dominions, or reſpective ports, until their ſaid ſhips or veſſels are unladen, or until they have carried on ſhore all the lading and merchandize which they declare they reſolve to diſembark in the ſaid port; nor ſhall the captain, maſter, or any other of the company of the ſaid ſhips be impriſoned, or they or their boats detained on ſhore; but in the interim, officers of the cuſtom-houſe may be put on board the ſaid veſſels or ſhips, ſo they exceed not the number of three for each ſhip, to ſee that no goods or merchandize be landed out of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, without paying ſuch duties as by theſe articles either party is obliged to pay; which ſaid officers are to be without any charge to the ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, their commanders, mariners, company, merchants, factors, or proprietors. And when it happens that the maſter or owner of any ſhip ſhall declare, that the whole lading of his ſaid ſhip is to be diſcharged in any port, the entry of the ſaid lading ſhall be made in the cuſtom-houſe after the uſual manner; and if, after the entry made, any other goods be found in the ſaid ſhip or ſhips, more than what are contained in the ſaid entry, eight working days ſhall be allowed them on which they may work (which ſhall be reckoned from the day they began to unlade) to the end, that the concealed goods may be entered, and the confiſcation of them prevented. And in caſe that in the time limited, the entry or manifeſtation of them ſhall not have been made, then ſuch particular goods only, which ſhall be found as aforeſaid, though the unlading be not finiſhed, ſhall be confiſcated, and not any other; nor ſhall other trouble be given, or puniſhment inflicted on the merchant or owner of the ſhip; and when the ſhips or veſſels are reladen, they may have freedom to go out again.

XI.

That the ſhip or ſhips appertaining to the one or the other king, or to their reſpective people and ſubjects, that ſhall enter into any ports, lands or dominions, of the one or the other, and ſhall diſcharge any part of their goods and merchandizes in any port or haven, being conſigned with the reſt to other places, within or without the ſaid dominions, ſhall not be obliged to regiſter or pay the rights of any other goods or merchandize, than of that which they ſhall unlade in the ſaid port or haven, nor be conſtrained to give bond for the goods they ſhall carry to other places, nor any other ſecurity, if it be not in caſe of felony, debt, treaſon, or other capital crime.

XII.

Whereas the one moiety of the cuſtom of all foreign goods and merchandize imported into England, is allowed and returned back to the importer, if the ſaid goods be exported out of the ſaid kingdom within twelve months after their firſt landing, upon oath made that they are the ſame goods which paid cuſtom inwards, and that if they be not re-ſhipped within the ſaid twelve months, yet they may at all times be exported without paying any cuſtom or duty outwards: it is therefore agreed, That if any of the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain ſhall hereafter land any goods or merchandize, of what growth or nature ſoever they be, in any of the ports of his Catholic Majeſty, and having entered them, and paid the cuſtom by which this treaty ought to be paid, and ſhall afterwards deſire to tranſport them, or any part of them, to any other place whatſoever, for a better market, it ſhall and may be lawful for him or them ſo to do freely, without paying or being demanded any other cuſtom or duty at all for the ſame, he or they making oath, if required thereunto, that they are the ſame goods for which cuſtom was paid at their landing; and in caſe that the ſubjects, people, and inhabitants of the dominions of either part ſhall unlade, or have in any city, town, or village reſpectively, any goods, merchandizes, fruits or eſtates, and have paid the cuſtoms due, according to what hath been declared, and after that, not being able to put them off, ſhall reſolve to remit them to ſome other city, town or village of the ſaid dominions, they may not only do it without difficulty or impediment, and without paying other rights than what were due at their entry, but likewiſe the cuſtom or rights ſhall not be paid again in any other part of the ſaid dominions, bringing certificates from the officers of the cuſtom-houſe, that they were paid before in the due form. And the chief farmers and commiſſioners of the king of Spain's rents in all places, or ſome other officer or officers to be appointed for that purpoſe, ſhall at all times permit and ſuffer the tranſportation of all ſuch goods and merchandizes from place to place, and give ſufficient certificate to the owners thereof, or their aſſignees, of their having paid their cuſtom at their firſt landing, whereby they may be carried to, and landed at, any other port or place of the ſaid juriſdiction, free from all duties or impediments whatſoever, as aforeſaid, ſaving alway the right of any third perſon.

XIII.

That it ſhall be lawful for the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the one or other king, to anchor in the roads or bays of either, without being conſtrained to enter into port; and in caſe they be neceſſitated to enter thereinto, either by diſtreſs of weather, fear of enemies, pirates, or any other accident, in caſe the ſaid ſhips be not bound to an enemy's port, and carrying thither contraband goods (whereof without ſome clear proof they ſhall not be queſtioned) it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid ſubjects to return to ſea freely when they pleaſe, with their ſhips and goods, ſo that they do not break bulk, or expoſe any thing to ſale; and that when they caſt anchor, or enter the ports aforeſaid, they be not moleſted or viſited; and it ſhall ſuffice, that in caſe they ſhew their paſſports or ſea-papers, which being ſeen by the reſpective officers of either king, the ſaid ſhips ſhall return freely to ſea without any moleſtation.

XIV.

And if any ſhip or ſhips belonging to the ſubjects and merchants of the one or the other, entering into bays, or in the open ſea, ſhall be encountered by the ſhips of the ſaid kings, or of privateers their ſubjects: the ſaid ſhips, to prevent all diſorders, ſhall not come within cannon-ſhot, but ſhall ſend their long-boat or pinnace to the merchant-ſhip, and only two or three men on board, to whom the maſter or owner ſhall ſhew his paſſports and ſea-letters, whereby not only the ſhip's lading, but the place to which ſhe belongs, and as well the maſter and owner's name, as the name of the ſhip may appear; by which means the quality of the ſhip, and her maſter or owner will be ſufficiently known, as alſo the commodities ſhe carries, whether they be contraband or not; to the which paſſports and ſea-letters, entire faith and credit ſhall be given, ſo much the rather, for that as well on the part of the king of England, as of the king of Spain, ſome counter-ſigns ſhall be given (if it ſhall be found neceſſary) whereby their authenticalneſs may the better appear, and that they may not be in any wiſe falſified.

XV.

If any prohibited merchandize or goods ſhall be exported from the kingdoms, dominions, and territories of either of the ſaid kings, by the reſpective people or ſubjects of the one or the other, in ſuch caſe the prohibited goods ſhall be only confiſcated, and not the other goods; neither ſhall the delinquent incur any other puniſhment, except the ſaid delinquent ſhall carry out from the reſpective kingdoms or dominions of the king of Great Britain, the proper coin, wool, or fuller's earth of the ſaid kingdom, or ſhall carry out of the reſpective kingdoms or dominions of the ſaid king of Spain, any gold or ſilver, wrought or unwrought; in either of which caſes the laws of the reſpective countries are to take place.

XVI.

That it ſhall be lawful for the people and ſubjects of both kings, to have acceſs to the reſpective ports of the one and the other, and there remain, and depart again with the ſame freedom, not only with their ſhips and other veſſels for trade and commerce, but alſo with their other ſhips fitted for war, armed, and diſpoſed to reſiſt and engage the enemy, and arriving by ſtreſs of weather to repair their ſhips, or furniſh themſelves with proviſions; ſo that entering willingly, they be not ſo numerous, that they give juſt occaſion of ſuſpicion, to which end they are not to exceed the number of eight, nor continue in their havens, nor about their ports, longer time than they ſhall have juſt cauſe, for the repair of their ſhips, to take in proviſions or other neceſſary things, much leſs be the occaſion of interrupting the free commerce, and coming in of other ſhips, of nations in amity with either king; and when an unuſual number of men of war, by accident ſhall come unto any port, it ſhall not be lawful for them to come into the ſaid ports or havens, not having firſt obtained permiſſion of the king unto whom the ſaid ports do belong, or the governors of the ſaid ports, if they be not forced thereinto by ſtreſs of weather or other neceſſity, to avoid the danger of the ſea, and in ſuch caſe they ſhall preſently acquaint the governor or chief magiſtrate of the place with the cauſe of their coming; nor ſhall they remain there any longer time than the ſaid governor or magiſtrate ſhall think convenient, or do any act of hoſtility in ſuch ports, that may prove of prejudice to the one or the other of the ſaid kings.

XVII.

XVII.

That neither the ſaid king of Great-Britain, nor the king of Spain, by any mandate, general nor particular, nor for any cauſe whatſoever, ſhall embark or detain, hinder or take for his reſpective ſervice, any merchant, maſter of a ſhip, pilot or mariner, their ſhips, merchandize, clothes or other goods belonging unto the one or the other, in their ports or waters, if it be not that either of the ſaid kings, or the perſons to whom the ſhips belong, be firſt advertiſed thereof, and do agree thereunto; provided that this ſhall not be conſtrued to hinder or interrupt the ordinary courſe of juſtice and law in either country.

XVIII.

That the merchants and ſubjects of the one and the other king, their factors and ſervants, as alſo their ſhips, maſters and mariners, may as well going as coming, upon ſea and other waters, as in the havens and ports of the one and the other reſpectively, carry and uſe all kind of arms, defenſive and offenſive, without being obliged to regiſter them, as alſo upon land to carry and uſe them for their defence, according to the cuſtom of the place.

XIX.

That the captains, officers, and mariners, of the ſhips belonging to the people and ſubjects of either party, may not commence an action, nor hinder or bring trouble upon their own ſhips, their captains, officers, or mariners, in the reſpective kingdoms, dominions, lands, countries, or places of the other, for their wages or ſalaries, or under any other pretence. Nor may they put themſelves, or be received, by what pretext or colour ſoever, into the ſervice or protection of the king of England, or king of Spain, or their arms; but if any controverſy happen between merchants and maſters of ſhips, or between maſters and mariners, the compoſing thereof ſhall be left to the conſul of the nation, but after ſuch manner, as he who ſhall not ſubmit to the arbitrament, may appeal to the ordinary juſtice of the place where he is ſubject.

XX.

And to the end that all impediments be taken away, and that the merchants and adventurers of the kingdoms of Great-Britain be permitted to return to Brabant, Flanders, and other the provinces of the Low Countries, under the juriſdiction of the king of Spain: foraſmuch as it hath been thought convenient, that all, and any the laws, edicts and acts, by which the importation of cloth, or any other woollen manufacture, of what kind ſoever, dyed or undyed, milled or unmilled, into Flanders, or the other provinces, hath been prohibited, be revoked and diſannulled; and that if any right, tribute, impoſition, charge, or money, hath been, with permiſſion, or otherwiſe, put upon clothes, or any of the foreſaid woollen manufactures ſo imported (except the ancient tribute upon every piece of cloth, and proportionably upon every other woollen manufacture, agreeable to the antient treaties and agreements between the then kings of England, and the dukes of Burgundy, and governors of the Low Countries) the ſame ſhould be altogether void, and no ſuch tribute or impoſition from henceforth impoſed, or put upon the ſaid clothes or manufactures, for no cauſe or pretext whatſoever: and that all the Engliſh merchants, trading in any of the ſaid provinces, their factors, ſervants, or commiſſioners, ſhould enjoy from henceforward, all the privileges, exemptions, immunities, and benefits, which formerly have been agreed and given by the aforeſaid ancient treaties and agreements, between the then kings of England, and the dukes of Burgundy, and governors of the Low Countries: it is therefore agreed, That deputies ſhall be named by the king of Great-Britain, who meeting with the marquis of Caſtelrodrigo, or the governor of thoſe provinces for the time being, or any other miniſters of the king of Spain, ſufficiently authorized in this behalf, ſhall friendly treat and conclude hereupon; and alſo ſuch further privileges, immunities, and neceſſary exemptions, ſuitable to the preſent ſtate of affairs, ſhall be granted for the encouragement of the ſaid merchants and adventurers, and for the ſecurity of their trade and commerce, as ſhall be agreed upon in a ſpecial treaty, that ſhall be made between both the kings, touching this particular.

XXI.

The ſubjects and inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of the moſt ſerene kings of Great-Britain and Spain reſpectively, ſhall, with all ſecurity and liberty, ſail to and traffic, in all the kingdoms, eſtates, or countries, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the one or the other.

XXII.

And they ſhall not be diſturbed or diſquieted in that liberty, by the ſhips or ſubjects of the ſaid kings reſpectively, by reaſon of the hoſtilities which are or may be hereafter between either of the ſaid kings, and the aforeſaid kingdoms, countries, and ſtates, or any of them, which ſhall be in friendſhip or neutrality with the other.

XXIII.

And in caſe, that within the ſaid ſhips reſpectively, be found, by the aboveſaid means, any merchandize hereunder mentioned, being of contraband and prohibited, they ſhall be taken out and confiſcated, before the admiralty, or other competent judges; but for this reaſon the ſhip, and the other free and allowed commodities which ſhall be found therein, ſhall in no wiſe be either ſeized or confiſcated.

XXIV.

Moreover, for better prevention of the differences which might ariſe touching the meaning of forbidden merchandize, and of contraband, it is declared and agreed, That under this name ſhall be comprehended all fire-arms, as ordnance, muſkets, mortar-pieces, petards, bombs, granadoes, fire-crancels, fire-balls, muſket-reſts, bandeliers, gunpowder, match, ſaltpetre, and bullets; likewiſe, under the name of forbidden merchandize, are underſtood all other arms, as pikes, ſwords, pots, helmets, backs, and breaſts, halberds, javelins, and ſuch armour; under this name is likewiſe forbidden the tranſportation of ſoldiers, horſes, their harneſſes, caſes of piſtols, holſters, belts, and other furniture, formed and compoſed for the uſe of war.

XXV.

Likewiſe to prevent all manner of diſpute and contention, it is agreed, That under that name of forbidden merchandize, and of contraband, ſhall not be comprehended wheat, rye, barley, or other grains or pulſe, ſalt, wine, oil, and generally whatſoever belongs to the ſuſtaining and nouriſhing of life; but they ſhall remain free, and likewiſe all other merchandizes not comprehended in the preceding article; and the tranſportation of them ſhall be free and permitted, although it be to the towns and places of enemies, unleſs ſuch towns and places be beſieged, blocked up, or ſurrounded.

XXVI.

It is alſo agreed, That whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects or inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of either of the ſaid kings of England and Spain, aboard the ſhips of the enemies of the other, though it be not forbidden merchandize, ſhall be confiſcated, with all things elſe which ſhall be found within the ſaid ſhips, without exception or reſerve.

XXVII.

That the conſul which hereafter ſhall reſide in any of the dominions of the king of Spain, for the help and protection of the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, ſhall be named by the king of Great-Britain, and he ſo named, ſhall have and exerciſe the ſame power and authority in the execution of his charge, as any other conſul hath formerly had in the dominions of the ſaid king of Spain; and in like manner the Spaniſh conſul reſiding in England, ſhall enjoy as much authority as the conſuls of any other nation have hitherto enjoyed in that kingdom.

XXVIII.

And that the laws of commerce that are obtained by peace may not remain unfruitful, as would fall out if the ſubjects of Great-Britain, when they go to, come from, or remain in the dominions or lordſhips of the king of Spain, by reaſon of their commerce or other buſineſs, ſhould be moleſted for caſe of conſcience; therefore, that the commerce be ſecure and without danger, as well upon land as at ſea, the ſaid king of Spain ſhall provide, that the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great-Britain ſhall not be aggrieved contrary to the laws of commerce, and that none of them ſhall be moleſted or diſturbed for their conſcience, ſo long as they give no public ſcandal or offence; and the ſaid king of Great-Britain ſhall likewiſe provide, for the ſame reaſons, that the ſubjects of the king of Spain ſhall not be moleſted or diſturbed for their conſcience, againſt the laws of commerce, ſo long as they give no public ſcandal or offence.

XXIX.

That the people and ſubjects reſpectively of one kingdom, in the dominions, territories, regions, or colonies of the other, ſhall not be compelled to ſell their merchandize for braſs-metal coin, or exchange them for other coin or things, againſt their will; or having ſold them, to receive the payment in other ſpecies than what they bargained for, notwithſtanding any law or other cuſtom contrary to this article.

XXX.

That the merchants of both nations, and their factors, ſervants, and families, commiſſioners, or others by them employed; as alſo maſters of ſhips, pilots and mariners, may remain freely and ſecurely in the ſaid dominions, kingdoms, and territories of either of the ſaid kings, and alſo in their ports and rivers; and the people and ſubjects of the one king, may have, and with all freedom and ſecurity enjoy, in all the lands and dominions whatſoever of the other, their proper houſes to live in, their warehouſes and magazines for their goods and merchandize, which they ſhall poſſeſs during the time for which they ſhall have taken, hired, and agreed for them, without any impediment.

XXXI.

The inhabitants and ſubjects of the ſaid confederate kings, in all the lands and places under the obedience of the one or the other, ſhall uſe and employ thoſe advocates, proctors, ſcriveners, agents, and ſollicitors, whom they think fit, the which ſhall be left to their choice, and conſented to by the ordinary judges, as often as there ſhall be occaſion; and they ſhall not be conſtrained to ſhew their books and papers of account

account to any perſon, if it be not to give evidence for the avoiding law-ſuits and controverſies; neither ſhall they be embarked, detained, or taken out of their hands, upon any pretence whatſoever. And it ſhall be permitted to the people and ſubjects of either king, in the reſpective places where they ſhall reſide, to keep their books of account, traffic, and correſpondence, in what language they pleaſe, in Engliſh, Spaniſh, Dutch, or any other, the which ſhall not be moleſted, or ſubject to any inquiſition. And whatſoever elſe hath been granted by either party concerning this particular, to any other nation, ſhall be underſtood likewiſe to be granted here.

XXXII.

That in caſe the eſtate of any perſon or perſons ſhall be ſequeſtered or ſeized on by any court of juſtice or tribunal whatſoever, within the kingdoms and dominions of either party, and any eſtate or debt happen to lie in the hands of the delinquents belonging bonâ fide to the people and ſubjects of the other, the ſaid eſtate or debts ſhall not be confiſcated by any of the ſaid tribunals, but ſhall be reſtored to the true owners in ſpecie, if they yet remain, and if not, the value of them (according to the contract and agreement which was made between the parties) ſhall be reſtored within three months after the ſaid ſequeſtration.

XXXIII.

That the goods and eſtates of the people and ſubjects of the one king, that ſhall die in the countries, lands, and dominions of the other, ſhall be preſerved for the lawful heirs and ſucceſſors of the deceaſed, the right of any third perſon always reſerved.

XXXIV.

That the goods and eſtates of the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, that ſhall die without making a will in the dominions of the king of Spain, ſhall be put into inventory, with their papers, writings, and books of account, by the conſul or other public miniſter of the king of Great-Britain, and depoſited in the hands of two or three merchants that ſhall be named by the ſaid conſul, or public miniſter, to be kept for the proprietors and creditors; and neither the cruzada, nor any other judicatory whatſoever, ſhall intermeddle therein; which alſo in the like caſe ſhall be obſerved in England, towards the ſubjects of the king of Spain.

XXXV.

That a decent and convenient burial-place ſhall be granted and appointed to bury the bodies of the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, who ſhall die within the dominions of the king of Spain.

XXXVI.

If it ſhall happen hereafter that any difference fall out (which God forbid) between the king of Great-Britain and the king of Spain, whereby the mutual commerce and good correſpondence may be endangered, the reſpective ſubjects and people of each party ſhall have notice thereof given them in time, that is to ſay, the ſpace of ſix months, to tranſport their merchandize and effects, without giving them in that time any moleſtation or trouble, or retaining or embarking their goods or perſons.

XXXVII.

All goods and rights concealed or embarked, moveables, immoveables, rents, deeds, debts, credits, and the like, which have not with a formal notice of the cauſe, and by a legal condemnation, according to the ordinary juſtice, been brought into the royal exchequer at the time of concluding this treaty, ſhall remain at the full and free diſpoſal of the proprietors, their heirs, or of thoſe who ſhall have their right, with all the fruits, rents, and emoluments thereof; and neither thoſe who have concealed the ſaid goods, nor their heirs, ſhall be moleſted for this cauſe by the exchequers reſpectively; but the proprietors, their heirs, or thoſe who ſhall have their right, ſhall have for the ſaid goods and rights their action at law, as for their own proper goods and eſtate.

XXXVIII.

It is agreed and concluded, that the people and ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, and of the king of Spain, ſhall have and enjoy in the reſpective lands, ſeas, ports, havens, roads, and territories of the one or the other, and in all places whatſoever, the ſame privileges, ſecurities, liberties, and immunities, whether they concern their perſons or trade, with all the beneficial clauſes and circumſtances which have been granted, or ſhall be hereafter granted by either of the ſaid kings, to the moſt Chriſtian king, the States General of the United Provinces, the Hanſe-Towns, or any other kingdom or ſtate whatſoever, in as full, ample, and beneficial manner, as if the ſame were patticularly mentioned and inſerted in this treaty.

XXXIX.

In caſe any difference or diſpute ſhall happen on either ſide concerning theſe articles of trade and commerce, by either the officers of the admiralty or other perſon whatſoever, in the one or the other kingdom; the complaint being preſented by the party concerned to their majeſties, or to any of their council, their ſaid Majeſties ſhall cauſe the damages forthwith to be repaired, and all things, as they are above agreed, to be duly executed; and in caſe, that in progreſs of time any frauds or inconveniencies be diſcovered in the navigation and commerce between both kingdoms, againſt which ſufficient prevention hath not been made in theſe articles, other proviſions may be hereafter mutually agreed on, as ſhall be judged convenient, the preſent treaty remaining ſtill in full force and vigour.

XL.

It is likewiſe accorded and concluded, that the moſt ſerene and renowned kings of Great-Britain and Spain, ſhall ſincerely and faithfully obſerve and keep, and procure to be obſerved and kept, by their ſubjects and inhabitants reſpectively, all and ſingular the capitulations in this preſent treaty agreed and concluded: neither ſhall they directly or indirectly infringe the ſame, or conſent that the ſame ſhall be infringed by any of their ſubjects or inhabitants. And they ſhall ratify and confirm all and ſingular the conventions before accorded by letters patent reciprocally, in ſufficient, full, and effectual form, and the ſame ſo formed and made, ſhall interchangeably deliver, or cauſe to be delivered faithfully and really, within four months after the date of theſe preſents; and they ſhall then, as ſoon as conveniently may be, cauſe this preſent treaty of peace and amity to be publiſhed in all places, and in the manner accuſtomed.

Dated at Madrid, the $\frac{12}{22}$ day of May, in the year of our Lord, 1667.

The form of letters which ought to be given by the towns and ſea-ports, to the ſhips and veſſels ſetting ſail from thence.

To all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, We the governor, conſuls, or chief magiſtrate or commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, of the city, town, or province of N. do teſtify and make known, That N. N. maſter of the ſhip N. hath before us, under ſolemn oath declared, That the ſhip N. of tun (more or leſs) of which he is at preſent maſter, doth belong to the inhabitants of N. in the dominions of the moſt ſerene king of Great-Britain. And we, deſiring that the ſaid maſter may be aſſiſted in his voyage and buſineſs, do intreat all perſons in general and particular, who ſhall meet him, and thoſe of all places where the ſaid maſter ſhall come with the ſaid ſhip and her merchandize, that they would admit him favourably, treat him kindly, and receive the ſaid ſhip into their ports, bays, havens, rivers, and dominions, permitting her quietly to ſail, paſs, frequent, and negociate there, or in any other places, as ſhall ſeem good to the ſaid maſter, paying ſtill the toll and cuſtoms which of right ſhall be due, which we will acknowledge gratefully upon the like occaſions. In witneſs whereof, we have ſigned theſe preſents, and ſealed them with the ſeal of our town.

Don PEDRO FERNANDEZ, del campo y Angulo.

WILL. GODOLPHIN.

REMARKS.

The foregoing treaty of 1667, was ſigned May 23, and the next day Sir W. Godolphin, who was ſecretary to our embaſſy, and who was the chief contriver of that treaty, wrote thus to lord Arlington: 'The treaty of commerce, I dare promiſe your lordſhip, comprehends not only all the privileges 'and advantages which this crown hath ever granted to any 'other ſtate or people, but likewiſe ſome conveniencies 'which it hath never yet permitted to any other; for the 'better ſecurity and perfection whereof, I have diligently 'peruſed all the treaties theſe people have made with others, 'and all the royal cedulas they have granted in favour of any 'particular factories: and have not received from our factories any grievance or propoſition of advantage in their commerce to be either remedied or procured for them, which 'we think is not ſufficiently provided for in this treaty.'

And in another letter to his brother, May 25, he ſays, 'I 'will only ſay to you in general of the treaty of commerce, 'That beſides all the freedoms and advantages of trade, 'which this crown hath granted to any other ſtate, we have 'thereby ſeveral conceſſions and conveniences, whereof we 'find no example in their articles with any other. And I 'think they have not made any other theſe hundred years, 'which I have not learned as my leſſon, in order to the 'treating and perfection of this.'

Sir William Godolphin might ſay this, and the world will believe him, ſince after that treaty we paid no more than the moderate duties above mentioned; and ſince the privilege of a judge-conſervator, without which we cannot trade with any ſecurity in that country, and which was only granted before by royal cedulas to our merchants, and might have been revoked by the king, was confirmed to us by that treaty.

This treaty, and that of 1670, [ſee SPANISH AMERICA] being the principal foundation of all ſubſequent treaties that have been made between Great-Britain and Spain, we have judged it eligible to take due notice thereof.

In order to judge the more circumſtantially of the commerce of Spain, and of the political regulations of that kingdom for exerciſing the ſame, and the benefits and advantages to which Great-Britain is entitled, and alſo the preſent turn, views, and ſpirit of the Spaniſh court, in regard to the advancement of their commerce and navigation: ſee the articles ALMOXARISFARGO, ANDALUSIA, BISCAY, CASTILLE,

TILLE, CATALONIA, CORSICA, FACTORS, FISCAL, GRATIA's, MEDITERRANEAN. — See alſo the article SPANISH AMERICA, and the other articles referred to from thence.

Of the FOREIGN EXCHANGES of SPAIN, particularly between MADRID and other principal trading cities of EUROPE.

Many errors have been committed by authors, in relation to the monies of Spain. La Banque renduë facile, upon this ſubject, ſays, in treating of the monies of Spain, that there is 25 per cent. difference between the PLATE MONEY there and the VELLON: but if his commerce had led him to a correſpondence either at Madrid or Cadiz, he would have been acquainted with the two augmentations that Philip V. made there, and that a rial vellon is worth there 8 ½ quarts copper money, ſo that the rial of old plate of exchange money, is worth 16 vellon, and the effective rial of new plate 17; which makes a difference between theſe two ſpecies of rials, as 32 is to 17; that is to ſay, 53 ⅛ per cent. for 100 rials vellon, are worth only 53 ⅛ rials of old plate: as this is the true ſtate of the caſe, it follows, that La Banque renduë facile is miſtaken.

By the word plate is meant ſilver money, whereby muſt be underſtood the money in which ſome merchants keep their accounts; and it is to that is given the name of old plate, which only is uſed for the negociation of the exchanges with foreign places: it is imaginary, as the exchange crown of France, or the livres, ſols, and deniers Tournois, or as the pound ſterling of England; but as it is requiſite in trade to underſtand the reduction of one ſort of money into the other, we ſhall give the inſtruction proper for that purpoſe.

Uſance is reckoned at Madrid, for bills of exchange, of France, Amſterdam, and all Holland, London, Hamburgh, Leghorn, Genoa, Venice, and almoſt of all the trading cities of Europe, 60 days, excluſive of the date; after the expiration of which time there are allowed 14 days grace: Cadiz allows but 6 to bills drawn out of the kingdom of Spain; but to inland bills, there are 14 days grace allowed; after which bills are proteſted for non-payment.

The foreign bankers or remitters at Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. keep their commercial accounts in rials and marvedees old plate.

The ſhopkeepers of Madrid, the cuſtomhouſes, and the tenants of the kingdom, keep their accounts in rials and marvedees vellon, which are called in France billon.

The merchants of Valentia in Spain, keep theirs in piaſtres, ſols, and deniers, which are divided into 20 and 12, as our pound ſterling is into ſhillings and pence.

The piſtole, or doublon of exchange, is 4 piaſtres, or 32 rials exchange.

The piaſtre, or peſo of exchange, is 8 rials exchange, or old plate.

The rial is 34 marvedees, or 16 quarts.

The ducat, or ducado current, is 11 rials, old plate, or 374 marvedees.

The ducat of exchange is 20 ſols d'or, or, for facility of computation, 375 marvedees, or 11 rials 1 marvedee old plate.

The ſol d'or is 12 deniers d'or.

The ſaid piaſtre of exchange, is alſo reckoned at 15 rials vellon and 2 marvedees, or 128 quarts. And,

The rial vellon 34 marvedees vellon, or 8 ½ quarts, effective copper money, in which a bill of exchange is paid at Madrid, if the foreign drawer, or any other does not take care to ſtipulate the payment to be made either in gold or ſilver, whereby there will enſue a loſs to the bearer of the bill of about 1 ½ per cent.

The piſtole of gold, worth 40 rials of 16 quarts, is in France of the ſtandard of 22 carrats, and weighs there 126 grains.

The piaſtre with two globes, worth 170 quarts, is in France of the ſtandard of 10 deniers 19 ½ grains, and weighs there 507 grains.

The METHOD

Of reducing rials vellon, into rials of exchange, or old plate; thoſe into piaſtres of exchange, and thoſe again into rials vellon; piaſtres effective, into rials of exchange, and thoſe into rials vellon; and for underſtanding of the reciprocal values of the ſaid monies between each other.

5005 Rials 16 marvedees vellon, to be multiplied
By 8 ½ quarts, the value of each of thoſe rials.

40040
2502 ½ for the ½.
4 for the 16 marv. 4 marv. vell. making the quart.

42546 ½ Quarts, to be divided by 16 quarts, the value of the rial, or which is more facile take ¼ of ¼ = 1/16, it will give
2659 Rials 5 marved. plate. or exchange: take the ⅛ thereof, and it will give
332 Piaſtres 3 rials, 5 marv. of plate; multiply theſe
By 15 Rials 2 marv. vellon, another value of the piaſtre [of exchange.

1660
332
4980

4980 [Brought over.]
19 : 18 for the 2 marvedees, i. e. for 664 marvedees.
3 : 26 for 2 rials, the ¼ of the multiplicator.
1 : 30 for 1 rial, the ⅛ of that.
0 : 10 for 5 marvedees of plate.

Rials 5005 : 16 marvedees vellon, the ſame as above.

250 Piaſtres effective, 2 rials 12 ½ quarts, alſo effective
At 10 Rials 10 quarts or 5/8, val. of the ſaid piaſt. [or real.

2500
125 for 8 quarts, or ⅛ the ½ of 250.
31 8/32 for ditto, or ⅛ the ¼ of that.
2 4/32 for 2 rials
2 5/32 for 12 ½ quarts } real or effective.

2659 5/32 Rials old plate, the ſame as above, to be multip.
By 16 Quarts, value of the ſaid rial.

15954
2659
2 for 4/32,
½ for 1/32 the ¼ of the 4.

42546 ½ Quarts, as above, to be divided by 8 ½ quarts, the value of the rial of vellon, it gives the 5005 rees, 16 marvedees vellon, as above.

Of the COURSES of EXCHANGE.

MADRID

Upon	Gives		To receive	
Lyons	1 piaſtre exchange,	for	75 ſols Tournois	more or leſs.
Milan	1 ditto	for	100 ſols cur. mon.	more or leſs.
Meſſina	3¼ dit. more or leſs,	for	1 oz. of 30 tarins	more or leſs.
Vienna	190 mar. more or leſs,	for	1 florin of 60 kreutzers.	
Venice	350 ditto, idem,	for	1 ducat of 124 ſoldi ban.	
Geneva	360 ditto, idem,	for	1 crown current money.	

Suppoſe that I am to pay to my correſpondents of the following cities, what I am indebted to them, by remitting to each, according to the courſe of exchange, a bill of exchange, in money of their reſpective countries, I would know what thoſe ſeveral remittances ought to be, according to the following ſums due to my correſpondents, viz.

Courſe of Exchange.

	Rials	Mar	
Of Paris, - - 83 piſtoles	3	:	at 15 liv. 1 ſol the piſtole of 32 rials.
Amſterdam, 7035 rials	——	3	at 97 ¼ d. gros per 1 duc. of 375 mar.
Hamburgh, 7626	——	28	at 93 ¼ gros per idem.
London, - 1387 piaſt.	:	3	at 41 ⅝ d. ſterl. per piaſtre of 8 rees.
Genoa, - 542	5	17	at 133 piaſt. of 8 rees per 100 of 5 lires.
Leghorn, - 425	6	——	at 123 ditto per 100 of 20 ſol d'or.
Rome - 8200 rials	——	——	at 550 marv. per crown d'eſtampe.
Naples, - 6540	——	——	at 300 ditto per ducat of 10 carlins.
Liſbon, - 6647	——	18	at 830 rees per ducat of 375 marv.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon FRANCE.

To reduce 83 piſtoles, 3 rials, 5 marvedees of Spain, into livres, ſols, and deniers Tournois, of France, exchange at 15 livres 1 ſol per piſtole of 32 rials of old plate.

OPERATION.

83 piſtoles, 3 rials, 5 marvedees, to be multiplied
By 15 livres 1 ſol of exchange,

415
83

4 liv.	3 ſol.	0 den.	for 1 ſol,	the 1/20 of 83 piſtoles,
0	18	9	for 2 rials,	the 1/16 of the exchange,
0	—	4	for 1 rial,	the 1/32 of that,
0	1	4	for 5 mar.	the ⅐ of the rial,

1250 liv. 12 ſol. 5 den. for which the draught muſt be made upon Paris.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 83 piſtoles, 3 rials, and 5 marvedees, by the price of exchange, and the product 1250 livres, 12 ſols, 5 deniers, will be the ſum to receive at Paris.—For the proof of which, reduce the 1250 livres, 1 ſol, by 80 liards, or ¼ of ſols, the value of the livre, and divide the two products, 100,051, and 1204, the one by the other, and you will have a quotient of 83 piſtoles, and 119 remaining, to be multiplied by 32 rials, the value of the piſtole; and dividing the ſame by the common diviſor above, it will give 3 rials, and 196 for a remainder, to be multiplied by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial; and dividing again, you will have the 5 marvedees old plate to receive at Spain.

If I had due at Lyons 83 piſtoles, 3 rials, and 5 marvedees, and would reduce them into piaſtres, multiply them by 4 piaſtres, the value of the piſtole, and you will have, as below, 332 piaſtres, 3 rials, 5 marvedees, to be multiplied by 75 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols Tournois, and the product will be 25,012 ſols, 5 deniers, and dividing the ſame by 20, it will produce 1250 livres, 12 ſols, 5 deniers.

EXAMPLE.

83 piſtoles, 3 rials, 5 marv.
4 piaſtres

332 piaſtres, 3 rials, 5 marv.
at 75 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols Tournois of exchange

1660
2324
83 for $\frac{1}{4}$
18.9 for 2 rials the $\frac{1}{4}$
9.4 for 1 rial the $\frac{1}{8}$
1.4 for 5 mar. the $\frac{1}{7}$ of a rial } of exchange

2|0)2501|2 ſol. 5 den.

1250 liv. 12 ſol. 5 den. the ſame as above.

Exchange upon Paris 15 liv. 1 ſol
20
the $\frac{1}{4}$)301 ſols

Exchange upon Lyons 75 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſols.

Of the EXCHANGES of SPAIN upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 7035 rials, 3 marvedees, old plate, i. e. of 16 quarts each, into florins, ſols, and pennings, bank money of Amſterdam, exchange at 97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros per ducat of 375 marvedees, alſo of old plate.

OPERATION.

7035 rials, 3 marv. to be multiplied
By 34 marv.

28140
211053

239193 marv. to be divided by 375, gives
637 ducats, 17 ſols, 2 deniers,
97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, exchange,

4459
5733
159 $\frac{2}{8}$ for $\frac{1}{4}$ of 637 ducats,
48 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 10 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$
24 $\frac{2}{8}$ for 5 ſols, the $\frac{1}{4}$
9 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 2 ſols, the $\frac{1}{10}$ } of the exchange.

$\frac{1}{4}$|0)6203|1(

1550 : 15 ſols, 8 penings, banco, for which ſum the draught muſt be made on Amſterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7035 rials, 3 marvedees, into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial, adding thereto the 3 marvedees, and divide the product by 375 marvedees, the value of the ducat, which gives a quotient of 637 ducats, and a remainder of 318, which being multiplied by 20, and divided as before, gives 17 ſols, with a further remainder of 85, which multiplied by 12, and divided alſo as before, gives 2 deniers.
Multiply theſe 637 ducats, 17 ſols, 2 deniers, by the price of exchange, of 97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, and divide by 40, the deniers in a florin, and the remainder will be 31 deniers, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of which is 15 ſols, or ſtivers, to be received in bank money of Amſterdam; for the proof of which ſee the article HOLLAND, for the exchange on SPAIN.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon HAMBURGH.

To reduce 7646 rials, 28 marvedees old plate of Spain, into marks, ſol, and pennings lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, exchange at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros, per ducat of 375 marvedees of Spain.

OPERATION.

7646 rials, 28 marv.
34 marv.

30612
22938

259992

mul. 375 mar. Exchange 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros
By 32 gros

779976
750 2339928
1125 129996

12000 gros, divifor)24309252(gives 2025 marks, 12 ſols, 4 penings, bank money, for which the draught muſt be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7646 rials, 28 marvedees, into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial, and multiply the product, 259992 marvedees, by the price of exchange, 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros, it will produce 24309252 gros for a dividend.—Multiply alſo the 375 marvedees, the value of a ducat, by 32 gros, the value of a mark lubs, and it will give 12000 gros for a diviſor, and a quotient of 2025 marks lubs, with a remainder of 9252, to be multiplied by 16 ſols, the value of the mark, and dividing by the ſame, it gives 12 ſols lubs, and a further remainder of 4032, to be multiplied by 12 penings, the value of a ſol, and ſtill dividing by the ſame, it gives 4 penings bank money, to receive at Hamburgh; for the proof of which operations, ſee the article HAMBURGH.

Of the EXCHANGES of SPAIN upon ENGLAND.

To reduce 1387 piaſtres (of 128 quarts) 3 rials, 3 marvedees, of Spain, into pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling of England, exchange at 41 $\frac{5}{8}$ pence ſterling per piaſtre.

OPERATION.

1387 piaſtres, 3 rials, 3 marvedees, to be multiplied
By 41 $\frac{5}{8}$ pence ſterling, the exchange price.

1387
5548
693 $\frac{4}{8}$ for the $\frac{1}{2}$
173 $\frac{4}{8}$ for the $\frac{1}{8}$ } of 1387
10 $\frac{3}{8}$ for 2 rials the $\frac{1}{4}$
5 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 1 rial the $\frac{1}{8}$ } of the exchange
$\frac{4}{8}$ for 3 marv.

57750 deniers, to be div. by 12 and 20, give 240l. 12s. 6d. ſterling money, for which the draught muſt be made upon London.
This is ſo eaſy that it needs no inſtruction.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon GENOA.

To reduce 542 piaſtres (of 128 quarts each) 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials of old plate of Spain, into piaſtres of 5 lires, bank money of Genoa, exchange at 133 of the ſaid piaſtres of Spain per 100 of the ſaid piaſtres of Genoa.

OPERATION.

If 133 piaſt. of Sp.=100 of Gen. what are 542 piaſt. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials?
8 100

1064 diviſor. 54200
50 for 4 ri. $\frac{1}{2}$
12.4 for 1 ri. $\frac{3}{8}$
6.2 for $\frac{1}{2}$ ri. $\frac{1}{16}$

54268.6
8

434150, to be divid. by 1064, gives 408 piaſtres, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers d'or in bank, for which the draught muſt be made on Genoa.—And 408 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
5

2040 lires,
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols of bank.—For proof hereof ſee the article GENOA.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 425 piaſtres, 6 rials, old plate of Spain, into piaſtres of 20 ſols d'or of Leghorn, exchange at 129 piaſtres of Spain per 100 of the ſaid piaſtres of Leghorn.

OPERATION.

If 129 piaſt. of Spain give 100 of Leghorn, what will 425 $\frac{3}{4}$?
100

42500
50
25

42575
to be divided by 129, gives 330 piaſtres, 9 deniers d'or, for which the draught muſt be made on Leghorn.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon ROME.

To reduce 8200 rials, of old plate of Spain, into Roman crowns, of 10 Julio's, exchange at 550 marvedees of Spain per crown d'eſtampe of 15 Julio's of Rome.

OPERATION.

OPERATION.

8200 rials of plate
34 marv.

Exch. 550 marv. to be mul. by 10

32800
24600

5500 Julio's

278800 mar.
15 Julio's

1394000
278800

)4182000 Julio's, to be divided by 5500, gives 760 Roman crowns, 3 Julio's, 6 bayocks, for which the draught muſt be made upon Rome.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 8200 rials into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34, the value of a rial; multiply alſo the product, 278880 marvedees, by 15 Julio's, the value of a crown d'eſtampe, and you will have 4182000, for a dividend.—Multiply, ſeparately, the price of exchange, 550 marvedees, by 10 Julio's, the value of the Roman crown, and you will have 5500 for a diviſor; and the one being divided by the other, will give a quotient of 760 Roman crowns, and 20 for a remainder, which multiplied by 10 Julio's, the value of the ſaid crown, and divided as before, it will give 3 Julio's, with a further remainder of 35; which again multiplied by 10 bayocks, the value of the Julio, and divided as before, it produces 6 bayocks, to receive at Rome.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon NAPLES.

To reduce 6540 rials, old plate, or of 16 quarts of Spain, into ducats, carlins, and grains, of the kingdom of Naples, exchange at 300 marvedees of plate per ſaid ducat of 10 carlins.

OPERATION.

6540 rials, to be multiplied
By 34

26160
19620

222360, to be divided by 300, gives 741 ducats, 2 carlins, for which the draught muſt be made on Naples.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon PORTUGAL.

To reduce 6647 rials, 18 marvedees, old plate, into cruſadoes and rees of Portugal, exchange at 830 rees per ducat of 375 marvedees of Spain.

OPERATION.

6647 rials, 18 marv.
34

26588
19941

18

375 marvedees
400 rees

226016

830 rees, exchange,

150000 diviſor.

6780480
1808128

187593280, to be divided by 150000, gives 1250 cruſadoes, 248 rees, for which the draught muſt be made on Liſbon.

In regard to the weights and meaſures of Spain, and their conformity with thoſe of the principal trading cities of Europe, ſee the article ENGLAND, Vol. I.

SPANISH AMERICA. It was in the time of the emperor Charles V, the firſt king of Spain of that name, that, as the hiſtories of that prince obſerve, the greateſt news arrived to him that ever any one monarch received in a day, ſince the creation of the world; namely, the diſcovery and conqueſt not of a kingdom only, or an empire, but of a new world, which abounded with ſuch immenſe treaſure, that all the Chriſtian world before was not equal to.

In confirmation of this ſuprizing news, Ferdinando Cortez, his general, (whom the emperor, as king of Spain, had ordered upon this expedition) ſent him two ſhips loaded with ſilver, gold, pearl, emeralds, &c. to ſuch a prodigious ſum, that the emperor himſelf could hardly give credit to his ears in the report, or to his eyes when he ſaw the maſs of treaſure.

Succeeding ſhips returning one after another, brought incredible quantities of treaſure, as Cortez, the general, being ſupplied with more forces, extended his conqueſts, 'till the kingdom or empire of Peru was added to that of Mexico, with the inexhauſtible mines of Potoſi; after that the kingdom of Chili, rich in gold, as the other in ſilver. This ſucceſs ſo increaſed both the wealth and dominion of the Spaniſh monarchy, that they have ever ſince been lords of America, and of the chiefeſt empire and kingdoms in that great part of the world.

The Spaniards having ſubdued the country, and rooted out the inhabitants, began ſoon to plant colonies, eſtabliſh governments, and ſettle nations in all that part of the world: and though the Engliſh and French have followed their example more north, and both poſſeſs ſome few iſlands beſides, yet their poſſeſſions in America, compared with thoſe of Spain, bear no great proportion to them. As our acquiſitions there were in the northern parts, where the air was cold and inclement, the ſoil over-run with woods, the ſeas frozen, and the people fierce, the Spaniards thought that part of America not worth taking, having ſo great a poſſeſſion before in the more temperate, warm, and fruitful parts.

Upon the ſettlement of the Spaniards in theſe new conqueſts, and experiencing ſtill the increaſing wealth out go even their higheſt expectations, it ſoon put them upon eſtabliſhing laws of commerce, as well as government, in order to preſerve not the poſſeſſion of the country only, for that they did by ſending over a competent military force, but to ſecure the commerce to themſelves at home, and to prevent any other nation from breaking in upon it, and inriching themſelves by it, at their expence.

To this end, the firſt regulation as a law of property (and which all other nations trading to America have ſince imitated them in) was, that they would ſuffer no ſhips from any other nation to trade to their new colonies, or to enter into their ports, nor any ſhips from thence to return to any other country but Old Spain, from whence they came: in a word, that they would have the whole trade to and from their colonies in New Spain center in Old Spain, which it does to this day, except ſuch part as is carried on illicitly by other nations.

In purſuance of theſe meaſures, the king of Spain erected, in the year 1513, a council of commerce for the Indies at Seville, for regulating this trade; and the king his ſucceſſor, in the year 1556, erected a royal court of juſtice, for determining all controverſies relating to this traffic.

By virtue of theſe regulations, and their ſtrict obſervance, the ſtate of this trade is punctually kept up to the firſt intention of the emperor's council to this day, and is, perhaps, the beſt-eſtabliſhed commerce in the world. Some, among many others, of thoſe prudent and politic regulations, are as follow:

I. No ſhips are allowed to go to any of the king of Spain's dominions in America, without ſpecial licence from him, which licences are iſſued out at his court, or chamber of commerce at Seville, as above.

II. No foreigner, or ſtranger, is allowed to go to the ſaid New Spaniſh dominions in America, in any of the ſaid licenſed ſhips, upon any terms whatſoever, whether to ſettle in the ſaid Weſt-Indies, or only to trade there, Iriſhmen only excepted, and thoſe to be all Roman Catholics.

III. No perſon whatever, though he were a Spaniard born, and the king of Spain's ſubject, can go to the Spaniſh Weſt-India dominions without ſpecial licence, to be obtained at the ſaid Contractation-Office, that is to ſay, without licence from the king.

Theſe fundamentals being previouſly eſtabliſhed, there are then certain limitations to the numbers of ſhips, and the quantity of goods, that is to ſay, the tonnage, or burthen, they ſhall carry, which is always in the breaſt of the members of the Caſa de Contractation, becauſe the quantity of goods ſent ſhould not exceed the demand, and, conſequently, glut the markets, and alſo abate the price, and the profits of the trade; likewiſe it is regulated there, at what times the ſeveral fleets of ſhips ſhall go out, and to what ſeveral places, and when they ſhall be obliged to come away, in order to their return. It is alſo regulated, That all the ſilver, or gold, or jewels, which ſhall be brought over, for whoſe particular private intereſt ſoever it be, ſhall be regiſtered and entered in the ſhip's books of every ſhip, and likewiſe in a general regiſter, in the port from whence the ſhip comes; where alſo it is to be ſeen, and duplicates of which are tranſmitted to the ſaid council at Seville.

As no perſon is allowed to go to New Spain without licence, ſo no religious, no eccleſiaſtics of any kind, are permitted to come back in any of thoſe ſhips, without licence from the ſuperior of the order to whom they belong.

Some particular goods are not permitted to be laden in Old Spain in any of the ſhips, though thoſe ſhips are licenſed to go, thoſe goods being reſerved to the king to export thither in his own name, or to give licence to others to do it; without which licence the ſaid goods are not only prohibited, but forfeited, if taken.

The manner of the fleets going.

The firſt fleet is called the galleons, or galloons: theſe are generally ſeven ſhips, but may be increaſed as the king or the Caſa de Contractation, that is, the Council of Commerce, ſee fit; and they go from Old Spain to and from Carthagena and Porto-Bello, and no where elſe; neither are they allowed to go any where elſe, if they could do it. How often

or

or ſeldom ſoever the galleons go out, the next fleet of galleons never go out 'till the laſt are returned.

The next fleet is called the flota: theſe go to La Vera Cruz, or Crux; they have no ſet time of going out, but the merchants ſend them as the Chamber of Commerce directs, and they give their directions as they ſee the trade calls for it, and as the merchants by their petition, repreſenting the occaſion, can obtain leave.

The ſhips to Buenos Ayres are not to be called a fleet, being ſeldom above two ſhips, and never above four; and do not uſually go out above once in two or three years; and they are generally out two, three, or four years, every voyage.

The Azoga ſhips, vulgarly called the quickſilver ſhips, are ſo called becauſe they carry quickſilver, or mercury, by which the ſilver is wrought and refined in the mines; but not, as ſome think, that they ſhould be loaden with quickſilver.

They are not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, to carry any goods but in particular for the king's account; but they are generally full loaden, notwithſtanding the firſt regulation, and the merchants get ſpecial licences of the king to load, and they generally pay large ſums for thoſe licences.

Note, theſe carry quickſilver and fruit, or ſpice, for the king's account, and ſometimes military ſtores and arms for the forces there; as alſo iron, which is called the king's merchandize: there are alſo petaches, ſent at uncertain times. Theſe are generally but two, and are called advice-boats, becauſe they are ſent either to give advice to the Weſt-Indies of their ſhips being arrived at Old Spain, or of the departure of the fleets, when they have a ſet time determined. Theſe petaches were generally ſmall veſſels and barks, which were diſpatched merely for ſailing; but now the merchants ſtriving to get leave to ſhip goods upon them, they are generally about 350 tons burthen each.

N. B. When the ſhips to Buenos Ayres arrive there, they are to give notice to the governor of the time they intend to depart for Europe; and being obliged to bring back any goods for the king gratis, the notice they are to give to the governor is for him to get ready the king's goods, and is to be given two months before they are to come away: if he neglects it, they may come without it.

When the ſhips go out for New Spain, they go directly, the galleons to Carthagena, and the other ſhips to La Vera Cruz: but, when they come back, they go to the Havannah, and ſtay 'till they get all together, and then beating through the gulph of Florida 'till they come to the height of St Auguſtine, or perhaps to South Carolina, they ſteer away together for Old Spain.

All this commerce, under theſe regulations, and managed as has been ſaid, uſually centered at Seville, now at Cadiz; and it is no wonder that Seville, with the weight of ſo great an affair tranſacted in it, was become rich and populous; no wonder they have ſuch magnificent buildings, and that the exchange for the merchants, as ſome tell us, coſt king Philip II. 950,000 crowns in ready money.

Some have attempted to make calculations of the magnitude and value of this great trade to the Spaniards; but it is not eaſy to be done with accuracy. If the account taken out of the regiſters of the ſaid council of trade may be depended on, it is a prodigy in itſelf, nor can I venture to vouch the truth of it; but they tell us, that, according to the books of that court, from the year 1519, to the year 1619, incluſive, being the firſt hundred years of the trade, the value entered, or regiſtered, beſide all private trade, was 5000 millions, in gold, ſilver, pearl, jewels, and other merchandize, though, for the firſt twenty years, very little was brought; ſo that it was called eighty years, not an hundred.

There is now paſſed above another century, and, if the former account was true, I am perſuaded the amount muſt be extremely increaſed ſince.

For more matter relating to the commerce of SPANISH AMERICA, ſee the articles ACAPULCO, AMERICA, ARMADA, ASSIENTO CONTRACT, ACAPULCO, AZOGA SHIPS, DIRECTION CHAMBER, FLORIDA, FLOTA, GALLOONS, GAUGING of SHIPS, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, INDULTO, LOGWOOD TRADE, MEXICO, PERU, MUSKETO-COUNTRY, PARAGUAY, PERU, REGISTER SHIPS, SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

A TREATY between GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN about accommodating differences, preventing depredations, and ſettling a peace in AMERICA: concluded at MADRID, July $\frac{8}{18}$, 1670.

Foraſmuch as the good underſtanding and correſpondence between the Engliſh and Spaniſh nations have been interrupted in America, the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince, Charles the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. in order to re-eſtabliſh and regulate the ſame for the future, hath diſpatched Sir William Godolphin his envoy extraordinary into Spain, with full power and authority to conclude ſuch a treaty as ſhall be proper and ſuitable to theſe ends: and that, in like manner, the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince, the king of Spain, &c. and the queen-regent, Mary Anne, &c. in order to promote ſo good a work, and ſo advantageous to the public, have, on their part, appointed the count de Pegnaranda, counſellor of ſtate, and preſident of the Indies, to confer about, treat, and conclude that affair: they have at laſt mutually ſettled and agreed upon theſe following articles by virtue of their commiſſions.

I. In the firſt place, the ſaid plenipotentiaries, Sir William Godolphin, and the count de Pegnaranda, have in the names of the moſt ſerene kings their maſters agreed, That the articles of peace and alliance made between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, at Madrid, the $\frac{13}{23}$ of May, 1667, nor any clauſe therein, ſhall any ways be revoked or be underſtood to be void, or annulled by this treaty, but that the ſame ſhall always continue in their former force, virtue, and power; provided it may be not contrary and repugnant to this convention and articles, or any thing that is contained in them.

II. That there ſhall be an univerſal peace, and a true and ſincere friendſhip in America, as well as in other parts of the world, between the moſt ſerene kings of Great-Britain and Spain, their heirs and ſucceſſors, and between their kingdoms, plantations, eſtates, colonies, forts, towns, iſlands, and territories, without any diſtinction of places belonging to the one or to the other, and between the people and inhabitants in their reſpective dominions, which ſhall for ever endure, and commence from this day, and be inviolably obſerved, as well by land as ſea, and on freſh waters, ſo as that they are to promote the good and proſperity of one another, and to favour and aſſiſt each other with mutual returns of friendſhip, that ſo the offices of good neighbourhood and amity may be diſcharged and augmented amongſt them in all places, as well in thoſe remote countries, as in thoſe nearer home.

III. That alſo, for the future, all enmities, hoſtilities and diſſentions between the ſaid kings, their ſubjects and inhabitants may ceaſe, and be quite laid aſleep, and that both parties do hinder and abſtain from all manner of pillaging, depredations, injuries, and annoyances, as well by land as ſea, and on freſh waters, be they where they will.

IV. The ſaid moſt ſerene kings are to take care that their ſubjects do alſo forbear all acts of violence and hoſtility, and to call in all commiſſions, letters of marque and reprizal; and that they do not otherwiſe give leave to take any prizes, of what nature or kind ſoever they be, to the prejudice of either of the ſaid two kings, or their ſubjects, whether they have been given or granted by them, to their own ſubjects or inhabitants, or to ſtrangers; but are to declare them to be null and of no effect, as they are ſo declared by this treaty. And whoever ſhall act any thing to the contrary, ſhall not only be puniſhed as a criminal, according to the nature of his offence; but ſhall alſo be obliged to make reſtitution and reparation for the loſſes the injured parties have ſuſtained and require of them.

V. Moreover, the ſaid kings renounce, and they have by theſe preſents both of them renounced, and do renounce, all leagues, confederacies, capitulations, and intelligence, had in any manner whatſoever, to the prejudice of one another, that is or may be repugnant to this peace and treaty, and every thing that is contained therein; all and every ſuch clauſes, ſo far as they may reach to the ſaid effect, being annulled and made void, and declared to have no force or virtue in them.

VI. The priſoners, of what ſtate or condition ſoever they be, which are detained by reaſon of any acts of hoſtility hitherto committed in America, ſhall forthwith be ſet at liberty, without any ranſom, or any manner of conſideration for their enlargement.

VII. All offences, damages, loſſes, and injuries, which the nations and people of Great-Britain and Spain may at any time whatſoever, 'till now, have ſuffered on either ſide in America, be the cauſe or pretence what it will, ſhall be utterly effaced and buried in oblivion, in ſuch manner as if the ſame had never happened.

Moreover it is agreed, that the moſt ſerene king of Great-Britain, his heirs and ſucceſſors, ſhall have, hold, keep, and always poſſeſs, in full right of ſovereignty, ſigniory, poſſeſſion, and propriety, all the lands, countries, iſlands, colonies, and other places, be they what they will, lying and ſituate in the Weſt-Indies, or in any part of America, which the ſaid king of Great Britain and his ſubjects now hold and poſſeſs; inſomuch that they neither can nor ought hereafter to be conteſted or called in queſtion for them, upon any account, or under any pretence whatſoever.

VIII. The ſubjects, inhabitants, merchants, captains, maſters of ſhips, and the mariners of the kingdoms, provinces, and territories of each ally reſpectively, ſhall forbear and abſtain from ſailing to, and trafficking in, the ports and havens that have fortifications or magazines, and in all other places poſſeſſed by the other party in the Weſt-Indies: that is, the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain are not to navigate, nor to traffic in the havens and places that are in the poſſeſſion of the Catholic king in the ſaid Indies; neither are the ſubjects of the king of Spain to navigate, or traffic in the places poſſeſſed therein by the king of Great-Britain. But if, at any time, either of the kings ſhall think it proper to grant the other's ſubjects any general or particular leave or privileges, to ſail to, and traffic in, any of the places under his obedience, the ſaid traffic and navigation ſhall be exerciſed and maintained,

tained, according to the form, tenor, and effect of the ſaid permiſſions or privileges, given and granted to them; for the ſecurity, guaranty, and authority whereof, this preſent treaty and the ratification of it ſhall ſerve.

X. It is alſo agreed, that in caſe the ſubjects and inhabitants belonging to either of the two allies, and their ſhips, whether they be men of war or merchants ſhips, and ſuch as belong to private perſons, ſhould at any time be forced by ſtorm, purſuit of pirates and enemies, or by any other accident whatſoever, to retire and enter into any of the rivers, creeks, bays, havens, roads, and ports, belonging to the other in America, in order to have protection and refuge, they ſhall be received and treated there with all manner of humanity and civility; have all the protection and aſſiſtance of friends, and they ſhall be allowed to refreſh themſelves, and be at liberty, at a reaſonable and the common price, to buy proviſions and other neceſſaries, whether it be for the ſupport of their perſons, or for repairing their ſhips, and the conveniency of their voyages: and they ſhall no manner of way be retarded or hindered to go out of the ſaid ports or roads; but they may do it whenever they have a mind to it, without any let or moleſtation.

XI. In like manner, if any of the ſhips belonging to either one or the other of the allies, their people and ſubjects, ſhall run upon ſand-banks, or be ſhip-wreck'd (which God forbid) within the bounds of the coaſts or dominions of the other, or ſuffer any damage there; the perſons that ſhall be ſhipwrecked, or thrown a-ſhore, ſhall by no means be detained priſoners: but, on the contrary, all manner of aſſiſtance and ſuccour ſhall be given them upon ſuch accidents, and they ſhall have paſſports granted for their return, and free and peaceable paſſage of all of them to their own country.

XII. But when it ſhall ſo happen, that the ſhips, either of the one or the other party, as aforeſaid, ſhall be forced into the ports and havens of the other, through the perils of the ſea, or ſome other urgent neceſſity; in caſe they are three or four together, and may give juſt grounds of ſuſpicion, they are, as ſoon as they arrive there, to let the governor, or the chief magiſtrate of the place, know the cauſe of their coming, and to tarry no longer there, than the ſaid governor or chief magiſtrate will give them leave, and that it ſhall be neceſſary to ſupply themſelves with proviſions, and refit their ſhips; and they are ever to abſtain from putting any wares or bales of goods a-ſhore, to expoſe them to ſale; neither are they to receive any merchandize on board, or do any thing that is contrary to this treaty.

XIII. Both parties are ſincerely and inviolably to obſerve this preſent treaty, and all and every the clauſes contained therein; and they are to be obſerved and punctually fulfilled by the ſubjects and inhabitants of both nations.

XIV. Particular offences ſhall no way be a prejudice to this treaty, and cauſe no enmities or diſſentions between the two nations; but every one ſhall anſwer for what he has done, and be proſecuted for contravening it: neither ſhall the one have recourſe to letters of reprifal, or any other methods of the like nature, to obtain reparation for the offence of the other, unleſs juſtice be actually denied, or unreaſonable delays uſed in adminiſtering the ſame. In which caſe it ſhall be lawful for the king, whoſe ſubject hath ſuſtained the damage and loſs, to have recourſe to the rules and ordinary courſe of the law of nations, 'till reparation be made to the perſon that has been injured.

XV. This preſent treaty ſhall no way derogate from any pre-eminence, right, or ſigniory, which either the one or the other of the allies have in the ſeas, ſtreights, or freſh waters of America; and they ſhall have and retain the ſame, in as full and ample a manner, as of right they ought to belong to them; and it is always to be underſtood, that the freedom of navigation ought by no manner of means to be interrupted, when there is nothing committed contrary to the true ſenſe and meaning of theſe articles.

XVI. That the ſolemn ratification of this treaty and convention ſhall in good and due form be delivered by either party, and reciprocally exchanged in the ſpace of four months, to reckon from this day; and they ſhall in the ſpace of eight months, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the inſtruments (or ſooner if it can be done) be publiſhed in all the proper places within the kingdoms, eſtates, iſlands, and ſignories, of both the allies, as well in the Weſt-Indies as elſewhere.

In witneſs of all and every one of the articles contained in theſe preſents, we, the above-named plenipotentiaries, have ſigned this treaty, and ſet our ſeals to it, at Madrid $\frac{8}{18}$ day of July, in the year of our Lord 1670.

The COUNT DE PEGNARANDA,
(L. S.)
WILLIAM GODOLPHIN,
(L. S.)

See TREATIES.

General REMARKS, by way of query, on the articles of SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA, as they relate to Great-Britain in particular, BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

1. Whether it is not notorious to the whole world, that Spain for many years, prior to the late war, ſo behaved towards Great-Britain, that the latter was forced into a war with that crown?

2. Is it not equally true, that to prevent the laſt war Great-Britain bore too long with the conduct of Spain, and did her more good offices, in regard to family-eſtabliſhments in Italy, than Spain has deſerved, ſeeing that ſhe made no other recompence for the ſame, after her own turn was ſerved, than that of inſult and depredation upon the Britiſh ſubjects?

3. Whether the firſt giving up the trade of the South-Seas to the South-Sea Company, did not prove a great injury to the trade of Jamaica, and thereby to Great-Britain in general; and whether the Spaniards putting us off with the Aſſiento for Negroes, and an annual ſhip, was an equivalent to ſuch loſs of trade at Jamaica? See the articles SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, ASSIENTO CONTRACT.

4. Whether our abſolutely giving up the Aſſiento to Spain, by treaty, in 1750, for ſo trifling a ſum as 100,000l. in order to give that court no umbrage in relation to an illicit trade, laid to the charge of the South-Sea company, in their exerciſe of the Aſſiento, doth not indicate the moſt cordial diſpoſition in the court of England to live in ſtrict friendſhip and harmony with that of Madrid?

5. Whether, when the Aſſiento was ſo given up, the LOGWOOD TRADE in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, to which the ſubjects of Great-Britain have a right, ought not to have been ſo regulated as to have prevented future broils on that head, between the two crowns; ſince 100,000 l. was no equivalent for the ASSIENTO? And whether the latter might not have been done, upon conditions perfectly conſiſtent with the honour and intereſt of both nations? See the article LOGWOOD.

6. Whether Spain is not more obliged to Great-Britain for taking off her products of fruit and wines, than ſhe is to any other nation for ſo doing; and whether Spain doth not every day leſſen her imports of the product and manufactures of Great-Britain, and encourage thoſe of our rival nation, in proportion as ſhe diſcourages ours?

7. Whether Spain hath uſed Great-Britain well, by deferring, ſince the laſt peace of Aix la-Chapelle, to regulate the trade of Campeachy and Honduras upon a proper footing; and whether the diſpoſſeſſion of the Britiſh logwood-cutters in the bay of Honduras (if this ſhould prove true) while the two crowns were in treaty upon that very occaſion, is acting conſiſtent with the honour of nations, and that equity and friendſhip which we have a right to expect from a nation for whom we have done ſo much, and borne ſo much for peace ſake?

8. Whether there is not too much reaſon to apprehend, from the preſent conduct of France towards Great-Britain, that the former is certain of the FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE OF SPAIN to act in concert with her againſt our intereſts; and whether, notwithſtanding the pretended friendſhip of Spain to England, ſince the laſt peace, France hath not obtained ſuch an aſcendency over the court of Madrid, as to retard, and at length abſolutely defeat the ratification of any treaty for regulating of the trade of CAMPEACHY AND HONDURAS between the two nations; and whether ſuch regulation hath not been poſtponed from time to time, 'till France and Spain had both raiſed their marine to ſuch a pitch, as to be able to ſurprize Great-Britain, by ſtriking ſome notable blow, greatly detrimental to her intereſts?

9. Whether the Spaniards winking as they do at the illicit commerce carried on by the French at preſent, from the MISSISSIPPI TO MEXICO, and the EXTIRPATION OF THE BRITISH LOGWOOD CUTTERS FROM THE BAY OF HONDURAS, and frequently taking our veſſels engaged in that trade, doth not ſufficiently indicate a ſtrict friendſhip between Spain and France, and a great lukewarmneſs between the former and Great-Britain?

10. Whether the ſtrength that the French are daily gaining upon the MISSISSIPPI, and eſpecially upon thoſe parts bordering on the gulph of Florida; as alſo the abſolute deſtruction of the Indian nation, called the Nautches, and other Indian allies of the Britiſh colonies of Georgia and Carolina, may not forbode an union between SPAIN AND FRANCE on that ſide, hurtful to our moſt ſouthern colonies on the Continent, while France, at the ſame time, may attack Nova Scotia, which was formerly called the DUNKIRK of our NORTH AMERICAN ſettlements, while in the hands of France? And will not this be more ſo, if the French ever once again poſſeſs themſelves of the whole, or of a part of this important colony, as they are poſſeſſed of Cape Breton? See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA.

11. If there be any juſt foundation ſtill to ſuſpect the ſincerity and friendſhip of Spain, does it not ſeem neceſſary to have a ſtrict eye towards the preſervation of our SUGAR COLONIES, and the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, as well as towards NOVA SCOTIA?

12. Whether, if we find once more that there is no faith to be kept with France, nor with Spain, it is not full time to think of acting upon the offenſive, inſtead of the defenſive only, and that by ſtriking the BOLDEST STROKE which we may have in our power?

13. Whe-

13. Whether the preſent ſtate of the marine of Holland, and, indeed, the indifference and coldneſs of that republic to this nation, together with the unſettled ſtate of their barrier; whether theſe conſiderations, and the good plight and condition of the French and Spaniſh marine, the death of the Grand Seignior, &c. have not excited France to their preſent conduct? See the articles HOLLAND, FLANDERS, and NETHERLANDS.

How Great-Britain may be able to cope with the enemy, ſee the articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, and SEAMEN. See alſo the article MEDITERRANEAN.

REMARKS on the Article SPAIN, ſince the laſt War, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763.

For the Definitive Treaty of 1763, the reader is referred to AMERICA, where appears the ſtate of affairs between Great-Britain, as the ſame is ſettled ſince the laſt war. As we had conquered and poſſeſſed ourſelves of the Havanna, Spain, for the reſtitution thereof, has ceded, by article XX, to the crown of England, the Colony of FLORIDA, with Fort St AUGUSTINE, and the BAY of PENSACOLA, as well as all that SPAIN poſſeſſed on the continent of NORTH AMERICA, to the eaſt, or to the ſouth-eaſt of the RIVER MISSISSIPPI; and, in general, every thing that depends on the ſaid countries and lands, with the ſovereignty, property, poſſeſſion, and all rights acquired by treaties or otherwiſe, which the Catholic king, and the crown of Spain have had, till now, over the ſaid countries, lands, places, and their inhabitants; ſo that the Catholic king cedes and makes over the whole to the ſaid king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the moſt ample manner and form.

By the VIIth article of the ſaid DEFINITIVE TREATY, that for the future, the CONFINES between the dominions of his Britannic Majeſty, and thoſe of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, in that part of the world, ſhall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the RIVER MISSISSIPPI, from its SOURCE to the RIVER IBERVILLE, and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the LAKES MAUREPAS and PONTCHARTRAIN, to the ſea; and for this purpoſe, the Moſt Chriſtian king cedes, in full right, and guaranties to his Britannic Majeſty, the RIVER and PORT of MOBILLE, and every thing which he poſſeſſes, or ought to poſſeſs, on the left ſide the RIVER MISSISSIPPI; except the town of the NEW ORLEANS, and the ISLAND in which it is ſituated, which ſhall remain to France; provided that the RIVER MISSISSIPPI ſhall be equally free, as well to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, as to thoſe of France, in its whole breadth and length from its ſource to the ſea, and expreſsly that part which is between the ſaid ISLAND of NEW ORLEANS, and the RIGHT BANK of that RIVER, as well as the PASSAGE both IN and OUT of its MOUTH.—It is further ſtipulated, that the VESSELS belonging to the ſubjects of either nation ſhall not be ſtopped, viſited, or ſubject to the payment of ANY DUTY whatſoever.

By the ſaid treaty it appears, that Great-Britain has obtained for her NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES, the BARRIER OF THE GULPH OF MEXICO, as far as the ſame extends to the RIVER MISSISSIPPI from eaſt to weſt; and alſo the BARRIER of the GULPH of FLORIDA on the eaſt of her colonies, together with the PORTS and HARBOURS of MOBILLE, PENSACOLA, and St AUGUSTINE, and the FREEDOM OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI. All which ſeem to promiſe a good SECURITY to all our SOUTHERN COLONIES on the CONTINENT; provided we can alſo gain the uninterrupted friendſhip and alliance of the INDIANS neighbouring thereupon; or if that cannot be effectually done, to keep them under due ſubjection to the Britiſh power and dominion.

To accompliſh which now, there does not ſeem any great difficulty, in a little time. For we now, as it were, are in a ſituation to ſurround them by our navigation on the eaſt, weſt, and ſouth, by the Gulph of FLORIDA, the GULPH of MEXICO, and the MISSISSIPPI, on the ſouthern part of the continent.—Which promiſes fair in conjunction to conſtitute a pretty FORMIDABLE BARRIER to our plantations of this ſide. And

By the IVth article of the ſaid Treaty, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty renounces all pretenſions which he has heretofore formed, or might form, to NOVA SCOTIA, or ACADIA, in all its parts, and guaranties the whole of it, and with all its DEPENDENCIES, to the king of Great-Britain.—Moreover, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cedes and guaranties to his ſaid Britannic Majeſty, in full right, CANADA, with all its DEPENDENCIES, as well as the ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON, and all the OTHER ISLANDS and coaſts in the GULPH and RIVER of St LAWRENCE, and in general, every thing that depends on the ſaid COUNTRIES, LANDS, ISLANDS, and COASTS, with the SOVEREIGNTY, PROPERTY, POSSESSION, and ALL RIGHTS ACQUIRED BY TREATY OR OTHERWISE; which the Moſt Chriſtian king and the crown of France have had, till now, over the ſaid countries, iſlands, lands, places, coaſts, and their inhabitants; ſo that the Moſt Chriſtian king cedes, and makes over the whole to the ſaid king, and to the crown of Great-Britain; and that in the moſt ample manner and form, without reſtriction, and without any liberty to depart from the ſaid ceſſion and guaranty under any pretence, or to diſturb Great Britain, in the poſſeſſions above mentioned.

As we have ſeen the ſecurity the ſaid treaty promiſes to our colonies on the ſouthern parts of the continent; ſo here likewiſe we ſee the ſecurity it promiſes to our colonies on the northern parts of the continent; which conſidered together afford us the proſpect of our MARITIME SECURITY and PROTECTION, by the means of the three great gulphs in America, that of St Lawrence in the north, MEXICO on the ſouth, Florida on the eaſt, and the navigation of the two great rivers, the MISSISSIPPI, and that of St LAWRENCE, both from the NORTH and from the SOUTH; beſides the additional ſecurity and protection we may derive from the navigation of all the other numerous fine rivers, diſperſed throughout this whole AMERICAN CONTINENT, both large and ſmall, in every part thereof, and all fitted by nature for a perpetual commercial navigation.

The whole country, that is now annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, abounds with very large rivers, which it were endleſs to enter into a detail of, and for which we refer to the maps of the country for their names, courſes, mouths, &c. and content ourſelves with deſcribing a few of the moſt conſiderable, as that of St Lawrence and the Miſſiſſippi.

The river St Lawrence is the largeſt in all North America, and inferior to few in the world, it being computed about 25 or 30 leagues wide at the mouth, and 200 fathoms in depth, and 160 leagues in length; and yet by the help of a good ſouth wind, and the currents, which are pretty ſtrong, may be ſailed, according to Charlevoix, in 24 hours. As to its ſource, though the European miſſionaries have ſailed up it above 700, or near 800 leagues, that is, as far as the LAKE of ALEMIPIGON, yet it is ſtill unknown, unleſs it really ſprings from it, which no one hath yet been able to decide.—That LAKE diſcharges itſelf into that called the UPPER or SUPERIOR, lately mentioned, and this into that of HURON, and this into that of ERIE, or CONTI, and this laſt into that of FRONTENAC, or ONTARIO; all this by means of the SAME RIVER, from which it iſſues out with a ſmooth courſe during the firſt 20 leagues; after which it becomes more rapid during another 30 leagues, that is, till it comes to MONTREAL. From this it reſumes its ſmooth flow quite to that of Quebec, growing ſtill wider as it runs, till it empties itſelf into the ſea above 100 leagues below it: but, according to the report of the wild natives, this famed river ariſes out of another LAKE, farther up, and larger than any of thoſe we have mentioned, and which they call the LAKE of ASSINIPOLIS, or ASSIBOUELS; and this laſt is ſaid by them to lie about 50 or 60 leagues above that of ALEMIPIGON, and is ſuppoſed to have a communication with the NORTHERN SEA; and it is not improbable but a northern paſſage into it may be found by means of this LAKE. There are falls or cataracts, ſuch as that at NIAGARA. The river is, however, deep almoſt all the way, and hath a number of pleaſant iſlands in it, the moſt remarkable of which are COUDRES, ORLEANS, MONTREAL, St JOHN, MISCOU, RICHLIEU, and ſeveral others. The highland is well wooded, and ſome lowlands well inhabited and manured, inſomuch that they yield vaſt crops of corn and other grain, beſides fruits, pulſe, &c. The ſettlements, which are moſtly round the ſhores, are alſo well ſituated and built, and yield a noble proſpect as one ſails by them; the ſame may be ſaid of the reſt.

The river St Lawrence receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers in its courſe, the chief of which are called DESPRAIRIES, or OF THE MEADOWS; the MONS, the TREBLE RIVER, and the large one of SANGUENAY, and St MARGARET, near the mouth of it. All theſe, and other leſs remarkable, fall into it on the north ſide; there are others alſo on the ſouth.

The River MISSISSIPPI runs through the whole province, which the French called LOUISIANA, from north to ſouth, and overflows, at certain ſeaſons, a vaſt quantity of land; it is called by the Spaniards LA PALLISADA, from the prodigious quantities of TIMBER which is ſent down upon it in FLOATS to the ſea. It is navigable above 450 leagues up from its mouth. The ſpring-head is ſtill unknown, tho' the natives ſay, that it flows from a large ſtream that comes down from a hill in the country of the ISATI, about the 50th degree of latitude. We have an extraordinary account of the different nations met with on each ſide of the river, and they are repreſented as an hoſpitable, civil people, and willing to commerce with Europeans; their names and ſituation may be ſeen in the maps. The French made two ſettlements, the one near the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, which is computed about 30 leagues round; the other among the Choagaſkades, or ſtout people, who live in their neighbourhood.

The MISSISSIPPI receives a great many large rivers into its waves; and the country on both ſides is fertile enough, and

and inhabited by a great variety of nations; for which we refer to Mr Sale's account thereof, who ſailed down it in the year 1638, made ſome ſettlements on each ſide of it, and hath marked the diſtances between all thoſe rivers that fall into it, and of the ſeveral nations that live between them on each ſide of this; the whole amount of which, from the River of the ILLINOIS, towards which he firſt ſet out, down to the mouth of it, he computes to be 653 leagues. The river diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of MEXICO, by two branches, which form an iſland of conſiderable length.

CANADA PROPER has Gaſpé, St. John's Iſle, Miſcou Iſle, Richlieu, the Treble River, Montreal, Iſle Frontenac, Conti, St Francois des Anges, St Alexis, St Michael, and St Joſeph; all which we ſhall juſt intimate, and not enter into a copious deſcription.

Gaſpé is chiefly worth notice, for being the capital of a large territory, called from it Gaſpeſia, extending along the eaſtern coaſt of this province from Cape des Roſſeis, at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, to another which lies over-againſt CAPE BRETON, which is about 110 leagues, and ſtretches itſelf much farther inland.

St JOHN'S Iſle lies on the Gaſpeſian coaſts, and hath a bay of its name, north of the river St. Lawrence, on the way to the Hollow Iſland; about 60 miles long, and in ſome places 30 in breadth.

Miſcou Iſland lies on the bay of St. Lawrence, eaſt of the ſouthern cape, called Des Chaleurs, on the Gaſpeſian coaſt, and is famed chiefly for its fertility.

RICHLIEU ISLANDS lie on the lake of St Peter, about 12 leagues from the town of Three Rivers, where the government of Montreal begins. There are above 100 of them, forming a ſmall kind of Archipelago at the mouth of the river St Lawrence.

THE THREE RIVERS, ſo called from three rivers which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one of St Lawrence. It was the capital of the French here, and much reſorted to by ſeveral Indian nations, which come down thoſe rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furrs. The country about it is pleaſant and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordſhips and handſome ſeats, and fine fiſheries contiguous.——The town is about 30 leagues diſtant from Quebec, and the ſailing up and down from one to the other, exceeding agreeable, and ſeveral leagues above it.

MONTREAL is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name, in the river St Lawrence, about 14 leagues long, and 4 wide, where broadeſt, and very fruitful in corn, vegetables, &c. The town has a vaſt trade with the natives. The concourſe of Indians of various tribes is very great, ſome of them coming from places diſtant ſome hundred miles; the fair is kept along the banks of the river, which laſts near three months. The natives bring thither all ſorts of ſurrs, which they exchange for guns, powder, ball, great coats, and other European garments; iron and braſs work, and trinkets of every ſort.

FRONTENAC is a fort on the ſame river, about 100 leagues above Quebec. The ſoil hereabout is ſo well cultivated as to yield all ſorts of European and Indian corn and other fruits, according to Hennipin. Near is a good haven for all ſorts of veſſels to ride in with ſafety.

FORT St FRANCIS ſtands in the iſland of that name, on a bay on the ſouth end of St PETER'S LAKE.

There are ſeveral more of thoſe iſlands under that name, very fertile, abounding with wood, wild fowl, paſture and cattle.

A RIVER that comes down into the LAKE from NEW-YORK, and ſplits itſelf into a great number of branches, makes the country on that ſide very pleaſant and fruitful; and ſo we may ſay of all the other parts of this country.

The PROVINCE of SANGUENAY is another part of Eaſtern CANADA. On the north-eaſt it has the Indian nation Kileſtinoas, on the north-weſt that of the Eſquimaux; on the ſouth-eaſt it is bounded by the river St Lawrence, and on the ſouth-weſt by that of Sanguenay; at the mouth of which is the town of THREE RIVERS before noticed. The river Sanguenay ſprings from the LAKE St JOHN, and falls into that of St Lawrence at the town of Jadouſſac, which, Charlevoix tells us, is navigable by the largeſt veſſels above 25 leagues up. The haven will contain 25 men of war, and has good anchorage and ſhelter from ſtorms. This province is much the ſame, as to its ſoil, climate, and inhabitants, with that of CANADA PROPER, before deſcribed. It yields the greateſt plenty of marble of ſeveral kinds, inſomuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches, and palaces, but even the houſes of private men are built of it.

QUEBEC, the capital of CANADA, is ſituate on the confluence of the rivers St Lawrence, and St Charles; on the north of the former, and about 140 leagues from the ſea. The haven is ſpacious, and able to contain at leaſt 100 veſſels of the line. A little above this is the city, ſituate on the narroweſt part of the river; but between that, and the iſle of Orleans, is a ſpacious baſon, a full league every way, into which the river St Charles empties itſelf, which flows down from the north-weſt, ſo that it ſtands between the mouth of that river, and the Cape Diamant, on that of St Lawrence. The haven faces the town, and is ſafe and commodious, and about 25 fathom deep.

The ILLINOIS INDIANS live near the LAKE and RIVER of that name, which laſt ſprings from LAKE DAUPHIN, and after a courſe of above 200 leagues, excluſive of its windings, falls at length into the great river Miſſiſſippi. The people live in diſtant villages, on the plains on both ſides of the river, beyond which are large woods and ſloping hills, covered with delightful verdure at leaſt nine months in the year, whilſt the current, which is moſtly ſouth-weſt, is ſo ſmooth and agreeable, that veſſels of a conſiderable ſize may ſail up and down it with eaſe and ſafety, during a courſe of at leaſt 120 leagues, before it falls into the river Miſſiſſippi. The lands on each ſide this river Illinois afford ſuch plenty of paſture, that we ſee them covered with herds of large and ſmall cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other beaſts. The river alſo ſwarms with water-fowl of divers ſorts, ſuch as ſwans, geeſe, cranes, ducks, &c. in prodigious plenty.

Great-Britain being now poſſeſſed of all the territory on the eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi, we ſhall take notice of ſome other large rivers that fall into it, from FLORIDA. Mr Coxe ſays, that about twelve miles above the mouth of it a branch runs out of it on the eaſt ſide, which, after a courſe of 160 miles, falls into the north-eaſt end of the great bay of SPIRITO SANCTO. That at firſt 'tis very narrow and ſhallow, but, by the acceſſion of ſeveral rivers, becomes a moſt lovely river, is navigable by the greateſt boats and ſloops, and forms pleaſant lakes, particularly that of PONTCHARTRAIN, by which was diſcovered a more ſafe and expeditious communication with the river Miſſiſſippi, to avoid the danger and difficulty of ſailing up that river by its principal mouth; the navigation of which Great-Britain is now intitled to. From this lake they enter into that of MAUREPAS; from which they go on, by means of the canal or river IBERVILLE, into the river Miſſiſſippi. When that cannot be eaſily done, they carry goods by land from the bay into the lake PONT CHARTRAIN, which diſcharges itſelf quite to the country of the Oumas, who are ſeated on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi, a little above New Orleans, and thence purſue that voyage up that river (La Martiniere.)

About 60 leagues higher up, on the eaſt-ſide, is the river Yaſſoona, which comes into the Miſſiſſippi, 2 or 300 miles out of the country, and is inhabited by ſeveral Indian nations. Sixty leagues higher is the river and nation of Chongue, with ſome others on the eaſt of them.—Thirty leagues higher the Miſſiſſippi receives a river that proceeds from a lake about 10 miles diſtant, which is about 20 miles long, and receives four large rivers: 1. The Cuſates, the moſt ſouthern of them, being the river of the Cherokees, a mighty nation, among whom it has its chief fountains. It comes from the ſouth-eaſt, and its heads are among the mountains, which ſeparate the Cherokees from Carolina, and is the great road of the traders from thence to the Miſſiſſippi, and the intermediate places.—Forty leagues above is the Chicazas; this river forms four delicate iſlands, which have each a natien inhabiting them. 2. The river Ouerſpere, which, about 30 leagues to the north-eaſt of the lake, divides into two branches, whereof the moſt ſouthern is called the Black River.—The heads of this river are in that vaſt ridge of mountains that runs on the back of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, through which mountains there is a ſhort paſſage to the ſources of the great river Potomack, on the eaſt ſide of them, by which the Indians, who are well acquainted with them, might, BEFORE THE PEACE, in conjunction with the French from the Miſſiſſippi, have harraſſed and annoyed our colonies. 3. The river Ohio, Oyo, or Hohio, which is a vaſt river, and comes from the back of New-York, Maryland, and Virginia. It runs through the moſt beautiful and fruitful countries in the world, and receives 10 or 12 rivers, beſides innumerable rivulets: it is navigable 600 miles. Formerly ſeveral Indian nations dwelt on this river, who have been totally extirpated by the Iroquois, who made this river their uſual road, when they entered into a war with the nations either to the ſouth or weſt. 4. The moſt northerly river that runs into the ſaid lake, and which comes, like the reſt, from the north-eaſt, is Jeremy's river.—Twenty-five leagues above the OHIO is the great iſland of Tamaroas, with a nation over-againſt it, that goes by its name; and another by that of Cohokia, who dwell on the banks of the Chepulſo River.—Thirty leagues higher is the river Chicagou, on the river Illinois; which nation lived upon and about this river, in about 60 towns, and conſiſted of 20,000 fighting men, before they were deſtroyed by the IROQUOIS, and driven to the weſt of the Miſſiſſippi. This is a large pleaſant river, and, about 250 miles above its entrance into the Miſſiſſippi, is divided into two branches: the leſſer comes from north and by eaſt, and its head is within 4 or 5 miles of the weſt ſide of the great lake of MICHIGEN: the biggeſt comes directly from the eaſt, and proceeds from a moraſs within 2 miles of the river Miamiha, which runs into the ſame lake. On the ſouth-eaſt there is a communication be-

twcen theſe two rivers by a land-carriage of about two leagues, 50 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of the lake — The courſe of this river Chegogon is above 400 miles, navigable above half way by ſhips, and moſt of the reſt by ſloops and barges. It receives many ſmall rivers, and forms 2 or 3 lakes, one eſpecially, called Pimeteovi, 20 miles long and 3 broad, which affords great quantities of good fiſh, as the adjacent country does game, both of fowls and beaſts. Several Indian nations inhabit round about. There is a fort erected here called Crevecœur, which is about half way betwixt the gulph of Mexico and Canada, and was formerly the uſual road of the French to and from both, till they diſcovered a ſhorter and eaſier paſſage by the rivers OUABACKE, and the HOHIO, which riſe at a ſmall diſtance from lake ERIE, or ſome rivers which enter it.

Eighty leagues higher, the river Miſſiſſippi receives the MISCONSIAG, a river reſembling that of the ILLINOIS, in breadth, depth, and courſe; and the country adjacent to its branches is alike pleaſant and fruitful. — Sixty miles before it falls into the Miſſiſſippi, it is joined by the river Kikapouz, which is alſo navigable, and comes a great way from the north-caſt. — Eighty miles farther, almoſt directly eaſt, there is a communication by a land-carriage of two leagues with the river Miſcongui, which runs to the north-eaſt, and after a paſſage of 150 miles from the land carriage, falls into the great bay of Ponkeontamis or the Puans, which joins on the north-weſt ſide to the great river of the ILLINOIS.—Higher up the Miſſiſſippi is the river Chabadeba, above which the Miſſiſſippi makes a fine lake 20 miles long, and 8 or 10 broad.—Ten miles above that lake is the river of Tortoiſes, a large fair river, which runs into the country a good way to the north-eaſt, and is navigable 40 miles by the greateſt boats.

The rivers which do not communicate with the Miſſiſſippi, are only two large ones betwixt it and the peninſula of Florida; viz. the Coza and the Potache.

The COZA or COUSSA river, which the French have called MOBILLE, riſes from the Apalachean mountains, with ſeveral heads, of which the moſt northern is at the town and province of Guaxula, at the foot of the mountains. Many rivulets uniting after a courſe of 80 miles, form a river, with ſeveral delightful iſles, in a country wonderfully pleaſant and delightful. — The firſt conſiderable town, or province, is Chiaha, with a river of its own name, which helps to enlarge the Coza, and which is famous for its pearl-fiſhing. From thence the river grows larger and deeper, being reinforced by others from the mountains and the valleys, till it enters the province of Coza, which is reckoned one of the moſt fruitful and pleaſant parts of the country, and very populous. It conſiſts of hills and valleys, rivulets, arable land, and lovely meadows. — Prunes grow naturally in the fields better than can be produced in Spain by culture; and though there are ſome vines that creep upon the ground, there are other which mount, in almoſt all places near the rivers, to the tops of the trees. The Coza river enters the Gulph of Mexico 100 miles ſouth of Manhela, or MOBILLE, as the French have called it. — One of the rivers that enters the Coza is the Chatta, where inhabit Indians of the ſame name. — To the eaſt of the Cozas are the Becues, or Abecaes, who have 13 towns, and dwell on divers rivers, which run into the Coza. It is a very pleaſant country, conſiſting of hills and valleys, and its ſoil is generally more marly or fatter than that of many other provinces. — A little more to the ſouth weſt, between the Abecaes and Chattas, the Ewemalas dwell on a fair river of the ſame name, which coming from the north-eaſt, mingles with the Coza. Mr Coxe ſays, this great river Coza falls into the Gulph of Mexico, 15 leagues eaſt of the great bay of Naſſau or Spirito Santo, or north eaſt of the cape of Myrtle iſland. — The Ullibalys or Allibamous, Chicazas, and Chattas, who are the moſt conſiderable nations upon and between the rivers Coza and Miſſiſſippi, kindly entertained the Engliſh who reſided among them ſeveral years, and CARRIED ON A SAFE AND PEACEABLE TRADE WITH THEM, 'TILL ABOUT THE YEAR 1715, WHEN, BY THE INTRIGUES OF THE FRENCH, THEY WERE EITHER MURDERED, OR OBLIGED TO MAKE ROOM FOR THOSE NEW INVADERS, WHO HAVE SINCE UNJUSTLY POSSESSED AND FORTIFIED THE SAME STATIONS, IN ORDER TO CURB THE NATIVES, AND TO CUT OFF THEIR COMMUNICATION WITH THE ENGLISH TRADERS; WHEREBY THEY ENGROSSED A PROFITABLE TRADE FOR ABOVE 500 MILES; OF WHICH THE BRITISH SUBJECTS WERE A FEW YEARS AGO THE SOLE MASTERS.

The town and fort in the ISLE of DAUPHINE lies about 9 leagues ſouth of Fort Lewis, and 10 leagues weſt of PENSACOLA. The diſtance between the river Coza, and that of Palache or Spirito Santo, to the eaſt, is about 190 miles, and the coaſt between them is deep and bold. — The chief harbour betwixt theſe two rivers, and indeed THE BEST upon all this coaſt of the GULPH OF MEXICO, is PENSACOLA, belonging by the laſt treaty of peace to the crown of Great Britain; it being a large port, ſafe from all winds, which has four fathom at the entrance, and deepens gradually to ſeven, or eight — It lies 11 leagues eaſt of PORT LEWIS AND MOBILLE, 90 weſt from the upper part of the peninſula of Florida, and 158 from the TORTUGAS ISLANDS.—The land here produces pine trees, fit for ſhip-maſts, of which many were cut down by the Spaniards, and carried to VERA-CRUZ, by a ſhip belonging to the FLOTA, that brought proviſions, and returned with timber. There is a communication from hence by land with Apalachy.

APALACHYCOLA is a good harbour, 30 leagues eaſt of the former, and as much from what the Spaniards called the river SPIRITO SANTO. This river enters the Gulph of Mexico about 100 miles from the cod of the bay of Potache, at the north-weſt of the peninſula of Florida, in about north lat. 30. It is not eaſy to find this place, by reaſon of the iſles and lakes before and about it, and though a ſtately river, whoſe mouth makes a large harbour, FROM WHENCE A TRADE WAS CARRIED ON TO THE HAVANNA, by ſmall veſſels, yet it has not above two fathom water and a half, or three fathom at moſt, on the bar; but when that is paſſed, it is very deep and large, and the tide flows higher into it than into any other river upon all the coaſt. On both ſides of it, towards the ſea coaſt, live the nations of the Cuſhetaes, Tallibouſes, and Adgebaches. This river proceeds chiefly from others, which have their origin on the ſouth or ſouth-weſt ſide of the great ridge of hills that divides this country from Carolina, and is ſuppoſed to have a courſe of about 400 miles. — All the channel from hence to the Tortugas iſlands, is called the Bay of Certos. — Here is a communication from hence by land with the PORT OF ST. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA.

In the bay of NASSAU, or SPIRITO SANTO, there are four iſlands, which lie from ſouth to north-eaſt for 50 miles, with openings between them a mile or two over. The moſt northerly is that betwixt which and the continent is the entrance of the bay. It is called Myrtle Iſland, about 24 miles in length, but in ſome places very narrow. Some think it is the ſame that the French call L'Iſle des Vaiſſeaux, or the Ships Iſland; which, conſidering its diſtance from Dauphiny iſland, and the convenient ſhelter it affords ſhips from the wind, is not improbable. — The bay is 15 miles broad from Myrtle Iſland to a row of iſlands which run parallel with the main and another bay between them, and ſtretch 50 or 60 miles to the ſouth, as far as one of the ſmaller mouths of the Miſſiſſippi.

BILOCOBY BAY, with another fair harbour, is about 15 leagues to the north-eaſt of the moſt eaſtern branch of the Miſſiſſippi, and a ſmall river near it, called Paſſagoula.

We now ſhall touch on the Peninſula of Florida, which lies betwixt the Gulph of Mexico on the weſt, the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, and the Straits of Bahama on the ſouth. It is about 100 leagues in length, but not above 30 where broadeſt. The ports and towns of ſtrength and convenience, are St. AUGUSTINE and St. MATTHEO.

St. AUGUSTINE, on the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula, is about 70 leagues from the mouth of the Gulph of Florida, or channel of Bahama, 30 ſouth of the river Alatamaha, and 47 from the town and river of Savannah. — The city runs along the ſhore at the bottom of a pleaſant hill ſhaded with trees in the form of an oblong ſquare, being divided into four regular ſtreets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is built thickeſt on the north ſide towards the caſtle, about a mile off, called St John's Fort.— There were 50 pieces of cannon mounted on the caſtle, 16 braſs, and ſome 24 pounders. It has a covered way, and the town is intrenched with 10 ſaliant angles, each defended with cannon, and the caſtle is ſecured on the weſt by a moraſs. The port is formed by an iſland and a long point of land, divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the ſea two miles above the fort. The iſland is called Euſtacia, or Metanzas.

Though this place is of pretty good ſtrength, every circumſtance conſidered; yet Sir Francis Drake took it, 1586, and it was plundered by Captain Davis in 1665. In 1702, it was attacked by the Engliſh and Indians of Carolina, under Colonel Moore, who ruined the villages and farms in the open country, and beſieged this town three months; but at the approach of ſome Spaniſh veſſels to its relief, he raiſed the ſiege, and marched back to Charles town, 300 miles by land, leaving the ſhip and ſtores he brought with him to the enemy. — It was beſieged again by General Oglethorpe in 1740, but to little purpoſe.

This port, now belonging to Great-Britain, may be attended with extraordinary advantages to the Engliſh, our ſouthern ſettlements on the continent being hereby ſecured againſt any future attempts of the Spaniards by land; eſpecially, when the utility of the other ports in the Gulph of Mexico is conjunctively conſidered. — Beſides the great ſervice this place may be to our trade, in not only depriving the Spaniards of a port from whence they might annoy us on that ſide, but alſo by enabling us to annoy them upon occaſion, by cruizing on their home-ward-bound ſhips coming from the Gulph of Florida, and the Streights of Bahama.

Another place in the Gulph of Florida, next to St AUGUSTINE, that may be of ſervice to this kingdom on an emergency, is St MATTHEO, about 15 leagues to the north. It is the frontier town of Florida next to Georgia. — The Engliſh beſieged it in 1715, but were obliged to deſiſt with conſiderable loſs.

The ſea upon this coaſt, and off, as far as the Bahama iſlands, which lie oppoſite to it, is termed the Gulph of Florida, which, according to our beſt navigators, is reckoned about 16 or 18 leagues over. And here the mighty current, which upon all the ſouth part of the Gulph of Mexico ſets conſtantly in with a ſtrong ſtream to the weſt, driving ſo all the way to the very coaſt of La Vera Cruz, turns away again to the eaſt, between the iſle of Cuba, and the ſouth coaſt of North-America, and finding no vent 'till it paſſes by Cape Florida, it then turns from ſouth to north, and runs through this gulph into the great Atlantic ocean. For this reaſon it is that all ſhips from Jamaica bound for England come through this gulph to have the benefit of this current, which has ſometimes proved dangerous both to the Engliſh as well as Spaniards. To avoid which the navigators make an allowance of about five points in the COMPASS for the current, and keep as near as poſſible to the Bahama ſide. — But as hazardous as this paſſage has ſometimes proved for ſhips bound to Europe, there remains no other courſe for them to take, except that of the WINDWARD PASSAGE; and in a courſe of above 160 leagues from Cape Morant, the eaſt point of Jamaica, to the north ſide of Crooked Iſland, which is what is called the Windward Paſſage, the Engliſh traders, in time of war, are in continual danger of being taken by the Spaniſh guarda coſtas, beſides the perils of the ſea.

Here it is neceſſary to obſerve, from the judicious navigator Mr Atkins, who in his voyage to the Weſt-Indies ſays, "that ſhips and veſſels may, and often have ſailed through "this channel from the NORTH SIDE OF CUBA to "the BAY OF MEXICO, notwithſtanding the common "opinion on account of the current that is againſt it; that "they keep the BAHAMA ſhore aboard; and that they meet "the wind in ſummer for the moſt part of the channel "eaſterly, which, with a counter-current on ſhore, puſhes "them eaſily through it.

He adds two obſervations of the pilots, in relation to this gulph: "1. This ſtream goes conſtantly out to north-"ward in the middle channel, its force having ſome re-"ſpect (like tides in other countries) to the moon and the "winds; with a counter-current, or at leaſt a ſtillneſs of "the water, on ſhore, that will enable a ſhip to turn through, "be the middle ſtream ever ſo ſtrong; the ſame as in "the Strait of Gibraltar, where, though the current "runs continually into the Mediterranean, ſhips may "work through, keeping the ſhore aboard. 2. The cur-"rent which goes out here ſets for moſt part into the "Gulph of Mexico, between the two capes of Corientes and "Catoche, with counter-currents on ſhore, though not "always ſo, the pilots having obſerved them ſtrong to the "eaſt at the new and full moons."

From the preceding ſuccinct ſurvey of our preſent North American ſettlements, we conceive the following obvious inferences deducible.

1. That it is not the extent and magnitude of our new poſſeſſions in America, which would have proved of any manner of advantage to Great-Britain, if they were inacceſſible by our ROYAL NAVY and our MERCANTILE SHIPPING; or if the whole had not abounded with numerous very large and extenſive inland navigable rivers, whereby we could have an eaſy and ſafe communication with every part belonging to the crown of theſe kingdoms. They would not have been worth our acceptance; and it would have been the moſt infatuated bad policy to have given up our conqueſts, ſurrounded by the ſea, for ſuch new continental acquiſitions.

2. But as our new territories are reſtrained in extent to the confines of the MISSISSIPPI, and the freedom of the navigation of that river ſecured to us from the ſource to the mouth, to the weſtward of our ancient colonies: as in conſequence hereof, and the poſſeſſion of all FLORIDA, we are alſo intitled to the navigation in the BAY of MEXICO to the SOUTHWARD of our ancient colonies, and are become poſſeſſed there of the ports and harbours of the bay of PALACHE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILLE: as we have alſo ſecured to ourſelves the additional ports and harbours of St MATTHEO and St AUGUSTINE, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of our ancient colonies, and thoſe too in the GULPH of FLORIDA, through which the treaſure of NEW SPAIN paſſes: as we have obtained likewiſe to ourſelves the navigation of the GULPH and RIVER ST LAWRENCE to the northward of our ancient colonies, and the freedom of navigation in theſe parts is ſecured to us by the acquiſition of CAPE BRETON; which by good management may render our navigation here no leſs ſecure than Gibraltar has done that of the Mediterranean: as we have obtained the right of poſſeſſion of CANADA, and all its DEPENDENCIES, ſtill further to ſtrengthen us on the northern ſide of our ancient colonies: as we may be ſaid, at preſent, to enjoy a MARITIME BARRIER to all our ancient continental colonies on the NORTH, EAST, WEST and SOUTH, and a navigable intercourſe, by many very ſpacious and fine rivers among them; whereby we ſhall be able to protect them in their inland, as well as their extenſive maritime parts, and cultivate an internal as well as a maritime commerce with the whole within the Britiſh boundaries; all our colonies will receive greater ſecurity than ever they had before; and therefore we may reaſonably enough preſume they will grow more and more proſperous, and thereby adminiſter greater reciprocal aid, ſuccour and ſupport to each other, as well as to their mother country. For,

3. It is hardly to be doubted but Great-Britain will exert every meaſure that will tend to produce or compel ſuch a union among all our colonies, as will add proportional ſtrength to the whole continent; ſuch a united degree of ſtrength and power, as will, in future, render them a full match for France and Spain, and thoſe their INDIAN ALLIES who may be perfidiouſly inſtigated to annoy them.—We ſhall ſoon be in a capacity, now the boundaries of Great-Britain and France are aſcertained, on the American continent, to manage the INDIANS, ſeeing both nations are limited to their reſpective ſides of the great river Miſſiſſippi. If we cannot, by every fair, upright and equitable method, which we hope will be firſt tried, bring the Indians on our ſide the great river to live in perfect friendſhip and harmony with us, we muſt, for our own ſafety and proſperity, be compelled to carry fire and ſword amongſt them, and drive them on the weſtern ſide of the river: yet we muſt further hope, that we ſhall not be irritated too ſuddenly to this extremity, leſt this ſhould ſtrengthen the hands of our enemies there, and enable them to have thoſe Indians the more under their command, and ſubject to their eternal intrigues and machinations to diſtreſs us. — If we ſhould experience, that the French are not determined to keep the peace, but will ſtir up the Indians to be our perpetual enemies, and will ſecretly ſupply them with arms and ammunition to commit ravages and depredations upon our coloniſts, we muſt be obliged to deprive France of their ſettlement at NEW ORLEANS, and of their navigation on the MISSISSIPPI: this, perhaps, may be much eaſier practicable, than preventing the French from exciting the ſavages to continue in eternal war with us: and 'till the French ſhall be totally extirpated from the whole continent, there is reaſon to fear, they will never deſiſt from influencing the ſavages to our conſtant detriment.

4. It does not, therefore, ſeem at all improbable, that at length what has been ſuggeſted may ſoon come to paſs, and that we ſhall have the whole continent to ourſelves, be unmoleſted either by France or Spain, and bring the Indians under an amicable dominion. For if Spain ſhould interfere to regain Florida, or practiſe any arts to ſtrengthen the Indian nations againſt us, for the ſafety of all our colonies, we muſt be again forced into a rupture with them alſo: and if this ſhould be the caſe, on any occaſion whatſoever, we are certainly now in a better ſituation to carry on a war againſt both Spain and France than ever we were before we obtained our new conqueſts. — With regard to Spain, in this part of America, ſhould we be compelled ſoon to draw the ſword againſt them, our preſent ſituation in the GULPH of MEXICO gives us juſt pretenſions to have as many ſhips ſtationed there, when we ſee reaſon for it, as the Spaniards may have at the Havanna; and what then is likely to become of the HAVANNA and the treaſure from MEXICO? If, upon any contravention of the treaty of peace, on the part of Spain, the court of England ſhould reſolve upon repriſals, will not our preſent ſituation enable us to become maſters of the Spaniſh treaſure from LA VERA CRUZ? See our articles MEXICO, OLD MEXICO, and NEW MEXICO. Muſt not this prove a perpetual alarm to the Spaniards, leſt their FLOTA ſhould fall into Britiſh hands upon any provocation? Are we not alſo better ſituated than before the laſt peace, to intercept their Galloons from PERU, which are obliged to ſail to the Havanna, as well as the FLOTA, and from thence paſs through the GULPH of FLORIDA? And are not our ſhipping ſtationed in the GULPH of MEXICO, and that alſo of FLORIDA, more likely to intercept their treaſures, both from MEXICO and PERU, before they arrive at the Havanna, and alſo after ſailing from thence to Old Spain, than they ever were before? Our ſtations at the BASTIMENTOS, and JAMAICA, for thoſe purpoſes, we have experienced to have been very precarious.— Next to the HAVANNA itſelf, we cannot be better ſituated than we now are, for ſuch important occaſions.

In caſe of a freſh rupture between England and Spain, of which we are ſpeaking, are not the Engliſh, ſituated in the gulph of Mexico and Florida, more likely to reconquer the Havanna than they ever were before? With our ſhips ſtationed at Jamaica on one ſide, and in the gulph of Mexico and Florida on the other, with a force ſuitable to the occaſion, and a reſolution in the court of England to take it, we have little reaſon to fear ſucceſs, while, as was ſaid by a brave Engliſh admiral on another occaſion, IT WAS OPEN AT TOP, let the Spaniards fortify and fortify again. As

our

our northern colonies gave all poſſible aſſiſtance, at the taking of CAPE BRETON, for their future ſecurity; ſo have we not reaſon to believe the like Britiſh ſpirit will manifeſt itſelf in the ſouthern colonies, when we ſhall again beſiege the Havanna? On ſuch an occaſion, may we not expect great aid from Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas?

The ſpirit of conqueſt is not abated in Britons; and if we have occaſion to exert it again, we may poſſibly carry it farther than the Havanna. Being once again maſters of that, who will hinder us from carrying our conqueſts a ſtep further into the bottom of the gulph of Mexico, and becoming victors of the Mexican treaſure at LA VERA CRUZ? And will not our domeſtic circumſtances of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, eſpecially upon a freſh war with Spain, oblige us to make our enemies contribute as much towards the immediate expence thereof as poſſible, and even to enable us to diſcharge thoſe NATIONAL DEBTS, which they have occaſioned? If this reſolution is not taken in the next war, I ſhould be glad to be informed, how many more ſuch wars as we have already been engaged in, we can afford to undertake? Or, to aſk this queſtion in another manner, what degree of further public debts and taxes can this kingdom bear, before ſhe arrives at her NE PLUS ULTRA of national incumbrances? Or, will people be ſo wild and infatuated as to imagine that we can never be ſo loaded with PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, as to be unable to raiſe more money to carry on wars? No man in his ſenſes will aſſert this. — We have ſeen what may naturally enough prove the conſequence of another Spaniſh war ſoon happening with Great-Britain. — Let us now pleaſe ourſelves with the view of the conſequences alſo of a French war falling out at the ſame time; for the one will bring on the other, eſpecially ſince the FAMILY COMPACT has taken place.

It has been obſerved already, that England will find no great difficulty to diſpoſeſs the French of New-Orleans, and deprive them of the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, owing to our preſent ſituation for the purpoſe. As this ſeems to point out the fate of France in theſe ſouthern parts of the American continent; ſo what may we reaſonably expect will be their doom in the northern parts, where they have as little to defend themſelves from Britiſh powers as they have in the ſouthern? We are already in poſſeſſion of all the territory, and of every place of importance to our ſecurity there. We have CAPE BRETON, which we may render more invincible than the Spaniards can do their Havanna, as being environed by the united force and aid of all our colonies in this part. Is it poſſible that the ſmall iſles of St Pierre and Miquelon ſhould enable France to make head againſt the united ſtrength of all our coloniſts? If France, therefore, quarrels with us again, we ſhould, I am perſuaded, meet with little obſtruction in turning them out of the whole Newfoundland fiſhery: and when they oblige us to do that again, do they not put it once more in our power to deprive them for ever of this their chief fiſhery, which is their nurſery for ſeamen? Can they flatter themſelves, that this nation will evermore be their dupes to reſtore them to this privilege again? They cannot; becauſe our circumſtances will no longer admit of it. The weight of our public debts and taxes, in conſequence of another war, will become ſo unwieldy, that our future ſafety and preſervation will oblige us to keep what we conquer, or to diſpoſe thereof, that the ſame muſt never revert into French hands. See our article WAR. For we are no longer in a capacity to continue the old ſyſtem, to fight to negociate, and negociate to fight again. See CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT].

STAFFORDSHIRE is bounded on the eaſt by Warwickſhire and Derbyſhire, on the ſouth by Worceſterſhire, on the weſt by Shropſhire and Cheſhire; which laſt joining Derbyſhire, makes the north border. In compaſs it is 141 miles.

Its air is generally good, as is the ſoil alſo, even the Moorlands, which are mountainous, and therefore reckoned the moſt barren, producing a ſhort, but ſweet graſs, by which they breed as fine large cattle as thoſe of Lancaſhire.

As to ſubterraneous productions, both the Moorlands and Woodlands yield lead, copper, iron, marble, alabaſter, millſtones, coals, ſalt, &c. beſide various ſorts of uſeful earths and clays.

LICHFIELD is a pretty large neat city, within three miles of the Trent.

STAFFORD, the ſhire-town, on the river Sow, is well built, and much increaſed of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufacture in cloth.

NEWCASTLE UNDER LINE is an antient corporation. The chief manufacture is hats. The cloathing trade alſo flouriſhes here, and the town is ſurrounded with coal-pits.

WOLVERHAMPTON is a populous, well-built town. The chief manufacturers here are lockſmiths, who are reckoned the moſt expert of that trade in England.

WALSAL, pleaſantly ſeated on the top of a hill, has a good market, and in and near it are ſeveral mines of iron, wherewith the townſmen make ſpurs, bridle-bits, ſtirrups, buckles, &c. in which they carry on a conſiderable trade.

PENKRIDGE is noted for its great horſe-fair, reckoned one of the greateſt in the univerſe, eſpecially hunters and road-horſes, which are brought hither from Yorkſhire, and all the horſe-breeding counties in England. 'Tis held the 29th of September.

BURTON is of moſt note for its fine ale, and a manufacture of cloth, which was carried on formerly to greater advantage than at preſent.

STOCK-JOBBING.

Of the Art or Myſtery of trafficking in the PUBLIC FUNDS.

The chief Laws and Statutes concerning Exchange-Brokers, and Stock-jobbing.

Brokers are thoſe perſons that contrive, make, and conclude, bargains and contracts between merchants and tradeſmen, in matters of money and merchandize, for which they have a fee or reward; and they are called Exchange-brokers in ſome of our ſtatutes.

By the ſtatute 8 & 9 W. III. cap. 32. for reſtraining the ill practice of brokers and ſtock-jobbers; no perſon ſhall uſe or exerciſe the office or employment of a broker, in London or Weſtminſter, &c. in making or concluding bargains between merchant and merchant, or others, concerning any wares and merchandizes, or monies to be taken up by exchange, or tallies or orders, bills, notes, ſtock of any company of trade, &c. until ſuch perſon ſhall be admitted and licenſed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen of London. And, upon admittance of any ſuch broker, he ſhall take an oath, that he will truly and faithfully execute the office between party and party, without any fraud or colluſion, according to the purport of the act, &c. Likewiſe, he ſhall give bond to the lord mayor, &c. in the penalty of 500l. for the faithful execution of his office, without any fraud or corrupt practice. The number of ſuch brokers ſhall not, at one time, exceed one hundred; and the lord mayor and court of aldermen ſhall cauſe their names and places of habitation to be publickly affixed on the Royal-Exchange, and other public places: and every ſworn broker, after his admittance, as aforeſaid, ſhall carry about him a ſilver medal, having the king's arms on one ſide, and the arms of the city of London, with his own name, on the other ſide; which he ſhall produce at the concluding of every bargain to the parties concerned, upon pain to forfeit 40s. for every omiſſion.

If any perſon ſhall act as a broker, not being admitted according to this act, he ſhall forfeit 500l. beſides ſuch other forfeitures as he may any ways incur thereby; and in caſe any one ſhall knowingly employ any perſon to deal for him as a broker, or ſtock-jobber, who is not admitted and ſworn as aforeſaid, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit the ſum of 50l. And if any perſon, not being a ſworn broker, according to this ſtatute, ſhall act and deal in diſcounting tallies or bills, or in ſtock-jobbing, in ſelling ſtock, or any ſecurity upon any funds granted by parliament, he ſhall be liable to the forfeiture of 500l. and to ſtand on the pillory in ſome public place in London, three ſeveral days, for the ſpace of one hour.

Every ſworn broker is to keep a book or regiſter, and therein enter all contracts and bargains that he ſhall make between any perſons, within three days after any contract made, and for omitting ſo to do, he forfeits 50l. And if any ſuch broker ſhall, directly or indirectly, take above 10 per cent. for brokerage, he ſhall, for every offence, forfeit 10l. Alſo, if any ſworn broker deal for himſelf, in the exchange or remittance of monies; or buy any tallies, orders, bills, or ſhares in any joint-ſtock, for his own uſe; or ſhall buy goods or merchandizes to ſell again, or make any profit in buying or ſelling any goods, more than the brokerage allowed, he ſhall forfeit the ſum of 200l. and be for ever incapable to act as a broker.

All policies, contracts, or agreements, upon which any premium is, or ſhall be given or paid, for liberty to deliver, receive, accept, or refuſe any ſhare in any joint-ſtock, tallies, orders, Exchequer-bills, &c. other than ſuch policies and contracts as are to be performed within three days from the time of making the ſame, ſhall be null and void, and every ſuch premium ſhall be paid back: and if any premium be given, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, with the privity of a ſworn broker; or if any perſon ſhall trade therein as a broker, without being lawfully admitted, and the ſame ſhall come to the knowlege of any ſworn broker, in every ſuch caſe, ſuch ſworn broker ſhall forthwith diſcover the ſame; and, in default thereof, he ſhall be diſabled to exerciſe the trade and office.

And all penalties and forfeitures given by this act, ſhall be recovered by action of debt, &c. in any of the king's courts of record at Weſtminſter, one moiety whereof to go to the king, the other to him that ſhall ſue for the ſame.

By the 6 Geo. I. cap. 18. it is declared, that all undertakings, tending to the common grievance and prejudice of his Majeſty's ſubjects, or great numbers of them, in their trade, commerce,

commerce, &c. and particularly the acting as a corporate-body, by raiſing ſtocks, and the transferring or aſſigning any ſhare in ſuch ſtock, without authority by act of parliament or charter to warrant the ſame; and all acting under any charter formerly granted, for particular purpoſes, by perſons who ſhall endeavour to uſe the ſame charters for raiſing a capital ſtock, or making transfers or aſſignments thereof, not intended by ſuch charter to be raiſed or transferred; and acting under any obſolete charter, &c. ſhall for ever be deemed to be illegal and void.

All ſuch undertakings and attempts, and things whatſoever, for furthering, countenancing, or proceeding therein, and relating thereto, ſhall be deemed public nuſances; and the offenders be liable to fines and puniſhments accordingly, and alſo incur any farther pains, &c. as are provided by the ſtatute of præmunire.

And if any merchant or trader ſhall ſuffer any particular damage in this trade, &c. by occaſion of any undertaking by this act declared unlawful, he may have his remedy for the ſame by action, to be grounded on the ſtatute, againſt the perſon, ſocieties, or partnerſhips engaged in ſuch undertaking, &c. and in every ſuch action the plaintiff ſhall recover treble damages with full coſts.

If any broker, or perſon acting as a broker, for himſelf, or in behalf of others, ſhall bargain, ſell, or buy, or contract for the bargaining, ſelling, or buying, any ſhare or intereſt in any of the undertakings hereby adjudged to be unlawful, or in any ſtock of ſuch undertakers, he ſhall not only be diſabled to act as a broker for the future, but ſhall forfeit 500 l. one moiety to the uſe of the crown, and the other to the informer.

By 7 Geo. II. cap. 8. all contracts which ſhall be entered into, upon which any premium ſhall be given for liberty to deliver or receive, accept or refuſe any public ſtock or ſecurities, and all wagers, puts, and refuſals, relating to the preſent or future price of ſtock or ſecurities, ſhall be void; and all premiums upon ſuch contracts or wagers ſhall be reſtored to the perſon who ſhall pay them; who, within ſix months from the making of ſuch contract, &c. may ſue for the ſame with double coſts: and it ſhall be ſufficient for the plaintiff to allege, that the defendant is indebted to him, or has received to his uſe, the money or premium ſo paid, whereby the action accrued, according to the form of the ſtatute, without ſetting forth the ſpecial matter; and a bill in equity may be preferred for diſcovering any contract or wager, and the premium given, which the defendant ſhall be obliged to anſwer upon oath, &c.

Every perſon who ſhall make any contract, upon which any premium ſhall be given for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuſe any ſtocks or ſecurities, or any contract in the nature of puts and refuſals, or ſhall lay any wagers, &c. as aforeſaid, (except ſuch perſons who bona fide ſue, and with effect proſecute for recovery of the premium paid by them; and that ſhall voluntarily, before any ſuit commenced, repay, or tender ſuch premium which they ſhall have received; and except thoſe perſons as ſhall diſcover ſuch tranſactions in any court of equity) ſhall forfeit 500 l. And all perſons negotiating or writing ſuch contract, incur the like penalty and forfeiture; which penalties may be recovered by action of debt, or information, in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter.

No money or other conſideration ſhall be voluntarily given or received, for compounding any difference for the not delivering or receiving any public ſtock or ſecurities; but all ſuch contracts ſhall be ſpecifically executed; and all perſons who ſhall compound any difference, ſhall forfeit 100 l. And no perſon who ſhall ſell ſtock, to be delivered and paid for a certain day, if it be refuſed or neglected to be paid for, ſhall be obliged to transfer the ſame; but it ſhall be lawful for ſuch perſon to ſell ſuch ſtock to any other, and to receive or recover, from the perſon who contracted for the ſame, the damage which ſhall be ſuſtained: and any perſon that ſhall buy ſtock, to be accepted and paid for on a future day, and which ſhall be refuſed or neglected to be transferred, may buy the ſame quantity of ſuch ſtock of any other perſon, at the current market-price, and recover and receive, from the firſt ſeller, the damage ſuſtained.

All contracts made for the buying or transferring of ſtock, whereof the perſons, on whoſe behalf the contract ſhall be made to transfer the ſame, ſhall not at the time of making any ſuch contract be actually poſſeſſed in their own right, or in the name of truſtees, ſhall be void; and every perſon in whoſe behalf, and with whoſe conſent, any contract ſhall be ſo made to ſell ſtock, of which ſuch perſon is not actually poſſeſſed, &c. ſhall forfeit the ſum of 500 l. one moiety to the crown, and the other moiety to them that ſhall ſue for the ſame: and any broker or agent, who ſhall negociate ſuch contract, and ſhall know that the perſon on whoſe behalf the contract ſhall be made, is not poſſeſſed of the ſtock, ſhall forfeit 100 l. to be divided between the king and the proſecutor.

Every broker, or perſon who ſhall act as a broker, receiving brokerage in the buying or diſpoſing of ſtocks, ſhall keep a broker's book, in which he ſhall enter all contracts that he ſhall make, on the day of the making ſuch contracts, with the names of the principal parties, as well buyers as ſellers; and ſuch brokers, who ſhall not keep ſuch book, or ſhall wilfully omit to enter any contract, ſhall, for every ſuch offence, forfeit 50 l. one moiety to his Majeſty, and the other moiety to the perſon ſuing for the ſame.

But nothing in this act ſhall extend to any contracts for the purchaſe or ſale of ſtock, to be made in purſuance of any decree or order of the court of chancery, with the privity of the accomptant-general of that court: nor ſhall any thing in the act hinder any perſon from lending money on ſtock, or contracts for re-delivering or transferring thereon, ſo as no premium be paid for the loan, more than legal intereſt.

REMARKS.

Plain reaſons why STOCK-JOBBING has been, and ſtill continues to be, detrimental to the commerce of this nation.

I. In relation to TRADING COMPANIES, whoſe ſtocks have been jobbed in, without due regard to the advancement of the commerce of the nation, by the means of thoſe trading companies, as was the great plea for their primary inſtitution.

1. Becauſe, when the African trade was firſt eſtabliſhed by a company, it had ſuch reputation, that ſhares therein roſe from 100 l. to 480 l. whereby the artful managers got great eſtates in ſelling ſhares; but after they had made their market, by practiſing on the paſſions of thoſe unexperienced in this kind of myſterious traffic, the ſhares fell from 480 l. to FORTY SHILLINGS; which proved not only unſpeakably prejudicial to that valuable branch of commerce, but injurious to many good families, and deſtructive to numbers of widows and orphans. This was formerly alſo the fate of the HUDSON'S BAY TRADE, the WHALE FISHERY, and SPICE TRADE, &c.

2. Becauſe ſtock-jobbing has been the parent of numberleſs trading bubbles. See our article BUBBLES and ACTIONS.

3. Becauſe jobbing in the South-Sea ſcheme of the year 1720, not only ruined thouſands of families; but did great injury to the public credit of the nation. See our article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

4. Becauſe ſtock-jobbing ſchemes have had as fatal effects in France as in England. See the article MISSISSIPPI.

5. Becauſe, in times of danger and difficulty, the ſtocks of trading companies, which muſt be always negociable, are liable, upon every idle rumour, to be raiſed and lowered by the jobbers therein, to anſwer their lucrative purpoſes, and thereby to hurt the PUBLIC CREDIT of thoſe companies, as well as the PUBLIC CREDIT of the nation in general.

6. Becauſe companies may act ſo imprudently, or unjuſtly towards other nations, in the exerciſe of their commerce, as may involve the nation in WARS and PUBLIC DEBTS, as well as ruin numbers of the ſtock-proprietors. See SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, and SPANISH AMERICA.

7. Becauſe the domeſtic traffic in the ſtocks of companies, ſo engroſſes the thoughts of the proprietors, that the national commerce often ſuffers, for want of that money being employed in a free trade; which might prove much more to the advantage of the kingdom, as well as to that of the ſtock-holders themſelves, if they employed the ſame property in the general trade.—☞ Theſe conſiderations may, perhaps, furniſh the weightieſt objections that can be urged againſt all JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES.

8. Becauſe PRIVATE CREDIT is greatly injured hereby; for the monies of the opulent being locked up in theſe channels of domeſtic bubbling, and the ſtock-holders heads wholly engaged in this kind of negociations, induſtrious and ſkilful traders are deprived of thoſe loans of money, which they were wont to have on their PERSONAL SECURITY, at the legal intereſt, wherewith to carry on the ſolid national commerce.—Whence private credit has received unſpeakable detriment, for want of a competency of caſh to circulate the general trade; whereby dealings for READY MONEY, or very ſhort credit, which was greatly the caſe before STOCK-TRADING took place, are quite laid aſide, and long credits enhance the price of our commodities, and bankruptcies have ſince proved more numerous than ever. See our article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT].

II. THE INJURIOUS EFFECTS OF STOCK-JOBBING, WITH REGARD TO THE PUBLIC REVENUE FUNDS.

1. Becauſe the PUBLIC FUNDS, together with companies ſtocks, engroſs that ready money that ſhould otherwiſe be employed in trade, either by the proprietors or others; which would prevent that long credit which is ſo fatally cuſtomary in our trade, that tends to ruin it in all nations where we have any commerce; for, as foreigners know that our manufacturers are obliged to give and take credit at home, ſo they have inſiſted upon long credits abroad. — This prevents all ready money returns, which ruins the merchant as well as the manufacturer.—Whereas, was that money employed in trade, that circulates in the public funds, this practice of long credits would ceaſe both at home and abroad, our commodities go far cheaper to foreign markets than otherwiſe they can do, quick returns be made, our traders ſaved from bankruptcy, and our rivals prevented from ſupplanting us at foreign markets, as they now do.

2. Becauſe

2. Becauſe, while people have opportunity to deal in the funds, they will endeavour, from a ſpirit of indolence, to ſubſiſt on their income that way, and turn their backs on all fair national trade.—This ſinks the trade of the nation, for want of that circulation of money requiſite to carry it on to proper advantage; whereby, inſtead of increaſing in ſkilful traders, we ſwarm in ſtock-holders and ſtock-jobbers, brokers and uſurers: and thus there appears to he plenty of money for funding and jobbing, while the trade of the nation, which alone can enable us to pay the intereſt and principal, is ſtarved for want of money to circulate it the moſt to the public intereſt.

3. Becauſe funding and ſtock-jobbing can never increaſe, but muſt daily leſſen the commerce of the nation, which muſt daily leſſen its real and ſubſtantial wealth, and augment only that which is imaginary.

4. Becauſe this kind of traffic gives foreigners, who are proprietors in our funds, an opportunity at critical conjunctures, to uſe many artifices, in concert with our domeſtic jobbers, to raiſe and fall ſtocks as they pleaſe, draw the real money out of the kingdom, and prejudice or ruin the public credit, to anſwer ſome infamous temporary purpoſes.—Wherefore, to damp the ſpirit of STOCK-JOBBING, we muſt encourage that of COMMERCE; and to uphold the PUBLIC CREDIT, we muſt either leſſen our PUBLIC DEBTS, or uſe a SPUNGE, with which the public creditors have been threatened by ſome of late. See the article MONEY.

SUBSIDY, an aid, tax, or tribute, granted by the parliament to the king upon urgent occaſions, and impoſed upon the ſubjects, according to a certain rate on lands or goods.

SUBSIDY is alſo a duty paid at the cuſtom-houſe upon foreign goods imported into this kingdom. There are various SUBSIDIES granted by acts of parliament, according to the exigencies of public affairs. The SUBSIDY INWARDS, or OLD SUBSIDY. This duty is compoſed of a TONNAGE and POUNDAGE DUTY; which names ariſe from the different regulations, whereby it is impoſed and levied. By the act of 12 Car. II. cap. 4. it is called a TONNAGE DUTY on wines imported, being thereon regulated by a ſum certain on every ton; and it is called a POUNDAGE DUTY on other goods and merchandize imported, being thereon regulated by a CERTAIN PORTION OF A POUND (OR TWENTY SHILLINGS IN MONEY) of a certain RATE or VALUATION fixed in the BOOK OF RATES, which ſee.

TONNAGE is payable (in ready money by 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 1. 4. before landing) on all wines imported. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 16. except priſage wines. See PRISAGE. And by the 13 and 14 of Car. II. cap. 2. vinegar, perry, rape of grape, ſyder and ſyder eager, which by the 12 Car. II. cap. 4. were under the common regulation of POUNDAGE, are made ſubject to TONNAGE for this Subſidy: on all which it is to be reſpectively levied and collected according to the ſeveral acts pointed out in the BOOK of RATES.

Another ſubſidy is called the NEW SUBSIDY. It is to be raiſed, levied, and collected, by the ſame rules, orders, and methods, and under the ſame penalties and forfeitures, as ſignified in the ſeveral acts contained in the Book of Rates.

There is a ſubſidy named the ONE-THIRD SUBSIDY, which is the amount of ONE-THIRD of the preceding ſubſidy. This branch, as well as the former ſubſidies, is compoſed of a tonnage and poundage duty, and is payable in all caſes where that is due: it is to be raiſed, ſecured, and paid, by the ſame ways and means, and methods, under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and ſubject to ſuch rules and directions, as for the NEW SUBSIDY. Therefore it is to be computed by taking one-third part of the net New Subſidy of Tonnage and Poundage.

Another ſubſidy is termed the TWO-THIRDS SUBSIDY; which branch of the cuſtoms, as well as the former ſubſidies, is compoſed of a tonnage and poundage duty, and is raiſed, ſecured, and paid, by the ſame ways and methods, under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and ſubject to ſuch rules and directions, as before directed for the New Subſidy and the One-third Subſidy. It is an additional ſubſidy of two third parts of the New Subſidy upon all goods liable to the ſaid New Subſidy, except in certain caſes excepted, as per acts of parliament, and contained in the Book of Rates.

There is alſo the SUBSIDY of 1747. This branch is over and above all ſubſidies, additional duties, impoſitions, &c. a poundage duty of twelve-pence in the pound, to be paid in ready money, on all goods and merchandize imported, except for tobacco, whereon it may he ſecured by bond, according to the ſeveral particular rates or values thereof, as rated and valued in the Book of Rates referred to by 12 Car. II. and 11 Geo. I. or by any other act of parliament, &c.

This duty is to be levied and collected by the ſame ways and means, and under the ſame penalties, &c. as are directed for the Old Subſidy. See the concluſion of Letter A, in regard to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, containing an ENQUIRY whether the merchant-importers of this kingdom are not intitled to certain DISCOUNTS, which they have never yet received.

SUBSIDIES on SPIRITS. By 9 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 17. all the duties ariſing by ſpirits from September 29, 1736, are united to, and made part of the aggregate fund; and from that time the ſeveral duties then payable on ſpirits imported are accounted for in one ſum, under the title of SUBSIDIES ON SPIRITS. See SAXBY.

SUBSIDY, and ONE PER CENT. OUTWARDS, with the duties on leather, white woollen cloths, foreign goods uſed in dyeing, exported.

THE SUBSIDY OUTWARDS.

By 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 2. was granted, as part of the ſubſidy of poundage, and continued therewith to Auguſt 1, 1710.—9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 1. revived from March 1710, for 32 years.—3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1. continued for ever; and is made part of the general fund by that act eſtabliſhed.—This ſubſidy, as well as the Subſidy Inwards, is compoſed of a TONNAGE and a POUNDAGE, and is to be paid in ready money before ſhipping off, in order for exportation.

ONE PER CENT. OUTWARDS.

This duty is payable in ready money, without diſcount, upon all goods and merchandizes liable to SUBSIDY *, exported from any part of Great-Britain, capable of a ſhip or veſſel of 200 tons upon an ordinary full ſea, to any part or place in the Mediterranean ſea, beyond the port of Malaga, in any ſhip or veſſel that hath not two decks, and doth carry leſs than 16 pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable.

* It is underſtood practically, that FOREIGN GOODS USED IN DYEING, enumerated in the portable Book of Rates, are not liable to this duty of one per cent.

The SUBSIDY granted in the year 1758-9, of poundage upon certain goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and by the ſame act, an additional inland duty on coffee and chocolate. This duty is of 12d. in the pound, or 5 per cent. granted on tobacco, foreign linens, ſugar, and other grocery, as the ſame is underſtood in the Book of Rates, except currants; Eaſt-India goods, except coffee and raw ſilks; foreign brandy and ſpirits, except rum of the produce of the Britiſh ſugar plantations; and paper, imported—Said ſubſidy is granted to be paid on goods, as the ſame are valued in the Book of Rates, and to be levied and paid into the Exchequer, as the ſubſidy of 5 per cent. granted by 21 Geo. II. or of the year 1747. See the Concluſion of the Letter A, relating to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.—Prize goods are to be charged only with the duties payable by act of Geo. II. unleſs taken out of the warehouſes for home conſumption.—Allowance to be made to the importer of tobacco, on paying down the duty.—Bond to be given on non-payment of the duty; and the importers to have the uſual allowances and diſcounts.—Drawback of the duty allowed upon the exportation of goods within 3 years; except for ſuch goods as are by former acts declared no drawback ſhall be paid or allowed on exportation thereof.—Drawback of the duty allowed on paper uſed in printing books in the learned languages in both univerſities, as is preſcribed by act of 10 Annæ.—Like drawback allowed on paper uſed in printing books in the learned languages in the univerſities of Scotland.—A drawback of 3 ſhillings per hundred weight allowed on ſugar refined in Great-Britain, and exported.—Refiner to make oath.—Exporter to make oath.—Searcher to certify the ſhipping thereof, and all other requiſites being performed according to the Book of Rates.

Beſides the ſeveral foregoing ſubſidies payable at the cuſtom-houſe, there are a variety of other duties paid there, under various circumſtances, as the ſame are ſet forth in the portable Book of Rates; in all which the merchant ſhould be well informed, as follow, viz. The PETTY CUSTOMS, or ALIEN'S DUTY, ADDITIONAL DUTY, COMPOSITION ON PETTY SEIZURES, IMPOST ON WINES AND VINEGAR, IMPOST ON TOBACCO, IMPOST 1690, IMPOST 1692, DUTY ON WHALE-FINS, DUTY OF 15 PER CENT ON MUSLINS, DUTY ON SPICES, PICTURES, &c. ADDITIONAL DUTY ON SPICES, PICTURES, AND DUTY ON DRUGS, &c. SECOND 25 PER CENT. ON FRENCH GOODS, COINAGE DUTY ON WINE, AND COINAGE DUTY ON SPIRITS, DUTY ON PEPPER, RAISINS, AND SPICE, DUTY ON CANDLES, ADDITIONAL DUTY ON CANDLES, DUTY ON COALS IMPORTED, AND ON COALS, CULM, AND CINDERS, BROUGHT COASTWISE, ADDITIONAL DUTY ON COALS IMPORTED, AND ON COALS, CULM, AND CINDERS BROUGHT COASTWISE. DUTY ON COALS AND CULM, FOR BUILDING CHURCHES, &c. DUTY ON HOPS, DUTY ON HIDES, SKINS, &c. DUTY ON SOAP AND PAPER, ADDITIONAL DUTY ON SOAP AND PAPER, &c. DUTY ON COALS EXPORTED, DUTY ON SAIL-CLOTH, DUTY ON WROUGHT PLATE, DUTY ON APPLES, DUTY ON WINE 1745, DUTY ON GLASS, DUTY ON LINEN YARN, DUTY ON GUM SENEGA, OF UNRATED GOODS IMPORTED, UNDERVALUED, OF PRISAGE AND BUTLERAGE. And the laſt additional DUTIES on WINES, CYDER, and PERRY, ſee the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, the end of W.

The following three branches, though no part of the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS, but being payable on foreign GOODS imported, ſhould be here taken notice of, as the EXCISE ON SALT IMPORTED, EXCISE ON LIQUORS IMPORTED, INLAND DUTY ON COFFEE, TEA, AND CHOCOLATE.

REMARKS.

SUBSIDIES, &c. at the Cuſtom-houſe.

In the firſt year after the reſtauration of king Charles the IId. * the parliament paſſed the act, granting the ſubſidy of TONNAGE and POUNDAGE, payable on merchandize imported or exported, as alſo the act for encouragement and increaſe of ſhipping and navigation; and two years after, in order to improve and inforce the execution of thoſe laws, was paſſed the act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in the CUSTOMS: and theſe three acts eſtabliſhed the foundation of the preſent ſyſtem of the cuſtoms, which has been regulated and extended by ſubſequent laws, as occaſions have required.

* Of the cuſtoms payable before the reſtauration, there yet remains a duty on wine, called PRISAGE || or BUTLERAGE, which are ancient duties payable to the crown of England (by prerogative) upon the importation of wines, but are now, and generally have been, granted from the crown by gift or patent.

|| PRISAGE is a certain taking or purveyance of wines to the king's uſe, out of every ſhip bringing wines belonging to the natives of England, except the merchants of London, the Cinque Ports, Southampton and Cheſter, which are exempted by particular charters: to be taken upon the breaking of bulk, or unloading any part of the ſhip's cargo, according to the whole quantity on board, though there be not more than one ton landed.

This duty is either SINGLE or DOUBLE.

SINGLE PRISAGE is one ton, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 10 tons, but is under 20 tons: for if under 10 tons, there is not any priſage due.

DOUBLE PRISAGE is 2 tons, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 20 tons, which is the moſt due out of any one ſhip: one ton to be taken before, and the other behind the maſt, at the pleaſure of the king's butler or priſage-maſter; who may taſte the whole cargo, and chuſe the beſt wines, and fill up the caſks, or chuſe thoſe that are the fulleſt, and take them away, allowing only † 20s. per ton for freight: but it may be compounded for at a certain price, as is the practice in London, &c.

But, in regard to wines imported into Scotland; on a cauſe in the court of Exchequer, between her Majeſty's attorney-general and James Gordon, merchant, it was decreed in the year 1713, that priſage was not payable thereon.

BUTLERAGE is a duty of two ſhillings on every ton of wine imported by merchants, ſtrangers, by Charta Mercatoria ‡, in lieu of priſage, to be paid within 40 days after the wines are landed.

|| 40 Hen. III. 28 Edw. I. 6 Edw. III. 20 Rich. II.
† 28 Edw. I. cap. 2.
‡ 31 Edw. I. cap. 1 and 2. 27 Edw. III. cap. 26.

The ſubſidy granted by the firſt of theſe acts was, by the wiſdom of our anceſtors, contrived on very ſimple, though comprehenſive principles, being payable by a determinate ſum on every ton of wine imported, and every ton of beer exported, and therefore called TONNAGE; and on other goods imported and exported, by a certain portion (generally one ſhilling in the pound ſterling) according to the reſpective valuations in a BOOK OF RATES referred to, and authorized by the ſaid act, and therefore called a POUNDAGE, together with a ſmall duty on WOOLLEN CLOTHS exported; ſo that all goods liable to cuſtoms, except wine imported, beer and woollen cloths exported, were comprehended under this ſimple regulation of poundage; and this ſubſidy, ſo far as it relates to merchandize imported, is known by the name of Cuſtoms, or Old Cuſtoms.

But this ſimplicity of principles was not long adhered to with that care and attention it deſerved; for by 15 and 22 of Car. II. the Subſidy on Corn imported was altered from a poundage duty on the Rates of Valuations, to certain ſums payable by the quarter, according to the ſeveral ſpecies, and the various circumſtances of importation; and by 25 Car. II. whale-fins and whale-oil underwent the like alterations.

In the ſhort reign of king James II. two new duties were granted, the IMPOST ON WINE, and the IMPOST ON TOBACCO; that on wine was ſtrictly on the principles of TONNAGE; but that on tobacco being by a certain ſum payable on each pound weight, no regard was had, ſo as to regulate it by a poundage on the valuation thereof in the Book of Rates. There were other duties laid on, but having been temporary, and not continued, it is not neceſſary to take notice of them.

The neceſſities of the ſtate, in order to ſupport a war againſt France in the reigns of king William and queen Anne, occaſioned the laying on many additional duties of cuſtoms, the two firſt of which were, Impoſitions 1690, and 1692, on merchandizes imported, &c. Though, in drawing the acts for thoſe duties, due regard was not had to the principle of POUNDAGE; yet it was not altogether unattended to, there being many ſpecies of goods in both theſe duties, which are regulated by a poundage duty on their reſpective valuations in the Book of Rates. Some branches are ſtrictly according to the principles of poundage; and ſome being on the plan of the old cuſtoms, are conſonant to the original principles of tonnage and poundage: in other branches, to the number of above 20, laid on during the reigns of king William, queen Anne, king George the Firſt and king George the Second, theſe principles have been either not underſtood, or altogether neglected, except, ſays Mr. Saxby, in the ſubſidy of 1747, which being deſigned as a poundage duty only, and therefore formed on that ſpecies of the principles of the old cuſtoms, was conſtructed with great judgment and ſimplicity; and the more ſo, as it is not incumbered or obſcured with diſcounts.

What Mr. Saxby has here obſerved, we think is liable to objection. For however ſimple and judicious that ſubſidy was conſtructed, we cannot apprehend it ever the more ſo, by reaſon of its being unincumbered with diſcount, in favour of the merchant, as the old ſubſidy, the new ſubſidy, the $\frac{1}{3}$ ſubſidy, and the $\frac{2}{3}$ ſubſidies, are not unincumbered with the allowance of diſcount to the merchants, on conſideration of the preſent payment of the duty. For it is no leſs eaſy to compute the ſubſidy of 1747, with a diſcount of 5 per cent. than either of the other ſubſidies before mentioned. But if the ſubſidy of 1747 is unincumbered with the allowance of diſcount to our merchants, as in the caſes of the other ſaid diſcount, we ſhould be glad to be informed, by what authority the merchants are not intitled to the diſcount on payment of the duties purſuant to the act of 1747? Is not this ſubſidy-act of 1747, founded on that of 12 Car. II? And does not that act allow the merchants the diſcount of 5 per cent. in the 17th rule contained in that act? In what peculiar clauſe or part of the ſubſidy-act of 1747, does it deviate from that particular allowance in the act of 12 Car. II? Is not alſo the ſubſidy-act of 1747, founded on that of the 11th of Geo. I? and is not this latter grounded on that of Car. II.? and wherein does that of Geo. I. deviate from that of Car. II. with relation to the diſcount allowed to the merchant, according to the 27 rules, ſigned Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, Bart. then ſpeaker of the houſe of commons? We can diſcover nothing in the act of 1747, which does repeal the ſaid 17th rule, and thereby deprive the merchants of the diſcount legally allowed them. If we are miſtaken in this matter, we ſhall thankfully be ſet to rights.—We ſtarted our doubts on this point, when we printed the firſt edition of this work; but as we did not judge it eligible to oppoſe the practice of the cuſtom-houſe, leſt we ſhould err in our private judgment, we then computed the duty, conſiſtent with ſuch practice. Since that, we have more deliberately conſidered this affair, and confeſs, that we have not found ſufficient reaſon to diſſipate our doubts; and we have given our reaſons more fully on this occaſion, in the Cuſtom-houſe Buſineſs treated of in this edition at the end of our Letter A; and for the reaſons there urged, we have declined to make any further tabular computation of the duties of cuſtoms, leſt we ſhould miſguide the whole mercantile body in a point that materially concerns their intereſt.

Another motive to induce us to decline theſe computations is, that we are informed that Mr. Saxby of the cuſtom-houſe is about this work already, and has been engaged ſome time therein; becauſe, ſince his Book of Rates was publiſhed, there has been another freſh ſubſidy-act of 1759; which has rendered his former book out of date, with reſpect to the totals of thoſe computed duties that render his book conſiſtent with the laſt ſubſidy-act of 1759.

The remainder of the introduction of Mr. Saxby's Book of Rates is ſpent chiefly in animadverting upon the errors of the books of rates that were compoſed by others, his predeceſſors; on which ſubject it is wiſhed he had dwelt longer, as he ſeems to have intended; ſeeing, as he intimates, that he received great aſſiſtance from ſeveral gentlemen in various departments of the cuſtom-houſe. However, for ſeveral of the judicious obſervations he has made, the public are obliged to him; and we hope and expect that his new Book of Rates will rectify more of the errors of thoſe who treated on the ſame ſubject before him; and that he will render the whole buſineſs of the cuſtoms more intelligible, as well to the merchants as the officers of that revenue.

'The allowances, bounties, and drawbacks payable on Britiſh goods exported, Mr. Saxby obſerves, and the premiums on other goods imported, &c. being a part of buſineſs not ſo immediately obvious to the officers of the cuſtoms, have not been heretofore ſo well digeſted and collected as they might have been; for though part of them have been extremely well done, others have been but ſlightly touched, and ſome quite omitted: but, continues he, as they are now become very numerous, and in regard to bounties and premiums a very extenſive and formidable branch of buſineſs of the cuſtoms, it became neceſſary that the merchants, as well as

officers, ſhould be well inſtructed therein, &c.' In theſe particulars Mr. Saxby's book is more accurate and extenſive than any of thoſe of his predeceſſors. What we would chiefly intimate here is, that theſe candid acknowlegements, and uſeful improvements made by that gentleman, will ſerve to convince us, that there has been as little infallibility in books of rates wrote by officers of the cuſtoms as by others; and therefore it is not impoſſible that there may be miſtakes therein relative to the ſubſidy of 1747, as well as ſo many other points already explained by Mr. Saxby. See the concluſion of our Letter A, with reſpect to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Mr. Saxby concludes his introduction, by remarking, 'that it muſt not be omitted, that a diſtant proſpect and hope that the legiſlature might ſome time undertake to reform and reduce the rates, branches, &c. of this revenue, ſtrongly pointed out the neceſſity of reſtoring and preſerving the true text of the rates, as it would be in vain to attempt any regulations of that kind, till this were well executed; and this naturally leads to further ſpeculations on the ſame ſubject; for the book of rates, of 1660, bears the marks of great antiquity, many of the terms therein being ſo obſolete as not now to be found elſewhere in the Engliſh language; and by comparing it with that of 1642, it is apparent to be no other than an old book of rates of former times, reviſed and corrected, ſo as to ſuit the circumſtances of import and export of that period; and when one conſiders the great alterations and improvements which have been made in every branch of trade and manufactures throughout the world during the laſt age, it may be eaſily conceived that the names and value of ſuch ſpecies of goods as were made and conſumed an hundred years ago, will in many reſpects but ill fit thoſe of the preſent times: but this is a large field to range in; I ſhall therefore for the preſent forbear to explain myſelf further on this ſubject, and ſhall only take the liberty to recommend to the preſent age an aphoriſm of a great man in the laſt: As time changes things for the worſe, ſo ſhould prudence alter them for the better.'—So far Mr. Saxby, who not only gives us hope of a more correct book of rates than we ever had before, but that a general reform may be made in the cuſtoms, by the legiſlature, with reſpect to the rates of goods; which the ſooner the ſame is done, we think the better it will be for the intereſt of the nation. See our INTRODUCTION to this edition.

Before we leave this article, we ſhall only notice another paragraph in Mr. Saxby: 'The branches of the cuſtoms having many of them gone through various alterations of appropriation ſince their firſt eſtabliſhment, the detail of ſuch alterations is herein purpoſely omitted, and no more is inſerted than their preſent ſituation, that being ſufficient for the uſe and inſtruction of the officers.' To which we ſhall only obſerve, that as thoſe alterations of appropriation in this branch of the revenue have never proved injurious to the PUBLIC CREDIT; ſo we may preſume that the like alterations of appropriation in other branches of the revenue could not prove ſo neither; for if the national creditors are ſecure of their intereſt by parliament, they do not ſeem to pay ſo much regard to the appropriation of any peculiar duties or taxes for that purpoſe.

SUFFOLK is a maritime county in England, having the German Ocean on the eaſt, Cambridgeſhire on the weſt, the river Stour on the ſouth, which divides it from Eſſex, and the rivers Ouſe, the Leſs, and Waveney on the north, which part it from Norfolk; and is in compaſs about 140 miles.

The air is very clear and wholſome, even near the ſea-ſhore, becauſe the beach is generally ſandy and ſhelly. As to the ſoil, it is various. Its chief commodities are butter and cheeſe, and the principal manufactures of Suffolk are woollen and linen cloth.

IPSWICH, the county-town, has a conſiderable trade by ſea, but not ſo great as formerly, when its harbour was more commodious. Its chief manufactures are linen and woollen.

ALDBOROUGH, on the coaſt, has a good harbour and trade in the fiſhery, abundance of ſprats, ſoles, and lobſters, being caught in the ſea here.

SUDBURY ſtands on the river Stour, which almoſt ſurrounds it. They drive here a good trade in perpetuanas, ſays, ſerges, &c. The Stour has of late years been made navigable for barges and ſmall craft, as far as Maningtree in Eſſex, which is a great benefit to the trade of this place, and no ſmall addition to its wealth.

EYE is a mean-built town, in the road betwixt Ipſwich and Norwich. Its chief manufacture is bone-lace and ſpinning.

HALESWORTH is a large and populous town on the river Blythe, with a manufacture of linen yarn, of which great quantities are ſold here, ſpun by the women of this town and the adjacent villages.

SOUTHWOLD, a ſmall corporation on the coaſt, has a good harbour. It is a populous town, and drives a conſiderable trade in ſalt, old beer, herrings, ſprats, &c. which laſt are cured here in the ſame manner as herrings at Yarmouth.

LEOSTOFF ſtands on the eaſtermoſt point of England. The chief trade of the inhabitants is fiſhing for cod in the North Sea; and for herrings, mackarel, and ſprats, at home.

STOW-MARKET on the Orwel, has a manufacture of tammies and other Norwich ſtuffs.

WOODBRIDGE, on the river Deben, which being navigable by ſhips of conſiderable burthen to the town, its inhabitants drive a pretty good trade to London, Newcaſtle, Holland, &c. with butter, cheeſe, ſalt, plank, and ſeveral other ſorts of merchandize, in their pinks and boys, which go to and from London every week.

LAVENHAM is a pretty large town on a branch of the river Bret. It has a conſiderable manufacture of ſerges, ſhalloons, ſays, ſtuffs, and ſpinning fine yarn for London; which has flouriſhed the more by ſetting up a wool-hall, of which many hundred loads are ſent from hence in a year. Its fair, which is on Michaelmas-day, is in great repute, eſpecially for good butter and cheeſe.

BILDESTON is noted for its woollen manufacture, but it is a dirty place, and the buildings are mean.

CLARE is another mean-built, dirty town, but has a manufacture of ſays.

HADLEY is a pretty large populous town, and tolerably well built. It is of ſome note ſtill, though of much greater formerly, for a manufacture of woollen cloth.

NEYLAND on the Stour is a large town, and has a manufacture of bays and ſays, which alſo was formerly much greater than now.

STRATFORD on the ſame river, is a thoroughfare-ſtage from Ipſwich to London, of great traffic, and employed in the woollen manufactures. It is ſaid that 300 droves of turkies have paſſed in one ſeaſon over its bridge towards London, computed at 500 in a drove, one with another.

EASTERBERGHOLT is another large handſome village, employed alſo in the woollen manufacture, but not ſo much as formerly.

SUGAR.

The manner in which SUGAR is drawn from the canes.

The Americans having cut their canes above the firſt joint, and freed them from their leaves, make them into bundles and carry them to the mill, which is compoſed of three rollers of an equal ſize, and equally armed with plates of iron, where the canes are to paſs. The roller in the middle is raiſed much higher than the reſt, to the end that the two poles, which are affixed croſsways at the top, and to which the beaſts are yoaked, may turn about freely, without being hindered by the machine. The great roller in the middle is ſurrounded with a cog full of teeth, which bite upon the ſides of the two other rollers adjoining to it, which makes them turn about, grind and bruiſe the canes, which paſs quite round the great roller, and come out dry, and ſqueezed from all their juice.

If by accident the Indian, or whoever feeds the mill with canes, ſhould happen to have his fingers catched in the mill, they muſt immediately cut off his arm, leſt the whole body ſhould be drawn in and ground to pieces: therefore, as ſoon as they ſee any one have his finger or hand catched, the perſon ſtanding by cuts off his arm with a hanger, and he is afterwards cured, and kept for other ſervice. The juice falling into a veſſel which is below the mill, and being drawn off, runs by a little channel into the firſt boiler, which holds about two hogſheads, where it is heated by a ſmall fire, and ſet a boiling, in order to make a very thick ſcum ariſe: the Weſt-Indians keep this ſcum to feed their cattle with. This liquor being well ſcummed is put into a ſecond boiler, where they make it boil again, throwing in, from time to time, warm water, in which they have beat up ſome eggs: having been thus purified, they paſs it through ſtrainers; and, after it has done running, put it into a third boiler, which is of braſs or copper, and then again, upon another refining, into a fourth boiler; and when it begins to cool, and they find it riſes to a grain, they paſs a ſkimmer, or wooden ſpatula, underneath it, from the right to the left, to ſee what quality the graining is of: the ſugar being thus ready, while it remains hot, is caſt into moulds, or earthen-pots with holes in their bottoms, yet ſhut: at the end of twenty-four hours, which is the ordinary time, the ſugar takes to incorporate, the negroes carry their pots into their warehouſes, and after they have opened the holes, and pierced the ſugar, they ſet the moulds upon little pots, or jars, in order to receive the ſyrup or moloſſes which runs from it. When the ſyrup is run from the ſugar, they take it out of the mould, and cut it afterwards with a knife; and this ſugar cut in this manner, is called the grey muſcavado ſugar; which, to be in its perfection, ought to be of a whitiſh grey, dry, have the leaſt fat, or ſmelling of the fire, that may be. This muſcavado is the baſis and foundation of all the other ſugars ſold among us.

It is but little in uſe, though very proper to make ſyrups and coloured comfits.

Of CASSONADE, or POWDER SUGAR.

The caſſonade is made from the grey muſcavado run again, and after it has been clarified, ſtrained, and boiled, and caſt into the moulds, and ſo prepared as we have been ſpeaking before. After the ſyrup is drained out, they lay upon th

ſugar about an inch thickneſs of clay, wetted with common water, that the moiſture which is in the clay, may get through the ſugar, and take away with it whatever fat or bad matter might remain in it: when it will run no longer, and the clay at the top is dry, they take the ſugar out of the moulds, and cut the cakes into three pieces, the top, the middle, and the bottom, which they dry ſeparately, according to their fineneſs. The fineſt powder ſugar is that of Brazil, which is extremely white, dry, and well grained, of a violet taſte and flavour. The caſſonade, or powder ſugar, is much in uſe among the confectioners; above all, that of Brazil, by reaſon that it is leſs ſubject to candy, upon which account the confectioners value it the more. The ſugar, which we improperly call ſugar of ſeven pounds weight, becauſe it as often weighs ten or twelve, is made of the grey muſcavado, formed into loaves, as we have deſcribed before. The ſugar of ſeven pounds is diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, to wit, the white, the ſecond, and the laſt, which is of a browner colour; the whiter the ſugar is, the better ſtoved, grained, and dried, the more it is eſteemed. The leſs the moulds are, that is, the leſs the loaf is made, and the whiter it is, ſo much the dearer it is.

The uſe of this is to make choice ſyrups, white confects, and to preſerve apricots, and the like.

Of Sugar Royal, and Demy Royal.

The ſugar called royal, from its extraordinary whiteneſs, is made from the ſmall white ſugar, or powder ſugar of Brazil, melted and caſt into a loaf as the former. This ſugar royal ought to be extremely white throughout the whole, that is to ſay, as fine at the top as the bottom, of a clear, compact, ſhining grain, notwithſtanding eaſy to break; which is the general obſervation of ſugars that are well baked, and of a kindly ſort. We ſell, beſides, another ſort we call demy royal, which is a ſmall ſugar-loaf, very white, and wrapped in a blue paper, which comes from Holland.

The Dutch formerly brought us ſugars of eighteen and twenty pounds, wrapped in palm-leaves inſtead of paper; for which reaſon it was called palm-ſugar, which was a white fat ſugar of a good ſort, and a violet taſte. We uſed to have, beſides, another ſugar from the Madeiras; but we have no more of it now, becauſe we have it from ſeveral other iſlands much better.

Of Brown Sugar.

This brown ſugar is one ſort of the muſcavado, which they turn to powder ſugar, and is made of the ſyrup of the ſeven-pound ſugar, after the ſame manner as the others are made. It ought to be of a greyiſh red colour, dry, and not ſmelling of burning; for there is ſome to be met with ſo moiſt, and with ſo much of the burnt ſmell, that it is almoſt impoſſible to uſe it. The uſe of the brown ſugar was formerly very conſiderable, it ſerving to put in clyſters, &c. Theſe moloſſes are better for diſtilling rum than the muſcavado ſugar.

SUGAR COLONIES, British.

Of Barbadoes.

The growing ſucceſs of this ſugar colony promoted the ſettlement of the others, and, as the ſugar plantations increaſed, more hands were required to carry on the works than could, at that time, be ſpared from home. This gave birth to the Guinea trade, for ſupplying thoſe colonies with negro ſlaves; and as the planters flouriſhed and increaſed, ſo did their demands for all ſorts of Britiſh manufactures, and ſuch neceſſaries of life as they could not produce in thoſe climates, which opened another ſcene of trade to the Britiſh merchants, to furniſh theſe new colonies with wine from Madeira.

Theſe branches of trade were of the utmoſt advantage to Great-Britain, foraſmuch as they drew no money out of the kingdom, but yearly brought in large ſums, for Britiſh manufactures exported thither. The trade to this iſland was commonly open and free; for, before the civil war in England, the Dutch ſhips came hither to purchaſe ſugars, as well as the Engliſh; but, ſince the Reſtoration, ſeveral acts of parliament have been made, to confine the trade of the ſugar colonies to Great-Britain, and Britiſh ſhips only; which reſtraints ſoon made London the chiefeſt mart in Europe for ſugar; and, as there was yearly more imported than was neceſſary for home conſumption, the merchants exported the ſurplus to foreign markets, and, by underſelling the Portugueze, who had conſiderable ſugar-works in the Brazils, they gradually beat them almoſt out of all their ſugar trade to the northward of Cape Finiſterre.

This trade of re-exporting ſugars, was carried on for many years with great ſucceſs. Mr. Gee ſays, that, by this trade only, ſuch an increaſe of treaſure and wealth was brought into this kingdom, as yearly added three or four hundred thouſand pounds to the ſtock of the nation; which, in thirty years time, amounted to upwards of ten millions ſterling. Others have computed the clear profits accruing to Great-Britain from the ſugar trade, and thoſe other branches which chiefly depend upon thoſe iſlands, to amount to more than a million a year. A few years ſince, it appeared, by the cuſtom-houſe accounts, that the value of the annual exports from Great-Britain to the ſugar colonies, was five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; and on importations from thoſe iſlands, more than twelve hundred thouſand pounds per annum. And if the value of our exports to Guinea and the Madeiras, which are the effects of the ſugar trade, were added to the former, it would greatly augment the ſum, and, conſequently, enlarge the profit, which our mother-country received from the ſugar colonies, and the ſeveral branches of trade depending thereon. Certain it is, that while the ſugar trade flouriſhed, both planters and merchants grew immenſely rich, and the trade and navigation of Great-Britain was carried on to a much greater height than ever it was before. And this great ſource of wealth and treaſure to their mother-country, aroſe from ſo ſmall a beginning as a few families ſeeking ſhelter in a deſolate iſland.

This ſhews what may be done by induſtry and trade, rightly applied. When the ſugar trade was at this height, the flouriſhing ſtate of Great-Britain alarmed her neighbours, and put them upon ways to circumvent her in trade, as the only means to put a ſtop to the growing ſtrength of the kingdom, which they feared might become too formidable, from the great increaſe of ſeamen and ſhipping employed in the Weſt-India and Guinea trades, both flouriſhing at the ſame time. Upon a parliamentary enquiry into the ſtate of the trade to Africa, in the year 1728, it appeared to the houſe, that, in three years time only, the number of negroes imported at Barbadoes, Jamaica, and Antigua, amounted to 42,000, beſides what were carried to St Chriſtopher's, Nevis, and Montſerrat.

True it is, however, that our ſugar trade in general has, of late years, greatly declined. The French ſpared no expence or labour to rival Great-Britain in this capital article, they well knowing, if that ſunk, her Guinea and Madeira trades muſt ſink in proportion; for which purpoſe they embraced every opportunity to improve their ſugar plantations, which they have done to a very extraordinary height; and ſuch has been the wiſdom of their councils, that the effect could not be otherwiſe.—For proof of which, ſee our articles French African Trade and Company, and French America, where we have laid before the nation the meaſures which the French have many years taken for that purpoſe.

The French having thus put their ſugar colonies into a flouriſhing condition, the next thing they had in view, was to beat the Britiſh merchants out of the foreign markets for ſugar, and thereby deſtroy their trade for exportation; and this they effected, by giving liberty for their ſhips to carry their ſugars directly to the foreign markets, while ours were obliged to import all into Great-Britain, which enabled them to ſell ſo much cheaper than our merchants could carry it from London, which almoſt put an intire ſtop to that valuable branch of trade to their mother-country.

The firſt declenſion of our exportation trade was attended with ſuch ill conſequences to the ſugar colonies, that it lowered the price of ſugar ſo much at home, as diſcouraged the merchants from ſending to purchaſe ſugars. This obliged the ſugar planters to turn merchant-adventurers in a declining trade, and to ſhip their ſugars upon their own account and riſque. This put a ſtop to the currency of caſh, which was before brought over yearly to purchaſe ſugars, and laid the whole burthen of freight, duty, and commiſſion, upon the plantation, that were formerly paid by the Britiſh merchants: and ſuppoſe but 15,000 hogſheads of ſugar to be ſhipped in a year from this iſland of Barbadoes, on gentlemen's own accounts, theſe three articles will amount to upwards of 60,000 l. ſterling. Another great evil, that followed from the ſame cauſe, was, combinations among the buyers, by which the price of ſugars ſunk ſo low, as greatly to prejudice the planters, and yet turned to the benefit only of a few private perſons, who were the firſt purchaſers, and not at all to that of the conſumers in general; by which that iſland was greatly prejudiced, and this received very little benefit.

The iſland of Barbadoes is generally eſteemed to be little bigger than the Iſle of Wight, and to contain 100,000 acres. About the year 1626, this country was not only unſettled, but uninhabitable, as affording nothing for the ſupport of life, and over-run with ſhrub-wood, which gave a great deal of trouble to the firſt planters; yet, in the ſpace of 50 years, this plantation came to an extraordinary height, and peopled with 50,000 whites, of whom 20,000 were able to bear arms, and 80,000 negroes. Within 20 years after the colony was ſettled, they muſtered 11,000 horſe and foot, which would be incredible, if we had not ſuch proofs of theſe facts as put them beyond doubt.

In ſhort, this iſland roſe to ſuch a pitch in the year 1661, that king Charles II. created, on the ſame day, 13 baronets, in Barbadoes, none of them having leſs than 1000, and ſome of them 10,000 l. a year. At this time their trade actually maintained 400 ſail of ſhips; and it was computed that the running caſh of the iſland was not leſs than 200,000 l. and their annual exportation to Great-Britain, in ſugar, indico, ginger, and other commodities, at leaſt 300,000 l. Theſe

facts

facts demonſtrate the great value of this iſland, at the time we are ſpeaking of; and, by the gradual increaſe of this colony, it has, ſince we firſt poſſeſſed it, contributed beyond conception to the riches of its mother-country.

When this colony was in its moſt flouriſhing condition, which was in the year 1676, there were 400 ſail of ſhips, of 150 tons, one with another, employed annually in this trade; and if we reckon only that the ſea-men, ſhip-builders, and other trades that live by theſe veſſels, amounted, in the whole, to 10,000 ſouls, that will be no immoderate computation. The ſugars that came from Barbadoes, were either ſpent at home, or ſent abroad; and I reckon, that, in the manufacturing the ſugars, and vending them at home and abroad, there might be 20,000 people more employed. To theſe we muſt add, ſuch as got their bread by the goods and manufactures yearly exported from hence to Barbadoes, for almoſt all that the people eat, drink, and wear there, are the product of England; ſo that the computation cannot be thought to riſe too high, if we allow, that in this way 20,000 more get their bread, which will make about 50,000 in the whole, all ſupported here by the labour and induſtry of the whites and negroes in that country. We are next to compute the money brought into this nation by the export of the commodities imported from thence, which was that year allowed to be above 200,000 l. and it was alſo agreed, that as much, or more, had been gained every year, between that time and the Reſtoration.

I ſhall ſay nothing of the money ariſing to the Exchequer from the duties, though this might be computed at 30,000 l. per annum; but that, from the year 1636 to 1656, which is 20 years, this colony produced but half ſo much: and, though it may be true, that, before the year 1640, it did not produce a quarter ſo much, yet, in the remaining part of that period, it certainly brought in a great deal more; and therefore we cannot be far from the truth, in computing that this nation acquired two millions in money, by Barbadoes, in that 20 years. In the next 20, that is, from 1656 to 1676, when it is allowed this iſland was in its moſt flouriſhing condition, there muſt have been gained four millions of money; and allowing for the gradual falling off of this trade, by a multitude of unlucky accidents, but more particularly by the ſettling the French ſugar iſlands, we ſhall compute the laſt 70 years, from 1676 to 1736, at the ſame rate we did the firſt 20 years, and the gains will then amount to SIX MILLIONS: ſo that in the ſpace of 100 years, the inhabitants of Great-Britain have received 12 millions in ſilver, by the means of this plantation, and had 50,000 of her inhabitants maintained by the people of that colony all the time.

I have inſiſted the longer upon this topic, becauſe it may enable us to form ſome notion of what might be made of our plantations, if we attended to them as much as they deſerve; for though it may be, and perhaps is, impoſſible, to improve any of them in proportion to what has been done in Barbadoes, yet we may well enough diſcern from hence, that they might be made inconteſtibly more profitable to us than they now are, or, indeed, than the whole trade that we now poſſeſs; and if, at the ſame time we reflect on this, we likewiſe conſider that there is nothing ſo abſolutely in our power as the improvement of our colonies, it will moſt certainly appear to be the point, which, of all others, imports us moſt.

We are next to ſpeak of the iſland of ST CHRISTOPHER, which was diſcovered by Chriſtopher Columbus. It is ſituated in the latitude 17 degrees, 25 minutes, on this ſide the Line, and is about 75 miles in circuit; the Caribbeans inhabited it when Sir Thomas Warner, an Engliſh adventurer, took poſſeſſion thereof; and Monſ. Deſnambuc, a French gentleman, who commanded for the French in America, took poſſeſſion the ſame day. Theſe two adventurers ſettled this colony harmoniouſly, 'till queen Anne's war broke out, when the Engliſh drove the French intirely from their ſettlements; and the country being yielded to the crown of Great-Britain by the peace of Utrecht, all the French territories were ſold, for the benefit of the public, which muſt have produced a very large ſum, ſince out of it there was 80,000 l. paid for the marriage-portion of her royal highneſs the princeſs of Orange.

There were ſome indeed, who pretended, that notwithſtanding the French part of the iſland of St Chriſtopher's was by far the richeſt, we were no gainers by obtaining it, but that, on the contrary, the French received benefit thereby, becauſe it enabled them to people the reſt of their iſlands more effectually; but whoever conſiders that the ſugars of this iſland are inferior to none in all America, that the plantations were in perfect order, and that the French ventured a war to prevent our ſettling St Lucia and St Vincent, will ſcarce be brought to believe that they parted with a country ready ſettled, and more valuable than both thoſe iſlands, with their goodwill. The treaty of Utrecht was ſo indifferent a treaty, that I think there is no ſort of neceſſity for making it appear worſe than it really was. The ſame perſons who firſt ſettled St Chriſtopher's, likewiſe ſettled NEVIS, about the year 1628; and notwithſtanding the misfortune of being diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards, in 20 years time there were at leaſt 4000 people upon the iſland, and they continued increaſing in the ſame manner, by a ſucceſſion of prudent governors, for a conſiderable ſpace. After the Reſtoration, when trade and peace flouriſhed, this iſle enjoyed its ſhare of the benefit, and increaſed the inhabitants and riches; the only enemy they had to ſtruggle with was the hurricane, which generally viſited them once a year.

We are to proceed next to the iſland of MONTSERRAT, which name the Spaniards gave to this iſland, from the reſemblance it has to a mountain in Catalonia, not far from Barcelona.

This iſland flouriſhed, at firſt, more than Antigua; but ſince the lord Willoughby's time, the latter has got, and kept, the ſtart of it. There were 700 men in Montſerrat, 16 years after it was firſt inhabited. As to the climate, ſoil, animals, trade, and productions of this iſle, they are much the ſame with thoſe of the other Caribbee iſlands, only this has more mountains, which are covered with cedars, and other trees, that make it a lovely proſpect from the ſea. The vallies are fruitful, and better ſtored with freſh water than thoſe of Antigua. According to the beſt accounts that have been received from this iſland of late years, it is rather increaſing, both in the number of people, and in the value of their ſettlements, than not; as to the former, it is computed there may be about 4,500 white perſons, and about 12,000 negroes, in this country.

The iſland of BARBUDA lies in the latitude 17 degrees 30 minutes north, is about 15 miles long, and lies north-eaſt from the iſland we were laſt ſpeaking of. The land is low and fruitful, and the Engliſh began to plant it as early as Nevis, Montſerrat, or any other of the Leeward Iſlands, St Chriſtopher's excepted. There are now about 1,200 perſons upon it, and their number is daily increaſing. The proprietor is the honourable Chriſtopher Codrington, Eſq; and he puts in a governor here, having the ſame prerogative as the other lords proprietors, in their ſeveral juriſdictions in America. This iſland has bred great ſtore of cattle, and the inhabitants employ themſelves moſtly in that ſort of huſbandry, corn and proviſions coming generally to a good market in the ſugar iſlands. There is plenty of almoſt all ſorts of tame cattle, as in Europe; and the Engliſh live here much after the ſame manner as they do in the counties in England, only their labour in the field is not ſo hard as here, the country being ſo much hotter.

The next plantation to this, if it may be properly ſo called, is ANGUILLA: it lies in 18 degrees 12 minutes. The country is level and woody, the ſoil fruitful, and the tobacco that grew there formerly was reckoned very good in its kind. They have no great quantities of ſugars upon the iſland, but addict themſelves rather to farming, in which they have had very good ſucceſs; and this it is that enables them to live in the old patriarchal way, every man being a kind of ſovereign in his own family, and no other government there is in Anguilla.

We have now gone through the Leeward Iſlands, except ANTIGUA, which we now take notice of, according to the order of time in its ſettlement. This iſland lies in 16. 11. north latitude, 63 longitude weſt from London: it is about 20 miles in diameter, and 60 in circumference. The climate, though not to be greatly boaſted of, yet it is a very conſiderable and thriving plantation. It has greater plenty of cattle, and particularly veniſon, than any other of the Caribbee iſlands; the animals whereof are much the ſame, as alſo their productions. Their ſugar and tobacco were formerly very indifferent, but the planters have ſince improved their art, and as good muſcavado ſugar is now made there, as in any of our ſugar iſlands: they have alſo clayed ſome ſugar, which was unknown in Antigua about 40 years ago.

Though there is not much tobacco planted in this iſland, what there is at preſent is far preferable to what it was formerly. After Jamaica and Barbadoes, this has been conſidered by ſome as the moſt conſiderable of our iſlands in America; and as there is ſtill a great quantity of land capable of improvement, and it is allowed the people there might make a third more ſugar than they do; and if we conſider what muſt have been gained by our commerce with this iſland for upwards of eighty years, we cannot but judge that it has been highly advantageous to this nation, and well deſerves all concern for its protection.

We have now gone through our chief Leeward Iſlands. As to the general produce, or value, of theſe iſlands, which may ſerve to ſhew of how great conſequence they are to Great-Britain, the beſt account we have been able to obtain, is to the following effect: St Chriſtopher's is the largeſt of all the iſlands, but the middle part of it being extremely mountainous, it is thought that there are not above 20,000 acres of land fit for ſugar, in the whole iſland, which produces about 10,000 hogſheads of that valuable commodity. Antigua contains about 70,000 acres, and produces 16,000 hogſheads of ſugar yearly. Nevis is ſaid to be about 20 miles in circumference, and produces 16,000 hogſheads. Montſerrat, which is leſs than any of them, produces 2,500, and ſometimes 3,000

3,000 hogſheads of ſugar. In Barbuda they breed cattle, and in Anguilla they raiſe corn.

As to the produce of the iſland of JAMAICA, it is not eaſy to give an account thereof in a narrow compaſs; however, we ſhall give the beſt idea of it we can, and in as few words. In the firſt place, it produces large quantities of cocao, of which there ſtill comes more from this than from any of our other plantations; and as it is known to be a very rich and valuable commodity, the reader will probably be pleaſed with a particular account of it. See COCAO.

Piemento is another natural production of Jamaica, from whence it is called Jamaica pepper, alluding to its figure, and the chief place of its growth.

The wild cinnamon-tree, commonly called, though falſely, cortex winteranus, grows in this iſland.

It is not doubted but that there are both ſilver and copper mines in the iſland, though they have not yet been diſcovered by the Engliſh, as it ſeems they were by the Spaniards.

But, after all, it is the ſugar-cane that is the glory of Jamaica, by which the inhabitants have acquired ſuch immenſe riches. It is generally ſaid, that the ſugar from St Chriſtopher's is the beſt in the Leeward Iſlands; but I think it is agreed on all hands, that the ſugar made in Jamaica exceeds that of all our plantations, though it is made there with much greater eaſe, ſince it cures faſter in 10 days in Jamaica, than in ſix months in Barbadoes. There were, in the year 1670, upwards of 60 mills in Jamaica, which were computed to make about 2,000,000 of pounds weight of ſugar; but ſome writers inform us, they make 10 times as much at preſent: whether that computation be right or not, is impoſſible for me to decide; but this is certain, that there is ground enough unoccupied in that country to make much more, ſince it is 140 miles long, and 60 broad; and it contains, according to a moderate computation, 4,000,000 of acres, of which, though there may be about one fourth in which Engliſh ſubjects have property, yet, it is certain, that not above a fourth of that fourth is actually planted, and a great deal of this is employed to other purpoſes than that of raiſing ſugar. It is impoſſible to ſay preciſely what quantity may be made here, becauſe ſeaſons differ, and other accidents intervene: ſome have thought they did not riſe beyond the truth, in affirming that it has heretofore produced 100,000 hogſheads, which, though it appears a prodigious quantity, yet there are many circumſtances that concur to render it credible. As for the number of people in this iſland, they are computed to be, at this time, 70,000 white people, and 120,000 negroes.

We may from hence judge of the real advantages which this iſland affords to Great-Britain; for as all our hiſtories of Jamaica, and almoſt every voyage thither that has been printed, ſpeaks largely of the luxury and expence of all degrees of people there, which is a plain proof of their great wealth and acquiſitions; ſo we may reſt ſatisfied, that, whatever appearance there may be of magnificence among them, yet the real produce of all their labour, and of all their commerce, comes over here to Britain, and maintains and inriches the induſtrious part of our people; ſo that there can be nothing more abſurd or unreaſonable, than to grudge or envy the people ſettled there the great fortunes they acquire and poſſeſs, or to repine at the pomp and ſplendor in which they live, becauſe, whatever it may be in appearance, it is, perhaps, an indifferent reward for their dwelling at ſuch a diſtance from home, and for the hazards and labours they run through to acquire ſuch fortunes; but this will appear much more clearly, if we advert a little to the ſituation of Jamaica, and conſider the vaſt benefits that accrue from thence, in all times, and under all circumſtances, of war as well as peace.

There is conſtantly, in time of war, a conſiderable naval force kept there; and though this be attended with a great expence to the Britiſh nation, yet it certainly is, or at leaſt ought to be, a great comfort to us, that our money is ſpent with our countrymen, that it increaſes the value of their plantation, and, which is ſtill more to our purpoſe, that, ſooner or later, all that is ſpent and circulated there, by ſome channel or other, returns hither; ſo that, at the long run, the nation loſes nothing by the charge ſhe may occaſionally be at in maintaining fleets upon this coaſt. We ought likewiſe to reflect, that, in a time of war, there are many prizes taken and carried into Jamaica, which makes an unuſual, and almoſt incredible plenty of ſilver, and is the true cauſe of the dearneſs and high price of neceſſaries in that country, all which, likewiſe, in time, centers in the mother country: ſo that when we hear of great eſtates raiſed there in a ſhort ſpace of time, it ought to afford us the higheſt ſatisfaction, becauſe thoſe who make thoſe large fortunes, or their immediate deſcendants, come over hither, and either veſt their money in our funds, or purchaſe lands here. Thus a ſtate of war, which implies a ſuſpenſion of trade, produces few of the inconveniencies that uſually attend ſuch a ſuſpenſion, becauſe in Jamaica the very conſequences of war become a kind of trade, and the wealth ariſing from them takes the ſame courſe, and runs in the very individual channels that any other trade would do; that is, they finally inrich, and tend to the benefit of, England.

But, in time of peace, beſides what we draw from Jamaica, conſidered barely in the light of a ſugar plantation, we are to conſider, likewiſe, whatever accrues to the inhabitants from their intercourſe and dealings with other people, ſince whatever they gain is really our gain.

Before we quit this ſubject, it may be neceſſary to take notice of another branch of trade carried on from Jamaica, which has been made the ſubject of much debate; we mean the cutting of logwood in the bay of Campeachy. This matter came to be conſidered with the utmoſt care and circumſpection by the Board of Trade and Plantations, in the year 1717, who ſolemnly reported, That we had an undoubted right to that trade, in which the ſubjects of the crown of England had been maintained and ſupported by former kings, his Majeſty's royal predeceſſors. See the articles LOGWOOD, and LEEWARD ISLANDS in AMERICA.

REMARKS on the Britiſh ſugar colonies before the laſt war.

We have ſeen, in as narrow a compaſs as we poſſibly could, the real value and importance of theſe ſugar colonies to the crown of Great-Britain; and certain it is, it highly becomes the wiſdom of the nation, that all poſſible care be taken to give the inhabitants of thoſe colonies all manner of encouragement, and relief from any hardſhips under which they may labour; ſuch as exorbitant ſalaries to their governors, large ſums levied upon them, without being applied to their ſervice; and the difficulties under which they too often are, in obtaining ſpeedy and effectual juſtice, when perſons in public ſtations are inclined to extend their power too far, with a view to promote their private intereſt. They ſhould likewiſe have all poſſible encouragement given them for recovering that foreign trade they heretofore had, and beating out the French, and other nations, who have interfered therein; ſince in regard to both thoſe points, that the inriching the ſubjects of Great-Britain, by the ballance of trade in general, and augmenting her naval power, are the grand particulars ever to be attended to: for if it could be once brought about that either the old markets for ſugar were retrieved, or new ones opened, there is no doubt that Jamaica, and other of thoſe iſlands where there are lands fit for the purpoſe, uncultivated, would be more fully PLANTED, the inhabitants become more numerous, and their demands for manufactures from Great-Britain conſequently larger than they are at preſent. On the other hand, the ſame diligence and alacrity are requiſite, with regard to the colonies on the continent; and whatever is done to promote the trade of the ſugar colonies, muſt neceſſarily tend to the emolument of our continent plantations, which ſupply the ſugar iſlands with lumber and other things requiſite for carrying on their trade: and if, beſides this, ways and means could be found to open new channels, for the benefit of theſe colonies alſo, it ought to be done, and the protection of all our colonies ſecured by all the power that Great-Britain can poſſibly exert, conſiſtent with her own particular ſafety. See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS.

That the French ſugar colonies in America, from a very ſmall beginning, are arrived to an extraordinary pitch of proſperity, even ſince the beginning of queen Anne's reign, is very apparent; and by what wiſe and gradual ſteps they have been ſo highly advanced, deſerves the moſt ſerious attention of this nation. See our article FRENCH AMERICA.

The iſland of Martinico is the chief of theſe French ſettlements: the number of people in this iſland, by which we are obliged to compute the reſt, is affirmed to be 10,000 whites, and 20,000 negroes. Whence it appears that the French are very numerous in theſe iſlands, and they make more ſugar here than we do in the iſland of Barbadoes.—They alſo cultivate here indico, cotton, and cacao, to great advantage, and draw no little profit from the ginger, caſſia, and piemento, of which they export conſiderable quantities. They likewiſe manufacture roucou, for the uſe of dyers, and ſend home variety of medicinal gums, and ſweetmeats. The French ſugar iſlands, beſides, produce ſeveral kinds of very valuable woods, uſed for dyeing, inlaying, and cabinet work, ſuch as roſe-wood, the Indian-wood, and the iron-wood, brazelletto-wood, or fuſtic, and ebony, which is uſed as well by the cabinet-makers as the dyers.—We may add to theſe commodities, raw hides and tortoiſe-ſhells, and then we may have a tolerable comprehenſion of the wealth of the French Weſt-Indies.

Though theſe iſlands produce ſo many eſtimable commodities, yet they ſtand in need of ſupplies of divers eſſential neceſſaries, without which they could not poſſibly ſubſiſt; ſuch as horſes, and cattle of all kinds, corn, roots, dry fiſh, and all ſorts of lumber, of which they receive ſome from Canada, and the reſt from our northern colonies, in exchange for ſugar, tobacco, indico, and other goods, ſent to Canada, and for moloſſes, &c. to our northern colonies.—See our article FRENCH AMERICA, particularly our REMARKS on French America.

The inhabitants of this iſland alſo ſtand in conſtant need of negroes, with which they are now ſupplied by the French Eaſt-India company, by whom the ſlave-trade is now carried on with great regularity, and great advantage to the French colonies and nation. The negroes are ſent to Martinico, where they are purchaſed by the inhabitants of the other iſlands, at a ſettled price, of ſo many hogſheads of ſugar a

head, as in the Spaniſh ports they are bought for ſo many pieces of eight. See the article FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.—And how our African trade might be greatly advanced, as well for the intereſt of the Britiſh colonies, as of the kingdom in general, ſee our article EAST-INDIA COMPANY, for what we have there humbly ſuggeſted. To what degree the French have increaſed in the commerce of all their ſugar colonies conſidered together, ſee our article FRENCH AMERICA.—But of all the ſugar colonies that the French poſſeſs in America, there is none of more high concernment to them than that of St Domingo.—And ſhould the French once carry their point, and become ſole maſters of this iſland, we may reaſonably believe that, in few years, it would become the richeſt and moſt eſtimable country in that part of the world, eſpecially if the French ſhould abandon their other iſlands, and tranſport their inhabitants thither; and, even in that caſe, there would be no danger of its being over-peopled; and its fertility is ſuch, that they would all find room to exerciſe their induſtry, and that induſtry would be richly rewarded: beſides, this would afford them many advantages; for whereas their other iſlands are ſubject to many inconveniencies, but more eſpecially the want of proviſions, theſe would all be remedied there, and it would afford them an opportunity of increaſing their ſtrength there to ſuch a degree, as would put it out of the power of any of their neighbours to give them much diſturbance. On the contrary, they would ſoon become formidable, both to us and to the Spaniards; which is an evil, that, as it has been foreſeen in time, it is to be hoped due care will be taken to prevent its ever coming to paſs. Can we, therefore, give too much encouragement to our own ſugar colonies, when the French may one day prove ſo formidable to us by means of theirs? Nor can we affect the French in a more tender point than in that of their ſugar colonies, if a rupture at this conjuncture ſhould prove inevitable.

It is not many years ſince the principal inhabitants of Jamaica addreſſed his Majeſty, to ſhew him the decay of their trade and planting intereſt; whereby they repreſented, 'That the low value of their produce might be very juſtly attributed to the great improvement the French have made in their ſugar colonies, by the encouragement given them, particularly in allowing them to export their commodities to foreign markets, without firſt introducing them into any of the ports of France; and from the lowneſs of their duties, they could underſel them. That ſugar, and other commodities produced in the French and Dutch colonies, were frequently imported into Ireland, without introducing them into the ports of Great-Britain, and paying the duties, and, conſequently, thoſe foreigners were ſupplied with proviſions at eaſier rates. That the Britiſh northern colonies imported into Jamaica great quantities of proviſions, and other goods, for which they took no part of the produce of that iſland in exchange, a ſmall quantity of melaſſes excepted, but were paid in bullion, which they carried to Hiſpaniola, and bought ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, for their own uſe: which trade was not only unequal and injurious to the inhabitants of Jamaica, but prejudicial even to the northern colonies, and highly ſo to their mother-country, draining Jamaica of ſo much bullion in favour of France, which otherwiſe might have centered in Great-Britain.'

Though one part of this complaint has been remedied, the other is ſtill ſubſiſting: it is true, ſugar can be exported from the plantations immediately to foreign countries, but the northern colonies ſtill continue to ſupply the French with lumber, which gives them an opportunity of underſelling us both at home and abroad. The caſe is alſo the ſame with the Dutch at Curaſſoa and Surinam, where our northern colonies ſend horſes, whereby they carry on their ſugar-making, which promotes the Dutch colonies in this manufacture: and the Dutch are ſo ſenſible of this advantage, that it is a law, or order, in Surinam, That theſe northern veſſels ſhall not be admitted to trade with them, unleſs they bring ſuch a number of horſes; beſides, they import from the colonies dry goods, whereby the conſumption from Great-Britain and the ſouthern plantations is greatly diminiſhed.

The breed of ſeamen, with the increaſe and encouragement of the navigation of this kingdom, principally depend on our plantation trade and Newfoundland fiſhery; therefore their ſtate and condition ever deſerve the conſideration of our beſt patriots, for preventing the decay, loſs, or deſtruction of the trade and maritime ſtrength of Great-Britain: but we may preſume that this is moſt eſſentially to be done by DESTROYING THE FRENCH SETTLEMENTS, inſtead of encouraging their manufacture: and I wiſh that our gallant admiral Vernon had laid Hiſpaniola in aſhes, which it was once in his power to have accompliſhed, if———

Should the Engliſh be diſpoſſeſſed of Jamaica, which they may ſoon be, if the ſugar-trade is ruined; and however ſome people may believe, we ſhall not only loſe an iſland of very great conſequence to us in point of commerce, but muſt never afterwards expect to be formidable by our naval force in that part of the world, as we have been for many years paſt, by means of that iſland; for, as Dr Davenant has juſtly obſerved, 'The loſs of Jamaica muſt probably be followed with the abſolute ruin of our intereſt in America.'

It was obſerved by a gentleman of Barbadoes in a ſpeech to the council and general aſſembly of that iſland, 'That their neighbour colonies, ſo long kept by foreign fears from improving, were then encouraging trade, increaſing their people, enlarging their plantations, and cultivating their lands: that their fertile ſoil yielded them many crops from one planting, while the ſoil of the Engliſh plantations required the utmoſt art, induſtry, and manure, and that too annually.

We ſhall readily grant that the produce of Jamaica has not been leſs in value than 500,000 l. a year; and a friend to this iſland has acknowledged, that it is capable of producing THREE TIMES what it does at preſent, were but ſome laws made to prevent ſuch quantities of land being monopolized by particular perſons, obliging ſuch perſons as have very great runs of land, and will neither ſettle or ſell the ſame, that they do the one or the other, and to give encouragement for white people to come and reſide in that iſland. But it is quite different at Barbadoes, for no country known to Europeans ever exceeded this in agriculture: it had been ſaid, That if the ſoil of this iſland had not been improved, but dug, and put on board of the ſhips and veſſels that have traded hither ſince the ſettlement, they might have been ſufficient to have carried the whole iſland away: for there is ſuch great induſtry in planting and manuring the ſugar-canes, that, the land being poor, the inhabitants are obliged to dung and improve their plantations like ſo many gardens: and I wiſh the ſame poverty of ſoil is not equally apparent in the other Caribbee Iſlands ſubject to Great-Britain.

It is not above 70 years ago that Martinico was the only ſettlement the French were poſſeſſed of in the Weſt-Indies: ſince which time, they have ſettled Guadalupe, and increaſed their ſettlements in Hiſpaniola ten to one, for which they had an encouragement given them, by the duty laid upon all clayed or refined ſugar imported into France; which duty effectually prohibited, or prevented, either the Engliſh or the Dutch from ſending any thither, and, conſequently, cauſed an increaſe of the French plantations.

About 40 years ago the obſervation was made, That as the French had, within four or five years, beat us almoſt out of our indico trade, ſo it could not be much longer time before our condition would be the ſame with our ſugar trade. The obſervation has been too early verified.

The French endeavoured to ſtrengthen all trade in general; and by giving ſuch tracks of land on Hiſpaniola, as alſo by not permitting any perſon to enjoy more than what he planted and manured, they have become powerful; nay, they did not ſcruple ſaying, That, in a few years, they would have the whole iſland of HISPANIOLA: on which account, in 1709 and 1710, the Britiſh miniſtry were applied to, and it was intended by them that, at the general treaty of peace, it ſhould be demanded for the French to reſtore to the Spaniards ſuch part as they poſſeſſed, by the ceſſion of the whole iſland granted by king Philip to his grandfather; however, this ceſſion was never put in execution, though it was required by France, for her aſſiſtance to Spain in the Mediterranean engagement, in 1744, but refuſed through the intereſt of his preſent Catholic Majeſty, then prince of Aſturias.

By an order iſſued by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, for the better ſettling and peopling his colonies in America, every ſhip or veſſel was obliged, when required, to carry a certain number of people thither, freight free: ſo that, by this encouragement to the increaſe of their inhabitants, and the fertility of the country in producing materials for enlarging and improving their SUGAR-WORKS, as alſo by the great extent of Hiſpaniola, it was obſerved, that the French coloniſts would not only make much greater quantities of ſugar than the Britiſh coloniſts could in their plantations, but at a cheaper price, by being furniſhed with moſt materials for doing thereof within themſelves: whereas the Britiſh iſlands were obliged to be ſupplied from the northern colonies, at a great expence, and, therefore, their product muſt neceſſarily be made up at a much dearer rate than the French; whereby the conſequence would be, that the French, in a little time, muſt beat us out of that moſt valuable article to the whole kingdom, the SUGAR TRADE.

Earthquakes, inundations of the ſea, inſurrections of negroes, blaſts in the canes, and other concomitant circumſtances, have been great impediments to the proſperity of our ſugar plantations, which require lenitives, more than corroſives, in their preſent feeble condition. Upon the whole, our SUGAR TRADE has received a violent blow from the French; our NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY has decayed by their encroachments; and our TOBACCO COLONIES, if proper care is not taken of that valuable branch of trade, may alſo be outrivalled by the French of LOUISIANA; which muſt give every Engliſhman a very melancholy proſpect, ſince it is by our SUGAR and TOBACCO, and other COLONIES, we have ſuch a ballance in trade on our ſide with Hamburgh, and other parts of the Eaſtland countries, as alſo a profitable trade with the United Provinces; and from our Newfoundland fiſhery, great ſums have been annually brought into England from Spain, Portugal, and Italy: beſides, our northern colonies being dependent on our ſugar ſettlements to take off their product, and having not wherewithal to anſwer the exports to them from Great-Britain, are only valuable as they bear relation

lation to ſuch colonies as are furniſhed by them, which ceaſe on the decay of the trade from whence it ariſes.

Thus ſad and melancholy is our preſent condition, as to theſe branches of our trade and navigation; which muſt be aggravated, from the conſideration of the preſent conduct of the FRENCH in AMERICA.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the peace of 1763.

To what degree many of the before-intimated evils, wherewith we ſeemed to be threatened before the laſt war and peace, may be preſumed to be remedied in time, we refer the reader to our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, CANADA, FLORIDA, LEEWARD ISLANDS, NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERIES, INDIAN NATIONS, and to the various other articles to which from the preceding we refer.

The ACT continued for granting liberty to carry ſugars from the Britiſh ſugar colonies of the product and manufacture of the ſaid ſugar colonies in America, from the ſaid colonies directly to foreign parts, &c. &c.

Whereas the laws herein after-mentioned, which have by experience been found uſeful and beneficial, are near expiring; it is enacted, That an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of his preſent Majeſty, intitled, An act for granting a liberty to carry SUGARS of the growth, produce, or manufactures of any of his Majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, from the ſaid colonies DIRECTLY TO FOREIGN PARTS, in ſhips built in Great-Britain, and navigated according to law; which was to continue in force for five years, from the ſaid twenty-ninth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-nine, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; and which, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts, made in the ſeventeenth and twenty-fourth years of the reign of his preſent Majeſty, was further continued the firſt day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-ſeven, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; ſhall be, and the ſame is hereby further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the twenty-ninth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

In the laſt war Great-Britain conquered the French ſugar colonies of MARTINICO and GUADALOUPE, &c. and upon the conditions ſtipulated in the treaty of peace, concluded in the year 1763, the ſaid ſugar colonies were reſtored again to France. See our article AMERICA, for the treaty at large. The long ſtanding diſputes, concerning the NEUTRAL ISLANDS in America, are finally ſettled in the ſaid treaty. See our article LEEWARD ISLANDS, where the new acquiſitions of colonies in America are repreſented.

In the year 1758, an act was made for encouraging the exportation of rum and ſpirits, of the growth, produce, and manufacture, of the Britiſh ſugar colonies, from this kingdom, and of Britiſh ſpirits made from melaſſes.——An abſtract of the contents.

The duties of cuſtom, payable upon the importation of rum and ſpirits, from the Britiſh ſugar colonies, to be repaid upon the exportation thereof.——And the duties of exciſe to be remitted upon all ſuch as ſhall be exported before payment is made of the ſaid duties.——Exporter to give bond for the due exportation thereof.——Upon producing a certificate of ſuch bond having been given, the rum or ſpirits mentioned therein, are to be delivered out of the warehouſe, and a certificate of the quantity, and ſize and marks of the caſks, &c. to be given therewith, and produced to the officer attending the ſhipping.——Due entry to be made of ſuch delivery.—Bonds given for the duties are to be delivered up, upon oath made of the intended exportation, and certificate produced, &c. of the quantity ſhipped, and that the ſame are proof ſpirits; and alſo of the delivery thereof from the warehouſes, &c.——If part only of the rum or ſpirits mentioned in the bond are certified to be delivered and ſhipped, the quantity is to be indorſed on the bond; and the bond to be delivered up, when the remaining part ſhall be certified to be delivered and ſhipped; provided the ſame be before the time ſtipulated for payment of the duties.——All rum and ſpirits intitled to the ſaid drawback, &c. are to be exported in caſks, containing not leſs than 100 gallons, and in veſſels not leſs than 100 tons burthen.——The quantity delivered out is to be computed according to the gauge taken upon the importation thereof.——If, after delivery, any ſhall be concealed, or not ſhipped within twelve hours, or the caſk be opened, or the ſame be reduced or altered in quantity or quality; ſuch rum or ſpirits are forfeited, and the bond is to be put in ſuit; unleſs the commiſſioners ſee cauſe to forbear the ſame.——Bonds given for exportation are not to be diſcharged, till certificates be produced of the due exportation and landing, and proof made thereof on oath, in manner required by the act for preventing the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, &c.——If ſuch rum or ſpirits ſhall not be exported, or ſhall be fraudulently relanded, the ſame, together with the veſſels, cattle and carriages employed therein, are forfeited; and the perſons concerned forfeit double the amount of the duties; and the maſter, &c. if he aſſiſt or connive thereat, is to ſuffer alſo ſix months impriſonment: or if the package be altered before arrival at the place of diſcharge, he forfeits 100 l.——The rum or ſpirits to be exported are to be proof; and the exporter is to give five days previous notice of the ſhipping thereof; and allow the officers to mark the caſks, and take ſamples, paying for the ſame, if demanded; upon penalty of forfeiting 100 l.—If any rum or ſpirits ſhall be altered or reduced in quantity or quality, after being ſhipped, the ſame is forfeited, and the perſons concerned therein forfeit alſo 100 l. and no drawback is to be allowed for the ſame.——Penalty of granting falſe certificate, or of counterfeiting, altering, &c. any oath or certificate, is 500 l. one moiety to the crown, the other to the proſecutor.——An additional drawback of 3 l. 3 s. per ton allowed on all Britiſh-made ſpirits, drawn from melaſſes, exported; oath being made of the truth thereof, and of the duties being duly paid; and certificate produced of the quantity ſhipped, and that the ſame were proof-ſpirits, &c.——The powers, regulations, forfeitures and clauſes, &c. in the recited act, relating to the drawback hereby granted on the exportation of ſpirits; and to the preventing or puniſhing frauds, &c. extended to this act.

SURREY, a county in England, joins on the weſt to Berkſhire and Hampſhire, on the ſouth to Suſſex, on the eaſt to Kent, and it is parted from Middleſex on the north by the river Thames, and is 112 miles in circumference.

The air, as well as the ſoil of the middle and extreme parts, is vaſtly different.

The chief commodities of this county, beſides its corn, are box-wood, walnuts, and fuller's earth, which laſt is ſold at a groat a buſhel at the pits near Ryegate.

SOUTHWARK, though it ſeems a ſuburb of London, yet for extent and number of people, and their trade and wealth, &c. is inferior to few cities in England.

GUILDFORD is a large well-built town on the river Wey, which falls into the Thames. Its market is reckoned one of the greateſt in England for wheat. By the navigation of its river, a great quantity of timber is brought to London, not only from its neighbourhood, but from the woody parts of Suſſex and Hampſhire. It had formerly a conſiderable manufacture of cloth.

KINGSTON upon Thames, is a populous, trading, well-built town. The market is kept in the town, ſo large that it might paſs for a fair.

WANDLESWORTH, or WANSWORTH, is of note for a manufacture of braſs plates and kettles, ſkillets and frying-pans.

FARNHAM on the river Lodden, is a large and populous town, and one of the greateſt wheat-markets in England, eſpecially between All-ſaints-day and Midſummer, when, one day with another, 250 load of wheat, and ſometimes 400 have been ſold here in a day. The plantation of hops hereabouts is alſo very conſiderable, and ſaid to outdo the Kentiſh hop-yards, both in quantity and quality.

GODALMING is the moſt eminent town in the county for making cloth, particularly mixed kerſies and blue ones, ſaid to be the beſt coloured in the kingdom for the Canaries. It ſtands on the Lodden, which abounds with good fiſh, eſpecially pike, and drives a griſt-mill, two paper-mills, and three corn-mills. The beſt whited brown paper is ſaid to come from hence.

CHERTSEY has a bridge over the Thames to Shepperton in Middleſex. Its principal trade is in malt, which it ſends in barges to London.

CROYDON is a large handſome town on the edge of Banſtead-downs. Its market is chiefly for oats and oatmeal for London, though there is a great ſale here too of wheat and barley. The town is encompaſſed with hills, well ſtored with wood, of which great quantities of charcoal are made, and ſent to London.

DORKING is noted for its meal-trade, and its market for poultry, particularly the fatteſt geeſe and the largeſt capons, which are brought hither from Horſham in Suſſex; where it is the buſineſs of all the country for many miles to breed and fatten them.

SUSSEX is bounded on the weſt with Hampſhire, on the ſouth with the Britiſh Channel, on the north with Surrey, and on the eaſt with Kent, and is 170 miles in circumference. Its chief rivers are the Arun, Adur, Ouſe, and Rother; the Arun has lately had a new outlet cut from it, to improve its navigation, which carries barges above Pulborough, and ſhips of 100 tons as high as Arundel; from whence they carry the largeſt and beſt timber in England to the docks of Portſmouth and Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford.

The air and ſoil of this country are both various, according to the different parts of it. On the ſea-coaſt are very high green hills, called the South-downs, well known to ſuch as deal in wool or ſheep, there being great flocks fed here, whoſe wool, which is very fine, is too often exported clandeſtinely to France by farmers and jobbers, who are called OWLERS. The north-quarter is ſhaded with woods, from which they make abundance of charcoal; and fuel for the iron-works, there being plenty of ore on the eaſt ſide towards Kent, and many great forges, furnaces, and water-mills, for both caſt and wrought iron; which, though it is ſaid to be

more brittle than Spaniſh, yet cannon are caſt with it; and the beſt gunpowder is made in this county.

CHICHESTER has a very great market for corn, and every Wedneſday fortnight here is alſo one of the greateſt cattle markets in England. Its chief manufactures are malt and needles. Here is ſome foreign trade, and a collector, with other officers of the cuſtoms at Dell Key, a ſmall harbour about four miles from the ſea.

LEWES is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in the county. It carries on a good trade, and a little river runs through the middle of the town, to which it brings goods in boats and barges from a port eight miles off: on this river are ſeveral iron-works.

SHOREHAM is a populous place, and has a very good harbour for veſſels of conſiderable burthen; and many ſhips are built here both for the navy and merchants ſervice.

RYE is a pretty populous town. Its trade conſiſts in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney-backs, &c. which are caſt at the iron-work at Bakely, four miles from Rye to the north-eaſt, and at Breed five miles to the ſouth-weſt.

BRIGHTHELMSTON, is a pretty large populous town, chiefly inhabited by fiſhermen, as is alſo Newhaven. A pretty many ſmall veſſels bring coals, deals, &c. from Lewes hither, and load from hence with corn, timber, tan, &c. Some ſmall craft are alſo built here.

SWABIA, the circle of, in Germany, is bounded on the north with the Palatinate and Franconia; on the ſouth with Tyrol and Swiſſerland; on the weſt with Alſace; and on the eaſt with Bavaria.

Its air is healthy, and the ſoil generally fruitful: for though ſome parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of ſilver, copper, and other metals, and the foreſts much pine and fir-timber, beſides great ſtore of game, and good breeds of horſes, black cattle, and ſheep; and other parts yield great ſtore of corn, wine and flax. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making linen cloth, of which they export great quantities. Its chief rivers are the Danube and Neckar, but great part of it is alſo watered by the Rhine.

The uſual diviſion of it is as follows, viz.

The marquiſate of BADEN. This country, which is one of the fineſt in Germany, is extended along the eaſtern banks of the Rhine, having the Palatinate on the north, the Black Foreſt on the eaſt, Alſace on the weſt, and Swiſſerland on the ſouth. It is very populous, and fruitful in corn and wine, but chiefly in hemp, which they ſell to the Dutch and Flemings; they have, alſo, in ſome places, agate, which they poliſh and export.

The chief towns here are only of note on account of their baths, for which they are much frequented.

ORTNAN is ſeparated by the Rhine, on the weſt, from Alſace, has the the Briſgaw on the ſouth, the margraviate of Baden on the north, and the dutchy of Wirtemberg on the eaſt.

The BRISGAW lies on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, which divides it from Alſace; betwixt Ortnan on the weſt, and the principality of Furſtemberg on the eaſt.

FRIBURG is a large populous city, on the river Threiſem: here are famous lapidaries for poliſhing the granates, jaſpers, and other precious ſtones that are found in Lorrain, and the neighbouring countries.

The territory of SUNTGAW has Montbeliard on the weſt, Upper Alſace on the north, the biſhopric of Baſil, and Mount Jura the principality of Porentru, and the Franche Comte, on the ſouth, and the canton of Baſil on the eaſt. The country, though mountainous, abounds with vines, and great quantities of its corn are tranſported to Swiſſerland, Lombardy, Lorrain, &c. There are no towns of any note for trade, neither in this territory, nor in the county of Montbeliard, nor the biſhopric of Baſil.

The biſhopric of CONSTANCE lies on both ſides of the lake of that name, and on the borders of Swiſſerland.

CONSTANCE, the capital, is a populous rich place, and has a conſiderable trade, by means of its lake, and the neighbourhood of the Rhine.

UBORLINGEN ſtands on the lake of Conſtance; it has a good haven, from whence barges are ſent with wine and fruits to Conſtance, and other cities on the lake, to the great gain of the inhabitants, who are very induſtrious and frugal.

SALMANSWEILER is a ſmall town, but has a good trade in corn.

BUCKORN has a good trade with the neighbouring countries, by the lake.

LINDAW ſtands on the north bank of the lake, by means of which, and the Rhine, it lies ſo convenient for trade, that it is called the Venice of Swabia. Part of the city is built on an iſland in the lake, to which there is a wooden bridge: this part is moſtly inhabited by fiſhermen, watermen, and weavers. This place is ſo conſiderable a ſtaple for goods of divers nations, and its market is ſo frequented by merchants for eight or nine leagues round, as well as others from a great number of towns, that it is ſaid near 1500 load of merchandize enters every week at the gate next to the main land.

The traders both of Swabia and Bavaria amaſs great quantities of corn, ſalt, iron, and copper here, which they ſell to the Swiſs and Griſons; and every Saturday vaſt ſtores of wheat and wine are brought hither by the lake, from Hegow and Tergow; as alſo an incredible quantity of butter and cheeſe is brought from Bregent, and the mountains of Swiſſerland, Appenzel, and the Griſons; beſides fiſh and fruits of all ſorts, and variety of other merchandize, from the neighbourhood, and from the northern countries, and which paſs through Nuremberg and Augſburg, for Italy.

WANGEN ſtands on the river Arg, which falls into the ſame lake, and is noted for a trade in paper and flax, and for the beſt ſickles, which are made here in great numbers, and ſent all over the empire.

BIBRACK ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful valley, ſurrounded with hills. The great trade of this town conſiſts in fuſtians; ſo that, of all the trading companies, the weavers are moſt numerous.

LEUTHIRK, on the river Eſcach, is a ſmall town, but the inhabitants have a good trade in corn, flax, and linen cloth, of which they make great quantities.

KEMPTEN, on the Algow, is one of the ancienteſt cities in Germany. The trade of the place is weaving and whitening linen cloth, which, with its being on the road to Italy, and by the Swiſſers bringing ſalt from Tirol, makes it one of the richeſt cities in Swabia.

MEMMINGEN has a good manufacture and trade in linen, cotton, ſtuffs, and paper, which laſt is reckoned the beſt in Germany.

AUGSBURG, the metropolis of Swabia, ſtands near the confines of Bavaria, at the conflux of the rivers Lech and Werdach, which fall into the Danube 25 miles below it. It is one of the biggeſt and moſt beautiful cities in Germany. Its trade, at preſent, beſides the bank of commerce, and the Tirol wines, with which it almoſt wholly ſupplies Germany, conſiſts in goldſmiths wares, clocks, and ivory, with which, and all kinds of toys, not inferior to thoſe of Nuremberg, it furniſhes Germany, Poland, and the north of Europe; but even in ſeveral of thoſe things, the Engliſh artizans have, of late years, excelled, and ſerved foreign countries, to the great detriment of both Augſburg and Nuremberg, which had, for ſeveral centuries, been in poſſeſſion of this trade.

ULM ſtands on the Danube, which here begins to be navigable; it is a great and very populous city, here being a great number of hands employed in the manufactures of ſtuffs, linen, cotton, and fuſtians; in dreſſing leather, and in the iron, and other manufactures, as well as clock-work; by which this is become one of the richeſt cities in Germany.

NORDLINGEN, the capital of a county, or diviſion, of its name, ſtands on the river Eger. The principal trade carried on here is in linen cloth and dreſſed ſkins. There is a conſiderable yearly fair here, the week after Eaſter, to which merchants bring goods from very remote countries, and return with the manufactures of this.

WIRTEMBERG duchy, in that called Lower Swabia, is bounded on the north by part of Franconia, the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the Palatinate of the Rhine; on the eaſt by the county of Oetingen, and ſeveral other petty ſtates of Swabia; on the ſouth by the Danube; and on the weſt by the marquiſate of Baden, and the Black Foreſt. It is reckoned the largeſt dominion in the circle of Swabia; and there are few countries in Germany ſo fruitful, it abounding with all ſorts of corn, beſides paſture. Its mountains are full of mines and vineyards, and its vallies of cattle; but being ſurrounded with the Palatinate, Franconia, and Alſace, that are altogether as fertile, the Wirtembergers have hardly any export for their commodities.

ESLINGEN, on the Neckar, is a place of ſome trade, and noted for good baths.

HAILBRON ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country, on the ſame river, and has a good trade, and ſeveral fairs.

The principal trade of GEMUND is in beads, which they ſend abroad.

HALLE ſtands amongſt rocks and mountains, on the river Kocher, and owes its riſe to its ſpring of ſalt, which, though not ſo white nor piquant as other ſalt, is carried to Nuremberg.

SWEDEN. This kingdom is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, on the ſouth; by the mountains of Norway on the weſt; by Daniſh, or Norvegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt.

The ſoil, where capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful. For want of induſtry, they have not a competent ſupply of corn, and, therefore, import many ſorts of grain from Livonia. The cattle are ſmall in ſize; their ſheep bear a coarſe wool, fit only to make cloathing for peaſants; their horſes are of a delicate kind.—They have plenty of wild beaſts, which are hunted for their fleſh, as well as their hides and furrs. Fowl, both wild and tame, are in great plenty, and good in their kind.—Their lakes are well ſtored with variety of fine fiſh.—Their woods and foreſts over-ſpread great part of the country, and are, for the moſt part, of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak.—They have variety of mines, particularly of copper and iron, and one

of ſilver, adjacent to which, the woods are much deſtroyed for fuel; but that want is ſo well ſupplied from diſtant places, by the conveniency of rivers and winter-carriages, that they have charcoal above ſix times as cheap as in England, though not ſo good in quality.

Iron mines and forges are in great number towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From theſe, beſides ſupplying the country, there is yearly exported iron to the value of near 300,000l. but of late years the number of theſe forges has been ſo much increaſed, that each endeavouring to underſel others, the price has been much lowered; and ſince the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange of which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown ſo cheap, that it is found neceſſary to leſſen the number of forges. Neither has that expedient had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themſelves, becauſe they cannot work but with loſs: in which caſe, many thouſands of poor people, whoſe livelihood depends upon theſe forges and mines, will be reduced to a ſtarving condition.

What we have been ſaying in relation to Sweden in general, is, in the main, applicable to Finland, except only that hitherto no mines have been diſcovered there. Its chief commodities are pitch, tar, and all ſorts of wooden ware, cattle, dried fiſh, train-oil, &c.

The country of Sweden has no conſiderable manufactures, and yet they have a very great trade, and are very ſtrong in ſhipping; the reaſon is, the produce of their land, notwithſtanding its northern ſituation and barren ſoil, is an immenſe treaſure, and, in a great meaſure, makes up for their want of manufactures. This product is not only great, but is inexhauſtible in its fund, and is as follows:

Silver,	Iron,	Flax,	Tar,	Furrs,
Copper,	Timber,	Pitch,	Hemp,	Hides.

1. The ſilver; this they have peculiar to themſelves, it being found in no other place in all theſe parts of the world, except in Norway, and this is the product of one mine only, at a place called Nola. The ore in the mine lies 145 fathom deep, the working of which has continued near 300 years, and yet, as they relate, is unexhauſted. The mine itſelf is very curious, and ſtrangers are often carried down to ſee it: it brings in a revenue to the king according to the degree to which it is worked.

2. Their mines of copper and iron are very valuable indeed, and are a fund of wealth conſiderably greater than the mine of ſilver, and which will ſupport Sweden, perhaps, to the end of time: for as the quantity is inexhauſtible, ſo the advantage of working theſe mines is very great. Without this, Sweden, which is otherwiſe a poor and barren place, excepting ſome few vallies and flat countries on the ſea-coaſt, would not be able, on any terms, to import ſuch great quantities of the manufactures and product of other countries as they now do: had they not copper and iron to pay with, they could never import ſuch quantities of wine and brandy, wrought ſilks, and fine linens, from France and Holland; or of broad cloth, fine ſtuffs, wrought iron and braſs, clock-work and watch-work, with other things, from England; but their copper and their iron ſupply them with all things, and the ballance is always very much in their favour: which is not to be wondered at, inaſmuch as before the laſt calamitous war, which drained them both of money and men, the Swediſh nation was a formidable power; and they tell us that Sweden only, without including their provinces in Germany, furniſhed king Charles XII. for his wars, from the time of his firſt expedition againſt the king of Denmark, to his death at Frederickſhall, above 300,000 men for ſoldiers, and 227 tons of gold, either in ſpecie, or bills of exchange, made good in Sweden, or bills at Hamburgh, when exchange failed from Sweden; and this was always made good in copper or iron.

If this be true, and that we add to this the dreadful havock and deſtruction of the mines of copper, and of the iron-works, which the Muſcovites made in their ſeveral invaſions upon them, at the end of that war, and by which the late king of Sweden was obliged to conſent to a diſadvantageous peace, we need not wonder that the Swedes at preſent are in a low condition, in compariſon to what they were, both as to their real wealth and their trade. The Muſcovites carried away 70,000 tons of iron, beſides copper, and did an irreparable damage, by deſtroying the copper mines, which had coſt immenſe ſums to bring to perfection, and by cutting down the woods, which were the life and ſupport of the iron-works, and which will require many years growth to be rendered uſeful for the ſame works.

Yet notwithſtanding all this, we ſee the Swedes, by an application never enough to be commended, begin to recover, and their government and gentry contributing to the repair of the great copper-mines, and of their iron-works, which had ſuffered ſo much; they begin to apply themſelves vigorouſly to agriculture, and even manufactures, and export great quantities, and to fill their coffers again: and, in a few years, it is not doubted but they will be able to make a conſiderable figure, though, perhaps, not quite ſo great as before.

I find no conſiderable manufactures, at preſent, in Sweden for exportation, except ſuch as are the immediate product of the metals above; that is, braſs-wire, drawn from their copper converted into braſs, alſo ſome ſteel, and a great quantity of latten-wire, drawn from their iron. Theſe they export in very great quantities, as they do alſo deals, maſts, timber, pitch, and tar.

A few years ſince they ſet up a coarſe manufacture of woollen cloth in Sweden, which they make with tolerable good ſucceſs, for cloathing their poorer people, and for their armies; but we do not find they export any of it, except ſome into Muſcovy and Poland, and that but lately. However, it is of great advantage to them, as it ſets their poor at work, and finds employment eſpecially for the women and children, who are the moſt uncapable to get their bread in Sweden and Norway of any country in thoſe parts of the world.

All the product of Sweden, except as above, finds no work for women, and therefore it is that in the country villages the women manage the plough and the cart, and till the land as much, and perhaps more, than the men.

As for the men, they are taken up in four employments, in which the women can do no ſervice at all, viz.

1. In the woods, which makes good a proverb in thoſe countries, That the Swedes are born carpenters.

2. In the mines, where they are alſo very ſkilful.

3. In the army, where they are acknowleged to be very good ſoldiers.

4. In the ſhips; but here they make not the beſt ſeamen.

It is almoſt as natural for the countrymen of Sweden to be carpenters or miners, as it is to children to ſuck: they take it juſt as a Dutchman takes to fiſhing, or as a negro to ſwim. In the woods their buſineſs is with the ax or the ſaw, felling timber or ſawing deals, extracting the tar, turpentine, &c. and making the charcoal: all theſe are laborious works, fit only for the men: the like is the working in the mines, or at the forges and ſmelting-huts, which the women can do little or nothing at.

But now they have a woollen manufacture, the women begin to ſpin and card, and weave; and the children have the winding and ſpinning too, in their degree; ſo that many thouſands get their bread, who could not do it before. It is true, their own wool being very coarſe, they can make no great improvements in this manufacture; but they have wool from Poland, and the cloathing the poor is a trade very advantageous: for,

(1.) It furniſhes their poor with cloaths much cheaper than they were before, when the country people were cloathed chiefly with ſheep's-ſkins, dreſſed with the wool on them.

(2.) It employs their own poor, who got nothing before.

(3.) It keeps all that money at home, which went annually abroad for cloathing for the meaner ſort of people, which, notwithſtanding their ſheep-ſkin dreſs, was a very great ſum.

The Swedes have two countries diſtant from their native one, in which they have ſtill ſome intereſt; and theſe are Finland and Pomeren.

1. In Finland they have very few ports left, having loſt Elſingvas and Wiborg to the Muſcovites; however, at Abo, and ſome other ſmall places remaining to them, they drive a conſiderable trade in Swediſh deals, which are very valuable in England and Holland, being of a good durable and uncommon kind of yellow fir.

Alſo they export the beſt maſts for ſhips of any place, except Wiborg, in all thoſe ſeas. The inland country is famed for good horſes, and the Finlanders horſe were once eſteemed the beſt cavalry in all Germany.

2. Pomeren: here the Swedes have ſtill the port of Stralſund, which is a very conſiderable rich trading city, and a good port; and the iſle of Rugen is a large, fruitful, and well-cultivated iſland: and from hence Sweden itſelf, in times of ſcarcity, is often ſupplied with corn.

This country of Pomeren is one of the moſt conſiderable in all the ſeas, for the beſt oak timber and plank; and the Dutch fetch great quantities hence every year, eſpecially of plank; as alſo from Stetin, on the north of the Oder, which formerly belonged to the Swedes. The Swedes themſelves, alſo, have the greateſt part of the oak timber and plank from hence, with which they build their ſhips of war at Carelſcroon.

They export from this country alſo great quantities of corn to Holland, and of linſeed for making of oil, and alſo ſome linen, ſuch as canvas, and other coarſe linens; but the Swedes having quitted the Oder to the Pruſſians, has greatly leſſened their trade on that ſide.

Though Sweden has for many centuries furniſhed a great part of Europe with thoſe neceſſary commodities with which it ſo plentifully abounds, yet either their warlike temper, the idleneſs, or the ignorance of the inhabitants, has formerly kept them from being much concerned in trade, they having given the management and advantage of it too much to ſtrangers, which was for a long time monopolized by the Hanſe-Towns ſituate on the Baltic Sea, 'till the Seven Pro-

vinces of the Netherlands being erected into a republic, became ſharers with them. [See the article HANSE-TOWNS.] Before that time, very little iron was made in Sweden; but the ore, being run into pigs, was tranſported to Dantzic, and other parts of Pruſſia, and there forged into bars. The nation owes the greateſt improvements it has made in trade, to the art and induſtry of ſome ingenious mechanics, whom the cruelty of the duke of Alva drove into theſe parts. Their ſucceſs invited great numbers of the reformed Walloons to remove thither, whoſe language and religion remain in the places they ſettled in, where they erected forges, and other conveniencies for making of iron guns, wire, and all other manufactures of copper, braſs, and iron.

The Swediſh navigation was very inconſiderable 'till queen Chriſtina, at the concluſion of the war in 1664, obtained from Denmark a freedom and cuſtom for all ſhips and merchandize belonging to Swediſh ſubjects, in their paſſage through the Sound [ſee the article DENMARK] and eſtabliſhed in her own dominions that difference of cuſtom which ſtill ſubſiſts between Swediſh and foreign ſhips, and is in the proportion of 4, 5, 6: the firſt being called whole-free, the ſecond half-free, and the laſt unfree: ſo that where a whole-free Swediſh ſhip pays 400 crowns, a half-free one pays 500, and a foreign veſſel 600.

But, as great as this advantage was, it had but little effect, 'till the Engliſh act of navigation bridled the Hollanders, and opened the intercourſe between England and Sweden. Since that time, their commerce has been much augmented, as well as ours, that way, and goods tranſported by both, or either party, according to the various junctures of affairs. When Sweden has been engaged in a war, the Engliſh ſhips have had the whole employ: but, in time of peace, the advantage is ſo great on the Swediſh ſide, and merchants ſo much encouraged by freedom in cuſtoms, to employ their own ſhips, that Engliſh bottoms cannot be uſed in that trade, but only when Sweden is unprovided with a number of ſhips ſufficient for the tranſportation of their own commodities.

The general direction of their trade belongs to the College of Commerce, which conſiſts of the preſident of the Treaſury, and four counſellors, who hear cauſes relating to trade, and redreſs any diſorders that happen. The bank at Stockholm is of great benefit to trade, as well in regard that the king's cuſtoms for that city are paid there, as alſo that the merchants commonly make payments to each other, by bills drawn upon it; which eaſes them of great trouble in tranſporting their money from place to place, that would otherwiſe be very difficult and chargeable. This bank is well conſtituted, and in good credit, as it has the ſtates of the kingdom for its guarantees. See our article BANKING.

The intereſt of England, in the trade of Sweden, may be computed by the neceſſity of their commodities to us, and the vent of our's there. Their copper, iron, tar, pitch, maſts, &c. cannot be had elſewhere, except from America, from whence ſuch ſupplies may certainly be furniſhed: and if ſo, this conſideration ought, in reaſon, to have an influence on the Swediſh councils, and engage them to make the Engliſh trade with them as eaſy as poſſible, leſt we ſhould, in time, ceaſe in the importation of their commodities. As to our exportations thither, they ſcarce amount to one third of what we import from thence, and conſiſt chiefly in cloth, ſtuffs, and other woollen manufactures; of which there was formerly vended there, yearly, to the amount of 50,000 l. Beſides theſe, tobacco, Newcaſtle coals, pewter, lead, tin, fruits, and ſugar, with ſeveral other of our own commodities, are ſold at this market, as alſo good quantities of herrings from Scotland: ſo that, in all, we are ſuppoſed to vend goods to about 100,000 l. a year; whereof, if any more than one half be paid for, it is extraordinary. But the making cloth in Sweden to ſupply the army, &c. which had formerly been endeavoured without ſucceſs, being now encouraged and aſſiſted by the public, and undertaken by ſome Scots, and others, has proved of late, and does ſtill prove, a great hinderance to the vent of our cloth there. And, to favour this undertaking, Engliſh cloth is now (unleſs it be ſuch fine cloths as cannot be made there) clogged with ſuch exceſſive duties, as render the importation of it impracticable. The undertakers have got workmen from Germany, and ſome from England; and, beſides the German wool they uſe, they receive great quantities from Scotland (ſuppoſed to be had from England) without which they cannot work. Yet as at preſent the Engliſh trade in Sweden is of the importance above mentioned, notwithſtanding the abatements aforeſaid, it is conſiderable, and will be ſo, while their commodities continue to be neceſſary to us.

The EXCHANGES of SWEDEN, or STOCKHOLM.

STOCKHOLM Gives *		To receive †
* 15 marks,	cop. mon. more or leſs,	† in France, 1 crown of 60 ſols.
24 ditto,	idem	in Holland, 1 rixdol cur. mon.
25 ditto,	idem	at Hamb. 1 rixdollar banco.
18 ditto,	idem	at Cadiz, 128 quartos.

As Stockholm negociates by exchange only with Amſterdam or Hamburgh, the number of days muſt be ſtipulated for the bill of exchange to run, after the expiration of which, there are no regulated days of grace.

Merchants keep their accounts in rixdollars, copper dollars, and runſticks, reckoning 32 runſticks to a copper dollar, and 6 copper dollars to a rixdollar, valued at 3 Poliſh florins, or about 4 s. 6 d.—They reckon 8 runſticks to a mark, and 4 marks to a copper dollar.—They have a ſtiver dollar, which is called the Swedes rixdollar of Germany, or Poland, worth about 2 s. 3 d. ſterling.—In this ſpecie the cuſtom of all exported goods muſt be paid; and it is divided into 32 ore.—The dollar in which the cuſtom of all imported goods muſt be paid, is the Swediſh copper-plate dollars, which are of double the value of the ſtiver dollar, viz. 90 groſhen, or 3 Poliſh gilders, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; the copper-plate dollar they divide into 48 ore.

The exchange with Hamburgh is upon the mark, whereof 20 are reckoned to be par with the ſpecie, or rixdollar banco, of Hamburgh, and they give 24 or 25, more or leſs, of marks, for the ſaid rixdollar.

To Amſterdam they give the ſame for the rixdollar current.

To London they moſtly exchange by the way of Amſterdam, or Hamburgh, but ſometimes exchange may be made directly to London; and then, although they do reckon 20 copper dollars to be par with 20 s. ſterling, yet the courſe is frequently at 28 or 30 of the ſaid copper dollars for the pound ſterling; but this riſe and fall happen according to the courſe of trade.

SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

A ſuccinct HISTORY of the SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

It was the ruin of the late Oſtend Eaſt-India company [ſee the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY] that gave birth to the eſtabliſhment of a Swediſh one, of which one Henry Koning was the chief author, a rich merchant, and one who had a juſt notion of the Eaſt-India commerce. He repreſented to the Swediſh miniſtry, that this was a very favourable juncture to undertake a deſign of this nature; that there were a multitude of places in Africa and the Indies neglected by the Europeans, who had conſtantly followed one the other, and had ſcarce ever undertaken to ſtrike out of the ordinary road; that beſides, there were numbers of perſons who, by the diſſolution of the Imperial company of the Netherlands, were thrown out of buſineſs, and, which was worſe, deprived of the means of returning into their own country, by the ſteps taken to hinder the Oſtend company from carrying on their trade; that, conſequently, there could be nothing eaſier than to procure proper people for carrying this commerce on, and fixing it in ſuch a manner as not to be liable to any hazard, either of loſs by trade, or oppoſition from other powers.

This propoſition being maturely conſidered, it was reſolved to authorize this Henry Koning to aſſociate ſuch perſons as ſhould be willing to contribute to his deſign, and to grant them the following privileges, by virtue of a charter, dated June 14, 1731. The king thereby concedes to Henry Koning and his aſſociates, the liberty of navigating and trading to the Eaſt-Indies for 15 years, from beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the iſlands of Japan, wherever they ſhall think proper or convenient, with this reſtriction only, that they ſhall not trade in any port belonging to any prince or ſtate in Europe, without their permiſſion firſt had and obtained. The ſhips employed in this commerce ſhall conſtantly take in their lading at Gottenburgh, to which port they ſhall return, with all the merchandize they bring home from the Eaſt-Indies, and ſhall there cauſe the ſame to be publickly ſold, as ſoon as conveniently they can. The ſaid Henry Koning and company ſhall pay to the crown of Sweden, during the ſaid 15 years, 100 dalers per laſt for every ſhip they employ, the freight of ſuch ſhips being meaſured before their departure from Gottenburgh; which money is to be paid within ſix months after the ſafe return of the ſaid ſhip from the Indies; and they ſhall likewiſe pay two dalers per laſt, in full ſatisfaction for the town duties.

The ſaid Henry Koning and company may employ, equip, and arm, as many veſſels as they ſhall think proper, provided that thoſe veſſels are built or bought in Sweden, and whatever elſe is neceſſary for equipping and furniſhing them, be had in the Swediſh dominions. But in caſe this ſhould be found at any time impracticable, then the company may provide themſelves with ſhips, or whatever elſe ſhall be found requiſite for their commerce, wherever they ſhall think fit, provided always that they give the preference to, and promote, as far as in them lies, the building, manufactures, and produce of Sweden. The ſaid ſhips ſhall carry the Swediſh flag, and ſhall be furniſhed with paſſports under the king's hand, and alſo from the republic of Algiers. The ſaid company ſhall be at liberty to raiſe what ſum they think fit, for the carrying on their commerce, by a voluntary ſubſcription, or

or otherwiſe, as they think proper; and ſuch as ſhall become ſubſcribers, ſhall be obliged to pay in their money at the times preſcribed, on pain of forfeiting their intereſt in the ſaid commerce.

The company may tranſport what ordnance or ſmall arms they think proper; as alſo SILVER, COINED or UNCOINED, Swediſh MONEY only excepted; and may likewiſe bring from the Indies what kind of goods or manufactures they think fit, without any reſtriction whatever. The veſſels of the company, when freighted ready to ſail, ſhall not be hindered, on any pretence whatſoever; nor ſhall they, at their return, be impeded from entering into the port to which they are conſigned. The goods of the ſaid company may be tranſported at their pleaſure, from place to place within his Swediſh Majeſty's dominions, being firſt furniſhed with proper paſſports, without paying any other duties than thoſe before ſtipulated. The captains of the company's ſhips ſhall have the ſame power for maintaining diſcipline amongſt their crews, as the captains of the KING's ſhips; and, with reſpect to trade, they ſhall conform to the inſtruction given by Henry Koning and company, provided always, thoſe inſtructions are not repugnant to the privileges granted by this charter.

The ſeamen and ſoldiers entering on board the company's ſhips ſhall not be liable to be PRESSED into the king's or any other ſervice; and, on the other hand, it ſhall not be lawful for the company to take into their ſervice any who ſhall have deſerted that of the crown. The ſeamen and ſoldiers belonging to the ſhips in the company's ſervice, and deſerting from them, may be apprehended and detained, but according to the uſual forms of laws, and by the hands of the proper officers. The ſhips belonging to the company being returned, and having landed the merchandize on board them, the ſaid goods ſhall be duty free, excepting only a very ſmall acknowlegement to be paid upon removing them.

The perſons acting under this charter ſhall conſtantly chuſe out of their number at leaſt three directors, who ſhall be all men of diſtinguiſhed probity and known abilities, of which the ſaid Henry Koning ſhall be one; and, in caſe of his demiſe, the members of the company are impowered to make choice of another perſon in his ſtead, provided always, that theſe three directors ſhall be natives of the kingdom of Sweden, at leaſt naturalized Swedes, Proteſtants, and reſident in the king's dominions, unleſs neceſſarily abſent in foreign parts, for the ſervice of the company; in which caſe, the proprietors may ſubſtitute another director at home.

The ſaid Henry Koning, and his aſſociates, may make ſuch regulations for the management of their commerce as they ſhall think proper, provided they be agreeable to this charter. They ſhall render a faithful account to all the perſons intereſted, as well of the profit and loſs, as of the capital of the ſaid company; but they ſhall not be obliged to diſcover the names of their ſubſcribers, or the ſums they ſubſcribed; nor ſhall they be obliged to produce, or ſuffer their books to be inſpected, on any pretence whatſoever. In caſe any of the directors ſhall find that the reſt betray their ſecrets, or are guilty of any other fraud or miſdemeanor, they may apply to the Board of Trade for juſtice and reparation, and, upon due proof, ſuch offender ſhall be ſuſpended from his office of director, and the company ſhall be at liberty to chuſe another in his room.

In like manner, if any of the proprietors ſhall find that the ſaid Henry Koning, and the reſt of the directors, betray their truſt, or are guilty of any frauds, they may make the ſame application, and obtain the ſame redreſs. The ſaid Henry Koning, and company, may employ what number of ſupercargoes, officers, mariners, or ſoldiers, they ſhall think fit, either Swedes or foreigners, who, on their being ſo employed, ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges as if they were born Swedes; and the money employed, either by natives or foreigners, in the capital of this company, ſhall not be liable to any detention or ſeizure.

Such perſons as are intereſted in, or employed by, the company, ſhall be naturalized, according to their reſpective qualities, upon their applying themſelves to the king for that purpoſe. The ſaid Henry Koning, and company, and ſuch as are authorized by them, in caſe they are moleſted, or diſturbed in their commerce, by any perſon, or in any part of the world whatever, ſhall have full power from his Majeſty to obtain ample juſtice and ſatisfaction, by all convenient methods, and ſhall be at liberty to oppoſe force by force, and to conſider ſuch diſturbers as pirates, and enemies to the public peace.

His Majeſty will grant them theſe powers, eſpecially in ſuch commiſſions as their captains ſhall receive, and in caſe, notwithſtanding, they ſhould be attacked, and ſuffer any injury or injuſtice from any nation whatever, in the carrying on of this commerce, his Majeſty, upon due information thereof, will grant them his high protection, and endeavour to procure for them ſpeedy and ample ſatisfaction, either by way of reprizal, or otherwiſe. The reſt of the ſubjects of the crown of Sweden are expreſsly prohibited and forbid to engage in, or interfere with, the trade of the ſaid company, under pain of his Majeſty's high diſpleaſure, and the confiſcation of their veſſels and effects. The king promiſes to alter or augment theſe privileges, upon application from the company, as often, and in ſuch manner, as ſhall be found neceſſary for promoting the trade to the Eaſt-Indies, and the intereſt of the perſons concerned therein.

REMARKS.

There were great expectations formed of this company, for various reaſons; firſt, becauſe they had all the powers granted them that they could reaſonably expect or deſire. Secondly, Becauſe they were not limited in their capital, but allowed to raiſe ſuch ſums, and in ſuch a manner, as they ſhall eſteem moſt for their benefit. Thirdly, From their being prohibited from interfering with the commerce of other nations, and thereby running themſelves and their country into difficulties and diſputes. Fourthly, From their having the king's protection ſecured to them, in ſuch a manner, and for ſuch purpoſes, as might ſerve to anſwer all good ends, without involving the crown of Sweden in any controverſies with the maritime powers, or any other of her allies. And, laſtly, Becauſe from the nature of the preſent conſtitution in Sweden, there ſeemed to be as high ſecurities for the properties of ſuch as intereſted themſelves in this affair, as in any other country whatever.

Theſe expectations were greatly heightened, by the company's meeting with no diſturbance or oppoſition from foreign powers, who neither knowing who the ſubſcribers were, or to what their ſubſcriptions amounted, were the leſs alarmed by this new company; and beſides, ſeeing themſelves ſecure from any apprehenſions of their interfering with the trade already eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt-Indies, found it more difficult to aſſign any rational cauſe of complaint; to which we may add, that the company going on very ſlowly at the beginning, and being a long time before they compleated their ſubſcriptions, or prepared to fit out ſhips for the Indies, it was generally believed, both in England and Holland, that the deſign would come to nothing, and the company would vaniſh of itſelf.

But though the author of this deſign, M. Henry Koning, and his aſſociates, were not haſty in equipping ſhips for the Indies, yet they took care to provide themſelves in every reſpect with what might be found neceſſary for carrying on their ſcheme with ſucceſs. They built for this purpoſe two very large and ſtrong ſhips, one called after the king, the Frederick, the other by the name of the queen, the Ulrica. Theſe they furniſhed in ſuch a manner, as to be equally fit for trade or for defence. They made choice of ſuch ſupercargoes as had not only eſtabliſhed characters both for honeſty and abilities, but were likewiſe well verſed in the particular buſineſs in which they were to be employed, and men of experience in the trade to China. They proceeded with no leſs caution in the choice of their officers and mariners; and though they ſpent full two years in making preparations, yet that loſs of time was well compenſated, by the exactneſs with which thoſe preparations were made: ſo that at the time their ſhips left the harbour of Gottenburgh, they were as well equipped, and in all reſpects as compleatly furniſhed for an Eaſt-India voyage, as any that were employed in that trade by the maritime powers; and the ſame care and diligence they have uſed ever ſince: ſo that it may, with great truth, be ſaid, that as ſcarce any company was better eſtabliſhed at firſt, ſo the affairs of none have been hitherto better conducted.

Their firſt voyages, though not attended with ſo much emolument as might have been expected, were, however, tolerably ſucceſsful; and the company eſtabliſhed their factory on the river of Canton in China, with the conſent of the Chineſe, who were very well pleaſed with their new comers, and well diſpoſed to favour and promote their trade; ſo that they were very ſoon on the ſame footing there with other European nations. At home, indeed, they met with ſome difficulties; for the company being obliged to make uſe of a great many foreigners in all capacities, for the better carrying on of their trade, and there being no nation in Europe naturally more jealous of foreigners than the Swedes, this occaſioned a great clamour, eſpecially among the common people, which, however, was in ſome meaſure got over, by publiſhing an order, that at leaſt two thirds of the mariners ſhould be, for the future, natives of the kingdom; and as the execution of this order was apparently attended with great inconveniencies, it convinced even the vulgar of their miſtake, and that the company had done no more than what they were warranted to do by their charter, and what the circumſtances of their affairs, more eſpecially at the beginning, rendered not only expedient, but neceſſary.

Since that time, the Swediſh company have been very regular, both in fitting out their ſhips, and in their returns, which being ſold to foreigners, have brought in great ſums of money to the kingdom; yet, inaſmuch as a great part of this money has been exported again, for the carrying on this trade, a new complaint has been created thereby, in reſpect to the ſilver carried to the Eaſt-Indies. We need the leſs

admire

admire at this in Sweden, becauſe, though the trade of the kingdom is not large, yet it produces annually a conſiderable ballance in ready money, as is known experimentally here, ſince it is certain that two-thirds of the trade we carry on thither is managed with READY MONEY only; and it is alſo pretty much the ſame thing with other nations who trade thither, the French only excepted, who have a ballance in their favour from the Swedes, which, however, has gradually grown leſs and leſs, in proportion as they have taken more naval ſtores of them of late years, than they did formerly; and as their ſubſidy treaties bring in conſiderable ſums to Sweden, or at leaſt keep the money there, that would otherwiſe be employed in diſcharging the ballance of trade: ſo that the Swedes being uſed to ſee great ſums of money brought in by every other branch of commerce, and being not ſo immediately acquainted with the profits ariſing from this, are the leſs diſpoſed to conſider it as nationally advantageous.

SWITZERLAND is ſurrounded by the territories of France, Germany, and Italy: it is ſeparated from other countries by high mountains. It is divided into various cantons and free provinces, too well known to need a minute deſcription here. Every canton, or province, in ſummer affords good paſture to the ſheep, and in ſome of them there are ploughed fields. A conſiderable part of the cantons, eſpecially that of Bern, the largeſt and moſt conſiderable, is a plain fruitful country, abounding in corn. The largeſt rivers in Europe have their ſource from theſe mountains, particularly the Rhine, the Rhone, the Danube, the Ruſs, and the Inn; and there are many extenſive lakes, as thoſe of Conſtance and Geneva: here are alſo abundance of fine woods, eſpecially of pine and fir-trees. The ſoil produces ſome corn and wine, though not in great quantity, and the fruits of the earth are frequently deſtroyed by ſtorms or cold rains. They abound moſt in cattle, wherein they carry on no inconſiderable trade in the neighbouring countries; and their lakes abound with plenty of fiſh.

A flouriſhing trade is not to be expected in a country ſituate like this, out of the reach of the ſea, and among mountains, paſſable only by mules, without native commodities ſufficient to export, and without any peculiar genius in the natives to erect manufactures. However, the towns of Zurich, Baſil, Schaffhauſen, Geneva, and St Gall, carry on a pretty general traffic; the firſt and laſt of which have ſome manufactures: and Baſil and Schaffhaufen, being ſituate on the frontiers of the empire, are convenient magazines for merchandize to be exchanged between France, Italy, and Germany; which trades bring employment and profit to the inhabitants, among whom are ſome conſiderable merchants.

The Switzers not having a competency of wine or corn within themſelves, are ſupplied with both from the Milaneſe, and the circle of Swabia; and the Tirol, Franche Comté, and Bavaria, ſupply them with ſalt. The ſovereign of each canton is the general ſalt-merchant, and profits by retailing it.—Their neceſſaries for apparel and furniture come likewiſe from abroad.—They make, indeed, ſome coarſe ſtuffs for cloathing their peaſants, but their other people are generally cloathed with the manufactures of other countries. Specie, either of gold or ſilver, is very ſcarce in the circulation of their commerce, from its being locked up in thoſe cantons that have a public treaſury, and for want of proper occaſions to place it at intereſt on good ſecurity; which induces monied people, as well as their public treaſuries, to put it into foreign funds for intereſt ſake.—In conſequence of their ſituation and circumſtances, it is no wonder that the ballance of trade is againſt theſe people; which has put them under the neceſſity of preventing the conſumption of foreign commodities, by ſumptuary laws, which prevent the wear of jewels, gold and ſilver, ſilk, thread, lace, and what is coſtly in apparel; yet theſe meaſures prove no effectual remedy againſt their exportation of ſpecie: nor can any effectual remedy be found for this, but by eſtabliſhing manufactures, which was attempted by numbers of French Proteſtants, who formerly retired hither from perſecution; but, for want of due protection and encouragement, and even toleration by the native citizens, who were weak enough not to ſuffer foreigners to exerciſe their trade in any of their capital cities, they were forced to carry their arts and trades to other countries: and they being but very mean workmen themſelves, there is little hopes, from this miſtaken policy, of ſeeing any conſiderable manufactures flouriſh in theſe cantons. So ridiculouſly obſtinate are theſe people to their trading intereſts, that the poor nobility of the canton of Zurich may not engage in trade without degrading themſelves. See the aſtoniſhing folly hereof, under our articles COMMERCE, FRANCE, ARTIFICERS, and MANUFACTURERS.

Of the EXCHANGES of ST GALL.

Uſances, in regard to the payment of bills of exchange, is reckoned at 14 days after ſight. The days of grace are not regulated there, bills of exchange, according to rigour, being payable 24 hours after the expiration of the uſance.

Some traders keep their accounts in florins, kruitzers, and fenings, money of St Gall; or in florins, kruitzers, and fenings, money of the empire. The florin is 60 kruitzers, and the kruitzer 4 fenings. The effective rixdollar is 102 kruitzers, money of St Gall; the crown of the empire is 2 florins, money of the empire, or 106 kruitzers, money of St Gall. The money of St Gall is regulated, at preſent, at 106 kruitzers. In this money they exchange on the following places:

ST GALL

Gives *		To receive †	
*58 kruitz.	more or leſs,	†at Paris,	1 crown of 60 ſols.
103 ditto,	idem,	at Amſter.	1 rixdollar banco.
85 ditto,	idem,	at Auguſt.	100 florins cur. money.
110 ditto,	idem,	at Bolzan.	100 ditto of exchange.
82 ditto,	idem,	at Frankf.	100 ditto.
20 ditto,	idem,	at Genoa,	1 livre banco.
96 ditto,	idem,	at Geneva,	1 crown of 60 ſols.
85 florins,	idem,	at Leipſic,	100 florins cur. money.
7 $\frac{2}{3}$ ditto,	idem,	at London,	1 pound ſterling.
15 kruitz.	idem,	at Milan,	1 livre cur. money.
85 florins,	idem,	at Nurem.	100 florins ditto.
156 ditto,	idem,	at Venice,	100 ducats banco.
82 ditto,	idem,	at Vienna,	100 florins cur. money

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter R.

SAIL-CLOTH.

SAIL-CLOTH, Britiſh-made, the BOUNTY AND REGULATIONS thereon.

—— Britiſh-made, for which bounty has been given on exportation, afterwards relanded, is forfeited; and every perſon concerned in bringing back, or relanding the ſame, forfeits 2 s. for every ell. 12 Ann. c. 16. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 6.

—— Every ſhip or veſſel built in Great-Britain, or his Majeſty's plantations in America, upon her being firſt navigated, is to be furniſhed with a complete ſet of NEW SAILS of SAIL-CLOTH MANUFACTURED in Great-Britain, which ſhall, bona fide, belong to ſuch ſhip, on forfeiture of 50 l. by the maſter thereof. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 4 and 19.—c. 27. §. 11 and 24.—c. 52. §. 3 and 26.—c. 32. §. 3.

—— Every manufacturer muſt affix or impreſs a ſtamp, containing his name and place of abode, on every piece of ſail-cloth made by him. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

—— If any perſon ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, or work up into ſails, any piece of Britiſh ſail-cloth, without BEING SO STAMPED, and be convicted thereof by the oath of a credible witneſs, before one or more juſtices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, he is to forfeit 10 l. for every piece. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

—— Any perſon wilfully cutting off, or obliterating ſuch ſtamp, or uſing a ſtamp containing the name and place of abode of any other perſon, is upon conviction to forfeit 5 l. for every offence, to be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant from two or more juſtices, to be applied to the uſe of the informer. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

—— Or canvas, foreign made, uſually entered as HOLLAND-DUCK or vitery canvas, fit to be made uſe of for making ſails, upon importation thereof into Great-Britain, to be ſtamped at landing by a ſtamp, to be provided by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, of eight inches diameter, dipped in red-lead, mixed with linſeed-oil well boiled, expreſſing the place and port where they are entered. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 5, 6. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— For counterfeiting ſuch ſtamp, or the impreſſion, or knowingly ſelling any foreign ſail-cloth with a counterfeit ſtamp, the penalty is 50 l. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 6. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— No perſon in Great-Britain, or his Majeſty's plantations in America, may make into ſails or tarpawlins any foreign ſail-cloth or canvas, not ſo ſtamped, on forfeiture thereof;

thereof; and the perſon ſo offending, on conviction thereof by the oath of a credible witneſs before a juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, is to forfeit 50l. for every ſail or tarpawling, for the uſe of the informer; to be levied by diſtreſs, and ſale of his goods, by a warrant from two juſtices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed; and for want of ſuch diſtreſs, to be committed to gaol for ſix months, or untill he pays the penalty. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 7. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— Any perſon making up foreign ſail-cloth or canvas into ſails, muſt place the ſtamps on the after ſide of ſuch ſails, and in ſuch manner, that the number of ſtamps may appear proportionable to the number of bolts or pieces in each ſail, on forfeiture of ſuch ſails, and 10l. for every offence. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 8. and 26. Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— No perſon may alter or mend a ſail of foreign ſail-cloth or canvas, not ſo ſtamped, on forfeiture of 20l. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 9. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— Every ſail-maker, or other perſon in Great-Britain, or his Majeſty's plantations in America, muſt impreſs, on every new ſail he makes, a ſtamp of eight inches diameter, dipped in lamp-black mixed with linſeed oil well boiled, containing his name and place of abode in plain and diſtinct letters and words at length, on forfeiture thereof, and of ten pound for every new ſail delivered to any captain or maſter of a veſſel without ſuch ſtamp. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— Sail cloth of the manufacture of Ireland, imported into Great-Britain, (during the continuance of a bounty on exportation granted by an act of the parliament of Ireland, 19 Geo. II.) is ſubject to a new duty. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1, 3.

——No canvas or ſail-cloth may be imported from Ireland, but in whole and entire bolts or pieces; and if the loops or double threads of the bolts (which are directed to be part of the warp in the middle of that end of the web, which is laſt in weaving) are cut off; or if the bolts have a ſtamp importing the payment of either of the bounties, they ſhall be deemed to have received the bounty. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

—— If any diſpute ariſes about the duty, which ought to be paid, ſuch duty is to be aſcertained in the ſame manner, and under the ſame forfeitures and penalties, as upon goods ſubject to payment of duty ad valorem. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 5.

—— Upon the the importation of canvas, or ſail-cloth, from Ireland, the proper officer of the cuſtoms may open, view, and examine the ſame; and if it appears, that the ſaid bounty has been paid, and no regular entry made at importation, the canvas or ſail-cloth ſo omitted to be entered ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 4.

With Regard to Sails.

Sails.— Every maſter of a veſſel, belonging to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, navigated with, or having on board, any foreign-made ſails, is, at the time of reporting his ſhip, to make an entry and report upon oath of every ſuch ſail, and, before the ſhip is cleared, to pay for them the ſame duty as by 12 Ann. cap. 16. is laid upon foreign-made ſails imported by way of merchandize, on forfeiture of the ſails to his Majeſty, and 50l. for every offence by the maſter; and ſuch ſails are to be ſtamped at the port of entry, in the ſame manner as directed for foreign ſail-cloth. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 1, 2. and 26 Geo. II. 32. §. 3.

—— But if the maſter, before the ſhip is cleared, declares his intention of not paying the duty, and delivers up the ſails to the officer of the cuſtoms, the ſails only are to be forfeited. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 3. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— No captain of a ſhip coming from the Eaſt-Indies liable to this duty or forfeiture for any foreign-made ſails, bona fide, brought from the Eaſt-Indies. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 4. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— Pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act (not otherwiſe directed and applied) may be proſecuted in any of his Majeſty's courts of record in Great-Britain, or ſuch of his Majeſty's plantations in America where the offence is committed; one moiety to his Majeſty, the other to the proſecutor. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

With Regard to Salt.

Salt—Ships laden with ſalt, hovering on the coaſt, and not proceeding directly to ſome port, may be compelled, by the officers of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties, to come into port; officers to continue on board till the ſalt is unladen, or the ſhip departs for her intended voyage; neglecting to enter and unlade the ſalt, or to proceed on her voyage in 20 days, the ſalt forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the maſter. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 7. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1.

—— Officers of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties may ſearch any veſſel lying in port, or riding on the ſea coaſts; and if any ſalt, not duly entered, be found on board any veſſel in which it was not imported, it is forfeited, or the value, and the maſter is ſubject to the ſame penalties and forfeitures as if it had been landed without entry. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 22.

—— Officers obſtructed, every offender is to forfeit 40l. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 22.

——Neglecting or refuſing to enter or unlade ſalt for the ſpace of 20 days after a ſhip is come into port, or within that time to depart and proceed regularly on her voyage to ſome other place (unleſs permitted to make longer ſtay by the chief officer of the cuſtoms, the ſalt on board is forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the maſter. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 7.

—— Imported in ſhips under 40 tons, or otherwiſe than in bulk (except for the ſhip's proviſions) forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 8. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1.

—— Of the produce or manufacture of Great-Britain or Ireland, or other ſalt coming from Ireland, or the Iſle of Man, may not be imported, or brought into any port or place of Great-Britain, nor taken out of any ſhip or veſſel, nor put on ſhore within any of the ſaid ports or places, upon forfeiture thereof, together with the veſſel, and all her tackle and apparel. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 1. and 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 2.

—— Perſons delivering, conveying or aſſiſting, forfeit 20l. each, or ſix months impriſonment. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 1. and 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 2.

—— Such ſalt may be ſeized within two months; and if not claimed within 20 days, and ſecurity given for the value, the ſalt and ſhip are to be ſold to the beſt advantage. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 2.

Except { Salt (from Ireland or other foreign parts) taken in for the neceſſary proviſion of the ſhip, or for curing fiſh, which may be landed; but entry thereof muſt be made within 10 days after coming into port, and the duties paid or ſecured before landing, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 6. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18.
— Salt regularly entered and exported to foreign parts, and the ſhip forced in by ſtreſs of weather, &c. in which caſe the ſalt may be landed within 20 days after coming in, provided the duties be again paid down (before relanding) for the whole quantity of ſalt entered for exportation. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4.

Except { —— Carried coaſtwiſe by certificate. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 3.
—— Taken in by fiſhermen to cure fiſh at ſea, upon oath before the ſalt-officer, that it was taken on board from ſome port in Great-Britain, mentioning the place, and not out of any veſſel at ſea. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 5.

—— Imported from Jerſey, Guernſey, Sark, and Alderney, liable to the ſame duties as any other foreign ſalt. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 11.

—— From Ireland, or other foreign parts, though taken on board for neceſſary proviſion for the ſhip, or for curing fiſh, not entered within ten days after coming into port, and before the landing, &c. is forfeited, with double the value by the maſter of the ſhip, or the owner of the ſalt. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 6. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18.

—— Foreign, landed before entry, and the exciſe duty be ſatisfied, or without a warrant from the collector, or officer appointed for the duty on ſalt, is forfeited, or the value thereof, and 10s. per buſhel; and every perſon concerned is to forfeit 100l. 5 and 6 W. III. c. 7. §. 4. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 24. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 6. and 5. Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26. Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— The perſons in whoſe cuſtody ſuch ſalt is found are liable to the ſame penalties, as if they had been the importers, unleſs they make it appear from whom they had it. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 3.

—— Imbezzled after importation, and before ware-houſeing, the forfeiture is 20s. for every buſhel of 84 lb. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Cellared and locked up, may not be removed without a warrant or permit for the conveyance, upon forfeiture thereof, beſides 10s. per buſhel, and 20l. for every ſuch offence to be recovered of the importer, and of every perſon concerned in the removal. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 2.

—— Importers to be charged with the full quantity of ſalt cellared, though upon clearing ſuch cellar or warehouſe there may appear to be a deficiency. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 17.

—— At the end of every fiſhing ſeaſon, the officer is to take an account of the ſalt remaining, which muſt be forthwith locked up as before; and the proprietors are to deliver them an account, upon oath, of the quantity of fiſh exported

(confirmed

(confirmed by a certificate of the officers of the port of exportation) or of the red or white herrings entered for home conſumption, on which the ſaid ſalt had been uſed. But as to white herrings ſent to foreign markets, immediately ſent from ſea, without being brought into port by the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery, the quantity is to be aſcertained by the oath of the ſociety's ſuperintendant before a juſtice of the peace, or officer of the ſalt duties; and a certificate under the hands of their ſecretary and accountant, either that it appears by the letters or accounts from their correſpondents or agents, to whom ſuch fiſh were conſigned, that they have come to their hands, or that ſuch fiſh have been loſt at ſea. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 3. 10 and 8 Geo. I. c. 16. §. 3, 6. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. c. 3. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 5, 6.

—— But if delivered over by the proprietors to any other perſons for the curing of fiſh, it muſt be ſo expreſſed in his accounts, and made appear by oath or otherwiſe, that it was ſo uſed, upon forfeiture of 50 l. and the perſons to whom delivered muſt, upon oath likewiſe, give an account of the ſalt by them uſed in the curing of fiſh exported; confirmed by the certificate of the officers of the port of exportation. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 10. and 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 41. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Such ſalt not ſo accounted for within 3 months after the expiration of each year, the forfeiture is 10 s. per buſhel. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 10. and 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 41. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Such ſalt as cannot be accounted for, having been ſold, given away, or uſed for any other purpoſe, the proprietor, or the perſons to whom delivered, and the buyer, are each of them to forfeit 20 s. per buſhel; 1-3d to the uſe of his Majeſty, and the remainder to the informer or ſuer. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— In default of payment within 14 days, if ſufficient effects cannot be found, the offenders muſt be ſent to the houſe of correction, for any time not exceeding three months. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Fiſh cured with ſalt, delivered out of warehouſes, not exported while good and merchantable, may be deſtroyed in the preſence of an officer, and his certificate thereof accepted inſtead of that for exportation. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 4.

—— Foreign ſalt from Scotland into England, and all ſalt brought coaſtwiſe — May not be delivered, nor a warrant granted for the landing, till certificate of the true quantity on board, ſigned by the cuſtom and ſalt officers of the loading-port, be produced to the ſalt-officer of the delivering-port, and oath be made before the ſalt-officer by the maſter, mate or boatſwain, that to his knowlege there has not been taken on board any ſalt ſince he came from ſuch port, upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10 s. per buſhel. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 12. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Part only of ſuch ſalt landed, and the ſhip proceeding with the remainder, the quantity delivered muſt be certified by the officers, on the back on the cocket, tranſire or other warrant, or elſe by a ſeparate certificate under the hand and ſeal of the officers. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 12. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Officers at the delivering port may demand a ſight of the permit and cocket, and are to weigh the ſalt upon unlading; and if found to be more in weight than expreſſed in ſuch permit and cocket, the ſurpluſage is forfeited. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 12, 13. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Maſters refuſing to ſhew the permit and cocket, the ſalt may be ſeized and detained; and if not produced within four days, the ſalt is forfeited. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 12, 13. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— For which the duties have been drawn back, fraudulently relanded, without entry and repayment of the duties; the offender is to forfeit double the value thereof, and 10 s. per buſhel, and to be ſubject to ſuch other penalties and forfeitures, as in caſe of foreign ſalt illegally landed. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 20. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 27. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Landed in Ireland, not to have any drawback, unleſs entered outwards for ſome port in Ireland. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 13. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Shipped for Ireland — Debentures not to be made out, nor draw-backs allowed, till a certificate, under the hand of the collector of ſome port in Ireland, of the particular quantity there landed, be produced; the draw-back may not be allowed for any more than ſuch quantity. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

Except —— The allowances for waſte, being four buſhels for every 40 buſhels of white ſalt, and two buſhels for every 40 buſhels of rock ſalt, 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 14.

—— Shipped for Ireland, and loſt at ſea by ſinking of the ſhip, or taken by enemies; upon due proof made within two years, by the oaths of two credible witneſſes before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, and their certificate thereof produced, the draw-back may be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated. 4 and 5 Ann. c. 12. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 7.

—— After put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein it is to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the preſence of a ſalt-officer, upon forfeiture of the boat, &c. goods, and 20 l. by every perſon concerned, or ſix months impriſonment. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 23. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Ships laden with ſalt to be exported, drove into port by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity, ſalt-officers may go and remain on board till the ſalt be re-entered, or the ſhips proceed on their voyages. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Such ſalt may be relanded, within 20 days, upon due entry and repayment of the duty for the whole quantity entered outwards. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Refuſing officers to come on board, penalty 20 l. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. 2 and 3 of Ann. c. 14. §. 4. 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Unladen before due entry, or repayment of duty forfeited, with the whole cargo remaining on board. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 2 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe — The particular quantity muſt be expreſſed in the cocket, which muſt be ſigned by the ſalt-officer, and given without fee or delay; and if the ſhip puts into any port of Great-Britain, the officers of the cuſtoms and ſalt duty may demand a ſight thereof; and upon oath made before the collector or cuſtomer, that they have juſt cauſe to ſuſpect that there is leſs on board than expreſſed in ſuch cocket, the ſalt may be weighed. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 13.

—— If, upon weighing, a deficiency be found, after a reaſonable allowance made for waſte, &c. the remainder is forfeited. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 13.

—— Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe — Periſhing by the ſinking of the ſhip before gone out of port, and before the exporter is entitled to the drawback; upon proof of ſuch loſs before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, they are to grant the exporter or proprietor a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers, they are to permit the like quantity, therein mentioned, to be bought, without payment of any duty of exciſe. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 10.

—— Or ſuch ſalt loſt, in carrying down the river to be ſhipped for exportation, or loſt after it is ſo ſhipped, and before the exporter is entitled to a debenture, and proof thereof made as above, the certificate ſhall be applied by the collector of the duties on ſalt to diſcharge and vacate the ſecurity given for the duty of ſo much as appears thereby to be loſt. 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 6.

—— Not to be ſhipped in order to be ſent coaſtwiſe by a retailer or ſhopkeeper, till it be made appear, by oath or otherwiſe, before the officers, that the duty has been paid, or ſecured to be paid, or that it was bought of ſome other retailer, or ſhopkeeper, that had paid the duty. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 3. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Upon re ſhipping from any boat, &c. on board any ſhip, to be carried coaſtwiſe, the maſter of the boat, &c. muſt, before any diſpatches be granted, make oath before the ſalt-officer, that it is truly re-ſhipped, and not augmented or diminiſhed, upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10 s. per buſhel. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 25. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—— Belonging to Britiſh ſubjects that have paid the duty, periſhed or loſt in any port of Great-Britain, or ſhipped coaſtwiſe, and loſt at ſea by ſtorms, &c. upon proof of ſuch loſs, and that it was not occaſioned by leakage or negligence, made by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes (whereof the maſter or mate to be one) before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, they are to grant a certificate of ſuch proof being made; which being produced to any of the officers appointed to collect the duty upon ſalt, he is to permit the like quantity to be bought free of exciſe. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 21. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 28. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 18. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

——Imported, not of the product of Great Britain, to be deemed foreign, and charged accordingly. 5 & 6 W. & M. c. 7. §. 13.

——Exported to the Iſle of Man, Jerſey, or Guernſey, entitled to the drawback. 2 & 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 9.

——Any ſalt-maker, importer of ſalt, or any refiner or proprietor of rock-ſalt, refuſing, upon due requeſt or demand made by the ſalt-officer, in the day-time, or in the night in the preſence of a conſtable or other lawful officer of the peace, to permit ſuch officer to enter his works, warehouſes, or other places, by him made uſe of for making, laying, refining, or keeping of ſalt, is to forfeit 40 l. for every ſuch offence. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 2.

——Rock-ſalt, ſalt-rock, or refined ſalt, exported to parts beyond the ſeas—The exporter to be paid by the ſalt-officer, for every buſhel of rock-ſalt, or ſalt-rock, after the rate of 65 lb. to the buſhel, and refined ſalt after the rate of 56 lb. to the buſhel; all the duties which have been paid for the ſame, within two days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms, verified by the ſearcher, as to his quantity ſhipped; the oath of the exporter, or his agent, being firſt taken, that the duties were paid, and that it is to be exported beyond the ſeas, and not relanded in Great-Britain; which debenture is to be given without fee or reward. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 7. & 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 9.

——Rock or white-ſalt not to be ſhipped on board any veſſel for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe, without being firſt weighed by the officers appointed by the commiſſioners of exciſe, and a permit or certificate of the quantity obtained, upon penalty of forfeiture of the ſalt, and 10s. per buſhel, unleſs the officer refuſes, or does not attend to weigh it, or refuſe a permit or certificate when weighed. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 10, 11.

The officer refuſing ſuch permit (which is to be given gratis) is to forfeit 5 l. to the perſon grieved. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 10, 11.

Carried coaſtwiſe by cocket or tranſire twenty miles by ſea or more; or from the port of Great-Yarmouth to Leoſtoff or Southwold-bay, although to a member or creek of the port where it is firſt ſhipped off, the allowance to be made for waſte is three buſhels for every 40 buſhels of white ſalt, and one buſhel and a half for every 40 buſhels of rock-ſalt. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 4. & 6 Ann. c. 12. §. 1.

——The allowance to be made but once, though the ſalt ſhould be carried coaſtwiſe from ſeveral ports, or members of ports. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 4. & 6 Ann. c. 12. §. 1.

——Foreign, or Engliſh, rock or refined ſalt—The exporter to have no greater allowance on prompt payment, and for waſte, and upon exportation of the ſame, than what was paid or ſecured for the duty at firſt. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 16. & 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 5. & 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

——Engliſh to have 9 months, and rock-ſalt 12 months, for payment of exciſe. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 5.

——Scots—imported into England, to pay 2s. 4d. per buſhel, during the continuance of 2s. 4d. per buſhel on Engliſh ſalt, impoſed by 9 & 10 W. III. c. 4. & 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 8.

——And during the ſaid time, no ſalt may be brought from Scotland to England by land in any manner, upon forfeiture thereof, with the cattle and carriages, and 20s. per buſhel, to be recovered of the carrier or owner; and the perſon carrying the ſame to be impriſoned by any one juſtice of the peace for ſix months, and until the penalty be paid. 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 8.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS,

With regard to SEIZURES and FORFEITURES of ſhips—for the ſeveral cauſes thereof, follows, under the following article, SHIPS.

SEIZURES—of ſhips and goods as forfeited, for unlawful importation and exportation, or for non-payment of duties, may be made only by officers of the cuſtoms, or perſons authorized by warrant from the treaſury, or by ſpecial commiſſion under his Majeſty's great or privy-ſeal; and if made by any other perſons, they are void. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 15.

——Except in the flolowing caſes, viz. { Alamodes, arrack, brandy, cattle, fiſh, goods inwards, Ireland, plantations, wool.

——Officers making colluſive ſeizures of foreign goods, in order to evade the duties, are to forfeit 500 l. and be rendered incapable of ſerving his Majeſty; and the importers or owners are to forfeit treble the value of the goods. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 24.

——Officers or proprietors diſcovering their offences to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, within two months, ſo as to convict their accomplices, are to be acquitted. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 25.

——Other perſons ſo diſcovering, within three months, are to have half of his Majeſty's ſhare. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 26.

——Not proſecuted to effect for the bringing of them to trial and condemnation, by the ſeizer or informer, may be ſeized or informed againſt, or an action brought by way of devenerunt, by any other officer, &c. who is to be eſteemed as the true firſt informer or ſeizer. 13 & 14 Car II. c. 11. §. 17.

——Officers or informers may not compound any ſeizure, under one-third part of the appraiſed value, upon forfeiture of office. 13 & 14. Car. II. c. 11. §. 18.

COMPOSITION of PETTY SEIZURES.

All goods ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms are to be proſecuted to condemnation, either in the court of exchequer, or before the juſtices of the peace, &c. and the king's moiety or ſhare paid in to the proper officers, before any writ or order of delivery may be granted, except in the caſe of the 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 30. periſhable goods: but when the ſeizure is ſo ſmall, that the cuſtom thereof does not exceed 40 s. the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms have, by their patent, a power to compound for it: and in that caſe, the king's part is to he paid in to the collector of the port of ſeizure; who is to account for it by the name of COMPOSITION on PETTY SEIZURES; which he is to comprehend under the general head of cuſtoms.

——In all ſuits and informations upon any act concerning the importation of goods, if the property be claimed by any perſon as the importer, the onus probandi is to lie on the owner or claimer. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 28.

——Upon entry of claim to any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or to any ſhips, veſſels or boats, ſeized by virtue of any law now in force for the more effectual preventing he exportation of wool; or to any ſhip, veſſel or boat, of 100 tons burthen, or under, ſeized for any other cauſe of forfeiture, the claimer muſt give ſecurity in the penalty of 30 l. in the court where proſecuted, to pay the coſts; in default whereof, within the time limited by the courſe of ſuch court, the goods may be recovered. 8 Ann. c. 7. §. 76. & 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. §. 8.

——Foreign goods ſeized for non-payment of duties, or any other cauſe.—In diſputes, whether the duties have been paid, or the goods have been lawfully imported, or legally compounded for, or condemned, or concerning the place from whence imported, the proof is to lie on the owner or claimer. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 8.

——In ſeizures or informations upon the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. c. 18. the defendant may have a commiſſion out of the high court of chancery, to examine witneſſes beyond the ſeas, and a competent time allowed before trial; and ſuch examination is to be admitted for evidence, as if given viva voce. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 29.

——In every action, ſuit, indictment, information or proſecution, commenced againſt officers of the cuſtoms, &c. for any matter or thing done by virtue, or in purſuance, or execution of this, or any other act relating to the cuſtoms and navigation, the defendants may plead the general iſſue, and give thoſe particular acts, and the ſpecial matter in evidence for their defence, in any of the courts of juſtice; and if, upon trial, a verdict paſs for the defendants, or the plaintiffs diſcontinue or forbear their actions, or become non-ſuited, or judgment be given againſt them, by demurrer or otherwiſe, the defendants are to have [full, double or treble] coſts of ſuit awarded againſt ſuch plaintiffs, &c. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 16. and the ſeveral other acts on which the officers are to proceed.

——Writs of delivery may not be granted out of the court of exchequer for goods ſeized, but upon good ſecurity, and only for ſuch goods as are periſhable, or where the informer defers or delays coming to as ſpeedy a trial, as the courſe of that court will permit. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 30.

——Forfeitures and penalties may be ſued for, proſecuted and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, information, or indictment, in his Majeſty's court of exchequer, or any other of his Majeſty's courts of record; wherein no aſſoign, protection, privilege, or wager of law, or any more than one imparlance, muſt be allowed or admitted. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 31. and the other acts which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

——Except in the following caſes, viz. { Ammunition, aſhes, brandy, candles, coffee, drawbacks, fiſh, goods inwards, Ireland, iron, quarentine, ſails, ſalt, ſhips, ſilk, ſpirits, tobacco, wool.

——Upon ſeizures of goods run or prohibited, and of the veſſels, carriages, horſes, &c. which may be tried before the juſtice of the peace—One or more of the ſaid juſtices may adminiſter an oath to perſons ſkilled in the nature of the goods, &c. ſeized, to view the ſame, and to return the ſpecies, quantity, quality, and value thereof, to the ſaid juſtices, in a limited time, in order that informations may be exhibited for their hearing and determining ſuch ſeizures. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 16.

——After condemnation, by the judgment of ſuch juſtices, the goods, &c. are to be publicly ſold to the beſt bidder, at ſuch places and times as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall think proper. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 16.

——Of goods liable to duties, forfeited for being ſhipped, or put into any boat, &c. with intent to be exported, or for being unſhipped to be laid on land, out of any ſhip from foreign parts, before the ſaid duties are paid, ſecured, tendered or agreed for, and all forfeitures and penalties; one

moiety

moiety of the rate or value thereof is to be for the uſe of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to the perſon that ſeizes, informs, or ſues for the ſame. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and the ſeveral other acts quoted for goods inwards (art. 25.) and thoſe which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

——Except in the following caſes, viz. { Alamodes, arrack, brandy, callicoes, cattle, coin, Eaſt-India goods coaſtwiſe inwards, muſlins, plantation goods, South-ſeas, tea, tobacco, wool.

——On all trials of ſeizures, the ſeizure, together with the method and form of making it, ſhall be taken to have been done in the manner as ſet forth in the information, without any evidence thereof; and all judges and juſtices of the peace are to proceed to the trial of the merits of the cauſe, without enquiring into the fact, form, or manner of making the ſeizure. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 34.

——In any information brought to trial, on account of the ſeizure of any ſhip or goods, as forfeited, wherein a verdict is found for the claimer, if it appears to the court there was a probable cauſe of ſeizure, and is ſo certified upon the record, the defendant ſhall not be intitled to any coſts, nor the ſeizer liable to any action, indictment, or proſecution. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 16. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

——In any action, indictment or proſecution, brought againſt any perſon for ſeizing any ſhip or goods, wherein a verdict is given againſt the defendant, if the court ſhall certify upon the record, that there was a probable cauſe of ſeizure, the plaintiff, beſides his ſhip or goods, or the value thereof, ſhall not be intitled to above two-pence damage, nor to any coſts, nor the defendant fined above one ſhilling. 19 Geo II. c. 34. §. 16. & 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

——The produce of the ſeizures of prohibited and uncuſtomed goods is to be applied towards the ſupport of his majeſty's houſhold, and of the honour and dignity of the crown. 1 Geo. II. c. 1. §. 4.

The LAWS of the CUSTOMS, with regard to SHEEP.

SHEEP——Lambs or rams, alive, exported: for the firſt offence the exporter, his aiders or abettors, are to forfeit all their goods for ever, and to ſuffer a year's impriſonment without bail or main-prize; and then to have their left hand cut off in a market-town, upon a market-day, and be there publicly nailed up. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. & 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

——Perſons offending a ſecond time, are to be adjudged felons, and to ſuffer death accordingly. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

——The offences to be heard and determined by the juſtices of oyer and terminer, gaol-delivery, and juſtices of the peace. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. & 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

The chief LAWS of the CUSTOMS with reſpect to SHIPS.

SHIPS INWARDS, of 50 tons, or under, laden with cuſtomable and prohibited goods, hovering on the coaſts within the limits of any port, or if laden with brandy, within two leagues of the ſhore, pretending to be bound to foreign parts, and not proceeding on their voyages, the maſter may be compelled to give ſecurity in treble the value of the goods, to proceed and to land them in foreign parts: on default whereof, (unleſs permitted by the collector to make a longer ſtay, which muſt not exceed 20 days) the goods muſt be ſecured, and the duties paid; or if they are wool, or ſuch goods as are prohibited, they will be forfeited. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 8. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

——After the goods are brought on ſhore, and ſecured by the officers, the bond muſt be delivered up. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 9. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

——Or if not brought on ſhore, upon producing a certificate, under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate of any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants there reſiding, teſtifying the landing, or upon due proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea, the ſaid bond is to be vacated and diſcharged. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 9. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

——Maſters of ſuch ſhips ſuffering foreign goods to be put out, or wool, woolfells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, to be taken in, beſides former penalties, are to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 32.

——The tonnage of ſuch ſhips is to be meaſured and aſcertained by the following rule, viz. Take the length of the keel within board (ſo much as ſhe treads on the ground) and the breadth within board by the midſhip beam, from plank to plank, and half the breadth for the depth: then multiply the length by the breadth, and that product by the depth, and divide the whole by 94; the quotient will give the true contents of the tonnage. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 33.

——Freighted towards Great-Britain or elſewhere, may not be compelled to come into any port of Great-Britain, nor to tarry there againſt the wills of the maſters, &c. and if ſuch ſhip comes voluntarily, or be driven in, part of the goods may be delivered, and the duties paid, and the ſhips be permitted to proceed with the remainder, where the maſters, &c. pleaſe, without payment of duties. 28 Edw. III. c. 13. §. 3. & 20 Ric. I. c. 4. §. 1.

——But no brandy, or other ſpirits, in caſks leſs than 60 gallons, can be reported for exportation. 28 Geo II. c. 21. § 1.

——In diſtreſs—Upon application by, or on behalf of, the commander of any ſhip ſtranded, or being in danger of ſtranding, ſheriffs, or the deputies, juſtices of the peace, all mayors, bailiffs, or other head officer of the corporations and port-towns, conſtables, headboroughs, tything-men, officers of the cuſtoms or exciſe, coroners, and commiſſioners of the land-tax, are required to command the conſtables of the ſeveral ports neareſt the place to ſummon perſons to aſſiſt in preſerving ſuch ſhips and cargoes; and the officers of the cuſtoms, and ſaid conſtables, may command ſhips, riding at an anchor near the place, to aſſiſt by their boats, and as many hands as they can conveniently ſpare: commanders of ſuch ſhips, refuſing or neglecting their aſſiſtance, forfeit 100l. to the commander of the ſhip in diſtreſs. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 1. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 6, 9, 16.

——Perſons acting in the preſervation of ſuch ſhips and cargoes, are to be rewarded within thirty days; on default whereof, the ſhips and cargoes may be detained by the officers of the cuſtoms; and in caſe of diſpute about the quantum for ſuch ſervice, three juſtices of the peace may adjuſt the ſame. Provided no perſon appears to claim the goods ſo ſaved, the chief officer of the cuſtoms, in the next port, ſhall apply to three of the neareſt juſtices of the peace, who ſhall put him, or ſome other reſponſible perſon, in poſſeſſion thereof; and if not claimed within twelve months, are to be publicly ſold (or, if the goods be periſhable, forthwith ſold); and after deduction of charges the reſidue is to be tranſmitted into the exchequer, there to remain, to be applied for by the proprietor. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 2. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12 §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——Perſons not impowered, entering, or endeavouring to enter, ſhips in diſtreſs, or moleſting the preſervation thereof, or defacing the marks of goods ſaved, before an account thereof be taken, are to make double ſatisfaction within twenty days, or elſe to be put to hard labour for 12 months. Perſons entering ſuch ſhips without leave, may be repelled by force. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 3. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——Goods ſaved from ſhips in diſtreſs, ſtolen, or carried off, the perſon on whom found is to reſtore them to the proprietor, upon forfeiture of treble the value. 11 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. § 4. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——Holes made in the bottoms, &c. of ſhips in diſtreſs, the pump taken away, or any thing done tending to the deſtruction thereof, the perſons ſo offending are to be made guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 5. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——Officers of the cuſtoms abuſing the truſt hereby repoſed in them, are to forfeit treble damages to the party aggrieved, and to be rendered incapable. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 7. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——In diſtreſs, wrecked, ſtranded, or caſt on ſhore, in his majeſty's dominions (whether any living creature be on board or no) any perſon convicted of plundering, taking away, or deſtroying any goods or merchandize, furniture, tackle, apparel, proviſion, or part belonging to her; or of beating, or wounding, with intent to kill; or obſtructing the eſcape of any perſons endeavouring to ſave their lives from her; or of putting out falſe lights, with intent to bring any veſſel into danger, is to ſuffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 1.

——But if the goods or effects ſtranded, loſt or caſt on ſhore, are of ſmall value, and ſtolen without circumſtances of cruelty, outrage, or violence, the offender may be proſecuted by indictment for petit larceny, and puniſhed accordingly. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 2.

——Such goods being ſtolen, upon information upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, of their being unlawfully conveyed away, or concealed in any place, or of ſome reaſonable ground of ſuſpicion thereof, ſuch juſtice may grant warrants for ſearch; and if they are found there, or in cuſtody of any perſon not legally intitled to keep them, the owner or occupier of the place, or the perſon upon whom they are found, not immediately delivering them upon demand to the owner or perſon lawfully authorized to demand them, or not giving a good account how he came by them, is to be committed to gaol for ſix months, or until he pays the owner treble the value of the goods. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 3.

——Such goods ſtolen, or ſuſpected to be ſo, and offered to ſale, may be ſtopped and ſeized by the perſon to whom they are offered, or by any officer of the cuſtoms or excile, or any peace officer, who muſt carry them, or give notice of the ſeizure, to a juſtice of the peace; and if the perſon who offered them to ſale does not, within ten days, prove, to the ſatis-

ſatisfaction of the juſtice, the property to be in him, or the perſon who employed him, the goods, by order of the juſtice, are to be delivered over to the uſe of the owner, upon payment of reaſonable reward for the ſeizure, to be aſcertained by the juſtice; who is alſo to commit the perſon who offered them to ſale to gaol for ſix months, or until he has paid treble the value of the goods to the owner. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 4.

——Any perſon not employed by the maſter, mariners, or owners, or perſons lawfully authorized, who, in the abſence of thoſe who are ſo, ſhall ſave any ſhip or effects, and cauſe them to be carried into port, or to any cuſtom-houſe near, or other place of ſafe cuſtody, immediately giving notice thereof to ſome juſtice of the peace, magiſtrate, or cuſtom-houſe or exciſe officer, or ſhall diſcover to them where ſuch effects are wrongfully bought, ſold or concealed, ſhall be entitled to a reaſonable reward from the maſter or owners, to be adjuſted, in caſe of diſagreement, in the ſame manner as ſalvage. 11 Geo. I. c. 19. §. 5.

——Upon oath being made before a proper magiſtrate of any ſuch plunder or theft, or of the breaking any ſhip contrary to 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. the examination taken thereupon in writing is to be delivered to the clerk of the peace of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, or to his deputy, who is to cauſe the offenders to be proſecuted in that county, or any one next adjoining; or, if the fact is committed in Wales, in the next adjoining Engliſh county. The neceſſary charges are to be paid him by the treaſurer of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, and amount to be aſcertained by juſtices of the peace at the general or quarter-ſeſſions. Such clerk of the peace, refuſing or neglecting to proſecute, forfeits 100l. to any perſon who ſhall ſue for it. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 8.

——Such indictments may be laid in the next adjoining county by any other perſon. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 8.

——Ships or Goods stranded.—The juſtice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, collector of the cuſtoms, or chief conſtable neareſt the place, muſt forthwith give public notice for a meeting of the ſheriff, or his deputy, the juſtices of the peace, mayors, or chief magiſtrates, of towns corporate, coroners, and commiſſioners of the land-tax, or any five of them, who are required to give aid in execution of this act. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. and to employ proper perſons in ſaving the veſſels or effects, and to examine perſons upon oath concerning them or the ſalvage, to adjuſt the quantum of ſalvage, and diſtribute it among the perſons concerned in caſe of diſagreement; and every one who attends and acts, is to be paid four ſhillings a day for his expences, out of the goods ſaved by his care and direction. 26 Geo II. c. 19. §. 6.

——The charges and rewards for ſalvage not being paid, or ſecurity given for it, within 40 days after the ſervice performed, the officer of the cuſtoms concerned may borrow money to ſatisfy the ſame, upon a bill of ſale under his hand and ſeal of the ſhip and cargo; redeemable, nevertheleſs, upon payment of the principal borrowed, and intereſt at four per cent. per annum. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 7.

——Perſons aſſembled to ſave any veſſel or effects, are to conform to orders in the following ſubordination, as the perſon happens to be preſent. In the firſt place, to the orders of the maſter, or other officers or owners, or perſons employed by them: in the next place, to the orders of officers of the cuſtoms; then of the officers of exciſe; then of the ſheriff or his deputy; then of any juſtice of the peace; then of the mayor or chief magiſtrate of a corporation; then of the coroner; then of the commiſſioners of the land-tax; then of any chief conſtable; then of any petty conſtable, or other peace-officer. Any perſon wilfully acting contrary to ſuch orders, forfeits any ſum not exceeding 5l. to be levied by warrant of a juſtice of the peace; and for non-payment the offender is to be committed to the houſe of correction, not exceeding three months. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 13.

——For aſſaulting, wounding, or beating any perſon lawfully authorized, on account of their acting in the ſalvage of any veſſel or effects, the offender, upon conviction at the aſſizes, or the general or quarter-ſeſſions for the county, &c. where the offence was committed, is to be tranſported for ſeven years. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 11.

——Juſtices of the peace, in caſe of need, may, in the abſence of the high-ſheriff, take ſufficient power of the county, to repel all unjuſt violence, and to enforce the execution of this act. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 12.

——Ships in Diſtreſs.—The officer of the cuſtoms, who acts in preſervation thereof, muſt, as ſoon as conveniently may be, cauſe all perſons belonging to the ſhip, or others who can give an account thereof, to be examined upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, as to the name and deſcription, the name of the commander and owners, and owners of the cargo, of the port from and to which bound, and the occaſion of the diſtreſs. The examination is to be taken in writing, and a copy to be delivered to the officer of the cuſtoms, with a copy of the account of the goods, who is to tranſmit it to the ſecretary of the admiralty, to be publiſhed in the London Gazette, for information of the perſons concerned. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 15.

——Nothing in this act to extend to Scotland. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 18.

——This act not to prejudice any in the right to wrecks, or goods that ſhall be flotſam, jetſam, or logan. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 9. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 14, 16.

——Nor to extend to, or any ways affect the ancient juriſdiction and uſage of the admiralty court of the cinque-ports; but the officers thereof are to have the ſame power as other perſons in other ports. 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 2. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 10, 16.

——Theſe acts to be read in every pariſh church or chapel of all the ſea-port towns of this kingdom, on the Sundays next before Michaelmas-day, Chriſtmas-day, Lady-day, and Midſummer-day. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 18. §. 8, 10. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

——Ships inwards—Arriving in the port of London, from foreign parts, may not be above three days in coming from Gravefend to the place of diſcharge, without touching or ſtaying at any wharf, key, &c. adjoining to either ſhore between Gravefend and Cheſter's key, unleſs apparently hindered by contrary winds, &c. or other juſt impediment, to be allowed by the principal officers of the cuſtoms; and in the out-ports they muſt come directly up to the place of unlading, upon forfeiture of 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11.

——Upon, or before their arrival, and before any goods are unladen, the maſters or purſers for that voyage muſt, upon oath, make a juſt and true entry of the burthen, contents and lading of their ſhips, with the particular marks, numbers, qualities, and contents of every parcel of goods on board, to the beſt of their knowlege; alſo where laden, of what country built, how manned, who was maſter during the voyage, and who are owners; and muſt anſwer all queſtions concerning the ſame, that ſhall be demanded by the cuſtomer, &c. upon forfeiture of 100l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 5. & 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 2.

——And upon making ſuch declaration upon oath before any two principal officers of the port, bulk may be broke in any port allowed by law, and duty paid for no more goods than are entered and landed; but upon arrival at the next port, declaration muſt likewiſe be made upon oath, before the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, or ſurveyor, or two of them, of the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the firſt port, and to whom they did belong.

——No cuſtomer, collector, or other officer of the cuſtoms, is to clear inwards any ſhip or veſſel liable to the payment of 6 d. per month towards the ſupport of the hoſpital for ſeamen, &c. diſabled in the merchants ſervice, or grant any warrant or other diſcharge, or ſuffer ſuch ſhip to go out of port, till a certificate is produced of payment of the duty, and that the maſter is not more in arrear than three months for the ſame, or is exempted from payment thereof, on forfeiture of 20l. In caſe the certificate is not produced to the tide-ſurveyor when he comes on board to clear the ſhip, the tide-waiters are to be continued at the expence of the maſter, or owners, till it is produced. 20 Geo. II. c. 38. §. 22, 23.

——Ships of War—from parts beyond the ſeas, having any goods on board, may not unlade them, till the captain has ſignified under his hand, to the cuſtomer, collector, and comptroller inwards, the names of every importer, with the marks, numbers, quantity and quality of every parcel of goods, and has anſwered upon oath to ſuch queſtions as ſhall be demanded by the ſaid officers, upon forfeiture of 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

——Such ſhips liable to all ſearches and rules as merchant-ſhips are ſubject to; except victualling-bills and entering. And captains refuſing to make ſuch entries, as well inwards as outwards, the officers may bring all cuſtomable and prohibited goods on ſhore to the king's ſtore-houſe. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

——Any commander, or other officer of any of his majeſty's ſhips or veſſels, receiving, or permitting to be received, any goods or merchandize, other than for the uſe of the ſhip, except gold, ſilver, jewels; and except goods of merchants, wrecked or in imminent danger; and except goods ordered on board by the lords of the admiralty; being convicted thereof by a court-martial, to be caſhiered, and rendered incapable of any office in the naval ſervice; and moreover to forfeit the value of all ſuch goods ſo put on board, or the ſum of 500l. one moiety to the informer, or perſon who ſhall ſue for the ſame, the other to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital; to be recovered in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or in the high court of admiralty, at the election of the proſecutor; and the court where judgment ſhall be given againſt the offender is, with all convenient ſpeed, to certify the ſame to the lords of the admiralty. 22 Geo. II. c. 33. art. 18. §. 24.

——Ships inwards.—The maſters of any ſhips from foreign parts, or any other perſon, ſuffering any package to be opened, and the goods imbezzled, carried away, or put into any other form or package, after the ſhip comes into the port of diſcharge, are to forfeit 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

Or

—— Or knowing of, or conſenting to, the unſhipping of any goods inwards, without a warrant, and the preſence o an officer, are to forfeit the value of the goods. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

—— Ships belonging to the ſubjects of the French king lading or unlading any goods, or taking in, or ſetting on ſhore, any paſſengers, were to pay to the collector of the cuſtoms at that port, a duty of five ſhillings for every ton burthen, upon forfeiture of 10 l. beſides the duty: to continue as long as a duty of 50 ſols per ton on Britiſh ſhips was collected in France, and three months after. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 17. and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 24.

—— Watermen, &c. going out from any port to fetch goods from ſuch ſhips, were liable to the payment of this duty, and to forfeit 40 l. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 17. and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 24.

But this duty is made void by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce, concluded at Utrecht, 1713.

SHIPS OUTWARDS—Bound for parts beyond the ſeas, may not take in any Britiſh goods (fiſh taken by Britiſh excepted) 'till ſuch ſhips are entered by the maſters in the book of the cuſtomer or collector, and comptroller OUTWARDS, with the burthens, the maſters names, the number of guns and ammunition, and to what places bound. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

—— Before departure out of the port, the maſters are to bring to the ſaid officers a content in writing, under their hands, of the names of every exporter, with the marks and number of the goods; and are, upon oath, to anſwer publickly in the cuſtom-houſe to ſuch queſtions, as ſhall be demanded concerning the ſame, upon forfeiture of 100 l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

—— If bound to Ireland with certificate goods, the maſters muſt take with them a duplicate of their contents in writing, certified under the hands and ſeals of the collector and comptroller of the port in Great-Britain, in order to be delivered to the officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 19.

—— The maſters ſuffering the package of any foreign goods to be opened on board, or put into any other form or package, or unſhipped whilſt the ſhip remains in port, without leave of the principal officers, are to forfeit 100 l. and to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 7. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

—— May not be detained by the officers above three tides after their arrival at Graveſend, and in the OUT-PORTS not above one tide, after they are ready to ſail, upon forfeiture of office, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner. See the latter end of letter A.

—— FOREIGN-BUILT SHIPS TRADING COASTWISE, ſo employed, bought after the paſſing of this act, are to pay at the port of diſcharge, for every voyage, 5 s. per ton, one moiety for the uſe of the cheſt at Chatham, and the other moiety to the Trinity-houſe at Deptford-ſtrand, 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 2.

—— But ſuch ſhips bought before the 29th of September, 1689, and not made free, are to pay only 12 d. per ton. 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 3.

—— To be received and recovered as directed for the cuſtoms, by 12 Car. II. c. 4. and 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 4.

BRITISH-BUILT, which any where in the Book of Rates are deſigned to entitle the importer or exporters of goods to any abatement or privilege, are to be underſtood, ſhips built in GREAT-BRITAIN, IRELAND, GUERNSEY, JERSEY, or the BRITISH PLANTATIONS in ASIA, AFRICA, or AMERICA, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners, are Britiſh, i. e. his Majeſty's ſubjects of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations, and have been ſo during the whole voyage, unleſs in caſe of ſickneſs, death, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 7. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 6.

—— But Britiſh ſhips laden with CORN; intitled to the BOUNTY, may be ſailed with the maſter, and at leaſt $\frac{2}{3}$ of the mariners his Majeſty's ſubjects. 1 W & M. c. 12. §. 1.

—— During the preſent war, merchants ſhips may be navigated by $\frac{3}{4}$ foreigners, and $\frac{1}{4}$ Britiſh; and in any future war his Majeſty, by his royal proclamation, may permit them to be navigated in the ſame manner. 13 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1, 4.

SHIPS BELONGING TO GREAT-BRITAIN OR IRELAND. —Foreign-built ſhips are not to be deemed or paſs as ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, 'till the owner has made it appear to the chief officer of the cuſtoms, in the port next to his abode, that he is not an alien, and has made oath before the ſaid officer, that ſuch ſhips were bona fide, and without fraud, by him bought for a valuable conſideration, expreſſing the ſum, as alſo the time, place, and perſons from whom bought, and who are his part-owners, if any (all which part-owners are alſo liable to the ſame oath) and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any part, intereſt, or ſhare therein: whereupon the officer is to grant a certificate under his hand and ſeal, which he is to regiſter, and return a duplicate thereof to the chief officers of the cuſtoms in London, with the names of the ſeller and part-owners, and the ſum paid. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 10.

—— BUT FOREIGN-BUILT SHIPS, that is, not built in any of his Majeſty's dominions of Aſia, Africa, or America, are not to enjoy the privilege of ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, although owned or manned by Britiſh (except ſuch ſhips as are taken at ſea by letters of mart or reprifal, and condemned as lawful prize in the court of admiralty) but are to be deemed alien ſhips, and to be liable to aliens duties. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 6.

—— The ALIENS DUTY, or petty-cuſtoms, payable for certain goods imported in ſuch ſhips. See ALIENS.

—— Officers of the cuſtoms may not allow foreign-built ſhips the privilege of ſhips Britiſh-built, or belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, until a certificate be produced, or proof of the property be made, or until examination whether the maſter and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are Britiſh; nor allow a foreign-built ſhip the privilege of bringing in goods of the growth of the country, where it was built, 'till examination and proof, upon forfeiture of office. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

—— Governors of the Britiſh plantations may not ſuffer foreign-built ſhips to lade or unlade any goods, 'till certificate be produced, and examination be made, whether the maſter and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are Britiſh, upon forfeiture of their government. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

SHIPS belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects of SCOTLAND—though foreign-built, if regiſtered upon oath, before the firſt of May, 1708, are to be deemed as of the built of Great-Britain. 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 5.

—— A duplicate of the regiſter is to be tranſmitted to the chief officers at the cuſtoms in Edinburgh, and from thence to the port of London, in order to be entered in the general regiſter of all ſhips belonging to Great-Britain (art. 5.) 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 5.

—— Are not to be loſt, or forfeited, for a ſmall thing put therein, not cuſtomed, without the owners knowlege. 38 Edw. III. c. 8. §. 1.

—— Arreſted for unlawful cauſe, the officer being convicted thereof, forfeits 40 l. to be ſued for within two months. 28 Hen. VI. c. 5. §. 1.

—— Wilfully caſt away, burnt or otherwiſe deſtroyed, to the prejudice of the inſurers, or of the merchant that ſhall load goods thereon: the owners, maſters, mariners, or other officers belonging to the ſhip, doing it, or directing or procuring the ſame to be done, are to ſuffer death. 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 3.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SILKS.

SILKS—Wrought, mixed with gold or ſilver, or other materials, ſecretly or clandeſtinely imported, are forfeited with 200 l. by every importer and each of his aſſiſtants, beſides former penalties, and 100 l. by the receiver, ſeller, or concealer. 6 Ann. c. 19. §. 14, 15.

—— Such ſilks are to be ſold by inch of candle at the cuſtom-houſe in London or Edinburgh. 6 Ann. c. 19. §. 14, 15.

—— Wrought by itſelf, or with any other ſtuff, in any place out of this realm, in ribbons, laces, girdles, corſes of cauls, corſes of tiſſue, or points, may not be imported to be ſold, upon forfeiture; but ſilks wrought and unwrought, or raw, may be imported by any perſons. 19 Hen. VII. c. 21. §. 1.

—— THROWN, of the growth or product of TURKEY, PERSIA, EAST-INDIA, CHINA, or any other country (except ITALY, SICILY, and NAPLES, brought directly from thoſe places reſpectively, by ſea, in ſhips legally navigated) may not be imported, on forfeiture thereof. 2 W. & M. c. 9. §. 2.

—— Callicoes, linens, or ſtuffs, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, whereſoever found, not having a ſtamp, to denote the payment of duty, are forfeited, with the penalty of 50 l. on the poſſeſſor. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 15.

—— After recovered, may not be delivered out of the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe 'till ſtampt. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 15.

—— RAW, of the growth and culture of the Britiſh plantations in America, may be imported directly from thence into the port of London, FREE OF ALL DUTIES; provided entry is made at the cuſtom-houſe in the ſame manner as before this act, and it is landed in the preſence, and examined by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, and imported in veſſels which may lawfully trade thither, manned according to law. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 1.

—— But to entitle the importer to this exemption, the perſon who ſhips the ſilk in America, muſt, before clearing the ſhip, make oath before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms and naval officer, or any two of them, that ſuch ſilk is, bonâ fide, of the growth and culture OF SOME OR ONE OF THE BRITISH COLONIES OR PLANTATIONS IN AMERICA, expreſſing the pariſh wherein, and by whom it was cultivated and produced; who muſt likewiſe make oath thereto before the governor or juſtice of the peace, &c. Upon producing ſuch oath, the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms and

and naval-officer, or any two of them, are to grant a certificate under their hands and ſeals, expreſſing the marks, numbers, tale, and weight in each bale; with the names and places of abode of the exporter, of the perſon or perſons who have ſworn to the growth and culture, and the name of the perſon to whom conſigned in London; which certificate the maſter of the ſhip is to deliver to the collector, comptroller, or chief officer of the port of London, at or before entry; and at the ſame time make oath, that the bales and parcels, and goods contained in the certificate, are the ſame that were taken on board in the ſaid Britiſh colonies in America. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 2.

—— Any perſon entering foreign RAW SILK as RAW SILK OF THE GROWTH OR CULTURE OF BRITISH PLANTATIONS IN AMERICA, or mixing foreign with that of the Britiſh plantation, in order to evade the payment of the duty, forfeits 50 l. and all the ſilk, together with the bales and packages. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. § 3.

—— In any diſpute about the growth, the ONUS PROBANDI to lie on the owner or claimer. 26 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 4.

—— Wrought or mixed with any other materials, and velvets (not manufactured in Great-Britain, and not prohibited to be worn therein) imported, are after entry at the cuſtom-houſe, and before delivery to the importer, to be marked or ſealed, at each end of every piece, with ſuch mark or ſeal, and by ſuch officer, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall appoint. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

—— Upon exportation, the exporter, before they are ſhipped, muſt give notice to the proper officer, when and where he will pack them up, who is (without fee or reward) to take care that ſuch ſeals, ſtamps, or marks, are taken off from every piece intended to be exported, without which no drawback is to be allowed. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 2.

—— Such goods found in any ſhop, warehouſe, or other place upon land, not ſo marked or ſealed, upon both ends of a whole piece, or one end of a remnant, are forfeited, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in the king's warehouſes; and after condemnation, are to be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder; one moiety of the produce to be for the uſe of his Majeſty, and the other for the officer who ſeized and ſecured them: and the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion they are found, alſo forfeits 200 l. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 3.

—— Such goods not to be conſumed in this kingdom, but are to be ſold for exportation only, and not to be delivered out of the warehouſe, 'till ſecurity is given accordingly. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 4.

—— For counterfeiting ſuch ſtamp, mark, or ſeal, or the impreſſion thereof, upon the goods above mentioned, or for knowingly ſelling, or expoſing to ſale, the ſaid goods, with a counterfeit ſtamp, the offender, his aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants, are to forfeit for every offence 500 l. and to ſtand in the pillory for two hours. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 5.

—— The pecuniary forfeitures by this act, may be ſued for in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or the court of exchequer at Edinburgh, by action, bill, plaint, or information, in the name of the attorney-general, or of the advocate in Scotland, or of an officer of the cuſtoms; ½ to his Majeſty, and ½ to the officer of the cuſtoms who informs or proſecutes. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6.

—— A capias, in the firſt proceſs, may iſſue, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for; and the defendant ſhall be obliged to give bail by natural born ſubjects, perſons naturalized, or denizens, for his appearance at the day of the return of the writ; and at ſuch appearance to give ſufficient bail, to anſwer the forfeiture in caſe of conviction. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 8.

—— If any officer of the cuſtoms refuſes or neglects, for one month, to proſecute ſuch offender to effect, any other perſon may do it in the ſame manner, and ſhall be entitled to the ſame ſhare of the forfeiture. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 7.

—— In caſe of any queſtion ariſing where the goods were manufactured, the proof is to lie upon the owner or claimer. 26 Geo. II. c. 11. §. 10.

SILKS, CHINA—Raw ſilk imported from China, by the united Eaſt-India company, is to pay the ſame duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, and to be allowed the ſame DRAWBACK, as RAW SILKS of the growth and produce of ITALY. 23 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 2 and 4.

WROUGHT SILKS, BENGALS, and STUFFS, mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, and callicoes printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed there, prohibited in Great-Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the HALF-SUBSIDY. 11 and 12 W. III. c. 17. §. 1 and 10.

WROUGHT SILKS, ſtuffs, &c. muſlins and callicoes, of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, may not be imported into IRELAND, but from GREAT-BRITAIN, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ſhip, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 12.——Officers of the cuſtoms conniving thereat in Ireland, forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH RESPECT TO SILVER.

SILVER—The OLD STANDARD of eleven ounces two penny-weights reſtored. 6 Geo. I. c. 11.

—— The OLD STANDARD of eleven ounces two penny-weights, and the NEW STANDARD of eleven ounces ten penny-weights, continued; and no plate may be made of coarſer allay. 6 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 40.

—— Molten ſilver may not be exported, unleſs marked or ſtamped at Goldſmiths-hall, and a certificate be produced to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, under the hands of one or more of the wardens, of oath having been made before him or them by the owner, and one credible witneſs, that it is lawful ſilver, and that no part thereof (before molten) was the current coin, nor clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 17. §. 5, 6.

—— Shipped, without being ſo marked or ſtamped, and without ſuch certificate, is forfeited, and may be ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 17. § 6.

—— Molten ſilver or bullion, either in bars, ingots, wedges, cakes, pina's, or any other form, may not be ſhipped, unleſs a certificate be produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or four of them, from the court of the lord-mayor and aldermen of London, of oath having been made before the ſaid court, by the owners, and two or more credible witneſſes, that the ſame, and every part and parcel thereof, was, and is, foreign bullion; and that no part thereof (before molten) was the coin of this realm, or clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 6.

—— Shipped without entry, and ſuch oath and certificate, is forfeited, and may be ſeized by any perſons; and the proprietor forfeits double the value. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 7.

—— The maſter of any ſhip belonging to a ſubject, knowingly permitting the ſhipping, forfeits 200 l. and if it be a man of war, the captain likewiſe forfeits his employment, and is rendered incapable of any office, civil or military. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 7.

—— Officers granting a cocket, before certificate be produced, and entry made by the commiſſioners, forfeit 200 l. and are rendered incapable of any other place. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 8.

—— Seized, proof of its being foreign, &c. is to lie on the proprietor or claimer. 7 and 8 W III. c. 19. §. 9.

—— Watches, ſword-hilts, wrought-plate, and other ſilver manufactures, of the fineneſs of 11 ounces 10 penny-weights to every pound troy, ſo many may be exported yearly, as ſhall be allowed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 28. §. 1.

—— But boxes, caſes, or dial-plates, of gold, ſilver, braſs, or other metal, for clocks or watches, may not be exported without the movements made up fit for uſe, with the makers name engraved thereon, upon forfeiture, and 20 l. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 28. §. 2.

SILVER THREAD.

BOUNTY OR ALLOWANCE ON GOLD AND SILVER THREAD, LACE, OR FRINGE, MADE IN GREAT-BRITAIN, EXPORTED.

Silver thread, lace or fringe, made of plate-wire, and ſpun on ſilk, every pound weight avoirdupoiſe * - - -	Bounty	0 5 0
Gold lace, thread, or fringe, made of plate-wire, and ſpun on ſilk, every pound weight avoirdupoiſe * - - -		0 6 8

* 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 62. and 3 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

To be paid to the exporter by the collector of the duties on gilt and ſilver wire, or a debenture, expreſſing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the cuſtoms at the port of exportation, and the ſhipping thereof teſtified by the ſearcher: the exporter firſt making proof upon oath, before the collector of the cuſtoms, that the ſaid thread, lace, or fringe, was actually made after the firſt of July, 1712, and alſo giving ſufficient ſecurity that they ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS RELATING TO SNUFF.

SNUFF—made, mixed, or coloured with oaker, umber, &c. (except water tinged with Venetian red) or fuſtic, yellow ebony, touch-wood, or other wood, dirt, ſand, or tobacco duſt mixed therewith, is forfeited, with 3 l. for every pound weight, by the maker or ſeller. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 7. The powers and proviſions relating to counterfeit tobacco, are to extend to the abuſes in making and mixing of ſnuff. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 22.

Removed

—— Removed by land—Tobacco or tobacco-ſtalks exceeding 24lb. weight, or ſnuff exceeding 10lb. weight, may not be conveyed from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain, without a certificate from the collector, comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place of importation; and if manufactured, with the importer's oath thereto (if the importer applies for it) that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, by whom, when, and in what ſhip imported; or with the purchaſer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) atteſting the marks and numbers of the hogſheads, out of which it was taken, from whom purchaſed, and when: if tobacco ſtalks, or SNUFF, or manufactured tobacco, are ſo removed, then the certificate muſt have the importer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or ſuch SNUFF, or manufactured tobacco, was made from one or more hogſheads, for which the duties were by him paid or ſecured at importation; or the purchaſer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or the ſnuff, or MANUFACTURED TOBACCO, was made from one or more hogſheads, which had been delivered and received according to the directions of this act: which certificates ſuch officers are to grant; and after entering in their books, to deliver to the perſon applying for the ſame, without fee or reward for certificate or oath, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 9.

—— Removed by water.—No tobacco, tobacco-ſtalks, or SNUFF, may be ſhipped on board any veſſel, to be carried by water, from any place in Great-Britain, to any other, until every part thereof is entered at the cuſtom-houſe, at the port neareſt the place where they are ſhipped; and if unmanufactured, it muſt be ſhipped in the original package in which it was imported, preſerving the ſame marks and numbers, but not without a certificate from the collector or comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured at importation, by whom, the time when, and in what veſſel imported: if it is tobacco-ſtalks, or SNUFF, or other manufactured tobacco, it is not to be ſo ſhipped, without a certificate from the ſaid officers, that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, for the tobacco from which they were ſtripped, made, or manufactured: which certificates the ſaid officers are required to grant to the importer, or his known agent, applying for the ſame, without fee or reward, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 13.

Tobacco, or tobacco-ſtalks, exceeding 24lb. weight, or SNUFF, exceeding 10 pounds weight (which has been removed by water from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain) may not be removed afterwards from thence by land, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place to which they were carried by water; that it appears to them by the entry of the certificate, which came with the goods from the place of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured there, and in what veſſel they were brought by water, and when; and that the perſon applying for the ſame, had made oath to the truth thereof: which certificate ſuch officers are required (after writing it in their books) to deliver to any perſon applying for it. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

—— Any certificate for removal of tobacco, tobacco-ſtalks, or SNUFF, by land or water, is to be deemed a proper one, though the name of the importer is not inſerted therein, provided his name is expreſſed in the bill from which the certificate is prepared. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

—— Tobacco-ſtalks and SNUFF, ſeized and condemned, are to be burnt in the preſence of the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, at the place where the goods are at the time of condemnation; or, for want of ſuch, in the preſence of the collector or ſupervifor of exciſe for that diſtrict. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 27, 28.

—— Tobacco-ſtalks or SNUFF, removed from one place to another in greater quantities than by 24 Geo. II. c. 21. is allowed, and not attended with the certificate required, may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe; and the proof that it was removed from the port of importation, with a proper certificate, and that the duties thereon were paid or ſecured, is to lie on the claimer, and not on the officer who ſeized it. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 2.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SPICES.

SPICERY, viz. cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, may be imported in Britiſh ſhips, whereof the maſter and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are Britiſh, from any parts beyond the ſeas; upon licence firſt had from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, or from the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. and 8 Ann. c. 7. §. 26. and 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

—— The quantity, quality, and the port of importation, are to be expreſſed in ſuch licences; and if more be found than therein mentioned, it is forfeited. The package to be in caſks or bales, unleſs from the Eaſt-Indies; the bale of cinnamon to weigh net 70lb. or upwards, and each caſk of nutmegs, cloves, or mace, 300lb. or upwards, upon forfeiture thereof. 6 and 7 W. III. c 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. and 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

—— The licences are to be delivered up by the maſters at entry of their ſhips, and annexed to the report, with the marks and numbers of each caſk, bale, or parcel, and the quantity and quality endorſed on the back, upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 46. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

—— Found on board any ſhip in ſmall parcels, packed in hogſheads, bales, or caſks, are forfeited. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 47. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SPIRITS.

SPIRITS, or low wines, brought by ſea coaſtwiſe, without a certificate from the officer of exciſe, where diſtilled, are forfeited; to be ſued for as any other forfeiture by the laws of exciſe. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 17.

THE BOUNTY ON SPIRITS DRAWN FROM BARLEY, MALT, OR OTHER CORN, EXPORTED.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10. was granted without limitation, viz.

Spirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, for every ton thereof - - -	Bounty 1 10 0

To be paid to the exporter by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or other proper officer belonging to them, when barley is at 24s. per quarter, or under, upon ſuch proof of the exportation, as is directed by 1 W. and M. cap. 12. and out of ſuch duties as are liable to the payment or the bounties on corn exported, in the ſame manner as if the reſpective quantity of barley, malt, or other corn, had been exported, allowing that twelve quarters of barley or malt are made uſe of in making one ton of ſpirits. 6 Geo. II. c. 17. §. 10.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO STARCH.

Drawback or repayment of the duty of exciſe on Britiſh-made Starch exported.

Starch *, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoiſe - - 0 0 1	Drawb.
Starch †, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoiſe - - 0 0 1	0 0 2

* 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 27. and 3 Geo I. c. 7.
† 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 9. §. 13. and 6 Geo. I. c. 4.

To be repaid to the exporter thereof (by the collector of the duties) for ſuch ſtarch, exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, on a debenture, to be made forth by the collector of the cuſtoms at the port of exportation, expreſſing the true kinds and quantities, and the exportation thereof teſtified by the ſearcher: the exporter having firſt made proof of the payment of the duties (on oath) before the ſaid collector; and alſo having given ſufficient ſecurity, that the ſtarch ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain. 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 25, 27. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 13.

If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value. 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 26.

STARCH, ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards relanded, is forfeited, or the value, beſides the penalty of the bond. 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 26.

—— Or hair-powder, found in any ſhip, waggon, &c. is ſeizable by officers of exciſe or cuſtoms, upon ſuſpicion of its having been privately made, or clandeſtinely imported, or exported and relanded again after the duty hath been repaid. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

—— Within ten days after ſeizure, the officer is to exhibit an information before three commiſſioners of exciſe, or two juſtices of the peace. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

—— Upon information, the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion it is found, muſt make it appear, that the duty hath been paid for the ſame, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the goods, with horſes and package, containing the ſame, and 5l. for every hundred weight; and the commiſſioners or juſtices are to proceed to give judgment accordingly. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

—— Suſpected to be privately making or concealed, may be ſearched for by officers of exciſe or cuſtoms, by day or by night (but if by night, in the preſence of a conſtable or other peace-officer) by warrant from the commiſſioners of exciſe, or a juſtice of the peace. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4.

—— Found privately making or concealing, is forfeited, with all materials and things in which it is contained; and the perſon privately making, or in whoſe poſſeſſion it is found,

found, upon failure of proof that the duty has been paid, forfeits 50 l. and for obſtructing the officers 50 l. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4.

The chief Laws of the Customs, with Regard to Sugars.

Sugar muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, or in ſhips of ſuch port where the ſaid goods can only, or moſt uſually are firſt ſhipped for tranſportation, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

—— But during the late war with France, this was not to extend to prevent any perſon importing the ſaid goods in ſhipping built in Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or any of the lands, iſlands, dominions, or territories belonging to his Majeſty, in Aſia, Africa, or America, provided the maſter and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are Britiſh, or of the country of which the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture: but if ſuch ſhips are the property of foreigners, although Britiſh-built, the goods are to pay aliens, and all other duties, in the ſame manner as if they were foreign-built. 29 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 19, 20.

—— No ſugars, panelles, ſyrups, or melaſſes of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or ſpirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his Majeſty's ſugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and all her furniture; — but not to extend to reſtrain the importation of ſugars of the produce of any of the dominions of the king of Spain or Portugal, from any place from whence they might have been lawfully imported before. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4, 13.

—— Sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtick or other dyeing wood, rice (except under the regulations in the 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. art.) melaſſes, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins, or other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards and bowſprits, of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, may not be carried from thence, unleſs to ſome other Britiſh plantations, or to the kingdom of Great-Britain only, to be there landed, upon forfeiture of the ſaid goods, or their value, with the ſhip and furniture. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 18. and 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 26. §. 10, 11. and 25 Car. II. c. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 5. §. 12. and c. 10. §. 7. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 25. and c. 18 §. 22. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4. and 2 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 6. and c. 35. §. 17. and 3 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 1.

——And if, upon any pretence whatſoever, any goods of the Britiſh plantations in America be landed in Ireland, without being firſt landed in Great-Britain, and the duties thereof there paid, they are forfeited, with the ſhip; $\frac{3}{4}$ without compoſition to his Majeſty, and $\frac{1}{4}$ to the ſuer; unleſs ſtranded or driven in by leakineſs, &c. in which caſe the goods muſt be delivered into the cuſtody of the chief officer of the port, there to remain till re-ſhipped for Great-Britain, for which good ſecurity muſt be taken. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 14, 15.

—— Now to extend only to ſugars, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, ſpeckle-wood, or Jamaica wood, fuſtick or other dyeing wood, rice, melaſſes, beaver-ſkins, and other furs, copper-ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, and bowſprits, of the growth, product, or manufacture of the ſaid plantations. All other goods, of the growth, product, and manufacture of any of the ſaid plantations, may be imported from thence into Ireland (except hops, which are to continue under the regulations of 9 Ann. c. 12. and 1 Geo. I. c. 12.) provided it be in Britiſh ſhipping, whereof the maſter and at leaſt $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are Britiſh. 4 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 1, 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 1.

—— Ships coming to the ſaid plantation to take in any of the following enumerated goods with intent to carry the ſame to ſome other Britiſh plantations, bond not having been firſt given to bring the ſame to Great-Britain only, there muſt be paid for ſuch goods the following duties, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Sugar, white, the hundred weight -	0	5	0
Sugar, brown, and muſcovadoes the Cwt.	0	1	6
Tobacco, the pound - - -	0	0	1
Cotton-wool, the pound - - -	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Indigo, the pound - - - -	0	0	2
Ginger, the hundred weight - -	0	1	0
Logwood, the hundred weight - -	5	0	0
Fuſtick, and all other dyeing wood, the Cwt.	0	0	6
Cocoa-nuts, the pound - - -	0	0	1

And ſecurity muſt be taken to carry them to ſuch plantations, or to Great-Britain. 25 Car. II. c. 7. §. 3. and 7 and 8 W. and M. c. 22. §. 8. and 1 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 4.

—— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America, rum or ſpirits, melaſſes, or ſyrups, ſugars or panelles, of the product of any plantation in America, not in the poſſeſſion of his Majeſty, imported into any of the Britiſh plantations in America, are to pay the following duties in money of Great-Britain, according to the value of 5 s. 6 d. per ounce in ſilver; viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Rum or ſpirits, the gallon - - -	0	0	9
Melaſſes or ſyrups, the gallon - -	0	0	6
Sugars and panelles, the Cwt. - -	0	5	0

and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity, to be paid down in ready money before landing. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 1, 2.

—— Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. — Any of his Majeſty's ſubjects in any veſſel built in Great Britain, and belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects, of which the major part reſide in Great-Britain, and the reſidue either in Great-Britain, or in ſome of his Majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, or in any veſſel belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in Great-Britain, and navigated according to law, that ſhall clear outwards, from Great-Britain to any of the ſaid colonies, may ſhip ſugars of the growth, produce or manufacture of the ſaid colonies, to carry to any foreign part of Europe; provided a licence be firſt taken out for that purpoſe, under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſubject to the regulations, and on the conditions, ſtipulated by act of parliament. 12 Geo. II. c. 30. §. 2. and 24 Geo. II. c. 57. §. 7.

—— This act not to extend to granting a liberty to carry any ſugars from the ſugar colonies to Ireland. 12 Geo. II. c. 30 §. 16. and 24 Geo. II. c. 57. §. 7.

—— Of the growth of the Britiſh colonies, exported within a year after the importation, to draw back the reſidue of the ſubſidy. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 9. and 19 Geo. II. c. 23.

The allowance on Britiſh Refined Sugar exported.

		l.	s.	d.
By 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 23. §. 9.	Was granted from 31ſt January, 1699, during the continuance of the new ſubſidy,			
5 Ann. c. 8. art. 6.	Upon ſugar refined in Great-Britain, for every cwt. exported	0	3	0
2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3.	Was granted during the continuance of the one-third ſubſidy,			
4 — — 6. — 2.				
5 — — 19. — 8.	A further allowance on the ſame, for every cwt. exported	0	1	0
1 Geo. I. —— 12. — 8.				
6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10.	Was granted from 24th June, 1753, for five years.			
11 —— 18. — 2.	Further continued for ſeven years.			
19 —— 23. — 1.	Further continued for ſeven years.			
20 —— 32. — 5.	Further continued to 24 June 1756.			
29 —— 26. — 1.	Further continued for three years.			
	A further allowance on the ſame, for every cwt. exported	0	2	0
21 Geo. II. c. 2. §. 6.	Was granted from firſt March, 1747, during the continuance of the ſubſidy 1747,			
	A further allowance on the ſame, for every cwt. exported	0	3	0
	Total bounty	0	9	0

To be paid at the cuſtom-houſe to the exporter within thirty days after the demand thereof; oath being firſt made by the refiner, that the ſugar, ſo exported, was produced from brown and muſcovado ſugar, charged by the acts of 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. and of 2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. and by 21 Geo. II. c. 2. (that is to ſay, charged with the new ſubſidy, one-third ſubſidy, and ſubſidy 1747.) and that, as he verily believes, the ſame was imported from his Majeſty's plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of importation thereof, the exporter making oath, that the ſame was duly exported, and his Majeſty's ſearcher alſo certifying the ſhipping thereof, and all other requiſites being performed according to the Book of Rates. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. §. 9. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3. and 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10. and 21 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 8.

T.

TAPESTRY, a delicate kind of manufacture, ſerving to adorn apartments with hangings.

Of ſome curious improvements that have been made by Monſ. Le Blon, on the principles of printing, in imitation of painting, and of weaving tapeſtry, in the ſame manner as brocades.

M. Le Blon endeavouring to fix the true harmony of colouring in painting, found that all viſible objects may be repreſented by the three primitive colours, red, yellow and blue; for out of them, all others, even black itſelf, may be compounded. We are beholden to the great Sir Iſaac Newton for the diſcovery of the difference of colours contained in the rays of the ſun, and that the union of them all produces a white, which is light itſelf.

For diſtinction ſake, M. Le Blon calls thoſe colours which are comprehended in the rays of the ſun impalpable colours, and thoſe uſed in painting, material colours. In the material colours, a mixture of all three produces a black or darkneſs, contrary to what is obſerved in the impalpable, which I ſaid juſt now produce white. M. Le Blon takes this phænomenon to be owing to the body or ſubſtance of which thoſe three material colours conſiſt, and to the particles of them being opake, and not tranſparent; for they only reflect certain rays of light, they ſtrike on their ſurfaces; and therefore, when ſmall particles of different colours are placed cloſe together, if they are ſo ſmall that each of them cannot be ſeen ſeparately by the eye, we do not diſcern the colour of each particular atom, but only the blended reflected rays, proceeding from the adjoining particles: thus yellow and red produce an orange, yellow and blue, a green, &c. which ſeems to be confirmed by placing two pieces of ſilk near together, viz. yellow and blue: when, by intermixing of their reflected rays, the yellow will appear of a light green, and the blue of a dark green, which deſerves the farther conſideration of the curious.

He hath reduced the harmony of colouring in painting to certain infallible rules built on this foundation. Whereas, according to the common practice of painters, their colouring is the effect of mere chance or gueſs-work at firſt, but improved by experience, all painters uſually declaring, that there can be no certain rules given for mixing colours. M. Le Blon publiſhed, ſome years ago, an ingenious book on this ſubject, intitled Coloritto; or, The Harmony of Colouring in Painting

By theſe rules he light on the manner of printing any object in its natural colours, by means of three plates, and the three primitive colours; an art attempted and ſought after ever ſince the invention of printing, but in vain, and thought impoſſible, 'till he put it in practice a few years ago. The plates are engraved chiefly after the mezzotinto manner, only the darker ſhades, and ſometimes the outlines, where they are to appear very ſharp, are done with a common graver. Each plate is not completely engraved, but only contrived to take ſuch a portion of the colour as is neceſſary with the other two plates, to make the picture complete.

This art of printing conſiſts in ſix articles.

1. To produce any object with three colours, and three plates. 2. To make the drawings in each of the three plates, ſo as that they may exactly tally. 3. To engrave the three plates, ſo as that they cannot fail to agree. 4. To engrave the three plates in an uncommon way, ſo as that they may produce 3000 and more good prints. 5. To find the three true primitive material colours, and to prepare them, ſo as that they may be imprimable, durable, and beautiful. 6. To print the three plates, ſo as that they may agree perfectly in the impreſſion.

The firſt of which is the moſt conſiderable, comprehending the theoretical part of the invention; and the other five are ſubſervient to bring it into mechanical practice, and of ſuch importance, that if any one of them be wanting, nothing can be executed with ſucceſs or exactneſs. Sometimes more than the three plates may be employed, viz. when beauty, cheapneſs, and expedition require it.

The obſervation of the compounded colours reflected from two pieces of ſilk of different colours, placed near together, firſt gave him the thought of what the effect of weaving threads of different colours would be, when all the threads were ſo fine, as not to be diſtinguiſhed at a ſmall diſtance one from another.

By the ſame principles of producing any viſible object with a ſmall number of colours, he arrived at the ſkill of producing in the loom all that the art of painting requires. An art likewiſe often attempted, but as often abandoned, and declared impoſſible till now, as well as the other, of printing in colours. And it is probable, many improvements may from hence be made in ſeveral trades, eſpecially in combing of wool, where the mixing of ſeveral colours may be of important uſe.

The colours uſed in weaving, being only ſuperficial, and ſo differing from both the impalpable and the material colours, and not being to be ſo cloſely joined or incorporated together as thoſe, will not of themſelves produce a white or black, but only a light cinnamon: wherefore in weaving he hath been obliged to make uſe of white or black threads, beſides red, yellow, and blue; and though he found he was able to imitate any picture with theſe five colours, yet for cheapneſs and expedition, and to add a brightneſs where it was required, he found it more convenient to make uſe of ſeveral intermediate degrees of colours.

There are two ways in uſe at Bruſſels, and at the Gobelins in Paris, for making tapeſtry after the common manner: one they call the flat way, and the other the upright. In the flat way, they have the warp ſtretched in a frame lengthwiſe of the piece: it is made of white worſted, and the pattern lies cloſe under it, ſo that the workman can ſee the figures through the warp: he is provided with bobbins of various colours of ſilk or worſted, as the piece requires: then he takes up with his fingers one thread after another, as they anſwer to any colour in the painting beneath; and with the other hand paſſes the bobbin with the ſame colour, and ſtrikes the threads with an ivory comb. Some of theſe frames are made like a loom, with a warp paſſed through the leiſhes, and treddles for the feet, with which they open the threads of the warp, to paſs a common ſhuttle through them, when it is neceſſary to make a long throw, as is required in grounds, pillars, and tall uprights.

In the upright way the warp runs from top to bottom of the piece; the pattern is placed upright, and cloſe behind it, and the outlines are drawn in charcoal upon the foreſide of the warp. The workman is placed with his back to the light, by which means he can ſee the pattern the better; then he takes up the threads one by one, and paſſes the bobbin as in the other way, and ſtrikes it cloſe with the comb: all which is near as tedious as needle-work itſelf, which is the reaſon why the fineſt tapeſtry comes to ſuch high prices, ſo that none but princes and perſons of diſtinction care to buy it; and what can be had at a moderate price is always coarſe, and of a low taſte: for workmen who have any good notion of painting, and are capable of adjuſting the colours, are not to be had, but for exceſſive wages, which much enhances the price likewiſe: but in M. Le Blon's new way of weaving tapeſtry in the loom with a draw-boy, tapeſtry may be performed almoſt as expeditious as fine brocades: for when the loom is once ſet and mounted, any common draught-weaver, though not acquainted with drawing or painting; nay, hardly knowing what figure he is about, exactly produceth what the painter hath repreſented in the original pattern. And thus a piece of tapeſtry may be woven in a month or two, which, in the common way of working, would, before this invention, take up ſeveral years: and what, in the common way, coſts a thouſand pounds, may, by this means, be afforded finer and better for a hundred. Therefore, it is likely, this woven tapeſtry may become a current merchandize, and that many thouſand induſtrious families may be well employed about it.

The main ſecret of this art conſiſts in drawing the patterns, from which any common draught-weaver can mount the loom;

loom; and when that is done, the piece may be made of any ſize, by only widening the reeds and the warp, and a reverſe may be made with the ſame eaſe; which is done by the boy's pulling the leiſhes up again, in the ſame order in which he pulled them down before; by which contrivance the tapeſtry may be ſuited to any room, whether the light comes in on the right-hand or on the left.

The patterns are painted upon paper, whereon are printed ſquares from copper-plates, and theſe ſubdivided by as many lines as anſwer to the threads of the warp, which run lengthwiſe of the piece; then they try how many threads of the ſhoot anſwer in breadth to every ſubdiviſion of the ſquares. Every thread of the warp goes through a ſmall braſs-ring called a male, or through a loop in the leiſh, and hath a ſmall long weight or lingoe hung below, to counterballance the packthreads, which going from the top of the rings or loops, are paſſed over the pullies, in the table directly over the loom, and are continued nearly in a horizontal poſition on one ſide of the loom to a convenient diſtance, where they are all ſpread on a croſs-piece faſtened to two ſtaples: theſe are called the tail of the mounture; and from each of theſe packthreads juſt by the ſide of the loom, are faſtened other packthreads, called ſimples, which deſcend to the ground; ſo that by pulling theſe ſimple chords, you raiſe any of the threads of the warp at pleaſure; wherefore they faſten a loop or potlart to as many of theſe ſimple chords as there are threads of the warp to be pulled up at every ſhoot, or every throw of the ſhuttle; by which means the ſhoot manifeſts itſelf on the right ſide, where the warp is pulled up: and in ordering this, they are guided by the pattern, on which they count the diſtances of the ſubdiviſions, which contain the ſame colours in the ſame line, and can be ſhot at once: then they faſten potlarts to the ſeveral ſimple chords that draw up the rings, through which thoſe threads of the warp run, which are to lie behind this colour; they tie all theſe loops together, and faſten a piece of worſted or ſilk to the knot, of the ſame colour that the workman is to throw; and the boy, when he pulls each loop, names the colour, that the weaver may take the proper ſhuttle, and ſo on for every colour to be thrown.

Of the upright-way of working TAPESTRY, with relation to TURKEY CARPETS.

The carpets which are made at the royal manufactory of La Savoniere, below the Louvre, at Paris, are, in ſome reſpects, wrought by the upright-way of tapeſtry. The two rollers are placed the ſame way: the warp is braced from the top downward: the chain, with its loops, keeps all the threads of the warp equally perpendicular: the ſtick, which facilitates their croſſing, runs through them in the ſame manner, and ſeparates the foremoſt threads from the reſt: the lizier-pole holds all the ſtrings, which ſerve to draw the fore threads in their turns, and then the oppoſite threads, in order to inſert the ſpindles of woof. But the method of working in this manufactory differs from the upright way of tapeſtry in theſe particulars:

1. The warp is divided, both before and behind, into parcels of 10 threads each, nine white, and one blue; which is regularly continued through the whole width of the piece.
2. The weaver works on the fore-ſide, and conſequently ſees what he does.
3. The deſign, or pattern, is traced in its proper colours, on cartons, tied about the workman, who looks at it every moment, becauſe every ſtitch is marked on it, as it ought to be in his work. By this means he conſtantly knows what colours and ſhades he is to uſe, and how many ſtitches of the ſame colour.
4. In this he is aſſiſted by ſquares, into which the whole deſign is divided: each ſquare is ſubdivided into 10 vertical lines, correſponding with each parcel of 10 threads of the warp: and beſides, each ſquare is ruled with 10 horizontal lines, croſſing the vertical lines at right angles.
5. The workman having placed his ſpindles of woollen, ſilk, or other richer thread near him, begins to work on the firſt horizontal line of one of the ſquares. Theſe lines marked on the carton are not traced on the warp, for this would be endleſs; becauſe an iron wire, which is longer than the width of a parcel of 10 threads, ſupplies the place of a croſs line. This wire is managed by a crook at one end, at the workman's right-hand; towards the other end it is flatted into a ſort of knife, with a back and edge, and grows wider to the point. The workman fixes his iron wire, or rod, horizontally on the warp, by twiſting ſome turns of a ſuitable thread of the woof round it, which he paſſes forward and backward, behind a fore thread of the warp, and then behind the oppoſite thread, drawing them in their turns by their leiſhes. Afterwards, if it be neceſſary, he brings his woof-thread round the wire, in order to begin again to thruſt it into the warp; or elſe he ties it to the wire with a running knot, and lets it hang on it, in order to take another woof, and paſs it into the warp. He continues in this manner to cover the iron rod, or wire, and to fill up a line to the tenth thread of the warp, which is the blue one. He is at liberty either to ſtop here, or go on with the ſame croſs line in the next diviſion. According as he paſſes the thread of the woof round the iron wire, and into the warp, the threads of which he cauſes to croſs one another every inſtant: when he comes to the end of the line, he takes care to ſtrike in, or cloſe again all the ſtitches with an iron reed, whoſe teeth freely enter between the empty threads of the warp, and which is heavy enough to ſtrike in the woof he has uſed. This row of ſtitches is again cloſed and levelled, by a dweet of blue thread doubled, which the workman puts into the warp, ſliding his hand over the whole length of the line he has wrought. He croſſes the ſame threads of the warp, and then ſtretches through them another ſingle blue thread. He beats in theſe two threads, one after another, with his reed: theſe dweets of croſs thread, which are a ſupport to each line, will be hid by the pile on the fore ſide; they indeed diminiſh the beauty of the wrong ſide, but this is of no conſequence.

This done, the workman draws the iron-rod or knife out of the loops of the woof that covered it: and as it is wider towards its end, theſe loops reſiſt its paſſage; but being edged at its fore-part, it cuts them through. Then the workman with his left-hand lays a ſtrong pair of ſhears along the finiſhed line, cuts off the looſe hairs, and thus forms a row of tufts perfectly even, which, together with thoſe before and after it, form the ſhag. One line of this ſort taking in the row of ſtitches and woollen pile, with the two blue threads which ſupport them, ſomewhat ſurpaſs, in thickneſs, the ſpace between the firſt and ſecond croſs line of a ſquare. There muſt be eight wires full of woollen thread, and ſixteen blue threads, to anſwer to the ten croſs lines of a ſquare. By this means the workman always ſees what he is doing. He follows ſtitch for ſtitch, and colour for colour, the place of his pattern which he is at, and paints magnificently without having the leaſt notion of painting or drawing. It does not appear, that the directors of carpet-work among the Mahometans, are better draughtſmen than their workmen, for the Turkey carpets have nothing in them but a ſymmetry of colours.

REMARKS.

Under our articles of ARTIFICERS, CANDIDATE, CARPET, CLOTH, FRANCE, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and divers other articles, which the reader will obſerve from our GENERAL INDEX, we have ſhewn the great national advantages which ariſe to a trading ſtate from manufactories in general, and how requiſite it is, from time to time, to improve in the old, as well as to invent, or introduce, new manufactures, in order to fall in with the chargeable taſte of foreign nations, that our rivals may not ſupplant us in trade, by their greater vigilance in theſe reſpects.—Under the preceding, and various other heads, we have alſo ſhewn by what gradations many ſtates have increaſed in their mechanical and manufactural arts, and how the French, in particular, have aroſe to ſo great perfection in their manufactures, by ſparing no encouragement, rewards, and honours, upon ſuch ingenious artiſts who have proved the happy inſtruments of introducing any valuable NEW MANUFACTURE into their dominions.—We there have ſeen by what wiſe meaſures this politic and ingenious nation firſt eſtabliſhed their woollen and ſilken fabrics of every ſpecies; how they firſt ſupplied themſelves with the former ſorts of manufactures, which they were wont to take from England, and by what degrees they afterwards have greatly ſupplanted this nation, at moſt of their beſt foreign markets in their woollen goods.—And under our article MEDALS, we ſhall find how they have commemorated thoſe happy æras that have been productive of any bleſſings that have tended to the enlargement of the commerce and navigation of that neighbouring nation.

In the hiſtory of this part of the French polity, it will be difficult to find a ſingle inſtance of any capital ingenious artiſt, that has propoſed to the adminiſtration any laudable undertaking, tending to the improvement of the old, or the eſtabliſhing of new manufactories, who has not been gratefully received, and liberally recompenſed, and this even though he may have for a time proved unſucceſsful in his attempt. By this generous treatment of the induſtrious and ingenious mechanic and manufacturer, it is not to be admired that they have drawn the moſt celebrated artiſts of every claſs into their country, from all corners of the world.—For ſuch national munificence towards theſe people, will ſpread itſelf among them in all countries; and the glory that ſuch a country derives therefrom, will influence theſe artiſts, maugre all laws to prevent it, to forſake their native country, where no due regard is had to their merit.

It would make, I am afraid, but a diſagreeable ſcene: certain I am, that it would not redound to the honour of Great-Britain, if the hiſtory of great numbers of Britiſh, as well as foreign artiſts, who had great talents, and ſtrong impulſes to promote the commerce and navigation of this nation, was properly repreſented, and the difficulties and diſcouragements they have too generally met with; and which hath at length either broke their hearts, by ſhameful attendance and dependance, or forced them into other nations, where they have been careſſed and rewarded, ſuitably to their merit: an hiſtory of this nature, with relation to our own country, compared with a like hiſtory in regard to France, would, I am confident,

confident, give great glory to the one, and no leſs ignominy to the other. Nay, was I to give a ſhort hiſtory of many perſons of this ſtamp, that have ſell within the tether of my own knowlege, and that of ſome gentlemen of my acquaintance, it would be a diſagreeable taſk, becauſe it might be thought an invidious one, with reſpect to our rulers at different times.

There is a difference between the idle and deſigning projector, and the ſolid and well-intentioned artiſt. The former of theſe we have ſufficiently expoſed, under our article PROJECTORS, in order to guard the public againſt ſuch impoſtors, who are as detrimental to the community in general, as ruinous to the private fortunes of thoſe who are inchanted into their magic circle of PROJECTORSHIP.—But how theſe impoſtors may be prevented, and how the meritorious artiſts may be duly encouraged, and improved in their reſpective arts, ſee our articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, and ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

Nations that abound not with mines, eſpecially thoſe of gold and ſilver, or ſuch other as will tend to inrich and people the ſtate, muſt depend upon the productions of their lands, or their manufactories, or both: and the two latter are preferable in moſt ſtates to the former, as being more permanent, if wiſely regulated, according to the wants and the taſte of other countries.

Becauſe Great-Britain and Ireland abound with ſuch immenſe quantities of wool, and which is of a quality ſuperior to all other in the world for the fabric of general manufactures; and becauſe the goodneſs of our wool has long been, and ſtill is, a temptation to our competitors in trade to ſmuggle it OUT of our nation, and that chiefly in exchange for their commodities of luxury, which are likewiſe ſmuggled INTO this nation: as our commercial rivals have, chiefly by means of our own wool, greatly ſupplanted us in many of the capital branches of this our ſtaple manufactory, it behoves the wiſdom of the nation duly to cheriſh and encourage every manufacture that has a tendency to the conſumption of this commodity amongſt ourſelves, if no other end could be anſwered by it than that of ſo leſſening the quantity, as to deprive our competitors of having ſo much out of the kingdom as they at preſent obtain.

As theſe manufactural arts have an immediate practical tendency to the improvement of thoſe of DRAWING and PAINTING, this, methinks, ſhould be no indifferent motive with us to the effectual promotion and encouragement of ſuch manufactories; for when theſe new commercial eſtabliſhments take place in the kingdom, and will afford a handſome recompence to the ingenious artiſt in deſign and painting, this will induce numbers to breed up their children, eſpecially thoſe of tender conſtitutions, to ſo genteel an employment, whereby they can obtain an handſome maintenance. But it does not ſeem very politic to expect that numbers of people ſhould apply themſelves to the arts of DRAWING and PAINTING, without firſt being certain that there will be competent buſineſs, by which they may get a tolerable livelihood. But this is not the caſe at preſent; for, if I am rightly informed, we have now more artiſts already in theſe branches than can well live: ſo that if we would increaſe the numbers of theſe artiſts, who certainly would greatly contribute to the improvement of divers of our mechanical and manufactural arts, we muſt previouſly ſettle and eſtabliſh ſuch permanent manufactories as will afford them certain bread.

The beauty and delicacy of our woollen, as well as ſilken manufactures of every kind, greatly depend on the luſtre of their colours; and as there are no manufactures that require a ſuperior beauty and elegancy in this reſpect than thoſe of CARPETS and TAPESTRY, the promotion of theſe will have an inevitable tendency to improvements in the art of DYEING; and every advance towards a further degree of perfection herein is of conſequence to our woollen manufactories in general. See our article DYEING.

Commerce has been conſidered as either active or paſſive; the latter conſiſts in purchaſing more commodities in value of other nations than they do of us; the former does the contrary, and, by ſelling more than we purchaſe, become the ſource of wealth and power. Every new manufactory ſettled in a trading nation, either tends to leſſen the importation of the ſame from foreign ſtates, or to ſupply us with an additional commodity to increaſe our active commerce; and it ſometimes anſwers both theſe ends.

States, no more than private perſons, ſhould loſe ſight of that excellent maxim of Cato, Patrem familias vendacem, non emacem, eſſe oportet: THAT THE MASTER OF A FAMILY OUGHT TO BE A SELLER, AND NOT A BUYER. All the comforts of the head of a family, all the wealth of a city, all the grandeur of a kingdom, depends ſolely upon ſelling much, and buying little, or upon ſelling more than is bought. He that is conſtantly buying more than he ſells, let him be a ſecond Croeſus in treaſure, muſt at length be reduced to the unhappy ſtate of a beggar; for his ſtock is diminiſhed in proportion to the over-ballance of goods bought in. But whoever is conſtantly ſelling more than he buys, let him be poor as Lazarus, muſt, by ſuch a tranſaction, acquire the happy circumſtances of the proſperous; for as much as the ballance is in favour of the amount of the SALES, juſt ſo much is added to his capital. Thus reaſon evinces the truth of it; and we have confirmation hereof in the vigilance of neighbouring nations to make proviſion for ſelling much and buying little.

NEW MANUFACTORIES is the ſure and fundamental proviſion for the introduction of riches and happineſs into a kingdom; and, for the want of theſe, and due improvements in the OLD, will ever occaſion the decline of our trade, and introduce poverty.

Further to evince the truth of theſe principles, we may appeal to experience; for what has been the principal occaſion of the decay of our TURKEY TRADE, but the new-invented woollen fabrics of the French, which have hit the taſte of the Turks, while our's grow more and more out of date among that people? And has not this been cauſed by an unaccountable perverſeneſs in our Engliſh manufacturers not to ſtrike out of the ordinary road, and to hit the goût of the Turks, as well as the French have done? [See our article MANUFACTURES.] If a Turk can purchaſe two ſuits of cloaths a year of the French fabric, for the price that he muſt give for one of the Engliſh, they will give the former the preference; eſpecially ſo, ſince it ſeems he can have them of different, and more beautiful colours, than thoſe of England; and although they may be of a ſlighter manufactory, yet, if the two French ſuits wear as long as one of the Engliſh will, and the Turk can have his fancy better pleaſed, the Engliſhman will ever experience the diſadvantage ariſing from his adhering to his OLD FABRICS, while his rival is daily inventing NEW.

In order to induce our Engliſh manufacturers to turn their thoughts upon emulating the French, in regard to the preſent Turkiſh mode, that the French have ſo beneficially introduced among them, I have, under the article MANUFACTURERS, earneſtly recommended to them the imitation of theſe French woollen fabrics, which are now ſo much in vogue in Turkey, and which have been greatly inſtrumental in ſupplanting us in a conſiderable part of that once valuable and important commerce; and I have the ſatisfaction to inform the public, that my zeal is likely to be attended with the deſired ſucceſs: for not long ſince I have received letters from a very ingenious Engliſh manufacturer, that, in conſequence of my recommendation of ſuch like manufactures to the trial of our Engliſh clothiers, he had chearfully ſet about them; and, within this month, I have received an additional pleaſure, by ſeeing patterns of his FIRST TRIAL, which he has ſent me; and which having laid before ſome of the Turkey merchants, they have great expectations that this ingenious Engliſh artiſt will not only be able to make as good cloths of this kind as the French do, according to the Turkiſh taſte, but to ſell them equally cheap, if not cheaper, than they do. — And if ſo, this will enable us once more to get the ſtart of the French in this commerce, or put us upon a level with them in that important branch of trade.

This is the caſe, likewiſe, with relation to the SPANISH TRADE: for as to the fine Engliſh cloths, no objection can be made to their quality; but the French have got the ſtart of Britain in all the finer ſorts of woollen goods, by making them as fine to the eye, and not of half the ſubſtance as the Britiſh ſuperfines; therefore they can afford to ſell them much cheaper than ours. The policy of theſe our commercial rivals is very remarkable, ſubtile, and conſpicuous to ſuch Britons as are diſpoſed to think on the trade of their country. The French finding they could not make cloth of ſo good a quality as the Britiſh, very judiciouſly attempted to outdo them by cheapneſs, which they have effected; and, in order to take off the natural objection againſt the French cloths, viz. that they are not ſo durable as the Britiſh, they are continually making improvements in their COLOURS [ſee our article DYEING] and, as ſoon as a good approved colour appears, it is more unfaſhionable not to be dreſſed in that colour, than it would be in England to be dreſſed in a ſuit made of blanketing. By this artifice the French ſubjects in this kingdom, and even the Engliſh alſo themſelves in Spain, are inticed into a wear of their cloths, on account of the difference in the price; and the wearers will tell the Spaniſh ſhopkeepers they can have two French coats for the price of one made of Britiſh cloth. The alteration in the faſhionable colours is artfully contrived to return, before a coat of paltry French cloth can be worn out: ſo that the ſuperlative goodneſs of the Britiſh cloth is not regarded by any people of faſhion; and if our countrymen, the manufacturers of cloth in Great-Britain, cannot invent a cloth as cheap as the French, they muſt expect to be beaten by their enemies, not only out of their raw materials (of which the French can have what quantity they pleaſe now, and will be courted to take more, as the trade of England declines) but out of the trade alſo; for there are merchants in ſeveral ports in this kingdom, who have large quantities of the beſt ſuperfine Britiſh cloths, that have lain by them ever ſince the ceſſation of arms previous to the laſt peace.

Nor is this leſs the caſe with reſpect to our PORTUGAL TRADE. For the French have done our commerce in the woollen manufactory with this kingdom an unſpeakable detriment, by a new fabrick of FRENCH BLACK DRUGGETS,

which they have introduced there. Of this I have been apprized from Portugal by an Engliſh gentleman, who has greatly the proſperity and honour of his country at heart; and, in conſequence of what I have obſerved under the article PORTUGAL TRADE, he has promiſed me that I ſhall ſoon receive patterns of theſe BLACK FRENCH DRUGGETS from Portugal; which I ſhall put into the hands of a celebrated Engliſh artiſt in this way, who has given me great hopes, that he likewiſe ſhall be able to beat the French in this manufacture, and put the Engliſh in Portugal upon a par in this trade with the French; which, when done, the public will be duly informed of.

Theſe things are mentioned, with a view only to ſhew that if our manufacturers were to be properly encouraged in making ſuch improvements in their reſpective branches, as would put this nation in a capacity to vie with its competitors in trade, they would never be behind-hand with them.—But if a ridiculous and unaccountable averſion to the introduction of NEW MANUFACTURES among us prevails, our manufacturers may ſtarve by the OLD, and the nation be daily impoveriſhed, while France is rendered more and more proſperous and powerful, by countenancing every valuable NEW invention made in their own, or introduced from other countries.

Manufactures of moderate expence, ſays a judicious writer, and quick growth, may ſafely be left to private adventurers, and run the common chance for ſucceſs; the finer arts will never flouriſh, but under PUBLIC PROTECTION and NOBLE PATRONAGE; no encouragements in the hands of private perſons, are adequate rewards to the man of genius. MONEY is the pay of common men, as praiſe is that of heroes; and HONOUR will ever be found a much ſtronger principle of fine invention, than GAIN. We may apply to the artiſt what Quintillian declares of his young orator—Nolo mihi oratorem dari, quanti ſint ſtudia computaturum—All that was great and noble in ancient wit and art, was produced by honours as well as rewards, by the countenance of PRINCES, and the favour and kind influence of GREAT MEN. Sometimes, indeed, the ſtrength of a warm devotion has ſtruck an enthuſiaſm and paſſion into the works of artiſts, beyond the power of human motives to inſpire. A noble profuſion of HONOURS and BOUNTY raiſed the GOBELINES in France to its preſent height; the united influence of theſe two being generally ſufficient to call forth whatever human induſtry can attain to.

This houſe was the reſidence of two brothers, who firſt brought to Paris the ſecret of dyeing a curious ſcarlet, and failed in ſetting it on foot. Their building went under the popular name of the FOLLY of the GOBELINES for many years, 'till the opprobrium was taken off by a ROYAL EDICT, and the name changed by public authority to the more honourable one of the ROYAL MANSION OF THE GOBELINES. The ſcarlet colour was ordered to be called after the name of the inventors, and the little river Bievre, which runs by the building, received the ſame diſtinction. Theſe in appearance were trifling matters, but will be ſenſibly felt by the man of genius. The ſame year the houſe was purchaſed by the KING, and intitled the MANUFACTORY OF THE CROWN FURNITURE; and proviſion was made by a ROYAL CHARTER, to render the place a perpetual SCHOOL and ſeminary of the curious arts. Here M. COLBERT collected together, from all parts of the world, the moſt able MASTERS and DESIGNERS, as well as inferior artiſts in the fine manufactories. SALARIES were appointed for the DIRECTORS, and PENSIONS for life to the workmen; theſe were TAPESTRY-WEAVERS, ENGRAVERS in ETCHING and METZOTINTOES, GOLDSMITHS, JEWELLERS, CARVERS, and WORKERS in EBONY. In this place was wrought all the magnificent furniture for fourteen ROYAL PALACES, which has ſince been deſervedly the admiration of the world. Particular care was taken, that no part ſhould be furniſhed elſewhere, much leſs from abroad. All honorary preſents to foreign princes and noblemen abroad, and to the ornament of temples and public buildings at home, were made in their beſt performances, inſtead of jewels or money. Many of the ſuperior artiſts invited from foreign countries were made NOBLE, and all of them had various honorary privileges and royal penſions: the whole number, ſuperior and inferior, were comprehended amongſt the natives of France, and made free of Paris, with full liberty to practiſe their trades where they pleaſed, after working for a certain term in the Gobelines. This indulgence extends to all, who ſhall at any time hereafter practiſe the limited time in this foundation. The whole quarter of the Gobelines was exempted from taxes and impoſts, and had a court of judicature peculiar to itſelf, under the title of the court of the ROYAL ARTISTS.

Beſides theſe, there are three other academies in Paris for the polite arts, with various privileges, honours, and penſions, to the members forming the governing part of each ſociety. The academy of painting and ſculpture, that of architecture. and the military one, of late foundation. Precedents inviting our attention and imitation, if the latter may not be ſaid to command it. The two former and the academy of ſciences are copied in SPAIN, and are all equally liberal endowments.

In England, the ſtream of public favour and liberality has turned wholly to the advance of SCIENCES; we have few or no inſtitutions in favour of ARTS, no place of reſidence but for ſpeculation. The Royal Society are indebted to the public only for their name. How uſeful this honourable body has been, and how they may be rendered far more ſo, ſee our article ROYAL SOCIETY.

An academy for the fine arts above-mentioned, under a royal charter, with diſtinguiſhing honours and privileges for the higher members, and ſmall penſions for the lower, might give us a proſpect of ſome perfection in the branches of TAPESTRY-WEAVING, PAINTING, SCULPTURE, and STATUARY, and all the lower trades of elegance depending on fine DESIGN. Without ſome ſuch public inſtitution, they never yet were carried to an height in any country: no private fortune can ſtand out the time neceſſary to train up hands enough to extend the ART into a TRADE: but when once a ſufficient number were made perfect in this ſeminary, private adventurers would be found ready enough to take up the buſineſs; for no place ever wanted a trade, that abounded with working hands well inſtructed therein.—In a word, the THEORETICAL ARTS, and PRACTICAL TRADES thereon depending, ſhould go hand in hand.

TAXES. Under the article REVENUE, we have given a brief narrative of the methods of raiſing money in this kingdom, from the CONQUEST to the REVOLUTION in 1688: under the ſame article we have likewiſe ſhewn, that as this nation enjoyed neither civil nor religious liberty, till the time of our great deliverer King William III.; ſo the whole property of the people was either at the mercy of princes or prieſts, or both; the public revenue was raiſed in an arbitrary and oppreſſive manner; and what the civil power did not wreſt from the people, the eccleſiaſtical did.—We ſhall here give a view of the money that has been raiſed in this nation, ſince the revolution in 1688 to the demiſe of his late majeſty George II. in 1759.

SUMMARY OF THE TOTAL YEARLY SUPPLIES, granted by Parliament, during the Reigns of KING WILLIAM and MARY, WILLIAM III. QUEEN ANNE, KING GEORGE I. and KING GEORGE II.

SUMMARY OF THE TOTAL YEARLY WAYS and MEANS.

		l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.
1ſt W. & M.	1688 —	2,908,680	0	0	—	2,743,142	6	2
2	9 —	3,668,191	10	0	—	3,768,191	10	0
3	90 —	4,656,255	0	0	—	2,651,702	18	0
4	1 —	3,676,677	16	3	—	1,816,702	18	0
5	2 —	4,017,080	9	6	—	2,000,000	0	0
6	3 —	5,549,087	15	7	—	5,588,506	5	10
7	4 —	4,882,712	0	0	—	5,413,709	11	1
1ſt WILL. III.	5 —	5,537,853	19	11	—	8,161,469	0	0
2	6 —	5,520,078	19	11	—	5,600,000	0	0
3	7 —	8,237,210	18	1½	—	5,184,051	1	11¾
4	8 —	2,350,000	0	0	—	1,484,015	0	0
5	9 —	981,342	0	0	—	1,000,000	0	0
6	1700 —	2,886,536	14	6	—	2,620,000	0	0
7	1 —	4,380,045	11	0	—	6,913,628	15	5¾
1ſt ANNE	2 —	3,535,457	17	2	—	3,887,630	0	0
2	3 —	4,005,369	8	6	—	4,200,000	0	0
3	4 —	4,717,488	3	4	—	4,914,888	3	3½
4	5 —	5,075,761	16	2	—	5,282,2	3	17 2
5	6 —	5,941,841	14	10¼	—	6,142,381	15	6½
6	7 —	5,926,849	18	6¾	—	6,189,767	15	6½
7	8 —	6,563,138	10	10½	—	6,868,839	0	0
8	9 —	6,425,268	10	2¼	—	6,8,6,552	9	11¾
9	1710 —	14,370,744	5	4¾	—	16,246,325	0	0
10	11 —	6,671,386	1	10½	—	6,304,615	16	9½
11	12 —	3,520 072	10	5½	—	3.400,000	0	0
12	13 —	3,062.079	3	11	—	3,100,000	0	0
1ſt GEORGE I.	14 —	3,282,223	16	6½	}	7,317,751	15	6
2	15 —	3,053,363	5	11½				
3	16 —	3,697,767	13	6¼	—	3,211,313	1	0
4	17 —	2,644,437	4	8¾	—	2,229,514	3	2½
5	18 —	2,989,109	11	10 19/20		2,735,509	3	2½
6	19 —	2,623,537	14	9 7/10		2,742,.00	17	10¾
7	1720 —	2,738,156	3	2 7/10		2,920,264	13	8
8	1 —	2,923,108	18	0 1/2 0/0		2,719,412	10	9
9	2 —	1,935,054	16	6 1/2 3/0		1,837,799	8	2½
10	3 —	1,863,888	6	8½	—	1,703,744	19	5¾
11	4 —	1,823,229	4	11¼	—	1,782,212	0	1¾
12	5 —	2,978,954	1	3½	—	3,282,328	6	7¾
13	6 —	2,895,305	0	7	—	3,173,287	12	0¼
1ſt GEORGE II.	7 —	5,392,966	2	0¾	—	5,544,594	2	2¼
2	8 —	3,224,697	14	8¼	—	3,540,478	10	4¾
3	9 —	3,345,190	17	6¾	—	3,530,766	12	11
4	1730 —	2,752,833	5	4	—	3,826,825	7	0¾
5	1 —	2,784,705	3	0¼	—	2,883,180	2	5½
6	2 —	3,004,926	13	11	—	2,887,943	6	1½
7	3 —	3,870,230	17	4¾	—	3,989,689	11	10½
8	4 —	3,150,452	4	7½	—	3,269,000	0	0
9	5 —	3,225,903	15	9¼	—	3,380,565	6	10
10	6 —	3,025,172	9	6¾	—	3,269,000	0	0
11	7 —	3,444,246	0	6	—	3,769,000	0	0½
12	8 —	2,633,328	9	8½	—	2,908,506	9	9¾

The diſtinct years of the ſupply continued on the other ſide.

The distinct years of supply continued from the other side.

			l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.
13	Geo. II.	9 —	3,874,076	3	7¼ —		4,097,831	11	10½
14		1740 —	5,017,651	5	0 —		5,039,102	18	3¼
15		1 —	5,723,537	12	1¼ —		6,188,065	11	5
16		2 —	5,912,483	12	3 —		6,119,157	13	10¾
17		3 —	6,283,537	14	0¼ —		6,624,065	11	5
18		4 —	6,462,902	3	9¾ —		6,609,310	5	1¾
19		5 —	7,088,353	10	10 —		7,303,065	11	5
20		6 —	9,402,978	9	5 —		9,400,574	10	7
21		7 —	10,059,104	8	4¾ —		10,088,065	11	5
22		8 —	8,082,409	1	7½ —		8,018,007	4	4
23		9 —	4,014,136	19	7½ —		4,313,750	0	5½
24		1750 —	4,969,635	10	11¾ —		5,175,023	11	7
25		1 —	3,907,435	7	7 —		4,178,459	18	1½
26		2 —	2,132,707	17	2½ —		2,422,911	8	4¼
27		3 —	2,797,916	10	2 —		3,077,897	15	8½
28		4 —	4,073,779	11	6½ —		4,256,909	5	0¾
29		5 —	7,229,117	4	6¾ —		7,427,261	5	7
30		6 —	8,350,325	1	3 —		8,689,051	19	7
31		7 —	10,486,457	0	1 —		11,079,722	6	10
32		8 —	12,749,860	19	4½ ⅝		12,991,240	0	10
33		9 —	15,503,564	15	9½ —		16,130,561	9	8
			347,491,970	13	6		356,089,320	17	10

REMARKS.

We have here a miniature view of the immenſe ſums of money that have been raiſed in this nation, from the year 1688 to the end of the reign of king George II. 1759, to ſupport the four great wars, from the reign of king William to the end of the reign of Geo. II.; but to the concluſion of the ſettlement of the peace in the year 1763, the expence of the laſt war coſt the nation above 50 millions more than the above total; and we have reaſon to be too ſenſible of the prodigious weight of our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, with which the kingdom is at preſent oppreſſed, BY SUFFERING THE ANNUAL EXPENCE TO EXCEED THE ANNUAL REVENUE.

When an increaſe in the ANNUAL EXPENCE became neceſſary for ſecuring and vindicating the honour and rights of the nation; had the ANNUAL REVENUE increaſed in proportion, we ſhould have been at this time unincumbered with PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, for the payment of intereſt, and redemption of the PRINCIPAL DEBT.

Had the SUPPLIES been raiſed within the year, this would have been a conſtant check upon our annual expence; and we ſhould not have been ſo wantonly profuſe of the public treaſure as we have been.

Though our commerce and navigation have been greatly enlarged and extended ſince the Revolution; and we have thereby been hitherto enabled to ſupport the immenſe expence, under which we have laboured; yet, if effectual meaſures are not purſued to maintain and preſerve our trade, we ſhall loſe our great and eſſential ſupport of the national fabric.

So great, at preſent, are our TAX-INCUMBRANCES in general, as to occaſion our wares and commodities to come ſo dear to domeſtic purchaſers, that it proves ſo great an encouragement to the SMUGGLING into the kingdom ſuch prodigious quantities of French manufactures and commodities of almoſt every ſort, that it will be impracticable, perhaps, for the wiſeſt adminiſtration to prevent it; unleſs the great cauſe of TAX-INCUMBRANCES is effectually removed, and thereby our native manufactures and commodities are rendered as cheap as thoſe of France.

Nor is the article of ſmuggling only likely to prove a great cauſe of unſpeakable detriment and injury to our commerce, by reaſon of our great load of Tax-incumbrances upon it; but the multitude of our taxes occaſion our manufactures and commodities in general to come ſo dear to foreign nations, that they are not able to purchaſe them, as they were wont heretofore; and therefore, inſtead thereof, they will import thoſe of France, or any other nation whoſe commodities they ſtand in need of, that will come cheaper than thoſe of England; and this will be a motive to foreigners to evade always the beſt COMMERCIAL TREATIES that can be made with foreign nations for the greater encouragement of our trade amongſt them.

KING WILLIAM III.

Has a preſent aid granted, for the extraordinary occaſions.—Raiſes money by a poll, towards the reducing of Ireland.—Has a grant of 1 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Has the grant of an additional exciſe upon beer, &c.—An act for appropriating certain duties for paying the States-General, &c.—Has a grant of 2 s in the pound on land, for one year.—Has an additional aid of 1 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Paſſes an act for collecting the duties upon coffee, tea, and chocolate, at the Cuſtom-Houſe, at certain rates over and above what was before payable.—An act for raiſing money by a poll.—Has the grant of certain impoſitions upon beer, &c. for his and his queen's life.—Has the grant of tonnage and poundage for four years.—Has an aid granted of 1,651,702 l. 18 s.—Has a grant of certain impoſitions upon all Eaſt-India goods, &c.—Paſſes an act for the continuance of ſeveral former acts therein mentioned, for laying ſeveral duties upon wines, vinegar, and tobacco.—Paſſes an act for encouraging the diſtilling of malt ſpirits, &c.—Has a grant of ſeveral additional duties of exciſe upon beer, &c.—Has a grant of certain impoſitions upon beer, &c.—Has an aid of 1,651,720 l. 18 s.—Paſſes an act for raiſing money by a poll, for one year.—Has a grant of 2 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Has a grant of certain additional impoſitions on ſeveral goods and merchandizes, &c.—Paſſes an act for continuing certain bills therein mentioned, and for charging ſeveral joint ſtocks.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound for one year.—Has a grant of certain duties upon ſalt, beer, &c.—An act for raiſing money by the poll for one year.—Has a grant of ſeveral duties upon tonnage and poundage, and upon beer, &c.—Has a grant of ſeveral duties upon veſſum, parchment, and paper, for four years.—Paſſes an act for licenſing and regulating hackney-coaches and ſtage-coaches.—Has the grant of tonnage and poundage for five years.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound, &c.—Has a grant of certain rates and duties upon marriages, births, and burials, &c. for five years.—Has a grant of ſeveral additional duties upon coffee, tea, &c.—Has a grant for certain duties upon glaſs wares, ſtone and earthen bottles, coals and culm.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound for one year.—Act for continuing ſeveral duties granted by former acts upon wine, vinegar, &c.—Has a grant of ſeveral rates, or duties upon houſes, for making good the deficiency of clipping money.—An additional duty upon all French goods and merchandize.—An act for laying ſeveral duties upon low wines, or ſpirits of the firſt extraction.—An act for continuing certain duties upon ſalt, glaſs wares, &c.—Has a grant of ſeveral duties upon vellum, paper, &c.—An act for continuing certain additional impoſitions upon ſeveral goods and merchandizes.—An act for making good the deficiencies of ſeveral funds therein mentioned, &c.—Has the grant of a duty upon leather for three years.—Has the grant of certain duties upon malt, mum, ſweets, cyder, perry, &c.—Has the grant of a farther ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage, for two years three-quarters; and an additional land-tax for one year.—An act to licence hawkers and pedlars, &c.—An aid granted by a land-tax, and ſeveral ſubſidies, &c.—Has a grant of l. 1,484 015 : 1 : 11 ¾, for diſbanding forces, &c.—Has a grant of ſeveral duties upon coals and culm.—A grant of a farther ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage, during life.—Has a grant to himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, of farther duties upon ſtamped vellum, &c.—An act for increaſing the duties upon luſtrings and alamodes.—An aid by a quarterly poll.—An act for raiſing a ſum not exceeding 200,000 l. &c.—An aid for diſbanding the army, of l. 1,484,015 : 1 : 11 ¾.—An act for laying farther duties upon ſweets, &c.—An aid granted by ſale of the forfeited eſtates in Ireland, and by a land-tax.—An Act for laying farther duties upon wrought ſilks, muſlins, &c.—An aid for defraying the expence of the navy, &c. for one year.—Has ſeveral duties granted him upon low wines, &c. and ſeveral additional duties continued upon coffee and tea, &c.—An act for appropriating 3,700 l. weekly, out of certain branches of the exciſe, for public uſes, &c.—An aid by duties upon malt, mum, &c.

REMARKS.

The ſilver monies of king William and queen Mary were the ſame as thoſe of king James, crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, half-ſhillings, groats, and pieces of three pennies, two pennies, and one penny.

The old hammered ſilver money, which was ſtill current, though it had been long complained of, on account of its being diminiſhed, by the infamous practice of rounding and clipping, was about this time come to ſuch a ſtate, and the ill condition of it increaſed ſo faſt, that there was an abſolute neceſſity for the putting an effectual ſtop to an evil, which rendered all trade and dealing between man and man precarious, and at laſt threatened no leſs than the total deſtruction of all our ſilver coin.

The King accordingly, in his ſpeech to the Parliament, on the 22d day of November, 1695, took notice of this calamity, and recommended it to the conſideration of both Houſes, 'as a matter of the moſt general concern, and the greateſt 'importance.' The Lords, on the 5th day of the following December, reſolved upon an addreſs to his Majeſty, 'deſiring 'him to iſſue out his proclamation, That from ſuch a day, 'or days, as he ſhall think fit, no clipped money of any 'ſort ſhall paſs in payment as the current coin of this kingdom.' And the Commons, on the 10th of the ſame month, came to the following reſolutions:

'That the moſt effectual way to put a ſtop to the miſchief 'which the nation ſuffered by the currency of clipped money, 'was to recoin the ſame:' and, therefore, 'that all clipped 'money ſhould be recoined, according to the eſtabliſhed ſtandard of the Mint, both as to weight and fineneſs. That 'the loſs of ſuch clipped money as was ſilver, and coined at 'the lawful mint of this kingdom, ſhould be borne by the 'public.

'That

TAX

'That a day or days ſhould be appointed, after which no 'clipped crowns or half-crowns, ſhould be allowed in pay-'ment, or to paſs, except only to the collectors and receivers 'of his Majeſty's revenues and taxes, or upon loans or pay-'ments into the Exchequer.
'That a day or days ſhould be appointed, after which no 'clipped crowns or half-crowns ſhould paſs in any payment 'whatſoever.
'That all ſuch crowns and half-crowns, as they came into his 'Majeſty's receipt, ſhould be recoined into milled money.
'That a day or days ſhould be appointed, after which no 'money clipped within the ring ſhould be allowed in pay-'ment, or to paſs, except only to the collectors and receivers 'of his Majeſty's revenues and taxes, or upon loans or pay-'ments into the Exchequer.
'That a day or days ſhould be appointed, after which no 'money clipped within the ring ſhould paſs in any payment 'whatſoever.
'That a day or days ſhould be appointed for all perſons to 'bring in their clipped money, to be recoined into milled; 'after which no recompence ſhould be made for the ſame.
'That a fund or funds ſhould be ſettled, for ſupplying the 'deficiency of the clipped money.'

And an addreſs being preſented, in conſequence of theſe reſolutions, his Majeſty did, by a proclamation of the 19th of the ſame month, reciting the before-mentioned addreſſes of the two houſes, 'command, that after the firſt of January then 'next enſuing, no clipped crowns or half-crowns ſhould paſs 'in any payment, except to his Majeſty's collectors and 'receivers, &c. nor after the 3d of February, in any pay-'ment whatſoever, within London, or 40 miles thereof; 'nor after the 22d of February, in any other part of the 'kingdom; and that after the 13th of February, no ſhilling 'clipped within the ring ſhould paſs in any payment, except 'to his Majeſty's collectors, &c. nor after the 2d day of 'March in any payment whatſoever. And after that the 'ſaid 2d day of March, no other money clipped within the 'ring ſhould paſs, except to his Majeſty's collectors, &c. 'nor after the 2d day of April, in any payment whatſoever.'

And by another proclamation, of the 4th day of January, in the ſame year 1695, reciting the former, and an addreſs of the commons in parliament aſſembled, the receivers and collectors of his Majeſty's taxes and revenues were 'ſtrictly 'charged and commanded, that, until the ſaid ſeveral days 'mentioned in the laſt proclamation, they ſhould receive in 'payment all clipped money of the ſeveral denominations 'therein mentioned, that were of ſtandard ſilver.'

An Abstract of the Accounts of the Great Recoinage in King William's Reign.

	lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
Of the ſilver coined in the Tower of London from the 30th day of September, 1695, to the 31ſt day of December, 1699, there was, in 12 general remains of clipped hammered ſilver monies, taken in by the lords of the Treaſury, melted at Weſtminſter into 10,933 ingots, and then ſent to the Mint, the weight of	790,860	1	19	8
There was likewiſe of hammered money and wrought plate imported into the Mint, and there melted, the weight of	696,971	0	16	19
The hammered money and wrought plate imported into the five country mints, made in weight,				
At Briſtol	146,977	0	0	0
At Cheſter	101,660	0	0	0
At Exeter	147,296	0	0	0
At Norwich	83,040	0	0	0
At York	99,023	0	0	0
The total of the hammered and clipped ſilver mon. and of the wrought plate imported, amounted to the weight of	2065,827	2	16	3

	l.	s.	d.
Which makes, at 3 l. 2s. the pound-weight, the ſum of 6,404,064 l. 8s. 6d. but which being coined ſomewhat lighter, though within the remedy allowed, produced really in tale the ſum of	6,435,039	14	9½

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the joint reign of king William and queen Mary; that is to ſay, from the 14th day of February, 1688, to the 28th day of December, 1694,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 9,962 lb. 8 oz. 14 grs. making in money, at 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of	443,338	15	6
Brought over	443,338	15	6
In ſterling ſilver, during the ſame time, the weight of 25,492 lb. 4 oz. 18 dwts. 8 grs. making in money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of	79,026	9	4¼
Total value of all the money, both gold and ſilver, coined during the joint reign of king William and queen Mary	522,365	4	10¾
There was coined, during the remaining part of the reign of king William, after the queen's death, in crown gold of the Tower of London, from the 29th day of February, 1694, to the 8th day of March, 1701, the weight of 66,866 lb. 3 oz. 14 dwts. 11 grs. making in money, at the aforeſaid rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	2,975,550	16	1
In ſterling ſilver, during the ſame time, in the Tower, the wt. of 1,684,600 lb. 19 dwts. 6 grs. and in the five country mints, the weight of 577,996 lb. making together the weight of 2,262,596 lb. 19 dwts. 6 grs. and which produced in money, at the aforeſaid rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of	7,014,047	16	11¾
Total value of all monies, both of gold and ſilver, coined from the deceaſe of queen Mary to the deceaſe of the king	9,989,598	13	1
And the whole value of all the ſaid monies coined from the king's acceſſion to his death, amounted to the ſum of	10,511,963	17	11¾

Queen Anne

Paſſes an act for the better ſupport of her houſhold, and of the honour and dignity of the crown.—An act for making good deficiencies, and preſerving public credit.—An aid by divers ſubſidies, and a land-tax.—Has 4s. in the pound granted upon land.—Has a ſupply granted to her by ſeveral duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry.—An act for continuing the duties upon coals, &c.—An aid by ſale of ſeveral annuities at the Exchequer.—Has ſeveral ſubſidies granted for carrying on the war againſt France and Spain.—Has 4s. in the pound granted upon land.—An aid by continuing the duties upon malt, mum, &c.—An aid for carrying on the war, &c. by ſelling annuities at ſeveral rates.—An additional ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage, for three years.—Has 4s. in the pound again granted upon land.—Paſſes an act for raiſing monies by the ſale of ſeveral annuities, for carrying on the war.—Continues the duties upon malt, mum, &c. for one year.—Continues the duties upon low wines, and upon coffee, tea, &c.—Has a farther ſubſidy granted upon wines and merchandizes imported.—Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Continues the duties again upon malt, mum, &c.—An additional ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage continued, &c.—Paſſes an act for laying farther duties on low wines, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound again granted upon land.—Paſſes an act for continuing the duties upon malt, &c.—Paſſes an act for continuing the duties upon houſes, &c.—An act for continuing the duties on low wines, &c.—An act for continuing ſeveral ſubſidies, impoſitions, and duties, and for making the proviſions therein mentioned, to raiſe money by way of loan, for the ſervice of the war, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Has the duties on malt, mum, &c. continued.—Paſſes an act for raiſing a further ſupply by ſale of annuities, charged on a fund, not exceeding 40,000 l. per annum.—An act for continuing half the tonnage, poundage, and other duties on goods imported, &c.—Act for continuing the half ſubſidies therein-mentioned, viz. on wine, vinegar, tobacco, &c.—Likewiſe the duties upon coffee, chocolate, ſpices, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Has the duties on malt, &c. again continued.—Has the impoſition on tobacco, India ſtoods, &c. continued.—Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Duties on malt, &c. continued.—Duties on coals, &c. continued, and new duties on houſes.—New duties of exciſe, and upon ſeveral commodities, granted.—An act for laying certain duties upon candles, and certain rates upon monies given with clerks and apprentices.—Has ſeveral duties, impoſitions, and additional taxes continued on wine, vinegar, tobacco, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound ſtill upon land.—Duties on malt, &c. again continued.—An act for reviving, continuing, and appropriating certain duties on ſeveral commodities to be exported, &c.—Paſſes an act for eſtabliſhing a general poſt-office, &c.—Paſſes an act for laying certain duties upon hides, ſkins, &c. for 32 years.—Paſſes an

act

act for laying a duty upon hops.—An act for making good deficiencies, and satisfying the public debts, &c.—Passes an act for duties upon coals, for building fifty new churches.---An act for licensing and regulating hackney coaches and chairs, &c.---Has 4s. in the pound still upon land.---Duties upon malt, &c. again continued.---An act for laying several duties upon all soap and paper made in Great-Britain, or imported, &c.---An act for laying additional duties on hides and skins, &c.---Has the whole taxes continued as in other years anno 1712, amounting to 6,656,967 l.---In the next year has 4s. in the pound again upon land.---Duties upon malt, &c. again continued.---Passes an act to raise 1,200,000l. for public uses, by circulating a farther sum in Exchequer bills, &c.---Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.---Duties upon malt, &c. continued.---Passes an act for laying additional duties on soap, paper, and upon certain linens, &c.

REMARKS.

Queen Anne coined of silver the same monies and of the same form as those of king William; excepting that the arms of Nassau in the center of the four larger pieces were now omitted, and that in their room the garter star was again replaced. In the year 1707, the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland being completed, and taking place on the first day of May, there was thereupon an alteration made in the royal arms, as represented on the money: England and Scotland being from that time impaled together in the first and third of the four crowned shields, in the second of which France was now placed, and Ireland in the fourth. All the old silver money of Scotland was also upon the same occasion recoined into money of Great-Britain, exactly the same as that coined in England, and only distinguishable from it by the letter E. for Edinburgh, stamped upon all the pieces under her Majesty's head.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of queen Anne, that is to say, from the 9th day of March 1701, to the 1st day of August 1714,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 55,832lb. 2 oz. making in money at the rate of 44l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of - - - - -	2,484,531	8	4
And in sterling silver, the weight of 66,804 lb. 9oz. 15dwts. which produced in money, at the rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of -	207,094	18	4½
Total value of both sorts - -	2,691,626	6	8½

It may be noted, that it appears by the particulars of the accounts from which the foregoing extract was taken, that in the years 1709 and 1711, during which the greatest coinages of silver were made in this reign, there was coined out of wrought plate brought in upon encouragement, the weight of 46,156lb. 11 oz. 2dwts. 3. gr. making in value about 144,000 l. sterling; which was more than two thirds of all the silver coined in the Tower, from her Majesty's accession to her decease.

But there was further coined in this reign at Edinburgh upon the Union, and by the English moniers sent down thither, the weight of 103,346lb. making in tale, at the aforesaid rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of 320,372l. 12s. sterling money; all which was of their first coinage, in the year 1707, or the very beginning of 1708. Besides which, there was again a second coinage soon after, and before the end of the last mentioned year 1708, when some silver that could not conveniently be minted before, was also like the other, converted into current money of Great-Britain: but of this last coinage we have met with no particular account.

When the war begun in this reign, nothing could be more menacing than our prospects. The house of Bourbon despising all treaties, and, as usual, the most solemn engagement, by seizing territories more extensive and considerable, than were ever gained by the most rapid conquests. All the powers of Europe were interested to oppose a monarch thus prepared for their destruction. No period of time afforded men more eminent for wisdom and abilities, and more distinguished by successes equal to their merit. Had not this been the case, notwithstanding the stand that king William made against France, Europe must still have submited to an universal monarchy, which would not have indured any remains of civil or religious liberty.

In confederacies, wherein there are a variety of opposite interests, misfortunes are inevitable. Notwithstanding the several escapes of the enemy, the duke of Marlborough's progress, and the damages the French sustained elsewhere, reduced them to a state of distress and terror: notwithstanding their frontiers were impaired to such a degree, that we gained a secure admission into the defenceless parts of France, had his queen and country supported this great captain; yet we lost by the event every benefit which such advantages would have produced. For the queen unhappily exchanging the able, honest, and successful, for those whose management proved them the reverse, was the cause of our then not duly humbling the perfidious nation of France, who are eternally disturbing the happiness of mankind. No one of our monarchs ever had greater advantages of doing lasting good both at home and abroad, nor any reign been distinguished with such glorious and important events. Germany saved from destruction; the imperial crown preserved on the head of our ally; Flanders subdued; the exorbitant power of France reduced; the union of England and Scotland obtained, are events which will be had in everlasting remembrance. But by a dishonourable peace, how fruitless were these important events rendered? How soon again was the power of France restored to a condition of injuring, oppressing, and terrifying the world? And has not the power of this restless nation been daily aggrandized since this period? And do we not now experience the effect of it? And nothing, perhaps, but the queen's sudden removal, prevented the execution of those schemes in favour of a Popish pretender, which the peace-makers had laid.

KING GEORGE I.

Passes an act for the better support of his household, &c.—An act for rectifying mistakes in the names of the commissioners for the land-tax for the year 1714, &c. — Has an aid by the land-tax for the year 1715.—The duties on malt, &c. continued as in the former reign.—Passes an act for enlarging the fund of the governor and company of the Bank of England, relating to Exchequer bills, &c.—An act for raising 910,000l. for public services, by sale of annuities, &c.—Passes an act for enlarging the capital stock and yearly fund of the South Sea company, &c.—Has the land-tax continued for the years 1715 and 1716.—Duties on malt, &c. again continued.—Passes an act to continue duties for encouraging of the coinage of money, &c.—An act for appointing commissioners to enquire into the estates of certain traitors, and of Popish recusants, and of estates given to superstitious uses, in order to raise money out of them severally for the use of the public.—The land-tax act passed again. — Duties on malt, &c. continued again.—Passes an act for redeeming the duties and revenues, &c.—An act for redeeming several funds of the governor and company of the Bank of England, &c. — An act for redeeming the yearly fund of the South Sea company, &c. —The land-tax continued.—Duties on malt, &c. continued. Land-tax again continued.—As also duties on malt, &c. Passes an act for applying certain overplus monies, and farther sums to be raised, &c.—An act for continuing certain duties upon coals and culm, &c.—An act for redeeming the fund appropriated for payment of the lottery tickets, made forth for the service of the year 1718, &c.—Land-tax again continued.—Duties on malt, &c. continued.—Passes an act for enabling the South Sea company to increase their capital stock and fund, &c.—An act for making forth new Exchequer bills, not exceeding 1,000,000l. at a certain interest.—Passes an act for laying a duty upon wrought plate, &c.—Land-tax again continued.—An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.—An act for raising a sum not exceeding 500,000l. --- Land-tax continued. --- Duties on malt, &c. continued. --- Passes an act for paying off, and cancelling 1,000,000 l. of Exchequer bills, &c.---An act for reviving and adding 2,000,000 l. to the capital stock of the South Sea company, &c.---An act for reducing certain annuities, &c. --- Passes an act for the more easy assigning or transferring certain redeemable annuities, &c.---An act for granting an aid to the crown, by laying a tax upon Papists, &c.---Passes an act to continue the duties for the encouragement of the coinage of money, &c.---Has an aid granted by a land-tax.---An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.---An act for repealing certain duties, payable upon coffee, tea, &c. and for paying certain inland duties in lieu of them.---Has an aid again by a land-tax.---An act for rating unrated goods, &c.---An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.—An act for continuing several annuities to the Bank, 'till Midsummer 1727, &c.---An act for redeeming certain annuities, charged on the civil-list revenues, &c.---An act for the more effectual preventing frauds and abuses in the public revenues, &c.---The land-tax continued.---Has one million granted him, to be raised by a lottery.---The duty on malt, &c. continued.---Has an aid by laying a duty on the victuallers in London and Westminster, &c.---Passes an act for repealing the duties laid on snuff, &c.---An act for laying an imposition of two pennies Scots, upon all ale and beer, brewed and sold in the city of Glasgow.---Passes an act for the improvement of the revenues, &c.---Has an aid granted him by a land-tax.---An act for redeeming certain annuities transferrable at the Bank, &c.---The duty on malt, &c. continued.---Passes an act for granting the sum of 370,000l. to the crown, &c.---Passes an act for the sale of such of the forfeited estates in Scotland as remain unsold, and are vested in the crown.

REMARKS.

The silver monies of king George the Ist were the same as those of queen Anne, and of the same form, excepting that his head was again adorned with laurel, like those of his predecessors, king Charles II. king James II. and king Wil-

liam; and that upon the reverſe of the crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, and half ſhillings, the arms of Brunſwic Lunenburg, &c. uſed by his Majeſty as Elector, were placed in the laſt of the four crowned ſhields, the third of which was now given to Ireland.

There was coined in the Tower of London during the reign of king George I. that is to ſay, from the 2d day of Auguſt 1714, to the 11th day of June 1727,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 184,763lb. which, computed at 461l. 14s. 6d. the pound weight, guineas having been ſettled and made current at 21s. each, by his Majeſty's proclamation of the 22d of December 1717, and being therefore no longer eſteemed as pieces of 20s. but of 21s. each, in the mint, produced after that rate in money, the value of - - - - - -	8,492,876	3	6
In ſterl. ſilver, the weight of 75,176lb. making in money, at the rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the ſum of - -	233,045	12	0
And the total value both of the gold and ſilver amounted to - -	8,725,921	15	6

Note, It may be obſerved, that in the year 1718, and then only, there were coined ſome quarter guineas: when the weight of 110lb. in gold was converted into ſuch pieces, of which it conſequently produced about 19,580 in tale.

As ſome natural neceſſities or diſadvantages may be thought favourable to induſtry, ſo ſome have argued that artificial burthens may have the ſame effect. Sir William Temple * aſcribes the induſtry of the Dutch entirely to the neceſſity, proceeding from their natural diſadvantages; and illuſtrates his doctrine by a very ſtriking compariſon with Ireland, where (ſays he) by the largeneſs and plenty of the ſoil, and ſcarcity of people, all things neceſſary to life are ſo cheap, that an induſtrious man, by two days labour, may gain enough to feed him the reſt of the week: which I take to be a very plain ground of the lazineſs attributed to the people. For men naturally prefer eaſe before labour, and will not take pains, if they can live idle; though when, by neceſſity, they have been enured to it, they cannot leave it, being grown a cuſtom neceſſary to their health and to their very entertainment: nor perhaps is the change harder, from conſtant eaſe to labour, than from conſtant labour to eaſe. After which the author proceeds to confirm his doctrine, by enumerating, as above, the places where trade has moſt flouriſhed, in ancient and modern times; and which are commonly obſerved to be in ſuch narrow confined territories, as beget a neceſſity for induſtry.

* Account of the Netherlands, chap. 6.

It is always obſerved in years of ſcarcity, if it be not extreme, that the poor labour more, and really live better, than in years of great plenty, when they indulge themſelves in idleneſs and riot.

This doctrine therefore, conſidered as has been done with regard to taxes, may be admitted in ſome degrees; but beware of the abuſe. Taxes, like neceſſity, when carried too far, deſtroy induſtry, by engendering deſpair; and even before they reach this pitch, THEY RAISE THE WAGES OF THE LABOURER AND MANUFACTURER, AND HEIGHTEN THE PRICE OF ALL COMMODITIES. [For proof of which, ſee our articles LABOUR, DUTIES.] An attentive diſintereſted legiſlature will obſerve the point, when the EMOLUMENT CEASES, AND THE PREJUDICE BEGINS: but as the contrary character is much more common, it is to be feared, that the taxes of England are multiplyed to a degree that will prove highly detrimental to art and induſtry: and therefore the contenders for more and more taxes, upon trade, are enemies to our commerce and navigation: were they as zealous for the reduction, or the annihilation of many of thoſe we already have, they would ſhew themſelves advocates for the proſperity of the nation.

REMARKS on the ſtate of TRADE and LIBERTY ſince the REVOLUTION in 1688.

Upon king William's coming to the crown of theſe kingdoms, early application was made to him for ſeveral regulations tending to the encouragement of trade, and for eſtabliſhing a great many uſeful manufactories among us, which had been kept under by France and others, underſelling the manufactures made at home. This great prince was ever ready to hear all propoſals made upon that occaſion, and gave his utmoſt countenance to all ſuch undertakings; but by the fondneſs of the nation to French commodities ſo much countenanced by king Charles and king James, it was no eaſy matter to bring the people into a due regard for thoſe made at home. However, upon breaking out of the war with France in this reign, and prohibiting French commodities, encouragement was given for erecting ſeveral of theſe manufactories here, as the luſtring, alamode, and other ſilk manufactures for hoods and ſcarves, which the king's royal conſort, the excellent queen Mary, took no ſmall pains to eſtabliſh; for which articles alone, it is allowed, France drew from us above FOUR HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS YEARLY. For the ſaving of which to the nation, we were indebted to the happy æra of the Revolution, which not only preſerved us from the tyranny of Popery, but proved the ſalvation of our trade.

At the ſame time the manufacture of glaſs was eſtabliſhed, which before we uſed to have from France, and alſo that of hats and paper. The manufacture of linen was likewiſe ſettled in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, particularly in Somerſetſhire, and Dorſetſhire, where they made extraordinary good linen, in imitation of France; and which ſo increaſed, that in a few years it was computed, in a diſtrict of about ten miles ſquare, they made to the value of one hundred thouſand pounds worth annually. But upon the peace with France, there were ſo many linens run into the weſt, that it put that manufacture under great diſcouragement. At this glorious period alſo the manufactures of copper and braſs were ſet on foot, which are brought to great perfection, and now in a great meaſure ſupply the nation with copper, kettles, and all ſorts of copper and braſs ware, which has ſaved the nation immenſe ſums ſince that time. The making of ſail-cloth, likewiſe, was begun and carried on to great perfection; alſo ſword-blades, ſciſſars, and a great many toys made of ſteel, which formerly we uſed to have from France; in the manufacturing of which, it is ſaid, we now excel all other nations, and not only ſave thoſe great ſums we expended in France, but by means hereof bring in ſome hundred thouſand pounds a year, by our Birmingham and Sheffield manufactories. The ſettling of ſalt-works, and improving of ſalt-ſprings and rock ſalt, hath proved very beneficial here, and ſaves a very great treaſure yearly, which alſo we heretofore paid to France for ſalt; and a great variety of other particulars, which have proved of unſpeakable benefit to the trade of this nation; and therefore, thoſe who are true friends to our commerce, cannot be enemies to this happy revolution.

The meaſures we have mentioned to have been taken in the reign of king William III, in regard to the coin of the kingdom at that time, had all the happy effects that could be expected, in relation both to trade and the public credit: for thereby the greateſt part of the loſs by the recoinage was thrown immediately upon the king, though it was afterwards made good to him by a tax; hereby the loſs was as well divided and equally ſpread, as could well have been contrived. When the ill condition of the money, and the neceſſity of recoining it, was firſt taken into conſideration, ſome were for changing the nominal values of the pieces, as if they had thought ſuch new nominal values would really give to thoſe pieces a different and a greater worth than that which they had before. Among theſe was William Lowndes, Eſq; who, in an otherwiſe very uſeful book, intitled, A Report, containing an Eſſay for the amendment of Silver Coins, preſented to the lords commiſſioners of his Majeſty's Treaſury, on the 12th day of September 1695, advanced this ſcheme; particularly propoſing, that the piece of ſilver of the ſame goodneſs and weight as the undiminiſhed crown-piece, ſhould, for the time to come, be current for ſix ſhillings and three pennies. But this was fully anſwered by the judicious John Locke, Eſq; in his further conſiderations concerning raiſing the value of money; in which, as well as in his former tract on the ſame ſubject, and that of the lowering of intereſt, he has treated of this affair, and of every thing that had relation to it, in ſo clear, ſo ſtrong, and ſo maſterly a manner, as to carry conviction in every page, and to leave nothing to be afterwards added, by ſuch as ſhould again attempt to re-conſider the ſame matters.

And now that we have mentioned theſe two laſt pieces, we cannot but take notice alſo of an excellent diſcourſe publiſhed a little before by the reverend and learned Dr William Fleetwood, afterwards lord biſhop of Ely: I mean his ſermon againſt clipping, preached before the lord mayor, &c. at Guildhall chapel, on Sunday the 16th of December, 1694, upon this text of Gen. xxiii, 16. 'And Abraham weighed to 'Ephron the ſilver which he had named, in the audience of 'the ſons of Heth, four hundred ſhekels of ſilver, current mo-'ney with the merchant.' In which he with great judgment ſet before his audience the nature and conſequences of this pernicious practice; boldly inferred, from the vaſt increaſe of it within a few years, that the avarice of greater and richer men than ſuch as commonly ſuffered for it, muſt have been concerned in it; and wiſely foreſaw the calamities that muſt enſue, if the moſt prudent and conſiderate ſteps were not taken, in the applying of a remedy to ſo great an evil. 'Who 'can tell, ſaid he, whether every ſingle perſon muſt not bear 'his own burthen, and ſtand to the loſs of all that is want-'ing of due weight, of all the money he is maſter of? And 'if he muſt, the cry will be like that of Egypt, loud and 'univerſal; for every family will be a loſer: but it will fall 'ſevereſt upon the poor, who from a little can ſpare none.' This prince greatly increaſed the royal navy.

Theſe are a few of the great things that were done in the reign of king William III, for the intereſt of trade and the

publi

public credit, and which ought never to be forgot by all true Britons.

This great prince had juſt views of the horrid conſequences of the unreſtrained progreſs of the power of France. With great integrity and vigour, therefore, he made it the buſineſs of his life to oppoſe all its miſchievous motions; nor did he grow weary in the glorious toil. He had an enemy who was ever well prepared and provided, while he was often embarraſſed and diſappointed, and rarely attended with triumphant ſucceſs: however, the preſervation of Europe from abſolute ſubjection may juſtly be aſcribed to his arduous endeavours. He knew in what a ſcandalous and mercenary manner his two predeceſſors had ſurrendered themſelves to the will and pleaſure of the enemy, nor was he ignorant of the weak and corrupt condition of many other ſtates. As he proved himſelf a friend to the liberties of Europe, and preſerved its free ſtates from being the oppreſſed provinces of an univerſal monarchy, ſo equally ſincere was his zeal for the religious rights of mankind: he had a juſt deteſtation of Popiſh tyranny and uſurpation on conſcience. In his days, and by his means, the firm and conſiſtent foundations were laid of what is truly valuable in civil or religious affairs. Before his time, avowing the rights of mankind was criminal and diſgraceful: as they had power and opportunity, the ſeveral parties of Chriſtians oppreſſed each other. To him we owe the aſſerting and ſecuring our moſt important immunities and privileges; and to him the intellectual world is indebted for the full freedom of debating all ſubjects, and for avowing and defending their ſentiments with decency.

His laſt work compleated his good deſigns, for conveying to us the great and invaluable bleſſing of the Proteſtant ſucceſſion. Had he been cut off in any of the periods of his glorious ſtruggle for the happineſs of this nation, and the welfare of all Europe, the miſeries and miſchiefs which muſt naturally have followed, would ſurely have equalled all the ſuggeſtions of the moſt melancholy imagination. But the unthinking part of the world, becauſe wholly delivered from the greateſt of calamities, have not been, nor ever will, perhaps, be duly ſenſible.

Queen Anne's miniſtry, upon the treaty of Utrecht, too readily granted the French liberty to fiſh upon the very beſt fiſheries on the north coaſt of Newfoundland, and there to build ſtages to dry them. They alſo granted them CAPE BRETON, WHICH IS SAID TO BE THE VERY BEST SPOT IN ALL THOSE SEAS FOR FISHING. Thus we ſee the French, by their great penetration and knowlege in the affairs of commerce, have gained from us a treaſure equal to a mine of gold; and by means of the Newfoundland fiſhery, they have raiſed their naval power to the height we now experience it. See our article BRITISH AMERICA, where this matter is put in a full light. In ſhort, notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of our arms in this reign, yet moſt of the advantages we gained in king William's time, in point of trade, were in a great meaſure loſt, by the treaty of UTRECHT. And theſe advantages the French have not neglected to improve from that period of time; and the effects of their power, in conſequence hereof, we have now reaſon to dread, unleſs our naval ſtrength is ſo effectually exerted, as to break their meaſures at preſent, and to diſable them ever after from deſtroying the commerce and the liberties of Great Britain; which may now be ſaid to be the only BARRIER that all EUROPE has left, to withſtand the torrent of French and Spaniſh tyranny and oppreſſion.

The confuſed ſtate of the nation at the acceſſion of his late Majeſty KING GEORGE to the crown of theſe kingdoms, is well enough known, as are the ſeveral rebellions that were raiſed to dethrone him, in favour of the Pretender. Notwithſtanding all which, we find this our great monarch not only triumphant in his arms, but even careful in promoting the intereſt of our commerce, at a time when it could have been the leaſt expected. The firſt remarkable particular that we meet with in relation to this important point, is

A CONVENTION made at LONDON, July 26, O. S. 1715, relating to the DUTIES laid on BRITISH WOOLLEN CLOTHS exported to the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

His Britannic Majeſty's miniſters having complained that the commerce of his ſaid Britannic Majeſty with the Auſtrian Netherlands is very much prejudiced by the high duties of importation laid upon the coarſe woollen cloths ſent from Great-Britain to the ſaid Auſtrian Netherlands, the under-written miniſter and plenipotentiary of his imperial and Catholic Majeſty for the treaty of barrier [ſee the article NETHERLANDS] at Antwerp, declares by theſe preſents, that his Imperial Catholic Majeſty will conſent to the immediate reducing of the duties on the ſaid coarſe woollen cloths, according to the following ſpecification: and that, in all other reſpects, the commerce of the ſubjects of his Britannic Majeſty with the Auſtrian Netherlands ſhall remain, continue, and ſubſiſt, wholly on the ſame foot as it does at preſent, without any alteration, innovation, diminution, or augmentation to be made, under any pretext whatſoever, 'till all the parties intereſted ſhall agree upon a treaty of commerce.

DYED WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	3	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	2	0
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under	1	0

MIXED WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	2	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	1	10
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under -	1	0

WHITE WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	2	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	2	0
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under - -	1	0
Draps de pié (cloth to lie upon floors) of all ſorts, the piece - - - -	0	8

Requiſition made to the council of ſtate at Bruſſels, the 6th of November, 1715.

It being abſolutely neceſſary for the ſervice of his Imperial and Catholic Majeſty to leſſen immediately the duties of importation on coarſe woollen cloths coming from Great-Britain and the United Provinces, on the following foot,

WOOLLEN CLOTHS DYED.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	3	10
From 40 to 60 - - - -	2	0
Of 40 and under - - - -	1	0

MIXED.

A piece of the value of 60 florins, and ſo up to 90	2	10
From 40 to 60 - - - - - -	1	10
Of 40 and under - - - -	1	10

WHITE.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of 60 florins, and ſo up to 90	2	10
From 40 to 60 - - - - - -	2	0
Of 40 and under - - - - - -	1	0
Draps de pié (cloth to lie upon floors) of all ſorts, the piece - - - - - -	0	8

And to reduce the duties of importation on brandies diſtilled from corn coming from Great-Britain and the United Provinces, to three florins the aum, inſtead of eight, which is now paid, you are required, gentlemen, to give forthwith the neceſſary directions in the finances, that the proper orders may be immediately iſſued for this purpoſe, and that the collectors of the duties of importation and exportation may conform themſelves accordingly thereto. Done at the conference at Bruſſels, this 6th of November, 1715.

A copy of the reſolution of the council of ſtate, minuted in the margin of conſultation of the council of the finances the 7th of November, 1715.

Having made our repreſentation to the miniſters of the conference, conformably to this conſultation, and added alſo other reaſons to enforce it, they have newly made this day another more preſſing requiſition to us, by which they inſiſt abſolutely that the former be put in execution, whereupon the council of the finances ſhall iſſue the orders therein ſpecified; but it is underſtood that they ſhall not have force nor effect, unleſs they be approved and ratified by his Imperial and Catholic Majeſty in the treaty of barrier: this laſt clauſe, however, which begins with the words, 'It 'is underſtood,' and ends with the words, 'In the treaty 'of barrier,' ſhall not be inſerted in the orders to be ſent to the collectors.

Order of the council of finances to the collectors of the duties.

The counſellors and commiſſioners of the demeſnes and finances of his Imperial and Catholic Majeſty. Moſt dear and ſpecial friends, we herewith ſend you, with expreſs orders of the council of ſtate appointed for the general government of theſe countries, a copy of the requiſition made to them by the miniſters of the conference, relating to the leſſening of the duties of importation on the coarſe woollen cloth coming from Great-Britain and from the United Provinces, as alſo for reducing the ſaid duties on brandies diſtilled from corn; commanding you, by expreſs order of the ſaid council of ſtate, to take care to regulate yourſelves purſuant thereto, in collecting the ſaid

duties,

duties, and to give notice of it to your ſubalterns. Moſt dear and ſpecial friends, God have you in his holy keeping. Bruſſels, at the council of the ſaid finances, the 12th of November, 1715.

To the collectors of the duties of importation and exportation at

Newport,	Fort St Philip,
Oſtend,	Borgethout,
Bruges,	Mechlen,
Ghent,	Turnhout,
Dendermonde,	Tirlemont.

Extract from the tariff ſettled the 14th of November, 1715.

N. B. A difficulty having ariſen about the intention of the requiſition of the 6th of November, 1715, of which mention is made in the 26th article of the treaty of barrier, it is agreed proviſionally, to cauſe the duties of importation on all the different ſorts comprehended in the above tariff under the denomination of woollen cloths, to be collected according to the tenor of the ſaid requiſition of the 6th of November, 'till his Imperial and Catholic Majeſty, and his Majeſty the king of Great-Britain, ſhall agree upon it otherwiſe; and, in the mean while, the king's collectors and officers ſhall permit the ſaid manufactures to be imported, giving notice, and taking ſecurity for the payment of the overplus duties of importation, on the foot the ſame ſhall be ſettled.

A letter from the Imperial envoy, count Volkra, to the lord viſcount Townſhend, principal ſecretary of ſtate.

My Lord,

You have acquainted me that complaints are made of contraventions to the 26th article of the treaty of barrier, and I have had the honour to communicate to you what count Konigſegg has anſwered thereupon.

I can declare to you beſides, that, for the future, there will be an exact performance of the ſaid 26th article of the treaty of barrier, of the 15th of November, 1715, and of the convention at London, of the 26th of July, 1715, as alſo of the declaration in the tariff of the 14th of November, 1715, that is to ſay, that the duties on the petite draperie (or woollen ſtuffs) of England, will be collected on the foot of the coarſe woollen cloths, according to the diminution expreſſed in the aforeſaid convention at London, without any alteration, 'till it be agreed otherwiſe between the emperor and the king, our maſters; but, in the mean time, the merchants are to give ſecurity to pay the ſurplus, if the matter ſhall be ſo determined between the two reſpective courts.

London, Auguſt $\frac{20}{31}$, 1716.

I am, &c.

The COUNT VOLKRA.

REMARKS.

In order to judge the better of the merits of this COMMERCIAL CONVENTION, ſee our remarks on the article ROYAL EXCHANGE.

The French king having evaded the execution of the 9th article of the treaty of Utrecht, about the demolition of Dunkirk, by making a new canal at Mardyke, the next ſtep taken by this monarch, tending to the benefit of trade and navigation, was making ſtrong remonſtrances, by that able miniſter, John earl of Stair, in 1715, to the court of France, for the demolition of Dunkirk and Mardyke. The effects of which were, that, in 1717, Col. Armſtrong, Mr Alworth, and Mr Laſſels, were appointed commiſſioners to inſpect the demolition of the works at Mardyke, purſuant to the treaty with the late regent of France.

Another great point gained by the court of England, in the year 1715, was the ſigning of the BARRIER TREATY at Antwerp, by the Britiſh, Imperial, and Dutch miniſters.—For the importance whereof, ſee our REMARKS on the articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, and NETHERLANDS.

In 1715, we find his Majeſty was able to conclude a treaty of commerce between England and Spain; and how greatly that proved to the advantage of the commerce of this kingdom, and how greatly this, and the preceding convention, contributed to ſupply the defects of the Utrecht treaty, ſee our REMARKS on the article ROYAL EXCHANGE.

In Dec. 1717, it being found by experience that guineas, and other gold coin, being too high in value, thereby diminiſhed our quantity of ſilver coin, and proved very detrimental to our trade, the king iſſued a proclamation, declaring, That guineas ſhould be current at no more than 21s. and half-guineas, double-guineas, &c. proportionably; that broad-pieces of 23s. 6d. ſhould be reduced to 23s. and thoſe of 25s. 6d. to 25s. and ſmaller gold pieces in proportion. See the neceſſity and reaſonableneſs hereof, and how beneficial this meaſure proved to our commerce, under our article COIN.

November 11, 1718, at the meeting of the parliament, the king, in his ſpeech, acquaints the Commons, That he had concluded an alliance between the two greateſt princes of Europe, wherein they bound themſelves to ſupport the ſucceſſion to theſe kingdoms in his family. — That to vindicate the faith of his former treaties, as well as to maintain thoſe which he had lately made, and to protect and defend the TRADE of his ſubjects, which had in every branch been violently and unjuſtly oppreſſed by the Spaniards, it became neceſſary for his NAVAL FORCES to check their progreſs — And that, inſtead of liſtening to his reaſonable terms of accommodation, that court had lately given orders at all the ports of Spain, and of the Weſt-Indies, to fit out privateers, and to take our ſhips, &c.—Accordingly the Commons approved the king's meaſures with regard to Spain, and raiſed men and money accordingly. — An order of council alſo is publiſhed, December the 3d, in the ſame year, for making general reprizals on the Spaniards, and letters of marque are granted againſt them. — See our articles REPRIZALS, and MARQUE [LETTERS of MARQUE]. — Thus the naval power of Great-Britain being exerted to protect her commerce, Spain threatens us with the Pretender, and a ſquadron ſails from Cadiz towards England, to carry on this deſign, under the conduct of the duke of Ormond; but was diſabled from purſuing its courſe by a ſtorm. — This was cardinal Alberoni's ſcheme.

December 22, N. S. A convention between the emperor, the king of Great-Britain, and the States-General, relating to the execution of certain articles of the barrier treaty, is ſigned at the Hague.

March 18, 1718-19. An embargo is laid on all ſhips outward bound: and a proclamation publiſhed, for encouraging his Majeſty's ſhips of war and privateers to take prizes from the Spaniards, by ordering them to be diſtributed among the ſailors.— In July 1719, the city of Meſſina ſurrenders to the Imperialiſts, and in the whole ſiege admiral Byng gave great aſſiſtance. After the ſurrender, he lands ſome Engliſh forces, who took the tower of Faro; and that opening a free paſſage for his ſhips, he came to an anchor in Paradiſe-road, and deſtroyed the Spaniſh men of war that lay there, which for a time ruined the naval power of Spain—Which they have now again recruited, and if not again deſtroyed, are likely, in concert with their dear allies the French, to make another attempt to ruin the commerce of theſe kingdoms, and play their Popiſh tool again upon Great-Britain. — May their fate prove always as it hitherto has done!

In reſentment for this treatment againſt our trade and liberties, his Majeſty formed the project to make himſelf maſter of PERU in AMERICA, and accordingly admiral Hoſier ſails towards thoſe parts with a ſquadron of men of war, and was to be joined by others; but this expedition was fruſtrated by the winds. — A deſign alſo was formed by his Majeſty to attack the CORUNNA in SPAIN, and vice-admiral Mighells ſailed from St Helens with ſix men of war, as a convoy to 4000 land forces under the command of lord viſcount Cobham, but they landed at Vigo; and at the firſt ſummons the town ſurrenders, as does alſo the citadel a few days after. — They found there above 100 pieces of cannon, above 2000 barrels of powder, and 8000 muſkets deſigned for the deſcent in England, which they brought away, as alſo ſeveral other pieces that were at Pont à Vedra. — The Engliſh troops being reimbarked at Vigo, the fleet ſails back for England with them, and arrives November 14.— In conſequence of this ſpirit and vigour exerted by our navy, the king of Spain was compelled to diſmiſs his prime miniſter cardinal Alberoni, as a firſt ſtep towards a peace with the emperor, king George and the regent of France.

In 1720, the unhappy affair of the South Sea company was broached. See our article SOUTH SEA COMPANY; which was greatly detrimental to the public credit; notwithſtanding which, from the wiſdom of his Majeſty's councils the public credit was reſtored, and the national debts put into a ſtate of redemption. See our articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT] DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS] and FUNDS.

Auguſt 4, 1721, his Majeſty puts an end to the ſeſſion of parliament with a ſpeech, acquainting both houſes, among other things, that he had renewed all our TREATIES of COMMERCE with Spain, upon the ſame foot as they were ſettled before the late war.—October 19, the parliament meets, and his majeſty in his ſpeech recommends to the nation, To improve the favourable opportunity, which the concluſion of a peace with Spain, and between Sweden and Muſcovy at that time, gave, of extending our commerce, upon which, as his Majeſty obſerves, THE RICHES AND GRANDEUR OF THIS NATION CHIEFLY DEPEND: and for that purpoſe, to make the exportation of our own manufactures, and the importation of the commodities, uſed in

the manufacturing of them, as practicable and eaſy as may be, by taking off the duties upon theſe branches, &c.—And to ſupply ourſelves with naval ſtores from our plantations in America.—For the importance of theſe points to the commerce and navigation of the kingdom, ſee our articles MANUFACTURES and NAVAL STORES.

The moſt conſiderable acts paſſed this ſeſſion in regard to trade, were, 1. For taking off the duty upon ſalt uſed in the curing of red and white herrings, and laying a proportionable duty upon all red and white herrings conſumed at home only.—2. An act for giving further encouragement for the importation of naval ſtores.—3. For encouragement of the ſilk manufacture of this kingdom; and for taking off ſeveral duties on merchandizes exported; and for reducing the duties upon beaver-ſkins, pepper, mace, cloves, and nutmegs imported; and for importation of all furrs, of the product of the Britiſh plantations in this kingdom only; and that the two corporations of aſſurances, on any ſuits brought on their policies, ſhall be liable only to ſingle damages and coſts of ſuit. See our article ASSURANCE.

In May 1722, his Majeſty has full information of a conſpiracy formed againſt him; the firſt intelligence of which came from the duke of Orleans, regent of France.—The apprehenſions of this plot did ſo affect the public credit, that South Sea ſtock fell from 90 to 77, and the timorous and diſaffected began a run upon the Bank: but the funds ſoon roſe again to their former value: which ended in the baniſhment of Dr Atterbury, late biſhop of Rocheſter, and the execution of Chriſtopher Layer, &c.

For the ſupport of the trade of our ſugar colonies, his Majeſty made a grant of the iſlands of ST VINCENT and ST LUCIA, near BARBADOES, to John duke of Montague, and a patent paſſed the ſeals for that purpoſe. See the importance of theſe places, under our article BRITISH AMERICA.

In December 1722, the emperor of Germany granted a patent for eſtabliſhing an Eaſt-India company in the Auſtrian Netherlands, but the courts of GREAT-BRITAIN, FRANCE, and HOLLAND, made ſo ſtrong an oppoſition to this deſign, that it was afterwards laid aſide. See our articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

This year the governors of New-York, Virginia, and Penſylvania, in order to ſupport an intereſt with the Indian nations at Albany, with the SACHIMS, or KINGS of the AMERICAN NATIVES, called the FIVE NATIONS, or RIVER INDIANS, in which all former leagues between theſe governments and the ſaid Indians were confirmed. Likewiſe,

Sir William Keith, governor of Penſylvania, entered into a treaty with the SASQUEHANA INDIANS, wherein thoſe people agreed to remove back into the woods, and leave a tract of 100,000 acres of land for the uſe of the ENGLISH PLANTERS.

April 24, 1724.—His Majeſty puts an end to the ſeſſion of parliament by a ſpeech. The chief acts paſſed in relation to trade, were, 1. For repealing certain duties therein mentioned, payable upon coffee, tea, cacao-nuts, chocolate, and cacao-paſte imported, and for granting certain inland duties in lieu thereof; and for prohibiting the importation of chocolate ready made, and cacao-paſte.—2. For the better viewing, ſearching, and examining, all drugs, medicines, &c. in all places where the ſame ſhall be expoſed to ſale, or kept for that purpoſe, within the city of London and ſuburbs thereof, or within ſeven miles circuit of the ſaid city.—3. For encouraging the GREENLAND FISHERY.

May 16, 1724.—King George ſends a circular letter to the univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, declaring his intention of appointing two profeſſors of modern hiſtory and languages, one in each univerſity, with a ſtipend of 400 l. per annum a-piece—How a knowlege in theſe eſſentials might tend to enable people of diſtinction who are ſent as ambaſſadors, &c. to foreign courts, to promote the commerce and the honour of the nation, is too obvious to need animadverſion.—And this I doubt not but his Majeſty had chiefly in view: however that deſign has been neglected ſince.

In April 30, 1725.—A treaty of peace is concluded at Vienna, between the emperor and the king of Spain; wherein king Philip renounces all the pretenſions to his dominions in Italy and the Netherlands, and they mutually engage for the reciprocal defence and guaranty of all the kingdoms and provinces which they actually poſſeſſed, and the order of ſucceſſion, as ſettled in their reſpective families, &c.—They alſo ſign a private treaty, wherein the emperor engages to concur in employing force for having Gibraltar reſtored to Spain; to uſe means for placing the Pretender upon the Britiſh throne; and that his daughter, the archduchеſs, ſhould be married to the infant of Spain.—The next day they ſigned a treaty of commerce for ſettling an Eaſt-India company at Oſtend, which gave great umbrage again to the Engliſh and Dutch.

The chief acts paſſed this ſeſſion for the benefit of trade, were, 1. For encouraging the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom. 2. For preventing the clandeſtine running of goods, &c. 3. For rating ſuch unrated goods and merchandize, as are uſually imported into this kingdom, and pay duty ad valorem, upon the oath of the importer; and for aſcertaining the value of all goods and merchandize not inſerted in the former, or preſent book of rates.

January 20, 1725-6.—The parliament meets. The king acquaints both houſes, that the negociations and engagements entered into by ſome foreign powers, which ſeemed to have laid the foundation of new troubles in Europe, and to threaten his ſubjects with the loſs of ſeveral of the moſt advantageous branches of their trade, had obliged him to enter into a defenſive alliance with the moſt Chriſtian king, and the king of Pruſſia, &c.

February 24, 1725-6.—The convention of the royal burghs in Scotland preſents an addreſs to his Majeſty, in which they remonſtrated againſt the malt-tax, as a burthen too heavy for their country to bear: that it rendered them incapable of carrying on the fiſhing trade, and ſuch other branches of commerce and manufacture as Scotland was proper for: that their poverty, and want of coin, the great decay of their trade, and the meanneſs of their grain, were melancholy truths, &c.—Therefore they prayed relief.—They afterwards petitioned the commons concerning it; as did likewiſe the ſhires of Renfrew, Bamff, &c.—In conſequence of which the commons order, that ſome clauſes ſhould be inſerted in the malt-bill, for the ſatisfaction of the Scots, namely, That the produce of it in Scotland, after 20,000 l. paid into the Exchequer, ſhould be applied towards the encouragement of the trade and manufactures of that kingdom, &c.—And king George ſends a letter to the royal burghs of Scotland, to put them in mind of improving their fiſheries and manufactures, with the money granted them for that purpoſe at the Union. See our articles ABERDEENSHIRE and SCOTLAND, for what has been ſince done, for the promotion of the trade of that part of the united kingdom.

May 24, 1726.—King George puts an end to this ſeſſion of parliament with a ſpeech. The chief acts paſſed this ſeſſion were, 1. For giving encouragement to the Greenland fiſhery. 2. To prevent unlawful combinations of workmen employed in the woollen manufactures, and for the better payment of their wages.

The emperor, in conſequence of the alliance before mentioned with his Catholic Majeſty, prohibits the importation of the Engliſh woollen manufactories into Sicily.

Auguſt 20, 1726.—The Eaſt-India company obtain a charter for incorporating their towns of Madraſſpatan, Bombay, and Fort William, to be governed each of them by a mayor and aldermen, who are impowered to make bye-laws, and exerciſe criminal as well as civil juriſdiction, except in caſes of high treaſon.

In the latter part of this year, great preparations were made in Spain for war, both by ſea and land; and a camp of about 20,000 men was formed at St Roch, near Gibraltar, under pretence of rebuilding the caſtle of Old Gibraltar. Upon repeated advices of their real intention, the garriſon was reinforced with three regiments, and the Spaniards afterwards inveſted and opened the trenches before Gibraltar; and tho' ſome did not ſcruple to propagate, that Gibraltar would be given up by the late king, yet we know it was gallantly defended.—For the great importance of this place to the trade of theſe kingdoms, ſee our article MEDITERRANEAN.

January 17, 1726 7.—The parliament meets. His Majeſty opens it with a long and pathetic ſpeech, wherein he acquaints both houſes, with the ſecret and offenſive alliances concluded between the emperor and the court of Spain:—That the placing the pretender upon the throne of this kingdom, was one of the articles of the ſecret engagements; and the giving up the trade of this nation to one power, and Gibraltar and Portmahon to another, was made the price and reward of impoſing upon this kingdom a Popiſh pretender, &c.—The lords and commons reſolve, that the meaſures he had taken were honourable, juſt, and neceſſary, for preventing the execution of the dangerous engagements entered into in favour of the pretender; for preſerving the dominions belonging to the crown of Great-Britain by ſolemn treaties, and particularly thoſe of Gibraltar and Minorca; and for maintaining to his people their moſt valuable rights and privileges of commerce, and the peace and tranquillity of Europe.

March 25, 1727.—General letters of reprizals are granted againſt the Spaniards.—The court of Vienna ſeeming diſpoſed to attack the DUTCH BARRIER in the NETHERLANDS [ſee our articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, and NETHERLNDS, for the importance hereof to Great-Britain], king George orders an augmentation of 30 companies of foot, and that the 10,000 auxiliaries which England was obliged to ſend to the aſſiſtance of the States, ſhould hold themſelves in readineſs for embarkation.

May 15, 1727.—His Majeſty puts an end to this ſeſſion of parliament with a ſpeech.—The chief acts paſſed this ſeſſion for the benefit of trade, were, 1. For the better regulation of the woollen manufacture, and for preventing diſputes among the perſons concerned therein; and for limiting a time for proſecuting for the forfeiture, appointed by an act of the 12th year of his Majeſty's reign, in caſe of payment of the

workmen's wages in any other manner than in money. 2. For preventing frauds and abuſes in the dyeing trade. 3. For the free importation of cochineal, during the time therein limited. 4. For the better regulation of the linen and hempen manufactures in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland. 5. For encouraging and promoting fiſheries and other manufactures and improvements in Scotland.

The treaty of Hanover having broke the meaſures of Spain and the emperor, preliminary articles for a general pacification are agreed upon at Paris, between the miniſters of the emperor, his Britannic Majeſty, the Moſt Chriſtian king, and the States-General.

By the firſt article, the Oſtend company was to be ſuſpended for the ſpace of ſeven years. By the 5th all hoſtilities were to ceaſe, immediately after the ſigning of the articles: and, by the ſeventh a congreſs was to be opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, in four months from the day of ſigning.

So inconſiſtent have men been in their judgment of this reign, that ſome have thought, that our naval power was not ſo vigorouſly exerted during it, as it ſhould have been, and others that it was exerted to too great lengths, by deſtroying the Spaniſh fleet in the Mediterranean, by Sir George Byng: notwithſtanding theſe different opinions, certain it is, that the latter deſtroyed, at that time, the growing naval power of Spain, and utterly diſappointed the great deſigns of an able and enterprizing miniſter. And the fleets of admiral Hoſier, Sir John Jennings, Sir Charles Wager, and Sir George Walton, abſolutely defeated the Imperial and Spaniſh deſigns before taken notice of.

The invaſion and rebellion in 1718, are leſs remembered than that of 1715, becauſe not one perſon ſuffered death on that account. The rebellion likewiſe intended by the late king of Sweden ſeems to have been forgot, though it gave ſome uneaſineſs to king George's reign; for had that implacable monarch lived, his deſigns againſt Denmark would probably have ſucceeded, and then he would have had leiſure for tranſporting his hardy troops into Scotland.

Had the ſucceſſion of this prince [king George] taken place before the change of the miniſtry at the latter end of queen Anne's reign, it would have been infinitely more happy, not only for the nation, but for the laſting tranquillity of the liberties of Europe. France would then have been compelled to give up the Spaniſh monarchy. By advantages in trading to the dominions of Spain, in Europe and America, and by ſeveral conceſſions, we ſhould have had ample means of repairing the loſſes ſuſtained by a long and expenſive war. The houſe of Bourbon had been reduced within ſuch bounds, as not to have been able to have become the terror and ſcourge of their neighbours, as they ſeem diſpoſed to be at preſent.

King George I. came to a people, who had been corrupted both in their political and religious notions, and had been taught an averſion to our NATURAL ALLIES, and to all FOREIGN PROTESTANTS, while an eſteem and affection for France, and a tenderneſs for many doctrines of POPERY, had been infuſed into them with great ſucceſs; and theſe prejudices had indiſpoſed the nation to ſubmit to a PROTESTANT PRINCE, while the dangers from a POPISH ONE were not attended to. The advantages likewiſe of a proſperous war, and many valuable branches of commerce, had been given up or neglected, and the revenue was loaded with a very heavy debt; and yet the authors of theſe calamities had the art and aſſurance to impute the conſequences of them to the king and his miniſters.

Theſe points ſeem as neceſſary to be inculcated at this time of day, as ever they were.

Notwithſtanding the unhappy affair of the South Sea ſcheme, yet the wiſe meaſures at length purſued, the reduction of intereſt took place, from 6 to 4 per cent. and the NATIONAL DEBTS put into a ſtate of redemption; than which nothing could have a happier tendency to eſtabliſh the public credit, after the year 1720.

GEORGE II.

The reader will obſerve, that conſiſtent with the plan of this work, we have included in the account before given, called A SUMMARY OF THE SUPPLIES AND THE WAYS AND MEANS for the raiſing all monies from the time of the revolution in the year 1688, to the end of the reign of George II. in the year 1759, the ſum total raiſed in each diſtinct year, ſince the ſaid year 1688; by which the reader will eaſily ſatisfy himſelf of the whole ſum raiſed in each reign, by adding the yearly ſums together belonging to each reign.

We ſhall only obſerve, that in the long reign of Geo. II. there was coined as follows, viz.

By WEIGHT.				By TALE.			
lb.	oz.	dwt.	grs.	l.	s.	d.	
249,592	7	12	21	11,662,215	19	3	Gold
98,180	9	6	0	304,360	8	0½	Silver
Total value coined in the reign of Geo. II.				11,966,576	7	3½	

TEA is diſtinguiſhed in name as it differs in colour, flavour, and ſize of the leaf. The chief of ſeveral ſorts are, however, the leaves of the ſame tree, only differing according to the ſeaſons at which they are gathered, and the manner of the drying. To enumerate the ſeveral ſub-diſtinctions were endleſs: the general diviſion is into three kinds; the ordinary green tea, the finer green tea, and the bohea: to one or other of theſe, all the other kinds may be referred. See the article BOHEA, where the nature and qualities of India teas are deſcribed at large.

REMARKS.

Tea being an article of very great conſumption in theſe dominions, and the ſmuggling thereof proving an extraordinary detriment to the PUBLIC REVENUE, a committee of the honourable houſe of commons was appointed in the year 1745, to inquire into the cauſes of the moſt infamous practice of ſmuggling, and conſider of the moſt effectual method to prevent the ſaid practice, and to report their opinion therein to the houſe; and this committee having examined into ſome of the cauſes of the ſaid practice, and conſidered of methods for prevention thereof, came to the following reſolutions, in conſequence of the evidence that was laid before them.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the high duties charged upon teas and other commodities, have been one cauſe of the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the act of indemnity paſſed in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, for perſons guilty of the infamous practice of ſmuggling, was not extenſive enough for the pardon of ſeveral perſons therein concerned.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the not effectually proſecuting owners of veſſels uſed in carrying on the pernicious practice of ſmuggling, is another cauſe of that infamous practice.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the expoſing to ſale the boats, and other veſſels taken from perſons carrying on the practice of ſmuggling, by means of which, ſuch boats or veſſels are often bought by the ſame or other perſons carrying on the ſame pernicious practice, is another cauſe of the continuance, and an encouragement of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the eaſy compoſition of the penalties incurred by perſons convicted of running, or being concerned with others in running, landing, or diſpoſing of uncuſtomed goods, is another cauſe of the ſaid pernicious practice.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the want of proper penalties and puniſhment to be inflicted upon officers of the exciſe and cuſtoms for neglect of duty, or miſbehaviour in their reſpective offices, is another cauſe of the ſaid pernicious practice.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That lowering the duties on tea, and other commodities, would be one means to prevent the ſaid pernicious practice.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That a general act of indemnity to all perſons guilty of any crimes againſt the laws for preventing the running uncuſtomed goods, (except ſuch as have been guilty of murder) will be one other means to put a ſtop to the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the burning the boats and other veſſels belonging to, and taken from perſons concerned in the infamous practice of ſmuggling, will be one other means to prevent the ſaid practice.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the compelling ſeamen and ſeafaring men taken on board any ſhip or veſſel employed in running uncuſtomed goods, or otherwiſe concerned in landing or diſpoſing of the ſame, to ſerve for a certain time on board his Majeſty's ſhips of war, would be one other means to prevent the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the giving a reward for the diſcovering and apprehending all ſuch perſons who have followed the infamous practice of ſmuggling either by ſea or land, or as riders, would be another means for putting an end to the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the incapacitating all perſons who ſhall hereafter be convicted of running uncuſtomed goods, for voting at elections for members of parliament, will be a means of preventing the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the proſecuting ſuch ſubjects of his Majeſty as ſhall reſort to the ports of France, and carry with them intelligence in time of war, as guilty of high treaſon, would be another means of preventing ſmuggling.

This committee of the houſe of commons, appointed at the beginning of the ſeſſions 1745, to inquire into the ſtate of ſmuggling, was brought about by the inceſſant application of the right honourable Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq; late lord mayor of the city of London, and now chamberlain of the ſaid city. In conſequence of which, an act for the reduction of the tea-duty to one half of what it was before, paſſed; and this took place according to the plan formed by that zealous patriot for this purpoſe; which act took place at

Midſummer 1745, to the prodigious increaſe of the public revenue, as will appear by the following particulars.

The act for reducing the tea-duty commenced the 24th of June, 1745. Before this period, the revenue ariſing from tea had been gradually ſinking from 200,000 l. per annum, to about 140,000 l. which laſt ſum aroſe from about 600,000 lb. weight only of tea, which then paid duty.

The preſent ſtate of the revenue, from the great effects of this act, ſtands thus:

	lb. of tea.	Exciſe.	Cuſtom.	
1746	1,900,000	l. 200,000	l. 28,000	
1747	2,000,000	210,000	28,000	
1748	2,600,000	280,000	50,000	Here com-
1749	2,700,000	280,000	50,000	menced
1750	2,700,000	280,000	50,000	the 5 per
1751	2,800,000	310,000	58,000	cent. on
1752	3,000,000	315,000	58,000	dry goods.
1753	3,200,000	325,000	58,000	
		l. 2,200,000	l. 380,000	

l. 2,200,000 total exciſe.
380,000 total cuſtom.

2,580,000
1,120,000 deduct for 8 years, at [140,000 l. per ann.

Benefit by the act 1745, l. 1,460,000

TEA

So that the revenue has been benefited by this act, in eight years, 1,460,000 l. excepting only the 5 per cent. on dry goods, which took place in 1747-8; beſides which, the India company, previous to this act, ſold barely the cargoes of three tea-ſhips annually, whereas they now ſell the cargoes of ſeven tea-ſhips annually, for the leaſt; and if the company receives no benefit from this, it muſt be admitted that their navigation is increaſed, by ſo much, thereby.

The aboveſaid ſaving to the revenue having prevented the laying on of additional taxes, manifeſts the important ſervices that the late right honourable the lord mayor of London has really done, in this reſpect, for theſe kingdoms; and which, it is to be hoped, will neither be forgot by the kingdom in general, or by the government in particular: and to what this ANNUAL SAVING to the nation may amount, in a long courſe of years, is not eaſy to ſay.

Nor is this the only advantage which has accrued to the nation from the indefatigable endeavours of this illuſtrious magiſtrate; it is an experimental confirmation of the truth of two of the principal reſolutions of the aforeſaid committee, viz. 1. That it is the opinion of the committee, That the HIGH DUTIES charged upon teas and other COMMODITIES have been one cauſe of the infamous practice of ſmuggling. 2. That it is the opinion of this committee, That LOWERING THE DUTIES on teas, and other commodities, would be one means to prevent the ſaid pernicious practice.

What other eminent ſervices this honourable gentleman has really done, and has attempted ſtill further to do, for the benefit of the commerce of theſe kingdoms, ſee our articles LINEN, and SMUGGLING.

Mr Alderman Janſſen having, ſince the laſt edition of this work, publiſhed the Reports of the Committee of the Honourable Houſe of Commons, concerning SMUGGLING, together with the following account of the Tea-trade, ſhewing in one view the whole ſtate of the tea importation, conſumption and revenue, from Midſummer 1745, (when the reduction of two ſhillings per pound took place) to New Chriſtmas, 1763; we think it uſeful to introduce the ſame as it ſtands, viz.

TEA Imported by the EAST-INDIA Company, for Twelve Years before the Act paſſed for the Reduction of Exciſe upon TEA, commencing at Midſummer 1745.

From Chriſtmas 1733 to Chriſtmas	1734	720,900 lb.	1740	1464,700 lb.	
	1735	584,100	1741	1261,400	
	1736	635,300	1742	1760,600	
	1737	1648,100	1743	1645,500	
	1738	1041,860	1744	725,700	
	1739	1974,600	1745	882,800	
Total importation for twelve years before the reduction					14,345,560 lb.
Making for the medium of one year's importation					1,195,464

TEA Imported by the Eaſt-India Company, for Seventeen Years ſince the Act paſſed for the Reduction of Exciſe upon TEA, commencing at Midſummer 1745.

From Chriſtmas 1745 to Chriſtmas	1746	2,013,900 lb.	1758	2,795,130 lb.		
	1747	5,213,100		775,000	Embden ſhip	
	1748	3,865,000		156,600	From Holland.	
	1749	2,324,100		210,296	Do. private perſons.	
	1750	4,730,410	1759	3,403,800		
	1751	2,852,870	1760	6,199,300		
	1752	3,109,100		1,079,600		
	1753	3,253,900	1761	2,363,500		
	1754	3,885,300		147,771	From Holland.	
	1755	3,979,900	1762	6,459,300		
	1756	4,195,600		23,590,297		
	1757	3,736,300		43,689,480		
		530,000 Pondichery prize,				
		43,689,480		67,279,777		
Total importation for ſeventeen years ſince the reduction						67,279,777 lb.
Making for the medium of one year's importation						3,957,634
Exceeding the medium of one year's importation (being 1,195,464 as above) before the reduction						2,762,170
This extra importation (of 52,934,217 lb. in 17 years) has yielded an extra gain to the Eaſt-India company, at one ſhilling per pound, of						£ 2,646,710

Neat Receipt of Exciſe and Cuſtom upon TEA, for Five Years before the Act paſſed for the Reduction of Exciſe upon TEA, commencing at Midſummer 1745.

From Midſummer 1740 to Midſummer	1741	880,700 lb.	Tea at 4 ſhill. per lb. exciſe	£ 176,140	at 14 per cent. cuſtom	£ 24,659 ——		
	1742	836,200	Do.	167,240	Do.	23,413 10—		
	1743	797,200	Do.	159,440	Do.	22,321 10—		
	1744	708,500	Do.	141,700	Do.	19,838 ——		
	1745	620,000	Do.	124,000	Do.	17,360 ——		
		3,842,600		£ 768,520		£ 107,592——		
Total receipt of exciſe and cuſtom upon TEA, for five years before the reduction								£ 876,112—
Making for the medium of one year								175,222—

TEA

Neat receipt of one ſhilling per pound and 25 per cent. ad valorem exciſe, with the cuſtom, upon TEA, for ſeventeen years and a half ſince the act paſſed for the reduction of Exciſe upon TEA, commencing at Midſummer, 1745.

												Totals.
From Midſummer 1745 to Midſummer	1746	—	1,800,000 lb.	Tea at 1 s. per lb.	exciſe £ 90,000	at 25 per cent. exciſe ad valorem	£ 90,000	and at 14 per cent.	cuſtom	£ 50,400	—	230,400
	1747	—	2,000,000	Do.	— 100,000	Do.	100,000	Do.	—	56,000	—	256,000
	* 1748	—	2,600,000	Do.	— 130,000	Do.	130,000	at 19 per cent	cuſtom	98,800	—	358,800
	1749	—	2,700,000	Do.	— 135,000	Do.	135,000	Do.	—	102,600	—	372,600
	1750	—	2,700,000	Do.	— 135,000	Do.	135,000	Do.	—	102,600	—	372,600
	1751	—	2,800,000	Do.	— 140,000	Do.	140,000	Do.	—	106,400	—	386,400
	1752	—	3,000,000	Do.	— 150,000	Do.	150,000	Do.	—	114,000	—	414,000
	1753	—	3,200,000	Do.	— 160,000	Do.	160,000	Do.	—	121,600	—	441,600
	1754	—	3,300,000	Do.	— 165,000	Do.	165,000	Do.	—	125,400	—	455,400
	1755	—	3,550,000	Do.	— 177,500	Do.	173,400	Do.	—	131,784	—	482,684
	1756	—	3,710,000	Do.	— 185,500	Do.	191,035	Do.	—	145,186	—	521,721
The half-year to Chriſtmas	Do.	—	1,897,338	The 1 s. and 25	—	per cent. exciſe ad valorem, together	199,532	Do.	—	74,936	—	274,468
From Chriſtmas 1756 to Chriſtmas	1757	—	4,189,783	1 s exciſe	— 209,489	25 per cent exciſe ad valorem	227,034	Do.	—	172,547	—	609,070
	1758	—	4,012,662	Do.	— 200,633	Do.	232,106	Do.	—	176,400	—	609,139
	** 1759	—	3,955,842	Do.	— 197,792	Do.	248,471	at 24½ p.c. from N. Lady-day		229,791	—	676,054
	1760	—	4,196,546	Do.	— 209,827	Do.	240,512	Do.	—	235,701	—	686,040
	1761	—	4,378,916	Do.	— 218,946	Do.	253,075	Do.	—	248,053	—	720,074
	1762	—	4,393,903	Do.	— 219,696	Do.	251,479	Do.	—	246,449	—	717,624
			£58,384,990		£ 2,824,383		£ 3,221,644			£ 2,538,647		

For theſe nine years the average of the Eaſt-India Company's ſale at the candle is here computed at 4 ſhillings per pound certain, which at 25 per cent. is equal to 1 ſhilling per pound.

* This year the tax of 5 per cent. took place, upon dry goods.

** This year the further tax of 5 per cent. upon dry goods, took place at New Lady-day, amounting, with the former cuſtom upon tea, to ſomewhat above 24½ per cent.

N. B It is not pretended that the above account is ſo nicely accurate, as if taken out of the exciſe and cuſtom-houſe books; but a good deal of pains has been taken to bring the ſame to as great an exactneſs as it is poſſible without ſuch peruſal. And, at all events, the reader will be ſufficiently able to judge of the good effects of the Act in queſtion.

Neat receipt of exciſe and cuſtom upon tea, for ſeventeen years and a half, ſince the reduction	£ 8,584,674
Making for the medium of one year	490,553
Exceeding the medium of one year's neat receipt (being 175,222 l. as above) before the reduction (is for 17½ years 5,518,292 l.)	315,331

TEA exported for FOUR YEARS.

From April 1754 to April	1755	—	135,926 lb.	to Ireland	135,241 lb.	to America
	1756	—	101,833	Do.	108,630	Do.
	1757	—	105,140	Do.	89,269	Do.
	1758	—	105,533	Do.	156,621	Do.

Total Exportation, to Ireland and America for four years	lb. 938,193
Making for the medium of one year's exportation	234,548

OBSERVATIONS on the above.

1. THIS experimental trial upon the article of tea, was the firſt of the kind, of any material conſequence, which was ever made to prove, That the lowering of a high duty upon an article of conſumption hath conſiderably advanced the produce of the public revenue upon ſuch article, by occaſioning the ſurpriſing general increaſe of its conſumption.

2. It ſhews, That a foreign commodity, even of a luxurious nature, may become a general article of conſumption, and be rendered faſhionable and habitual, amongſt all ranks and degrees of people, in conſequence of reducing a high duty thereon to a moderate one, and thereby augment the revenue, in proportion to the general augmentation of the conſumption of ſuch foreign commodity.

3. It indicates, the next degree to a demonſtration, that duties upon commodities may be ſtrained to ſo high a pitch, as to cauſe a general diminution in the conſumption, and conſequently to occaſion a proportionable diminution in the public revenue, which uſed to ariſe from the high duty. It excites the unfair trader to act in concert with the ſmuggler, and the latter to hazard his life to reap the advantage which ſo great a temptation lays before him. It induces the conſumer to enter into a cloſe connection with the ſmuggler, in order to come at the commodity, which faſhion and pride have made neceſſary to him, ſince his pocket cannot otherwiſe reach it.

4. It proves, that the revenue has been increaſed, by lowering the former high duty; and that to a ſum ſo conſiderable, as above FIVE MILLIONS AND A HALF STERLING: That the Eaſt India Company, computing their profit on teas at one ſhilling on the pound, has gained above TWO MILLIONS SIX HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS STERLING thereby; and, That the nation in general has been proportionable gainers, by the extra increaſe of its navigation.

5. It proves, That the price of teas has fallen ſo very conſiderably, in conſequence of the government's adopting this plan, That the cuſtom of tea-drinking has, ſince, become univerſal throughout the kingdom, amongſt all degrees of people; That the ſmuggling of this article is greatly abated; and, That a ſurpriſing increaſe in the conſumption of ſugars has enſued, to the great improvement of the ſugar colonies, as well as the great increaſe of the revenue, by the duty on ſugars: and all theſe conſequences have naturally attended an increaſe in the conſumption of teas; chiefly and principally owing to the lowering the high duty thereon.

It muſt be obſerved, however, That the total increaſe in the revenue ariſing upon tea, from Midſummer 1745 to New Chriſtmas 1763, as above repreſented, is not wholly to be aſcribed to the reducing the exciſe duty upon tea at that period; the laſt ſubſidies of 1747 and 1759, which have taken place ſince, contributing about SIX HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS to the above increaſe; and this ſum has been gained by the revenue in the additional increaſe of the conſumption of ſugars, which has gone hand in hand with that of teas.——But to the produce of the two laſt ſubſidies, the propoſer of the plan for reducing the exciſe upon teas in 1745 lays no fort of claim.

LONDON, March, 1763. STEPH. THEOD. JANSSEN.

TIN is a white ſhining metal, containing a certain blueneſs; it is of ſo pliable a nature, that it may be bent into any form: as to hardneſs, it is between ſilver and lead, ſofter than the former, but conſiderably harder than the latter, and is the lighteſt of all metals: its weight to gold, by computation, is as 3 to 8, and ſomething more.

REMARKS.

For the methods of aſſaying and ſmelting this metal, ſee the articles ASSAY and SMELTING; ſee alſo METALLURGY, ORE, MINERALOGY.

TOBACCO. The manner of planting and ordering tobacco in Virginia is thus: in the twelve days they begin to ſow the ſeed in beds of fine mould, and when the plants be grown to the breadth of a ſhilling, they are fit to replant into the hills: for in their plantations they make ſmall hills, about four feet diſtant from each other, ſomewhat after the manner of our hop-yards. Theſe hills being prepared againſt the plants be grown to the forementioned bigneſs (which is about the beginning of May), they then, in moiſt weather, draw the plants out of their beds, and replant them in the hills, which afterwards they keep with diligent weedings. When the plant hath put out ſo many leaves as the ground will nouriſh to a ſubſtance and largeneſs that will render them merchantable, then they take off the top of the plant: if the ground be very rich, they let a plant put out 12 or 16 leaves before they top it; if mean, then not above 9 or 10, and ſo according to the ſtrength of their ſoil: the top being taken off, the plant grows no bigger; but afterwards it will put out ſuckers between their leaves, which they pluck away once a week, 'till the plant comes to perfection, which it doth in Auguſt: then in dry weather, when there is a little breeze of wind, they cut down what is ripe, letting it lie about four hours on the ground, 'till ſuch time as the leaves, that ſtood ſtrutting out, fall down to the ſtalk; then they carry it on their ſhoulders into their tobacco-houſes, where other ſervants taking it, drive into the ſtalk of each plant a peg, and, as faſt as they are pegged, they hang them up by the pegs on tobacco-ſtalks, ſo nigh each other, that they juſt touch, much after the manner they hang herrings in Yarmouth. Thus they let them hang five or ſix weeks, 'till ſuch time as the ſtem in the middle of the leaf will ſnap in the bending of it; then, when the air hath ſo moiſtened the leaf as that it may be handled without breaking, they ſtrike it down, ſtrip it off the ſtalk, bind it up in bundles, and pack it into hogſheads for uſe.

Sometimes they are forced to plant their hills twice or thrice over, by reaſon of an earth-worm, which eats the root; and when the plant is well grown, they ſuffer damage by a worm that devours the leaf, called a horn-worm (an eruca, or canker-worm) which is bred upon the leaf; if theſe worms be not carefully taken off, they will ſpoil the whole crop.

In the year 1667, in Auguſt, there happened all over Virginia a guſt, or ſtorm, of wind and rain, which continued for three days with ſuch violence, that the like was hardly ever heard of. It began, and continued blowing, at eaſt, with ſuch fierceneſs, that above one half of their crop of tobacco, which was then ſtanding in their fields, was blown away, and torn to pieces: the trees in the woods, all over the country, were blown up by the roots, in innumerable quantities; the waters in the bay, in ſome places, were drove a great way into the woods, and the greateſt part of thoſe that houſed tobacco, had their tobacco-houſes blown down, and their tobacco ſpoiled: ſo that there was not fully one part of three ſaved of what would have been made that year.

The planters houſes are built all along the ſides of the rivers, for the conveniency of ſhipping: they build after the Engliſh manner, whitening the inſide of their houſes with mortar, made of burnt oyſter-ſhells, inſtead of lime.

They have pure and wholeſome water, which they fetch wholly from ſprings, whereof the country is ſo full, that there is not a houſe but hath one nigh the door.

The laws relating to tobacco are at the end of Letter T, on the Buſineſs of the Cuſtoms.

REMARKS.

By a pretty exact computation made a few years ſince, there is annually imported into Great-Britain, between 60 and 70,000 hogſheads of tobacco: we will ſuppoſe 66,000, two-thirds of which are re-exported to France, Germany, Holland, &c. ſo that there remain for home conſumption 22,000 hogſheads; the duties whereof, reckoned at 15 l. per hogſhead (at which in moſt caſes they may be computed) will amount to 330,000 l. Now there is not much above one half of that ſum which comes annually into the Exchequer; ſo that there has been manifeſtly loſt to the public revenue, about 165,000 l. by the frauds at importation, re-exportation, and by bonding the duties.

This is upon ſuppoſition that no part of the 44,000 hogſheads which are exported, was run or re-landed from DUNKIRK, and the iſles of GUERNSEY, JERSEY, and MAN, into ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and IRELAND, as has evidently appeared to have been the caſe. But, if to this we add only $\frac{1}{8}$ part of what is exported to be re-landed or run (as that, at leaſt, has been ſhewn to be the caſe) there is an additional loſs to the revenue of 75,000 l. more, which ſums together make 240,000 l. See the articles MAN [ISLE of MAN,] SCOTLAND, and SMUGGLING.

To prevent ſuch diſadvantages to the public revenue, which ariſe from this pernicious and deteſtable practice, the expedient which ſeems the moſt eligible is, the ſame that has been ſucceſsfully tried in relation to tea, viz. that of LOWERING THE DUTIES [ſee the article TEA], for it has appeared with reſpect to the article of tea, that in proportion as the temptation to ſmuggling has abated, the leſs detriment has the public revenue ſuſtained. And why the like experiment made upon tobacco may not have the ſame good effect, cannot be proved 'till it be effectually tried. See our article SCOTLAND.

Tobacco being a bulky commodity, gives great employment for our ſhipping, and therefore is a branch of trade that cannot be too much encouraged and protected; eſpecially ſo, ſince our dear friends the French ſeem at preſent to be ſeized with a wonderful longing to eaſe us of the trouble and expence of ſupporting our tobacco colonies any longer. See our article PLANTATIONS, and ſuch others as are from thence referred to.

TRADE.

Some MAXIMS relating to TRADE, that ſhould ſeem to be confirmed in the courſe of this work.

I. That the laſting proſperity of the landed intereſt depends upon foreign commerce. See our article LANDED INTEREST.

II. That the increaſe of the wealth, ſplendor, and power of Great-Britain and Ireland, depend upon exporting more in value of our native produce and manufactures, than we import of commodities from other nations, and bringing thereby money into the kingdom, by the means of freight by ſhipping. See our article BALLANCE of TRADE, and REMARKS on the article FREIGHT.

III. That domeſtic and foreign trade, as they are the means of increaſing the national treaſure, of breeding ſeamen, and of augmenting our MERCANTILE and ROYAL NAVIES, they neceſſarily become the means of our permanent proſperity, and of the ſafety and preſervation of our happy conſtitution. See the articles SEA DOMINION, NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEAMEN, SHIPPING.

IV. That the conſtant ſecurity of the PUBLIC CREDIT, and the payment of intereſt and principal of the public creditors, depend upon the proſperous ſtate of our trade and navigation, and not upon any crafty and chimerical expedients. See the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONIED INTEREST.

V. That gold and ſilver is the meaſure of trade, and that they are a commodity, and may be exported, eſpecially in foreign coin, or bullion, as well as any other commodity. See our articles BULLION, COIN, MONEY, EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, PEGU, SIAM, and ſuch other articles as we have referred to from the concluſion of the article SILVER, as having an affinity with theſe political points.

VI. That the increaſe of trade and navigation greatly depends, not only upon the increaſe of huſbandry and agriculture, but alſo on the increaſe of ingenious working artiſts of every kind, in order to improve the perfection and delicacy of our OLD MANUFACTURES, and to diſcover ſuch NEW TRADES and MANUFACTURES, as will enable us, at leaſt, to keep pace in wealth and power with our rival nations, if we cannot go beyond them. See our articles AGRICULTURE, HUSBANDRY, MANURE, LANDED INTEREST, ARTIFICERS, MECHANICAL ARTS, MANUFACTURERS, TAPESTRY.

VII. That the ſupport of a conſtant ſucceſſion of TRADING ARTISTS amongſt us of every claſs, greatly depends upon due public encouragement. See the beforementioned articles, and alſo that of CLOTH.

VIII. That the ſupport of a conſtant ſucceſſion of ingenious trading artiſts, generally depends upon the improvements made from time to time in uſeful philoſophy. See our articles CHYMISTRY, PHILOSOPHY-EXPERIMENTAL, ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON, and divers other articles.

IX. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the introducing into this nation various wiſe and neceſſary eſtabliſhments and practices for their regulation and encouragement, that other nations have adopted, and we ſeem equally to ſtand in need of. See our article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, with our REMARKS thereon, SEAMEN, for a voluntary regiſter of them, ſo to encourage this body of men, that the arbitrary and diſagreeable practice of preſſing theſe brave fellows may be laid aſide, and the ROYAL NAVY never want hands upon any ſudden emergency. See alſo the articles CANDIDATE, ASPHALTUM, CONSULS, FACTORS, DANCING-

MASTER, DIRECTION-CHAMBER, DIRECTOR of TRADING COMPANIES in FRANCE, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, PAINTING, PAPER-TREE, PATENTS, PORCELAIN [REMARKS thereon], LEVANT TRADE, FRENCH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, FRANCE, MEDAL, NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, SHIPPING.

X. That the conſtant ſupport of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the judgment, ſkill, and addreſs, of our BRITISH MERCHANTS and TRADERS in general; and to that end, the courſe of their education, more eſpecially of the former, ſhould be no way inferior to that of any claſs of men in the community. See our article of MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

XI. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowlege thereof, as founded upon national principles, which the Britiſh nobility and gentry ſhall obtain, in order wiſely to regulate the ſame at all times in their legiſlative capacity, for the true intereſts of the kingdom in general. See our article PARLIAMENT [MEMBER of PARLIAMENT.]

XII. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowlege therein, that our miniſters abroad as well as at home ſhall have, in order conſtantly to communicate to the court of England, ſuch matter on commercial affairs, as may procure to their country all advantages in relation thereto, as times and occaſions may happily offer. See our articles CONSUL, COUNCIL of COMMERCE, MARITIME or MARINE AFFAIRS, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

XIII. That as many, and as great eſtates and honours and dignities, have been acquired by the practical arts and political knowlege of commerce, as by any other means whatſoever. See our article COMMERCE.

XIV. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends on the wiſe regulation of our TAXES, MONEY-AFFAIRS, and the preſervation of the PUBLIC CREDIT; and that ſuch knowlege cannot be obtained, without a due knowlege of trade, as founded on national principles. See the articles REVENUE and TAXES, and ſuch other heads as we refer to therefrom. See alſo the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONEY, MONIED INTEREST.

XV. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, depends upon being able to ſell our native produce and manufactures as CHEAP, and as good in QUALITY, in foreign countries, as our trading competitors can afford to do; and that this depends upon the due regulation of our TAXES, and the cultivation of LAND. See our articles DUTIES, EXPORTATION, LABOUR, MANURE, and ſuch other, as we have referred to occaſionally upon this topic throughout our work.

XVI. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, depends upon a well-grounded knowlege in political arithmetic; and that depends upon a right knowlege in commercial affairs, the public revenues, and the policy, eſpecially in regard to the trade and money-affairs of foreign nations, and well-timed treaties of commerce. See our articles POLITICAL ARITHMETIC, PEOPLE, POOR, REVENUE, TAXES, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

XVII. That the proſperity of our trade and commerce may be greatly promoted, by encouraging the ſtudy thereof at our UNIVERSITIES, as has been lately done at CAMBRIDGE, by that eminent patriot the late right honourable lord viſcount Townſhend; and alſo by proper private aſſociations to promote the ſame, as has been ſo laudably begun of late in this kingdom. See our article ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON, with a brief account there of the Society of ARTS, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE.

XVIII. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowlege of our country gentlemen in natural hiſtory, and ſuch uſeful philoſophy as we have recommended throughout this work. See our articles BOLE, CLAY, EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MINERALOGY, &c. and divers other heads.

XIX. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, and the ſupport of the public credit, greatly depends upon the ſuppreſſion of ſmuggling. See our articles MAN [ISLE of MAN], SMUGGLING, TEA, TOBACCO.

XX. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the ſuppreſſion of the pernicious parts of the buſineſs of ſtock-jobbing, the diſcouragement of bubbles, and the upholding of no excluſive trading companies but ſuch as tend to promote navigation, and to bring a ballance of treaſure into the nation. See our articles ACTIONS, BUBBLES, SOUTH SEA COMPANY, STOCK-JOBBING; ſee alſo COMPANIES and MONOPOLY, and all the chief great foreign trading companies throughout Europe, whoſe hiſtories are briefly given in this work, in order to judge the better how far it may be neceſſary for this kingdom to preſerve, regulate, or annihilate, particular trading corporations.

XXI. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon increaſing the trade of the nation to the utmoſt, between the mother-country and her colonies and plantations in America. See AMERICA, BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN], BRITISH AMERICA, NAVAL STORES, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, PORTUGUEZE AMERICA, and all our articles relating to the commerce of Africa.

XXII. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon reſtraining the anti-treaty and unjuſtifiable encroachments of France and Spain on our trade and colony-poſſeſſions; as well in Europe as in America. See, beſides the preceding articles, thoſe of COLONIES, FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS; the latter of which diſplays the perfidy of France to all Europe for this century paſt; and the article FRANCE ſhews how ſteadily that nation has purſued the point of univerſal monarchy, and what ſtrides they have already made thereto, which ſeem to be too little attended to.

XXIII. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon Great-Britain's preſerving a conſtant friendſhip and good underſtanding with the United Provinces, and the preſerving to them a good barrier againſt FRANCE. See our articles FLANDERS, FISHERIES, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, and UNITED PROVINCES.

XXIV. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon taking leſs of the produce and manufactures of other nations, as they decline in the importation of our's, and in the taking more of the produce of thoſe countries which increaſe in their imports of our produce and manufactures. See the articles EXPORTATION, IMPORTATION, and SPAIN.

XXV. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon keeping up ſuch a naval power as is able to break the meaſures of France and Spain, or any other potentates, when they are calculated to injure us; and the way to do that effectually, is to deſtroy their trade by ſea, and their royal navies, as we did thoſe of Spain in the year 1718. See the articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH.

XXVI. That the conſtant proſperity of trade to our American colonies, greatly depends upon ſecuring NOVA SCOTIA in particular, as a barrier on one ſide to our moſt northern colonies on the continent, and to maintain a dignity and alliance among the Indian nations, as alſo to take CAPE BRETON again out of the hands of France, and deprive them of all ſhare in the Newfoundland fiſheries: and alſo to ſecure and promote, on the other ſide, againſt both France and Spain, the colony of GEORGIA. [See our article BRITISH AMERICA.] Which has been done by the TREATY OF PEACE made in 1763. See AMERICA, FLORIDA, CANADA, and NEWFOUNDLAND.

XXVII. That the conſtant proſperity of the trade of our ſugar colonies, greatly depends on their being always in a condition to prevent a ſurprize from France, as was attempted in the year 1706, and is likely ſoon to be ſo again. That their preſervation depends greatly on ſecuring to ourſelves the poſſeſſion of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, and annoying as much as poſſible the FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS, eſpecially MARTINIQUE and HISPANIOLA. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA.

XXVIII. That the conſtant proſperity of the trade and navigation of our ſugar iſlands, greatly depends upon our deſtroying the FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and ſettlements in Africa, and well fortifying our own ſettlements and factories in that part of the world, and extending the inland trade of Africa. See all our articles relating to the AFRICAN TRADE; and ſee alſo that of the EAST-INDIA COMPANY, wherein are ſuggeſted ſome meaſures, whereby that company might probably be made inſtrumental to the great increaſe of the African trade, and deſtructive of that of France, which is the grand ſupport of all the FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS. See our articles ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.

XXIX. That the ſecurity and improvement of our trade to ASIA, and the injury to that of FRANCE, would greatly depend upon our diſcovery of the NORTH-EAST PASSAGE to China and Japan; and that, as it is currently reported this diſcovery is very likely to be made by a worthy ſubject of the king of Great-Britain, at a trifling charge, it is certainly for the intereſt of the nation chearfully to encourage it, at the public expence; or the Eaſt-India company ſhould do it, for their own intereſt. See our article SIBERIA.

XXX. That the conſtant proſperity of our trade to ITALY, TURKEY, and the LEVANT, will ever depend on the preſervation of Gibraltar to the crown of Great-Britain. See our article MEDITERRANEAN.

XXXI. That the conſtant ſecurity of our trade to and from our ſugar colonies, and the effectual prevention of the SPANISH DEPREDATIONS IN AMERICA, in particular, will depend upon ſecuring to ourſelves ſome certain POSSESSIONS in America, which may prove of as much ſervice to the protection of our trade in that part of the world, as Gibraltar is to our Italian and Turkey trades.—But what poſſeſſions theſe are, I have had the honour to lay before the *******, whom I thought it my duty to apprize in time of a matter

of

of ſuch conſequence to his kingdoms, as being communicated to me from intelligence not to be doubted of.

XXXII. That the conſtant proſperity of the trade, and the permanent preſervation of the liberties, as well of the United Provinces as of Great-Britain itſelf, would be better ſecured than by any other poſſible means whatever, perhaps; provided that GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND became ONE NATION and ONE PEOPLE, governed by ONE and the SAME SOVEREIGN, according to the conſtitution of England, and to poſſeſs and enjoy the ſame privileges of trade, navigation, and religion, as England does, and the Dutch to contribute to the ſupport of the Britiſh crown, in a proportion ſuitable to their abilities.

Let it be ſuppoſed, for a moment, that this was the caſe, the conſequence would be, that England and Holland, ſo happily united, might increaſe their ſtrength in ASIA to what degree they pleaſed, and keep all other European powers, and even the natives, ſo in ſubjection to them, as to oblige them to take a far greater quantity of our produce and manufactures than they do at preſent, &c.—This would give a new turn to the commerce over all ASIA.

Theſe united potentates might alſo increaſe their power in AFRICA to what degree they pleaſed, and keep the French and Portugueze there in what ſubjection they thought proper. This would contribute ſoon and effectually to the ruin of the French ſugar iſlands, which would of courſe fall into the hands of the maritime powers conjunctively. — Thus becoming maſters of the ſugar trade of the whole world, the wealth and power of both would ſo magnify, that the Proteſtant ſtates might bid defiance to all the oppoſition of France, or any united Catholic powers whatever.

The due exertion of the united ſtrength of theſe maritime potentates, would ſo ſtrengthen the power and intereſt of both in America, as to give law there to the Spaniard, as well as the French, and ever after prevent their inſults and depredations towards the trade and commerce of either.—This would tend to prevent war and bloodſhed hereafter, upon theſe occaſions. See our article VIRGINIA.

With regard to Europe, likewiſe, every one will at once ſee the weight and influence that ſuch a powerful union muſt have. Great-Britain and Holland would then be in a capacity to uphold and maintain, at their OWN EXPENCE, a ſufficient BARRIER for the ſupport and protection of the United Provinces againſt France, and any other combined powers. — Upon this ſuppoſition, the Proteſtant intereſt would have ſuch a formidable bulwark for its ſupport, that the whole Popiſh ſtrength joined to ſubvert it could never effect; and whatever conqueſt theſe Proteſtant maritime powers made in Popiſh countries, either in America, Aſia, or Africa eſpecially, NEED NEVER BE GIVEN UP, AS WE ARE NOW OBLIGED TO DO, AT THE CONCLUSION OF EVERY WAR, THAT FRANCE MIGHT NOT OVERRUN THE UNITED PROVINCES OF THE STATES GENERAL.

This, alſo, would for ever after ſave us the eternal expence of land wars in FLANDERS and GERMANY; for when a ſolid and impregnable barrier was once procured to the Dutch, and the marine of England and Holland were united, and conducted by ONE and the SAME SOVEREIGN, for their mutual ſafety and benefit, the creſt of France WOULD FOR EVER FALL, AND POPERY HAVE NO LONGER A CHANCE TO EXTIRPATE PROTESTANTISM AND LIBERTY FROM THE FACE OF THE WHOLE EARTH.

By this means, the fiſheries of Great-Britain and Holland in Europe and America would become common to both powers; the commerce and navigation of both would be daily increaſing, and none but ſuch Proteſtant powers as ſhould enter into their PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, need have any ſhare ſcarce in the commerce of the world: and, as empire follows trade, trade would give the PROTESTANT INTEREST the empire of the globe, and gradually tend to extirpate Popery, tyranny, and ſlavery, from the face of the earth. And 'till that comes to be the caſe, GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND, and all the PROTESTANT POWERS, will be ever liable to be diſtracted, and their governments ſubverted, by the machinations of FRANCE. See the article FRANCE, and the ſhocking treachery of that nation, in our REMARKS upon the article PLANTATIONS.

Meaſures of this kind would ſoon give a new turn to the affairs of the United Provinces; they would then truly become the High and Mighty States, inſtead of the Poor and Diſtreſſed, which may one day be their fate, if ſomething is not done to ſupport them effectually, againſt being overrun by France, when a war ſhall break out.

And if the States-General depend upon the ſupport only of Great-Britain, why ſhould not their dominions be annexed to the crown of Great-Britain? They have experienced that their own republican conſtitution is not built upon ſo ſolid a baſis as that of Great-Britain; the people do not enjoy ſo great a ſhare of liberty, nor ſo ſolid ſecurity for their property now, as they would do under their united government. And as to their religon, they will enjoy the ſame toleration under the government of the crown of England as they do at preſent. What hinders then but the wiſe and honeſt men of both ſtates ſhould think ſeriouſly of a matter of this high concernment to the mutual intereſt and happineſs of both? More eſpecially ſo, whilſt the POPISH POWERS are not only making PROTESTANT PRINCES converts to their religion, but daily erecting NEW MONARCHIES for their POPISH PRINCES, the more effectually to enſlave the world. It is, however, enough for me to ſtart the hare; let others hunt it, whom it more nearly concerns, and are well paid for ſo doing. See our articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, UNITED PROVINCES, and WAR.

REMARKS on our article TRADE ſince the laſt war, and the Definitive treaty of peace of 1763.

Our public debts and taxes having encreaſed by the laſt war to a degree of incredibility in ſo few years, did we not experience it; it becomes incumbent on us; it is indeed now indiſpenſably requiſite, that we ſhould augment our trade, and thereby ſo enrich the nation, as to be able to diſincumber ourſelves of a great part of our national debts and taxes, if we ſhall not be able to get rid of the whole. For if we do not, the immenſe weight of them will ſo impede, clog, and ſtagnate our whole commerce and navigation, as to give our competitors the opportunity to engroſs the whole of our foreign trade out of our hands; ſince they underſold us at moſt foreign markets before the laſt war, and are in a capacity to do it far more ſo than they were then.

If our domeſtic policy is ſuch, that we cannot ſoon leſſen the tax-incumbrances upon our whole trade, France in particular will pour in, by ſmuggling into Great-Britain, an inundation of their cheaper commodities and manufactures; which will inſenſibly deſtroy our own domeſtic trade, ſtarve our induſtrious manufacturers and artiſts, or draw them into their kingdom, to the unſpeakable enrichment of France, and improvement of Great-Britain. The ſame likewiſe will be done in our continental colonies; for while they can have French wares and manufactures from 15 to 40 per cent. cheaper than Engliſh, it is ridiculouſly weak to flatter ourſelves that our coloniſts will purchaſe Engliſh, when they can by any methods whatſoever obtain French. And it is to be feared, that the utmoſt efforts of the government will not be able much to leſſen ſmuggling either in Great-Britain, or in the continent of America; the coaſts being ſo extenſive, in both, though far more ſo in the one than the other, ſince our new acquiſitions in North America: much leſs ſhall we be able to ſuppreſs the infamous practice of ſmuggling in either. So contiguous alſo are our iſland colonies to thoſe of France, and ſo interwoven with them are our new-acquired ones, that France will moſt certainly run away with a great ſhare of the trade, which appertains to the Britiſh empire, by the ſame means of ſmuggling.

TREATIES of COMMERCE and NAVIGATION.

Under the article MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, we have given the ſubſtance of the moſt eſſential treaties which have had relation to the trade and navigation of the principal ſtates of Europe for above a century paſt: and having occaſionally cited divers others that have taken place ſince, and given the ſubſtance of them, we ſhall here give the reader thoſe together that have not been taken due notice of, as the neceſſity of our matter, or as the brevity of our articles in the dictionary required.

TREATY of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent princeſs ANNE, by the grace of God, queen of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince LEWIS XIV, the moſt Chriſtian king: concluded at Utrecht the 31ſt day of March, O. S. 1713.

I. It is agreed and concluded between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent queen of Great-Britain, and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent the moſt Chriſtian king, That there ſhall be a reciprocal and intirely perfect liberty of navigation and commerce between the ſubjects on each part, through all and every the kingdoms, ſtates, dominions, and provinces, of their royal Majeſties in Europe, concerning all and ſingular kinds of goods in thoſe places, and on thoſe conditions, and in ſuch manner and form, as is ſettled and adjuſted in the following articles.

II. But that the commerce and friendſhip between the ſubjects of the aboveſaid parties may be hereafter ſecure, and free from all trouble and moleſtation, it is agreed and concluded, That if at any time any ill underſtanding and breach of friendſhip, or rupture, ſhould happen between the crowns of their royal Majeſties (which God forbid), in ſuch caſe, the term of ſix months ſhall be allowed after the ſaid rupture, to the ſubjects and inhabitants on each part, reſiding in the dominions of the other, in which they themſelves may retire, together with their families, goods, merchandizes, and effects, and carry them whither they ſhall pleaſe; as likewiſe, at the ſame time, the ſelling and diſpoſing of their goods,

both

both moveable and immoveable, ſhall be allowed them freely, and without any diſturbance; and, in the mean time, their goods, effects, wares, and merchandizes, and particularly their perſons, ſhall not be detained or troubled by arreſt or ſeizure; but rather, in the mean while, the ſubjects on each ſide ſhall have and enjoy good and ſpeedy juſtice, ſo that, during the ſaid ſpace of ſix months, they may be able to recover their goods and effects intruſted as well to the public, as to private perſons.

III. It is likewiſe agreed and concluded, That the ſubjects and inhabitants of the kingdoms, provinces, and dominions of each of their royal Majeſties, ſhall exerciſe no acts of hoſtility and violence againſt each other, either by ſea or land, or in rivers, ſtreams, ports, or havens, under any colour or pretence whatſoever; ſo that the ſubjects of either party ſhall receive no patent, commiſſion or inſtruction, for arming and acting at ſea as privateers, nor letters of reprizal, as they are called, from any princes or ſtates which are enemies to one ſide or the other; nor by virtue, or under colour of ſuch patents, commiſſions, or reprizals, ſhall they diſturb, infeſt, or any way prejudice or damage the aforeſaid ſubjects and inhabitants of the queen of Great-Britain, or of the moſt Chriſtian king; neither ſhall they arm ſhips in ſuch manner as is aboveſaid, or go out to ſea therewith. To which end, as often as it is required by either ſide, ſtrict and expreſs prohibition ſhall be renewed and publiſhed in all the regions, dominions, and territories of each party whatſoever, that no one ſhall in any wiſe uſe ſuch commiſſions, or letters of reprizal, under the ſevereſt puniſhment that can be inflicted on the tranſgreſſors, beſide reſtitution, and full ſatisfaction to be given to thoſe to whom they have done any damage; neither ſhall any letters of reprizal be hereafter granted, on either ſide, by the ſaid confederates, to the detriment, or diſadvantage of the ſubjects of the other, except in ſuch caſes only as juſtice is denied or delayed; to which denial or delay credit ſhall not be given, unleſs the petition of the perſon who deſires the ſaid letters of reprizal be communicated to the miniſter reſiding there on the part of the prince againſt whoſe ſubjects they are to be granted, that, within the ſpace of four months, or ſooner, if poſſible, he may evince the contrary, or procure the performance of what is due to juſtice.

IV. The ſubjects and inhabitants of each of the aforeſaid confederates ſhall have liberty freely and ſecurely, without licence or paſſport general or ſpecial, by land or ſea, or any other way, to go into the kingdoms, countries, provinces, lands, iſlands, cities, villages, towns, walled or unwalled, fortified or unfortified, ports, dominions, or territories whatſoever, of the other confederate in Europe, there to enter, and to return from thence, to abide there, or to paſs through the ſame; and, in the mean time, to buy and purchaſe, as they pleaſe, all things neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence and uſe: and they ſhall be treated with all mutual kindneſs and favour. Provided, however, that in all theſe matters they behave and comport themſelves conformably to the laws and ſtatutes, and live and converſe with each other friendly and peaceably, and keep reciprocal concord by all manner of good underſtanding.

V. The ſubjects of each of their royal Majeſties may have leave and licence to come with their ſhips, as alſo with the merchandizes and goods on board the ſame (the trade and importation whereof are not prohibited by the laws of either kingdom) to the lands, countries, cities, ports, places, and rivers, of either ſide in Europe, to enter into the ſame, to reſort thereto, to remain and reſide there, without any limitation of time; alſo to hire houſes, or to lodge with other people, and to buy all lawful kinds of merchandizes where they think fit, from the firſt workman or ſeller, or in any other manner, whether in the public market for the ſale of things, in mart-towns, fairs, or whereſoever thoſe goods are manufactured or ſold. They may likewiſe lay up and keep in their magazines and warehouſes, and from thence expoſe to ſale, merchandizes brought from other parts; neither ſhall they be in any wiſe obliged, unleſs willingly, and of their own accord, to bring their ſaid merchandizes to the marts and fairs, on this condition, however, that they ſhall not ſell the ſame by retail in ſhops, or any where elſe: but they are not to be loaded with any impoſitions or taxes on account of the ſaid freedom of trade, or for any other cauſe whatſoever, except what are to be paid for their ſhips and goods, according to the laws and cuſtoms received in each kingdom. And moreover they ſhall have free leave, without moleſtation, to remove themſelves, and, if they happen to be married, their wives, children, and ſervants, together with their merchandizes, wares, goods, and effects, either bought or imported, whenſoever and whitherſoever they ſhall think fit, out of the bounds of each kingdom, by land and by ſea, on the rivers and freſh waters, diſcharging the uſual duties, notwithſtanding any law, privilege, grant, immunity, or cuſtom, in any wiſe importing the contrary. But, in the buſineſs of religion, there ſhall be an intire liberty allowed to the ſubjects of each of the confederates, as alſo, if they are married, to their wives and children; neither ſhall they be compelled to go to the churches, or to be preſent at the religious worſhip in any other place: on the contrary, they may, without any moleſtation, perform their religious exerciſes after their own way, although it be forbid, by the laws of the kingdom, privately, and within their own walls, and without the admittance of any other perſons whatſoever. Moreover, liberty ſhall not be refuſed to bury the ſubjects of either party, who die in the territories of the other, in convenient and decent places, to be appointed for that purpoſe, as occaſion ſhall require: and the dead bodies of thoſe who are buried ſhall be no ways moleſted. The laws and ſtatutes of each kingdom ſhall remain in full force, and ſhall duly be put in execution, whether they relate to commerce and navigation, or to any other right; thoſe caſes only being excepted, concerning which it is determined in the articles of this preſent treaty.

VI. The ſubjects of each party ſhall pay the tolls, cuſtoms, and duties of import and export, through all the dominions and provinces of either party, as are due and accuſtomed; and that it may be certainly known what are all the ſaid tolls, cuſtoms, and duties of import and export, it is likewiſe agreed that tables, ſhewing the cuſtoms, port-duties, and impoſts, ſhall be kept in public places, both at London, and in other towns within the dominions of the queen of Great-Britain, and at Roan, and other towns of France, where trading is uſed, whereto recourſe may be had, as often as any queſtion or diſpute ariſes concerning ſuch port-duties, cuſtoms, and impoſts, which are to be demanded in ſuch manner, and no otherwiſe, as ſhall be agreeable to the plain words and genuine ſenſe of the aboveſaid tables. And if any officer, or other perſon in his name, ſhall under any pretence, publicly or privately, directly or indirectly, aſk or take of a merchant, or of any other perſon, any ſum of money, or any thing elſe, on account of right, dues, ſtipend, exhibition, or compenſation, although it be under the name of a free gift, or in any other manner, or under any other pretence, more or otherwiſe than what is preſcribed above: in ſuch caſe, the ſaid officer or his deputy, if he be found guilty, and convicted of the ſame before a competent judge, in the country where the crime was committed, ſhall give full ſatisfaction to the party that is wronged, and ſhall likewiſe be puniſhed according to the direction of the laws.

VII. Merchants, maſters of ſhips, owners, mariners, men of all kinds, ſhips, and all merchandizes in general, and effects of one of the confederates, and of his ſubjects and inhabitants, ſhall, on no public or private account, by virtue of any general or ſpecial edict, be ſeized in any the lands, ports, havens, ſhores, or dominions whatſoever of the other confederate, for the public uſe, for warlike expeditions, or for any other cauſe, much leſs for the private uſe of any one; nor ſhall they be detained by arreſts, compelled by violence, or under any colour thereof, or in any wiſe moleſted or injured. Moreover, it ſhall be unlawful for the ſubjects of both parties to take any thing, or to extort it by force, except the perſon to whom it belongs conſent, and it be paid for with ready money; which, however, is not to be underſtood of that detention and ſeizure which ſhall be made by the command and authority of juſtice, and by the ordinary methods, on account of debt or crimes; in reſpect whereof the proceeding muſt be by way of law, according to the form of juſtice.

VIII. Furthermore it is agreed and concluded, as a general rule, That all and ſingular the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene queen of Great-Britain, and of the moſt ſerene and moſt Chriſtian king, in all countries and places ſubject to their power on each ſide, as to all duties, impoſitions, or cuſtoms whatſoever, concerning perſons, goods, and merchandizes, ſhips, freights, ſeamen, navigation and commerce, ſhall uſe and enjoy the ſame privileges, liberties, and immunities at leaſt, and have the like favour in all things, as well in the courts of juſtice as in all ſuch things as relate either to commerce, or to any other right whatever, which any foreign nation, the moſt favoured, has, uſes, and enjoys, or may hereafter have, uſe, and enjoy.

IX. It is farther agreed, That, within the ſpace of two months after, a law ſhall be made in Great-Britain, whereby it ſhall be ſufficiently provided, that no more cuſtoms or duties be paid for goods and merchandizes brought from France to Great-Britain, than what are payable for goods and merchandizes of the like nature imported into Great Britain from any other country in Europe; and that all laws made in Great-Britain ſince the year 1664, for prohibiting the importation of any goods and merchandizes coming from France, which were not prohibited before that time, be repealed; the general tariff made in France the 18th day of September, in the year 1664, ſhall take place again; and the duties payable in France by the ſubjects of Great-Britain, for goods imported and exported, ſhall be paid according to the tenor of the tariff abovementioned, and ſhall not exceed the rule therein ſettled, in the provinces whereof mention is there made, and in the other provinces the duty ſhall not be payable otherwiſe than according to the rule at that time preſcribed. And all prohibitions, tariffs, edicts, declarations, or decrees, made in France ſince the ſaid tariff of the year 1664, and contrary thereunto, in reſpect to the goods and merchandizes of Great-Britain, ſhall be repealed. But whereas it is urged, on the part of France, that certain merchandizes, that is to ſay, manufactures of wool, ſugar, ſalted fiſh, and the product of whales, be excepted out of the rule of the abovementioned

tariff, and likewiſe other heads of matters belonging to this treaty remain, which having been propoſed on the part of Great-Britain, have not yet been mutually adjuſted, a ſpecification of all which is contained in a ſeparated inſtrument, ſubſcribed by the ambaſſadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries on both ſides: it is hereby provided and agreed, That, within two months from the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, commiſſaries on both ſides ſhall meet at London, to conſider of, and remove the difficulties concerning the merchandizes to be excepted out of the tariff of the year 1664, and concerning the other heads, which, as is above ſaid, are not yet wholly adjuſted. And at the ſame time the ſaid commiſſaries ſhall likewiſe endeavour (which ſeems to be very much for the intereſt of both nations) to have the methods of commerce on one part, and of the other, more thoroughly examined, and to find out and eſtabliſh juſt and beneficial means on both ſides, for removing the difficulties in this matter, and for regulating the duties mutually. But it is always underſtood and provided, that all and ſingular the articles of this treaty do, in the mean while, remain in their full force, and eſpecially that nothing be deemed, under any pretence whatſoever, to hinder the benefit of the general tariff of the year 1664, from being granted to the ſubjects of her royal Majeſty of Great-Britain, and the ſaid Britiſh ſubjects from having and enjoying the ſame, without any delay or tergiverſation, within the ſpace of two months after a law is made in Great-Britain, as aboveſaid, in as ample manner and form as the ſubjects of any nation, the moſt favoured, might have and enjoy the benefit of the aforeſaid tariff, any thing to be done or diſcuſſed by the ſaid commiſſaries to the contrary, in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

X. The duties on tobacco imported into France, either in the leaf or prepared, ſhall be reduced hereafter to the ſame moderate rate, as the ſaid tobacco of the growth of any country in Europe or America, being brought into France, does or ſhall pay. The ſubjects on both ſides ſhall alſo pay the ſame duties in France for the ſaid tobacco; there ſhall likewiſe be an equal liberty of ſelling it; and the Britiſh ſubjects ſhall have the ſame laws as the merchants of France themſelves have and enjoy.

XI. It is likewiſe concluded, That the impoſition, or tax, of 50 ſols Tournois laid on Britiſh ſhips in France for every ton, ſhall wholly ceaſe, and be from henceforward annulled. In like manner, the tax of 5 s. ſterling laid on French ſhips in Great-Britain for every ton, ſhall ceaſe; neither ſhall the ſame, or any the like impoſitions be laid hereafter on the ſhips of the ſubjects on either ſide.

XII. It is further agreed and concluded, That it ſhall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ſhips, and others the ſubjects of the queen of Great-Britain, in all places of France, to manage their own buſineſs themſelves, or to commit them to the management of whomſoever they pleaſe; nor ſhall they be obliged to make uſe of any interpreter or broker, nor to pay them any ſalary, unleſs they chuſe to make uſe of them. Moreover, maſters of ſhips ſhall not be obliged, in loading or unloading their ſhips, to make uſe of thoſe workmen, either at Bourdeaux or in any other places, as may be appointed by public authority for that purpoſe; but it ſhall be intirely free for them to load or unload their ſhips by themſelves, or to make uſe of ſuch perſons in loading or unloading the ſame as they ſhall think fit, without the payment of any ſalary to any other whomſoever; neither ſhall they be forced to unload any ſort of merchandizes, either into other ſhips, or to receive them into their own, or to wait for their being loaded longer than they pleaſe. And all and every the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall reciprocally have and enjoy the ſame privileges and liberty in all places in Europe ſubject to the dominion of Great-Britain.

XIII. It ſhall be wholly lawful and free for merchants and others, being ſubjects either to the queen of Great-Britain, or to the moſt Chriſtian king, by will, or any other diſpoſition, made either during the time of ſickneſs, or at any other time, before or at the point of death, to deviſe or give away their merchandizes, effects, money, debts belonging to them, and all moveable goods, which they have or ought to have, at the time of their death, within their dominions, and any other places belonging to the queen of Great-Britain, and to the moſt Chriſtian king. Moreover, whether they die, having made their wills, or inteſtate, their lawful heirs and executors, or adminiſtrators, reſiding in either of the kingdoms, or coming from any other part, altho' they be not naturalized, ſhall freely and quietly receive and take poſſeſſion of all the ſaid goods and effects whatſoever, according to the laws of Great-Britain and France reſpectively; in ſuch manner, however, that the wills, and right of entering upon the inheritances of perſons inteſtate, muſt be proved according to law, as well by the ſubjects of the queen of Great-Britain, as by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian king, in thoſe places where each perſon died, whether that may happen in Great-Britain or in France, any law, ſtatute, edict, cuſtom, or droit d'aubeine whatever, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

XIV. A diſpute ariſing between any commander of the ſhips of either ſide and his ſeamen, in any port of the other party, concerning wages due to the ſaid ſeamen, or other civil cauſes; the magiſtrates of the place ſhall require no more from the perſon accuſed, than that he give to the accuſer a declaration in writing, witneſſed by the magiſtrate, whereby he ſhall be bound to anſwer that matter before a competent judge in his own country: which being done, it ſhall not be lawful either for the ſeamen to deſert their ſhip, or to hinder the commander from proſecuting his voyage. It ſhall moreover be lawful for the merchants on both ſides, in the places of their abode, or elſewhere, to keep books of their accounts and affairs, as they ſhall think fit, and to have an intercourſe of letters in ſuch language or idiom as they ſhall pleaſe, without any moleſtation or ſearch whatſoever: but if it ſhould happen to be neceſſary for them to produce their books of accounts, for deciding any diſpute and controverſy, in ſuch caſe they ſhall be obliged to bring into court the intire books or writings, but ſo as that the judge may not have liberty to inſpect any other articles in the ſaid books; neither ſhall it be lawful, under any pretence, to take the ſaid books or writings forcibly out of the hands of the owners, or to retain them, the caſe of bankruptcy only excepted; neither ſhall the ſaid ſubjects of the queen of Great-Britain be obliged to write their accounts, copies of letters, acts, or inſtruments, relating to trade, on ſtamped paper, in French papier timbré, except their day-book, which, that it may be produced as evidence in any law-ſuit, ought, according to the laws, which all perſons trading in France are to obſerve, to be ſubſcribed gratis by the judge, and ſigned with his own hand.

XV. It ſhall not be lawful for any foreign privateers (not being ſubjects of one or of the other confederates) who have commiſſions from any other prince or ſtate in enmity with either nation, to fit their ſhips in the ports of one or the other of the aforeſaid parties, to ſell what they have taken, or in any other manner whatever to exchange either ſhips, merchandizes, or any other ladings; neither ſhall they be allowed even to purchaſe victuals, except ſuch as ſhall be neceſſary for their going to the next port of that prince from whom they have commiſſions.

XVI. The ſhips of both parties being laden, ſailing along the coaſts or ſhores of the other, and being forced by ſtorm into the havens or ports, or coming to land in any other manner, ſhall not be obliged there to unlade their goods, or any part thereof, or pay any duty, unleſs they do of their own accord unlade their goods there, or diſpoſe of any part of their lading: but it may be lawful to take out of the ſhip, and to ſell (leave being firſt obtained from thoſe who have the inſpection of ſea affairs) a ſmall part of their lading, for this end only, that neceſſaries, either for the refreſhment or victualling of the ſhip, may be purchaſed; and, in that caſe, the whole lading of the ſhip ſhall not be ſubject to pay the duties, but that ſmall part only which has been taken out and ſold.

XVII. It ſhall be lawful for all and ſingular the ſubjects of the queen of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king, to ſail with their ſhips with all manner of liberty and ſecurity, no diſtinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandizes laden thereon, from any port to the places of thoſe who are now, or ſhall be hereafter at enmity with the queen of Great-Britain, or the moſt Chriſtian king. It ſhall likewiſe be lawful for the ſubjects and inhabitants aforeſaid, to ſail with the ſhips and merchandizes afore mentioned, and to trade with the ſame liberty and ſecurity from the places, ports, and havens of thoſe who are enemies of both or of either party, without any oppoſition or diſturbance whatſoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy, aforementioned, to neutral places, but alſo from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the juriſdiction of the ſame prince, or under ſeveral. And as it is now ſtipulated concerning ſhips and goods, that free ſhips ſhall alſo give a freedom to goods, and that every thing ſhall be deemed to be free and exempt, which ſhall be found on board the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of either of the confederates, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, ſhould appertain to the enemies of either of their Majeſties, contraband goods being always excepted, on the diſcovery whereof matters ſhall be managed according to the ſenſe of the ſubſequent articles. It is alſo agreed, in like manner, that the ſame liberty be extended to perſons who are on board a free ſhip, with this condition, that although they be enemies to both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ſhip, unleſs they are ſoldiers, and in actual ſervice of the enemies.

XVIII. This liberty of navigation and commerce ſhall extend to all kinds of merchandizes, excepting thoſe only which follow in the next article, and which are ſignified by the name of contraband.

XIX. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited goods, ſhall be comprehended arms, great guns, bombs, with their fuzees, and other things belonging to them, fire-balls, gunpowder, match, cannon-ball, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberds, mortars, petards, granadoes, ſalt-petre, muſkets, muſket-balls, helmets, head-pieces, breaſt-plates, coats of mail, and the like kinds of arms proper for arming ſoldiers,

muſket-

muſket-reſts, belts, horſes, with their furniture, and all other warlike inſtruments whatever.

XX. Theſe merchandizes which follow ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited goods; that is to ſay, all ſorts of cloths, and all other manufactures woven of any wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or any other materials whatever; all kinds of cloaths and wearing apparel, together with the ſpecies whereof they are uſed to be made; gold and ſilver, as well coined as uncoined; tin, iron, lead, copper, braſs, coals; as alſo wheat and barley, with any other kind of corn and pulſe; tobacco, and likewiſe all manner of ſpices; ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh, ſalted fiſh, cheeſe and butter, beer, oils, wine, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalt, and, in general, all proviſions which ſerve for the nouriſhment of mankind, and the ſuſtenance of life. Furthermore, all kinds of cotton, hemp, flax, tar, pitch, ropes, cables, ſails, ſail-cloths, anchors, and any part of anchors; alſo ſhip-maſts, plank, boards, and beams, of what trees ſoever, and all other things proper either for building or repairing ſhips; and all other goods whatever, which have not been worked into the form of any inſtrument or thing prepared for war, by land or by ſea, ſhall not be reputed contraband, much leſs ſuch as have been already wrought and made up for any other uſe; all which ſhall wholly be reckoned among free goods, as likewiſe all other merchandizes and things, which are not to be comprehended and particularly mentioned in the preceding article, ſo that they may be tranſported and carried in the freeſt manner by the ſubjects of both confederates, even to places belonging to an enemy, ſuch towns or places being only excepted, as are at that time beſieged, blocked up round about, or inveſted.

XXI. To the end that all manner of diſſentions and quarrels may be avoided and prevented on one ſide and the other, it is agreed, That, in caſe either of their royal Majeſties who enter into this alliance ſhould be engaged in war, the ſhips and veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of the other ally muſt be furniſhed with ſea-letters, or paſſports, expreſſing the name, property, and bulk of the ſhip, as alſo the name and place of habitation of the maſter and commander of the ſaid ſhip, that it may appear thereby that the ſhip really and truly belongs to the ſubjects of one of the princes; which paſſports ſhall be made out and granted according to the form annexed to this treaty. This ſhall likewiſe be recalled every year, that is, if the ſhip happens to return home within the ſpace of a year. It is likewiſe agreed, That ſuch ſhips being laden, are to be provided not only with paſſports, as abovementioned, but alſo with certificates, containing the ſeveral particulars of the cargo, the place whence the ſhip ſailed, and whither ſhe is bound; ſo that it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods as are enumerated in the 19th article of this treaty, be on board the ſame; which certificates ſhall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ſhip ſet ſail, in the accuſtomed form. And if any one ſhall think it fit or adviſeable to expreſs in the ſaid certificates the perſon to whom they belong, he may freely do ſo.

XXII. The ſhips of the ſubjects and inhabitants of both their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, coming to any of the ſea-coaſts within the dominions of either of the confederates, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered, yet not being willing to ſhew or to ſell the cargoes of their ſhips, ſhall not be obliged to give an account of their lading unleſs they are ſuſpected, upon ſure evidence, of carrying to the enemies of the other confederate prohibited goods, called contraband.

XXIII. And in caſe of the ſaid manifeſt ſuſpicion, the ſaid ſubjects and inhabitants of the dominions of both of their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties ſhall be obliged to exhibit in the ports their paſſports and certificates, in the manner before ſpecified.

XXIV. But in caſe the ſhips of the ſubjects and inhabitants of both their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, either on the ſea-coaſts or on the high ſeas, ſhall meet with the men of war of the other, or with privateers, the ſaid men of war and privaters, for preventing any inconveniencies, are to remain out of cannon-ſhot, and to ſend a boat to the merchant-ſhip which has been met with, and ſhall enter her with two or three men only, to whom the maſter or commander of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall ſhew his paſſport, concerning the property thereof, made out according to the form annexed to this preſent treaty: and the ſhip which ſhall exhibit one ſhall have free paſſage, and it ſhall be wholly unlawful any way to moleſt her, ſearch, or compel her to quit her intended courſe.

XXV. But that merchant-ſhip of the other party which intends to go to a port at enmity with the other confederate, or concerning whoſe voyage, and the ſort of goods on board, there may be juſt ſuſpicion, ſhall be obliged to exhibit, either on the high ſeas or in the ports and havens, not only her paſſports, but her certificates, expreſſing that they are not of the kind of prohibited, which are ſpecified in the 19th article.

XXVI. But if one party, on exhibiting the above ſaid certificates, mentioning the particulars of the things on board, ſhould diſcover any goods of that kind, which are declared contraband or prohibited by the 19th article of this treaty, to be deſigned for a port ſubject to the enemy of the other, it ſhall be lawful to break up the hatches of that ſhip wherein the ſame ſhall happen to be found, whether ſhe belong to the ſubjects of Great-Britain or to France, to open the cheſts, packs, or caſks therein, or to remove even the ſmalleſt parcel of the goods, unleſs the lading be brought on ſhore, in the preſence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof be made: but there ſhall be no allowance to ſell, exchange, or alienate the ſame in any manner, unleſs, after due and lawful proceſs has been had againſt ſuch prohibited goods, the judges of the admiralty reſpectively ſhall, by a ſentence pronounced, have confiſcated the ſame, ſaving always as well the ſhip itſelf, as the other goods found therein, which, by this treaty, are to be eſteemed free; neither may they be detained on pretence of their being, as it were, infected by the prohibited goods; much leſs ſhall they be confiſcated as lawful prize. But if not the whole cargo, but only part thereof, ſhall conſiſt of prohibited or contraband goods, and the commander of the ſhip ſhall be ready and willing to deliver them to the captor, who has diſcovered them, in ſuch caſe, the captor having received thoſe goods, ſhall forthwith diſcharge the ſhip, and not hinder her, by any means, freely to proſecute the voyage on which ſhe was bound.

XXVII. On the contrary it is agreed, That whatever ſhall be found to be laden by the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, on any ſhip belonging to the enemy of the other and his ſubjects, the whole, although it be not of the ſort of prohibited goods, may be confiſcated, in the ſame manner as if it belonged to the enemy himſelf, except thoſe goods and merchandizes that were put on board ſuch ſhip before the declaration of war, or even after ſuch declaration, if ſo be it were done within the time and limits following; that is to ſay, if they were put on board ſuch ſhip in any port and place within the ſpace of ſix weeks after ſuch declaration, within the bounds called the Naze in Norway, and the Soundings; of two months, from the Soundings to the city of Gibraltar; of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; and of eight months in any other country or place in the world: ſo that the goods of the ſubjects of either prince, whether they be of the nature of ſuch as are prohibited, or otherwiſe, which, as is aforeſaid, were put on board any ſhip belonging to an enemy before the war, or after the declaration of the ſame, within the time and limits aboveſaid, ſhall no ways be liable to confiſcation, but ſhall well and truly be reſtored, without delay, to the proprietors demanding the ſame; but ſo as that, if the ſaid merchandizes be contraband, it ſhall not be any ways lawful to carry them afterwards to the ports belonging to the enemy.

XXVIII. And that more abundant care may be taken for the ſecurity of the ſubjects of both their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, that they ſuffer no injury by the men of war or privateers of the other party, all the commanders of the ſhips of the queen of Great-Britain and of the moſt Chriſtian king, and all their ſubjects, ſhall be forbid doing any injury or damage to the other ſide; and if they act to the contrary, they ſhall be puniſhed, and ſhall moreover be bound to make ſatisfaction for all cauſe of damage, and the intereſt thereof, by reparation under the bond and obligation of their perſons and goods.

XXIX. For this cauſe, all commanders of privateers, before they receive their patents or commiſſions, ſhall hereafter be obliged to give, before a competent judge, ſufficient ſecurity, by good bail, who are men able to pay, and have no intereſt in the ſaid ſhip, and are each bound in the whole for the ſum of 1,500 l. ſterling, or 16,500 livres Tournois; or, if ſuch ſhip be provided with above one hundred and fifty ſeamen or ſoldiers, for the ſum of 30,000 l. or 33,000 livres Tournois, that they make intire ſatisfaction for any damages and injuries whatſoever, which they or their officers, or others in their ſervice, commit during their courſe at ſea, contrary to this preſent treaty, or the edicts of either of their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, publiſhed by virtue thereof, under penalty, likewiſe, of having their ſpecial commiſſion and patents revoked and annulled.

XXX. Both their abovenamed royal Majeſties being willing to ſhew a mutual and equal favour, in all their dominions reſpectively, to the ſubjects of each other, in the ſame manner as if they were their own ſubjects, will give ſuch orders as ſhall be neceſſary and effectual, that juſtice be adminiſtered concerning prizes in the court of admiralty, according to the rules of equity and right, and the articles of this treaty, by judges who are above all ſuſpicion, and who have no manner of intereſt in the cauſe in diſpute.

XXXI. Whenſoever the ambaſſadors of each of their royal Majeſties above named, and other their miniſters having a public character, and reſiding in the court of the other prince, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of the ſentences which have been given, their Majeſties on each ſide ſhall take care that the ſame be reviſed and re-examined in their reſpective councils, that it may appear whether the directions and proviſions preſcribed in this treaty have been obſerved, and have had their due effect: they ſhall likewiſe take care that this matter be effectually provided for, and that right be done to every complainant within the ſpace of three months. However, before or after judgment given, the reviſion thereof ſtill depending, for the avoiding of all damages, it ſhall not be lawful to ſell the goods in diſpute, or to unlade them, unleſs with the conſent of the perſon concerned.

XXXII. A ſuit being commenced between the captors of prizes on one part, and the reclaimers of the ſame on the other, and a ſentence, or decree, being given in favour of the

the reclaimer, that ſame ſentence, or decree, ſecurity being given, ſhall be put in execution, the appeal of the captor to a ſuperior judge in any wiſe notwithſtanding; which, however, is not to be obſerved when judgment has been given againſt the reclaimer.

XXXIII. In caſe that either ſhips of war or merchantmen, forced by ſtorms, or other misfortunes, be driven on rocks or ſhelves on the coaſts of one or the other party, and are there broken to pieces and ſhipwrecked, whatever part of the ſhips or tackling thereof, as alſo of the goods and merchandizes, ſhall be ſaved, or the produce thereof, ſhall be faithfully reſtored to the proprietors, reclaimers, or their factors, paying only the expences of preſerving the ſame, in ſuch manner as it may be ſettled on both ſides concerning the rate of ſalvage [ſee SALVAGE], ſaving, at the ſame time, the rights and cuſtoms of each nation. And both their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties will interpoſe their authority, that ſuch of their ſubjects may be ſeverely puniſhed, who, in the like accident, ſhall be found guilty of inhumanity.

XXXIV. It ſhall be free for the ſubjects of each party to employ ſuch advocates, attornies, notaries, ſollicitors, and factors, as they ſhall think fit; to which end the ſaid advocates and others above mentioned, may be appointed by the ordinary judges, if it be needful, and the judges be required thereto.

XXXV. And, that commerce and navigation may be more ſecurely and freely followed, it is further agreed, That neither the queen of Great-Britain nor the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall receive any pirates or robbers into any of their ports, havens, cities, or towns; neither ſhall they permit them to be received into their ports, or to be protected or aſſiſted by any manner of harbouring or ſupport, by any the ſubjects or inhabitants of either of them: but they ſhall rather cauſe all ſuch pirates and ſea-robbers, or whoever ſhall receive, conceal, or aſſiſt them, to be apprehended, and puniſhed as they deſerve, for a terror and example to others. And all the ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, piratically taken by them, and brought into the ports of the kingdom of either, as much as can be found, although they have by ſale been conveyed to others, ſhall be reſtored to the lawful owners, or their deputies, having inſtruments of delegation, and an authority of procuration, for reclaiming the ſame; and indemnification ſhall be made, proper evidence being firſt given in the court of admiralty for proving the property. And all ſhips and merchandizes, of what nature ſoever, which can be reſcued out of their hands on the high ſeas, ſhall be brought into ſome port of either kingdom, and delivered to the cuſtody of the officers of that port, with this intention, that they be delivered intire to the true proprietor, as ſoon as due and ſufficient proof ſhall have been made concerning the property thereof.

XXXVI. It ſhall be lawful as well for the ſhips of war of both their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, as for privateers, to their enemies; neither ſhall they be obliged to pay any thing to the officers of the admiralty, or to any other judges; nor ſhall the aforementioned prizes, when they come to and enter the ports of either of their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties, be detained by arreſt; neither ſhall ſearchers, or other officers of thoſe places, make examination concerning them, or the validity thereof; but rather they ſhall have free liberty to hoiſt ſail at any time, to depart and to carry their prizes to that place which is mentioned in their commiſſion or patent, which the commanders of ſuch ſhips of war ſhall be obliged to ſhew. On the contrary, no ſhelter or refuge ſhall be given in their ports to ſuch as have made a prize upon the ſubjects of either of their royal Majeſties. And if perchance ſuch ſhips ſhall come in, being forced by ſtreſs of weather, or the danger of the ſea, particular care ſhall be taken (as far as it is repugnant to former treaties made with other kings and ſtates) that they go from thence, and retire elſewhere as ſoon as poſſible.

XXXVII. Neither of their moſt ſerene royal Majeſties ſhall permit that the ſhips or goods of the other ſhall be taken upon the coaſts, or in the ports or rivers of their dominions, by ſhips of war, or others, having commiſſion from any prince, commonwealth, or town whatſoever; and in caſe ſuch a thing ſhould happen, both parties ſhall uſe their authority and united force, that damage done be made good.

XXXVIII. If hereafter it ſhall happen, thro' inadvertency or otherwiſe, that any contraventions or inconveniencies on either ſide ariſe, concerning the obſervation of this treaty, the friendſhip and good intelligence ſhall not immediately thereupon be broke off, but this treaty ſhall ſubſiſt in all its force, and a proper remedy for removing the inconveniencies ſhall be procured, as likewiſe reparation of the contraventions; and if the ſubjects of the one or the other be found in fault, they only ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed and chaſtiſed.

XXXIX. But if it ſhall appear that a captor made uſe of any kind of torture upon the maſter of the ſhip, the ſhip's crew, or others who ſhall be on board any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of the other party; in ſuch caſe, not only the ſhip itſelf, together with the perſons, merchandize, and goods whatſoever, ſhall be forthwith releaſed, without any further delay, and ſet entirely free, but alſo ſuch as ſhall be found guilty of ſo great a crime, as alſo the acceſſaries thereto, ſhall ſuffer the moſt ſevere puniſhment, ſuitable to their crime.

This the queen of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king do mutually engage ſhall be done, without any reſpect of perſons.

Form of the paſſport [ſee the article PASSPORT] to be deſired of and given by the lord high admiral of Great-Britain, &c. or by the lords commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great Britain, &c. according to the directions of the 21ſt article of this treaty.

To all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting: We high admiral of Great-Britain, &c [or we commiſſioners for executing the office of high-admiral of Great-Britain, &c.] do make known and teſtify, by theſe preſents, that A. B. of C. the uſual place of his dwelling, maſter or commander of the ſhip called D. appeared before us, and declared by ſolemn oath [or produced a certificate under the ſeal of the magiſtrate, or of the officers of the cuſtoms, of the town and port of E. dated the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17 of and concerning the oath made before them] that the ſaid ſhip and veſſel D. burthen tons, whereof he is himſelf at this time maſter, or commander, doth really and truly belong to the ſubjects of her moſt ſerene Majeſty, our moſt gracious ſovereign. And whereas it would be moſt acceptable to us that the ſaid maſter, or commander, ſhould be aſſiſted in the affairs wherein he is juſtly and honeſtly employed, we deſire you, and all and every of you, that whereſoever the ſaid maſter, or commander, ſhall bring his ſhip, and the goods on board thereof, you would cauſe him to be kindly received, to be civilly treated, and, paying the lawful and accuſtomed duties, and other things, to be admitted to enter, to remain in, to depart out of your ports, rivers, and dominions, enjoy all manner of right, and all kind of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think proper and convenient; for which we ſhall always be moſt willing and ready to make returns to you in a grateful manner. In witneſs and confirmation whereof we have ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed our ſeal to be put thereunto.

Given at the day of the month of in the year 17

Form of the certificates to be required of, and to be given by, the magiſtrate, or officers of the cuſtoms of the town and port, in their reſpective towns and ports, to the ſhips and veſſels which ſail from thence, according to the direction of the 21ſt article of this preſent treaty.

We A. B. magiſtrate, or officers of the cuſtoms, of the town and port of C. do certify and atteſt, That on the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17 D. E. of F. perſonally appeared before us, and declared, by a ſolemn oath, That the ſhip, or veſſel, called G. of about tons, whereof H. I. of K. his uſual place of habitation, is maſter, or commander, does rightfully and properly belong to him, and other ſubjects of her moſt ſerene Majeſty, our moſt gracious ſovereign, and to them alone; that ſhe is now bound from the port of L. to the port of M. laden with the goods and merchandizes hereunder particularly deſcribed and enumerated, that is to ſay, as follows. In witneſs whereof, we have ſigned this certificate, and ſealed it with the ſeal of our office.

Given the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17

Form of the paſſports and letters which are to be given in the admiralty of France, to the ſhips and barks which ſhall go from thence, according to the 21ſt article of this preſent treaty.

LEWIS count of Thouloufe, admiral of France, to all who ſhall ſee theſe preſents, greeting: We make known, that we have given leave and permiſſion to maſter and commander of the ſhip called of the town of burthen tons, or thereabouts, lying at preſent in the port and haven of and bound for and laden with after his ſhip has been viſited, and before ſailing, that he ſhall make oath, before the officers who have the juriſdiction of the maritime affairs, That the ſaid ſhip belongs to one or more of the ſubjects of his Majeſty, the act whereof ſhall be put at the end of theſe preſents; as likewiſe that he will keep, and cauſe to be kept by his crew on board, the marine ordinances and regulations, and enter in the proper office, a liſt, ſigned and witneſſed, containing the names and ſurnames, the places of birth and abode of the crew of his ſhip, and of all who ſhall embark on board her, whom he ſhall not take on board without the knowlege and permiſſion of the officers of the marine; and in every port or haven where he ſhall enter with his ſhip, he ſhall ſhew his preſent leave to the officers and judge of the marine, and ſhall give a faithful account to them of what paſſed and was done during his voyage: and he ſhall carry the colours, arms, and enſigns of the king and of us, during

his voyage. In witneſs whereof, we have ſigned theſe preſents, and put the ſeal of our arms thereunto, and cauſed the ſame to be counterſigned by our ſecretary of the marine, at the day of 17

Signed LEWIS, COUNT of THOLOUSE,
And underneath by

Form of the act concerning the oath.

We of the admiralty of
do certify, That maſter of the ſhip named in the above paſſport, has taken the oath mentioned therein.
Done at the day of 17

XL. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by the queen of Great-Britain and the moſt Chriſtian king, and the ratifications thereof ſhall be duly exchanged at Utrecht, within four weeks, or ſooner, if poſſible.

In witneſs whereof, &c.

Be it known unto all men, That whereas in the 9th article of the treaty of commerce, concluded this day between the moſt ſerene queen of Great-Britain, and the moſt ſerene the moſt Chriſtian king, by their Majeſties ambaſſadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries, mention is made of ſome heads of matters, which being propoſed on the part of Great-Britain, have not as yet been mutually adjuſted; and therefore it was thought fit to refer them to be diſcuſſed and determined by commiſſioners: we, therefore, the underwritten ambaſſadors, that it may certainly appear what are thoſe heads of matters which are to be referred to commiſſioners, have reſolved to give a particular deſcription of them in this writing, declaring that they are the ſame, and no other than what follow:

I. No manufacture of either kingdom, and the dominions belonging thereunto, ſhall hereafter be ſubject to be inſpected and confiſcated, under any pretence of fraud or defect in making or working them, or becauſe of any other imperfection therein, but abſolute freedom ſhall be allowed to the buyer and ſeller, to bargain and agree for the ſame, as they ſhall ſee good, any law, ſtatute, edict, arreſt, privilege, grant, or cuſtom, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

II. And foraſmuch as a certain uſage, not confirmed by any law, has obtained in ſeveral towns of Great-Britain and France, that is to ſay, that every one, for coming in and going out, ſhall pay a kind of tax, called in Engliſh HEAD MONEY, and in French DU CHEF, it is concluded that neither the ſame, nor any other duty on that account, ſhall any more be exacted.

III. And the Britiſh merchants ſhall not hereafter be forbidden to ſell tobacco to any buyer whom they pleaſe; for which purpoſe, the letting out the duties on the ſaid tobacco to farmers, which has been hitherto practiſed, ſhall ceaſe, neither ſhall ſuch farming be uſed again hereafter.

IV. The following caſe only being excepted, that is to ſay, where Britiſh ſhips ſhall take up merchandizes in one port, and carry them to another port of France, in which caſe, and in no other, the Britiſh ſubjects ſhall be obliged to pay the duties abrogated and aboliſhed by this article, only in proportion to the goods which they take in, and not according to the bulk of the ſhip.

V. Whereas ſeveral kinds of goods contained in caſks, cheſts, or other caſes, for which the duties are paid by weight, will be exported from, and imported into France, by Britiſh ſubjects; it is therefore agreed, that, in ſuch caſe, the aforeſaid duties ſhall be payable only according to the weight of the goods themſelves, but the weight of the caſks, cheſts, and other caſes whatever, ſhall be deducted in ſuch manner and proportion as has been hitherto uſed in England, and is ſtill practiſed.

VI. It is further agreed, That if any miſtake or error ſhall, on either ſide, be committed by any maſter of a ſhip, his interpreter or factor, or by others employed by him, in making the entry, or declaration, of the goods on board his ſhip, for ſuch defect, if ſo be ſome fraud does not evidently appear, neither the ſhip, nor the lading thereof, ſhall be ſubject to be confiſcated; but it ſhall be free for the proprietors to take back again ſuch goods as were omitted in the entry, or declaration, of the maſter of the ſhip, paying only the accuſtomed duties, according to the rates ſettled in the books; neither ſhall the merchants, or the maſter of the ſhip, loſe the ſaid goods, or ſuffer any other puniſhment, if ſo be the ſaid goods ſo omitted were not brought on ſhore before the declaration made, and the cuſtom paid for the ſame.

VII. And whereas the quality of the ſhip, maſter, and goods, will ſufficiently appear from ſuch paſſports and certificates, it ſhall not be lawful for the commanders of men of war to exact any other verification, under any title whatſoever; but if any merchant-ſhip ſhall want ſuch paſſports, or certificates, then it may be examined by a proper judge, but in ſuch manner, as if it ſhall be found, from other proofs and documents, that it truly belongs to the ſubjects of either of the confederates, and contains no prohibited goods, deſigned to be carried to the enemy of the other, it ſhall not be liable to confiſcation, but ſhall be releaſed, together with its cargo, in order to proceed on its voyage; ſince it may often happen, that ſuch papers could not come to the ſhip when ſhe was ſetting ſail from any port, or that they have been loſt by ſome chance or other, or have been taken away from the ſhip. And if, beſides the paſſports and certificates, made according to the form of this treaty, other paſſports and certificates happen to be found in the ſhip, in another form, and perhaps according to the preſcription of treaties made with others, no pretence ſhall be taken from thence of detaining, or in any wiſe moleſting, either the ſhip, or men, or goods. If the maſter of the ſhip named in the paſſports be removed by death, or any other cauſe, and another be put in his place, the paſſports ſhall nevertheleſs retain their force, and the ſhip, and goods laden thereon, ſhall be ſecure.

VIII. It is farther provided on both ſides, and ſhall be taken for a general rule, that a ſhip and goods, although they have remained in the enemy's power for four-and-twenty hours, ſhall not therefore be eſteemed as capture, and be immediately made prize, but, if, on other accounts, they ought to be reſtored, they may be reclaimed, and ſhall be given again to the proprietors.

IX. It ſhall be free both for their royal Majeſties, for the advantage of their ſubjects trading to the kingdoms and dominions of the other, to conſtitute national conſuls, of their own ſubjects, who ſhall enjoy that right and liberty which belongs to them by reaſon of the exerciſe of their function; but as to the places where ſuch conſuls are to be appointed, both ſides ſhall afterwards agree between themſelves.

In witneſs whereof, &c.

Be it known to all men, That whereas in the 9th article of the treaty of navigation and commerce, concluded the 31ſt day of March, 1713, between the moſt ſerene queen of Great-Britain and the moſt ſerene the moſt Chriſtian king, by the ambaſſadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries of their Majeſties, certain merchandizes, namely, woollen manufactures, ſugars, ſalt-fiſh, and what is produced from whales, are excepted, in general words, from the rule of the tariff made the 18th day of the month of September, in the year 1664, in order to be afterwards referred to the diſcuſſion of commiſſaries: to prevent, therefore, all miſtakes and ambiguity, which might, perhaps, ariſe from ſuch general terms, and to make it more evidently appear, what particular ſorts of goods are to come under the conſideration of the aforeſaid commiſſaries, we the under-written ambaſſadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries, have declared by theſe preſents, and do declare, that the exception of the above-mentioned merchandizes is to be underſtood in the manner following:

I. Whalebone cut and prepared, fins and oils of whales, ſhall pay, at all places of importation in the kingdom, the duties appointed by the tariff of the 7th of December 1699.

II. Cloths, ratines, and ſerges, ſhall be likewiſe ſubject to the ſame duties of the tariff of the 7th of December 1699; and in order to facilitate the trade thereof, it ſhall be allowed to import them by St Valery upon the Somme, by Rouen, and by Bourdeaux, where theſe goods ſhall be ſubject to viſitation in the ſame manner, as thoſe which are made in the kingdom.

III. Salt fiſh in barrels only are to be imported into the kingdom, and at all places of entrance in the kingdom, countries, and territories, under the dominion of the king, even at all free ports, the duties of landing and of conſumption ſhall be paid, which were appointed before the tariff of 1664, and beſides 40 livres per laſt, conſiſting of 12 barrels, weighing each 300 pounds, for duty of entry; which entry ſhall not be permitted but by St Valery upon the Somme, Rouen, Nantz, Libourne, and Bourdeaux, and ſhall remain prohibited at all other harbours or ports, as well in the ocean as in the Mediterranean.

IV. Refined ſugar, in loaf or in powder, white and brown ſugar-candy, ſhall pay the duties appointed by the tariff of 1699.

In confirmation of which, &c.

At Utrecht, the 28th day of April, in the year 1713.

A TREATY of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE between Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Utrecht $\frac{\text{Nov. 28,}}{\text{Decem. 9,}}$ 1713.

I. The treaty of peace, commerce, and alliance, between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid on the $\frac{14}{24}$th day of May 1667 [ſee the article SPAIN], is ratified and confirmed by this preſent treaty.

Their royal Majeſties mutually promiſe, that they will faithfully perform and fulfil all and ſingular the articles of the ſaid treaty, and whatever privileges, conceſſions, grants, or advantages of any kind are therein, or in the cedulas annexed to it, allowed to their reſpective ſubjects; and that they will take care that they ſhall be at all times performed and fulfilled

by their miniſters, officers, and ſubjects; that the ſubjects of the two crowns may enjoy the full effect thereof (except in thoſe things concerning which it is otherwiſe ordained, to mutual ſatisfaction, in the following articles). Moreover, the treaty of 1670, between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain [ſee the article SPANISH AMERICA], for removing differences, reſtraining depredations, and eſtabliſhing peace between the ſaid crowns, is hereby confirmed and ratified, without prejudice, however, to any contract, or privilege, or licence granted by his Catholic Majeſty to the queen of Great-Britain, or her ſubjects in the treaty of peace lately concluded, or in the ASSIENTO CONTRACT [ſee the articles ASSIENTO CONTRACT and SOUTH SEA COMPANY]; and alſo without prejudice to any liberty or power heretofore enjoyed by the ſubjects of Great-Britain, either by right, ſufferance, or indulgence.

II. No higher duties or cuſtoms of any kind, on goods imported or exported, ſhall be paid by the ſubjects of their royal Majeſties reſpectively, trading to the dominions of their Majeſties, than are exacted from, and paid by, the ſubjects of the moſt favoured nation; and if any foreign nation ſhall hereafter obtain from either ſide, a diminution of the cuſtoms, or any other privileges, the ſame ſhall reciprocally be granted to the ſubjects of each crown. And as it has been agreed as above, touching the rates of duties; ſo it is ordained as a general rule between their Majeſties, That in all lands and places ſubject to the command of their reſpective Majeſties, all and every one of their ſubjects ſhall uſe and enjoy at leaſt the ſame privileges, liberties, and immunities, concerning all impoſts or duties whatſoever, reſpecting perſons, wares, merchandize, ſhips, freighting, mariners, navigation, and commerce, and enjoy the ſame favour in all things, whether reſpecting trade, or any other right whatſoever, which is now, or ſhall be hereafter, enjoyed by the moſt favoured nation; as is ſet forth more at large in the 38th article of the treaty of 1667, ſpecially inſerted in the foregoing article.

III. [The third, fifth, and eighth articles, were not ratified as they ſtood at firſt in the treaty, but a new draught of them, which was annexed, and ſtiled the explanatory articles. We ſhall therefore give our readers only the latter, at the end of this treaty.]

IV. The Catholic king conſents and promiſes, that the ſubjects of Great-Britain reſiding in the provinces of Biſcay and Guipuſcoa, ſhall for the future be allowed to hire houſes or warehouſes for keeping their goods in, and his Majeſty will take care, by repeating his orders for that purpoſe, that they ſhall be at liberty to do this in the ſame manner, and with the ſame privileges, which are enjoyed by the ſaid Britiſh ſubjects in Andaluſia, or any other ports or places in Spain, by virtue of the aforeſaid treaty of 1667, or of any edict or ordinance iſſued by their Catholic Majeſties. The ſubjects of Spain ſhall enjoy the ſame liberty in any ports or places of Great-Britain, with all the privileges belonging to them by the aforeſaid treaty.

V. See the explanation at the end of this treaty.

VI. And as the reſpective ſubjects of their Majeſties ought to enjoy an entire, ſafe, and unmoleſted uſe and liberty of navigation and commerce, whilſt the peace and friendſhip entered into by their Majeſties and their crowns ſhall ſubſiſt, it is provided by their Majeſties, that for any little difference that may ariſe, their ſaid ſubjects ſhall not be deprived of this ſecurity, but, on the contrary, they ſhall enjoy all the benefits of peace until war be declared between the two crowns.

It is further agreed, That if a war ſhould break out and be declared between their Majeſties and their kingdoms (which God prevent), in that caſe, agreeable to the 36th article of the above-mentioned treaty of 1667, the term of ſix months after the declaration of ſuch rupture, ſhall be allowed to the ſubjects of each party reſiding in the dominions of the other, in which they may retire, with their families, goods, merchandizes, ſhips, and effects, and carry them by ſea or land whither they ſhall pleaſe, paying the due and uſual cuſtoms: they ſhall alſo be permitted to ſell and alienate their moveable and immoveable effects, and carry away the price thereof freely and without moleſtation: nor ſhall their goods, wealth, merchandize, and effects, much leſs their perſons, be in the mean time detained or moleſted by any ſeizure or arreſt. But rather in the mean while the ſubjects on each ſide ſhall have and enjoy good and ſpeedy juſtice, ſo that during the ſaid ſpace of ſix months, they may be able to recover their goods and effects intruſted either to the public, or to private perſons.

VII. It is likewiſe agreed, that all loſſes which the ſubjects of either crown ſhall duly prove that they ſuſtained in the beginning of the late war (contrary to the tenor of the 36th article of the above-mentioned article of 1667), whether in moveable or immoveable goods, ſhall be reciprocally made good without delay to them, or to their lawful attornies, heirs, or adminiſtrators; and reſtitution ſhall be made of ſuch goods as were confiſcated and remain, whether they conſiſt of lands, houſes, inheritances, or of whatſoever ſort they be; and for ſuch as cannot be recovered, a juſt and lawful price ſhall be paid: and it is agreed and concluded by their ſaid Majeſties, that the ſaid payments (the claims being fully juſtified as aforeſaid) ſhall be faithfully made and performed by their reſpective treaſurers.

VIII. See at the end of this treaty.

IX. His Catholic Majeſty promiſes, that thoſe merchandizes which are not particularly ſpecified in the table of rates, which is to be drawn up agreeable to the 3d article of this treaty, ſhall be charged with the ſame and no higher duties, in proportion to their value, than the merchandizes mentioned in the ſaid table of rates are charged with. And if any difference ſhould ariſe between the farmers or the officers of the cuſtom-houſe and the merchants, concerning the value of any goods, it ſhall be in the option of the merchant to ſell ſuch merchandizes to the farmer or officer at the price ſet upon them by the farmer; which price ſhall be immediately paid in ready money, the duty only being deducted. The merchant may likewiſe, keeping the reſt of his merchandizes, give a part of them to the farmer or officer at the rate ſet upon them, as hath been mentioned, inſtead of the duty.

X. It is agreed, That in caſe any merchandizes ſhall be brought by the ſubjects of Great-Britain from the coaſt of Africa into Spain, and be admitted to pay the duties, theſe duties being duly paid, the merchandizes ſhall not be charged afterwards, either by the captains-general of the coaſts or commanders of the ports, or any other perſon, under what name or title ſoever, with any further duty, excepting what is payable in general for all merchandizes of the ſame kind at the time of ſale.

XI. The maſters of merchant-ſhips entering into any port of Spain, ſhall be obliged, within 24 hours after their arrival, to exhibit two declarations or inventories of their cargoes, or of that part thereof which they are to unlade there, viz. one to the farmer or officer of the cuſtoms, and another to the judges of contraband: neither ſhall they open their hatches, 'till either the ſearchers come on board, or leave be given them to do it by the farmers of the cuſtom-houſes. No merchandizes ſhall be unladed with any other view than that of being immediately carried to the cuſtom-houſes, agreeable to a permiſſion, which ſhall be given in writing to that end. It ſhall not be lawful, however, for the judges of contraband or other officers of the cuſtoms, under any pretext whatſoever, to open any bags, cheſts, caſks, or other package of any goods whatſoever belonging to the Britiſh ſubjects, whilſt they are carrying to the cuſtom-houſe, and before they are brought thither, nor unleſs the owner or his factor be preſent, who may pay the duties, and take the goods into his own cuſtody. But the judges of contraband, or their deputies, may be preſent when the goods are taken out of the ſhip, and when they are declared and opened in the cuſtom-houſe: and if there be a ſuſpicion of fraud, as for inſtance, that it is intended to ſhew one ſpecies of goods for another, it ſhall be lawful for him to open all the bags, cheſts, or caſks, provided it be done in the cuſtom-houſe and no other place, and in preſence of the merchant or his factor, and not otherwiſe: but when the goods have been ſhewn and carried out of the cuſtom-houſe, and the cheſts, caſks, or other package marked with the ſign or ſeal of the proper officer, no judge of contraband, or other officer, ſhall preſume to open them again, or to hinder them from being carried to the merchant's houſe. Neither ſhall it be lawful for them, under any pretext whatſoever, to hinder the removal of the ſaid goods from one houſe or warehouſe to another, within the walls or compaſs of the ſaid city or place, provided that it be done between the hours of eight in the morning and five in the evening, and previous notice be given to the farmers of the right de alcavalos and cientos, with what intent they are moved; and if it be done in order to their being ſold, thoſe duties, if not paid before, may be paid there, or at the place of ſale; or, if not to be ſold, that the uſual certificate in writing may be given to the merchant. As to the reſt, it ſhall be lawful to carry merchandizes by land or ſea, from any port or place within the king of Spain's dominions to any other port or place, under the conditions expreſſed in the fifth article of this treaty.

XII. The merchandizes imported into, or exported from, the Canary Iſlands by Britiſh ſubjects, ſhall be charged with no higher duties than they paid there in the reign of the late king Charles II. or ſhall be impoſed on them by the new book of rates.

XIII. The ſubjects of each of their Majeſties, who are in debt to the ſubjects of the other, whether the debts were contracted before the beginning of the late war, or within ſix months after it began, or during the war under the protection of letters of ſafe-conduct [ſee the article PASSPORT]; or, laſtly, after a truce was made between the two crowns, ſhall be bound and obliged faithfully to pay them, in the ſame manner as if a war had never broke out between the two crowns; nor ſhall they be ſuffered to raiſe any exceptions to the juſt demands of their creditors on pretence of the war.

XIV. His Catholic Majeſty gives the ſubjects of Great-Britain leave to ſettle and reſide in the town called St Andero, on the conditions expreſſed in the ninth and thirtieth articles of the treaty of 1667. See the article SPAIN.

XV. As

XV. As to the judge conſervator, and others to be ſubſtituted by him, if the privilege of having one be granted to any other foreign nation, the ſame ſhall alſo be granted to the ſubjects of Great-Britain. In the mean time, and 'till ſomething certain be determined in this matter, his Catholic Majeſty will give expreſs orders to all and every judge of his kingdom, and to all other perſons whatſoever to whom the adminiſtration or execution of juſtice is intruſted, and enjoin them, under the ſevereſt penalties, to do juſtice, and cauſe it to be executed, without delay, partiality, or affection, in all cauſes wherein the ſubjects of Great-Britain are concerned.

The Catholic king conſents, that appeals from ſentences given in cauſes relating to Britiſh ſubjects, may be brought before the tribunal of the council of war at Madrid, and no where elſe.

XVI. If this treaty, or any article of it, be violated by any miniſter, or other ſubject, of her Britannic Majeſty, or of his Catholic Majeſty, he ſhall be anſwerable for all the damage thereby occaſioned; and if he be in public office, he ſhall, beſides making ſatisfaction to the perſon injured, as aforeſaid, be deprived of his office.

XVII. The ſubjects of Great-Britain, having brought by ſea, from ſome other ports of Spain, wine, brandy, oil, ſoap, dried grapes, or other commodities, it ſhall be lawful for them, on producing certificates that the duties were paid at the place whence they ſet ſail, to lade the ſame on board their ſhips lying at Cadiz, or there to remove them from one ſhip to another, with conſent of the intendants of the marine, and in preſence of them, or of their deputies, if they chuſe to be there, to prevent any fraud, at a ſeaſonable time to be appointed by the intendants within 24 hours; or to carry them away from thence, without being liable to pay the duty called hondeaxe, or any other duty of import or export.

This treaty ſhall be ratified by the moſt ſerene queen of Great-Britain and by the moſt ſerene Catholic king, and the ratifications thereof exchanged at Utrecht within two months, or ſooner, if it can be done.

In witneſs whereof, &c.

We having ſeen and conſidered the above-written treaty, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the ſame, as we do by theſe preſents, for ourſelves, our heirs and ſucceſſors, approve, ratify, and confirm it, excepting only three articles thereof, viz. the third, fifth, and eighth, concluded at Utrecht, which are to be obſerved and underſtood in the manner and form following:

III. 'Whereas by the late treaty of peace it is agreed and eſtabliſhed as a baſis and foundation, that the ſubjects of Great-Britain, in what regards commerce, ſhall enjoy the ſame liberties and privileges, which they enjoyed in the reign of king Charles II. in all parts of the king of Spain's dominions; which rule is what is alſo to ſerve for a baſis and foundation of the preſent treaty of commerce, and is to be underſtood reciprocally in favour of the king of Spain's ſubjects trading in the dominions of Great-Britain: and as nothing can contribute more to eſtabliſh the commerce to a mutual benefit, than a fixed, clear, and eaſy rule in paying the duties, eſpecially on a moderate footing, and proportionable to the value of the merchandize, in order to prevent the frauds that otherwiſe would be practiſed to the prejudice of the revenue of either crown, which has been often experienced in Spain, where the eſtabliſhed duties by the antient books of rates are exceſſive; in conſideration whereof his Catholic Majeſty, being deſirous to avoid the like conſequences, and to favour, augment, and facilitate, in all that depends upon him, the commerce, in as ample a manner as her Britannic Majeſty deſires, hath conſented on his part to ſuppreſs and make void the different duties payable upon importation and exportation, contained in the antient books of rates, as alſo thoſe that have been impoſed ſince, under any name or pretence whatſoever, and content himſelf with one only duty to be paid upon all goods and merchandize, after the rate of 10 per cent. of their value; and the like duty upon all goods and merchandize, which ſhall be exported out of his dominions, whether the value be made by weight, meaſure, piece, or ad valorem. And the ſame duty ſhall be collected in all the ports of entry in Spain, comprehending thoſe of Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, excepting out of this general rule, Biſcaya and Guipuſcoa, whoſe duties of importation and exportation are to remain as they were in the time of Charles II. And that the ſaid 10 per cent. being once paid, the farmers or officers of the cuſtom-houſes where theſe goods ſhall be entered, ſhall be obliged to mark the ſame with the proper ſeals and marks of their office, and alſo give the requiſite diſpatches; by virtue of which the proprietors of the goods may freely tranſport them to all the other parts of Spain, where they pleaſe, without being liable to pay any other duty, impoſition, or charges, to the uſe or benefit of his Catholic Majeſty, in any ports or parts of Spain whatſoever, in reſpect of tranſporting the ſaid merchandize, over and above what they have paid in purſuance of this new arancel, provided in default of which they ſhall be eſteemed to be fraudulently tranſported. But it is to be underſtood, that this is not to extend to the alcavalos, cientos, and millones, in relation to which proviſion is made in the fifth and eighth articles of this treaty.

And foraſmuch as the ambaſſador of England hath repreſented that, to avoid all differences and diſputes for the future, it is abſolutely neceſſary to eſtabliſh a certain valuation or rate of the ſeveral ſorts of merchandize, by which the ſaid duty of 10 per cent. ſhall always be paid, and not altered, either by means of the augmentation or diminution of the price of the ſaid merchandize, which may hereafter happen in the commerce, in any time, or in any part of the kingdom: it is agreed by their Catholic and Britannic Majeſties by their ambaſſadors, that in the term of three months from the ratification of this treaty, or ſooner, if poſſible, commiſſaries, named by both their Majeſties in due form, ſhall meet at Madrid or in Cadiz, who, without loſs of time, ſhall proceed to the forming a new book of rates, in ſuch a manner as to fix and limit what ſhall be paid for the future on all ſorts of merchandize, as well upon importation as exportation; and ſo as that all the different duties which were payable, either before or in the time of Charles II. or ſince, under whatſoever name or pretence, or collected in different cuſtom-houſes or offices, ſhall be comprehended in this only duty, payable in ONE SUM, whether upon importation or exportation, in all the ports of Spain, and ſhall extend to the kingdoms of Arragon, Valencia, and principality of Catalonia, and their dependencies, excepting only the provinces of Guipuſcoa and Biſcaya, of which mention has been already made. And whereas great inſtances have been made by the ambaſſador of Great-Britain, that directions be given to the ſaid commiſſaries that they take care, and above all do obſerve as a fixed rule, that this duty be laid equally and generally in all the ports and cuſtom-houſes of Spain, upon the importation and exportation of all goods and merchandize, after the rate of 10 per cent. of the value, which ſuch goods and merchandize bear in the courſe of trade between the merchants of Cadiz and port St Mary's, to which the ambaſſadors of Spain have conſented; always provided that the goods and commodities which ſhall be imported into the kingdom of Spain, by the ports of Biſcay and Guipuſcoa, and afterwards tranſported into the other provinces depending on the kingdoms of Caſtille and Arragon, ſhall be obliged to pay, at the firſt cuſtom-houſe of entry into the ſaid kingdoms, the duties which ſhall be eſtabliſhed in this new book of rates.

V. To prevent the abuſes that may be committed in collecting the duties called alcavalos and cientos, his Catholic Majeſty conſents, that the ſubjects of her Britannic Majeſty ſhall not be obliged to pay theſe duties, during ſuch time as they think fit to let their merchandize remain in the magazines of the cuſtom-houſes appointed for that purpoſe; but when they ſhall think fit to take out the ſaid goods, either to be tranſported farther into the country, to be ſold in the ſame place, or carried to their own houſes, it ſhall be permitted them ſo to do, upon giving bond with ſufficient ſecurity to pay the ſaid duties of alcavalos and cientos for the firſt ſale, in two months after the date of his bond; upon which he ſhall have receipt given him for the ſaid duties, and the goods ſhall be marked with the proper mark and ſeal of the farmers of the ſaid alcavalos and cientos where ſuch bond and ſecurity ſhall be given for the firſt ſale; after which the ſaid merchandize may be tranſported and ſold by wholeſale, in any port or place belonging to the king of Spain in Europe; and no obſtruction or hinderance ſhall be made upon account of the ſaid duties, nor the proprietors liable to pay a ſecond time in reſpect of the firſt ſale, provided thoſe who carry the ſaid merchandizes produce the receipts and marks of the farmer or proper officer concerned in the collection of theſe duties, or making ſufficient proof of their not being ſold before. But if, on the contrary, any merchant do ſell his goods by retale, he ſhall be obliged to pay the ſaid duties of alcavalos and cientos a ſecond time, under the pains eſtabliſhed by the laws. And his Catholic Majeſty declares, that if any officer of the alcavalos and cientos ſhall exact a ſecond time the ſaid duties on the ſame merchandize when the ſaid receipts and marks have been produced, or ſhall obſtruct their paſſage or tranſportation, or occaſion the leaſt impediment, ſuch officer ſhall be fined 2000 crowns to the benefit of his Majeſty's revenues: and the officers of the cuſtom-houſe ſhall not demand or take for making ſuch receipts or certificates more than 15 real vellon [ſee the article SPAIN], unleſs it be otherwiſe ſettled in the new book of rates.

VIII. His Catholic Majeſty conſents, that the duties commonly called millones, which are payable upon fiſh and other ſorts of domeſtic proviſions, ſhall not be demanded in the firſt ports or cuſtom-houſes of entry in Spain, during ſuch time as the proprietors will let them remain in the warehouſes appointed for that purpoſe. But in caſe the owners ſhall deſire to take them out, either to ſend into the country, ſell them in the place, or carry them to their own houſes, they are then to give bond, with good ſecurity to pay the ſaid duty of millones, in the two months after date of the ſaid bond, upon which the neceſſary diſpatches are to be given them. And the ſaid merchandize ſhall be marked with the ſeals or marks

of the farmers of the millones, where the ſaid duties were ſecured; after which the ſaid goods may be tranſported to, and ſold in, the places where they are to be conſumed, without paying any duties of millones. His Catholic Majeſty alſo declares, that if after the receipts are produced, any officer, belonging to the farmers of the millones, ſhould exact a ſecond time the ſame duties on the ſame goods, or ſhould oppoſe their paſſage, tranſport, or ſale, or occaſion the leaſt impediment, the ſaid officer ſhall be fined 2000 crowns for the benefit of his Majeſty's revenues.'

ANNE, by the grace of God, queen of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. To all and ſingular to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. Whereas the right reverend father in God, our right truſty and well-beloved counſellor, John biſhop of Briſtol, our ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, dean of Windſor, and regiſter of our moſt noble order of the garter, did on our part, together with the plenipotentiaries of the moſt ſerene Catholic king, conclude and ſign at Utrecht, on Nov. 28, Decem. 9. 1713, a treaty of commerce between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, and at the ſame time a ſeparate article was concluded, made between the ſaid plenipotentiaries, who were ſeverally furniſhed with ſufficient authorities, and is as follows:

Separate ARTICLE.

'By the preſent ſeparate article, which ſhall be altogether of the ſame validity, as if it was inſerted word for word in the treaty of commerce, this day concluded between their royal Majeſties of Great-Britain and Spain, and ſhall for that end be ratified as well as the ſaid treaty; his Catholic Majeſty conſents that it ſhall at all times hereafter be lawful for the Britiſh ſubjects, who ſhall live in the Canary Iſlands for the ſake of their trade, to nominate ſome one perſon being a ſubject of Spain, who ſhall execute the office of judge-conſervator there, and ſhall take cognizance, in the firſt inſtance, of all cauſes relating to the commerce of the Britiſh ſubjects; and his royal Majeſty promiſes that he will grant commiſſions to ſuch judge-conſervator ſo named, together with the ſame authority and all the privileges which the judges-conſervators have formerly enjoyed in Andaluſia. And if the Britiſh ſubjects ſhall deſire to have more judges of that ſort there, or to change thoſe that are appointed every three years, it ſhall be allowed and granted them. His Catholic Majeſty conſents likewiſe, that appeals from the ſentences of the ſaid judge-conſervator, ſhall be brought before the tribunal of the council of War at Madrid, and no where elſe.

In witneſs whereof, we the underwritten ambaſſadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries of her ſacred Majeſty of Great-Britain, and of his ſacred Catholic Majeſty, have ſigned and ſealed theſe preſents at Utrecht, Nov. 28. Decem. 9. in the year of our Lord 1713.

JOH. BRISTOL. (L. S.)
DUC. DE OSSUNA. (L. S.)
EL MARQUE DE MONTELEON. (L. S.)

We having ſeen and conſidered this ſeparate article, have approved, ratified, and confirmed, as we do by theſe preſents approve, ratify, and confirm the ſame, promiſing and engaging our royal word that we will faithfully and inviolably keep all and ſingular the things therein contained, and that we will not ſuffer any thing to be done contrary thereunto. For the greater teſtimony and validity whereof, we have ſigned this inſtrument with our royal hand, and cauſed our great ſeal of Great-Britain to be affixed thereunto. Given at our caſtle at Windſor, the 7th day of February, 17$\frac{13}{14}$, in the 12th year of our reign.

The MEASURES taken by our ſovereign the late king GEORGE I. to remedy ſome of the defects of the treaty of Utrecht, taken notice of under our articles REVENUE and TAXES.

TREATY of COMMERCE between Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid the 14th of December, 1715.

Whereas notwithſtanding the treaties of peace and commerce, lately concluded at Utrecht the 13th of July, and the 9th of December 1713, between his Catholic Majeſty, and her late Majeſty the queen of Great-Britain, of glorious memory, there remained ſtill ſome differences about trade and the courſe thereof; and his Catholic Majeſty and the king of Great-Britain being inclined to maintain and cultivate a firm and inviolable peace and friendſhip, in order to attend to this good end, they have by their two miniſters under written, mutually and duly qualified, cauſed the following articles to be concluded and ſigned.

I. The Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not be obliged to pay higher or other duties, for goods coming in, or going out of the ſeveral ports of his Catholic Majeſty than thoſe they paid for the ſame goods in king Charles the IId's time, ſettled by ſchedulas and ordinances of the ſaid king, or his predeceſſors: and although the indulto, commonly called pie del fardo, be not grounded on any royal ordinance, nevertheleſs his Catholic Majeſty declares, wills, and ordains, that it be obſerved, now and hereafter, as an inviolable law; which duties ſhall be exacted and raiſed, now and for the future, with the ſame advantages and favours to the ſaid ſubjects.

II. His Majeſty confirms the treaty made by the Britiſh ſubjects, with the magiſtrates of St Andero in the year 1700.

III. His Catholic Majeſty permits the ſaid ſubjects to gather ſalt in the iſle of Tortugas, they having enjoyed this liberty in the reign of king Charles II. without interruption.

IV. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall pay no where any higher or other duties, than thoſe paid by the ſubjects of his Catholic Majeſty in the ſame places.

V. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities whatſoever, which they enjoyed before the laſt war, by virtue of the royal ſchedulas or ordinances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid in 1667 [ſee the article SPAIN], which is hereby fully confirmed; and the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be uſed in Spain in the ſame manner as in the moſt favoured nation, and conſequently all nations ſhall pay the ſame duties on wool and other merchandizes, coming in and going out to ſea. And all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities, that ſhall be granted, and allowed to the ſaid ſubjects, the like ſhall be granted, obſerved, and permitted to the ſubjects of Spain, in the kingdoms of his Majeſty the king of Great-Britain.

VI. And, as innovations may have been made in trade, his Catholic Majeſty promiſes on his part to uſe his utmoſt endeavours to aboliſh them, and for the future to cauſe them to be avoided: in like manner the king of Great-Britain promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours to aboliſh all innovations on his part, and for the future to cauſe them by all means to be avoided.

VII. The treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, the 9th of December, 1713, ſhall continue in force, except the articles that ſhall be found contrary to what is this day concluded and ſigned, which are hereby aboliſhed and rendered of no force, and eſpecially all the three articles, commonly called explanatory. And theſe preſents ſhall be approved, ratified, and exchanged on each ſide, within the ſpace of ſix weeks, or ſooner, if poſſible. In witneſs whereof, and by virtue of our full powers, we have ſigned theſe preſents at Madrid, the 14th of December, in the year 1715.

M. DE BEDMAR. (L. S.) GEORGE BUBB. (L. S.)

TREATY of COMMERCE betwixt Anne queen of Great-Britain and Peter king of Portugal, concluded at Liſbon the 27th of December, 1703.

Whereas the league and ſtrict friendſhip, which is between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent princeſs Anne queen of Great-Britain, and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent Peter king of Portugal, requires that the commerce of both the Britiſh and the Portugal nations ſhould be promoted as much as poſſible; and her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain, hath ſignified to his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, by the moſt excellent John Methuen, Eſq; member of the Engliſh parliament, and ambaſſador extraordinary in Portugal, that it would be very acceptable to her, if the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of Britain, might be admitted into Portugal, the prohibition of them being taken off: that this matter may be treated and tranſacted, they have given their full powers and commands; that is to ſay, her ſacred Majeſty of Great-Britain to the aboveſaid moſt excellent John Methuen, and his ſacred Majeſty of Portugal to the moſt excellent Don Emanuel Telles Silvius, marquis of Alegrete, &c. one of the three directors of the treaſury, and one of the firſt gentlemen of the bedchamber, and counſellor of ſtate to his ſacred royal Portugueze Majeſty: who, by virtue of the full power to them reſpectively granted, having maturely and diligently conſidered the matter, have agreed upon the following articles.

I. His ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit, for ever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the reſt of woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accuſtomed 'till they were prohibited by the laws, nevertheleſs upon this condition.

II. That is to ſay, that her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Great-Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by whatſoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they ſhall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogſheads, or other caſks, than what ſhall be demanded from the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures.

III. The

III. The moſt excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promiſe and take upon themſelves, that their above-named maſters ſhall ratify this treaty, and within the ſpace of two months the ratification ſhall be exchanged.

For the faith and teſtimony of all which things, I the plenipotentiary of her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain have confirmed this treaty, by the ſubſcription of my hand, and by the ſeal of my coat of arms. And the moſt excellent lord the plenipotentiary of his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, for avoiding the controverſy about precedence between the two crowns of Britain and Portugal, hath ſubſcribed another inſtrument of the ſame tenor, changing only what ought to be changed for that reaſon.

Given at Liſbon, the 27th of the month of Decem. 1703.

JOHN METHUEN. (L. S.)

A DECLARATION and ENGAGEMENT concerning the rights and privileges of the Britiſh merchants in the kingdom of Sicily, made at Utrecht the 8th of March, N. S. $17\frac{12}{13}$.

Whereas by ſeveral treaties of peace, alliance, commerce, and navigation, formerly made between the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Spain, and at this time ſubſiſting, but more particularly by the treaty concluded at Madrid, the $\frac{13}{23}$d of May, in the year 1667, and the cedulas annexed thereunto, proviſion was made for the freedom, ſecurity, and perfect eaſe of the commerce of the Britiſh ſubjects trading in the kingdoms and provinces of Spain; the obſervance and uſage of which treaties have hitherto been received in the kingdom of Sicily, in the ſame manner as in any other the dominions of Spain, and have remained there in full force, except ſome variations which have been introduced in the courſe of time; for the rectifying whereof, according to the rule of thoſe treaties, Great-Britain has juſtly inſiſted hitherto.

Wherefore, on occaſion of transferring the kingdom of Sicily to his royal highneſs the duke of Savoy, her ſacred Majeſty of Great-Britain, being watchful to preſerve the rights and privileges of her ſubjects trading in the ſaid kingdom, and being likewiſe willing to preſerve to the Sicilians the privileges they have in Great-Britain, which are ſo very dear to the moſt ſerene the duke of Savoy, hath been graciouſly pleaſed to give inſtructions to her underwritten miniſters plenipotentiaries, to agree with the miniſters plenipotentiaries of his royal highneſs of Savoy, about making declarations mutually upon this ſubject. In purſuance thereof, the ſaid miniſters plenipotentiaries of his royal highneſs, in the name of their moſt ſerene maſter, do moſt ſolemnly declare and promiſe, that during the reign of the aforeſaid moſt ſerene duke in Sicily, as likewiſe of his heirs and ſucceſſors, the Britiſh merchants are henceforward to have, and ſhall effectually have, uſe, and enjoy, all thoſe rights, privileges, liberties, and entire ſecurity, as to their perſons, goods, ſhips, ſeamen, trade, and navigation, in the ſaid kingdom of Sicily; which, by virtue of the treaties made between Great-Britain and Spain, they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to enjoy; and, to that end that all abuſes which deviate from the tenor of the ſaid treaties ſhall be forthwith removed, and the rights and privileges acquired to the Britiſh ſubjects, by virtue of the aforeſaid treaties, ſhall not on any occaſion, or under any pretence, ever be violated or leſſened. And if hitherto any more favourable privileges have been granted, or ſhall hereafter be granted, to the merchants of any other foreign nation any way relating to the perſons of the traders, their ſhips, goods, duties, or the buſineſs of merchandizing, the Britiſh merchants ſhall likewiſe in all reſpects, and in the fulleſt manner enjoy the ſame.

And in like manner, the miniſters plenipotentiaries of Great-Britain do, in the manner of her Majeſty, confirm that the Sicilians ſhall hereafter enjoy the ſame privileges and liberties, which they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to have enjoyed, as ſubjects of the king of Spain, by virtue of the aforeſaid treaty of the year 1667.

In witneſs and confirmation whereof, &c.

TREATY of AMITY, COMMERCE, and NAVIGATION, between Great-Britain and Ruſſia, concluded at St Peterſburgh, December 2, 1734.

I. The peace, friendſhip, and good correſpondence, which happily ſubſiſt between their Ruſſian and Britannic Majeſties, ſhall be confirmed and eſtabliſhed by this treaty, ſo as from henceforward there ſhall be between the crown of all the Ruſſias on one ſide, and the crown of Great-Britain on the other, as likewiſe between the ſtates, countries, realms, dominions, and territories, which are under their obedience, a true, firm, and perfect peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding, which ſhall endure and be inviolably maintained for ever, as well by ſea as by land, and on all freſh waters; and the people, ſubjects, and inhabitants on both ſides, of whatſoever condition or degree, ſhall behave with entire good-will towards each other, and give each other all poſſible aid and aſſiſtance, without doing or offering the leaſt wrong or damage whatſoever.

II. There ſhall be an entire freedom of navigation and commerce throughout all the dominions of the two contracting parties in Europe, where navigation and commerce are at this time permitted, or ſhall be permitted hereafter, by the contracting parties to the ſubjects of any other nation.

III. The ſubjects of both contracting parties may enter at all times into all the ports or towns of either of the contracting parties, with their ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, into which the ſubjects of any other nation are permitted to enter, to trade or abide there; and the mariners, paſſengers, and veſſels, whether Ruſſian or Engliſh, even though there be any ſubjects of any other ſtrange nation among the crew, ſhall be received and treated in like manner as the moſt favoured nation; and the mariners and paſſengers ſhall not be forced to enter into the ſervice of either of the contracting parties, which may have occaſion for their ſervice. And the ſubjects of both contracting parties may buy all kind of neceſſaries which they ſhall ſtand in need of, at the current price; and repair and refit their ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, and furniſh themſelves with all manner of proviſions for their ſubſiſtance and voyage, abide and depart at their pleaſure, without moleſtation or impediment, provided they conform themſelves to the laws and ordinances of the reſpective ſtates of the ſaid contracting powers, where they ſhall ſo arrive or continue.

IV. The ſubjects of Great-Britain may bring by ſea or by land, into all or any of the dominions of Ruſſia, wherein the ſubjects of any other nation are permitted to trade, all ſorts of goods and merchandizes, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited; and in like manner the ſubjects of Ruſſia may bring into all or any of the dominions of Great-Britain, wherein the ſubjects of any other nation are allowed to traffic, all ſorts of merchandizes of the produce and manufacture of the dominions of Ruſſia, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited, and likewiſe all merchandizes of the produce or manufacture of Aſia, provided that it is not actually prohibited by any law now in force in Great-Britain; and they may buy, and export out of the dominions of Great-Britain, all manner of goods and merchandizes, which the ſubjects of any other nation may buy therein and export from thence, and particularly gold and ſilver, wrought or unwrought, excepting the ſilver coined money of Great-Britain.

V. The ſubjects of Great-Britain, if they happen not to have rixdollars to pay therewith the cuſtom, and other duties payable on the goods they enter, may pay in current money, at the rate of 125 copyks for one rixdollar.

VI. Engliſh ſhips that come to load or unload merchandizes belonging to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, ſhall be uſed with all kindneſs and diſpatch, according to the regulations, without being detained in any manner whatſoever, on pain of the penalties mentioned in the regulations: and ſhould the ſubjects of Great-Britain enter into any contract with any chancery, or college, for the delivery of any goods or merchandizes, on their giving notice that the ſame are ready to be delivered, they ſhall be received, agreeable to the time appointed in the contract, after which, the account ſhall be adjuſted and ſettled, in ſuch a time as it was agreed upon in the contract between the chancery, or college, and the Engliſh merchants.

VII. It is ſtipulated, that in any town or place of Ruſſia, where any other nations are admitted, the ſubjects of Great-Britain may pay for goods bought the ſame currency as has been received for goods ſold, unleſs there be any particular agreement to the contrary.

VIII. It is ſtipulated, that the ſubjects of Great-Britain may bring to Ruſſia all ſorts of goods or merchandizes, and carry them through the dominions of Ruſſia, the ſhorteſt or moſt convenient way, to Perſia, paying 3 per cent. in rixdollars, ad valorem, for duties and tranſit of the ſaid goods, and no more, under any pretence whatſoever. Nevertheleſs, the Engliſh merchants ſhall be obliged to agree with the Ruſſian ſubjects for the carriage charges, either by water or by land, making them a reaſonable allowance for the ſame; and the moſt ſtrict orders ſhall be given, that the Engliſh merchants may meet with all diſpatch and eaſe upon the road. They likewiſe may bring from Perſia any goods or merchandizes, and carry them through Ruſſia with the ſame liberty and eaſe, paying only 3 per cent. in rixdollars, ad valorem, for duties and tranſit, reckoning the rixdollars as uſual in the Ruſſian cuſtoms. And in order to prevent all frauds of Engliſh ſubjects, and all vexation and delay of Ruſſian officers, Engliſh merchants ſhall declare the goods deſigned to be carried through Ruſſia, either to or from Perſia, at the firſt Ruſſian place they arrive, which ſhall be received and admitted on the bill of lading, policy, or regiſter, according to the value declared, on which a duty of 3 per cent. ſhall be paid, without opening or unpacking the merchandizes, any more than is abſolutely neceſſary to ſatisfy the Ruſſian officer that the merchandizes ſpecified in the bill of lading, policy, or regiſter, and no other, or others, are contained in the bale in which the merchandizes are packed. But in caſe the Ruſſian officer have any grounds to ſuſpect that the goods are not declared to their right value, within 20 per cent. then the Ruſſian officer, paying to the merchant the value declared, and 20 per

cent. over and above it, without any deduction, may take the goods and diſpoſe thereof. After the Ruſſian officer's inſpection, which is to be done without vexation or detriment to the goods or package, he ſhall fix leaden ſeals to the packs, or bales, that contain the goods, number and mark them, and deliver to the merchant a certificate of the payment of the duties; and by virtue of that certificate, leaden ſeal, mark, and number, they ſhall have a free paſſage through Ruſſia, either going to or coming from Perſia, without any obſtacle or moleſtation: but ſhould the merchants not carry any or all the bales through Ruſſia, according to the declaration, or ſhould the ſeals be taken off, and any goods taken out in Ruſſia, if there is any reaſon to ſuſpect ſuch a conduct, in oppoſition to the true ſenſe and meaning of this article, ſuch merchant ſhall be fined, and pay the whole value declared of the pack, or bale, that ſhall be wanting, or to which the ſeal ſhould not be found.

IX. It ſhall be permitted to the ſubjects of both contracting parties reciprocally, in all accuſtomed places of export, to load on board their own ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, or any other, all merchandizes bought by them, excepting only ſuch as are prohibited to be exported, and freely to ſend or carry away the ſame, provided they have paid the duties, and ſuch ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, have been cleared according to law.

X. The ſubjects of either party ſhall pay no more cuſtom or duties, on the importation or exportation of goods, than what the ſubjects of any other nation pay for the ſame goods. And in order to prevent any frauds in the duties on either ſide, the merchandizes which ſhall be found to have been ſmuggled in without paying the duties, ſhall be confiſcated, and no other puniſhment inflicted on the merchant of either ſide.

XI. The ſubjects of either party may freely paſs, repaſs, or travel, in all countries which now are, or hereafter ſhall be at enmity with the other of the ſaid parties, places actually blocked up or beſieged only excepted, provided they do not carry any warlike ſtores or ammunition to the enemy: as for all other effects, their ſhips, paſſengers and goods ſhall be free and unmoleſted.

XII. Cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, granadoes, bullets, balls, fuzees, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, cuiraſſes, pikes, ſwords, belts, pouches, cartouche-boxes, ſaddles and bridles, in any quantity beyond what may be neceſſary for the ſhip's proviſion, and may properly appertain to, and be judged neceſſary for, every man of the ſhip's crew, or for each paſſenger, ſhall be deemed ammunition of war; and if any ſuch be there found, they may ſeize and confiſcate the ſame according to law: but neither the veſſels, paſſengers, or the reſt of the goods, ſhall be detained for that reaſon, or hindered from purſuing their voyage.

XIII. In caſe of a rupture between the contracting parties, (which God forbid) effects or veſſels of the ſubjects of either party ſhall not be detained or confiſcated, but there ſhall be the ſpace of one year at leaſt allowed them, wherein they may ſell, diſpoſe, carry off, or ſend away their effects, and tranſport their perſons.

XIV. The merchants, mariners, veſſels, or effects of either party, ſhall not be arreſted or forced into ſervice, without their own conſent, under any pretence whatſoever; and if any ſervant, or mariner, deſerts his ſervice or veſſel, he ſhall be delivered up: but nothing contained in this article is to be ſo underſtood, as to tend to the hinderance or obſtruction of the ordinary courſe of juſtice on either ſide.

XV. In caſe of wreck on any part of the dominions of the contracting parties, all ſorts of aſſiſtance ſhall be given the unfortunate; no violence ſhall be done them, nor ſhall their effects, ſaved either by themſelves or others, or drove aſhore, be hidden or detained from them; neither ſhall they be hurt, under any pretext whatſoever, but they ſhall be preſerved for them, and they ſhall pay what is reaſonable, for the aſſiſtance given to their perſons, ſhips, or effects.

XVI. Engliſh merchants may buy, build, or rent houſes, and ſell or diſpoſe of them, either at St Peterſburgh, Moſcow, in the German Slabod, Aſtracan, and Archangel; and in thoſe places their houſes ſhall be exmpted from lodging ſoldiers; in all other places they may likewiſe buy, ſell, or rent houſes, but there they ſhall be ſubject to quartering ſoldiers, equally as other inhabitants. Ruſſian merchants may alſo build, buy, or rent houſes in Great-Britain or Ireland, and ſell or diſpoſe of them, provided they qualify themſelves for that purpoſe, in the like manner as the ſubjects of any other the moſt favoured nations are obliged to do, and they ſhall be free of lodging ſoldiers, and have a free exerciſe of the Greek religion, either in their houſes, or any place appointed for that purpoſe.

XVII. Paſſports ſhall be given to all Engliſh ſubjects that might have a mind to retire from Ruſſia, two months after having given notice thereof, without obliging them to give any ſecurity, if in that time there appear no juſt cauſe to detain them, without obliging them to apply for their paſſports any where elſe than to the college of commerce, or any other that may hereafter be ſubſtituted for the ſame. The ſame care and diſpatch to depart, the Ruſſian ſubjects ſhall have in the dominions of Great-Britain, according to what is cuſtomary in that country on ſuch occaſions.

XVIII. Engliſh merchants that take into their ſervice, or hire any ſervants in Ruſſia, with ſuch paſſports as the court of juſtice thinks proper to regiſter, ſhall afterwards not be obliged to pay for the ſame to the maſters of thoſe ſervants, any more than what the Engliſh merchants and the ſervants agreed between them; but the Engliſh merchants ſhall not keep the ſervants longer than the time allowed them by the paſſports of their maſters, and without poker meſnoys no ſervant ſhall be taken into ſervice, or hired: and if the merchants take a ſecurity for the honeſty of the ſervant, and it happen that the ſervant do not behave well, and cheat ſome body, the merchant ſhall not anſwer for it, but the ſecurity. Ruſſian merchants ſhall have the ſame reciprocal ſecurity and juſtice in the dominions of Great-Britain, for the ſervants they may there hire, agreeable to the laws of the land.

XIX. All affairs of Engliſh merchants in Ruſſia ſhall be under the cognizance only of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be appointed hereafter, in lieu of this college, to take cognizance of foreign merchants affairs, and no other. Ruſſian merchants in the dominion of Great-Britain ſhall be under the protection of the laws of that kingdom, as all other foreigners are, and ſhall be treated as the moſt favoured nation.

XX. Engliſh merchants ſhall not be obliged to produce their books or papers to any body whatſoever, unleſs to bear witneſs in courts of juſtice; nor ſhall their books or papers be taken away and detained from them, neither ſhall their effects be diſtrained or ſold, under any pretence whatſoever, except in caſe of a bankruptcy, and then only by decree of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be hereafter appointed, in lieu of that college, to take care of the affairs of foreign merchants; and Ruſſian merchants in Great-Britain ſhall be protected by the laws, as the preceding article directs.

XXI. In caſe of a law ſuit, four reputable perſons among the foreign merchants ſhall be named by the college of commerce, to inſpect into the books and papers of the plaintiff, if the caſe require it, and their report to the college of commerce ſhall be a ſufficient evidence.

XXII. The cuſtom-houſe ſhall take care to examine the Ruſſian merchants ſervants, when they ſign bargains, whether they have orders or powers of their maſters for ſo doing: if not, they ſhall not be truſted. The ſame ſhall be obſerved in regard to the Engliſh merchants ſervants, and the bargains ſhall be for the maſters account, who, if they have given orders or powers to their ſervants, ſhall then be anſwerable as if they had made the bargain themſelves. All Ruſſian ſervants employed in ſhops ſhall alſo be regiſtered, and their tranſactions.

XXIII. If any Ruſſian merchants indebted to Engliſh merchants, quit the place where they lived, and retire into the country, and it happen that during their abſence, petitions be brought againſt them, proving the debt, then the college of commerce ſhall ſummon them thrice, allowing a ſufficient time for their appearance before the college; but ſhould they not appear, the college ſhall condemn them, and ſend an expreſs, at the charge of the plaintiff, to the governors, with orders to put the ſentence in execution, obliging the debtor to pay his debt.

XXIV. The Ruſſian merchants that come with their goods ſhall enter them as ſoon as poſſible at the cuſtom-houſe, and, when ſold, ſhall write down the quantity, weight and meaſure, as the regulations direct.

XXV. The bracks ſhall be equitably eſtabliſhed, and ſet in good order; the brackers ſhall be anſwerable for the quality of the goods, and falſe package, and ſubject to pay the loſſes, on proof being brought againſt them.

XXVI. Regulations ſhall be eſtabliſhed for removing abuſes which there may be in the package of hides and threads; in the interim, if any diſpute ariſe between buyer and ſeller, in regard to the tare of any goods, the cuſtom-houſe ſhall decide it, according to reaſon and equity.

XXVII. For a greater convenience and encouragement of the trade of Great-Britain, it is agreed that the following Engliſh woollen goods ſhall hereafter pay no more duty than what is ſet down in this article, viz. Engliſh cloth for ſoldiers ſhall pay no more than two copyks, in rixdollars, for each archine; the coarſe cloth of the county of York, known in the Ruſſian tariff by the name of koſtrogi, ſhall pay no more than two copyks, in rixdollars, for each archine; broad flannels only one copyk, in rixdollars, for each archine; and narrow flannels, but three quarters of a copyk, in rixdollars, for each archine.

XXVIII. It is agreed and concluded that the ſubjects of both parties ſhall be reſpected and treated, in their reſpective dominions, in like manner as the moſt favoured nation; and the ſubjects of Ruſſia which ſhall come into England, in order to learn arts and commerce there, ſhall be protected, favoured, and inſtructed: likewiſe, if any Ruſſian veſſels ſhall be met with out at ſea by any Engliſh veſſels, they ſhall in no wiſe be hindered or moleſted by them, provided they comport

port themſelves in the Britiſh Seas in the accuſtomed manner; but on the contrary, they ſhall be favoured by them, and that in the very ports or havens belonging to the dominions of Great-Britain.

XXIX. Peace, amity, and good underſtanding, ſhall continue for ever between the contracting parties; and as it is uſual to limit treaties of commerce for a certain ſpace of time, it is agreed between the contracting parties that this ſhall continue for the ſpace of fifteen years, to be computed from the day of ſigning this preſent treaty: and that before the expiration of the ſaid term, they ſhall come to a further mutual agreement for renewing and prolonging the ſame.

Articles of PEACE and COMMERCE between the moſt high and renowned prince George II, &c. and the moſt high and glorious, mighty, and right noble prince, Muley Hammet Dahebby, Ben Muley Iſmael, Ben Muley Zeridh, Ben Muley Aly, king and emperor of the kingdom of Fez and Morocco, &c. January 14, 1728.

I. That all Moors or Jews ſubject to the emperor of Morocco ſhall be allowed a free traffic, viz. to buy or ſell for 30 days in the city of Gibraltar, or iſland of Minorca, and not to reſide in either place, but to depart with their effects, without let or moleſtation, to any part of the ſaid emperor of Morocco's dominions.

II. That the king of Great-Britain's ſubjects reſiding in Barbary ſhall not be obliged to appear before the cadi, or juſtice of the country; but only the governor of the place, and his Britannic Majeſty's conſuls, are to take cognizance of, and adjuſt the differences they may have with the natives of the country.

III. That the menial ſervants of his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, though natives of the country, either Moors or Jews, be exempt from taxes of all kinds.

IV. That all his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, as well paſſengers as others, taken by any of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's cruizers, on board any foreign ſhip or veſſel whatever, ſhall immediately be ſet at liberty, and ſent to the city of Gibraltar.

V. That there be permiſſion for buying proviſions, and all other neceſſaries, for his Britannic Majeſty's fleet, or city of Gibraltar, at any of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's ſea-ports, at the market prices, and the ſame to be ſhipped off without paying cuſtom, as has been extorted lately, contrary to the treaty of peace ſubſiſting.

VI. All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjuſted, by the honourable Charles Steward, Eſq; on the behalf of his Britannic Majeſty, and by his excellency baſhaw Hamet Ben Aly, Ben Abdalla, and his imperial Majeſty's treaſurer, Mr Moſes Ben Hatter, a Jew, on behalf of the ſaid king of Fez and Morocco, ſhall ſtand good, and be of the ſame force, as in the reign of the moſt high and renowned prince George I, king of Great-Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high and glorious, mighty and right noble prince, Albumazer Muley Iſmael, late emperor of Morocco. And it is farther agreed, That all the articles aforementioned, as well the fifteen, as theſe additional ones, ſhall, in twenty days after the date hereof, be publiſhed in the Arabic language, and affixed on the gates of all the ſea-port towns in his imperial Majeſty's dominions. Signed and dated at the court of Mequinez. January 14, $17\frac{27}{28}$.

A TREATY of PEACE and FRIENDSHIP between the king of Great-Britain and the emperor of Morocco, in 1751.

George the Second, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, &c. duke of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, arch-treaſurer, and prince elector of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. to all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting: Whereas a treaty for eſtabliſhing peace and friendſhip was concluded and ſigned on the 15th of December, 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbei the Firſt, in the year 1164, which is, in Engliſh ſtile, the 15th day of January, 1750, O. S. and the additional articles of peace and commerce, concluded and ſigned at the court of Fez, on the 1ſt of February, 1751, N. S. between us and the high, glorious, potent, and noble prince, Mulay Abedela, Ben Mulay Iſmael, Ben Mulay Seriph, Ben Mulay Aly, king and emperor of the kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, &c. by William Petticrew, Eſq; our conſul-general, on our part, and by the alcaide Habed Lohah Ben Hamed Limury, firſt miniſter, on the behalf, and by order of, the ſaid king of Fez and Morocco, in the words and form following:

The TREATY of PEACE between his Majeſty George the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Mulay Abedela, Ben Iſmael, king and emperor of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. For eſtabliſhing peace and friendſhip, it is agreed and concluded for firm and valid, both by land and ſea, in all the dominions of both powers, that the Engliſh in general ſhall and may, now, and at all times hereafter, enjoy and continue in peace and friendſhip with the emperor and his ſubjects, and be well uſed and reſpected by the emperor's ſubjects, agreeable to the order and commands of the emperor.

II. That ſuch number or quantity of paſſports as may be neceſſary, be tranſmitted to the emperor, indented in ſuch manner as ſhall tally with the paſſports that ſhall be received by the Engliſh merchants in England; and if an Engliſh man of war meets with any merchant ſhips belonging to the emperor, ſuch merchant ſhips ſhall be obliged to produce and ſhew their paſſports, given to them by the Engliſh conſul.

III. If any diſpute ſhall happen between the Engliſh and the emperor's ſubjects, the ſame not to be determined by a judge, but ended and adjuſted by the Engliſh conſul and the coyed, that is, the mayor of the town where ſuch diſpute ſhall happen.

IV. That none of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall, at any time, forcibly enter the houſes of the Engliſh, or any place belonging to them, or take and carry away any of their goods and effects, unleſs they have leave and authority from the emperor ſo to do: that if any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall hire any Engliſh ſhip to carry and convey goods from one part of the emperor's dominions to another, and ſhall happen by ſtreſs of weather, or any other occaſion, to touch at any place or places in the voyage, ſuch ſhip or ſhips ſhall not be obliged to pay any thing for the ſhelter or aſſiſtance they may receive; and that no Engliſh whatever, or any of their ſervants (though not Engliſh) ſhall be liable to pay the tax impoſed upon the emperor's ſubjects, called the poll-tax.

V. That the fifteen articles of peace made and concluded between king George the Firſt and Mulay Iſmael, are hereby agreed to and confirmed, with his Majeſty king George the Second, as good and valid, and ſhall be faithfully kept and obſerved, together with the aforeſaid four articles.

TREATY of PEACE between his Majeſty George the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Mulay Abedela Ben Iſmael, king and emperor of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. That if any Engliſh ſhall happen to be on board any ſhip, or ſhips, enemies to the emperor, that may be taken by the emperor's ſhips, ſuch Engliſh ſhall be well treated, delivered into the hands of the Engliſh conſul, and have liberty to go where they pleaſe: this article to continue in force for ſix months from the concluſion of this peace; in which time, it is required that notice ſhall be given by the king of Great-Britain to all the Engliſh ſubjects, not to embark on board any of the emperor's enemies ſhips; for after that time, if the Engliſh ſhall ſo embark, the blame muſt be their own, as no regard will be had to them more than the emperor's enemies.

II. If any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall be made ſlaves, and eſcape to an Engliſh man of war, or to Gibraltar, Port Mahon, or any of the Engliſh dominions, that they ſhall be protected, and with all convenient ſpeed ſent to their reſpective homes. The like treatment to be given to the Engliſh who ſhall be ſlaves, and eſcape to any part of the emperor's dominions.

III. If any Engliſh ſhall contract any thing to be paid to the emperor's ſubjects, notes ſhall be given for the ſame; and in like manner the ſame to be obſerved by the emperor's ſubjects in the Engliſh dominions; and if it ſhall happen that ſuch ſubjects of either power cannot write, to get ſome perſon to write ſuch notes for them.

IV. That no excuſe be made, or ignorance of this peace pretended, the ſame ſhall be publiſhed and declared to all the ſubjects of both powers, both what is now agreed on, and the articles concluded with king George the Firſt; which declaration ſhall be ſigned by each power, and by them kept, to prevent diſputes. This treaty was concluded the 15th of December, 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbei the Firſt, in the year 1164, which is, in Engliſh ſtile, the 15th of January, 1750.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE between the moſt high, illuſtrious, and moſt renowned prince, George the Second, &c. and the high, glorious, mighty, and moſt noble prince, Mulay Abedela, Ben Mulay Iſmael, Ben Mulay Seriph, Ben Mulay Aly, king and emperor of the kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, Taffilete, Sus, &c.

I. It is agreed on and concluded, That from henceforward there ſhall be, between his Majeſty of Great-Britain, prince and elector of Hanover, &c and the king of Fez and Morocco, their heirs and ſucceſſors, a general, true, and perfect peace for ever, as well by land as by ſea and freſh waters; and alſo between the lands, kingdoms, dominions, and territories belonging to, or under the juriſdiction of his Britannic Majeſty in Germany, and thoſe appertaining to the king of Fez and Morocco; and their ſubjects, people, or inhabitants reſpectively, of what condition, degree, or quality ſoever, from henceforth reciprocally ſhall owe the other all friendſhip;

ſhip; and that all ſhips, veſſels, paſſengers with their effects, trafficking voluntary, or compelled by enemies, diſaſters of the ſeas, or any accident whatſoever, to the coaſts of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's dominions, being his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects in Germany, ſhall from henceforth be treated according to the ſaid regulations, as ſpecified by the treaties of peace now ſubſiſting between his Britannic Majeſty and the king of Fez and Morocco.

II. It is agreed that all ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Britannic Majeſty in Germany, ſhall carry a proper paſs, and that a copy of ſuch paſs, with the heads of the ſaid paſſes, ſhall be ſent to his Britannic Majeſty's conſul reſiding in Barbary, to the end that he may deliver the ſame to the commanders, or captains, of the king of Fez and Morocco's ſhips of war, or cruizers, to the end that due regard may be had to this peace, and that no commander or captain may offend through ignorance; and all commanders or captains of ſhips or veſſels belonging to his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects in Germany, meeting with any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the king of Fez or Morocco, or his ſubjects, if the commander of ſuch ſhip or veſſel produce a paſs, ſigned by the governor of the city they belong to, with a certificate from the Engliſh conſul, and, in caſe of his death or abſence, from the major part of the Engliſh merchants reſiding in the ſaid place, in ſuch caſes, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſhall purſue freely her voyage, without hindrance or moleſtation.

III. It is agreed that the king of Great-Britain's ſubjects ſhall not be obliged to appear before juſtices of the country in any cauſe, but that only the governor of the city, and his Britannic Majeſty's conſul, ſhall take cognizance of, and adjuſt the difference or ſuits they may have with the Moors, or other inhabitants in the dominions of the king of Fez and Morocco.

IV. It is agreed that no governor or officer under the king of Fez and Morocco ſhall, without the king's ſpecial order, viſit or regiſter the dwelling-houſes or magazines of any of his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in Barbary; and that all Britiſh ſhips taking freight in any port of the king of Fez and Morocco, to carry to other ports of the ſaid kingdom, ſhall be exempted from all port-charges, as uſual, in whatever port they may put in; and that the conſul, and the other Britiſh merchants, ſhall be freely allowed to have Moors, or Jews, as their interpreters and brokers, who ſhall be exempted from all taxes, as likewiſe all their domeſtic ſervants.

All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjuſted, by the admiral Charles Stewart, on the behalf of his Britannic Majeſty, and by his excellency baſhaw Hamet Ben Alay Ben Abdalla, and his Imperial Majeſty's treaſurer, Mr Moſes Benatar, on behalf of the ſaid king of Fez and Morocco, ſhall ſtand good, and be of the ſame force, as in the reign of the moſt high, illuſtrious, and renowned prince, George the Firſt, king of Great-Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high, mighty, and moſt noble prince, Mulay Iſmael, late emperor of Morocco, as likewiſe the other articles, being three in number, agreed and concluded by John Leonard Sollicoffree, Eſq; on behalf of his Britannic Majeſty, and his excellency baſhaw Hamet Ben Aly Ben Abdalla on behalf of the king of Fez and Morocco.

It is agreed on and concluded, that all the articles aforementioned, being eighteen in number, with theſe additional articles, that are tranſlated into the Arabic language, copies thereof be ſent to all his Imperial Majeſty's alcaides, and officers of all the ports in his dominions, there to be read by the cady or chief juſtice, in public aſſembly, and afterwards to remain depoſited, either in the hands of the judge, or the alcaide of the port, that recourſe may be had thereto on all occaſions which may occur; and that the ratifications of the ſaid articles ſhall be made within the term of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible, in Spaniſh, which ſhall be received, and be of equal force. Dated and ſigned at the court of Fez, on the 1ſt of February, 1751, N. S.

Signed ABDELHOVAH ALY MOORY.

TREATY of PEACE between his Majeſty George the Firſt, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Muli Iſmael, ſon of Muli Alli Sherife, king of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. In order to eſtabliſh peace between the powers, both by land and ſea, and all their reſpective dominions, it is agreed on, that the Engliſh may now, and always hereafter, be well uſed and reſpected by our ſubjects, agreeable to the orders and commands of the emperor.

II. That all Engliſh men of war and merchant-ſhips, that ſhall come to any part of the emperor's dominions, to trade or otherwiſe, and ſhall have on board a cargo not proper for vending in the place where they ſhall come, may depart with the ſame to any other part of the emperor's dominions, and ſhall pay duty but once for the ſame; and that no duty at all ſhall be paid for any war implements, ſuch as fire-arms, ſwords, and any thing belonging to the army, as alſo for materials of all kinds for ſhip-building; and if any Engliſh ſhip ſhall arrive at any of the emperor's ports, with any merchandize deſtined for any other part of the world, that no duty ſhall be paid for ſuch merchandize, but ſhall depart with the ſame, without any manner of moleſtation. If any Engliſh ſhip ſhall be thrown upon the emperor's coaſts by ſtreſs of weather, or otherwiſe, the ſame ſhall be protected, and may ſafely depart, without any ill uſage or interruption. In like manner ſhall be treated the emperor's ſubjects happening to be thus thrown on the coaſt of Great-Britain, or the dominions thereto belonging.

III. That all the Engliſh ſhips and emperor's ſhips may paſs and repaſs the ſeas without hinderance, interruption, or moleſtation, from each other; nor ſhall any money, merchandize, or any demand be made or taken, by the ſhips of either power from each other; and if any ſubjects of any other nation ſhall be on board either the Engliſh or the emperor's ſhips, they ſhall be ſafely protected by both parties.

IV. If the emperor's men of war meet with any Engliſh ſhips, and ſhall want to ſee their paſſports, they are to ſend a boat, with two men of fidelity, to peruſe the ſaid paſſports, who are to return without any farther trouble, and then both ſides to proceed quietly on their reſpective voyages; the ſame uſage to be received by the emperor's merchant-ſhips from the Engliſh men of war, who ſhall allow the paſſports made out by the Engliſh conſul, and, if the conſul ſhall not be preſent to make them, then the paſſports made out by the Engliſh merchants to be good and valid.

V. If the Engliſh men of war, privateers, or letter of marque ſhips ſhall take prizes from any nation with whom they ſhall be at war, they ſhall have liberty to bring and diſpoſe of the ſame in any of the emperor's dominions, without any duty or charge whatſoever.

VI. If any Engliſh ſhip ſhall by ſtorm, or in flying from her enemy, come upon the emperor's coaſts, the ſame ſhall be ſafely protected, and nothing touched and taken away, but ſhall be under the direction of the Engliſh conſul, who ſhall ſend the goods and people where he ſhall think fit.

VII. It is the mutual agreement of the king of Great-Britain and the emperor, that the emperor do iſſue out orders to all parts of his dominions, for the well uſing of all the Engliſh ſubjects, and that particular places be appointed for the burial of their dead; that the conſuls, brokers, ſhall freely go on board any ſhip, without interruption; that the Engliſh conſuls, merchants, and other ſubjects of Great-Britain, may ſafely travel by land with effects, without any hindrance whatever; and if any Engliſh ſettled in the emperor's dominions ſhall be deſirous to return home, that they may ſo do, with their families, goods, and effects, without interruption: if any Engliſh die, the effects of ſuch to be taken under the care of the conſul, to be diſpoſed of as directed by the will of ſuch perſon, and, if no will, for the benefit of ſuch perſon's next heir; and if any debts ſhall be owing to ſuch deceaſed perſon, the ſame to be paid by order of the governor, or any other perſon in power, where ſuch perſon ſhall die; and that a ſubject of the emperor's be appointed to demand and receive the ſame, and depoſit the ſame in the hands of the Engliſh conſul, for the aforeſaid uſes. If any Engliſh ſhall contract debts in the emperor's country, and remove from thence without ſatisfying the ſame, no other perſons ſhall be liable to pay ſuch debts. The like uſage and treatment the ſubjects of the emperor are to receive in the king of Great-Britain's dominions; and that the king may ſend as many conſuls to the emperor's dominions as he ſhall think neceſſary.

VIII. That no Engliſh merchant, captains of ſhips, or other perſon or perſons whatſoever, that are Engliſh ſubjects, ſhall be forced to ſell any of their goods for leſs than the real value; and that no captain, maſter, or commander of any Engliſh ſhip ſhall be compelled, without their own will and conſent, to carry any goods or merchandizes for any perſon or perſons, whatſoever; nor ſhall any ſailor be forced away from any Engliſh ſhip.

IX. If any quarrel or diſpute ſhall happen between any Engliſhman and a Muſſu'man, by which hurt to either may enſue, the ſame to be heard before, and determined by the emperor only; and if an Engliſhman, who may be the aggreſſor, ſhall make his eſcape, no other Engliſhman ſhall ſuffer upon his account; and if two Engliſhmen ſhall quarrel, to be determined by the Engliſh conſul, who ſhall do with them as he pleaſes: and if any quarrel or diſpute ſhall happen between Muſſulmen in England, or in any of the Engliſh dominions, by which hurt may enſue, the ſame to be heard before one Chriſtian and one Muſſulman, and to be determined according to the laws of Great-Britain.

X. If it ſhall happen that this peace, by any means, ſhall be broke, the conſul, and all other Engliſh, ſhall have ſix months time to remove themſelves, with their families and effects, to any place they pleaſe, without interruption, and that all debts owing to them ſhall be juſtly paid to them.

XI. If any Engliſh in the emperor's dominions, or the emperor's ſubjects in the Engliſh dominions, ſhall maliciouſly endeavour to break the peace, ſuch of them who ſhall be proved to ſo intend, ſhall by each power be puniſhed for ſuch offence, each power to take cognizance of their own ſubjects.

XII. If any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall purchaſe any commodity in the Engliſh dominions, they ſhall not be impoſed on in price, but pay the ſame as is ſold to the Engliſh.

XIII. That

XIII. That not any of the Spaniſh, whether captains, ſailors, or other perſons, under the Engliſh government in Gibraltar or Port-Mahon, ſhall be taken or moleſted, ſailing under Engliſh colours, with paſſports.

XIV. That no excuſe be made, or ignorance pretended, of this peace, the ſame ſhall be publiſhed and declared to all the ſubjects of each power, which declaration ſhall be ſigned by each power, and kept by them to prevent diſputes.

XV. If any man of war ſhall be on the emperor's coaſts, that are enemies to the Engliſh, and any Engliſh men of war, or other Engliſh ſhips, ſhall happen to be, or arrive there alſo, that they ſhall not in any manner be hurt, or engaged by their enemy; and when ſuch Engliſh ſhips ſhall ſail, their enemies ſhips ſhall not ſet ſail under forty hours afterwards.

And if, after the concluſion of this peace, any ſhip ſhall happen to be taken by either powers, within ſix months after the proclamation of the peace, that the ſame, with the people and effects, ſhall be reſtored. Made and declared in the preſence of the emperor's ſervant, Ahammad Baſha, ſon of Alli, ſon of Abdalla, by the authority given to him by the emperor. Dated this 23d of January, in the year 1721, Engliſh ſtile. Wrote and given to Charles Stewart, Eſq; the Engliſh ambaſſador, in the ſeventh year of the reign of our late royal father, king George the Firſt.

We having ſeen and conſidered the abnve-written treaty, with the additional articles, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the ſame, in all and ſingular their clauſes, as by theſe preſents we do approve, ratify, and confirm the ſame for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, engaging and promiſing, on our royal word, ſacredly and inviolably to perform and obſerve all and ſingular their contents, and never to ſuffer, as far as in us lies, any perſon to violate the ſame, or in any manner to act contrary thereto. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed our great ſeal of Great-Britain to be affixed to theſe preſents, ſigned with our own royal hand. Given at our court at Kenſington, the thirty-firſt day of July, in the year of our Lord 1751, and of our reign the 25th.

GEORGE R.

ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Charles II. by the grace, &c. and moſt illuſtrious lords the baſha, dey, and aga, governors of the famous city and kingdom of Algiers, &c. concluded by Arthur Herbert, Eſq; admiral of his Majeſty's fleet, April 10, O. S. 1682.—With the few alterations made and included at the renewal thereof in 1686: all which are, for diſtinction, in a different character.

I. In the firſt place it is agreed and concluded, That from this day, and for ever forwards, there be a true, firm, and inviolable peace between the moſt ſerene king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, &c. and the moſt illuſtrious lords the baſha, dey, and aga, governors of the city and kingdom of Algiers, and between all the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide; and that the ſhips, or other veſſels, and the ſubjects and people of both ſides, ſhall not henceforth do to each other any harm, offence, or injury, either in word or deed, but ſhall treat one another with all poſſible reſpect and friendſhip; and that all demands and pretenſions whatſoever, to this day, between both parties, ſhall ceaſe and be void.

II. That any of the ſhips or other veſſels, belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, &c. or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, may ſafely come to the port of Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, there freely to buy and ſell, paying the uſual cuſtoms of 10 per cent. as in former times, for ſuch goods as they ſell; and the goods they ſell not, they ſhall freely carry on board, without paying any duties for the ſame: and that they ſhall freely depart from thence whenſoever they pleaſe, without any ſtop or hinderance whatſoever. As to contraband merchandizes, as powder, brimſtone, iron, planks, and all ſorts of timber fit for building of ſhips, ropes, pitch, tar, fuſils, and other habiliments of war, his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects ſhall pay no duty for the ſame to thoſe of Algiers.

III. That all ſhips, and other veſſels, as well thoſe belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, as thoſe belonging to the kingdom or people of Algiers, ſhall freely paſs the ſeas, and traffic, without any ſearch, hinderance, or moleſtation, from each other; and that all perſons or paſſengers, of what country ſoever, and all monies, goods, merchandizes and moveables, to whatſoever people or nation belonging, being on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels ſhall be wholly free, and ſhall not be ſtopped, taken or plundered, nor receive any harm or damage whatſoever from either party.

IV. That the Algiers ſhips of war, or other veſſels, meeting with any merchant-ſhips, or other veſſels, of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, not being in any of the ſeas appertaining to his Majeſty's dominions, may ſend on board one ſingle boat, with two ſitters only, beſides the ordinary crew of rowers; and that no more ſhall enter any ſuch merchant-ſhip, or veſſel, without expreſs leave from the commander thereof, but the two ſitters alone; and, upon producing a paſs under the hand and ſeal of the lord high admiral of England and Ireland, or of the lord high admiral of Scotland, for the ſaid kingdoms reſpectively, or under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of any of the ſaid kingdoms, that the ſaid ſhip ſhall proceed freely on her voyage; and that, altho', for the ſpace of fifteen months next enſuing after the concluſion of this peace, the ſaid commander of the merchant ſhip, or veſſel, produces no ſuch paſs, yet if the major part of the ſeamen of the ſaid ſhip, or veſſel, be ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great Britain, the ſaid boat ſhall immediately depart, and the ſaid merchant-ſhip, or veſſel, ſhall freely proceed on her voyage: but that, after the ſaid fifteen months, all merchant-ſhips, or veſſels, of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be obliged to produce ſuch a paſs as aforeſaid. And any of the ſhips of war of his ſaid Majeſty, meeting with any ſhips, or other veſſels of Algiers, if the commander of any ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall produce a paſs, confirmed by the chief governors of Algiers, and a certificate from the Engliſh conſul there reſiding, or if they have no ſuch paſs, or certificate, yet if, for the ſpace of fifteen months next enſuing the concluſion of this peace, the major part of the ſhip's company be Turks, Moors, or ſlaves belonging to Algiers, then the ſaid Algiers ſhips or veſſels ſhall proceed freely; but that after the ſaid fifteen months, all Algiers ſhips or veſſels ſhall be obliged to produce ſuch a paſs and certificate as aforeſaid.—THE ONLY ALTERATION IN THIS REGARDS THE FIFTEEN MONTHS TERM ALLOWED FOR PASSES, &c.

V. That no commander, or other perſon, of any ſhip or veſſel of Algiers, ſhall take out of any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, any perſon or perſons whatſoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence; nor ſhall they uſe any torture or violence to any perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever, being on board any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. That no ſhipwreck belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or to any of his ſubjects, upon any part of the coaſt belonging to Algiers, ſhall be made, or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof ſhall be ſeized, nor the men made ſlaves, but that all the ſubjects of Algiers ſhall uſe their beſt endeavours to ſave the ſaid men and their goods.

VII. That no ſhip, or any other veſſel of Algiers, ſhall have permiſſion to be delivered up, or go to Sallee, or any place in enmity with the ſaid king of Great-Britain, to be made uſe of as corſairs, or ſea rovers, againſt his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects.

VIII. That none of the ſhips, or other ſmaller veſſels of Algiers, ſhall remain cruiſing near, or in ſight of his Majeſty's city and garriſon of Tangier, or of any other his Majeſty's roads, havens, ports, towns, and places, nor any way diſturb the peace and commerce of the ſame. TANGIER NOW OMITTED.

IX. That if any ſhip, or veſſel, of Tunis, Tripoly, or Sallee, or of any other place, bring any ſhips, veſſels, men, or goods, belonging to any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, to Algiers, or to any port or place in that kingdom, the governors there ſhall not permit them to be ſold within the territories of Algiers.

X. That if any of the ſhips of war of the ſaid king of Great-Britain do come to Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely ſell it, or otherwiſe diſpoſe of it at pleaſure, without being moleſted by any: and that his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall not be obliged to pay cuſtoms in any ſort; and that if they ſhall want proviſions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rates in the market.

XI. That when any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall appear before Algiers, upon notice thereof given by the Engliſh conſul, or by the commander of the ſaid ſhips, to the chief governors of Algiers, public proclamation ſhall be immediately made to ſecure the Chriſtian captives: and if, after that, any Chriſtians whatſoever make their eſcape on board any of the ſaid ſhips of war, they ſhall not be required; nor ſhall the ſaid conſul or commander, or any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the ſaid Chriſtians.

XII. That from and after the time that the ratification of this treaty by the king of Great-Britain, ſhall be delivered to the chief governors of Algiers, no ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty ſhall be bought or ſold, or made ſlaves in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, upon any pretence whatſoever. And the ſaid king of Great-Britain ſhall not be obliged, by virtue of this treaty of peace, to redeem any of his ſubjects now in ſlavery, or who may be made ſlaves before the ſaid ratification; but it ſhall depend abſolutely upon his Majeſty, or the friends and relations of the ſaid perſons in ſlavery, without any limitation or reſtriction of time, to redeem ſuch, or ſo many of them, from time to time, as ſhall be thought fit, agreeing for as reaſonable a price as may be, with their patrons or maſters, for their redemption, without obliging the ſaid patrons or maſters, againſt their wills, to ſet any at liberty, whether they be ſlaves belonging to the beylic (or public), the gallies, or ſuch as belong particularly to the baſha,

dey, aga, or any other perſon whatſoever. And all ſlaves, being his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall, when they are redeemed, enjoy the abatements of the duty due to the royal houſe, and of the other charges, by paying ſuch reaſonable ſums as any ſlaves of other nations uſually pay when they are redeemed.

XIII. That if any ſubject of the ſaid king of Great-Britain happen to die in Algiers, or in any part of its territories, his goods or monies ſhall not be ſeized by the governors, judges, or other officers of Algiers, who likewiſe ſhall not make any enquiry after them: but the ſaid goods or monies ſhall be received and poſſeſſed by ſuch perſon or perſons, whom the deceaſed ſhall, by his laſt will, have made his heir or heirs, in caſe they be upon the place where the teſtator deceaſed. But if the heirs be not there, then the executors of the ſaid will, lawfully conſtituted by the deceaſed, ſhall, after having made an inventory of all the goods and monies left, take them into their cuſtody without any hinderance, and ſhall take care the ſame be remitted, by ſome ſafe way, to the true and lawful heirs; and in caſe any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects happen to die, not having made any will, the Engliſh conſul ſhall poſſeſs himſelf of his goods and monies, upon inventory, for the uſe of the kindred and heirs of the deceaſed.

XIV. That no merchants, being his majeſty's ſubjects, and reſiding in or trading to the city and kingdom of Algiers, ſhall be obliged to buy any merchandizes againſt their wills, but it ſhall be free for them to buy ſuch commodities as they ſhall think fit: and no captain or commander of any ſhip or veſſel belonging to his ſaid majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be obliged, againſt his will, to lade any goods to carry them, or make a voyage to any place whither he ſhall not have a mind to go. And neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other ſubject of the ſaid king, ſhall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, except that he or they become ſureties for the ſame, by a public act.

XV. That the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty in Algiers or its territories, in matter of controverſy, ſhall be liable to no other juriſdiction but that of the dey, or the divan, except they happen to be at difference between themſelves, in which caſe they ſhall be liable to no other determination but that of the conſul only.

XVI. That in caſe any ſubject of his ſaid Majeſty, being in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, happen to ſtrike, wound, or kill a Turk, or a Moor, if he be taken, he is to be puniſhed in the ſame manner, and with no greater feverity than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the ſame offence; but if he eſcape, neither the ſaid Engliſh conſul, nor any other of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be in any ſort queſtioned and troubled therefore.

XVII. That the Engliſh conſul now, or at any time hereafter, reſiding at Algiers, ſhall be there, at all times, with entire freedom and ſafety of his perſon and eſtate, and ſhall be permitted to chuſe his own terjiman (interpreter) and broker, and freely to go on board any ſhips in the road, as often and when he pleaſes, and to have the liberty of the country; and that he ſhall be allowed a place to pray in, and that no man ſhall do him an injury, in word or deed.

XVIII. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendſhip, but likewiſe, if any breach or war happens hereafter to be between the ſaid king of Great-Britain and the kingdom of Algiers, the ſaid Engliſh conſul, and all others his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, inhabiting in the kingdom of Algiers, ſhall, always and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and abſolute liberty to depart and go to their own, or any other country, upon any ſhip or veſſel, of what nation ſoever they ſhall think fit, and to carry with them all their eſtates, goods, families, and ſervants, without any interruption or hinderance.

XIX. That no ſubject of his ſaid Majeſty, being a paſſenger, and coming or going with his baggage, from or to any port, ſhall be any ways moleſted or meddled with, although he be on board any ſhip or veſſel in enmity with Algiers: and in like manner, no Algerine paſſenger, being on board any ſhip or veſſel in enmity with the ſaid king of Great-Britain, ſhall be any way moleſted, whether in his perſon or in his goods, which he may have laden on board the ſaid ſhip or veſſel.

XX. That at all times, when any ſhip of war of the king of Great-Britain's, carrying his ſaid Majeſty's flag at the main top-maſt head, ſhall appear before Algiers, and come to an anchor in the road, immediately upon notice thereof given by his Majeſty's conſul, or ſome officer from the ſhip, to the dey and regency of Algiers, they ſhall, in honour to his Majeſty, cauſe a ſalute of 21 cannon to be ſhot off, from the caſtles and forts of the city, and that the ſaid ſhip ſhall return an anſwer by ſhooting off the ſame number of cannon.

XXI. That preſently after the ſigning and ſealing of theſe articles by the baſha, dey, aga, and chiefs of Algiers, all injuries and damages, ſuſtained on either part, ſhall be quite taken away and forgotten, and this peace ſhall be in full force and virtue, and continue for ever: and for all depredations and damages that ſhall be afterwards committed or done by either ſide, before notice can be given of this peace, full ſatisfaction ſhall immediately be made, AND WHATSOEVER REMAINS IN KIND SHALL BE INSTANTLY RESTORED.

XXII. That in caſe it ſhall happen hereafter, that any thing is done or committed contrary to this treaty, whether by the ſubjects of the one or the other party, the treaty notwithſtanding ſhall ſubſiſt in full force, and ſuch contraventions ſhall not occaſion the breach of this peace, friendſhip and good correſpondence, but the party injured ſhall amicably demand immediate ſatisfaction for the ſaid contraventions, before it be lawful to break the peace: and if the fault was committed by any private ſubjects of either party, they alone ſhall be puniſhed, as breakers of the peace and diſturbers of the public quiet. And our faith ſhall be our faith, and our word our word.

Confirmed and ſealed, in the preſence of Almighty God, April 10, of Jeſus 1682, of the Hejira 1093, Abrir 11.

This is the treaty which remains ſtill in force, and has been ever ſince referred to when any renewals, with additional articles have been made by our ſucceeding ſovereigns. It was (mutatis mutandis) renewed and confirmed, April 5, 1686, by Sir William Soame, Bart. when he was going ambaſſador extraordinary from king James II. to the Grand Signior, with ſcarce any alterations, except literals, and what elſe has been obſerved. In 1691, Thomas Barker, Eſq; ſent for by Shaaban-Hojia, then dey of Algiers, renewed and confirmed the ſame, without alteration or addition.

In 1700, Capt. Munden, jointly with Robert Cole, Eſq; then conſul for our nation at Algiers, renewed and confirmed the ſame, with the following additional articles.

I. We the moſt excellent and moſt illuſtrious lords, Muſtafa dey, Ali baſha, and Muſtafa aga, governors of the moſt famous and warlike city and kingdom of Algiers, do, by theſe preſents, renew and confirm the peace we ſo happily enjoy, with William, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the Chriſtian Faith, and his ſubjects, made in the year of Jeſus, 1682 (of the Hejira 1093, and renewed four years after) in every part and article, more particularly that of the eighth, wherein it is expreſſed, that no ſhip or veſſel belonging to our government of Algiers, ſhall cruize near, or in ſight of, any of the roads, havens, or ports, towns, or places belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or any way diſturb the peace and commerce of the ſame: and in compliance with the ſaid eighth article of that treaty, we do ſincerely promiſe and declare, that ſuch orders ſhall for the future be given to all our commanders, that under a ſevere penalty, and our utmoſt diſpleaſure, they ſhall not enter into the channel of England, nor come, or cruize in ſight of any part of his Majeſty of Great Britain's dominions any more for the time to come.

II. That whereas it had been declared, that all ſhips and veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great-Britain ſhould have paſſes, &c. by the laſt day of September, in this preſent year of Jeſus 1700: we do by theſe declare, at the deſire of Capt. John Munden, commander in chief of his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips in the Mediterranean, and Robert Cole, Eſq; his Majeſty's conſul, now reſiding at our city of Algiers, on behalf of their great maſter, that no paſſes ſhall be required or expected from any of the Engliſh ſhips or veſſels, in any part of the world, but that they ſhall proceed on their voyage, without producing, or ſhewing a paſs to any of our cruizers, 'till the laſt of September 1701. And after that time is expired, and any ſhip of England be ſeized, not having a paſs, we do hereby declare, that the goods in that ſhip ſhall be prize; but the maſter, men, and ſhip, ſhall be reſtored, and the freight immediately paid to the ſaid maſter, to the utmoſt value as he ſhould have had, if he had gone ſafe to the port whither he was bound.

III. That whereas Capt. John Munden has given us good aſſurance that he had a great affront ſome years paſt, from ſome of our rude ſailors at our mole, we do hereby promiſe, that, at all times, whenever any of the king of Great-Britain's ſhips of war ſhall come to this place, order ſhall be immediately given to an officer of the government who ſhall attend at the mole, all the day-time, during their ſtay here, to prevent any ſuch diſorders for the future, that no miſunderſtanding may happen between us: and in any ſuch caſe, the officer at the mole ſhall ſecure the perſon or perſons ſo offending, who ſhall be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. By the help of God, and if he pleaſe, theſe articles, now made between us, ſhall be maintained. To the truth whereof, we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals, Algiers, in the year of the Hejira 1112, which is in the Chriſtian account Auguſt 20, 1700.

In 1703, admiral Byng, afterwards lord viſcount Torrington, renewing the peace for queen Anne with the ſame Muſtafa dey, inſerted the two new articles, which are as follow: the preliminary one being only a confirmation of the foregoing, for which reaſon it is omitted.

I. That whereas, by the ſaid articles of peace, made and concluded by admiral Herbert in 1682, it was agreed, that the ſubjects of England ſhould pay 10 per cent. cuſtom for the goods they ſhould ſell at Algiers, or in the dominions thereof; now, for the better ſettling and maintaining a good commerce between the ſubjects of England and thoſe of Algiers, it is agreed and declared, that, from henceforwards, the Engliſh ſhall pay but 5 per cent. cuſtom; and that contraband goods, as is declared before, ſhall not pay any cuſtom.

II. And it is farther agreed and declared, that all prizes taken by any one of the ſubjects of the ſaid queen of Great-Britain, and all ſhips and veſſels built and fitted out in any of his Majeſty's plantations in America, that have not been in England, ſhall not be moleſted, in caſe of their not having paſſes: but that a certificate in writing, under the hands of the commanding officers who ſhall take any prizes, and a certificate under the hand of the governors or chiefs of ſuch American colonies or places where ſuch ſhips were built or fitted out, ſhall be ſufficient paſſes for either of them. And our faith ſhall be our faith, and our word our word.

Algiers, confirmed and ſealed, in the preſence of Almighty God, October 28, in the year of Jeſus 1703, of the Hejira 1115.

This was again renewed in the reign of his late Majeſty king George I. when, in 1716, admiral Baker had orders to viſit Tripoly, Tunis, and Algiers. With the two firſt, as will appear in the enſuing pages, he confirmed our former treaties in perſon; but to Algiers he deputed the Argyle and Cheſter, two of his Majeſty's ſhips, to whoſe commanders, Capt. Coningſby Norbury, and Capt. Nicholas Eaton, in conjunction with Mr Thomas Thompſon, then acting as conſul in the abſence of his brother Samuel Thompſon, Eſq; he gave a full power to ratify and confirm all the above treaties, with theſe following new articles.—After the preamble, the firſt article concludes thus:

I. If any demands or pretenſions ſhall be now left depending, between the ſubjects or others of either party, they ſhall be amicably redreſſed, and full ſatisfaction ſhall be made to each other, according to the truth and juſtice of their claim: nor ſhall any of the ſame be cancelled, or made void by this treaty.

II. That as the iſland of Minorca in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, have been yielded and annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by the ſeveral powers of Europe engaged in the late war, it is now hereby agreed and fully concluded, that from this time forward for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca and city of Gibraltar, ſhall be eſteemed, in every reſpect, by the government and people of Algiers, to be part of his Britannic Majeſty's dominions, and the inhabitants thereof be looked upon as his Majeſty's natural ſubjects, in the ſame manner as if they had been born in any other part of the Britiſh territories: and they, with their ſhips and veſſels wearing Britiſh colours, and being furniſhed with proper paſſes, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the dominions of Algiers, and ſhall paſs without any moleſtation whatſoever, and ſhall have the ſame liberties and privileges that are ſtipulated in this, and have been made in any other treaties in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects; and therefore none of the cruizers of Algiers ſhall, at any time, cruize within ſight of the ſaid iſland of Minorca and city of Gibraltar.

III. That if any Engliſh ſhip ſhall receive on board any paſſengers and goods belonging to the kingdom of Algiers, the Engliſh ſhall defend the ſaid Algerines and their goods, ſo far as lies in their power, and not deliver them to their enemies. And the better to prevent any unjuſt demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid diſputes and differences that may ariſe, all goods and merchandizes that ſhall from henceforwards be ſhipped by the ſubjects of Algiers, on board the ſhips or veſſels of Britiſh ſubjects upon freight, ſhall be firſt regiſtered in the office of cancellaria, before the Britiſh conſul reſiding in the port where they are ſo ſhipped; and the quantity, quality, and value thereof ſhall be expreſſed; and the conſul is to manifeſt the ſame in the clearance given to the ſhip or veſſel before it ſhall depart, to the end that, if any cauſe of complaint ſhould happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the Britiſh nation, than what by this method may be proved juſt and equitable.

IV. That if any of the Algerine cruizers ſhall meet with ſhips provided with ſcallop paſſes, of either ſhips or ſatias, that ſhall fit with thoſe delivered to them by the Britiſh conſul, they ſhall paſs free and unmoleſted. Algiers, October 29, 1716.

ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE, between his moſt ſacred Majeſty George, &c. and the moſt excellent lords, Ali baſha, Haſſain Ben Ali bey, Cara Muſtafa dey, the aga, and the divan of the moſt noble city of Tunis, and the whole body of the militia of the ſaid kingdom. Renewed and concluded, A. D. 1716, by John Baker, Eſq; vice-admiral, &c.

I. That all former grievances and loſſes, and other pretenſions between both parties, ſhall be void and of no effect; and from henceforward a firm peace for ever, free trade and commerce, ſhall be and continue between the ſubjects of his moſt ſacred Majeſty George, king of Great-Britain, &c. and the people of the kingdom of Tunis, and the dominions thereunto belonging. But that this article ſhall not cancel or make void any juſt debt either in commerce or otherwiſe, that may be due from any perſon or perſons to others of either party; but that the ſame ſhall be liable to be demanded and be recoverable as before.

II. That the ſhips of either party ſhall have free liberty to enter into any port or river belonging to the dominions of either party, paying the duties only for what they ſhall ſell, tranſporting the reſt without any trouble or moleſtation, and freely enjoy any other privileges accuſtomed: and the late exaction that has been upon the lading and unlading of goods at Goletta and the Marine, ſhall be reduced to the ancient cuſtoms in thoſe caſes.

III. That there ſhall not be any ſeizure of any ſhips of either party, at ſea or in port, but that they ſhall quietly paſs without any moleſtation or interruption, they diſplaying their colours: and for prevention of all inconveniencies that may happen, the ſhips of Tunis are to have a certificate under hand and ſeal of the Britiſh conſul, that they belong to Tunis: which being produced, the Engliſh ſhip ſhall admit two men to come on board them peaceably, to ſatisfy themſelves they are Engliſh; and, although they have paſſengers of other nations on board, they ſhall be free, both they and their effects.

IV. That if any Engliſh ſhip ſhall receive on board any goods or paſſengers belonging to the kingdom of Tunis, they ſhall be bound to defend them and their goods, ſo far as lies in their power, and not deliver them unto their enemies; and the better to prevent any unjuſt demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid diſputes and differences which may ariſe, all goods and merchandizes that ſhall, from henceforward, be ſhipped by the ſubjects of this government, either in this port or any other whatſoever, on board the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Great-Britain, ſhall be firſt entered in the office of cancellaria, before the Britiſh conſul reſiding at the reſpective port, expreſſing the quantity, quality, and value of the goods ſo ſhipped; which the ſaid conſul is to certify in the clearance given to the ſaid ſhip or veſſel before ſhe departs, to the end that, if any cauſe of complaint ſhould happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the Britiſh nation, than by this method ſhall be proved to be juſt and equitable.

V. That if any of the ſhips of either party ſhall, by accident of foul weather, or otherwiſe, be caſt away upon the coaſt belonging to either party, the perſons ſhall be free, and the goods ſaved and delivered to their lawful proprietors.

VI. That the Engliſh which do at preſent, or ſhall at any time hereafter, inhabit in the city or kingdom of Tunis, ſhall have free liberty, when they pleaſe, to tranſport themſelves with their families and children, though born in the country.

VII. That the people belonging to the dominions of either party ſhall not be abuſed with ill language, or otherwiſe ill treated; but that the parties ſo offending, ſhall be puniſhed ſeverely according to their deſerts.

VIII. That the conſul, or any other of the Engliſh nation, reſiding in Tunis, ſhall not be forced to make their addreſſes, in any difference, unto any court of juſtice, but to the Bey himſelf, from whom only they ſhall receive judgment; this in caſe the difference ſhould happen between a ſubject of Great-Britain, and another of this government, or any other foreign nation; but if it ſhould be between any two of his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, then it is to be decided by the Britiſh conſul only.

IX. That the conſul, or any other of the Engliſh nation, ſhall not be liable to pay the debts of any particular perſon of the nation, unleſs obliged thereunto under his hand.

X. That as the iſland of Minorca, in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, has been yielded and annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by all the ſeveral powers of Europe engaged in the late war; now it is hereby agreed and fully concluded, that from this time forward for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca and city of Gibraltar, ſhall be eſteemed in every reſpect by the government of Tunis, to be part of his Britannic Majeſty's own dominions, and the inhabitants thereof to be looked upon as his Majeſty's natural ſubjects, in the ſame manner as if they had been born in any part of Great-Britain; and they with their ſhips and veſſels wearing the Britiſh colours, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tunis, and ſhall paſs without any moleſtation whatſoever, either on the ſeas or elſewhere, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame freedom and privileges, as have been ſtipulated in this and all former treaties, in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects.

XI. And the better and more firmly to maintain the good correſpondence and friendſhip, that hath been ſo long and happily eſtabliſhed between the crown of Great-Britain and the government of Tunis, it is hereby agreed and concluded, by the parties before-mentioned, that none of the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Tunis, or the dominions thereof, ſhall be permitted to cruize, or look for prizes of any nation whatſoever, before or in ſight of the aforeſaid city of Gibraltar, or any of the ports of the iſland of Minorca, to hinder or moleſt any veſſels bringing proviſions and refreſhments for his Britannic Majeſty's troops and garriſons in thoſe places, or give any diſturbance to the trade or commerce thereof; and if any prize ſhall be taken by the ſhips or veſſels of Tunis,

within

within the ſpace of ten miles of the aforeſaid places, it ſhall be reſtored without any diſpute.

XII. That all the ſhips of war belonging to either party's dominions, ſhall have free liberty to uſe each others ports, for waſhing, cleaning, or repairing any their defects, and to buy and to ſhip off any ſort of victuals, alive or dead, or any other neceſſaries, at the price the natives buy at in the market, without paying cuſtom to any officer: and whereas his Britannic Majeſty's ſhips of war do frequently aſſemble and harbour in the port of Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca, if at any time they, or his Majeſty's troops in garriſon there, ſhould be in want of proviſions, and ſhould ſend from thence to purchaſe ſupplies in any part of the dominions belonging to Tunis, they ſhall be permitted to buy cattle alive or dead, and all other kind of proviſions at the prices they are ſold at in the market, and ſhall be ſuffered to carry them off, without paying duty to any officer, in the ſame manner as if his Majeſty's ſhips were themſelves in the port.

XIII. That in caſe any ſhips of war belonging to the kingdom of Tunis, ſhall take, in any of their enemies ſhips, any Engliſhmen, ſerving for wages, they are to be made ſlaves; but if merchants or paſſengers, they are to enjoy their liberty and effects unmoleſted.

XIV. That in caſe any ſlave in the kingdom of Tunis, of any nation whatſoever, ſhall make his eſcape, and get on board any ſhip belonging to the dominions of his ſacred Majeſty the king of Great Britain, &c. the conſul ſhall not be liable to pay the ranſom, unleſs timely notice be given him to order that none ſuch be entertained; and then if it appears that any ſlave has ſo got away, the ſaid conſul is to pay to his patron the price for which he was ſold in the market; and if no price be ſet, then pay three hundred dollars, and no more.

XV. And the better to prevent any diſpute that may hereafter ariſe between the two parties, about ſalutes and public ceremonies; it is hereby agreed and concluded, that whenever any flag-officer of Great-Britain ſhall arrive in the bay of Tunis, in any of his Majeſty's ſhips of war, immediately upon notice given thereof, there ſhall be 25 cannon fired from the caſtle of Goletta, or other the neareſt fortification belonging to Tunis, according to cuſtom, as a royal ſalute to his Britannic Majeſty's colours, and the ſame number ſhall be returned in anſwer thereto by his Majeſty's ſhips; and it is hereby ſtipulated and agreed, that all ceremonies of honour ſhall be allowed to the Britiſh conſul who reſides here, to repreſent in every reſpect his Majeſty's perſon, equal to any other nation whatſoever, and no other conſul in the kingdom to be admitted before him in precedency.

XVI. That the ſubjects of his ſacred Majeſty of Great-Britain, &c. either reſiding in or trading to the dominions of Tunis, ſhall not, for the time to come, pay any more than three per cent. cuſtom on the value of goods or merchandize, which they ſhall either bring into or carry out of this ſaid kingdom of Tunis.

XVII. It is moreover agreed, concluded, and eſtabliſhed, that at whatſoever time it ſhall pleaſe the government of Tunis to reduce the cuſtoms of the French nation no leſs than they pay at preſent, it ſhall always be obſerved that the Britiſh cuſtoms ſhall be 2 per cent. leſs than any agreement that ſhall for the future be made with the ſaid French, or that ſhall be paid by the ſubjects of France.

XVIII. It is moreover agreed, concluded, and eſtabliſhed, that in caſe any Britiſh ſhip or ſhips, or any of the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great-Britain, ſhall import at the port of Tunis, or any other port of this kingdom, any warlike ſtores, as cannons, muſkets, piſtols, cannon powder, or fine powder, bullets, maſts, anchors, cables, pitch, tar, or the like; as alſo proviſions, viz. wheat, barley, beans, oats, oil, or the like; for the ſaid kinds of merchandize, they ſhall not pay any ſort of duty or cuſtom whatever.

We the parties before mentioned, having ſeen and peruſed the preceding articles, do hereby approve, ratify, and confirm, the ſeveral particulars therein mentioned; and they are to remain firm for ever, without any alteration. In teſtimony of which we do hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals in the preſence of Almighty God, in the noble city of Tunis, the 30th day of Auguſt, old ſtile, and the year of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, 1716, being the 26th day of the moon Ramadam, and the year of the Hejira 1128.

(L.S.) J. Baker. (L.S.) (L.S.) (L.S.)

Articles of Peace and Commerce, between his moſt ſacred Majeſty George, by the grace, &c. and the moſt excellent lords Mahomet bey, Yuſouf dey, Shaaban rais, the divan, and the reſt of the officers and people of the city and kingdom of Tripoly, renewed, concluded, and ratified, this 19th of July 1716, by John Baker, Eſq; vice admiral, &c.

I. In the firſt place, it is agreed and concluded, that from this time forward for ever, there ſhall be a true and inviolable peace, between the moſt ſerene king of Great-Britain, and the moſt illuſtrious lords and governors of the city and kingdom of Tripoly in Barbary, and between all the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide: and if the ſhips and ſubjects of either party ſhall happen to meet upon the ſeas, or elſewhere, they ſhall not moleſt each other, but ſhall ſhew all poſſible reſpect and friendſhip.

II. That all merchant-ſhips belonging to the dominions of Great-Britain, and trading to the city or any other part of the kingdom of Tripoly, ſhall pay no more than three per cent. cuſtom for all kinds of goods they ſhall ſell; and as for ſuch as they ſhall not ſell, they ſhall be permitted freely to embark them again on board their ſhips, without paying any ſort of duty whatſoever, and ſhall depart without any hinderance or moleſtation.

III. That all ſhips and other veſſels, as well thoſe belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, as thoſe belonging to the kingdom or people of Tripoly, ſhall freely paſs the ſeas, and traffic where they pleaſe, without any ſearch, hinderance, or moleſtation, from each other: and that all perſons or paſſengers, of what country ſoever, and all monies, goods, merchandizes and moveables, to whatſoever people or nation belonging, being on board any the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſhall be wholly free, and ſhall not be ſtopped, taken, or plundered, nor receive any harm or damage whatſoever, from either party.

IV. That the Tripoly ſhips of war, or any other veſſels thereunto belonging, meeting with any merchant-ſhips, or other veſſels of the king of Great-Britain's ſubjects (not being in any of the ſeas appertaining to any of his Majeſty's dominions) may ſend on board one ſingle boat, with two ſitters, beſides the ordinary crew of the rowers; and no more but the two ſitters to enter any of the ſaid merchant ſhips, or any other veſſels, without the expreſs leave of the commander of every ſuch ſhip or veſſel: and then, upon producing to them a paſs under the hand and ſeal of the lord high admiral of England, or the commiſſioners for executing of the ſaid office, the ſaid boat ſhall preſently depart, and the merchant-ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall proceed freely on her or their voyage. And though the commander or commanders, of the ſaid merchant ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, produce no paſs from the lord high admiral of England, or &c. yet, if the major part of the ſhips or veſſels company be ſubjects to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, the ſaid boat ſhall preſently depart, and the merchant-ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall freely proceed on her or their voyage: and any of the ſaid ſhips of war, or other veſſels of his ſaid Majeſty, meeting with any ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, belonging to Tripoly, if the commander or commanders of any ſuch ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall produce a paſs, ſigned by the chief governors of Tripoly, and a certificate from the Engliſh conſul reſiding there; or, if they have no ſuch paſs or certificate, yet if the major part of their ſhips company or companies be Turks, Moors, or ſlaves belonging to Tripoly, then the ſaid Tripoly ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall proceed freely.

V. That no commander or other perſon, of any ſhip or veſſel of Tripoly, ſhall take out of any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, any perſon or perſons whatſoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence, nor ſhall uſe any torture or violence unto any perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever, being on board any ſhip or veſſel of his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. That no ſhipwreck belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any part of the coaſt belonging to Tripoly, ſhall be made or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof ſhall be ſeized, nor the men made ſlaves, but all the ſubjects of Tripoly ſhall do their beſt endeavours to ſave the ſaid men, and their effects.

VII. That no ſhip or any other veſſel of Tripoly, ſhall have permiſſion to be delivered up, or to go to any other place in enmity with the ſaid king of Great-Britain, to be made uſe of as corſairs at ſea againſt his Majeſty's ſubjects.

VIII. That if any ſhip or veſſel of Tunis, Algiers, Tetuan, or Sallee, or of any other place being in war with the ſaid king of Great-Britain, bring any ſhips or veſſels, men or goods, belonging to his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, to Tripoly, or to any port or place in that kingdom, the governors there ſhall not permit them to be ſold within the territories of Tripoly.

IX. That if any ſubject of the king of Great-Britain happens to die in Tripoly, or its territorities, his goods or monies ſhall not be ſeized by the governors or miniſters of Tripoly, but ſhall all remain with the Engliſh conſul.

X. That neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other ſubject of the ſaid king of Great-Britain, ſhall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects unleſs they become ſurety for the ſame by a public act.

XI. That the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty in Tripoly, or its territories, in matter of controverſy, ſhall be liable to no other juriſdiction but that of the dey or divan, except they happen to be at difference between themſelves, in which caſe, they ſhall be liable to no other determination but that of the conſul only.

XII. That in caſe any ſubject of his Majeſty, being in any port of the kingdom of Tripoly, ſhall happen to ſtrike, kill,

or wound a Turk or Moor, if he be taken, he is to be punished in the same manner, and with no greater severity, than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the same offence: but if he escape, neither the said English consul, nor any other of his said Majesty's subjects, shall be in any sort questioned or troubled on that account.

XIII. That the English consul now, or at any time hereafter, residing at Tripoly, shall be there at all times with intire freedom and safety of his person and estates, and shall be permitted to chuse his own interpreter and broker, and freely go on board any ship in the road, as often and when he pleases; and to have the liberty of the country; and that he shall be allowed a place to pray in, and that no man shall do him any injury in word or deed.

XIV. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendship, but likewise if any breach or war happen to be hereafter, between the said king of Great-Britain and the city and kingdom of Tripoly, the said consul, and all other his Majesty's subjects inhabiting in the kingdom of Tripoly, shall always, and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and absolute liberty to depart, and go to their own country, or any other, upon any ship or vessel, of what nation soever they shall think fit, and carry with them all their estates, goods, families, and servants, though born in the country, without any interruption or hinderance.

XV. That no subject of his said Majesty, being a passenger from or to any port, shall be any way molested and meddled with, though he be on board any ship or vessel in enmity with Tripoly.

XVI. That if any ships of war of the said king of Great-Britain come to Tripoly, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely sell it, or otherwise dispose of it at their own pleasure, without being molested by any: and that his Majesty's said ships of war shall not be obliged to pay customs in any sort; and that, if they shall want provisions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rate in the market.

XVII. That when any of his Majesty's ships of war shall appear before Tripoly, upon notice thereof given by the English consul, or by the commanders of the said ships, to the chief governors of Tripoly, public proclamation shall be immediately made, to secure the Christian captives; and if, after that, any Christians whatsoever make their escape on board any of the said ships of war, they shall not be required back again, nor shall the said consul or commander, or any other his Majesty's subjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the said Christians.

XVIII. That all merchant-ships coming to the city or kingdom of Tripoly (though not belonging to Great-Britain) shall have free liberty to put themselves under the protection of the British consul, in selling and disposing of their goods and merchandize, if they shall think proper, without any hinderance or molestation.

XIX. That at all times, when any ship of war, of the king of Great-Britain, &c. carrying his said Majesty's flag, appears before the said city of Tripoly, and comes to an anchor in the road, immediately after notice thereof given by his said Majesty's consul, or officer from the ship, unto the dey and government of Tripoly, they shall, in honour to his Majesty, cause a salute of twenty-seven cannon to be fired from the castle and fort of the city; and that the said ship shall return an answer, by firing the same number of cannon.

XX. That no merchant-ship belonging to Great-Britain, or any other nation under the protection of the English consul, being in the port of Tripoly, shall be detained from proceeding to sea on her voyage longer than three days, under pretence of arming out the ships of war of this government, or any other whatsoever.

XXI. That no subject of the king of Great Britain, &c. shall be permitted to turn Mussulman in the city and kingdom of Tripoly (being induced thereunto by any surprize whatsoever) unless he voluntarily appears before the dey or governors, with the English consul's interpreter, thrice in twenty-four hours space, and every time declares his resolutions to become a Mussulman.

XXII. That the most serene king of Great-Britain's consul, residing in Tripoly aforesaid, shall have liberty, at all times when he pleases, to put up his said serene Majesty's flag on the top of his house, and there to continue it spread as long time as he pleases; likewise the said consul to have the same liberty of putting up and spreading the said flag in his boat, when he passes on the water; and no man whatsoever to oppose, molest, disturb, or injure him therein, either by word or deed.

XXIII. That whereas the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar, in Spain, have been yielded up and annexed to the crown of Great Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by all the several powers of Europe engaged in the late war: now it is hereby agreed and fully concluded, That from this time forward, for ever, the said island of Minorca, and city of Gibraltar, shall be esteemed, in every respect, by the government of Tripoly, to be part of his Britannic Majesty's own dominions, and the inhabitants thereof to be looked upon as his Majesty's natural subjects, in the same manner as if they had been born in any part of Great-Britain; and they, with their ships and vessels wearing British colours, shall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tripoly, and shall pass without any molestation whatsoever, either on the seas or elsewhere, in the same manner, and with the same freedom and privileges, as have been stipulated in this and all former treaties, on behalf of the British nation and subjects.

XXIV. And whereas in the treaty of peace concluded in the reign of king Charles II, in the year 1676, by Sir John Narborough, Knt. an article was inserted, by which the ships and vessels of Tripoly were not permitted to cruize before, or in sight of, the port of Tangier, then belonging to Great-Britain: now it is hereby concluded and ratified, That, in the same manner, none of the ships or vessels belonging to Tripoly shall cruize, or look for prizes, before or in sight of the ports of the island of Minorca, and the city of Gibraltar, or to disturb or molest the trade thereof, in any manner whatsoever.

XXV. That all and every the articles in this treaty shall be inviolably kept and observed between his most sacred Majesty of Great-Britain, and the most illustrious lords and governors of this city and kingdom of Tripoly, and all other matters not particularly expressed in this treaty, and provided for in any former, shall still remain in full force, and shall be esteemed the same as if inserted here. Dated in the presence of Almighty God, in the city of Tripoly, this 19th day of July, 1716, according to the Christian computation; and of the Mussulman Hejira, the 10th of the moon Shaaban, 1128.

Whitehall, December 10, 1751.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES to the antient treaties subsisting between his Majesty and the dey and government of Algiers, agreed to by the present dey Mahomet, and his Majesty's plenipotentiaries, the honourable Augustus Keppel, and Ambrose Stanyford, his Majesty's agent and consul-general at Algiers.

That all packet, or express-boats, bearing his Majesty's commission, which shall be met by any of the cruizers of Algiers, shall be treated with the same respect as his Majesty's ships of war, and all due respect shall be paid to his Majesty's commission; and both at meeting and at parting they shall be treated as friends; and if any of the Algerine cruizers commit the least fault or violence against them, the captains, or raziers, so offending, shall, on their arrival at Algiers, and proper complaint being made of them, be most severely punished, without admitting of their excuses. Dated at Algiers, the 3d of June, 1751; and in the year of the Hegeira 1164, the 20th day of the moon Regil.

By the KING, a PROCLAMATION, requiring passes formerly granted to ships and vessels trading in the way of the cruizers belonging to the governments on the coasts of Barbary, to be returned into the office of admiralty of Great-Britain, and other passes, of different forms, to be issued.

GEORGE R.

Whereas by our proclamation bearing date the 31st day of December, in the third year of our reign, we did charge and command all our loving subjects, who then were, or should be possessed of any passes for ships and vessels belonging to our subjects trading to Portugal, the Canaries, Guinea, the Indies, into the Mediterranean, or elsewhere, in the way of the cruizers of the government of Algiers (except such passes as had been granted to ships gone, or going to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they could not be timely furnished with new passes) that they should, within the space of twelve months, to be computed from the first day of March then next, return the same, and furnish themselves with passes of a new form, under the hands and seals of our commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, for their several ships and vessels, in such manner as by the said recited proclamation was directed. And whereas it hath been humbly represented unto us, That it may have happened that, during the late war, several passes granted pursuant to the said recited proclamation, may, either by accident or undue means, have fallen into the hands of foreigners, who, by colour of such passes, may carry on their trade: We, taking the premises into our royal consideration, and judging it necessary to put a speedy stop to all such indirect practices, which do not only tend to the prejudice of our trading subjects, but may occasion a misunderstanding between us and the governments on the coast of Barbary, for preventing thereof, have thought fit, by the advice of our privy-council, to publish this our royal proclamation, and do hereby declare, that all such passes of the present form now in being, shall not continue in force longer than 'till the 1st day of April, 1752 (except such passes as have been granted to ships gone, or going to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they cannot be timely furnished with new passes). And we do hereby strictly charge and command all our loving subjects, who are or shall be possessed of any such passes, that they do before the 1st day of April, 1752, return the same (except such as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of

Great-Britain, or to the reſpective collectors of our cuſtoms at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of ſome of our foreign plantations or dominions, in order to their being cancelled, and that they do furniſh themſelves with paſſes of a new form, under the hands and ſeals of our commiſſioners for executing the office of high-admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, for their ſeveral ſhips and veſſels, according to the treaties ſubſiſting between us and the ſaid governments on the coaſt of Barbary, and the regulations made by our royal father of glorious memory, by order in his privy-council, on the 14th day of June, in the year 1722, and our inſtructions given to our ſaid commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland touching the ſame. And whereas many ſhips and veſſels belonging to our loving ſubjects, continue ſeveral years trading from port to port in the Mediterranean, without returning home, whereby they cannot ſo conveniently procure their paſſes to be exchanged, we do hereby, for the eaſe of our trading ſubjects, publiſh and declare our pleaſure, That upon the application of any owner of any ſhip or veſſel, or other ſubſtantial merchant, to the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, and oath made by him of the property of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and that three-fourths of the company are our ſubjects, according to an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of our royal predeceſſor, king Charles the Second, (intitled, An Act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation;) and upon entering into the uſual bond for the return of ſuch paſs at the end of the voyage, it ſhall and may be lawful for our commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, or our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland for the time being, and they are reſpectively impowered to make out a new paſs for ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and ſend the ſame to ſuch of our conſuls in the Mediterranean as the ſaid owner or merchant ſhall deſire, with directions to ſuch conſul, that, upon application to him from the maſter of the ſhip for which the paſs is made out, and ſurrendering up his old paſs, and entering into a like bond for the return of ſuch new paſs, he ſhall deliver out the ſaid new paſs to ſuch maſter, and tranſmit the old one, with the bond, to the office of admiralty of Great-Britain. And in order more effectually to hinder, for the future, any abuſes that may be attempted by foreigners, relating to the new paſſes to be iſſued as aforeſaid, we do hereby further declare our royal will and pleaſure, That all ſuch new paſſes to be hereafter iſſued, for any ſhips or veſſels belonging to any of our ſubjects of the iſland of Minorca, or Gibraltar, ſhall be made out in a particular form, different from the form of the new paſſes to be iſſued for ſhips and veſſels belonging to any other part of our dominions, and that ſuch paſſes ſhall be lodged with the reſpective governors, lieutenant-governors, or commanders in chief, for the time being, of the ſaid iſland of Minorca, or Gibraltar, and iſſued out only by them, according to the regulations made by our ſaid royal father in council, as aforeſaid: and the ſaid reſpective governors, lieutenant-governors, and commanders in chief, are hereby charged and required not to iſſue or deliver out any ſuch paſſes to any perſons whatſoever, other than ſuch as are really our ſubjects, inhabiting in the ſaid iſland of Minorca, or Gibraltar, reſpectively, and ſtrictly to conform themſelves to the regulations and inſtructions made and given as aforeſaid. And we do hereby further publiſh and declare, That, by our orders made this day in our privy-council, we have ordered and directed, That the proper officers of our cuſtoms, in the ſeveral ports of our kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, do demand of the maſters of all merchant-ſhips, ſo ſoon as they ſhall return into port from a foreign voyage, all paſſes granted as aforeſaid, which ſhall be in their poſſeſſion, to be produced to the ſaid reſpective officers of our cuſtoms; and that, if the ſame ſhall appear to be of an older date than twelve months, for ſhips and veſſels trading on this ſide the Streights Mouth, or for ſhips and veſſels trading to a greater diſtance, in caſe the voyages of ſuch laſt-mentioned ſhips and veſſels ſhall be determined, then ſuch paſſes ſhall be delivered up to the ſaid reſpective officers of our cuſtoms, and be by them returned to the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain: and in caſe the maſter of any ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall refuſe to produce or deliver up ſuch paſſes, according to the true intent of our order, then the ſaid officers ſhall certify the name of every ſuch maſter, and of the ſhip or veſſel, to our commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, or our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland for the time being, to the end that directions may be given for putting the bond, entered into on the granting any ſuch paſs, in ſuit. And all our governors, lieutenant-governors, and commanders in chief of any of our iſlands, colonies, or plantations, conſuls reſiding in foreign parts, and all other our officers and miniſters whatſoever, and all our loving ſubjects whom it may concern, are hereby expreſsly required and commanded to yield due obedience unto, and ſtrictly to obſerve all the orders, inſtructions, regulations, and directions before mentioned, on pain of our high diſpleaſure.

Given at our court at St James's, the 29th day of March, 1750, in the twenty third year of our reign.

GOD ſave the KING.

At the court at St James's, the 29th day of December, 1751, preſent the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty in council.

Whereas his Majeſty was pleaſed by his proclamation, bearing date the 29th day of March, 1750, to declare, That all paſſes of the preſent form now in being, which had been granted for ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects trading in the way of the cruizers of the government of Algiers, ſhould not continue in force longer than until the 1ſt day of April, 1752 (except ſuch paſſes as had been granted to ſhips gone, or going, to the Eaſt-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they could not be timely furniſhed with new paſſes) and his Majeſty did thereby ſtrictly charge and command all his ſubjects, who were or ſhould be poſſeſſed of any ſuch paſſes, that they ſhould, before the ſaid 1ſt day of April, 1752, return the ſame (except ſuch as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, or to the reſpective collectors of the cuſtoms at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of ſome of his Majeſty's plantations and dominions, in order to their being cancelled; and that they ſhould furniſh themſelves with paſſes of a new form, under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners for executing the office of the lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Irand, in lieu thereof, for their ſeveral ſhips and veſſels, as by the ſaid recited proclamation is directed:—And whereas, ſince the iſſuing the ſaid proclamation, it has been agreed by and between his Majeſty and the dey of Algiers, that the paſſes of the preſent form ſhould not expire ſo ſoon as the 1ſt day of April, 1752, but be continued, and remain in force, until the 30th day of October, 1752, at which time the paſſes of the new form are to commence, except only in the caſe of ſhips going to the Eaſt-Indies, or other remote voyages, whoſe paſſes are to continue good for the ſpace of three years, from the 30th day of October, 1751. His Majeſty, with the advice of his privy-council, doth therefore hereby declare and order, That the paſſes of the preſent form do continue in force until the ſaid 30th day of October, 1752: upon which day, the paſſes of the new form ſhall commence and take place, except in the caſe of ſhips going to the Eaſt-Indies, or other remote voyages, whoſe preſent paſſes are to remain good for three years from the ſaid 30th day of October, 1752. And his Majeſty doth hereby charge and command all his ſubjects who ſhall be poſſeſſed of any ſuch paſſes, that they do, before the ſaid 30th day of October, 1752, return the ſame (except ſuch as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, or to the reſpective collectors of the cuſtoms at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of ſome of his Majeſty's plantations or dominions, in order to their being cancelled; and that they do furniſh themſelves with paſſes of a new form, under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, agreeable to the requiſites of his Majeſty's afore-mentioned proclamation of the 29th of March, 1750.—Whereof all perſons whom it may concern are to take notice, and conform themſelves to his Majeſty's pleaſure, hereby ſignified.

WILLIAM SHARPE.

The PRIVILEGES of an ENGLISHMAN, in the kingdoms and dominions of PORTUGAL. Contained in the treaty of peace concluded by Oliver Cromwel. And various laws, decrees, &c. at ſundry times, and on divers occaſions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the ENGLISH NATION. To which is added the king of Portugal's new law, concerning the diamonds found in the Braſils.

Six PRELIMINARY ARTICLES, treated of and agreed upon between the ambaſſador extraordinary from the king of PORTUGAL, and the ſtate counſellor of parliament; in the name of the republic of ENGLAND. Done in London, in the year 1652.

ARTICLE I.

That between the aboveſaid, by the one and the other party, it is agreed, and likewiſe the ſaid ambaſſador has thought fit to give his word, in the name of the king, that all thoſe Engliſhmen who by any means are held in cuſtody, either upon account of ſecurities, or pledge, or by any other means whatſoever, occaſioned by the controverſies ariſen between the one and the other people, in any of the dominions of Portugal, who by prince Rupert have been carried from hence, or put into its port of Liſbon, ſhall be delivered and ſet at liberty, and their ſecurities diſcharged, or made of none effect.

ARTICLE II.

It was agreed with the ſaid ambaſſador, who gave his word in the name of the king, to deliver immediately the ſhips,

monies,

monies, and goods belonging to the Engliſh, which are retained in any of the places in the dominions of the king of Portugal, that they ſhall be delivered without any farther delay, in the ſame ſpecie, in caſe they remain in the ſame goodneſs and value, as they were in when they were taken and retained; and if they are become worſe, or of leſs value or goodneſs in ſpecie; or if, by reaſon of the detention, they are any ways decayed, and become of leſs worth; or if they are loſt; in theſe caſes they ſhall be paid for, and ſatisfaction ſhall be given for them, according to the juſt price or value they bore at the time they were taken. And as touching the reparation of the damages, it ſhall be ordered in the manner as the council have declared their ſentiments, by letter bearing date the 15th of November 1651. And the ſaid ambaſſador obliged himſelf to give ſatisfaction for the whole.

ARTICLE III.

It was agreed upon by the one and the other party, That all thoſe who were the authors or helpers to kill the Engliſhmen mentioned in the petition, which the counſel exhibited to the ſaid ambaſſador, who have been found or taken in any places in the dominions of the king of Portugal, or who may be found for the future, ſhall be puniſhed by the ſaid king, according to the merits of their crimes; or they ſhall be penally delivered with their accuſations to the parliament, to be by them chaſtized; and the ſame, being ſubjects to the ſaid king of Portugal, ſhall be puniſhed for their malefactions, as alſo thoſe who were their accomplices or abettors, and the reſt of the above-mentioned of any degree or condition whatſoever; and alſo ſuch as after this treaty ſhall be named by the parliament of the republic of England; and if they abſcond, or run away to the ports of the ſaid king, they ſhall be puniſhed. And the ſaid ambaſſador gave his word, in the name of his king, to obſerve this article.

ARTICLE IV.

It was agreed upon between the aboveſaid on both parts, That the king of Portugal, in the name of, i. e. in lieu of thoſe expences made by this republic, the which the counſel declared to the ſaid ambaſſador, they might, in right of this nation, liquidate from the goods of the Portugueſe that were occupied or taken by repriſal, which amounted to 14,246l. 11s. ſhall pay to the parliament 50,000l. in good and lawful money of England, in the manner herein after declared, that is to ſay, 20,000l. or as much Portugueſe money as is equal to it in value, which ſhall be paid to that perſon whom the parliament or council of ſtate may appoint to receive it in Liſbon, on the firſt of March next enſuing after this treaty, or within the ſpace of one month, as it ſhall appear by a writing under the ſaid ambaſſador's hand, wherein it ſhall be expreſſed, that the ſaid ſum ſhall be paid in Liſbon; and afterwards ſhall be paid 15,000l. of the ſame good and lawful money of England, on the laſt day of the month of July, 1653, O. S. and in like manner the laſt 15,000l. (which makes the ſum of 50,000l.) on the firſt day of the month of November, 1653, O. S. and that the two laſt payments ſhall be made here in the city of London.

In the ſame article it was agreed upon, that as to the ſum which by agreement is to be paid in Liſbon money, if any thing ſhould be wanting of the intire ſum, the whole ſhall be made good, and paid by the ſaid king of Portugal; becauſe it is to be underſtood, that all that entire ſum and quantity ought to be returned to the parliament in good and lawful money of England; and the ſaid ambaſſador, in the name of his king, obliged himſelf to pay the 50,000l. in the payments and monies above declared and repreſented.

ARTICLE V.

It was agreed upon between the one and the other parties aboveſaid, That all the ſhips and goods of the Engliſh, which have been brought to Portugal by Rupert and Maurice, or by any of their ſhips, and there made uſe of, or are any-where there detained, left, or by their order carried from thence, ſhall immediately be reſtored to their owners; or inſtead thereof full ſatisfaction and reparation ſhall be made. The which above-mentioned things the ſaid ambaſſador has given his word, in the name of his king, to obſerve and perform.

ARTICLE VI.

Between the aboveſaid of the one and the other parties, it was agreed upon, That as well the ſhip called the Converſion, as all other ſhips belonging to this republic of England, and all whatſoever veſſels of this republic, that by Rupert, or by any of the ſhips of his fleet, have been carried to Portugal, and are in poſſeſſion of the king of Portugal, or any of his ſubjects, or before this have been taken and applied to uſe, or which by any authority have been taken as prize, ſhall be reſtored again, with all their apparel, preparations, guns, and inſtructions; and juſt recompence ſhall be made for the retention of them; to which the ſaid ambaſſador gave his word, in the name of his king, to perform the contents of this article: in faith and teſtimony whereof, the ſaid ambaſſador has ſigned theſe ſix preliminary articles with his own hand, and ſealed them with his ſeal.

Given on the 29th day of December, in the year of our Lord, 1652.

Articles of PEACE, ALLIANCE, and COMMERCE, concluded between the moſt ſerene lord protector of England, Scotland and Ireland, on the one part; and the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on the other part. Done at Weſtminſter, on the 10th of July, in the Year 1654.

ARTICLE I.

In the firſt place, that there ſhall be a good, true, and firm peace, between the republic of England, and the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, and between the regions, countries, dominions, and principalities, under the empire of the one and the other, and the people, ſubjects, and the inhabitants of both, of any condition, rank, or dignity whatſoever, as well by land as by ſea, in rivers and freſh waters; in ſuch manner that the people and ſubjects ſhall favour and ſuccour one the other, with reciprocal good will, and honeſt affection; and that neither of the ſaid parties, nor their people, ſubjects, or inhabitants, ſhall commit, or attempt any thing againſt the other, in any place, either by land or ſea, or in the harbours or rivers of either; nor ſhall they conſent to, or aſſiſt in any war, council, or treaty, to the prejudice of the other party; nor ſhall either of the ſaid parties houſe or harbour the rebels or fugitives of the other in any of their countries, kingdoms, dominions, ports, or frontiers.

ARTICLE II.

That between the republic of England and the king of Portugal and their people, ſubjects, and inhabitants, as well by land as by ſea, in rivers and freſh waters, in all and every one of the regions, countries, dominions, territories, provinces, iſlands, colonies, cities, towns, villages, ports and frontiers, there ſhall be free commerce in thoſe places, in which there is at preſent, or has been commerce in time paſt; in ſuch manner that without permit or other licence, general or ſpecial, as well by land as by ſea, in rivers and freſh waters, the people, ſubjects and inhabitants, of either of the parties, may go, enter and navigate in the ſaid dominions and kingdoms, and in all their cities, towns, harbours, coaſts, bays, and places, with carriages, horſes, packs, and ſhips, as well loaden as to be loaden, carry merchandizes, buy, ſell, and at the current prices to procure proviſions, and what neceſſaries they may want for their ſtay and voyage, to repair their ſhips and carriages, whether their own or ſuch as are hired or borrowed, and with the ſame liberty to depart from thence with their goods, merchandizes, and all other things whatſoever, either to their own or foreign countries, as they ſhall think fit; and that without any hindrance or impediment, ſaving, however, all the laws and ſtatutes of each place.

ARTICLE III.

That the people and inhabitants of this republic ſhall be at liberty to buy up all ſorts of wares, goods and merchandizes, and the ſame to uſe and enjoy in the kingdoms, provinces, territories, and iſlands of the king of Portugal, at the firſt hand, either in ſmall parcels or by wholeſale, in whatſoever number and ſize, when and whereſoever they pleaſe; neither ſhall they be compelled to buy them of the farmer of the cuſtoms or monopoliſts, nor ſhall they be obliged to buy at any fixed price. They may alſo at diſcretion ſell, traffic, and freely carry away, any ſorts of goods, wares, and merchandize, whatſoever, from the ſaid kingdoms and dominions, paying only the duties and cuſtoms in the conſulado due on the goods they carry out, as they were paid the 10th of March, 1653-4, O. S.

And, as to their buying and ſelling by the intervention of brokers, the ſaid people of this republic, ſhall enjoy and uſe the ſame liberties, privileges and exemptions as the Portugueſe themſelves; nor ſhall they be treated with more rigour than the ſame inhabitants and natives; and that which is called the ancient charter, and all the privileges and immunities that heretofore have been granted to the Engliſh at any time, by all or any of the kings of Portugal, ſhall be confirmed by edicts, to the end that the people and natives of the ſaid republic may enjoy them, together with all other privileges and immunities which are already granted, or ſhall be granted from the time to come, to any nation, kingdom, or republic, in alliance with the ſaid king of Portugal.

ARTICLE IV.

That, whenever the people and natives of this republic arrive with their ſhips in the harbours of the king of Portugal, the ſaid people and natives ſhall not be conſtrained, by the miniſters, officers, and ſubjects of the ſaid king of Portugal, to load, or put on board their ſhips, any other ſorts or quantities of goods and merchandize, but only ſuch as ſhall be by them approved of: neither, while they ſtay in the ſaid harbours, ſhall there be put on board their ſhips, any more than two guards, or officers, at moſt; and in the unloading their ſhips, there ſhall be no unneceſſary delays. And if the ſaid ſhips, which are loaden with dry goods, ſhould not be unloaded within the ſpace of ten days, and the ſhips loaden with fiſh and proviſions, within the ſpace of 15 days, after their entrance into the port, they ſhall not, however, be obliged to pay any ſtipend, or ſum of money, or any ſalary to the ſaid guards, or officers, nor upon their account be at any farther expences, more than for the ſaid ten or fifteen days reſpectively.

ARTICLE V.

If it ſhould ſo happen that the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, or others, within the kingdoms and dominions of the ſaid king, ſhould be impriſoned, and their goods and merchandize ſeized, ſtopped, and detained, by the office of the court of inquiſition, or by its judges, or miniſters, or by the king's exchequer; and ſhould owe any money, or come to be indebted to any of the people of this republic, the ſaid debts ſhall be fully and intirely paid out of the above-ſaid goods, and merchandize, within ſix months next enſuing after the impriſonment, and ſeizure of the goods as aboveſaid, without hindrance, or any moleſtation, from the ſaid tribunal, or its judges, or miniſters; but, if among the ſaid goods and merchandize, ſo ſeized and held, there ſhould remain in being, any goods and merchandize belonging to the ſaid people and natives, the ſame ſhall immediately be reſtored to them.

ARTICLE VI.

That the captains, maſters, officers, and mariners of the ſhips of this republic, or of any of its people, ſhall not attempt to ſue, or in any wiſe moleſt, the ſaid ſhips or people of this republic, within the ſaid kingdoms and dominions of Portugal, on account of their wages, or ſalary, under pretence of their profeſſing the Romiſh religion; nor ſhall they, under this or any other pretence, apply themſelves to the ſervice of the king of Portugal, or by any other means leave the ſhips whereunto they belong; and if they become delinquents, and offend in this point, their names being taken account of, they ſhall be chaſtiſed by the magiſtrates and officers of the place, and compelled to return to their ſhips; and if they cannot be found, it ſhall be lawful for the maſters of ſuch ſhips, or veſſels, to detain their cloaths, goods, or wages, for the ſatisfaction of damages.

ARTICLE VII.

That the conſuls, who ſhall hereafter reſide in any part of the dominions of Portugal, for the aſſiſtance and protection of the people of this republic, ſhall be from henceforward nominated, and made by the ſaid lord protector; and when ſo nominated, they ſhall have and exerciſe the ſame authority, as any conſul, of this or any other nation whatſoever, doth now, or ſhall hereafter exerciſe in the dominions of the ſaid king, although they do not profeſs the Romiſh religion. And, for the judging of all cauſes, relating to the people of this republic, a judge conſervator ſhall be deputed, from whom no manner of appeal ſhall be granted, except to the Senate of Rellacao, where the law-ſuits commenced, and appealed to that court ſhall be determined within the ſpace of four months.

ARTICLE VIII.

That if any of the people of this republic ſhall die within the kingdoms and dominions of the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, the books, accounts, goods and affets, belonging to them, or to others of the people of this republic, ſhall not be ſeized or poſſeſſed by the judges of the orphans and perſons abſent, or by their miniſters and officers; nor ſhall they be liable to their juriſdiction; but the ſame goods, merchandize, and accounts, ſhall be delivered to the Engliſh factors, or procurators reſiding in that place, who are nominated or deputed by the deceaſed: but, if the defunct, whilſt living, did not nominate any, then the ſaid goods, merchandize and accounts, ſhall, by the authority of the judge conſervator, be delivered to two or more Engliſh merchants reſiding in the place, and approved of by the Engliſh conſul, after having given ſecurity by unexceptionable bondſmen (who ſhall alſo be approved by the ſame Engliſh conſul) for reſtoring the ſaid goods, merchandize and accounts, to the right owners, or to their true creditors; and the goods which ſhall appear to have been the deceaſed's, ſhall be delivered to his heirs, executors or creditors.

ARTICLE IX.

That neither the king of Portugal, nor any of his miniſters, ſhall detain or arreſt any merchants, maſters of ſhips, captains, or mariners; or their ſhips, merchandizes, or other goods which belong to this republic, or any of its people, either for war, or any other uſe whatſoever, unleſs the lord protector, or thoſe to whom ſuch ſhips and goods appertain, are firſt appriſed thereof, and give their conſent; but that the ſaid ſhips, men, and goods, may freely, and without hindrance or impediment from the aboveſaid king or his miniſters, depart from the harbours and dominions of the ſaid king, at their own pleaſure; and that the ſales of the merchandize and goods belonging to this republic, ſhall not be hindered, or delayed, under pretence that the king has occaſion for them, or for any other reaſon whatſoever; nor ſhall they be taken for the king's uſe, nor for any other uſes whatſoever, if the perſons who are concerned in the goods do not conſent thereto.

ARTICLE X.

That the people of the republic of England may freely carry in their ſhips all ſorts of goods, merchandize, and things of what kind ſoever, even arms, proviſions, or other ſuch like, from the harbours and dominions of the ſaid republic, or any other harbours or dominions whatſoever, provided they are not taken immediately from the harbours and dominions of Portugal, to be carried directly to any ports and territories whatſoever of the king of Spain; and that neither the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, nor any of his ſubjects, ſhall hinder the ſaid ſhips, goods, or men, by ſeizures, repriſals, or any other means whatſoever, from navigating ſecurely to the harbours and territories of the ſaid king of Spain, and from trading therein; and that the people of this republic may freely carry arms, corn, fiſh, and all other ſorts of merchandize, into the kingdoms, ports and territories of the king of Portugal, and ſell the ſame at their pleaſure, either by retale or wholeſale, to any perſons whatſoever, and for whatever price they can get; and they ſhall not be prohibited, circumſcribed, or incapacitated by his ſaid royal Majeſty, or his miniſters, governors, farmers of the revenue, or monopoliſts, or by any chamber or juriſdiction of any tribunal whatſoever, either public or private: and that ſuch goods and merchandize as have once paid the cuſtoms or clearances in any port or harbour whatſoever, belonging to his Majeſty, may be freely carried into any other ports or places whatſoever, of his ſaid Majeſty, without paying any farther duties, clearances, or ſums of money, beſides what the Portugueſe merchants ſhould pay, if the goods and merchandize did belong to them.

ARTICLE XI.

That the people and natives of the republic of England ſhall trade and traffic freely and ſafely from Portugal to the Brazils, and the other conqueſts of the ſaid king in the Weſt-Indies, and from the Brazils and the ſaid conqueſts to Portugal, in all ſorts of goods and merchandize whatſoever (except meal, fiſh, wine, oil, and Brazil wood, which are prohibited by the king, in purſuance of his contract with the Brazil company) paying the duties and cuſtoms which others pay who trade into thoſe parts; and it is to be underſtood that the Engliſh ſhips hired by the Portugueſe are to ſail in company with the Portugueſe fleet; and that the ſaid people and natives arriving from any of the harbours and places in Brazil, and the ſaid conqueſts, at any of the dominions of the ſaid king whatſoever, ſhall not be compelled to unload their ſhips, or to put out any goods belonging to the Engliſh; but the officers of the cuſtoms ſhall cauſe the goods to be weighed while they are on board the ſhips, to the end that the cuſtoms and tributes due on them may be paid; and that no heavier duty or impoſt, nor greater ſum of money, or expence, ſhall be demanded by, or paid to, the king's officers, than if the goods were put on ſhore; nor ſhall there be any delay in diſpatching and diſmiſſing the ſaid ſhips. And after they are arrived at any of the dominions whatſoever, of the ſaid king, and have paid the cuſtoms and duties above mentioned, they ſhall freely proceed to any other harbour or place whatſoever; and the goods put on board the Engliſh ſhips, either by the ſubjects of the ſaid king, or by others, to be tranſported to any part whatſoever of the dominions of Portugal, ſhall by no means pay greater cuſtoms, or any other different duties, than if they were put on board Portugueſe ſhips. And likewiſe, that the people and natives of the republic of England ſhall have the liberty of navigating to the colonies, iſlands, regions, ports, diſtricts, towns, villages, and dominions, belonging to the king of Portugal, in the Eaſt-Indies, Guinea, Bengal, the iſland of St Thomas, or to any other part whatſoever, on the coaſts and ſhores of Africa; and there to ſtay

or

or reſide, negociate, trade; and traffic, by land or by ſea, on the rivers and freſh waters, in any goods and merchandize whatſoever; and to tranſport all kinds of merchandize to any place or region, with the ſame freedom as formerly; and alſo with the ſame that was ever granted, by any treaty heretofore, or ſhall hereafter be granted, to the natives of any other nation, in alliance and friendſhip with Portugal: and as to the cuſtoms and duties to be paid in thoſe regions, they ſhall not pay more or heavier than thoſe which are paid by any perſon or perſons trading in any of the ſaid places or regions. And likewiſe the king of Portugal, and his ſubjects, as well the Brazil company as all others, as often as they have need of foreign ſhips for carrying on their trade and navigation to the Brazils, or for the regions and iſlands above-mentioned, or elſe-where, ſhall hire the ſhips of this republic, and its people, at the uſual and ordinary rates, as many as they pleaſe, and no other ſhips of any prince or republic; provided the number of Engliſh ſhips to be hired be ſufficient to ſupply their wants: excepting that the Brazil company (as is contained in the charter of liberties granted to them by the king's letters patent) may hire, of what nation ſoever they pleaſe, two ſhips of war, and four others, to be ſent with fiſh to the Brazils; and that as well the ſaid Brazil company, as all other the ſubjects of the ſaid king, who follow the buſineſs of merchandizing, may freely hire as many Engliſh ſhips as they pleaſe, and ſail therein to the Brazils, and the other conqueſts of the ſaid king, in the Weſt Indies, without any licence, general or ſpecial, firſt to be obtained for that end; and the ſtipend agreed upon to be charged with the intereſt, ſhall run on, and an account thereof ſhall be kept till the whole is paid, though it ſhould exceed the ſtipend on the time contracted for.

ARTICLE XII.

That, whereas the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, by his reſcript ſealed with his ſeal, and dated at Liſbon, the twenty-firſt day of January, in the year of our Lord, 1641, granted to the natives of the lands under the dominion of the ſtates of Holland, &c. free liberty of importing and exporting all ſorts of merchandize to and from his kingdoms, dominions, and territories; the people of the republic of England ſhall uſe and enjoy the ſame liberty in the kingdoms and dominions of the ſaid moſt ſerene king of Portugal.

ARTICLE XIII.

That none who are commonly called Alcaydes (i. e. Bailiffs) or any other officer of his royal Majeſty, ſhall ſeize or arreſt any of the people of this republic, of what rank or condition ſoever, except in a criminal cauſe, being detected in any flagrant fact; unleſs he be firſt impowered in writing by the judge conſervator; and that the aforeſaid people, in all other reſpects, as to their perſons, domeſticks, and dwellings, books of accounts, intereſts, merchandize, and all other goods belonging to them, ſhall enjoy equal and the ſame immunity, within the dominions of the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, from impriſonment, arreſts, and other moleſtations whatſoever, as already is, or ſhall hereafter be, granted to any other prince or people whatſoever, in alliance with the king of Portugal; nor ſhall they be hindered, by any permit or protection to be granted by the ſaid king to his ſubjects, or others frequenting his dominions, from recovering their debts; but they ſhall have a right to ſue any man to juſtice for the recovery of any juſt debt, although he be ſheltered under the patronage or protection of any perſon whatſoever, or ſecured by any alvara, or written law, or whether he be a farmer of the revenues, or inveſted with any other privilege.

ARTICLE XIV.

And foraſmuch as the rights of peace and commerce would be null and uſeleſs, if the people of the republic of England ſhould be diſturbed for conſcience ſake, when they paſs to and from the kingdoms and dominions of the ſaid king of Portugal, or reſide there for the ſake of exchanging their merchandize: That commerce may therefore be free and ſecure both by land and by ſea, the ſaid king of Portugal ſhall take effectual care, and provide, that they be not moleſted by any perſon, court, or tribunal, upon account of the ſaid conſcience, or for having with them, or uſing, any Engliſh Bibles, or other books; and that it ſhall be free for the people of this republic to obſerve and profeſs their own religion in private houſes, together with their families, within any of the dominions of the ſaid king of Portugal whatſoever; and the ſame to exerciſe on board their ſhips and veſſels, as they ſhall think fit, without any trouble or hinderance; and finally, that a place be aſſigned them for the burial of their dead. But withal, the Engliſh are cautioned not to exceed what is written in this article.

ARTICLE XV.

If it ſhall happen hereafter, that any controverſies or doubts do ariſe between the ſaid republics, which may endanger the interruption of commerce between the one and the other nation, public notice ſhall be given to the people and ſubjects of both parties, through all the kingdoms and provinces of both, and the ſpace of two years, after ſuch notice, allowed for tranſporting themſelves, goods, ſhips, merchandize, and any other ſubſtance whatſoever, without any moleſtation, impediment, or damage, offered, in the mean-time, either to their perſons or goods. And it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid people and ſubjects on both ſides, to whom any debts may be owing at the time of ſuch public notice, legally to demand the ſame within the ſaid two years, in the places and dominions where they are owing; and from thence-forward uninterrupted juſtice ſhall be done them, in ſuch manner, that in effect thoſe creditors may be able to obtain their own within the time preſcribed.

ARTICLE XVI.

If it ſhall happen, that while this treaty, friendſhip and ſociety, are ſubſiſting, any thing be committed or attempted by any of the people or natives of either of theſe parties, contrary to this treaty, or any part thereof, by land or by ſea, on the rivers or freſh waters; the friendſhip, confederacy, and intercourſe betwixt theſe nations, ſhall not for this cauſe be interrupted or broken, but ſhall rather entirely ſubſiſt and ſuſtain its full force; and thoſe only in particular, who violate the ſaid confederacy, ſhall be puniſhed, and none elſe; and juſtice ſhall be done, and ſatisfaction given, to all thoſe concerned, by all thoſe who by land, ſea, or rivers, and freſh waters, ſhall act or commit any thing contrary to this confederacy, in any part of Europe, or in any other place within the ſtreights of Gibraltar, or in America; or along the coaſts of Africa, or in any of the lands, iſlands, ſeas, creeks, bays, rivers, or in any places on this ſide the Cape of Good Hope, within the ſpace of one year after juſtice ſhall be demanded; but in all places as above, beyond the ſaid cape, within eighteen months after juſtice be required in the manner above mentioned. And if the violators of the ſaid confederacy do not appear, nor ſurrender themſelves to trial, nor give ſatisfaction within this or that ſpace of time now limited, according to the diſtance of the place, they ſhall be deemed as enemies to both parties; and their goods, ſubſtance, and revenues, whatſoever, ſhall be ſeized, condemned, and applied to the making of full and juſt ſatisfaction for the injuries done by them; beſides which, the offenders themſelves, when they happen to be in the power of either of the parties, ſhall be liable to the puniſhments which their reſpective crimes deſerve.

ARTICLE XVII.

If it happens, that any controverſy does ariſe between the ſaid king's inſpectors, officers, or miniſters, and the ſaid merchants, concerning the goodneſs of fiſh, or any other ſorts of proviſions whatſoever, which ſhall be carried to any of the ſaid king's dominions; the ſame ſhall be determined by the arbitration of good men, provided they are Portugueſe, who ſhall be equally choſen by the magiſtrate of the place, and the conſul of the Engliſh nation; and they ſhall determine the buſineſs in ſuch a manner, that no damage may accrue to the owner in the mean time, while the matter is in diſpute.

ARTICLE XVIII.

That it ſhall be lawful for the people and ſubjects of either party, to go to the ports of the other, there to reſide, and from thence to depart, with the ſame liberty, not only with merchant ſhips and tranſports, but alſo with convoys and men of war, equipped for repelling the force of the enemy, whether they are driven there by ſtreſs of weather, or come in for refitting their ſhips, or for victualling them, provided they do not exceed the number of ſix men of war, if they come there of their own accord; nor ſhall they ſtay, or continue, any longer time than may be neceſſary to refit their ſhips, or to purchaſe ſuch neceſſary things as they want; that peradventure they may not be the cauſe of interrupting the commerce of other nations which are allied in friendſhip. And if at any time any unuſual number of ſhips ſhould chance to come to ſuch harbours, it ſhall not be lawful for them to enter, without firſt having leave from thoſe in whoſe juriſdiction ſuch harbours may be, unleſs they are conſtrained to do it againſt their will, by the force of tempeſtuous weather, or other urgent neceſſity for avoiding the danger of the ſea, and ſhipwreck; the which, if it ſhould happen, they ſhall immediately ſhew the cauſe of their coming thither to the preſident, or chief magiſtrate of that place; nor ſhall they ſtay there any longer

time than they are allowed by the preſident or magiſtracy of that place; nor ſhall they commit any hoſtilities in the ſaid harbours, which may be detrimental to the ſaid republic or king.

ARTICLE XIX.

That neither the ſaid republic, nor king, ſhall ſuffer the ſhips and goods of either of them, or of their people, which ſhall at any time be taken by the enemies or rebels of the other, and brought to any ports or places of the other's countries, to be conveyed away from the right owners, or transfer the property; but the ſame ſhall be reſtored to them, or their attornies, provided they lay claim to ſuch ſhips before they are ſold and unladen; and either prove their right, or exhibit teſtimonies to make appear their property in them, within three months after the ſaid ſhips and goods are ſo brought in: in the mean time, the proprietors themſelves ſhall pay and diſcharge the neceſſary expences for the preſervation and keeping of the ſaid ſhips and goods.

ARTICLE XX.

That the people and merchants of the republic of England, who frequent the kingdoms, dominions, and countries of the ſaid king, upon account of trade, or who arrive at this harbour with their ſhips, ſhall not pay for anchorage, or other poſt charges, or any other duties, or ſums of money, more than thoſe which were cuſtomarily paid to the king, and the chamber of Liſbon; but if any ill cuſtom ſhould introduce others for the future, they ſhall not be paid.

ARTICLE XXI.

That no manner of tribute ſhall be demanded from any of the people of this republic, either in Liſbon, or in any other place, to be expended in the chapel of St George; nor ſhall they be compelled to hold any perſonal offices, or to wear any ſort of arms, or to furniſh others therewith.

ARTICLE XXII.

That the merchants of either of the aforeſaid parties, and their factors, ſervants, negotiators of their families, or other ſervitors, mariners, maſters of ſhips, and people of the navy, may ſecurely and freely paſs to and fro in the dominions, territories, and countries of the ſaid republic and king; as alſo in their harbours, and on their out-ſkirts: and the people and ſubjects of the one may have and poſſeſs dwelling-houſes of their own in any of the dominions of the other; and alſo warehouſes for keeping their goods and merchandize, as long as they hire them, without being moleſted by any body. They may alſo wear ſwords, and carry with them both offenſive and defenſive arms, according to the uſance and cuſtom of the place, that they may the better be able to defend themſelves and their goods.

ARTICLE XXIII.

That all goods and merchandizes of the ſaid republic or king, or of their people or ſubjects, of both parties, loaden on board the ſhips of the enemies of either, being there found, ſhall be made prize, together with the ſame ſhips, and ſold at public ſale. But that all the goods of the enemies of either, or merchandize loaden on board the ſhips of either party, or of their people and ſubjects, ſhall be untouched.

ARTICLE XXIV.

That all juſt debts owing to the Engliſh by the king of Portugal, on account of merchandize taken or bought, or finally of ſhips loaden either before or after putting their goods or ſequeſtration to this time, ſhall be paid and diſcharged immediately, within two years next following: and that all recognizances, bonds, and ſurety-ſhips, given and entered into by the Engliſh, on account of any ſhips hitherto laden by the king of Portugal, or any of his ſubjects, for the ports of Brazil or Angola, and afterwards detained in any of his Majeſty's harbours, or ſeized and occupied by prince Rupert and prince Maurice, or hindered in any wiſe by the ſaid king, or by any of his officers or miniſters from being able to perform their contracts, ſhall from this time forward be cancelled, broken, and made null: and that neither their perſons, nor their ſhips nor goods, ſhall be put under arreſt, or in any wiſe moleſted by the ſaid king, or by any of his ſubjects, on account, and by reaſon, of the ſaid contracts.

ARTICLE XXV.

Whereas there was a convention between the new parliament, and the ambaſſador extraordinary from the king of Portugal; and the ſaid ambaſſador, in the ſecond of the ſix preliminary articles, which were agreed to on the 29th of December, 1652, obliged himſelf, that all the ſhips, goods, monies, and debts, appertaining to any Engliſhmen whomſoever, which were taken and detained in the dominions of the king of Portugal, ſhould immediately be freely reſtored in ſpecie, provided they were ſtill of the ſame value, and remain in the ſame good condition they were in at the time when they were firſt detained; but if they are grown worſe than they were, then ſatisfaction ſhould be given for them, according to their true price or value when they were firſt detained. But as to the compenſation of the damages, they being aſcertained by a declaration of the council, in their letter bearing date the 15th of November, 1652, and therein declared by the council, that it was not their intentions to preſs and demand reſtitution by vigour of law, but only in ſuch manner as ſhould be conformable to equity and reaſon, and that the ambaſſador might witneſs his inclinations to procure a peace; upon this ſuppoſition he obliged himſelf, that the damages ſhould be made good. In the fifth article of the ſaid preliminaries, the ſaid ambaſſador farther took upon him, or engaged, that all the ſhips and goods of the Engliſh, which by the princes Rupert and Maurice, or by any ſhip whatſoever under their command, have been carried to Portugal, and there diſpoſed of, or are ſtill remaining, or either by them or their command, have been carried again from thence, ſhall either immediately be reſtored to their owners and proprietors, or reparation and ſatisfaction ſhall be given for them. And becauſe ſome controverſies are ſtill remaining concerning the petitions or demands of the merchants and others, touching ſatisfaction; to the end theſe petitions or demands, theſe complaints of right and equity, may be judged and determined, it was by both parties contracted, concluded, and agreed upon, that the ſaid petitions, or demands, about the damages and ſatisfactions, ſhall be referred, as they are by theſe preſents referred, to the judgment, award, and ſentence, of Dr Walter Walker, John Crowther, Dr Henry da Sylva, ſecretary of the embaſſy, and Francis Perreira Rebella, agent in the affairs of the ſaid embaſſy, indifferent perſons, and choſen as well on the part of the king of Portugal, as of the lord protector; who by theſe preſents are made and conſtituted recognizers, arbitrators, and judges, to hear and examine all and every one of the demands and complaints of every one of the merchants and maſters of ſhips, and others who claim a right to all or any of the ſhips, monies, debts, merchandizes, and all other goods whatſoever, mentioned in the ſaid preliminary articles: which arbitrators ſhall meet and ſit in the city of London, on the 20th day of July next, O. S. and the ſame day they ſhall take a ſolemn oath before the judges of the high court of Admiralty of England, that they will renounce all favour or reſpect to either party, and all private intereſt in judging the matters to them referred; and, by theſe preſents, they are inſtituted and authoriſed to ſummon any perſons whatſoever, and to order ſuch depoſitions and papers to be laid before them, as ſhall have any relation to the buſineſs referred to them; and, whether they take the ſaid oath or not, they ſhall, in a ſummary way, examine and enquire into the truth of all theſe petitions and complaints, and alſo all and every one of the damages which were occaſioned by the ſaid arreſts and detainers. And the ſaid arbitrators are authoriſed by theſe preſents to finiſh all the cauſes above mentioned, and to liquidate, adjudge, and finally determine, the damages or loſſes, as they, or the major part of them, in their diſcretion and conſciences, ſhall judge to be juſtice and equity, and to publiſh their final ſentence in writing under their hands; which ſentence, ſo publiſhed, ſhall bind and oblige both parties, without any appeal, reviſal, or redemption whatſoever. And the ſaid king binds himſelf effectually to perform, keep, and obſerve the ſame, in all its members and articles, as alſo to pay, or cauſe to be paid, ſuch ſum or ſums of money as ſhall be adjudged him as aforeſaid. And beſides which it is agreed, that if the ſaid arbitrators do not agree and finally determine upon the ſaid things to them referred, before the firſt of September next, O. S. then the ſaid petitions or demands, which are left undetermined by the ſaid arbitrators, ſhall be ſubmitted, as they are by theſe preſents ſubmitted, to ſuch perſon of the ſaid lord protector's council, as the ſaid lord protector ſhall nominate, within any time whatſoever, after the firſt of September next: for which end the ſaid lord protector ſhall, by his mandate, authoriſe ſuch perſon ſo nominated, finally to determine upon all and every one of the petitions or demands aforeſaid. And if, before the pronunciation of ſentence by the ſaid counſellor, any papers ſhould arrive from Portugal, or any procurator to ſollicit about any of thoſe cauſes, the ſaid counſellor ſhall give them a new hearing, and the ſentence which ſhall be given by ſuch perſon ſo inſtituted under his hand and ſeal, ſhall conclude and bind both parties, and the ſame ſhall be duly complied with and executed. And for the greater caution and ſecurity that ſuch ſum of money, as ſhall be adjudged by the ſaid arbitrators, or arbitrator, may be honeſtly paid, it is agreed and concluded, that one moiety of the duties and cuſtoms of Portugal, ariſing from all the goods and merchandize whatſoever, of the natives and populace of this republic, who trade to Portugal, ſhall, immediately after the date of this treaty, be applied to the ſaid payment. Which moiety ſhall, from time to time, be paid to that perſon which the lord protector

protector ſhall nominate; thereby giving ſatisfaction to the merchants, maſters of ſhips, and proprietors, for their loſſes or damages.

ARTICLE XXVI.

It was concluded and agreed upon, that this preſent peace and confederacy ſhall not be broken by any other league or confederacy either already made, or that ſhall be made, by the moſt ſerene protector of England and king of Portugal, with any other princes or republics whatſoever; but this peace and confederacy ſhall be intirely kept, and its effects always remain in full force.

ARTICLE XXVII.

It was agreed and concluded, that both parties ſhall truly and firmly obſerve, and put in execution, the preſent treaty, and all and every one of the things therein contained and comprehended, and cauſe the ſame to be obſerved and performed by the people and ſubjects of the one and the other party.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

It was agreed and concluded, that the preſent treaty, and all and every one of the things therein contained and concluded, ſhall be ratified by the ſaid lord protector and king, by the letters patent of both parties, adorned with the great ſeal in due and authentic form, within ſix months next enſuing; and within the ſaid time mutual inſtruments ſhall be delivered on both ſides: and alſo, this peace and confederacy ſhall immediately (after the delivery and exchange of the inſtruments) be proclaimed in the uſual forms and places.

In truth and teſtimony of all which, we the commiſſioners of his highneſs the lord protector, and the ambaſſadors extraordinary of the moſt ſerene king, by virtue of our reſpective commiſſions and full powers, have ſigned the preſent treaty with our hands, and ſealed it with our ſeals.

Done at Weſtminſter, the 10th day of July, in the year 1654.

A SECRET ARTICLE between the lord protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, on the one part; and the moſt ſerene king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on the other part. Agreed on with the lord high chamberlain, his Majeſty's ambaſſador extraordinary in London.

That the people and inhabitants of England, trading (as has been already mentioned) in the kingdoms, dominions, ports, or territories of the ſaid king, ſhall not pay more duties and taxes, but only in the manner following, viz. That the Engliſh goods, merchandize, and manufactures ſhall never exceed 23 per cent. on their valuation for the payments of the duties; and they ſhall be favourably valued, according to the regimen of the cuſtom-houſe, and the ancient laws of the kingdom: and ſuppoſing there ſhould be any motive for raiſing the valuation, by reaſon of a riſe in the real value of goods or merchandize, it ſhall not be done but by the conſent and in the preſence of two Engliſh merchants who reſide and dwell in Portugal, and are choſen by the Engliſh conſul; and granting that the merchandize ſhould fall from its preſent or future exact value, the valuation and doubt ſhall be determined by diſintereſted perſons, who ſhall be choſen by the Engliſh conſul, and the officers of the cuſtom-houſe; and the aboveſaid inhabitants of the ſaid kingdom trading in the ſaid dominions and lordſhips of this republic, ſhall pay the preſent taxes and duties as they are newly impoſed and ſettled in this preſent month of May 1654, according to the uſance and laws of the place, both parties obſerving the laws and ordinances of each place reſpectively. And thus it was agreed upon and concluded, that the aboveſaid article, and every thing contained therein, ſhall be confirmed or ratified by the ſaid king, and by the ſaid lord protector, by the letters patent of the one and the other party, ſealed with the great ſeal, in due and authentic form, within ſix months next following; and within the ſaid time inſtruments ſhall be paſſed or exchanged by the one and the other party.

In faith and teſtimony whereof we ſign: the commiſſioner of the ſaid moſt ſerene king, by the force, vigour, and virtue of our commiſſions reſpecting this act, and we ſign this ſecret article with our hands and firms, and we ſeal it with our manual ſeals.

Done at Weſtminſter the 10th day of the month of July, 1654.

A CHARTER of the PRIVILEGES and LIBERTIES of the Engliſh; conſiſting of various ancient proviſional laws, alvaras, and decrees, granted by ſeveral of the kings of Portugal, in favour of the Engliſh, and others.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves of this ſide, and beyond the ſeas in Africa, lord of Guiney, and the conqueſt, navigation, commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and the Indies, &c. To all juſtices, commiſſioners, auditors, judgers, judges, officers of juſtice, and perſons of my kingdom and dominion of Portugal; where, or before whom, this my preſent charter of privileges may be preſented, and to whom the acknowlegement thereof by right may belong: know, that in this my very noble, and always loyal city of Liſbon, in the court of the cuſtom-houſe thereof; to me, and to my auditor, who at that time was doctor Nicholas Dias Tinoco, as judge-conſervator of the Engliſh, a petition was made, in the name and behalf of all the Engliſh nation then reſiding in this city; wherein they ſet forth, that among the laws, charters, and decrees, which the ſovereign of theſe kingdoms had granted in their favour, it was provided, that no bailiff, or conſtable, ſhould enter their houſes, to execute any warrants, or mandates, on their perſons, or goods; nor ſhould it be done in any other place, or by any other perſon, but by their judge-conſervator, or by his mandate, under the penalty of twenty cruſadoes forfeiture to their uſe; except the officers of juſtice ſhould be going in purſuit of a malefactor, detected in ſome flagrant fact: and that alſo they were excuſed, or exempted from paying any manner of rates, taxes, and loans, or performing any perſonal ſervices, or holding any offices of charge whatſoever. And likewiſe, that they ſhould not be impriſoned, or detained in priſon, even in a criminal caſe, otherwiſe than by the mandate of my ſaid auditor, their judge-conſervator, without homage, according to the proviſional law of the king, Don Emanuel; who, we hope, is taken into glory; and that likewiſe they were authoriſed to carry arms, offenſive and defenſive, in all this kingdom, as well by night as by day, before, or after, the ringing of the evening-bell, either with light, or without light, and enter with them into the prohibited places of all this kingdom. And, in like manner, they informed me how they had been vexed and diſturbed by the ſcavengers, officers, who uſed to perſecute them, notwithſtanding, in order to excuſe any differences, they uſed to ſend them one hundred reis, which they would not accept of; but from the Portugueſe they accepted of forty reis, and leſs; but, becauſe the petitioners were ſtrangers, they condemned them in 1000 reis, or, at leaſt, in 500 reis. And, likewiſe, when they went out of this city about their buſineſs, the juſtices of the country villages uſed to vex and diſturb them; and they would not keep, or have any regard to, their ſaid privileges, but rather put different and wrong conſtructions upon them, in order to vex and trouble the ſaid petitioners; and they took away their arms, which they carried, and were authoriſed to carry.

They begged of me, and of my ſaid auditor, their judge-conſervator, to declare by his diſpatch, that they were authoriſed to uſe the ſaid arms, and that, if any officer of juſtice had a mind to impeach them, it ſhould be done before their judge-conſervator, and no other judge, or juſtice, whatſoever, under penalty of being ſuſpended from their offices, and falling under the laſh of their privileges; and they would thankfully receive the favour done them.—This was the contents of the ſaid petition: together with which, Thomas Boſtock, an Engliſhman, preſented the charter of the liberties and privileges of the Engliſh nation, in which were inſerted the ſubſequent papers and articles, viz.

DON FERDINAND, king of Portugal, &c. to thee Fernando Rodriguez, by my authority, judge of the cauſes relating to my cuſtom houſe of Liſbon, or to any other, who after thee ſhall occupy thy place, health, &c. Know thou, that it being my pleaſure to favour the Engliſh merchants, natives of the kingdom of England, and the dominions of the prince of Wales, I give thee to them for their judge in the law-ſuits they have, or may have, with any perſons of my dominions, on account of merchandize bought or ſold by them, to or from ſuch perſon, or perſons, of my dominions.

I thee therefore command, that thou (or whoever may be in thy place) take cognizance of the law-ſuits and cauſes, that between the parties aboveſaid may happen, either by complaint of the one, or the other, upon account of merchandize, as is above already expreſſed. And, I command, that henceforward no others ſhall take cognizance of the ſaid law-ſuits, beſides thee, the ſaid Fernando Rodriguez, or any other perſon, that by my authority may fill thy place, as judge of my ſaid cuſtom-houſe; and thou ſhalt not do any thing to the contrary, or beyond this my command. In witneſs whereof, I have commanded this my grant to be given in Liſbon, the 29th day of October, 1450, written by Stephen Armes, for the king Don Ferdinand.

The KING.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom this letter ſhall come, we by it make known, that whereas we are graciouſly pleaſed to favour all the Engliſh merchants of the kingdom of England, who come to the city of Liſbon, or other places whatſoever of the kingdom, it is our pleaſure and commands, that they ſhall henceforward have and enjoy all the privileges and liberties that are granted to the Genoeſe, and other merchants, who at this time come to, or reſide in, our kingdoms,

doms, either in the city of Liſbon, or in any other places whatſoever, within our ſaid kingdoms. We therefore command all judges and juſtices of the ſaid kingdoms, and all general receivers of the revenues, ſcriveners, and all others whatſoever, to whom this may be preſented, that they look into the ſaid privileges and liberties, which the ſaid Genoeſe, and others, frequenting our dominions, have obtained from theſe kingdoms, and have been heretofore confirmed by us; and ſee that they keep, obſerve, and fully comply with the ſame, in favour of the Engliſh merchants, for the ſame cauſe and reaſon as they ſtrictly obſerve them in the favour of the ſaid Genoeſe, and other merchants, at preſent reſiding in our kingdoms, it being a new favour we ſhew to the ſaid Engliſh, having before given them privileges and liberties. In teſtimony whereof we have commanded this our letter-patent to be given in their favour, in the city of Coimbra, the 10th of Auguſt, 1400. Written by James Paes, for the king Don John.

The KING.

DON ALFONSO, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom this our letter ſhall come, we by it make known, that we privilege all the Flemings, Germans, French, and Britons, who come to reſide in our kingdoms; and, foraſmuch as Michael Arman, a German ſhoemaker, and a dweller in our city of Liſbon, is a ſubject of one of the ſaid nations, which we ſo privilege, and he humbly imploring our favour, that we command our privilege to be given him, and conſidering his requeſt, we have thought fit to ſhew him our grace and favour; therefore it is our royal pleaſure and will, that from henceforward he ſhall not be conſtrained to pay any of our demands, rates, taxes, or loans, whatſoever; nor ſhall he do any ſervices, or take upon him any charge whatſoever, or ſervitudes that are, or have been, occaſioned by us, or by our councils, upon any account whatſoever: they ſhall not guard either priſoners, or monies, nor ſhall they be tutors, or preceptors, to any perſons whatſoever; nor ſhall they be obliged to hold any manner of offices, or ſervitudes, under us, or our councils, againſt their will. In like manner they ſhall not be obliged to go into our ſervice, either by ſea or land, in any parts or places whatſoever; nor ſhall they be obliged to keep horſes, arms, or mules for our ſervice, notwithſtanding any law or cuſtom to the contrary. In the like manner we command that no perſon, of what ſtate or condition ſoever, ſhall be ſo preſumptuous as to take from them their dwelling-houſes, or cellars, or ſtables; nor ſhall they quarter therein; neither ſhall their bread, wine, cloaths, or any other thing whatſoever of theirs, be taken from them againſt their will.

We give them leave to hire and ride on beaſts of burden, with ſaddle and bridle, all over our kingdoms and dominions, notwithſtanding the prohibition and ordinance made about this to the contrary. And we command our harbinger, the harbinger of the queen our conſort (whom above all we prize and love) as alſo of the princes and lords of the ſaid city, that in caſe all and every one of us ſhould have occaſions, their ſaid houſes ſhall not be taken from them for the uſe of us, or any other perſons, in any manner, or by any means whatſoever. Such is our royal favour, upon pain of our diſpleaſure, and the forfeiture of ſix milreis to be paid for our uſe by any perſon whatſoever, who ſhall act contrary to this our mandate; the which we command our collectors and receivers to levy, and receive for our uſe, and the ſcriveners of their offices, ſhall enter it in their books, that a good and true account thereof may be kept under the penalty of paying double the ſum for their neglect.

We therefore command all our juſtices, judges, officers of juſtice, collectors, receivers, and all other officers, and perſons whatſoever, to the ſight or knowledge of whom this may come, that they ſhall acknowlege, and hold the ſaid Michael Arman, German ſhoemaker, for relieved, and excuſed from the aboveſaid things; and he ſhall not be obliged, or conſtrained to any of them: therefore ſee that you comply with, and cauſe this our letter to be well and truly complied with, and kept and obſerved for the cauſes and reaſons therein contained; nor ſhall ye do, or conſent that any thing ſhall be done to the contrary hereof, in any manner, or by any means whatſoever; for ſuch is our grace and favour, that it ſhall ſo be done, and let neither one nor the other do any thing to the contrary. Given in the city of Evora, the 28th day of March, 1452. Written by Loupo Fernandes for the king Don Alfonſo.

The KING.

DON EMANUEL, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom theſe our letters may come, health, and deſire of love. And whereas we are accuſtomed to honour ſuch as are worthy, and with liberal beneficence tread in the paths of honour: and whereas our approved-of ſubject, Simon Lopes, having applied to us with his accuſtomed humanity, we have heard him, and liberally granted his requeſt, as will appear by theſe our letters, wherein may be ſeen our gracious favours in behalf of the eſteemed gentlemen Anthony de Belver and Conrado Selim in their own names, and in the names of their company of noble merchants of the auguſt and imperial city, and other towns of Germany; wherein they ſignified to us their deſire of ſettling a houſe of their company in this city of Liſbon, in order to negociate, trade, and merchandize in our kingdoms, if we approved of granting them ſome favours and liberties, which they requeſted of us, conformable to ſuch as were given them in other countries; and as we have underſtood their requeſt, and conſidered how much honour and humanity is due to ſuch gentlemen, as well upon account of their perſons, as being worthy of all favour, as on account of their commodious trade, which according to our opinion will be advantageous for our people; as alſo on account of their being imperial citizens of the auguſt emperor of the Romans, Maximilian our beloved couſin. For which reaſons we conſent to their petition with very good will, granting them the liberties and privileges they deſire, the which have never been granted to any others, or even to our own ſubjects, as in theſe letters will appear and be contained at large, viz.

In the firſt place, we make over a freedom to the ſaid noble merchants, whereby they may freely negotiate, trade, ſell, and buy, in all our kingdoms and dominions, either by their own proper perſons, or by their factors and ſervants. It is our will, and we command, that whenſoever their merchandize arrives in any ſhip or veſſel before, or in the port of, or near this city, at the time of unloading, before any thing be unladen, our diſcharging officers ſhall firſt acquaint them of the time they intend to go on board; that if they pleaſe they come and bring boats with them, and therein ſee their goods unloaden; but if they do not come, or ſend within three hours, a little more or leſs, then the ſaid officers may unload, although the owners of the goods are on ſhore in the city.

It is our commands, that as ſoon as their goods are brought into the cuſtom-houſe, they ſhall immediately pay the decima and ſiza, except for woollen cloths, of which they ſhall pay the ſiza at the time of ſale, according to the preſent practice, and as it is contained in our articles; which ſizas ſhall be paid to the officers of the tables, whereunto ſuch duties do belong, and they ſhall enter the ſame in their books as paid, that all doubts about the payment may be avoided for the future. And ſo ſoon as they have paid the duties, and received the ſaid goods in their own poſſeſſion, they may carry them where they pleaſe, all over our kingdoms and dominions, without being obliged to acquaint any body of their moving from place to place, or of the ſales they make of the ſaid goods; much leſs ſhall they be obliged to enter or take out a permit from any of our offices of inland duties: nor ſhall they incur any penalty, or be deemed as ſmugglers, on account of their not entering the ſame, or taking out a permit for moving their merchandize from place to place, according to the method ordained by our charters, articles, and laws: and this is to be underſtood of ſuch goods and merchandize as have paid our duties, and have cleared, of which they ſhall have certificates from our officers, that by virtue of the ſame they may carry and ſell their merchandize all over our kingdoms, without paying any thing more; and they ſhall be treated in the ſame manner as the Flemings, as is contained in their privileges.

It is our will and pleaſure, that no officer, nor farmer of the duties, nor any other perſon whatſoever, ſhall enter into their houſes to ſearch, nor ſhall they in any wiſe oppreſs them, except by mandate of our accomptant-general: he firſt having information from ſome unſuſpected perſon, or perſons, making it appear, that they have in their houſes ſome counterband or run goods; and when ſuch an occaſion ſhall offer of ſending to their houſe, it ſhall be done by one ſcrivener of the cuſtom-houſe, and one of the farmers of the duties, if there be any; and without the ſaid ſcrivener they ſhall not go to their houſes to ſearch for the ſaid counterband goods.

It is our will and pleaſure, that they ſhall not pay any duties, either for the proviſions, or the furniture they import for the uſe of their houſe, much leſs ſhall they any duties for the woollen cloths they import for cloathing their factors and ſervants, allowing them two ſuits a year for each perſon; alſo canvaſs and wrappers of hemp for bags, and crocus for their merchandize, they depoſing on oath, that they import all thoſe things for their own private uſe, and not for ſale; becauſe, if they are for ſale, they ſhall pay the uſual duties.

It is our will and pleaſure, and we command, that none of our officers of juſtice preſume to enter into their houſes, except the ſaid corregidor, or ſuch as ſhall be ſent by him, and no other, under the penalty of twenty cruſadoes forfeiture to their uſe; except the officers of juſtice are in purſuit of ſome malefactor detected in any flagrant crime; in ſuch caſe they may enter into their houſes.

It is our will and pleaſure, that they ſhall carry arms not only themſelves, but alſo their domeſtic ſervants and attendants, ſo far as ſix of them in number, which arms they may carry by night and by day, all over our kingdoms and dominions, as well before the ringing of the evening-bell, as afterwards, with or without light, provided, however, that they

they do not uſe them otherwiſe than they ought to do; and this notwithſtanding our laws to the contrary: the which ſervants, however, ſhall not be Spaniards, for none of that nation ſhall enjoy this liberty.

It is our will and pleaſure, and our order, that any perſon whatſoever, who will not obſerve, keep, and comply with theſe their privileges, or doth any thing contradictory to them, ſuch perſon ſhall incur the penalty of 50 cruſadoes, in which he ſhall be condemned for the uſe of the hoſpital of All Saints in this city; and by theſe preſents we command our accomptant-general, that he knowing of any perſon who will not keep and comply with theſe privileges, according as is therein contained and declared, ſhall immediately cauſe execution to be made for levying the penalty on the ſaid perſon, which ſhall immediately be delivered to our general-receiver of the ſaid hoſpital, and charged in the books for every time they violate theſe privileges, or do any thing contrary thereunto; beſides which we command all other juſtices and officers of juſtice whom it may concern, that they obſerve this declaration, and ſee that it be intirely kept and complied with, together with all other privileges they have obtained of us, effectually putting the ſaid penalty in execution; foraſmuch as it is our will and intention, that the grace and favour we ſhew them ſhall in all things be underſtood to redound more to their advantage than to their prejudice; and becauſe our pleaſure is ſuch, we have commanded this our alvara, or law, ſigned by us, to be given in their favour; the which ſhall be as valid as if it had been our letter, regiſtered in the court of chancery, notwithſtanding any law or ordinance there may be to the contrary. Done in Almeyrim the 7th day of February, in the year 1411. Written by Andrew Pireo.

By the ſaid privilege which we have granted them, they may load their merchandize in any ſhips they pleaſe, as well Portugueſe as ſtrangers, trading and lading from the iſlands: and beſides this, we make them our natives; and we are juſt now informed, that at the Caza dò Vero Pezo, the officers put doubts and difficulties to them, when they loaded their goods in foreign ſhips, as our ſaid natives are wont to do: from whence it follows, that it is of damage to them to be privileged perſons, which was not our intention, but rather we intended to do them all favour and honour. Therefore, for the declaration of which it is our will and pleaſure, that as well in this caſe, as in any other whatſoever, which they have a mind to enjoy as ſtrangers, they may do it; becauſe we will not have it ſo that their privileges ſhall leſſen any favour granted them as ſtrangers, if it be poſſible to avoid it. And therefore they have for their privilege, that no officer of juſtice whatſoever can enter into their houſes, without an order from their ſaid judge, under certain penalties; and we are informed that ſome officers and perſons have meddled with them, and with things belonging to them, and have uſed them ill; and, in order to provide againſt this, it is our will and pleaſure, and we require, that no officer of ours either diſturb or meddle with them, or any thing that belongs to them, except their ſaid judges, or any by their order. And if any ſuch caſe ſhould happen, wherein their perſons and their factors ought to be taken into cuſtody and impriſoned, it is our will and pleaſure, that they ſhall be conducted to the caſtle by their ſaid judge, or his bailiff, in perſon, and not by their ſervants or followers; and if the cauſe of their impriſonment be ſuch as will admit of bail, we command that immediately, without other delay, the ſaid bail may be taken. Thus ſtands the caſe, wherein it is ſo largely contained and declared, and was contained and declared in the ſaid privileges and petition; the which being preſented to me, and by me conſidered, as alſo by my ſaid auditor Dr Nicholas Dias Tinoco, I therein pronounce my diſpatch as followeth, viz.

Let them make uſe of arms as is expreſſed in their privileges; and, for this end, the charters and mandates they petition for ſhall be granted and drawn out for them in authentic form, wherein ſhall be included the article that ſpeaks of arms, and that other juſtices cannot enter their houſes without an order from this conſervatory; and all bailiffs, conſtables, and all other officers of juſtice, that ſhall do any thing to the contrary, ſhall immediately be notified by the ſcrivener of the ſaid conſervatory, that without the approbation of this court, they meddle not with theſe privileged perſons, under the penalty of being ſuſpended from their offices, and falling under our diſpleaſure. Liſbon, the 11th of May, 1645.

TINOCO.

And this diſpatch being put to the ſaid petition, by virtue thereof this preſent charter of privileges was paſſed or drawn out in authentic form, for all in general, and every one in particular; by which I command, ſo ſoon as this ſhall be preſented to you, being firſt regiſtered in my chancery, you comply with it, and keep it, and cauſe that it may be very intirely complied with, and kept, in the manner as is therein contained; and in complying therewith, ye ſhall not hurt, moleſt, nor vex the ſaid Thomas Boſtock, nor his ſervants and factors; nor ſhall ye do, or cauſe to be done, any act or acts, as ſerving writs, warrants, &c. upon him, or his houſe, except it be done by the mandate of the ſaid my auditor, his competent judge conſervator, and not by the mandate of any other judge, without approbation of this conſervatory; it being ſo decreed them by a charter granted in favour of the Engliſh, by the king Don Emanuel (who we hope is taken into glory.) But rather ye ſhall render, or cauſe to be rendered him all favour and honour. The which let one and another ſo comply with; and nothing to the contrary ſhall ye do, nor ſhall ye put any doubt or delay to the obſervance of it; leſt the penalty of 50 cruſadoes be levied upon you, and ye fall under the laſh of the ſaid privileges, and of being ſuſpended, &c.

Given in this very noble and always loyal city of Liſbon, and court of the cuſtom-houſe, and conſervatory thereof, the 4th day of the month of November, from the year of the birth of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, 1647.

The king our lord ſent this by Dr Anthony de Faria Machado, his judge-advocate, and his auditor, &c. &c. &c.

A DECREE about Engliſhmen's not being ſerved with any executions, without an order from their judge-conſervator.

On the part, and in behalf of the Engliſh nation, it was repreſented to me, that it being granted them by the 13th article of the treaty of peace, that no judger, or other officer of juſtice, could order to be ſeized, or taken into cuſtody, any ſubject of the king of Great-Britain, my good brother and couſin, for any cauſe, either civil or criminal, without firſt having an order for ſo doing from the judge conſervator; the ſaid article is ſo little regarded, that Engliſhmen are every day ſeized and taken into cuſtody, without the precedency of ſuch order from the judge-conſervator; ſo that the ſaid article is by no means obſerved, or complied with; and becauſe, according to the wording thereof, it is ſaid, that only in flagrant crimes the Engliſh could be impriſoned by any of my miniſters, and in other caſes recourſe ought to be had to the conſervator, or that he ſhould write his conſent to the orders of other judges before they ſhould be valid;

I recommend to the lord chief juſtice of the houſe of ſupplication, that he cauſe the ſaid article to be obſerved in its due form. In Liſbon, the 23d of Auguſt, 1667.

KING.

WHEAT, which is brought from the iſlands, or from any any other parts beyond the ſeas, may be imported free of duties in any parts or places of this kingdom.

I the king make known to whom this my alvara, or law, may come, that by the courts, which I held in this city of Liſbon, on the 28th of January, 1641, a reply to which I commanded to be given, in the year 1642, it was requeſted of me by the ſtate, in chapter 55, that I would pleaſe to exempt all wheat imported from the iſlands, and other parts beyond the ſeas, from paying any duties in this kingdom, it being a proviſion abſolutely neceſſary for the inhabitants thereof: and, as I have maturely conſidered the convenience and good of the common-weal of the kingdom, and other ſubjects, and for other reaſons, for which I am accuſtomed to grant what is requeſted of me by temporal laws, and by their means to ſhew grace and favour; it is my will and pleaſure, that the wheat which comes to this kingdom, as well from the iſlands as from any other parts beyond the ſeas, ſhall not pay any manner of duty; from which it ſhall be exempted, and free for ever. I therefore command the inſpectors of my treaſury, judges, juſtices, commiſſioners, and all other officers of juſtice, and other perſons of theſe kingdoms and dominions, to whom this my alvara, or law, may be preſented, and to whom the acknowlegement thereof doth belong, that they comply with it and keep it; and cauſe it to be entirely kept, obſerved, and complied with, according as is therein contained, without putting the leaſt doubt or contradiction to it; becauſe ſuch is my grace and favour: and it ſhall be regiſtered in the books of my treaſury, and of the cuſtom-houſe, and its regimens, and all other places where it may be neceſſary, that it may come to the notice of every body; and it ſhall be valid, as if a law made in court, and a charter given in my name, and ſealed with the ſeal-pendent, notwithſtanding the ordinance in the ſecond book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Anthony de Morais writ it in Liſbon, the 25th of May, 1647.

KING.

Of the things which owe no duties in this city of Liſbon; taken from the 12th chapter of the Book of Rates of the Cuſtom-houſe.

All wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, and pulſe that are brought into this city from any foreign parts whatſoever, ſhall not pay any manner of duties in this cuſtom-houſe; nor fleſh-meat, cheeſe, or butter; foraſmuch as I have ſhewn favour to the chamber and people of the ſaid city, to free the

ſaid things from duties; and, in the ſame manner, arms, powder, horſes, gold, ſilver in lump, or in coin, and books, ſhall not pay any duty whatſoever in the ſaid city and cuſtom-houſe thereof. But all other things, and any kinds of merchandize, of what ſort or quality ſoever, which belong to this cuſtom-houſe, and are brought thereto by ſea or by land, as is already ſaid, although expreſs mention ſhould not be made in the ſaid books of rates, of every ſpecies of goods in particular, yet they ſhall pay the ſaid duties of 10 per cent. for the decima, and 10 per cent. for the ſiza; and this, becauſe the ſaid merchandize and things ſhall pay the ſame duties of 20 per cent. in all and every one of the cuſtom-houſes of this kingdom, iſlands, and dominions hereof; and the people who bring them to the ſaid cuſtom-houſe of Liſbon, ſhall bring with them certificates from the officers of the other cuſtom-houſes from whence they came, to make appear that they have paid the duties, foraſmuch as otherwiſe they will be obliged to pay the duties in this city for any goods that are brought to the cuſtom-houſe thereof. This is all that was expreſſed in the ſaid 12th chapter, which, by order of the commiſſioner of the cuſtom-houſe, James Soarés, the Notary Luis da Coſta has taken this copy of, in authentic form, the 2d of Auguſt, 1668.

A PROVISION, or LAW, whereby the Engliſh are exempted from paying decima on their ſtock, and from being obliged to take upon them any charge in war.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, ſhall come, that as I am deſirous to oblige the Engliſh nation with particular marks of my royal favour, on account of the ancient friendſhip or alliance which I have had with that crown, and now in particular, in reſpect of ſome motives which induce me to it; it is my will and pleaſure to ſhew grace unto the Engliſh merchants, and others of the ſame nation, reſiding in theſe kingdoms and dominions of Portugal, who have not been therein naturalized, by exempting them from paying the decima on their ſtock, which all the other dwellers in this kingdom pay: and I grant them liberty, that they ſhall not be obliged to keep horſes; and if they have any for their own ſervice, they ſhall not be taken from them againſt their will, nor ſhall they be obliged to any other charge of war. And becauſe the publication of this privilege may be followed with great inconveniences, this alvara, or law, ſhall remain in all ſecreſy; and for the better keeping it ſo, it ſhall not go out of the hands of the Engliſh conſul, for the time being, reſiding in my court; nor ſhall it be regiſtered in any other book but in that of ſecrets, in the ſecretary's office, in the expedient or original writing from whence this was tranſcribed in Alcantara, the 29th of May, 1656. And I Peter Severinde Noronha wrote this by particular command of his Majeſty, whom God preſerve.

KING.

Of ſuch things as owe no duties whatſoever; which are as follow, viz.

Pulſe from England, Scotland, and Ireland, New-England, and its dominions; that is to ſay, beans, peaſe, lentils, wheat, barley, Indian corn large ſort, ditto ſmall ſort, rye, butter, cheeſe, gun-powder, horſes, gold, ſilver, in lump or in coin, books, fleſh-meat of any ſort whatſoever; concerning which there is a ſentence againſt the contractors or farmers of the inland duties on fleſh, obtained by Henry Bomelman, in the years 1645 and 1646, pronounced in court, the ſaid farmers being plaintiffs, and the ſaid Bomelman defendant; wherein it was decided, that the things in diſpute owed no more than 40 reis for the entry, and 200 reis for the guard; which ſentence lies in the office of the eſcrivener, Chriſtopher de Campos. Alſo no duty ſhall be paid for biſcuit, or any other ſpecies of bread, cannon-ſhot of iron or bell-metal, bandeliers, pikes, and muſkets. But, however, theſe things ought to paſs through the cuſtom-houſe, and the accoutrements of war be offered to the ſervice of the king; and, if he has no occaſion for them, then the owners thereof may carry them where they pleaſe.

ALVARA, or a LAW, in favour of the ENGLISH; allowing them to repute their ſhips as Portugueſe, which pay no duties going from Liſbon to the Weſtern Iſlands, and other conqueſts belonging to the crown of Portugal; which are word for word in the manner following; viz.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that the Engliſh merchants reſiding in the Weſtern Iſlands, ſent to acquaint me by their petition, that I had been pleaſed to command, among other agreements and reſolutions of the treaty of peace lately concluded with the lord protector of England, that they might tranſport and carry any ſort of merchandize, which had paid the duties in any one port, to any other ports or places, without paying any more duties, or any manner of tribute, beſides what is paid by the native Portugueſe themſelves, for the goods that belong to them; and that, having once paid their duties in this city, they ſhall not pay again any ſort of tribute in any other port; and that the Engliſh ſhips which are freighted by Portugueſe, ſhall not pay more duties than is paid for the goods navigated in Portugueſe veſſels, as will appear by the tenth and eleventh articles of the treaty, the authentic tenor whereof was by them preſented: and whereas the ſaid articles were not duly obſerved and complied with in the ſaid iſlands, but, on the contrary, the Engliſh were vexed and diſturbed with doubts and moleſtations, and that the natives of the iſlands had unjuſtly extorted a great deal of money from them, ſince the ſaid articles of peace were made and publiſhed; whereas, in the obſervance thereof, due regard ought to have been had to the exemptions I granted to the Engliſh, becauſe the royal mandates ought always to be effective, and the tranſgreſſors of them puniſhed:

Therefore they requeſted of me, that I would pleaſe to favour them with my proviſional law, to oblige the miniſters of the ſaid iſlands, to whom the obſervance of what is contained in the ſaid articles doth belong, that they comply with the ſame, and obſerve and keep them in the manner as is therein expreſſed; and that they ſhould not conſent to the moleſtation of the petitioners, nor take from them more than they ought to pay, and that reſtitution ſhould be made of what they had hitherto been unjuſtly obliged to pay. Conſidering what they alledged, and the form of my orders, which had been given on ſuch like matters, they hoped I would grant their requeſt, and with all humility they would thankfully receive the favour.

I, having ſeen and conſidered the ſaid petition, did thereupon ſend my decree, dated the firſt of June of this preſent year, wherein it was written, that a proviſional law ſhould be prepared and paſſed by the council of my treaſury, in favour of the ſaid petitioners, conformable to the articles of peace; and if it ſhould appear to the ſaid council, that there was any thing in the matter, neceſſary to be repreſented to me, they ſhould do it immediately. And in compliance with this my order, the council gave their diſpatch, that the ſaid proviſional law ſhould be made and paſſed, in the form ordained by my ſaid decree, and that the articles of peace mentioned in the ſaid petition, ſhould be requeſted from the ſecretary of ſtate's office, which was accordingly complied with; but, as the ſaid articles are written in Latin, they were tranſlated into the Portugueſe language, and are as follows, viz.

[Here follow articles the tenth and eleventh, which are wrote in full length, in folio 11.]

Wherefore I command the commiſſioners of my treaſury, and all other miniſters and officers thereof, and the juſtices of the ſaid iſlands, and all other perſons to whom this my proviſional law may be preſented, and the acknowlegement thereof doth belong, that they comply with it, and keep it intirely; and that they cauſe it to be obſerved, complied with, and kept, in conformity to the articles herein tranſlated, without any manner of doubt or contradiction; becauſe ſuch is my will and pleaſure: and it ſhall be valid, though its effect ſhould laſt more than one year, notwithſtanding the ordinances or regimens that may be to the contrary; the which ſhall be regiſtered in the books of the cuſtom-houſe, that it may be publickly known to all people. Anthony Velloſo Eſtaſo writ it in Liſbon, the 4th of July, 1657; and John Pereira Bitancur ordered it to be tranſcribed.

QUEEN.

ALVARA, or a LAW, to exempt the Engliſh from paying brokerage againſt their will.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that having a regard to what the Engliſh merchants, reſiding in the iſland of Madeira, ſent to inform me of by their petition, requeſting that I would pleaſe to order my proviſional law to be paſſed, in order to prevent the brokers from obliging them to pay brokerage, unleſs they, of their own accord and free-will, thought fit to employ them, according to the third article of the laſt treaty of peace with England: and having ſeen what they allege, and likewiſe the information given by Dr Manoel da Cunha, conſervator of the Engliſh, together with the anſwer given upon this by my attorney-general, it is my will and pleaſure, and command, that the brokers ſhall not oblige the Engliſh to pay brokerage, except the ſaid Engliſh ſhall freely, and of their own accord, employ them, as they requeſt in their petition; having conſidered the articles of peace, and likewiſe the ſaid anſwer of my attorney-general. And this alvara, or law, ſhall be duly complied with, in the manner as is therein contained; and it ſhall continue in force, though its effect may laſt more than one year, notwithſtanding the ordinance in the ſecond book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Emanuel de Couto writ it in Liſbon, the 27th of January, 1661, and ſent this by two conveyancers. Jacinto Facundes Bezerra ordered it to be tranſcribed.

QUEEN.

ALVARA, or a LAW, which the king, DON ALPHONSUS VI. granted, at the requeſt of the Engliſh merchants, on account of ſuch caſes in law that may take place in the conſervatory, even with ſuch perſons as are privileged.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that the merchants of the crown of England repreſented to me, that notwithſtanding the conſervatory, which by an article of peace I have granted them for their cauſes, they are obliged to litigate in other courts, under pretence that the words of the general conceſſion do not abrogate the privileges granted in law, and are enjoyed by their contenders, which is a great hindrance to trade, they being obliged to attend various courts, and delay their cauſes, with trials about preferences: and becauſe, in all things which are not repugnant to juſtice, I deſire to favour the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, my good brother and couſin, I have ordered this matter to be examined with all due conſideration; and it has been my pleaſure to reſolve, that the ſaid conſervatory ſhall take place, even with ſuch as are privileged, and with privileges which are incorporated in law, either upon account of perſons, or upon account of things; ſuch as officers of the mint, of the court of India, and mines, and other ſuch like; that every body, in cauſes which proceed from trade, ſhall be obliged to anſwer, or litigate, whether they are plaintiffs, or defendants, in the ſaid conſervatory, notwithſtanding any laws or ordinances whatſoever to the contrary: therefore, for this effect, it is my will and pleaſure to annul them; but, however, with the declaration it is not my intention, by this conceſſion, to alter any thing whatſoever belonging to the judge or court of my exchequer, upon account of the quality of the matters and things therein tranſacted; and it is always to be underſtood, that appeals are to be made from the ſaid conſervator of the Engliſh, to whom they belong, as has been hitherto practiſed. And this alvara, or law, ſhall be complied with, in the manner as is therein contained; and it ſhall be valid, though its effect may laſt more than one year, notwithſtanding the ordinance in the ſecond book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Emanuel de Couto writ it in Liſbon the 16th of September, 1665. Jacinto Facundes Bezerra ordered it to be tranſcribed.

KING.

The ſuperintendant of the collectors of the 4 ½ per cent. of the pariſh of St Paul in this city, notwithſtanding the order given him in this junto or council, ſhall not oblige the ſubjects of the Catholic King, the French, Engliſh, and Hollanders, who are not naturalized, to pay what was charged to them on their ſtock; and thoſe who have lands in this kingdom, and are not naturalized, ſhall pay only what is charged on the ſaid lands, his Majeſty having declared it ſo by his decree of the 9th of the preſent month of July. And all other ſtrangers of other nations ought to pay what is charged them on their ſtock; becauſe, in order for them to enjoy this privilege, it is neceſſary they ſhould ſhew what they have to entitle them to it, that it may be obſerved and kept accordingly. And this diſpatch ſhall be recognized in the office of the accomptant-general of war. Liſbon, the 18th of July, 1699, with four firms of the miniſters of the junto of the three ſtates. Regiſtered, folio 106.

TRANSCRIPT of the RESOLUTION about the TAX on STOCK.

In the book of advices from the counties and hundreds, which ſerves in this office of the accomptant-general of war and the kingdom, in folio 211, is regiſtered the order given to the auditor of the town of Crato, about the particular things mentioned in this proviſion; of which tenor, other orders have been given to all the reſt of the miniſters and ſuperintendants of the pariſhes of this city, and its diſtricts; of which the following is a tranſcript.

PROVISIONAL, fol. 211. of the BOOK, Number XII.

Don John, by the grace of God, &c. I make known to thee, auditor of the hundred of Crato, that I am informed by the conſultations of the junto of the three States, that the ſubjects of ſeveral different nations diſpute the payment of the tax on their ſtock, which they were charged with, under pretence that they are privileged by the articles of peace, which free them from paying the ſaid tax. I was pleaſed to reſolve, on the 28th of April laſt, that the French, and the ſubjects of other nations, ought to pay the tax on ſtock, which was charged to them according to their trade, and that the ſubjects of the Catholic king, my good brother and couſin, and thoſe of England and Holland, ought to be exempted from this contribution; but, however, ſuch as are naturalized, notwithſtanding the privileges of England and Holland, ought to pay the tax on ſtock, in the ſame manner as the natives of this kingdom do. And I ſend you this advice of my ſaid reſolution, that thou mayeſt obſerve it in that hundred, in the part which concerns thee; and due notice ſhall be taken of this order in the office of the accomptant-general of war. The king our lord ſent this by Don Philip de Souza, captain of his royal guards, and by Francis de Mello, forreſter-general of the kingdom, both deputies of the junto of the three ſtates. Lewis Simeons de Azevedo writ it in Liſbon, the 7th of May, 1708. Gaſpar Salgado, who ſerves as ſecretary, ordered it to be tranſcribed. Accordingly, theſe are the contents of the ſaid privileges, which in every thing ſhall be duly complied with, according as is therein contained; and by virtue hereof, they ſhall he obſerved and kept, and every one ſhall comply with them, and nothing to the contrary ſhall ye do, &c. And this is regiſtered in my chancery of the accounts of the kingdom and palace. Given in this city of Eaſt Liſbon, the 8th day of the month of February, from the year of the birth of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, 1717.

A TREATY of COMMERCE betwixt the moſt ſerene lady ANNE, queen of GREAT-BRITAIN, and the moſt ſerene lord Don PETER, king of PORTUGAL, and of the Algarves, &c. Agreed upon and concluded in Liſbon, the 27th of December, 1703.

PROLOGUE.

Whereas the league and ſtrict friendſhip which is between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent princeſs Anne, queen of Great-Britain, and the moſt potent Peter, king of Portugal, requires that the commerce of both the Britiſh and Portugueſe nations ſhould be promoted as much as poſſible; and her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain, hath ſignified to his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, by the moſt excellent John Methuen, Eſq; member of the Engliſh parliament, and ambaſſador extraordinary in Portugal, that it would be very acceptable to her, if the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of Britain, might be admitted into Portugal, the prohibition of them being taken off: that this matter might be treated and tranſacted, they have given their full power and commands; that is to ſay, her ſacred Majeſty of Great-Britain to the aboveſaid moſt excellent John Methuen, and his ſacred Majeſty of Portugal to the moſt excellent Don Emanuel Telles, marquis of Alegrete, Conde da Villa Major, knight profeſſed in the order of Chriſt, &c. &c. &c. who, by virtue of the full powers to them reſpectively granted, having maturely and diligently conſidered the matter, have agreed upon the following articles, viz.

ARTICLE I.

His ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit for ever hereafter into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accuſtomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheleſs upon this condition, that is to ſay,

ARTICLE II.

That her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines, of the growth of Portugal, into Britain; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by any other title whatſoever, directly or indirectly (whether they ſhall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogſheads, or other caſks) than what ſhall be demanded for the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating one half of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures.

ARTICLE III.

The moſt excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promiſe and take upon themſelves, that their above-named maſters ſhall ratify this treaty, and within the ſpace of two months the ratifications ſhall be exchanged.

For the faith and teſtimony of all which things, I the plenipotentiary of her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great-Britain, have confirmed this treaty by the ſubſcription of my hand, and by the ſeal of my coat of arms: and the moſt excellent lord the plenipotentiary of his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, for avoiding the controverſy about precedence, between the two crowns of Britain and Portugal, hath ſubſcribed another inſtrument of the ſaid tenor, changing only what ought to be changed for that reaſon.

Given at Liſbon, the 27th of the month of Decem. 1703.

JOHN METHUEN. (L. S.)

A NEW

A NEW LAW, concerning the DIAMONDS found in the MINES of BRASIL.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on this ſide, and beyond the ſeas in Africa, lord of Guinea, and the conqueſt, navigation, commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and the Indies, &c. I make known to whom this my law may come, that as the mines of diamonds, which are found in my dominions, do belong to me in the ſame manner, and by the ſame title, as all the mines of metals, I have therefore a right to make ſuch reſerves of them as I may think proper; and as, by the cuſtom of thoſe dominions in which diamonds are found, ſuch as are of a ſpecial greatneſs, are reſerved for the ſovereign; therefore it is my will and pleaſure, that even in the countries in which, by my permiſſion, diamonds are extracted (beſides the other preccpts and regulations preſcribed by the laws, and ſuch as I have been pleaſed to give) all diamonds that are of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, ſhall be reſerved for my uſe; and the perſons who find them, or take them out of the mines, ſhall deliver them immediately, within thirty days (to be counted from the time of their finding or taking them up) into my mints, or to the next neighbouring miniſters, that they may remit them to the mints; of which delivery an entry ſhall be made by the ſcrivener, who has the charge of that office, which he ſhall be obliged to remit to the governor. And ſuch diamonds being manifeſted and delivered by any ſlave whatſoever, that ſlave ſhall be made free, and he ſhall have his charter of freedom granted him, and drawn out in my name by the ſuperintendant of the mint, or by the miniſter to whom he made ſuch delivery; and to his owner ſhall be given four hundred milreis for the value of the ſaid ſlave, which ſhall be paid him in the ſaid mint where the ſaid diamond was delivered or remitted to. And if the delivery be made by a freeman, to him the ſaid freeman ſhall be given the ſame four hundred milreis. And all the diamonds, of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, which may be found henceforward, and not delivered in the manner above-mentioned, it is my will and pleaſure, that they ſhall be forfeited to my uſe, whoſe hands ſoever they may be found in; of which all, or any perſons, may impeach, inform, or denounce; and their denunciation being proved, and the diamond taken into cuſtody, they ſhall receive four hundred milreis as a reward, to be paid them only out of my treaſury. And if the informer be a ſlave, that ſlave ſhall have his liberty given him, and his owner ſhall receive four hundred milreis for the value of him, except the information of the ſlave be given againſt his maſter; for then in ſuch caſe the ſlave ſhall be free, and two hundred milreis ſhall be given him, and both the freedom and the premium ſhall be paid and complied with, after the denunciation is adjudged to be good; and the maſter ſhall have nothing for the value of his ſlave, but he ſhall incur the penalties here-under declared. And, in the ſame manner ſuch may be informed againſt, who finding or taking out diamonds, of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, do clandeſtinely hide, ſmuggle, or ſecret them, and not manifeſt and deliver them in the manner above preſcribed; which perſons, beſides the loſs of the diamond, or its value, I command, ſhall incur the penalties eſtabliſhed againſt thoſe who ſmuggle, ſecret, or run gold; and, being a ſlave, he ſhall undergo the puniſhment of being whipt and confined to the gallies during his life. In like manner ſuch perſons may be informed againſt, who ſend ſuch diamonds out of the kingdom; which perſons, beſides the loſs of the value of the diamonds, ſhall incur the penalty of being baniſhed ten years to Angola, and confiſcation of all their goods; and thoſe informations being given by the ſlaves of ſuch delinquents, the ſaid ſlaves ſhall have their liberty given them as a reward. But if the information be given by a ſlave belonging to another perſon, then, beſides the ſlave's being ſet at liberty, his maſter ſhall receive four hundred milreis for the value of him, as is declared above.

And becauſe it is not my royal intention to comprehend the diamonds that have been taken out of the mines to the time of the publication of this reſolution, it is my pleaſure, that all perſons who have diamonds in their poſſeſſion, that weigh twenty carats, or upwards, which were taken out of the mines before the publication of this reſolution, do manifeſt them within two months (to be counted from the day of the publication hereof) before any of my auditors of the ſtate of Braſil, and the other miniſters of this kingdom, and in all my dominions where ſuch diamonds are; and that they deliver them to the ſaid miniſters to be remitted to this court, and delivered into the mint thereof, in order that they may be purchaſed for my uſe, at the juſt valuation that ſhall be put upon them. And ſuch as are not manifeſted and delivered within the ſaid ſpace of time, ſhall be reputed as diſcovered or found after the ſaid publication; and they ſhall be irremiſſibly loſt or forfeited to my uſe in any hand whereinſoever they may be found: which perſons may be impeached, informed of, or denounced againſt, and the informers ſhall have the ſame reward, and the delinquents the ſame puniſhment, as above mentioned; and in the ſame manner may be impeached ſuch as are accomplices or abettors in the ſmugglings here prohibited: and on them ſhall be executed the ſame puniſhments in this reſolution eſtabliſhed, and the informers ſhall have the ſame rewards.

Wherefore I command the lord chief juſtice of the houſe of ſupplication, governor of the high court of king's-bench, and the houſe of Oporto, vice-king of the ſtate of Braſil, or whoever fills that place, judges of the ſaid courts, governors of the conqueſts, and all juſtices, commiſſioners, auditors, judges, officers of juſtice, and perſons of theſe my kingdoms and dominions, that they obſerve, comply with, and keep this my law, and cauſe the ſame intirely to be obſerved, complied with, and kept, as it is therein contained. And that it may come to the notice of every body, in order to cut off the allegation of ignorance, I command my chancellor-general of theſe kingdoms and dominions, or whoſoever fills his place, that he cauſe it to be publiſhed in the chancery, and ſend tranſcripts thereof, under my ſeal and his firm, to all the juſtices of the counties and hundreds of theſe kingdoms, and to the auditors of the donatory countries, in which the juſtices do not enter into viſitation; whom I command to proclaim it immediately in the places where they are, and cauſe it to be proclaimed in all their hundreds and tithings; and it ſhall be regiſtered in the books of my diſembargo, and houſe of ſupplication, and of Oporto, and in the Ultramarine council, and all other places where ſuch like laws are uſed to be regiſtered; and this original ſhall be depoſited in the Tower of Records. Given in Weſt Liſbon, the 24th of December, 1734.

KING.

COPIES of the TWELFTH and THIRTEENTH ARTICLES of the TREATY made betwixt the Crowns of ENGLAND and PORTUGAL, at the Marriage of CHARLES the Second, June 23, 1661. Taken from fol. 1. of the regiſter-book, by petition made by conſul POYNTZ, to his Majeſty Don JOHN, December 12, 1716. Tranſlated.

ARTICLE XII.

In order that the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain may enjoy greater advantages in trade and commerce in all the dominions of the king of Portugal, it was agreed, that if the merchants and factors (beſides the privileges which were granted to them by the firſt treaties) aſk, in virtue of this, to reſide in all places where they have a mind eſpecially, they may inhabit and enjoy the ſame privileges and immunities, as far as relates to trade, as the native Portugueſe, in the cities and places of Cochim and Dio, provided that the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, that are to reſide in the above places, do not exceed the number of four families in each of them.

ARTICLE XIII.

The ſame privileges, liberties, and immunities, ſhall be enjoyed by the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, in the place of Bahia de todos os Santos, Pernambuco, and Rio de Janeiro, and in all other the dominions of the king of Portugal in the Eaſt-Indies.

For the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, ſee the article AMERICA.

TURKEY COMPANY and TRADE. Under the article LEVANT TRADE, we have ſhewn that the FRENCH, in the year 1535, were the firſt nation that made TREATIES OF COMMERCE with the Porte: we have likewiſe there ſhewn, by what wiſe meaſures and regulations that neighbouring nation firſt eſtabliſhed, and has ſince advanced, this branch of commerce to a greater extent and advantage than is now done by any other European power. And if thoſe wiſe meaſures and regulations are duly weighed and conſidered, we cannot be at all ſurprized, that the effects thereof ſhould prove more lucrative and ſucceſsful to France than the meaſures taken by other nations, with regard to that trade, have proved to them. Likewiſe,

Under the article ORIENTAL TRADE, we have reſumed this ſubject, and given an hiſtorical view of the conduct and proceedings of our own Turkey company, and the caſe of the governor and this company of merchants trading to the Levant Seas, as laid before the parliament by the Turkey company in the year 1753, in order to prevent the trade being laid abſolutely open, as was then aimed at. Under this article, alſo, I have given an abſtract of what has been argumentatively urged, in oppoſition to this company, in order to lay that trade open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects.—Theſe particulars we have judged neceſſary to ſtate before the public, as preliminary to the determination of the expediency of opening this trade.

But as this matter was depending before the parliament, when I drew up what has been ſaid under ORIENTAL TRADE, and it being then doubtful what meaſures would be taken with this company, I thought it more eligible to poſtpone what I had further to obſerve in relation hereunto, 'till the determination of the legiſlature ſhould be known. And that the reader may have

have before him what the parliament have done upon this occaſion, we ſhall here inſert the laſt act made with regard to this company, anno vicesimo ſexto Georgii II. regis, intitled, An act for enlarging and regulating the trade into the Levant Seas, which is as follows:

Whereas king James the Firſt, by his letters patent, bearing date the 14th day of December, in the third year of his reign, did grant to ſeveral perſons therein named, and to their ſons, and ſuch other as ſhould then after be admitted, or made free, that they ſhould be one fellowſhip, and one body corporate and politic, by the name of The Governor and Company of Merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas; and, by the ſame name, ſhould have perpetual ſucceſſion; and did direct, that all perſons, ſubjects of this realm, being mere merchants, which then were, or after the date of the ſaid letters patent ſhould happen to be, under the age of twenty-ſix years, or not out of his or their apprenticeſhips, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, if he or they ſhould demand the ſame within one year next after he or they ſhould attain the age of twenty-ſix years, or within one year after the end of his or their apprenticeſhips, and ſhould offer and pay to the ſaid governor and company, for his or their admittance, the ſum of twenty-five pounds; and did further direct, that all perſons, ſubjects of this realm of England, being mere merchants, above the age of twenty-ſix years, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, upon paying a fine of fifty pounds; and did alſo direct, that all and every the ſons of ſuch as were or ſhould be free of the ſaid company, and alſo all their apprentices employed in that trade for the ſpace of three years, or upwards, within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, ſhould, after the end of their apprenticeſhips, be admitted to the freedom of the ſaid company, on payment of the ſum of 20s. only. And whereas king Charles the Second, by his letters patent, bearing date the 2d day of April, in the thirteenth year of his reign, did ratify and confirm the ſaid letters patent of king James the Firſt, and did further direct, That no perſon reſiding within twenty miles of the city of London, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, or have any benefit of the privileges thereof, unleſs he be made free of the ſaid city. And whereas the trade into the Levant Seas has very much decreaſed, and the taking of leſs fines for the admiſſion of perſons into the freedom of the ſaid company, and the not reſtraining the freedom thereof to mere merchants, and to ſuch perſons as, reſiding within twenty miles of the city of London, are free of the ſaid city: and the ſecuring to all perſons admitted into the ſaid company, the liberty of exporting, at all times hereafter, all ſorts of goods and merchandizes (not prohibited by law to be exported) to any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, from what parts of Great-Britain, and at what time, and in what quantity, and on board what ſhips (navigated according to law) they ſhall reſpectively think proper; and alſo of importing, in the like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, raw ſilk, or any other goods or commodities purchaſed within the ſaid limits (not prohibited by law to be imported) are the moſt probable means of recovering and extending the ſaid trade, for the benefit of this nation: may it therefore pleaſe your Majeſty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the 24th day of June, 1754, every ſubject of Great-Britain, deſiring admiſſion into the ſaid company of merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas, commonly called, or known, by the name of the Turkey Company, ſhall, upon requeſt for that purpoſe, made by himſelf or any other perſon in his behalf, to the governor, or deputy-governor, of the ſaid company for the time being, be admitted into the ſaid company, within the ſpace of 30 days after ſuch requeſt ſhall be made, and ſhall have, uſe, and enjoy all the liberties, privileges, juriſdictions, franchiſes, power, and authorities, granted to the ſaid company by the ſaid letters patent, as largely, fully, and amply, to all intents, conſtructions, and purpoſes, as any member of the ſaid company could, can, or may have, uſe, and enjoy the ſame, by virtue of the ſaid letters patent, ſuch ſubject paying or tendering, or cauſing to be paid or tendered, for ſuch his admiſſion, for the uſe of the ſaid company, the ſum of 20l. and no more, any thing in the ſaid letters patent, or either of them, to the contrary in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the 24th day of June, 1754, the following oath, in lieu of the oath heretofore taken by perſons, upon their admiſſions to their freedom in the ſaid company, ſhall be taken by every perſon, upon his admiſſion to his freedom, either before the governor or deputy-governor of the ſaid company, or before two of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace (who are hereby reſpectively impowered and required to adminiſter the ſaid oath) which juſtices are hereby required to certify, under their hands and ſeals, that the ſaid oath was taken by on the day of before us, two of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace in and for

——— 'You ſwear to be good, faithful, and true, to our ſovereign lord king George, his heirs and ſucceſſors: you ſhall be obedient and aſſiſtant to the governor, his deputy, and aſſiſtants, of the company of merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas, in all lawful matters: you ſhall truly hold and keep to your power (having no ſingular regard to yourſelf, to the hurt and prejudice of the common-weal of the ſaid company) all ſtatutes, acts, and ordinances, which have been duly made, according to the grant of privileges granted to the ſaid company, and conſiſtent with an act of parliament made in the 26th year of the reign of king George the Second, intitled, An act for enlarging and regulating the trade into the Levant Seas: the ſecrets of the ſaid company you ſhall not diſcloſe; and, if you ſhall know any perſon or perſons, that intend any hurt, harm, or prejudice, to our aforeſaid ſovereign lord the king's Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, or to the ſaid company, or the privileges of the ſaid company, you ſhall give knowlege thereof to the ſaid governor, deputy, or aſſiſtants, or to ſome of them; and you ſhall not colour or free any goods belonging to any one not free of the ſaid company.

So help you God.'

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the ſaid 24th day of June, 1754, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for all and every perſon and perſons, being free of the ſaid company as aforeſaid, ſeparately or jointly, to export, or cauſe to be exported, from any port or place in Great-Britain, to any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, in any Britiſh or plantation-built ſhips (navigated according to law) at any time, and to any perſon or perſons whatſoever, being freemen of the ſaid company, or ſons or apprentices of freemen (ſuch freemens ſons or apprentices being his Majeſty's Chriſtian ſubjects) ſo long as ſuch perſon or perſons ſhall remain under, and ſubmit to, the protection and direction of the BRITISH AMBASSADOR AND CONSULS RESPECTIVELY, for the time being, any goods, wares, or merchandizes whatſoever, not prohibited by law to be exported; and alſo to import, in like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters patent, raw ſilk, or any other goods, wares, or commodities, purchaſed within the ſaid limits (not prohibited by law to be imported) upon paying or ſecuring the cuſtoms, and other duties payable for the ſame to his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by virtue of any law now in force, or hereafter to be made; and, upon paying ſuch impoſitions or ſums of money as ſhall be aſſeſſed and charged upon all goods, wares, or merchandizes, to be exported or imported as aforeſaid, or upon any ſhips laden with the ſame, for defraying the neceſſary expences of the ſaid company, any thing in the ſaid letters patent, or either of them, or any ordinance, conſtitution, or bye-law of the ſaid company, made, or to be made, to the contrary, in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

Provided always, That the exportation of gold or ſilver, either in foreign coin or bullion, ſhall remain ſubject to the bye-laws of the ſaid company, made or to be made in that behalf.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That it ſhall and may be lawful for the ſaid governor or deputy-governor, and company, in general court aſſembled, to make ſuch rules, ordinances, or bye-laws, for the good government of the ſaid company, as the major part of the members preſent at ſuch general court ſhall think neceſſary; but no ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall be valid, or of any force or effect whatſoever, unleſs the ſame be confirmed at a ſubſequent general court, to be held at leaſt one calendar month after the general court at which ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law was made; and if any ſeven, or more, of the freemen of the ſaid company, ſhall think themſelves aggrieved by any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, made or to be made, it ſhall be lawful for them to preſent an appeal, in writing, againſt the ſame, to the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, who are hereby impowered and required, with all convenient ſpeed, to hear ſuch appeal, and to approve or diſapprove ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, and in ſuch manner as to them, or the major part of them preſent, ſhall appear fit and reaſonable.

Provided, alſo, That in caſe any ſuch appeal ſhall be brought againſt any future rule, ordinance, or bye-law, to be made by the ſaid governor and company, ſuch appeal ſhall be brought within twelve calendar months after ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye law, ſhall be ſo made and confirmed as aforeſaid; and if any ſuch appeal ſhall be brought againſt any rule, ordinance, or bye-law of the ſaid company now in force, ſuch appeal ſhall be brought within twelve calendar months after the ſaid 24th day of June, 1754.

Provided, alſo, That the perſons appealing againſt any ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall, at the ſame time, give notice in writing of ſuch appeal, to the governor, deputy-governor, or ſecretary of the ſaid company, for the time being.

Provided, nevertheleſs, That no ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall be of any greater or other force or validity, than the ſame would or ought to have been if no ſuch appeal had been given by this act.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That whenſoever any general court of the ſaid company ſhall be appointed to be held, for the making of any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, public notice thereof ſhall be given in the London Gazette, at leaſt 20 days before the time appointed for the holding of ſuch general court.

Provided always, and it is hereby enacted, That all rules, orders, and regulations made for preventing infection, ſhall be and remain in full force and virtue, as if this act had never paſſed. See our article QUARANTINE.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That no goods or merchandizes liable to retain the infection of the plague, and coming from the Levant, without a clean bill of health, ſhall be landed in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland, or of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, unleſs it ſhall appear to the ſatisfaction of his Majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, or of his or their privy-council, that the ſaid goods or merchandizes have been ſufficiently opened and aired in the lazareto of Malta, Ancona, Venice, Meſſina, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marſeilles, or one of them *.

* Before the making of this act, it was obſerved, by a judicious advocate for laying the trade intirely open [ſee ORIENTAL TRADE] and which may deſerve attention, as the trade is now circumſtanced, viz. 'That all ſhips returning from the Levant in times of infection, might perform quarantine either at Port Mahon or Gibraltar, as theſe places are directly in their voyage homewards, and might be made very convenient for ſupplying them with proper ſtores and refreſhments; ſo that it would be, in ſome meaſure, the intereſt of ſhips on a long voyage, to call at one or other of theſe places, eſpecially if they were made FREE PORTS. Moreover for the greater ſecurity, all ſhips returning from the Levant might be obliged, under the penalty of forfeiting ſhip and cargo, to touch at one or other of theſe ports, and obtain bills of health from the magiſtrates, before they proceed to England. Theſe cautions are very practicable in themſelves, and yet much ſtricter than have been uſually required either of the Turkey company, or of the merchants trading to Barbary and Morocco.'

REMARKS.

The preceding act of parliament having obviated ſome, if not moſt, of the principal objections that have been made againſt the company, and in favour of laying the trade abſolutely open [ſee our article ORIENTAL TRADE], we ſhall only obſerve, that it muſt be left to a few years experience to ſhew whether the general permiſſion of trade to the Levant, given by the aforeſaid act, will tend to enlarge this commerce, according to the intent and title, or not.—But, to have rendered this act ſtill the more effectual, it is to be wiſhed, we humbly preſume, that the heavy charges that neceſſarily attend the Turkey trade (as the ſupport of the ambaſſador, conſuls, &c.) were borne by the ſtate inſtead of the company.—I am not unapprized of the unprecedented munificence of his preſent moſt gracious Majeſty, to our ambaſſador at the PORTE *, in order to give more weight to our miniſter, and to render our mercantile intereſt in Turkey the more reſpectable; and yet it ſeems the French have, by the meaſures they take, more influence than we, and have rapidly advanced their commerce in the Turkiſh empire, while ours has been many years upon the decline. When this trade was firſt eſtabliſhed, there might be many good reaſons why the Turkey company was charged with the ſupport of the ambaſſador at the Porte, together with their conſuls, &c. and the ſame reaſon might exiſt for a number of years, but things have now taken a very different turn. It has been proved to a demonſtration that our Levant trade hath declined; it has indeed languiſhed to that degree, that our Turkey merchants, who ſome years ſince figured at the top of the commercial world, now bow their diminiſhed heads. Yet is not the trade intirely ſunk; on the contrary, we import annually from Aleppo above 600 bales of raw ſilk. This alone is a great national object; for if theſe 600 bales of raw ſilk contain 180,000 ſmall pounds †, what a benefit do we not receive by the manufactory of this ſilk, in the article of labour?

* As this may be a piece of ſecret hiſtory to moſt, yet, in juſtice to the king's liberality, I think the public ſhould know, that, beſides the appointments allowed by the company to our ambaſſador at the Porte, his Majeſty, out of regard to the merit of Mr. Porter, while commiſſaire d'affaire at the court of Vienna, and to induce him the more earneſtly to promote the intereſt of his kingdoms at the PORTE, has allowed him out of his privy-purſe, which was never done to any ambaſſador there before, the additional appointment, as commiſſaire d'affaire, of 1000 l. ſterling per annum, with this memento, 'that it is not to be made a precedent of.'

† A bale of 25 batmans, or 300 ſmall pounds, produce 180,000 lb.

In regard to the laying the Turkey trade intirely open in England, it will give great light into this ſubject to apprize the reader of what has been urged pro and con, with relation to the laying open the Levant trade in France; nor will it prove uſeful ſo to do upon this peculiar occaſion only, but it will give us a lively idea of the meaſures taken in France, in order ſo thoroughly to canvaſs all commercial topics, that the reſolutions of the ſtate may terminate in the promotion of the general proſperity. And this I am the more diſpoſed to do, as it may, ſome time or other, determine us to make eſtabliſhments of the like kind.

What I ſhall preſent to the reader upon this occaſion, is an extract from ſome MEMORIALS preſented by the DEPUTIES OF THE COUNCIL OF TRADE IN FRANCE, to the ROYAL COUNCIL, in 1701, being the year after the eſtabliſhment of the ſaid council of trade by king Lewis XIV.

A MEMORIAL of the deputies of the trading towns in the weſt of France, concerning the commerce with the Levant, the goods uſed in that trade, and why Marſeilles alone has the privilege of trading thither.

Experience teaches us that the Engliſh carry on [in 1701] the trade of the Levant with much greater advantage than our nation; their woollen cloths are better made, are better and cheaper than ours, and, therefore, are more in requeſt, and have a greater vent. They carry thither lead, pewter, copperas, logwood, which are goods that they are maſters of, together with a great deal of pepper: and, that they may not drain their country of its gold and ſilver, the ſhips which are freighted with thoſe goods are laden likewiſe with dry fiſh, of their own catching, ſugars from their colonies, and other goods of their own product, which they ſell on the coaſts of Portugal, Spain, and Italy, and receive the produce in pieces of eight, which they carry to the Levant, to add to the ſtock neceſſary for purchaſing the merchandizes which they take in there, and carry to England.

This way of trading is very beneficial to the Engliſh, ſince by ſupplying themſelves with coin from foreigners, they draw ſo much the leſs from home; and beſides, they make a profit by the goods they ſell in their paſſage upon the coaſts of Portugal, Spain, and Italy, which contributes to render this a good trade, and enables them to ſell the merchandizes of the Levant much cheaper than any other nation.

Upon the like plan it would be more advantageous to France to permit the towns of the weſt to carry on this trade in the ſame manner directly.

We have, as well as the Engliſh, woollen cloths, ſtuffs, paper, ſilks, tobacco, fiſh of our own catching, and linen cloths, which they have not; we can, like them, make up our cargoes of different ſorts of goods, ſome for the Levant, and others for Spain, Portugal, and Italy; we may ſell thoſe goods by the way, and carry the produce in money to the Levant to help make our purchaſes.

Thus the towns of the weſt might carry on this trade without ſending our money abroad, our manufactures would be conſumed in greater quantities, as far as the competition with thoſe of the Engliſh would permit, and we might bring back in our ſhips all the merchandizes of the Levant that are wanted in the weſtern parts of France, which would then come much cheaper to us than now they do.

Since the towns of the ocean have been obliged to go and unlade their goods at Marſeilles, inſtead of endeavouring to continue and increaſe that trade, they have been forced to relinquiſh it abſolutely. And indeed, how can it be expected they ſhould come from the extremity of the Levant to pay their reſpect to Marſeilles? ſubject themſelves to conſume a fourth or a third more of victuals than uſual? pay greater wages to ſeamen, and higher rates for inſurance? lie at heavy charges while they are unlading and relading their goods; and by this long delay, and that of making a round-about voyage, run the riſque of being ſtill at Marſeilles, when they might have been at home?

The pretence of contagious diſtempers, ought not to be made uſe of againſt the towns of the ocean to exclude them from this trade; ſince every body is taught by ſelf-preſervation to guard againſt them, there being likewiſe proper places appointed for quarantine on ſuch occaſions; beſides, the paſſing of the Streights, and the change of climate, purifies the malignant air; for which reaſon, the Engliſh and Dutch returning from the Levant have no need of ſuch precautions; and there's hardly any inſtance, that this trade has introduced among them any peſtilential diſtemper, which ſome would put us in apprehenſion of.

By the arrêts, none but the towns of Dunkirk and Rouen can receive goods from the Levant directly without touching at Marſeilles; nor they without paying 20 per cent. for entry; the other ports complain of being excluded: this extraordinary duty has been laid on but ſince the year 1685, whereby the throwing up of that trade has not only been continued, but it has likewiſe given occaſion to the farmers to be very vexatious in extending that duty to merchandizes which are not ſubject to it, as allums, oils of Italy and Barbary, manna, aloes, aſſafœtida, wax of Camenice, muſk, ſal armoniac, gum ſenegal, nay, even to ſublimated mercury, which is prepared at Amſterdam, and to other the like goods

that

that they could impute to this trade; which has occaſioned the exceſſive dearneſs of all drugs that are uſed in our manufactures.

Conſequently, our manufactures have laboured under this dearneſs: which is contrary to the views we ought to have, of increaſing the export and vent of them to foreign parts, and putting them, as much as poſſible, upon an equal foot with foreign manufactures.

The town of Marſeilles, which is ſolely impowered to manage the Levant trade, thrives by the excluſion of the other maritime towns, to the prejudice of the public: that city ought not to oppoſe the liberty demanded by the ports in the ocean, to drive the ſaid trade directly, and to bring home their returns without paying the 20 per cent.

Marſeilles, by being a free port, by its near ſituation to the Levant, and the ſettled correſpondence of its merchants there, will always have ſufficient advantage over the ports and towns of the weſt. Marſeilles is not excluded from any commerce permitted to the towns of the weſt (or ports of the ocean); therefore, what juſtice is there in appropriating the trade of the Levant to that city alone?

Beſides, the manner in which Marſeilles carries on this commerce cannot be approved, ſince it is manifeſt, that the goods which it ſends thither, of the growth or make of the kingdom, being in moderate quantities, and of little conſideration, the merchants of that town make the greateſt part of their remittances in pieces of eight and in other ſorts of coin; which conſumes a good part of the returns from Cadiz and the Indies, and greatly contributes to make bullion more ſcarce throughout the kingdom.

The merchants of Marſeilles lay out a great part of ſuch remittances in linen cloth and ſtuffs of the Levant, which, whatever precaution be taken, do not fail of being diſperſed about the kingdom, to the prejudice of our own manufactures. It would be proper to prohibit, not only the importation, but likewiſe the wear of them in France; and that nothing were brought from the Levant, but drugs and unwrought materials proper for our manufactures, ſuch as galls, cotton, hair, ſugar, ſilk, wool, and the like.

The privilege which the merchants of Marſeilles have, of enjoying this trade in excluſion of the other towns of the kingdom, joined to the 20 per cent. which is charged on the ſame ſorts of goods, and the fixing particular ports for importing of goods into the kingdom, give thoſe merchants an opportunity to ſtarve the trade of the kingdom, and to enrich themſelves ſo much, that notwithſtanding the 20 per cent. the charges of carriage, commiſſion-money, duties of export, and the diſadvantage of the exchange, which may together be reckoned at above 35 per cent. we find our account better in fetching thoſe goods from foreigners, than from the merchants at Marſeilles; who, being favoured ſo much, do not give themſelves the trouble to ſend them into the provinces of the kingdom.

They ſit ſtill for us to come to their market, that they may have an opportunity of impoſing what rates they pleaſe: nor are they ever ſufficiently ſtocked to ſupply all our demands.

And ſince the drugs which they bring to Marſeilles from the Levant, come thither from the eaſt in caravans, which enhances the price of them conſiderably, and that the ſame drugs which come directly from the Eaſt-Indies to the ocean, are not ſubject to the 20 per cent. for entry, no more than is cotton, the deputies conceive, that it would be a piece of juſtice to forbid the farmers to exact the duty of 20 per cent. upon the ſaid drugs ſo brought from the Levant.

The REPLY of the deputies of the weſtern ports of France to the preceding ANSWER.

1. We muſt own that the liberty which the towns of the ocean demand, may ſomewhat diminiſh the commerce of Marſeilles in the Levant: but the benefit which it will procure to the ſtate and to the public, by the abundance of merchandizes and the increaſe of navigation, is of much greater weight; beſides, Marſeilles may extend its commerce into the ocean, to make itſelf amends for the diminution of their Levant trade: our colonies are a fair field for them to exerciſe their navigation in.

2. This article is exaggerated, and it were needleſs to anſwer it: however, we ſhall ſay that there is not any merchandize of the Levant comprized among thoſe ſpecified in a liſt by the deputy of Marſeilles, that has not a conſumption in the weſt; except aſhes for the glaſs manufacture, which are but of ſmall conſumption.

3. If from the year 1669 to 1685, the ſea-port towns of the weſt in general have not carried on the trade to the Levant, it is becauſe at that time our nation had not mariners, ſhips, ſkill, nor emulation, for improving all ſorts of commerce: it is however true, that the towns of Rouen and Bourdeaux had correſpondence there, and ſent ſhips thither.

The deputy of Marſeilles makes a wrong interpretation of the decree of 1685. The duty of 20 per cent. takes its riſe from 1669, and was laid upon the Levant merchandizes which were firſt landed in Italy, England, and Holland: and the effect of the decree of 1685, has been only to debar the king's ſubjects from fetching the merchandizes of the Levant directly to Rouen, where, before that decree, they were exempt from the duty of 20 per cent. to which they are now ſubject, whether they come directly from the Levant, or whether they have been firſt landed in any other country. This is an effect of the powerful protection which Marſeilles has had, to the prejudice of the ſtate and of the public. It is to avoid taking from England and Holland the Levant merchandizes, that we demand liberty to trade directly to the Levant.

4. If the traders of Marſeilles are ſuffered to ſet againſt us their titles of preſcription, it is to no purpoſe to propoſe any thing; but the council has thought fit to give leave to lay before them the grievances of ſuch arrêts as are prejudicial to commerce in general.

5. We own it is good to guard againſt running of goods: it belongs to the general farmers to take the neceſſary precautions, but the 20 per cent duties are more likely to favour than hinder it.

6. We agree we have not ſpices as the Engliſh and Dutch have; but Marſeilles has them not any more than we; and as to all other merchandizes, it is beyond contradiction true, that we get them more commodiouſly than Marſeilles, and cheaper; becauſe the commerce of the Ocean being of much greater extent than that of Marſeilles in particular, procures us all things with greater eaſe, and in greater plenty.

7. This article is not maintainable; and it is indiſputable that the ſale of our fiſh in Portugal, Spain, and Italy, will produce ſpecie for the Levant, as it does actually ſupply the Engliſh therewith.

The commerce which the towns of the ocean maintain in Portugal and Spain, by linen cloths and other manufactures of the kingdom, is a perpetual fund to furniſh them with ſpecie, which Marſeilles has not, nor ever can have. The deputy of Marſeilles contradicts himſelf, in ſaying that there is no carrying ſugars and tobacco into Italy and the Levant, ſince he himſelf puts ſugars into his account of what merchandizes are proper for the Levant; and as for tobacco, it is well known that Genoa, Leghorn, and other towns of Italy, conſume conſiderable quantities of Clairac and St Domingo tobacco: and the towns of the ocean are willing, for the good of the ſtate, to bind themſelves not to ſend abroad any coin of the kingdom either to ſtrangers or others, and to carry to the Levant only the product of thoſe merchandizes which they ſhall ſell in foreign countries, provided Marſeilles ſubmits to the like law.

If an account be taken of the goods ſent from Marſeilles to the Levant, and of thoſe which are imported at Marſeilles, communibus annis, it will be ſeen what difference there is in the value, and how much ſpecie muſt have been carried out to purchaſe the overplus.

The ballance which has been produced upon two ſorts of Levant merchandizes eſſential to our manufactures, proves the truth of what the deputies of the weſt have advanced concerning the prices during the months of October, November, and December, when the commerce was in the greateſt tranquillity, and upon the foot of the preſent time, when the prices of merchandizes of the Levant are very high in England and Holland, through the fear of a war. Which has a counter-effect favourable to Marſeilles, ſince by her ſituation ſhe is free from that fear, and ſhould not be ſenſible of the like change; and therefore the deputy of Marſeilles ſhould not bring his compariſon upon the foot of the preſent time, becauſe it would be a falſe rule.

9. This reaſon is in favour of the towns of the ocean, ſince Marſeilles by its ſituation will always have great advantages over them; and as for the merchandizes proper for the Levant, the towns of the weſt will have them in our provinces as commodiouſly as at Marſeilles.

10. If it is true, as the deputy of Marſeilles aſſerts, that the Dutch fetch from Marſeilles the merchandizes of the Levant, they will fetch them from the ports of the ocean much more willingly and commodiouſly.

11. All the preceding articles ſhew, that the intention of the merchants of the weſt is perfectly oppoſite to ſuch views; and that it is purely and ſolely to avoid fetching from England and Holland the merchandizes of the Levant, that they now aſk the liberty of trading to the Levant directly.

12. The merchants of the weſt reckon they ſhall conſiderably augment their fiſheries, and by that means have wherewithal to furniſh in abundance this kingdom, Spain, and Italy.

13. It is agreed, that Marſeilles is the natural port of the city of Lyons for commerce; but it does not at all ſuit the towns of the weſt, who have ports and ſhips of their own for trading; and if the merchandizes of the Levant come dearer to the towns of the weſt, they give ſo much the leſs umbrage to Marſeilles; therefore that city ought not to oppoſe the liberty that is deſired.

14. Since we propoſe a general liberty for all towns to follow the Levant trade, there would be no inconveniency if the town of Sette ſhould enjoy it: the competition which the deputy of Marſeilles is apprehenſive of, cannot but be advantageous to the ſtate, on account of giving greater vent to the king-

dom and its manufactures, as likewiſe occaſioning a more plentiful importation of the goods of the Levant, which will make the market better for the public: if hereby ſome private men are loſers, the ſtate ſtill gains; and inſtead of having any fear, leſt ſuch permiſſion when granted to the towns ſhould enable the Engliſh, Dutch, and Italians, to make us abandon that commerce; on the contrary, ſeveral towns united may, better than Marſeilles alone, rival thoſe nations.

15. The ports of the weſt have places appointed for performing quarantine, and it is eaſy to take the ſame precautions as are taken at Marſeilles to defend ourſelves from the plague; beſides, it is undeniable, that the paſſage of the Streights to come to the north, and the change of climate, purifies that infectious air, and the Engliſh and Dutch for that reaſon are exempt from ſuch quarantine.

16. It muſt be allowed that the 9th article of the treaty of Ryſwic, gives to the Dutch the ſame advantage as to the king's ſubjects, in point of trading to the Levant; but we need not fear their coming from the Levant directly into our ports, with cargoes of 50, 60, and 100,000 crowns to ſubject themſelves to the humour of the buyers. That nation ſolely applies itſelf to make marts of goods at home, and to fix ſuch a price upon them as they think fit, and then to furniſh retailers therewith. It is the leſs to be feared that they ſhould bring to France the merchandizes of the Levant directly, if it be true what the deputy advances in his 11th article, that Marſeilles will furniſh that nation with them. Beſides, the Dutch being almoſt continually at war with the nations of Barbary, cannot carry on that trade without great convoys, which enhances very much the merchandize, and hinders them from carrying the ſame to France, where they would be loſers, and renders their navigation to the Levant very inconſiderable. To conclude, The towns of the weſt have actually the liberty of going to the Levant; and, in a word, they want only to free themſelves from the ſubjection of going to unlade and lade again at Marſeilles, which is equivalent to a formal excluſion, and has obliged the traders of the weſt to quit that commerce.

17. Whatever memorial may be given upon this head, it will fall of itſelf.

A MEMORIAL of the deputy of Marſeilles, in anſwer to the foregoing; ſetting forth the grounds and reaſons of the privilege which that town enjoys of trading to the Levant.

It is a very difficult taſk, when a ſingle man is obliged to anſwer ſuch knowing and acute perſons as the deputies of the ports of the weſtern ſea; and if I had not a juſt cauſe to defend, a cauſe in which the intereſt of the ſtate, as well as that of the town of Marſeilles in particular, is concerned, I ſhould diſtruſt my ability, through want of practice, in drawing up memorials ſo well put together, and ſo politely turned as thoſe given in by thoſe gentlemen: but as the preſent diſpute is about facts, and that the trade of the Levant has ever been allowed to be the moſt beneficial to the ſtate, the council will pleaſe to permit me to lay before them my reaſons in the beſt manner I can, without being too ſollicitous about purity of ſtile, which is not my talent.

1. The pretenſion of theſe gentlemen is not new; they have often endeavoured at the ſame thing, though without effect, becauſe it is againſt the good of the general trade of the kingdom, as I ſhall prove in the ſequel of this memorial. This proof is founded upon the ancient courſe and practice of trade, which they themſelves take notice of; and upon the information and inſight which the king has had of the prejudice reſulting from this propoſition to the general commerce of his dominions, for this reaſon his Majeſty has fixed things in the condition they have been for a long time, and are in to this day.

2. It is certain, that the permiſſion which they require of driving a trade to the Levant, is not proper to be granted them; becauſe neither in their own towns, nor among their neighbours, can they find a conſumption of divers groſs commodities, which they would be forced to take in to make up the lading of their ſhips, as does Marſeilles which enjoys this advantage.

3. One ſure proof that this trade is not proper for them, is, that it does not appear, they ever ſet about it, notwithſtanding the permiſſion which all the ports of the weſt had to drive this trade, before and after the eſtabliſhment of the free port of Marſeilles, which was in 1669 until 1685. For the ports of Rouen and Dunkirk had this permiſſion, becauſe the conveniency of their having the merchandizes of the Levant by the way of Holland and England, more eaſily than by fetching them from thence directly, which they find very difficult, always put them upon that prejudicial practice of giving their profits to thoſe foreigners and enemies, to the damage of the king's ſubjects; and, if his Majeſty had not put a ſtop to it, by his decree of the 15th of Auguſt, 1685, which lays a duty of 20 per cent. upon the merchandizes of the Levant which ſhould come from England or Holland into France, in order to exclude them for the good of his ſubjects, it is certain that by this time thoſe nations would have ſupplied France with all the Levant goods, and the king's ſubjects would have utterly loſt that trade, ſo important to the ſtate.

This is ſo true, that the experience of it puts the thing out of doubt. I aſk thoſe gentlemen, the deputies, whether it be not true, that after 1669, while they brought in by their ports the commodities of the Levant from Holland and England, when no duty was laid to hinder thoſe merchandizes from entering otherwiſe than by Marſeilles, France was filled with thoſe goods; whereby the trade of the Levant by Marſeilles was reduced to the laſt gaſp, as not finding any longer a conſumption, but only in Provence and the parts adjacent? This is what occaſioned the king's paſſing the ſaid arrêt of 1685, wherein the ſpecial cauſes moving him thereto are inſerted; without the paſſing of which arrêt, it is evident, that theſe two foreign nations, who have long ſought to deſtroy our Levant trade, as well by their ambaſſador at the Porte, as by their intelligence and ſecret practices in France, had entirely cut us out of it.

4. His Majeſty, and all his miniſters, who ſince the eſtabliſhment of this free-port, which was done upon due cognizance of the matter, and mature conſideration, have ever ſince done their utmoſt to ſupport this important trade; foreſeeing, ſome years after the ſaid arrêt, that they could not ſo ſoon root out the intelligence which thoſe nations had ſettled in France by their dealings with the French merchants, who continued to let them bring in their merchandizes, by the facility which they found in compounding the 20 per cent. with the general farmers, or by counterballances, very frequent and common; his Majeſty renewed his arrêt of prohibition, by that of November 1, 1688, confirmative of that of 1685. And becauſe, even after that, the abuſes in ſome meaſure continued, and he found more and more the neceſſity of putting a ſtop to them, he made another arrêt of the 3d of July, 1692, containing the ſame prohibitions, and ſtill confirmative of the edict which made Marſeilles a free port, and ſettled the duty of 20 per cent. Since 1692, things have gone on according to the intention of the king, who has continually cauſed orders to be given to the intendants of the provinces, to ſee to the execution thereof; and there has likewiſe paſſed a confirmative arrêt in relation to Dunkirk, the 30th of January, 1700.

5. How, after all this, can it be expected, that his Majeſty ſhould alter this eſtabliſhment? And how can the leaſt part of it be diſpenſed with, either for their carrying on the trade themſelves directly to the Levant, or taking in goods at Leghorn, as they propoſe? Is it not alike miſchievous to our trade? And if the king, inſtead of granting ſuch permiſſion, ſhall not be pleaſed to put a ſtop to the abuſes which are ſtill practiſed, both by compounding the duty to almoſt nothing at all, and by the daily pouring in of prohibited goods, through the ports and upon the coaſt of the weſt, to the prejudice particularly of the king's farms, (as it happened not long ſince with 4 or 500 bales of goat's-hair, which were imported on the coaſt of Picardy, whereby great quantities of the like goods which were in France, belonging to the king's ſubjects, became of no value, becauſe it is a periſhing commodity;) in all likelihood our trade, which is of conſequence to the ſtate, will be extremely diminiſhed. It is well known what cardinal Richlieu ſaid to the advantage of this trade, and what was done by M. Colbert, after mature conſideration, and upon the particular enquiries he made into it, and generally all that has been done in favour of it by the miniſters, who have ſucceeded them to this time: how can men, after this, think of procuring any change in this eſtabliſhment? It is well known, trade is ſo nice a thing, that it is often loſt by endeavouring to change the management of it, as may be proved by many inſtances.

6. All the artful ſubtilties, with which the memorials of the ſaid deputies abound, in order to prevail upon the council to grant them this commerce, are founded much more upon private deſigns, to the prejudice of the general intereſt, than upon reaſon; and all the compariſons which they make from the Engliſh and Dutch touching in their way upon the coaſts of Spain and Italy, there to ſell their goods, are fallacious, and bear no ſimilitude; for thoſe nations have part of the merchandizes which are any wiſe proper to ſell on thoſe coaſts, from the Indies, or elſe they are the product of their own country, with neither of which theſe gentlemen of the weſtern ports of France are ſtocked.

7. The fiſheries of the Engliſh or Dutch have no relation to this commerce: I affirm that the ſhips of thoſe nations trading to the Levant, do not carry any fiſh, and that the gentlemen of the weſt could not do it; that the very ſame ſhips which are employed by the Engliſh or Dutch in fiſhing, carry them from the places where they catch them to thoſe coaſts, and that they do this but once a year; that therefore their propoſition of going and exchanging their merchandizes for pieces of eight in Spain, and carrying that money to the Levant, to avoid thereby the exporting of French money, is not real, it is only a pretence; ſince, even though they had any merchandizes to carry to Spain, which they have not, except ſome linen cloths, theſe are goods that are long in going off, and this length of time would ſubject them to great charges; and it is exaggerating to ſay, that they can

carry to the coaſts of Spain and Italy, ſugar and tobacco from the French colonies, ſince Liſbon furniſhes them with both, in greater quantities than they have occaſion for; and it is beyond diſpute true, that they cannot carry on this trade but almoſt wholly by money, of which (whatever they ſay) the Engliſh carry great quantities from Holland and Germany.

8. As to what they object concerning their manufactures, that they can get materials from England with much more advantage than by Marſeilles, I defy them, and am perſuaded that they have not computed rightly: that may indeed happen in ſome of the materials, but I lay it down for fact, that they will very often, and almoſt always, draw what is neceſſary for them by the way of Marſeilles, cheaper than from foreign countries, or by their commerce directly, or at leaſt as cheap.

9. Marſeilles has a very particular and advantageous ſituation and proximity to the Levant; ſhe has in her town, her province, and in thoſe of Languedoc and Dauphiné, her neighbours, all ſorts of manufactures proper for the Levant, and has had ſettled correſpondence, and been uſed for ſome ages to this trade, which by experience ſhe manages with perfect œconomy; and it looks as if God had endowed her with theſe advantages for the good of the ſtate, to carry on by her means this ſo important commerce from France with the Levant, and from the Levant with all France.

10. It is ſo apparent and ſo true, that Marſeilles is always filled with all aſſortments of merchandizes (whatever they ſay) and even more than Holland and England; that Marſeilles often furniſhes the Dutch with goods which they have not, and would do the ſame to the Engliſh, if it were permitted to carry any thither; but they have taken due care of that by a vigorous prohibition, and the merchandizes which ſhould be carried thither would be burnt, and perhaps the ſhips too; ſo watchful are they to preſerve the trade to themſelves, to which they are the more ſtimulated by an inbred hatred which they have to the French: under what colour of juſtice, therefore, ſhould France permit her natives to go fetch the merchandizes of the Levant from them? Which forms another principal reaſon againſt the pretenſion of theſe deputies; and it is certain, that even though it were permitted them, there would not be that correſpondence with the Engliſh as is imagined; nor would they come, either more or leſs, to fetch the commodities of our kingdom; for they who come for wines and brandies are only dealers in thoſe goods, and not Levant merchants, and ſo would not have occaſion to exchange their merchandizes for ours.

11. They ought to be the leſs indulged in this permiſſion, becauſe they aſk it for no other reaſon but to have a pretence of carrying on their old clandeſtine trade with thoſe two nations, as from paſt example it is evident they uſed to do.

12. It is an idle pretence to ſay, that ſome of their ſhips going to Italy with their fiſh, might find means to touch there for Levant merchandizes at Leghorn, whither there go ſo few of them, that they may always for their fiſh have ready money; by which means they conſtantly relade with oil and allum on the coaſt of Italy, which are merchandizes of greater uſe to them. It is to Marſeilles whither almoſt all the ſhips of their fiſhery come, to the number of 30 or 40 every year, where they find their commiſſion favourable, and in return take ſoap, oil, merchandizes of the Levant, and fruits of Provence, whereby the greateſt part of them have an opportunity of making great freights homeward. This is very convenient for them, and gives them a profit which they would not have, if Marſeilles were not able to furniſh them with all thoſe things; there would be no need of going ſo far if they deſired to truck their fiſh for Levant merchandizes, they might do it much more eaſily and advantageouſly at Marſeilles than at Leghorn.

13. If they will carry on the Levant trade by Marſeilles, as Lyons and other cities of the kingdom do, no body hinders them; they may thereby have the ſame advantages which they fancy the Marſeillians have, without diſturbing, by their vain pretenſions, an order eſtabliſhed for trade ſo long ago; it being certain, that if they went to fetch the Levant merchandizes directly, they would coſt them much dearer than if they took them at Marſeilles. They cannot oppoſe to this any thing, but ſome charges of inſurance, which they pay from Marſeilles to the ports in the ocean; but this expence is ſo moderate, that it bears no compariſon with the extraordinary charges they would be obliged to be at, in going directly to the Levant, and in returning home; and before they could well have ſettled their correſpondence there, they would ſuffer conſiderable loſſes, which has always been the cauſe why they have not undertaken it.

If the general farmers make them pay the duty of 20 per cent. for ſuch goods as are not ſubject to it, it is their buſineſs to obtain juſtice againſt them, and the deputy of Marſeilles will gladly enter into meaſures to aſſiſt them.

14. There is another principal reaſon which that deputy has to offer, viz. If this permiſſion be given to the ports of the ocean, it muſt likewiſe be given to the port of Cette, which would demand it; and that could not poſſibly be done, without entirely deſtroying the Levant trade in France, by an infallible decay which this diſorder would occaſion, it not being poſſible to reconcile all theſe ſeveral competitors; the rather, becauſe it is known that Marſeilles itſelf, by order of M. Pontchartrain, has been obliged (for the preſervation of this trade, though they had it ſolely) to make a regulation of the number of ſhipping employed in it, to avoid the too great concourſe of them, which was very pernicious, as well at their arrival in the Levant, as at their return: this hinders the Dutch from driving this trade, as they were permitted by the treaty of Ryſwic. If theſe gentlemen were allowed this permiſſion, how could we poſſibly avoid a general diſorder, which would bring this trade to decay; and which the Engliſh, Dutch, and Italians, would take advantage of, and put us, perhaps, in danger of loſing it entirely? it being undoubtedly true, that theſe gentlemen, who have always had a good intelligence with thoſe two nations their neighbours, would make no other uſe of this permiſſion, but to lend their names to the Engliſh to drive this trade under the flag of France, and for a ſmall private intereſt, would not value ruining that of Marſeilles. We may further inſiſt upon the inconveniencies that would affect all the payments which Marſeilles makes for all the conſuls, the averages of the Levant, the penſion of the ambaſſador, and other extraordinary caſual expences, which could never be well adjuſted: this diſorder would likewiſe infallibly bring the plague into France, and we ſhall hear what work it has very lately made in a ſhip of St Malo.

I cannot believe, that after ſo many obſtacles, and ſo many regulations, ſo well concerted, and continually inforced to this preſent day, counter to this propoſition, and made to preſerve in its perfection this important trade, which is the greateſt and moſt profitable one of the kingdom, the government will deſtroy it by a permiſſion which will produce nothing good and ſettled; as may be gathered from what has already happened in the kingdom, which by the like novelties has loſt ſeveral trades and manufactures.

15. Whatever they ſay to diſſipate the apprehenſion of the danger of bringing the plague into France, it is almoſt certain they could not avoid it; and there is no doubt to be made, but this would be the greateſt calamity which could befal the kingdom. The deputy of Marſeilles affirms, that the contagious diſtemper never ceaſing to be in the Levant and Barbary, ſometimes in one part, ſometimes in another, becauſe in thoſe countries they take no precaution to avoid it, theſe gentlemen having neither experience, nor proper places for purging the merchandizes from that evil which cleaves to them (as is found true at Marſeilles, where oftentimes ſeveral die of the plague during the quarantine), would infallibly give the plague to France, which they of Marſeilles avoid, by rules which are more rigorouſly obſerved there than in any city in the world. This ſpecial experience in the Marſeillians is ſo well known every where, that the Italians, though an ingenious people, and who have proper places for theſe precautions, ſo dread the plague, that, when there come into their ports any ſhips from a place where it is known to be, they drive them away, and their aſylum is at Marſeilles, which receives them, with their wonted precautions; and oftentimes thoſe ſhips and merchandizes, by endeavouring to guard againſt the plague, would communicate it to the kingdom. Muſt the king put it to the venture, among men who have neither experience, nor proper places for the purpoſe, whether they will bring in the plague or not?

It is in vain for them to ſay, That the climate they inhabit, and the length of the paſſage, would ſtifle this evil, and hinder the communication of it; and to ſuppoſe that the Engliſh and Dutch never had it. This cannot be inſiſted on, ſince both the one and the other have had it oftener than once, though the coldneſs of their country, which really ſerves in ſome meaſure to preſerve them from it, is beyond compariſon greater than in France; and I have been informed for certain, that, not above 30 or 40 years ago, Holland and Flanders had it to a great degree, and that Picardy was afflicted with it likewiſe, as alſo Rouen, Dieppe, and other places, where it made great havock: and there is no doubt but it came from the Levant: and though it might have been there but once, yet we may have it often in France, eſpecially if opportunities be given of introducing it: and as this would be one of the moſt dreadful evils that could happen, people ought to be very apprehenſive of it.

16. Over and above all that I have been ſaying, there is an article, which of itſelf ought to deſtroy the pretenſions of theſe gentlemen to this trade, as a memorial which was communicated to me on their part has very reaſonably foreſeen. By the 9th article of the treaty of commerce at Ryſwick, the Dutch are permitted to drive this very trade in France, and under the ſame advantages with the king's ſubjects. In this caſe, they would not enjoy the permiſſion they aſk, and it would be the Hollanders who would ingroſs the whole trade, by their ports, which would entirely ruin ours; and though there be a likelihood now of a war with the Dutch, they will not fail, in the next treaty of peace, to ſtipulate and obtain the confirmation of that article.

17. It ought likewiſe to be obſerved, that Marſeilles, by means of this trade, cauſes infinitely more money to be brought

into France than ſhe cauſes to be carried out; which I ſhall take another occaſion to prove.

The rejoinder of the deputy of Marſeilles, to the foregoing reply.

1. Firſt, He repreſents that they formerly deny the principle of his firſt memorial, by every article of which it is plainly proved, that ſuch permiſſion would ruin the commerce of the Levant, and the navigation of the king's ſubjects, and totally transfer it to ſtrangers, and that all his Majeſty has done ſince 1669, by every ſucceſſive arrêt 'till this day, to avoid this misfortune, would be in vain; that his conduct and wiſe precaution herein, leaves no room to doubt that this propoſed competition was not found ſuitable to this trade, but rather that it would cauſe a general diſorder in all the ſcales or marts of the Levant, which would conſiderably raiſe the price of their goods; and this would ſoon bring on the total ruin of that commerce; and the ſame would befal that of the weſtern ports of France, if there were the like concourſe: and therefore it is for the intereſt of the ſtate and of the public, to preſerve both the one and the other, as hath wiſely been practiſed hitherto.

2. The gentlemen of the weſtern ports cannot be ignorant that they are unable to conſume all the merchandizes which they ſhould be obliged to take in to fill their ſhips, and which, conſequently, they would be overſtocked with; among others, there are four ſorts of very cumberſome commodities, and which always make three-fourths of a ſhip's lading, viz. coarſe wool, hides in the hair, aſhes in great quantities, and flax; all which are merchandizes proper for the manufactures ſet up in Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphiné, and which the provinces of the weſt are without.

3. He perſiſts in affirming, That no town in the weſt, not even Bourdeaux and Rouen, ever drove the trade of the Levant, though they were better able to do it before 1685 than ſince; and I do not believe that Rouen, which is the principal town on that coaſt, has any ſhips to carry it on, nor Bourdeaux neither, except ſome ſmall veſſels which ſerve them to go up the river. The deputies cannot deny the truth of this.

The edict of 1669, and the ſubſequent ordinance, laid a duty of 20 per cent. on ſuch merchandizes of the Levant as ſhould be imported into Marſeilles, after having been firſt carried into foreign countries; but it left the port of Rouen, and that of Dunkirk, free to carry on the Levant trade directly, without paying the 20 per cent. yet they never did it, becauſe it was not a ſuitable trade for them. But they made uſe of that permiſſion to get the Levant merchandizes by the way of England and Holland: ſo that, by that means, they filled France with thoſe merchandizes, and this brought the trade of the French in the Levant to almoſt nothing: which gave occaſion to his Majeſty (in order to remedy ſuch a misfortune) to paſs the arrêt of the 15th of Auguſt, 1685, commanding, That all ſuch commodities of the Levant as ſhould enter by the ſaid ports of Rouen and Dunkirk, which had not firſt been landed at Marſeilles, ſhould pay 20 per cent. The cauſes are inſerted in the ſaid arrêt; and, were it not for that arrêt, which hinders that evil practice with thoſe nations, it is to be feared it would have gone on ſtill.

4. The council may indeed allow things, which are really grievances, to be redreſſed: but theſe gentlemen of the weſt need not trouble themſelves; they will never perſuade the council to deſtroy edicts, paſſed with ſo thorough knowlege of the cauſe, and ſo often ratified until this preſent time; that were to contradict all that the king has done, and is what the deputy of Marſeilles is in no apprehenſion of.

5. It was, as we juſt now ſaid, to hinder the dealings with the Engliſh and Dutch, that his Majeſty was pleaſed to lay on that duty of 20 per cent. and, notwithſtanding the ſaid duty, ſuch dealings are ſtill carried on, either by compounding the duty, or by running the goods: and it is on this account that the deputy complains, becauſe of the miſchief it does to commerce in general; and the farmers are obliged, for the intereſt of the ſtate, to keep a watchful eye upon this matter.

6. They do not give a direct anſwer to the queſtion in this article; for they not only have not all that the Engliſh have to carry on this commerce in Spain and Italy (which they take for granted), but hardly any of the manufactured goods proper for the Levant, which Marſeilles is provided with, either in her city or province, as well as in her neighbourhood of Languedoc and Dauphiné, and ſuch as they cannot poſſibly have.

7. He affirms it to be fact and true, That the ſhips laden with their fiſh do not go into the Levant; they go from the place of their fiſhing to the Mediterranean, and chiefly to Marſeilles, and this but once a year: that the greateſt part of the product of ſuch fiſh, and all that they preſuppoſe to carry with them in the courſe of their pretended voyage, would ſerve for no more than to pay ſeamens wages, victuals, and the charges of the voyage; and what is over and above is not ſufficient for a fund for that trade, and therefore they ought not to reckon it. Tobacco abounds in the Levant, and as for ſugars, they are both of them articles of ſmall conſideration.

It is in vain for them to compare themſelves to the Engliſh, whoſe ſhips with fiſh go not to the Levant, and who uſe other ſhips wholly for that voyage, and have a great many goods proper for ſale on their way, and in the Levant, which the gentlemen of the weſt have not. As for linen cloth, it is agreed that a great many of them are ſent to Cadiz for the Indies; but this is not a fund for them to reckon upon, to be made uſe of in the ſame voyage, no more than are the other linen cloths that they may vend in ſome places of the coaſts of Spain, which are long in going off, and which they ſell at a very long credit; and Marſeillles, in this particular, has a greater advantage than they, by means of large quantities of imported manufactures, proper for that country, which ſhe ſends thither generally all the year round, and which go ſoon off, almoſt all for ready money, which brings her pieces of eight, and theſe ſhe makes uſe of partly for the Levant; and ſhe has the further advantage of making uſe of aſſortments of goods, which ſhe draws to herſelf, by means of uttering divers commodities and merchandizes to the Dutch, which the gentlemen of the weſt do not, for want thereof. Marſeilles therefore, which conſumes a great deal leſs money than is thought, does not make uſe of that foreign coin which ſhe acquires by means of the permutation of her wares and commodities; and it argues great ignorance to ſay, That the weſtern gentlemen can carry on the Levant trade without money, eſpecially ſince they have not the wares and manufactures which Marſeilles has.

8. The deputies of the weſt were pleaſed to pitch upon that time, and upon two particular ſorts of merchandizes, in order to make a calculation their own way; and it is obſerved they are continually taking advantage of every thing, and this occaſions their calculation (under favour) to be falſe; and the deputy of Marſeilles proves by his, that it is ſo far from being true, that thoſe gentlemen buy the merchandizes dearer at Marſeilles than in England and Holland: that the ſame merchandizes are bought at Marſeilles much cheaper than in thoſe countries, and that it is generally ſo. He has added to his calculation divers other merchandizes, for one and the ſame proof, to ſhew the difference there is between Marſeilles and England and Holland. He proves what he advances by certificates from the royal brokers; and, to ſatisfy theſe gentlemen as to the difference of the time, the deputy of Marſeilles, in ſelecting that time, has taken a medium, which is the month of April; though the ſame merchandizes can never increaſe in a neighbouring country, but they muſt increaſe, by means thereof, in another, whatever they pretend to the contrary.

9. It is upon account of her advantageous ſituation, that the king has choſen Marſeilles to preſerve this commerce to the ſtate: for this reaſon likewiſe it is, that all the manufactures proper for the Levant are ſet up in abundance about Marſeilles; and the gentlemen of the weſt cannot have them unleſs they go for them in that place. It was for all theſe reaſons that the king, to preſerve this important trade, did grant his edict of franchiſe to Marſeilles, and made all the other ſubſequent edicts to this day, and eſpecially to hinder the towns of the weſt from abuſing the liberty heretofore granted them.

10. That the Hollanders draw ſometimes from Marſeilles certain merchandizes which are convenient for them, and which they have not at home, and which they find among the aſſortments at Marſeilles, where the warehouſes are always full of them, and which the gentlemen of the weſt cannot have, becauſe, though they were to be let into this trade, they would carry it on but poorly: whereas Marſeilles, when it abounds, can, by reaſon of its nearneſs, ſend ſuddenly to the Levant for ſuch merchandizes as ſhe may want, and much cheaper than they who are forced to be at extraordinary expence, by reaſon of the length of their voyage.

11. If the gentlemen of the weſt had formerly carried on this trade, and if, during the time that they were permitted to do it, they had not made uſe of this permiſſion to introduce the merchandizes of the Engliſh and Dutch into France, what they advance might poſſibly be true; but the ill uſe which they made of it in times paſt, notwithſtanding all the edicts and orders of the king to reform the abuſes, is apt to make us ſuſpect the contrary.

12. They have increaſed their trade hitherto as much as they could, and they cannot hope to increaſe it more: were it not for Marſeilles, which conſumes the greateſt part of their fiſh, they would be forced to leſſen their fiſhing; and this is what will certainly happen, if the leaſt blow be given to her trade by this permiſſion.

13. The port of Marſeilles was not choſen ſolely for the ſake of the city of Lyons, but for the ſake of the whole kingdom, as a door through which the chiefeſt trades are carried on, and particularly that of the Levant, which is of the greateſt importance, and which cannot be well managed but by the port of Marſeilles; and it is proved by divers memorials which the deputy of that city has to preſent, that it would be intirely loſt by dividing it, and would fall into the hand of ſtrangers.

ſtrangers. For this reaſon, his Majeſty has always thought fit to preſerve it to Marſeilles.

14. It is evident, and beyond all queſtion, that a general opening of the Levant trade would entirely, in a ſhort time, deſtroy it. The conſtituting Marſeilles a free port, was not done without good grounds, and to put an end to that diſorder which a general permiſſion had cauſed; and all that has been done from that time to this, to correct the abuſes that had crept in, is it not a certain proof that ſuch a permiſſion would deſtroy it infallibly? ſince even Marſeilles could not hold up her head without regulating the number of ſhips that are to ſail to each port of the Levant, and which was done by order of M. de Pontchartrain, within theſe three years, otherwiſe it had been ruined. What then would become of this trade, if every body were let into it, and crouded in upon one another? The vent of manufactures at Marſeilles is as great as can be wiſhed, for ſuch manufactures which ſhe has, and the weſt has not; and the pretended cheapneſs at which France would have the Levant merchandizes, would laſt but a little while, becauſe competition would make them dearer in the Levant, and cheaper in France, which would diſable the merchants from continuing that trade, without ruining themſelves, and ſo it would paſs to foreigners. As for the permiſſion demanded for the port of Sette, Marſeilles has laid memorials before the council, with reaſons for not granting it, and deſires the council to caſt their eyes over them; and then they will be convinced that the gentlemen of the weſt ought not to have it neither.

15. The deputy of Marſeilles has made ſufficient anſwer to this article, by the memorial which he has given in, whereby he ſhews plainly, that the plague would not fail to enter into France, as it did heretofore, by means of the Engliſh and Dutch. But this being a very important article, the deputy will give an anſwer more at large, by a ſpecial memorial.

16. It is diſguiſing the truth, by their favour, to maintain that the Dutch would not carry on this trade in France. They demanded that article in the treaty of peace for no other end or purpoſe; and it would be very ſuitable to that nation, who would drive that whole trade by the ports, which would help them to deſtroy that of Marſeilles: and are thoſe gentlemen ignorant that the Dutch go thither continually, with ſeveral ſhips which private men ſend thither, and ſeldom with convoys? It is true that they, like us, are ſometimes at war with the nations of Barbary, but commonly they are at peace, as now. And all the reaſons and replies of theſe gentlemen of the weſt, have no other foundation but their fondneſs to drive that trade with thoſe nations, rather than to carry it on themſelves: and we repeat it again, That they are not excluded this trade, ſince they may carry it on by Marſeilles, as Lyons and ſome other cities of the kingdom do; and even though they were permitted to do it by their own ports, they could not poſſibly do it, conſidering the war we are going into at preſent.

17. The memorial given in by the deputy of Marſeilles, concerning the money ſhe makes uſe of for her trade, proves the truth of what he advances; and his memorial is clear upon that head, which is an abſtract of all his reaſons, and evidently demonſtrates, that there is no poſſibility of granting this Levant trade to other ports beſides Marſeilles (conſidering the difficulties that occur) without intirely loſing it to foreigners.

For the uſefulneſs and excellency of theſe inſtitutions in the kingdom of France, ſee our article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and REMARKS thereon, and LEVANT TRADE; ſee alſo our articles TRADE.

REMARKS.

In order to come at the truth, in relation to commercial affairs, we find that the ROYAL COUNCIL OF FRANCE promote altercations between the DEPUTIES of the reſpective provinces: by which means, all the pertinent matter that can be urged pro and con, upon intereſting points, by the mercantile people, comes before the ROYAL COUNCIL; and where any repugnances or fallacies ſeem to appear, from different and contradictory repreſentations, the ROYAL COUNCIL is excited to make the ſeverer inquiſition into the matter, whereby they are the better enabled to come to ſuch reſolutions as tend moſt to the general emolument of the ſtate.

Thoſe who have applied themſelves to theſe kind of ſtudies, have allowed, that there cannot be brought before the legiſlature of this kingdom any points more difficult in themſelves, more entangled with a multiplicity of relations, or more perplexed with diverſity of circumſtances, than thoſe which relate to the concerns of trade; concerns on which the moſt experienced often diſagree, and on which the moſt ſagacious may deceive themſelves with erroneous conjectures. There are no queſtions which require ſo much perſonal knowlege of the ſubject to which they relate, nor is there any ſubject with which ſo few gentlemen in our parliament have had opportunities of being acquainted: there are no queſtions which their variety of relations to different perſons expoſes to be ſo eaſily miſrepreſented without detection, nor any in which the oppoſition of particular intereſts ſo much incites a falſe repreſentation. In all theſe caſes deceit is eaſy, and there is a ſtrong temptation to deceive.

The methods we ſee from the preceding example (which I have introduced on purpoſe) that are practiſed by the French, have certainly a very happy tendency to the diſcovery of truth, and to prevent the royal council from being perplexed and miſled by private intereſts, in oppoſition to the general: for it is no little diſcredit to the contending deputies to attempt to impoſe upon each other, and far more ſo to aim at any barefaced impoſition upon the royal council: whereby all matter foreign to the point in queſtion, all perſonal altercations and ſophiſtry, impertinence and verboſity, are laid aſide. But whoever has attended to occaſional controverſies of this nature in our nation, both without doors, and too frequently elſewhere, have too much reaſon to think they are ſeldom untainted with ſuch matter, and ſuch unbecoming warmth and animoſity as can tend only to eclipſe, inſtead of illuminate the truth; and this we fear has too often occaſioned the public intereſts to be miſtaken, overlooked, or miſrepreſented, to the great injury of the ſtate.—How far theſe ill conſequences might be prevented, by an inſtitution bearing ſome ſimilitude to that in France, is humbly ſubmitted to thoſe whoſe duty it is to take theſe things into their deliberate conſideration.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE,

continued from the End of Letter S.

CHIEF LAWS WITH RESPECT TO TEA.

TEA—counterfeited, adulterated, manufactured with Terra-Japonica, or any drug, or mixed with any ingredients, is forfeited, with the ingredients, and 100 l. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 5.

—— May not be imported but from the place of its growth, nor upon any other pretence, upon forfeiture. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 7.

—— The importation from any foreign parts, by licence, repealed. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. §. 3. 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45, 46. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 12.

—— Seized, which cannot be ſold at a public ſale for 5 s. per pound, may be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed; and the ſeizer rewarded as the commiſſioners ſhall think fit, not exceeding 18 d. per pound. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 3.

—— Any dealers in tea, who ſhall dye, fabricate, or manufacture any ſloe leaves, liquorice leaves, or leaves of tea that have been uſed, or of any other tree, ſhrub, plant, in imitation of tea, &c. are to forfeit 10 l. for every pound weight. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 11.

—— Every perſon, declared at the company's public ſale of tea the beſt bidder, is, within three days, to depoſit with the company 40 s. for every tub or cheſt; and on neglect to make ſuch depoſit, forfeits ſix times the value, and rendered incapable of bidding for, or buying, any teas there for the future. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 7.

—— The Eaſt India company, if tea imported be not ſufficient to anſwer the conſumption in Great-Britain, and to keep the price upon an equality with the neighbouring countries of Europe, may, with licence from the commiſſioners of the treaſury, import, from any part of Europe, in Britiſh ſhips legally navigated, what they ſhall think neceſſary; to be entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and ſubject to the ſame ſubſidies and duties, rules, &c. as tea imported from the Eaſt-Indies. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 10, 12.

—— Upon neglect of the company to ſupply this market ſufficiently at reaſonable prices, the commiſſioners of treaſury may grant licences to any other perſon, or body corporate, to import tea from any parts of Europe, ſubject to ſuch duties, &c. as if imported by the ſaid company, to be lodged in warehouſes at the charge of importers, approved of by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms till publicly ſold and duties paid—Notice of ſale to be given ſix days in the Gazette. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 11, 12.

TEA,

TEA, exported to Ireland, or his Majeſty's plantations in America, the bond entered into, not to be diſcharged without a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, or ſurveyor of the port where landed, teſtifying the landing; the certificate, if from Ireland, to be produced in 6 months; if from America, in 18 months from the date thereof, otherwiſe the bond to be put in ſuit. 21 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1.

—— To be exported as above, the permit received upon delivery of the tea from the warehouſe, muſt, before ſhipped, be delivered to the ſearcher, or proper officers, of the port where entered for exportation, who muſt, upon ſuſpicion of a deficiency in quantity or quality, open and examine the package, and whether it has been duly entered OUTWARDS, and endorſed on the entry; and if it does not agree in quantity and quality with the PERMIT and ENDORSEMENT, or is entered under a wrong denomination, it is forfeited, with the package, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms.—If otherwiſe, the officer to cauſe the ſame to be repacked at his own charge, which is to be allowed him by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, if thought reaſonable. 21 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1.

—— Not to be exported to Ireland, or the Britiſh plantations, in any package but that in which it was imported, or in any quantity leſs than the entire lot in which it was ſold, on forfeiture. 21 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 2.

—— Entered for exportation as above, the package to be marked by the ſearcher in four different parts on the outſide, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall direct; and if found again on ſhore, is forfeited, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms or inland duties. 21 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 3.

—— All tea, above the quantity of ſix pounds, found in any Britiſh ſhip arriving in Great-Britain from foreign parts (except ſhips employed by the India company) forfeited, though intended to be reported for exportation. 28 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

The chief Laws with regard to TOBACCO.

TOBACCO—Not of the Britiſh plantations.—The impoſt having been ſecured at importation, if the importer is afterwards deſirous to diſcharge his bond before the expiration of the 15 months, he is allowed a diſcount after the rate of 10 l. per cent. per annum, for ſo much of the ſaid 15 months as remain unexpired. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 8. §. 3. 5 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

—— Of the Britiſh plantations.—— The importer may, if he is not willing to pay ready money, become bound with one or more ſufficient ſureties, (to be approved by the collector and comptroller of the port of importation) in one or more bonds, for payment of the additional duty, new ſubſidy, ſubſidy 1747, one-third ſubſidy and impoſt, within 18 months, to commence at the end of 30 days after the maſter's report of the ſhip, or from the merchant's entry within thoſe 30 days, which ſhall firſt happen. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 3. 21 Geo. II. c. 2. §. 5.

If, after ſuch ſecurity be given for payment of the duties in 18 months, the importer be deſirous to diſcharge his bond in ready money, any time before the expiration thereof, he ſhall be abated upon ſuch bond, ſo much as the diſcount, at the rate of 7 l. per cent. per annum ſhall amount unto, in proportion to the time unexpired. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 12. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 31.

—— Upon payment of the old ſubſidy, and ſecurity of the other duties by the importer's own bond, may be put into warehouſes, provided at his charge, and approved by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; if deſtroyed in ſuch warehouſes by fire, the duties to be allowed. 12 Ann. c. 8. §. 5, 6. 5 Geo. II. c. 7. §. 1. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 32.

—— Damaged or mean, is not to have any allowance, either at the ſcale or otherwiſe; but upon the merchant's refuſing to pay the duty, he may ſeparate ſuch damaged tobacco, by cutting off, from the hogſheads, ſo much as he ſhall refuſe to pay or ſecure cuſtom for; and any three or more of the principal officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms ſhall cauſe ſuch tobacco to be burnt or deſtroyed, without making the importer any allowance for freight or charges, except as follows; viz. If any Britiſh plantation tobacco hath received damage on board any ſhip at ſea, or by the ſhip's being forced on ſhore in any part of Great-Britain; or after arrival, by the ſhip's bulging on an anchor, or by the lighter into which the tobacco is put, in order to be landed; the merchant refuſing to pay, or ſecure the duty for the ſame, hath liberty to ſeparate ſuch tobacco as afore obſerved, and to receive for every pound of damaged tobacco, ſo ſeparated, the merchant is to be allowed one half penny—The ſame to be paid by the commiſſioners or collectors, or other chief officers of the cuſtoms.—But ſuch allowance is not to exceed 30 ſhillings on any one hogſhead. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 13.

—— The ſtalks may not be ſeparated from the leaves, on pretence that the ſame is damaged or mean tobacco. 9 Geo. I. c. 21 §. 5.

—— Allowance for draught at the ſcale, to be only 8 lb. upon every hogſhead of 350 lb. or more; which allowance is not to be deducted upon exportation. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 15.

—— Only tobacco of the Britiſh plantation, that has paid the duties, and been manufactured in Great-Britain, may be conſumed on board Britiſh ſhips of war in any part of Europe, upon forfeiture of the reſpective places of their commander or purſers, and 3 ſhillings per pound weight. 6 Ann. c. 22. §. 13.

—— Shipped at any place in the Britiſh plantations in America for Great-Britain, after the 25th of March, 1752, the collector or comptroller, or other chief officer of the cuſtoms there, or any two of them, are at the clearing out of the veſſel to deliver to the commander, or perſon taking charge of her, a manifeſt under their hands and ſeals of office, containing a true account of all the tobacco taken on board, the number of packages, the quantity, marks, numbers, and tare of each package; and at the ſame time tranſmit a duplicate thereof to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, on forfeiture of 200 l. to be recovered in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or court of admiralty in the plantations, where the offence is committed. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 1.

—— The perſon having charge of the veſſel, upon her arrival at his port of diſcharge in Great-Britain, and at the time of making his report, muſt deliver the ſaid manifeſt to the collector of the cuſtoms there, on forfeiture of 100 l. and the collector is to deliver it to the land-waiters appointed upon the ſhip. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 2.

—— The land-waiters are, from the manifeſt, to enter in their books (before any tobacco is landed) the marks, numbers, weights, tares, and contents of the ſeveral packages, under the penalty of 50 l. and to cauſe ſuch landing mark, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall direct, to be ſet upon every package, and are to enter every ſuch landing mark in their books, on forfeiture of 50 l. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 3.

—— May not be imported into Great-Britain, otherwiſe than in caſk, cheſt, or caſe only, each containing 450 pounds weight of net tobacco at the leaſt, on forfeiture of all the tobacco, together with the package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 20.

—— Imported from the Britiſh plantations on the continent of America in bulk, or otherwiſe than in caſks, cheſts, or caſes, containing each two hundred weight, or 224 lb. at leaſt, is forfeited, and 6 d. per pound weight, except ſmall quantities for the crews ſmoaking; $\frac{2}{3}$ to his Majeſty, and $\frac{1}{3}$ to the ſeizer or ſuer. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 21. §. 29.

—— Exported.—No debenture to be made out after the 29th of September, 1751, nor any drawback to be allowed upon tobacco imported after that time, unleſs it is ſhipped and exported from the ſame port where it was originally imported, and (if unmanufactured) in the original package, with the ſame marks in and with which it was imported, no other tobacco being put therein, nor any taken out, except 10 pounds, which ſhall be allowed to be taken out of each package after the ſame is weighed at importation, as is now the practice. The penalty for entering unmanufactured tobacco for exportation, from any port but the port of importation, or in any other package, or without the ſame marks as imported, is forfeiture of the tobacco, and 200 l. by the perſon who enters it, or cauſes it to be entered, beſides of drawback; and whoever knowingly exports any package of tobacco, out of which more than 10 pounds has been taken, forfeits 20 l. for every package exported. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. § 4.

—— But if, upon landing, the tobacco in any hogſhead or caſk, by cutting off the damaged part, is under the weight of 450 pounds; the importer may, in the preſence of the land-waiter, cauſe the ſound tobacco to be put together into one or more hogſheads, out of which the damaged was taken; and the land-waiters are to enter in their books the exact weight of the tobacco, with the marks and numbers of each ſuch hogſheads, and note that they were refilled in their preſence; then ſuch tobacco (provided the quantity in each hogſhead is 425 pounds weight or more) may be exported from the port of importation, as if the package had not been altered. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 5.

—— The perſon who enters unmanufactured tobacco outwards, muſt, before ſhipping it for exportation, indorſe upon the cocket and bill the plantation or manifeſt mark and number, the landing mark and number, with the weight of each package at the time of landing; alſo the exporter's mark and number, with the weight of each at the time of entry for exportation; and write off the weight of each package from the identical entry thereof at importation. Every perſon refuſing, or neglecting ſo to do, foreits 5 l. for every package, beſides loſs of drawback; and the ſearcher is not to admit any cocket, unleſs marked as aforeſaid. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 6.

——Unmanufactured, may not be loaden in any veſſel in Great-Britain, with intent to be exported, but in caſks, cheſts, or caſes only, containing 425 pounds weight or more of tobacco in each, on forfeiture of the tobacco and

caſk, &c. containing the ſame; except packages containing ſamples ſhipped and exported at the ſame time and place with the caſks, &c. out of which they were taken. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 21.

—— Exported (though manufactured) in any package but caſks of three hundred weight or more, is not to be allowed any drawback, except tobacco cut or rolled. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 14.

—— Mixed with rubbiſh or dirt, or any other thing, ſhall be allowed no drawback; and every perſon who ſhall enter or ſhip ſuch for exportation, or cauſe it to be done, or who ſhall enter any thing as tobacco for exportation, which, upon examination by the proper officer, appears not to be ſo, ſhall forfeit all the goods and the package, and 50l. for every package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 24.

—— Manufactured or unmanufactured, may not be entered or ſhipped for exportation in any veſſel, not of the burthen of 70 tons or upwards, except to Ireland; and if exported thither in any veſſel under the burthen of 20 tons, it is not to be allowed any drawback. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 25. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 20.

—— Any officer of the cuſtoms apprehending a veſſel outward-bound with tobacco on board, not of the burthen of 70 tons or upwards, he may ſtop and detain her, and the whole cargo, 'till ſhe is admeaſured, as directed by 6 Geo. I. c. 21. and if ſhe proves to be of that burthen, he ſhall not be ſubject to any action for damages; but the maſter of ſuch veſſel entering and clearing her out as of that burthen, when ſhe is under it, forfeits 100l. for every ſuch offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 25. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 20.

TOBACCO EXPORTED TO IRELAND.—If, upon producing a certificate, leſs appears to be landed there than ſhipped from hence, an allowance not exceeding two per cent. may be made for waſte during the voyage. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 48.

—— Entered for other foreign parts, if landed in Ireland, is forfeited, and double the drawback; and the debenture for the drawback is to be void. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 49.

—— Entered out for any other place than Ireland, the exporter is to ſwear that the ſame is not landed in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 50.

—— Imported from the BRITISH PLANTATIONS in America.—The importer manufacturing it, or delivering it out to be manufactured upon his own account, muſt firſt deliver to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, an account in writing, ſigned by himſelf and the manufacturer, or their known agents, with their names and places of abode, containing the plantations or manifeſt mark and number of each package, with the name of the ſhip, and time when imported, the landing mark and number, the weight at importation, and the weight at the time of delivering it out; and the importer muſt write off the weight from the entry at importation. The penalty for neglecting to give or ſign ſuch account, or knowingly giving or ſigning a fraudulent one, is 30l. for every package, by each perſon concerned. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 7.

—— The importer ſelling or delivering ſuch tobacco out of his poſſeſſion, muſt, within 14 days after delivery, give to the collector the ſame account in writing, ſigned by himſelf and the purchaſer, or their known agents, and write off the weight from the entry in the ſame manner, and ſubject to the ſame penalties, as in caſe of delivering it out to be manufactured. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 8.

—— REMOVED BY LAND.— TOBACCO OR TOBACCO STALKS, exceeding 24lb. weight, or SNUFF exceeding 10lb. weight, may not be conveyed from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place of importation; and if unmanufactured, with the importer's oath thereto (if the importer applies for it) that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, by whom, when, and in what ſhip imported; or with the purchaſer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) atteſting the marks and numbers of the hogſheads, out of which it was taken, from whom purchaſed, and when: if TOBACCO-STALKS or SNUFF, or MANUFACTURED TOBACCO, are ſo removed, then the certificate muſt have the importer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or ſuch ſnuff or manufactured tobacco was made, from one or more hogſheads, for which the duties were by him paid or ſecured at importation; or the purchaſer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or the ſnuff or manufactured tobacco was made, from one or more hogſheads, which had been delivered and received according to the direction of this act; which certificate ſuch officers are to grant, and after entering in their books, to deliver to the perſon applying for the ſame, without fee or reward for certificate or oath, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 9.

TOBACCO.—The proprietor, factor, or agent of the tobacco, &c. (before it is removed) is to inſert on the back of the certificate the names of each package, with the marks and numbers, and the weight of each ſpecies of goods in each package, the place from whence delivered, and to which they are to be conveyed, and by whom, or the name of the inn from whence carried, and the name of the perſon to whom conſigned; and to which he muſt ſubſcribe his name, and make oath to the truth thereof. The certificate muſt expreſs the number of days it is to continue in force, and accompany the goods to the place to which they are to be carried; and the perſon there receiving it, muſt cauſe it to be delivered to the chief officer of the cuſtoms there; or if there is no officer of the cuſtoms, to the officer of exciſe for that diviſion, who is to examine the ſame with the goods, which, if they agree therewith, are to be taken away by the perſon to whom they belong; and ſuch officer is to enter the certificate in a book kept for that purpoſe. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 10. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

—— Such goods, in the quantity above-mentioned, removing by land without ſuch certificate, are forfeited, and the packages, together with the cattle and carriages; and the carrier, or perſon employed in removing the ſame, is to be committed to the county gaol for one month, by a juſtice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found.—And any perſon, who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze, or alter ſuch certificate, or the duplicate thereof, or procure the ſame to be done, ſhall forfeit 50l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 12.

—— Such goods, in the quantity above-mentioned, may not be conveyed by land from any place in Great-Britain to any other, unleſs the package is marked on the outſide with the reſpective words TOBACCO, TOBACCO-STALKS, or SNUFF, in letters not leſs than three inches in length, on forfeiture thereof, with the package, and alſo 1s. per pound weight to be paid by the owner thereof. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 23.

TOBACCO REMOVED BY WATER.—No TOBACCO, TOBACCO-STALKS, OR SNUFF, may be ſhipped on board any veſſel to be carried by water from any place in Great-Britain to any other, until every part thereof is entered at the cuſtom-houſe, at the port neareſt the place where they are ſhipped; and if UNMANUFACTURED, it muſt be ſhipped in the original package in which it was imported, preſerving the ſame marks and numbers, but not without a certificate from the collector or comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured at importation; by whom, the time when, and in what veſſel imported: if it is TOBACCO-STALKS, or SNUFF, or other MANUFACTURED TOBACCO, it is not to be ſo ſhipped without a certificate from the ſaid officers, that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, for the tobacco from which they were ſtripped, made, or manufactured; which certificates the ſaid officers are required to grant to the importer, or his known agent, applying for the ſame, without fee or reward, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 13.

—— Before ſuch goods are ſhipped, the proprietor muſt inſert on the back of the certificate the names of each particular package, with the marks and numbers, the weight of each particular ſpecies of goods in each package, and the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 14.

—— The certificate muſt, before ſhipping, be delivered by the proprietor to the perſon taking charge of the veſſel, who, immediately upon his arrival in any port or place in Great-Britain, muſt deliver it to the collector or chief officer there, who muſt examine the goods with the certificate; and if they agree therewith, the goods are to be diſcharged, and may be taken away by the perſon to whom they belong. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 15.

—— Such goods found on board any veſſel before ſuch certificate is obtained, or without its being on board therewith, or if it is forged, or does not agree in all reſpects with the goods, then all ſuch goods are forfeited, together with the packages, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms; and the perſon taking charge of the veſſel ſhall forfeit 6d. per pound weight; and any perſon who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze, or alter ſuch certificate, ſhall forfeit 100l. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 16.

TOBACCO, or TOBACCO-STALKS, exceeding 24 pounds weight, or SNUFF exceeding 10 pounds weight (which has been removed by water from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain) may not be removed afterwards from thence by land, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place to which they were carried by water, that it appears to them by the entry of the certificate, which came by the goods from the place of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured there, and in what veſſel they were brought by water, and when, and that the perſon applying for the ſame had made oath to the truth thereof; which certificate ſuch officers are required (after writing it in their books) to deliver to any perſon applying for it. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

—— The proprietor of the goods, or his factor or agent (before they are removed) muſt inſert on the back of the certificate the names of each package, with the marks and numbers,

numbers, the weight of each ſpecies of goods in each packa e, the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried, and the name of the perſon to whom they ſhall be ſent, which he muſt ſubſcribe with his name, and make oath to the truth thereof.—And ſuch goods found ſo removing without ſuch certificate, or if the certificate appears to be forged or counterfeited, are forfeited, and the package, together with the horſes, cattle, and carriages employed, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms: the carrier or perſon employed in the removal alſo forfeits 10 l. and is to be committed to the county-gaol for one month by any juſtice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found.—And any perſon who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze, or alter ſuch certificate or duplicate thereof, or procure it to be done, ſhall forfeit 100 l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

TOBACCO.—The ſecond purchaſer of an intire hogſhead of unmanufactured tobacco, is intitled to the benefit of a certificate on removal by land or water, in like manner as the firſt purchaſer from the importer; but in this certificate the name of the importer or ſeller may be omitted, provided the ſeller to the ſecond purchaſer has delivered to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, ſuch accounts as the importer is required to give by 24 Geo. II. c. 41. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 6.

—— Any certificate for removal of tobacco, tobacco-ſtalks, or ſnuff, by land or water, is to be deemed a proper one, though the name of the importer is not inſerted therein, provided his name is expreſſed in the bill from which the certificate is prepared. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

—— Any perſon who ſhall put out, alter, or deface any mark or number ſet upon any package of tobacco in America, or in Great-Britain, at importation or exportation, ſhall forfeit 20 l. for each package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 19.

—— Tobacco-ſtalks and ſnuff, ſeized and condemned, are to be burnt in the preſence of the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms at the place where the goods are at the time of condemnation; or, for want of ſuch, in the preſence of the collector or ſupervifor of exciſe for that diſtrict. 24 Geo. II. c. 47. §. 27, 28.

—— The officers who ſeized and proſecuted, are to be paid (if it is tobacco, or tobacco-ſnuff) at the ſame rate as if it was ſold for 6 d. per pound, which by 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 10. being one-third of the groſs ſale clear of all charges, amounts to 2 d. per pound: if tobacco-ſtalks, or damaged tobacco, they are to be paid 1 d. per pound, in lieu of all other allowance, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms at London or Edinburgh reſpectively, or by the collector of the out-ports where ſeized and burnt, out of any duties applicable to incidents; provided the officers, before whom it was burnt, certify to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms the exact quantity burnt, who are thereupon to grant their order for payment. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 27, 28.

The following particulars are to be tranſmitted to the regiſter of tobacco by the perſons under mentioned, viz. an account of the certificate received with the goods by the officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe reſpectively; and duplicates of original certificates for removing by land, by the officers who granted them at the port of importation; and certificates for removal by water by the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port where the goods were landed, within one month after he receives it, provided the goods agree therewith; and duplicates of certificates for removal by land, after the firſt removal by water, by the perſon who granted it; and once in every calendar month, one of the land-waiters book of the landing and diſcharging of tobacco imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, and copies of every entry thereof for exportation, with the endorſements, and copies of every account of tobacco intended to be manufactured, and copies of every account of tobacco ſold by the importer, to be tranſmitted by the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, of every port in Great-Britain where the buſineſs was tranſacted: which ſeveral accounts are to be by him entered in ſuch manner and form, that the marks and numbers of every hogſhead, caſk, or other package, and their weights at importation, may be compared with the marks, &c. reſpectively at exportation, or delivery for home-conſumption, or to be manufactured, in order to preſerve the identity thereof; and the ſaid regiſter is to tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, at London and Edinburgh reſpectively, an account in writing of any thing which appears to be done contrary to the meaning of this act; and once in 6 months he is to lay before the lords of the treaſury, a copy of ſuch his repreſentations made to the ſaid commiſſioners. Any collector, or chief officer, neglecting to tranſmit any of the accounts before-mentioned, to forfeit 50 l. for every ſuch neglect. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 10, 11, 15, 17, 22.

TOBACCO imported from the Britiſh plantations in America.—The importer is every year, between the 1ſt and 24th of June, to deliver to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, an account in writing, under his hand, of all tobacco in his cuſtody, power, or poſſeſſion, which has been entered 18 months or more at that time, containing the number of packages, with the reſpective marks, numbers, and weights of each, and the place where lodged; upon receipt of which, ſuch officer is to cauſe the goods to be examined thereby, and then to tranſmit the account to the regiſter of tobacco. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 18.

Any importer neglecting ſo to do, or if the account proves fraudulent in any reſpect, forfeits 50 l. for every offence.—Ditto act of parliament.

—— Any veſſel, under the burthen of 70 tons, having on board 100 lb. weight of tobacco, or any tobacco-ſtalks, or 50 lb. weight of ſnuff, found at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the ſhore, or diſcovered to have been within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage, (unleſs in caſe of unavoidable neceſſity and diſtreſs of weather, of which the maſter, purſer, or perſon taking charge, muſt give notice, and make proof before the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, immediately after arrival) all ſuch goods are forfeited, with the package, or the value thereof, whether bulk ſhall have been broke or not; and the maſter, or perſon taking charge of the veſſel, forfeits 100 l.

—— And if any veſſel, above the burthen of 70 tons, having ſuch goods on board, ſhall be found hovering as aforeſaid, and no notice of diſtreſs is given, the maſter, or perſon taking charge of it, forfeits 100 l. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 26.

TOBACCO-STALKS, or SNUFF, removed from one place to another in greater quantities than by 24 Geo. II. c. 21. is allowed, and not attended with the certificate required, may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe; and the proof that it was removed from the port of importation with a proper certificate, and that the duties thereon were paid or ſecured, is to lie on the claimer, and not on the officer who ſeized it. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 2.

TOBACCO.—All bonds for payment of duties on tobacco, ſhall be deemed to be due and payable upon the day of payment, mentioned in the condition of the bond, and intereſt to be computed from the ſaid day whereon the bond ſhall be paid off in money, or the day the ſearcher certifies on the debenture, that the tobacco is ſhipped for exportation; and no ſecurity to be vacated till all intereſt be paid thereon. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 29.

—— The chancellor, or either of the barons, of the Exchequer, to grant a fiat for iſſuing proceſs of immediate extent againſt any perſon bound for the duties on tobacco before the bond becomes due, on affidavit laid before him by one of the ſecurities, or the executor or adminiſtrator of ſuch ſecurity, that the perſon bound is decayed in circumſtances, and ſetting forth the danger of loſs to the crown, unleſs ſome more ſpeedy method of recovery than uſual be made uſe of: if the money is recovered before the bond becomes due, the obliger is to be allowed therefrom the uſual diſcounts. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 30.

—— The penalties and forfeitures by this act are to be, one moiety to the uſe of his Majeſty, &c. and the other moiety to the uſe of ſuch perſon as ſhall inform, proſecute, or ſue for the ſame; and the ſaid penalties and forfeitures may be ſued for, and the cauſes ariſing by this act may be tried and determined in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, if ſuch offences are committed in England, or if the offender be in England at the time of commencing the proſecution; or in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh, if the offence be committed in Scotland, or the offender be in Scotland at the time of commencing the proſecution, at the election of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for England and Scotland reſpectively. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 33.

TOBACCO, of the growth of Europe, or mixed therewith, may not be ſold or delivered to the ſeamen on board any of his Majeſty's ſhips of war. 6 Ann. c. 22. §. 12.

—— The ſtalks or ſtems, ſtripped from the leaf, may not be imported; and upon ſeizure and condemnation, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may cauſe them to be publickly burnt, allowing the ſeizer 1 d. per pound weight, clear of all charges of condemnation. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 13.

—— The STALKS or STEMS, when ſeparated from the reſt of the leaf, and exported by themſelves, are not to have any drawback. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 20.

—— May not be planted in Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 40 s. for every rod or pole of ground planted; half to the king, and half to the ſuer; and alſo 10 l. more; one-third to the king, one-third to the poor of the pariſh, and one-third to the ſuer.—Except in phyſic-gardens, and not exceeding half a rod in any one garden.—Sheriffs, juſtices, &c. within ten days after information, are to cauſe ſuch tobacco to be deſtroyed.——Juſtices, a month before each general quarter ſeſſions, are to iſſue out warrants to the conſtables, &c. to ſearch for ſuch tobacco, and to make a preſentation upon

upon oath, at the quarter-ſeſſions.—Conſtables, within 14 days after ſuch warrant, may call aſſiſtance, and deſtroy ſuch tobacco; upon neglect, are to forfeit 5 s. per rod.—Aſſiſtance refuſed, the forfeiture is 5 s.—Reſiſting, the penalty is impriſonment for three months, or to forfeit 5 l. and impriſonment, till a recognizance of 10 l. penalty, with two ſecurities, be entered into, not to offend again. 12 Car. II. c. 34. §. 1, &c. 15 Car. II. c. 7. §. 18, &c. 22 Car. II. c. 26. §. 2, &c. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 19.

LEAVES OF WALNUTS, hops, ſycamore, or any other leaves, herbs, plants, or materials, may not be cut in the form, or in imitation of any of the uſual ſizes or cuts of tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, or coloured or cured, to reſemble ſuch tobacco for ſale, or knowingly ſold or offered to ſale as ſuch tobacco, upon forfeiture of 5 s. per pound weight. The charges of proſecution to be borne by his Majeſty. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 1.

—— Such leaves, &c. may not be exported with intent to obtain a drawback, as for tobacco, upon forfeiture of 5 s per pound weight, beſides former penalties. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 2.

—— May, with all engines, utenſils, and tools, be ſearched for, and ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms, at ſeaſonable hours, and with a warrant from the juſtices; who, at their quarter-ſeſſions, are to determine ſuch ſeizure, and after condemnation, cauſe them to be burnt. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 3, 4.

Servants employed in cutting, manufacturing, &c. or felling, upon conviction before two juſtices, may be committed to the houſe of correction, there to remain, not exceeding ſix months. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 5.

TOBACCO-PIPE CLAY. See the concluſion of letter W. WOOL.

TURKEY.—Currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turkey, muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland; except ſuch ſhips as are of the built of the country whereof the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of ſuch port where the ſaid goods commonly, or moſt uſually, are firſt ſhipped for tranſportation, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

V.

VENICE. This ancient republic may be divided into three parts: theſe are the dominions in Italy, called Terma Firma; thoſe in Dalmatia, and thoſe in the Ionian and Egean Seas; called the Levant. The Terra Firma dominions are again ſubdivided into the following territories, viz. the Dagado of Venice, the Padnano, Vicentino, Veroneſe, Breſciano, Bergamaſco, Friuli and Aquilegio, Iſtria, Cremeſco, Poleſin de Revigo, Marcas Trevigiana.—The coaſts of Dalmatia contain the towns of Zara, Nona, Spalato, Sebenico, Trau, Cliſſa, and Cattara; and the iſles of Charto, Otero, Vegtia, or Vegia, Arbe, Pago, Iſola, Longa, La Barza, Leſſna, Curzola, and ſome few more of ſmall note.—In the Levant, the iſles of Cephalonia, Corfu, Zant, La Praga, Millo, Cerigo, Tine, Kimolo, or Argentaria, and the Morea.

The Venetians have little produce of the country, or manufacture of the people, except the ſilk, and the ſilken manufactures: the former reſpects the land part, the latter the city, where many of the ſilk manufactures are made: but yet the ſtate is very opulent, becauſe they abound with univerſal merchants; and this is owing to an univerſal correſpondence, by which, as the Dutch are to theſe northern parts, ſo are the Venetians to all the ſhores of the Adriatic gulph, the iſles of the Arches, and the ſea-coaſts of the Turkiſh dominons; for to all theſe places they ſend their ſhips, freighted with the growth and manufactures of other countries, as England, Holland, France, New Spain, &c. in return for which they bring but few goods, except from Turkey, whence they bring large quantities of ſilk, which they ſell again, among their own manufacturers in the city, as alſo in their Terra Firma dominions, and likewiſe to the duchies of Milan and Mantua.

By their inland commerce they convey their ſilk into the ſeveral countries as well of their own dominions, as thoſe of the emperor, and into all the countries between the gulph and the river Danube; through all which the Venetians have a great and flouriſhing commerce, partly by the help of canals, and partly by ſmall navigable rivers.

The trade which may be called their own, and which is more conſiderable, is by the navigation of thoſe great rivers the Po, the Adige, the Adda, the Mincio, and others, by which they carry all the heavy goods they import from foreign parts, into the rich and populous provinces of Lombardy, and have a communication even with Milan and Turin.

By theſe rivers, alſo, they have a correſpondence with the country of Trent and Tirol, and even with Bavaria itſelf; as alſo, by the lower branches of the Po, and the canal de Ferrara, they have with all the ſouthern provinces of the papal dominions, as Ferrara, Bologna, Urbino, and Parma, and as far into the country weſtward as Modena, &c.

As they have the ſole commerce of moſt of theſe countries, and in ſuch a manner as not to be interrupted by any rival nations, it is not to be wondered that the Venetians have a very thriving and gainful trade, and that they can advantageouſly diſperſe the large importations they make from almoſt all parts of Europe, as from Spain, Portugal, England, and Holland, they having a conſiderable call for goods from them all.

Nor do they bring any valuable returns back from their inland countries, for they have few productions in thoſe provinces, except corn: neither have they metals or minerals, iron excepted; nor wool, cotton, or hair, or any conſiderable manufacture for employing their people: ſo that the Venetians are ſaid to drive the moſt ready-money trade of any of the Mediterranean countries, becauſe they export ſuch great quantities of goods to countries which have no returns to make them but money.

However, they receive large quantities of other merchandize from the Turkiſh dominions; it is thought more than any one nation beſides. The particulars are,

Raw ſilk, directly from Smyrna and Scanderoon.

Coffee, from the Red Sea, by the way of Alexandria.

Spices, from India, and by the ſame way.

Drugs, &c. { Galls, from Aleppo. / Maſtic, and / Turpentine, } from Scio.

Drugs, &c. { Senna, / Balm, / Mummy, / Dates, and / India cotton, } from Egypt.

Cotton, and cotton-yarn, from Cyprus.

Greek wines from the iſlands.

Though the Venetians may have mines of iron and lead in the territories of the Vicentine and Friule, and in other parts, yet we find Engliſh lead and Swediſh iron have a good market at Venice, as alſo Engliſh block-tin, and moſt kinds of wrought iron and braſs: nor have we yet had any ſufficient proof of thoſe metals being found there in quantities, except ſome iron, as far off as Stiria and Carinthia.

The Venetians were formerly the principal glaſs-makers in Europe, and furniſhed all this part of the world with looking-glaſſes, and other glaſs wares of all ſorts, which were in high eſteem. But they have been excelled by the French, and the French by the Engliſh, who, without flattery, do now make the beſt glaſs wares in the world; and the Engliſh plate-glaſs and drinking-glaſſes are carried not to France only, but even to Venice itſelf.

They have a very conſiderable ſilk manufacture, as before noticed, not only in the city of Venice, but in the countries of Breſcia, Verona, Bergamo, and other parts; and they carry their fine brocaded ſilks, velvets, ſattins, and Mantua ſilks, as alſo figured damaſks, to Conſtantinople one way, and to Vienna the other way: and this trade is very conſiderable, and it brings them great returns in money, and employs multitudes of their people.

The Venetians have another trade, which is of no leſs concernment, it being almoſt peculiar to themſelves; it conſiſts in naval ſtores: for the provinces of the Vicentine, the Trevigiana, and part of Friuli, are full of firs, and thoſe ſo well grown and large, that they cut maſts there, even for their biggeſt ſhips of war: they have likewiſe good oak for building. In conſequence of their fir woods, they have pitch and tar; and the ſame countries produce great quantities of hemp and flax: ſo that they have deals, timber, maſts, ſails, hemp, flax, pitch, and tar, all of their own; which none of the princes or ſtates in the Mediterranean can boaſt of in the ſame manner.

Nor is this ſolely beneficial to them in regard to their own navy, and to fill their own magazines, but they furniſh all thoſe materials, in great quantities, to the other ports of Italy, as Genoa, Naples, Meſſina, and Palermo, or to any other places where they build ſhips, eſpecially thoſe of force; and the knights of Malta fetch moſt of their naval ſtores from hence. Were the countries this way furniſhed for trade, and with wealth ſufficient to carry it on, they would ſend hither for ſhips, and Venice would be the arſenal of the Mediterranean, as Holland has been of other parts of Europe.

They are poſſeſſed of a very large coaſt on the other ſide of the Adriatic gulph, called Dalmatia, where they have ſome good ports, though no city of any conſiderable commerce; neither does the country produce any thing extraordinary for merchandize: it ſupplies the city of Venice with corn and mutton, in great quantities; and, in return, the Venetians ſupply the people with their foreign merchandize.

Yet the Venetians want many things which their own territories cannot ſupply them with, and which, ſince they loſt ſo much of their dominions to the Turks, they are obliged to purchaſe from them, and from the Greeks under the Turkiſh government: and theſe are as well neceſſaries as merchandize.

They have no wine; the mountainous countries to the north of the city are, like the Alps, too cold for the vines, nor do they pretend to make any: and therefore they are ſo meanly ſupplied by the Greeks, who mix water with their rich wines, 'till they reduce them almoſt to water: yet the Venetians, taking care to reduce the price in proportion, are content with the liquor, though they know it is ſo ſpoiled.

They are ſupplied with wines from ſeveral of the iſlands, as particularly from

Skyros, where the wine is very good and rich, and bought very cheap.

Negropont: here the Venetians buy very good wine alſo, and raiſins of the ſun, or dried grapes: but the wine is dearer here than at Skyros.

Andros: from hence the Venetians fetch both wine and oil, alſo good oranges and lemons; and pomegranates they bring thence in ſuch plenty, that they make a kind of vinegar of their juice.

Tinos: here the Venetians fetch the beſt wines they drink, except that of Florence, of which we have ſpoken already; and, as this iſland is their own, they encourage the trade very much. Alſo the Venetians fetch a great deal of ſilk here, of a meaner ſort than the Italian and Turkey ſilk, which they fraudulently mix with it ſometimes in their manufactures, but principally uſe it in making tapeſtry, and other ſubſtantial manufactures.

Mycone: here is that wine, which, though excellent well-taſted, and rich and ſtrong in its natural original as a juice, is ſo greatly adulterated by the Myconians, before they bring it to Venice.

The Venetians bring cotton-yarn, alſo, and goat's-hair, from theſe iſlands, and ſeveral kinds of ſilk, ſome worſe than that of Tinos, and ſome better. The cotton and hair they work into ſeveral uſeful manufactures, which ſupply the place of woollen, for they have very little wool, and what they have is of little uſe in any kind of manufacture: wherefore they import conſiderable quantities of Engliſh, and other woollen manufactures.

They have ſome refining-houſes for ſugar, they purchaſing large quantities of muſcavado ſugars in England and in France, which they boil and refine, as is done in England; they alſo refine the Brazil ſugars, though very white before.

Their manufacture of bone-lace is ſtill conſiderable, as well for the uſe of the city, as for the trade of the countries adjacent; but is ſo much outdone by the Flanders manufacture, that very little, if any, is brought into theſe parts of the world.

It ſhould not be omitted, among their importations, that they fetch a great quantity of wax from all thoſe iſlands above named, which they generally conſume in the city of Venice, where the quantity they uſe is very great, almoſt all the perſons of figure burning none but wax candles, and the poorer ſort lamps, for they have but little tallow.

It may be obſerved here, that the cities of Venice and of Rome are, of all the cities of Europe for their bigneſs, the moſt noted for pomp and ſhew, the confluence of ſtrangers to both being ſcarce conceivable. At Venice, the diverſions of the carnival, the magnificence of the buildings, among which are 400 noblemens palaces, with the ſplendid appearance of ladies richly attired, &c.

This cauſes a prodigious trade in things otherwiſe of no great moment, as equipages, coaches, gondaloes, liveries, habits of ceremony, and ſuch things; as alſo in furniture, paintings, and other extraordinaries of that kind. Hence there are more taylors, upholſters, gold and ſilver lace-makers, embroiderers, and, to ſum up all, footmen and pages, and you may allow me to add fiddlers and ſtrumpets, than in any other city in the world, Paris and London excepted.

At Venice, the numerous throng of gentry, and perſons of the firſt quality, to the carnival, is ſuch, that they frequently number 20 or 30 ſovereign princes there at a time, beſides others of lower rank, without number: and the noblemen of Venice themſelves, though they are very numerous, and affect ſplendor and magnificence in apparel and jewels, as alſo in their furniture, yet they do not entertain ſo many valets, and other domeſtics, as is the cuſtom at Rome: and becauſe they cannot keep coaches and horſes in Venice, yet their grandeur the other way is equally expenſive, and occaſions abundance of thoſe trades before enumerated.

Nor, indeed, does any thing conduce more to the promoting commerce, than the gay and ſumptuous dreſs of the people, eſpecially where the humour once becomes national, as it is at Venice, as well as at Rome.

The Venetians trade with the Turks in the Morea, and the gulph of Theſſalonica, and to ſome of the iſlands, as before obſerved. And as thoſe countries are full of Greeks, and other Chriſtian inhabitants, they carry them proper manufactures, ſuch as wrought ſilks, fine linen, bone-lace, and all ſorts of haberdaſhery for the women, who love to go fine, eſpecially in the iſles. What they carry back in return is difficult to enquire, but is from all parts according to the production of the place, ſuch as currants, raiſins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, ſilk, &c. and this is the reaſon why Venice is the magazine for the ſcarceſt drugs, and from whence they are ſent over the whole Chriſtian world. As for money, they take little in the iſlands; the iſlanders rather carry ſome money from the Venetians.

Of the Foreign Exchanges of Venice.

The uſance of Venice with reſpect to the following places, viz.

To Amſterdam, two months after date.

To Antwerp, Hamburgh, London - 2 months / 3 months } after date,

Auguſte, Vienna, Franckfort, St Gall, Genoa, Naples } 15 days } after acception.

Florence, Leghorn } 5 days

Rome 20 days

Milan 20 days after date.

After the expiration of the time of theſe different uſances, bills of exchange have ſix days of grace to run.

It is forbidden to pay or accept bills of exchange endorſed, if not by the procuration of the laſt endorſer. All bills of exchange drawn upon any place or fair whatſoever muſt, under pain of being void, be paid in bank, and the bank keep their accounts, and almoſt the whole republic alſo, in ducats and gros.

There are particular perſons who keep their accounts in livres, ſols and deniers gros, whoſe ſubdiviſions are by 20 and 12; and others keep them in ducats current.

The lira, or livre = 10 ducats bank, or 240 groſſi.

The ducat of bank imaginary money, which is uſed in the exchanges, = 24 groſſi, or 124 ſoldi, or 6 $\frac{1}{5}$ lires.

The gros = 5 $\frac{1}{6}$ ſoldi banco, or 32 piccioli.

The ſoldo banco = 12 gros, or $\frac{1}{2}$ ducat banco.

The lira, or livre banco, = 240 gros, or 10 ducats banco = 12 ducats current, or 74 lires 8 ſoldi piccioli.

The ducat bank = 7 lires, 8 ſoldi, 9 $\frac{3}{5}$ piccioli, or 148 $\frac{4}{5}$ ſoldi current, or piccioli.

☞ The word piccioli ſignifies a denier, or a penny, and it is alſo called current money, piccioli or current being ſynonymous words.

The ſequin of gold = 20 lires current money, and is of the ſtandard of 23 $\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{2}$ carats, and it weighs 66 grains.

The Venetian crown, or ducaton, = 8 lires 10 ſoldi of the ſaid money, of the ſtandard of 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers, and it weighs 600 grains.

The reduction of ducats bank money into current, and the latter again into the former; and alſo of lires bank into lires piccioli, and lires piccioli into lires bank.

800 duc.	12 ſols d'or ban.		* 960 duc.	14 ſol.	5 den. d'or cur.			
$\frac{1}{5}$ 160	2	5 to be add.	160	2	5 the $\frac{1}{6}$ to be ſub.			

* 960 duc. 14 5 den. cur. = 800 duc. 12 ſols d'or in banco.
6 lires 4 ſoldi 6 lires 4 ſoldi

5760			4800		
192			160		
3 lires 2 ſoldi pic.			3 lires 2 ſoldi pic.		
1	4	4	0	12	5
0	2	6			
5956	8	10 cur.	4963	14	5 banco.
$\frac{1}{6}$ 992	14	5 ſub.	992	14	$5\frac{1}{5}$ to be added.
4963	14	5 ban. = 5956		8	10 current.

Beſides the bank money of the prince, there is another current money, which gives a ſur-agio from 15 to 20 per cent. according to particular conjunctures.

Beſides the aboveſaid bank and current monies, there are lires piccioli, which is the money with which merchandizes are ordinarily bought, and theſe are reduced into ducats current, of 6 lires 4 ſoldi, by multiplying the lires by 20 ſoldi, and by dividing the product by 124 ſoldi, the value of the ducat current.

The lira, or lire, = 20 ſoldi piccioli.

The ſoldo, or ſol, = 12 piccioli, or bagattini.

We ſhall now touch upon the ſeveral operations of the exchanges, in order to know for what ſums bills muſt be made, that I would remit to my correſpondents of the undermentioned cities, in their ſeveral and reſpective monies.

Before we enter into theſe operations, it is proper to apprize the reader that, for the ſame reaſons given under the article Holland, in relation to the exchange between that republic and Spain, with regard to the reduction of the parts of the ducat of 375 marvedees, in like manner we ſhall, for facility of computation, ſubdivide the ducat banco of Venice into 20 ſols d'or, and 12 deniers d'or, although the ordinary ſubdiviſion is into 24 gros, or 124 marchetti; and, in conformity hereto, we will ſuppoſe that I owe the following ſums, in ducats, ſols, and deniers d'or, bank money, to my ſeveral correſpondents.

	Duc.	Sols	Den.	Courſe of Exchange.	
At Amſterdam,	1060	17	3	at 88 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros	per ſaid ducat banco.
Antwerp	600	10	—	at 92 deniers gros of exchange	
London	14	9	18	1 at 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence ſterling	
Hamburgh	552	10	4	at 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros of Hamburgh	
Genoa	373	15	—	at 103 marchetti per crown of 4 lires banco.	
Leghorn	785	1	—	at 102 piaſtres of 20 ſol d'or, per 100 duc. banco.	
Rome	2253	17	5	at 62 crowns d'eſtampe per 100 ducats banco.	
Naples	515	—	5	at 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats of 10 carlins per 100 ditto.	
Lyons	800	12	—	at 62 ducats banco per 100 crowns of 3 lires.	
Auguſta	500	15	—	at 96 rixdollars of 90 kreutzers per 100 duc. banco.	
Vienna	542	12	9	at 188 florins current per 100 ditto.	
Milan	724	3	6	at 154 marchetti per crown of 117 s. exchange.	
Ancona	400	—	—	at 93 crowns of 10 julios per 100 ducats banco.	
Florence	300	—	—	at 78 crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires per 100 ditto.	
Bolzano	800	—	—	at 136 marchetti per rixd. of 93 kreutzers exch.	
Novi	1930	—	—	at 193 ducats banco per 100 crowns mark.	

CASE I.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 1060 duc. 17 ſols 3 deniers banco of Venice, into florins, ſols, and penings banco of Amſterdam, exchange at 88 $\frac{1}{4}$ den. per ducat as above.

OPERATION.

1060 Ducats, 17 ſols, 3 deniers, multiplied
By the 88 $\frac{1}{4}$ Deniers gros of exchange.

8480
8480
265 for $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1060
44 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 10 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$
22 for 5 ſols, the $\frac{1}{4}$
8 $\frac{6}{8}$ for 2 ſols, the $\frac{1}{10}$
1 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 3 ſols, the $\frac{1}{80}$
} of the exchange.

9362|1 Deniers gros.

the $\frac{1}{4}$|2340 florins, 10 ſols, 8 penings banco, for which the draught muſt be made upon Amſterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 1060 duc. 17 ſols 3 den. by the price of exchange of 88 $\frac{1}{4}$, and divide by 40 deniers gros, the value of a florin, and the quotient will be 2340 florins, 10 ſols, 8 penings banco, to be received at Amſterdam; the proof of which you have under the article HOLLAND, in the exchange of Holland upon Venice.

CASE II.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ANTWERP.

To reduce 600 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats banco of Venice, into livres, ſols, and deniers gros, permiſſion money * of Antwerp, exchange at 92 per ducat.

* It muſt be obſerved, that Antwerp, and all Brabant, exchanges with moſt places in exchange or permiſſion-money, as it is called, which differs 8 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. from the current money; that is, 100 livres gros exchange money, make 108 $\frac{1}{3}$ livres gros current money; thus the crown of 48 palais exchange money, makes 52 palais, or ſols, current money.

OPERATION.

600 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ducats banco, to be multiplied
By 92 Deniers gros exchange.

1200
5400
46 for the $\frac{1}{2}$.

55246 Deniers to be divided by 240, give 230 livres, 3 ſols, 10 deniers gros, money of exchange, or permiſſion-money, for which ſum the draught muſt be made upon Antwerp.

Multiply the 600 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats by the price of exchange of 92 deniers, and divide the product 55246 by 240 deniers gros, the value of a livre gros, and the quotient will be 230 livres, with a remainder of 46 to be multiplied by 20 ſols, the value of the ſaid livre, and dividing by the ſame it gives 3 ſols, with another remainder of 200, which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided again by the ſame diviſor, you will have 10 deniers gros to be received at Antwerp.—The proof of which muſt be eaſy to thoſe who underſtand the operation.

CASE III.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon LONDON.

To reduce 1459 ducats, 18 ſols, 1 denier d'or, bank money of Venice, into pounds ſhillings, and pence ſterling of England, exchange at 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence ſterling per ducat.

OPERATION.

1459 Ducats, 18 ſols, 1 denier, to be multiplied
By 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence ſterling, the exchange.

2918
7295
729 $\frac{4}{8}$ for $\frac{1}{2}$
364 $\frac{6}{8}$ for $\frac{1}{4}$
} of 1459
26 $\frac{3}{8}$ for 10 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$.
13 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 5 —— the $\frac{1}{4}$.
5 $\frac{2}{8}$ for 2 —— the $\frac{1}{10}$.
2 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 1 —— the $\frac{1}{20}$.
$\frac{3}{8}$ for 1 denier.

77010 pence ſterling, to be divided by 12 and 20, give 3201. 17 s. 6 d. ſterling, for which the draught muſt be made upon London.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 1459 ducats, 18 ſols, 1 denier, by the price of exchange of 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence ſterling, divide the product 77010 pence by 12 and 20, and you have pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling. Note, The proof of this muſt be ſo eaſy to thoſe at all acquainted with arithmetic, that we think it needleſs to ſay more.

CASE IV.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon HAMBURGH.

To reduce 552 ducats, 10 ſols, 4 deniers banco of Venice, into marks lubs of banco of Hamburgh, exchange at 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros of Hamburgh, per ſaid ducat.

OPERATION.

552 Ducats, 10 ſols, 4 deniers banco, to be multipled
By 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros exchange.

3312
4416
276 for $\frac{4}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{2}$
138 for $\frac{2}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{4}$
69 for $\frac{1}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{8}$
} of 552.
43 $\frac{3}{8}$ for 10 ſols.
1 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 4 deniers.

48000 Gros, to be divided by 32, gives 1500 marks lubs banco, for which the draught muſt be made upon Hamburgh.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 552 ducats, 10 ſols, 4 deniers, by the price of exchange, and divide the product 48000 gros by 32 gros, the value of the marks lubs, and the quotient will produce 1500 marks lubs to be received at Hamburgh. For the proof of which ſee the article HAMBURGH, Vol. I.

CASE V.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon GENOA.

To reduce 373 ducats, 15 ſols, 9 deniers d'or, bank money of Venice, into lires bank money of Genoa, exchange at 103 marchetti of Venice per crown of 4 lires of Genoa.

OPERATION.

373 Ducats, 15 ſols, 9 deniers, to be multipled
By 124 marchetti.

1492
746
373
62 for 10 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$
31 for 5 ſols, the $\frac{1}{4}$
} of 124
5 for 9 deniers, the $\frac{1}{6}$ of 5 ſols.

46350 marchetti, to be divided by 103, gives 450 crowns of 4 lires bank money, for which the draught muſt be made upon Genoa.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 373 ducats, 15 ſols, 9 deniers, into marchetti, by multiplying them by 124, the value of a ducat, and dividing the product 46350 marchetti by 103 marchetti, the price of exchange, and you will have a quotient of 450 crowns of 4 lires, which being multiplied by 4, make 1800 lires banco to be received at Genoa; for the proof of which ſee the article GENOA, Vol. I.

If any thing after the firſt and ſecond diviſions ſhould remain, it muſt be multiplied by 20 and 12, and by dividing the ſame by the exchange, it will give ſols and deniers d'or to be received at Genoa, with the crowns.

CASE VI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 785 ducats 1 ſol banco of Venice, into piaſtres of 20 ſols d'or of Leghorn, exchange at 102 of the ſaid piaſtres per 100 ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats banco give 102 piaſt. what will 785 $\frac{1}{20}$ ducats?

102 exch.

1570
7850
5 $\frac{1}{10}$

Piaſtres 800|75 $\frac{1}{10}$
20

800 Piaſtres, 15 ſols, for which the draught muſt be made upon Leghorn. Sols 15|02

INSTRUCTION.

The queſtion is ſtated according to the direct rule of proportion, and the operation carried on according thereto. See the article ARITHMETIC.

CASE VII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ROME.

To reduce 2258 ducats, 17 ſols, 5 deniers d'or, bank money of Venice, into crowns d'eſtampe of Rome, exchange at 62 crowns per 100 ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 62 crowns d'eſtampe, what will 2258 ducats 17 05.

62 exchange.

4516
13548
31 : — : 0 for 10 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$.
15 : 10 : 0 for 5 — the $\frac{1}{4}$.
6 : 4 : 0 for 2 — the $\frac{1}{10}$
: 15 : 6 for 3 deniers.
: 10 : 6 for 2 deniers.

Anſw. 1400 crowns, 10 ſols d'eſtampe, the draught muſt be made for. 1400|50
20
10|00

CASE VIII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon NAPLES.

To reduce 515 ducats, 5 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into ducats del regno of Naples, exchange at 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the ſaid ducats of Naples per 100 ducats of Venice.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats Naples, what will 115 duc. 5 — give?

116 $\frac{1}{2}$ exchange.

3090
515
515
257 : 10 for the $\frac{1}{2}$.
2 : 10 for the 5 den.

The draught ſhould be made upon Naples of duc. reg. } 600|00

CASE IX.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon FRANCE.

To reduce 800 ducats, 12 ſols d'or, banco of Venice, into livres, ſols, deniers Tournois of France, exchange at 62 of the ſaid ducats per 100 of ſaid crowns.

OPERATION.

If 62 ducats give 100 crowns, what will 800 $\frac{3}{5}$ ducats?

100

80000
60 for the $\frac{3}{5}$.

80060 to be divided by 62, give 1291 crowns, 17 ſols, 5 deniers Tournois, for which the draught muſt be made on Lyons.

Note, To reduce the French crowns into livres, ſols, and deniers, multiply the ſame by 3:

Thus 1291 crowns, 17 ſols, 5 deniers.
3

3873 Livres, 17 ſols, 5 den. Tourn. of France.

CASE X.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon AUGUSTA.

To reduce 500 $\frac{3}{4}$ ducats banco of Venice, into rixdollars, kreutzers and fenings, current money of Auguſta, exchange at 96 rixdollars exchange money of ſaid Auguſta, per 100 ducats banco of Venice.

OPERATION.

100 Ducats banco. 100 Rixd. exch. — 10000

500 $\frac{3}{4}$ Ducats, to be multipled By the 96 Rixdollars exch.

3000
4500
48 for the $\frac{1}{2}$.
24 for the $\frac{1}{4}$.

48072
127

336504
96144
48072

Rixd. 610|5144
90

Kreutz. 46|2960
4

Fenings 1|1840

The draught muſt be made for 610 rixd. 46 kreut. and 1 fening.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 500 $\frac{3}{4}$ ducats, by the price of exchange of 96 rixdollars, and the product 48072 by 127 rixdollars, current money (becauſe it is the equality of 100 rixdollars exchange money, the current money being 27 per cent. higher than that of exchange): ſeparate 4 figures to the right-hand of the new product 6105144, and it will produce for quotient 610 rixdollars to be received at Auguſta, in current money.— Multiply the remainder 5144 by 90 kreutzers, the value of the rixdollar, and ſeparating 4 figures as before, it gives 46 kreutzers: multiplying alſo theſe 4 laſt figures by 4 fenings, the value of the kreutzer, and ſeparating again in the ſame manner, it produces 1 fening more. ☞ Separating the four laſt figures of the three products, is the ſame as dividing by 10000, the product of 100 ducats of Venice, multipled by 100 rixdollars exchange of Auguſta, which is done with reſpect to the equality of the ſaid 100 ducats, with the exchange of 96 rixdollars of exchange.

CASE XI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon VIENNA.

To reduce 541 ducats, 12 ſols, 9 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into florins, gros, and fenings of Vienna, exchange at 188 of the ſaid florins per 100 of the ſaid ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 188 florins of Vienna, what will 542 ducats 12 s. 9 d.?

188

4336
4336
542
94 : — : —
18 : 16 : —
4 : 14 : —
2 : 7 : —

1020|15 : 17
20

The draught muſt be made upon Vienna for 1020 florins, 3 gros, and 2 fenings. 3|17
12
2|04

CASE XII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon MILAN.

To reduce 724 ducats, 30 ſols, 6 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into livres, ſols, and den. current money of Milan, exchange at 154 marchetti of Venice, per crown of 117 ſols, exchange money of Milan.

OPERA-

OPERATION.

117	sols of the crown	724 duc. 3 : 6, to be multi.*	
73	sols current	* By 124 marchetti	
351		2896	
819		1448	
		724	
8541	multiplicator	12 : 8	
154	marchetti of exch.	6 : 4	
53	sols exchange	3 : 2	
462		89798 : 2	
770		8541 sols current	
8162	divisor.	89798	
		359192	
		448990	
		718384	
		854 $\frac{1}{10}$, for the 2 sols, the	
		766965572 $\frac{1}{10}$, dividend.	

766965572 $\frac{1}{10}$, divided by 8162, will give 9396, 7 sols, 10 den. current money, and 4698 livres, 7 sols, 10 deniers, also cur. money, for which the draught must be made upon Milan.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 724 ducats, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols, into marchetti, by multiplying by 124, the value of the ducat, and the product will be 89798 $\frac{1}{10}$: multiply the 177 sols of the crown by 73, the product will be 8541; multiply these two products, the one by the other, and it will give 766965572 for a dividend.—Multiply separately the exchange of 154 marchetti by 53, the product will be 8162, for a divisor, which gives for a quotient, 93967 sols, and 6918 for a remainder; and which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a sol, and dividing by the same, it gives 10 deniers.—Separate the last figure of 93967 sols, and take the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the remainder, and you will find that the sum to be received at Milan is 4698 livres, 7 sols, 10 deniers, current money. — Multiplying the exchange of 154 marchetti, by 53 sols exchange, is because you multiply the 117 sols of the crown of Milan, by 73 sols current of Milan, these two multiplicators being in proportion the one to the other, for we have seen in the exchange of Genoa upon Milan, that 106 sols of exchange makes 146 current. See the article GENOA, Vol. I.

CASE XIII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ANCONA.

To reduce 400 ducats banco of Venice, into crowns of 10 julios of Ancona, exchange at 93 of the said crowns per cent. of said ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats ban. Ven. give 93 crowns Anc. what will 400?

400

Crowns of Anc. to be rec. 372|00

CASE XIV.

Of the Exchange of Venice, upon BOLZANO.

To reduce 800 ducats banco of Venice into florins, kreutzers, and fenings, current money of Bolzano, exchange at 136 marchetti of Venice, per rixdollar of 93 kreutzers of Bolzano.

OPERATION.

136	marchetti of exch.	124 marchetti	
60	kreutzers	800 ducat	
810	divisor.	99200	
		93	
		297600	
		892800	
		9225600 dividend, being divided by 8160, gives 1130 florins, 35 kreutzers, 1 fening, current money, for which the draught must be made upon Bolzano.	

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 800 ducats into marchetti, by multiplying them by 124; multiply the product, 99200, by 93 kreutzers, the value of the exchange rixdollar, the new product will be 9225600, the dividend.—Multiply the exchange of 136 marchetti by 60 kreutzers, the value of a florin, the product will be 8160; the divisor, which will give 1130 florins, with a remainder of 480, to be multiplied by 60 kreutzers, the value of a florin, and dividing by the same, you will have 35 kreutzers, and 240 remaining, which multiplied by 4 fenings, the value of a kreutzer, and dividing as before, it gives 1 fening.

CASE XV.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon FLORENCE.

To reduce 300 ducats banco of Venice into crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires of Florence, exchange at 78 of the said crowns per 100 of the said ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Ven. give 78 crowns of Florence, what will 300 [300?

Crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires 234|00

CASE XVI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon NOVI, or BIZENZONE,

To reduce 1930 ducats banco of Venice, into crowns mark of Novi, exchange at 193 of the said ducats per 100 of the said crowns of Novi.

OPERATION.

If 193 ducats give 100 crowns, what will 1930 ducats?

100

193)193000(1000 cro.

mark, for which the draught must be made in the Easter fair upon Novi.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of VENICE.

Their measure for linen and silks is the brace, and that is of two sorts, viz. 5 braces for silk make something less than 3 English ells; or 100 braces make about 57 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells in London, 98 in Holland, 117 $\frac{1}{2}$ in Hamburgh, 122 $\frac{1}{2}$ in Breslau, 104 in Dantzic, 117 in Leipsic: and the brace for linen is about half an English ell.

Their weights are distinguished in gross and suttle weights.

Their gross quintal, by which they weigh brass, metal, feathers, and other lumbering commodities, is 100 lb. gross.

The other, by which they weigh silk, spices, and drugs, is 100 lb. suttle.

Now 100 lb. gross weight makes 158 lb. suttle weight, or 106 lb. in London avoirdupoise weight.

And 100 lb. suttle weight makes about 63 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb. of their gross weight, or about 65 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in London.

And 100 lb. suttle weight of Venice has been found to make about 61 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in Hamburgh, 65 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in London, 60 lb. in Amsterdam, 59 lb. in Frankfort.

Their gold and silver weights are as follow, viz. 4 grains is 1 carat, 9 carats (or saliques) is 1 quarta, 4 quarta's 1 ounce, and 8 ounces is one mark; and 100 lb. Troy weight has been found to make about 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the above marks: and the same in Verona.

Their wine measure is the amphora, of 4 bigorza's; each bigorza is 4 quarts, and each quart 4 sachies, and each sachie is 4 lera's; but, by wholesale, the amphora is 14 quarts, and the bigorza 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts.

Oil they sell by weight and by measure; the mizaro is 40 mero, and the mero is about 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ pints by measure, but by weight it is more.

Corn is sold by the staro, and is in quantity about one sextier of Paris.

The BANK of VENICE.

This is commonly called Banco del Giro: that is, properly, a public depositum, for the reception of the cash of merchants and traders, &c. It was established by an edict of the republic, which declares, That the payment, for merchandizes by wholesale, and bills of exchange, is to be made in bank; and that all debtors and creditors shall be obliged, the one to carry their money to the bank, and the other to receive their payment in bank, by making a transfer from one account to the other.

An excellent memoir received from Venice remarks, That none are obliged to pay for merchandize in bank, every one being free to do so, or otherwise: and with relation to bills of exchange, if it is expressed VALUE IN BANK, i. e. the value to be paid in bank, such bills are to be paid in bank; but when it is expressed in CURRENT MONEY, that is to say, in ducats, or livres current, or in sequins, philippines, or other species, they must be paid in these respective monies, unless the parties agree to negociate the affair in bank; but, in such case, the concerned must previously agree upon the agio. See the article AGIO.

It is allowed sometimes to make real payment, particularly in retail trade, or when strangers desire ready money, or when others shall require current money for the transaction of business by bills of exchange, or otherwise to dispose of it.

The necessity that there sometimes is of making these effective, or money payments, has occasioned a ready-money bank-account to be opened, for the accommodation of those whose affairs require it.

It has been experienced, that this caſh account has not cauſed any ſenſible diminution in the funds of the bank; this liberty of drawing for ready caſh has, on the contrary, occaſioned an augmentation thereof.

By means of the bank, the republic, without cramping the freedom of trade, and without paying any intereſt, has made herſelf miſtreſs of five millions of ducats, to which the fund of this bank is fixed: whereby, on preſſing emergencies, the Venetians have rarely occaſion for extraordinary taxes. The regularity alſo exerciſed in the adminiſtration of the affairs of the bank, for which the ſtate is guaranty, has rendered this eſtabliſhment ſo permanent, that there is great reaſon to judge its duration will be equal with that of the republic itſelf.

The accounts of the bank are kept in livres, ſols, and deniers gros: the livre is 10 ducats bank, or 240 gros, the ducat being equal to 24 gros.

Money of exchange is always underſtood to be that of ducats in bank, which is imaginary, 100 whereof make 120 ducats current money: ſo that the difference between bank and current ducats is 20 per cent. brokers being prohibited to raiſe the ſame higher.

The memoir before cited illuſtrates this matter as follows: 100 ducats bank make 100 effective, which have beſides another agio upon the ducats current, or upon the current money; and this agio, like the other, is called an agio of bank, which is always fixed at 20 per cent. and, on the contrary, the other agio is uncertain, and varies more or leſs: for example, ſuppoſe this variable agio to be 29 per 100, if we would know how many 100 ducats bank will produce current, we muſt firſt add the fixed bank agio of 20 per cent. and afterwards upon the 120 ducats muſt be added the value of 29 per cent. thus 100 ducats bank will make 154 ducats and 19 gros current.

The bank is ſhut four times a year, viz. the 20th of March, the 20th of June, the 20th of September, and the 20th of December; and it remains ſhut every time for the ſpace of 20 days. During this time, buſineſs is not obſtructed, the money payments go on, and what is tranſacted in bank, is transferred upon the opening thereof.

The ſaid memoir likewiſe informs us, That the preciſe times of opening and ſhutting the bank have been ſettled, by an ulterior decree of the ſenate, of the 20th of February, 1730, as follows: (1.) That it ſhall be ſhut the Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and opened again the Monday after the Octave of Eaſter. (2.) From the 23d of June to the ſecond Monday in July. (3.) From the 23d of September to the ſecond Monday in October. (4.) From the 23d of December to the ſecond Monday in January. The bank is alſo ſhut on all ordinary holidays, and every Friday, when there is no ſuch holiday; but at preſent the bank is not ſhut on law-court holidays, nor on the Fridays of the month of March, as heretofore.

There are, beſides, other extraordinary times of ſhutting up the bank, which is for eight or ten days, during the Carnival, and as many for the Paſſion Week. It is ſhut likewiſe every Friday of the week, when there is no holiday, for the ballancing of their accounts.

Bills of exchange for places and fairs are paid in bank. A ſeller cannot refuſe payment in bank for his merchandize, when there is no agreement to the contrary.—Bills of exchange, from the expiration of their time to run, have ſix days of grace, or RISPETTO DI BANCO; and, in default of payment, you are not obliged to make proteſt, but the ſixth day, after which you run the hazard, if not done.

From the moment that the bank is ſhut, a debtor is not obliged to the payment of bills of exchange in caſh, nor in any other manner; nor can a proteſt be made 'till the opening of the bank, and that only after ſix days of grace, according to cuſtom, excepting, nevertheleſs, in the caſe of a failure, and, when this happens, ſtrict meaſures may be taken, provided the time of uſance, with regard to bills, is expired.

Bills of exchange endorſed cannot be paid in bank: the perſon to whom the bill is payable, muſt ſend a letter of attorney to his correſpondent at Venice, to receive it for him; otherwiſe it is neceſſary that the bill be made payable to ſuch correſpondent.

Contracts for goods and merchandizes are made for current money, and not in bank, except thoſe for oil and quickſilver, which are always dealt for in bank money.

As the accounts of the public bank of exchange are kept in livres, ſols, and deniers, when transfers are therein made, it muſt be done by reckoning 10 ducats banco per livre: for example, if you have occaſion to write in bank, ducats 1246 : 8, it is not ſpecified in ducats and gros, but in liv. 124 : 12 : 8, which make the ſaid ſum of ducats banco. To give an idea with what facility and convenience parties may be paid in bank, the following is the method practiſed.

Aſdrubal is indebted to ſundries for fundry particulars:

To Berentio, for a bill of exchange remitted from London upon ſaid Aſdrubal, of the ſum of ducats banco - - -	2689 : 4
To Caſimiro, for a bill of exchange, remitted to Aſdrubal upon Amſterdam - -	3847 : 9
Brought over - - -	6536 : 13
To Domitian, for the value remitted to ſaid Aſd.	4754 : 17
To Emilio, for ballance of an account current, ſettled with Aſdrubal - - -	1589 : 5
Total ducats -	12880 : 11

To diſcharge theſe ſeveral ſums in bank, when Aſdrubal has the ſum in bank requiſite ſo to do, he appears before two of the book-keepers of the bank (who write uniformly, at the ſame time, in two ſeparate bank books) and he ſays or dictates to them as follows:

By Aſd. to Barentio, for a bill from London	l. 268 : 18 :	4
to Caſimiro, for one from Amſterdam	384 : 14 :	9
to Domitian, received -	475 : 9 :	5
to Emilio, for ballance -	158 : 18 :	5
Livres bank -	1288 : 0 :	11

In this manner the whole is regulated, without need of any receipt, declaration, or acquittance, between the parties. It is not even neceſſary for the creditors to be preſent when theſe articles are wrote off, except Emilio, becauſe when he ſettles the ballance of an account, the creditor muſt be there, and affirm, by a ſimple AYE, to the writer, that ſuch ſum makes the ballance, an act of this kind being more valid than any other acquittance that can be required by the payer. And ſuppoſe that Aſdrubal has not, by his credit in bank, a ſum ſufficient to pay what he owes, or that he has none at all; in this caſe he muſt carry into bank ſo much current money as the ſaid ſum amounts to, upon the footing of 29 per cent. agio: or, by the means of a broker, he muſt find ſuch who will lend him that ſum (after having agreed for the ſaid agio, perhaps at $\frac{1}{8}$ difference) and transfer the ſame in bank, to the credit of Aſdrubal's account: ſuppoſe that Flammio is the perſon who receives the value thereof, he goes to the bank book-keepers, and orders them to write as follows:

By Flammio. To Aſdrubal, l. 1288 : 0 : 11. In this manner the diſpoſition that Aſdrubal has made in bank, is juſtly regulated for the value of the ſeveral beforementioned ſums. By theſe examples, the great conveniency of this bank may be judged of, particularly in a city where ſuch large tranſactions in bank and exchange are negociated.

VIRGINIA. We having ſpoken ſo largely already throughout this work, in relation to the high importance of the colonies to this kingdom, it cannot be neceſſary to urge that matter further; nor is it needful, we apprehend, to ſay more than we have done, with reſpect to the precarious ſtate wherein our plantations on the continent of America ſeem to be at preſent, from the unjuſtifiable conduct of the French. What we have ſaid upon theſe points, is to be met with under the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA, MAP, NORTH CAROLINA, PENSYLVANIA, PLANTATIONS, SUGAR COLONIES, TRADE.

And as this is the laſt time that we ſhall have occaſion in this work to ſpeak of our colonies in America, it may not be unacceptable to give a ſummary of the meaſures taken by FRANCE to protect and extend the commerce of their colonies and plantations in this part of the world; whereby it will appear, in a narrow compaſs, by what means they are at preſent enabled to figure it ſo powerfully in the American world.

REMARKS on the article VIRGINIA, before the laſt war.

The MEASURES taken by FRANCE to promote and extend the TRADE and COMMERCE of their COLONIES and PLANTATIONS in AMERICA.

The meaſures taken by the French to people their colonies, are,

I. To people them with a number of WHITES proportionate to that of BLACKS, that the latter may not be an overmatch for the former, and raiſe inſurrections*.

* The caſe is otherwiſe with regard to our colony of JAMAICA. See an Eſſay concerning Slavery, and the danger Jamaica is expoſed to from the too great number of ſlaves, &c.

II. They ſend over French workmen, ſo articled as ſervants, to render labour cheap, and to inſtruct the negroes in ſuch things as may render them more beneficial to the French planters.

III. They regularly inſtruct the people in the uſe of arms, as well to defend their colonies at the leaſt expence to the crown, as to train them to hunting, not only for food, but to enlarge the peltry trade in New France†. See our article FRENCH AMERICA.

† We have not been ſo careful in regard to either of theſe material particulars.

IV. Thoſe who are bred up in the hoſpitals in France (where there is a prodigious number) are ſent to America for planters, and every ſingle man of theſe is obliged to marry an Indian woman. And to enable them to trade among themſelves, they had a ſupply of 25,000,000, in bank bills, granted them, by an arrêt of the 16th of July, 1719. See the article CANADA.

V. The French king gave the clergy conſiderable grants of lands in Canada, and ſent thither a great number of miſſionaries and Jeſuits to Quebec, who are diſperſed among the Indians, fall in with their cuſtoms, and thereby have greatly extended their trade and influence among them.

VI. They have taken effectual meaſures, from time to time, to eſtabliſh formidable colonies from Florida and the Miſſiſſippi, to Canada, upon the back of all the Britiſh colonies on the continent of America, and have erected many ſtrong forts in the moſt advantageous ſituations, and deſtroyed ſeveral nations of our Indian allies, and drawn others off from our intereſt, and added them to their own *.—See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA, NORTH CAROLINA, PENSYLVANIA, PLANTATIONS, &c.

* Can any meaſures prove more effectual to reduce the Indians to their obedience?

VII. The negro-trade, for the benefit of their iſland colonies in particular, is regulated upon wiſer principles than that of any other nation.—Their great Eaſt-India company, with all its privileges, &c. is the ſupport of their African trade. See the articles FRANCE, and FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY; ſee, in particular, an account of the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements, given by the French to their African Company, &c. See alſo the article FRENCH AMERICA, in regard to the trade of their iſland and continent colonies in America, where we have treated of this matter very fully, extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate. See further, LE CODE NOIRE, ou RECUEIL des reglemens rendus juſq'uà preſent [1742] concernant le governement, l'adminiſtration de la juſtice, la police, la diſcipline, & le commerce des negres dans les colonies Françoiſes. Et les conſeils & compagnies établis à ce ſujet †.

† By theſe means they have peopled their iſland colonies cheaply with negro ſlaves, and can thereby afford the produce of their colonies cheaper than we can that of ours.

VIII. For the further regulations of the commerce of France, ſee the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and my REMARKS thereon. See alſo the article TURKEY TRADE and COMPANY, in the concluſion, for an exemplification of the methods of proceeding of the DEPUTIES of COMMERCE or council of trade ‖, in order that nothing eſſential may be omitted to be laid before the ROYAL COUNCIL, for the government of their reſolutions in regard to points of trade. See alſo the article CONSUL, with our REMARKS thereon.

‖ This council it is which overſees the manufactures of the kingdom, and procures to them thoſe encouragements, that liberty, and thoſe immunities which gave birth to them, and preſerves them. It directs the mutual commerce between France and its colonies, to their beſt common advantage. Well informed of the ſtate of the national trade, by a compariſon of the annual imports and exports, it obſerves the branches of it which want protection. From this knowlege it is that they govern opportunely their ſollicitations to foreign powers for new advantages; that they defend thoſe which they poſſeſs, or profit of thoſe which preſent themſelves. It is from the repreſentations of this board that thoſe treaties of commerce are projected which commonly accompany treaties of peace. In ſhort, this council is a center of union for trade, the marine, and the revenue, to furniſh one another with reciprocal and neceſſary occaſional aſſiſtance.

IX. After eſtabliſhing the ſaid council of commerce, ordonnances were iſſued for regulating the conduct of the governors, ſur-intendants, &c. in America, and a ſovereign council was appointed in each colony, conſiſting of 12 counſellors, and the intendant as preſident.—This council is the ſupreme judicature, in all cauſes, without appeal, in the colonies. Here every one pleads his own cauſe, viva voce, or by memorial, ſollicitors and barriſters being not to appear there: thus lawſuits are quickly determined §.—Beſides theſe, there is in each colony a lieutenant-general, both civil and military, an attorney-general, the great provoſt, and a chief juſtice in eyre.—The chief officers are ſuch checks on each other, that few abuſes, injurious to the crown or ſubject, are committed without ſpeedy redreſs.—The French have a governor general ‡ of Louiſiana, or Miſſiſſippi, reſiding at New Orleans,

§ Does not this prevent the planters and traders being diſtracted with law-ſuits, which unfit them to exert their trading induſtry?

‡ Our colonies being differently conſtituted among themſelves, and having no governor-general, &c. to direct their affairs upon one ſteady plan of conduct, for the ſafety and proſperity of all, are liable to great diſadvantages and dangers.—We have many difficulties to encounter in relation to our charter-governments, which require the redreſs of parliament.

and the lieutenant-governor at Mobille. See the article LOUISIANA.

X. The revenues ariſing in the French colonies are accounted for in the chamber of accounts, and all officers give ſecurity for the due performance of their duty; whereby there is a conſtant fund for the uſe of the colonies, applied as adviſed by the council of trade *.

* We have no ſuch competent fund for the conſtant ſupport of our colonies.

Of the DUE EXECUTION of the ORDONNANCES, EDICTS, and ARRETS, in relation to TRADE, iſſued in FRANCE, concerning their Plantations.

I. The council of commerce is the channel of conveyance, in regard to matters of trade, to the royal council.—The former examines and diſcuſſes, as we have ſhewn before, all propoſitions and memorials, and the ſecretary keeps an exact regiſter thereof: theſe are laid before the royal council.—With ſuch ſteadineſs and independency does this council of commerce act, that they have frequently oppoſed and overruled the determinations of the regal council. By this means the council of trade guards againſt encroachments, as well on the rights of the crown as on the property of the ſubjects, and the ordonnances or arrêts of the crown ſcarce ever fail to be duly executed: for the council of ſtate is ſo conſtituted, that it may be truly ſaid to be (as a late judicious writer obſerves) the eyes, the ears, and the hands of the king, as there is no act done but what may be redreſſed, by applying to the king in this council of ſtate: if the officers of the crown are aggrieved by acts of power in their ſuperiors, they may, and often do, meet with redreſs on that head: which regulation hath a wonderful effect in the foreign concerns of the French nation, whereby all channels of information are left open to the view of the crown, the officers of the lower claſs not being debarred acceſs to the crown, nor liable to oppreſſion of their ſuperiors without redreſs. Thus care is taken for the ſecurity of the ſubjects in America, ſo as not to leave them a prey to governors, and other officers in the plantations. And in order the more effectually to inforce the execution of the royal edicts, arrêts, and ordonnances, the penalties for the violation thereof are vigilantly inflicted. See our articles before referred to †.

† This point certainly deſerves due attention in this kingdom.

The FRENCH MANAGEMENT of the INDIANS in NORTH AMERICA.

I. We have ſeen how the French intermarry with the Indians, and of what uſe their miſſionaries and Jeſuits are among thoſe people.

II. The French who carry on the fur-trade in Canada do it by licence: but they employ great numbers of Indian traders, whom they call COUREURS DE BOIS, who are expert in that trade, and go in canoes, and trade with moſt of the ſavage nations ‖ round the government of Canada. The coureurs de bois are, at preſent, become very numerous, being computed, at leaſt, at 1500 men, who are often employed as a kind of flying corps, and joined with the French Indians, either to attack the ENGLISH, or ſuch Indians as are in friendſhip with them.

‖ Is not this far more judicious than our methods of traffic with the Indians?

III. The French for many years being prevented, by the FIVE NATIONS in our intereſt, from diſcovering the great lakes, carrying on trade, and forming alliances with the Indians who lived to the ſouthward and weſtward of them, they prevailed with our Charles II. to forward a peace between the French and thoſe nations.—This gave them a power to extend their lines, and build FORTS to the ſouthward, by which means the FIVE NATIONS have been much galled, ever ſince the building of FORT FRONTENAC, NIAGARA, and others.

IV. The French have cut off many of them, by treachery and open force, when the Engliſh have neglected to ſupport them; ſo that thoſe warlike people are ſo reduced, as to be unable to withſtand the French, which has been owing to our engaging them in wars with the French, and then leaving the burthen of the war on them §. See LOUISIANA.

§ This diſregard and treachery on our ſide towards the Indians, will hardly be thought to cement their friendſhip towards us.

V. The French alſo have built a FORT near the water-fall of SAUT ST MARIE, and erected another of conſiderable ſtrength at CROWN POINT, on the lands of the FIVE NATIONS,

TIONS, which is of more ſervice to the French, and, conſequently more hurtful to the Engliſh, than any of the forts the French have built from Quebec to the river Ohio. By this fort they keep the Five Nations under conſtant alarms, and diſtreſs them and their allies in their huntings; and by CROWN POINT, FORT FRONTENAC, NIAGARA, &c. they keep open a communication with the weſtern Indians.

VI. They likewiſe prevent the Engliſh from making a proper uſe of the Five Nations againſt the eaſtern Indians, who live in the province (as the French call it) of GASSPESSIE, which is part of NOVA SCOTIA: by this means, the Indians to the eaſtward of NEW ENGLAND are left at liberty to make continual inroads upon the Engliſh ſettlements of NOVA-SCOTIA: though this might be prevented, if the FIVE NATIONS could, with ſafety, attack the eaſtern nations in the province of GASSPESSIE, in the back parts of Nova Scotia. *

* Upon what plan, on our ſide, the ill conſequences of theſe meaſures may be greatly prevented, if executed in time, ſee our REMARKS on the article LOUISIANA.

VII. CROWN POINT is near to the branches of HUDSON'S RIVER, which runs by Albany to New York: therefore, from the ſituation of this fort, the province of NEW YORK may be brought into imminent danger; and, indeed, may endanger the ſafety of the whole Britiſh continent of America; for if the French take us at an unguarded hour, and make themſelves maſters of New York, they may cut off the communication between our NORTHERN and SOUTHERN COLONIES, and, by the aid of their INDIANS, they might have it in their power to deſtroy the Engliſh ſettlements.

VIII. Though the Engliſh have above ten times the number of ſettlers which the French have in their colonies on the continent of America, yet the Engliſh frontiers making near 1500 miles in length, and the French having now moſt of the Indians in their intereſt, it is not eaſy to guard againſt the Indians in their ſudden attacks; for before the Engliſh can collect a force to oppoſe them, the Indians may retire and ſhelter themſelves behind the FRENCH FORTS; and in ſuch an extenſive foreſt, through ſwamps and thickets, it is ſcarce poſſible to purſue them with any proſpect of advantage, or to ſupply an army with neceſſaries in ſuch an enterprize †.

† Should not all imaginable ways be taken to ſecure the Indians ever after in our intereſts?

IX. The deſign of the French, in taking the great lakes, was to ſecure the Indians and the fur-trade to themſelves.—The building of CROWN POINT was to awe the FIVE NATIONS, or bring them into the meaſures of FRANCE.—The treaties with the EASTERN TRIBES OF INDIANS, and erecting the province of GASSPESSIE out of NOVA SCOTIA, was to enlarge their territories on the SEA-COAST, and extend their FISHERIES.—Theſe encroachments, added to thoſe made at the OHIO, muſt render them very formidable.

X. If the French ſurrender to us the FORTS which they have lately taken at OHIO, and yet continue to extend their SOUTH LINE, they would thereby take in a great part of VIRGINIA, and of NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, and leave us wholly expoſed to the excurſions of the INDIANS in all our frontier ſettlements; therefore the ENGLISH ought not only to demoliſh the FORTS which they have lately built on the branches of the river OHIO, but to take CROWN POINT and NIAGARA, and alſo to erect FORTS inſtantly, for the protection of the FIVE NATIONS, and for enlarging our trade and commerce with the INDIANS §.

§ How our Indian trade and affairs have ſuffered by the handlers at ALBANY, ſee our REMARKS on the article LOUISIANA.

XI. If the French come to a DIVISION with the Engliſh on the continent of America, their intention apparently is to include our INDIAN ALLIES within their limits, and to turn our own weapons againſt us.

XII. Many of the Indians to the weſt of the APALACHIAN MOUNTAINS have acknowleged themſelves ſubject to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, and, were we to determine their territories to be within the FRENCH limits, it would be throwing them into the arms of FRANCE, deſtructive of all our frontier ſettlements, and put an intire ſtop to the trade and commerce which hath hitherto been carried on with them; and, in ſuch caſe, the FRENCH, doubtleſs, would erect divers FORTS within their territories, and compel our preſent INDIAN FRIENDS to make war on us.

XIII. The ULIBALYS, CHICANES, and CHATTAS, who were the moſt conſiderable nations upon and between the river Coza and the MISSISSIPPI, kindly entertained the Engliſh, who reſided among them ſeveral years, and carried on a ſafe and peaceable trade with them, 'till about the year 1715, when, by the intrigues of the FRENCH, they were either MURTHERED, or obliged to make room for thoſe NEW INVADERS, who have ſince unjuſtly poſſeſſed and fortified the ſame ſtations, in order to curb the natives, and to cut off the communication with the Engliſh traders; whereby the French have ingroſſed a profitable trade for above 500 miles, of which the BRITISH SUBJECTS were a few years ago the ſole maſters. See our article FLORIDA.

XIV. But if ſuch LIMITS were determined between the ENGLISH and the FRENCH, thoſe who ſettle on our frontiers would not be more ſecure in reſpect of their lives or poſſeſſions, as it has always been, and always will be, the policy of France to ſtir up their friendly Indians to annoy our frontier ſettlements, and afterwards diſavow every act done by them.

XV. What has greatly contributed to the ſucceſs of the French affairs in America, and has given them ſuch weight and influence with the Indians, is the appropriation and due application of a fund for thoſe purpoſes.—How theſe evils may be, or might have been, we moſt humbly conceive, happily prevented, ſee our article LOUISIANA [REMARKS thereon] and ſuch other articles as we have referred to occaſionally on our AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Of the FRENCH ISLAND-COLONIES in AMERICA.

I. In a memorial of the French deputies of commerce, laid before the royal council in the year 1701, the ſaid deputies repreſented, That the French had then 8,850 white men, and 45,600 blacks in their iſland-colonies *; but, by a calculation made in the year 1751, the FRENCH had then, in the ſaid colonies, upwards of 51,500 white men, fit to bear arms, independent of many thouſands of ſailors employed in the trade of the colonies, and 364,800 ſlaves of both ſexes; and, ſince the increaſe of their colonies, they have incroached upon the ENGLISH, in ſettling of ST LUCIA, TOBAGO, DOMINIQUE, &c. By what means theſe things have come to paſs, ſee the articles beforementioned, particularly FRANCE, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, and FRENCH AMERICA. See LEEWARD ISLANDS.

* It is proper to remark here, That the deputies of commerce do not make any mention of the iſlands of St Vincent, St Lucia, or Tobago. See our article BRITISH AMERICA. The colonies ſpecified by the ſaid deputies are, CAYENNE, GRENADE, MARTINICO, GUADALOUPE, MARIGALANTE, ST CRUCE, HISPANIOLA, or ST DOMINGO, PETIT GUAVE, LA DOMINIQUE, LES XANTIES, ST MARTIN, and ST BARTHOLEMY (a.)

(a) Vide Memoire ſur la compagnie de Guinée, ſur le commerce des colonies François de l'Amerique, & l'état preſent des iſles que la France y occupe, les moyens de s'y conſerver, & s'y étendre, & leurs ſentimens ſur les ports & commerces excluſifs, en particulier ſur les partys du tabac & du ſucre.

II. By a calculation made from the year 1737 to 1744, it appeared, That the amount of the produce of the French ſettlements on the continent of America, and alſo of their fiſhery on the coaſt of Newfoundland, &c. was 820,000 l. ſterling per annum, and upwards—That the ſaid freight, in time of peace, amounted to 220,000 l. ſterling, and upwards, which, incluſive of their fiſhery, annually employed 9000 ſeamen.

III. And it appears, by the beforementioned French memorial of the deputies of commerce in 1701, that the French did not employ above 100 ſail of ſhips in the WEST-INDIA TRADE, and theſe ſhips were not near the ſize, dimenſions, or burthen of their ſhips at preſent employed therein; neither were their commodities of equal goodneſs or value of thoſe which they now produce; but, by a calculation made of the amount of the produce of their Weſt-India colonies, from the year 1737 to 1744, the French Iſlands have, in ſugar, rum, molaſſes, indigo, pimento, cotton, pepper, ginger, coffee, &c. &c. produced to the value or amount of 2,400,000 l. ſterling per ann. and upwards, independent of an extenſive and profitable trade carried on from St Domingo with the Spaniards in America. Moreover, that in the French WEST-INDIA COMMERCE, 120,000 tons of ſhipping, with 11,000 ſeamen, are annually employed; the freight of which (as computed) amounted to 480,000 l. ſterling per annum.—Theſe are the effects which thoſe regulations, arrêts, edicts, and ordonnances iſſued in France, with relation to their colonies, and exhibited throughout our work, have produced.

The STEADY MEASURES taken by the FRENCH to PROTECT and EXTEND their AMERICAN COLONIES.

I. It has always been the conduct of France, in relation to the Spaniſh depredations committed in their American trade, to check them, by impowering their governors to grant private commiſſions, and employ ſhips of force, to treat their guardes de coſta as pirates; and they avow or diſavow the conduct of their governors therein, as the circumſtances of their affairs require.—When the Spaniards have complained of the French governors making reprizals, or treating the Spaniſh guardes coſtes as pirates, the anſwer of the French hath generally been, That it was the duty of their governors to protect the king's

king's ſubjects, but if they found their conduct blameable with reſpect to the ſubjects of Spain, they would grant them ſatisfaction therein. However, it has always ſo happened, that the French have found ſufficient cauſe to throw the blame on the Spaniſh governors, and the guardes de coſtes commiſſioned by them †.

† Might not the like meaſures have preſerved our logwood-trade to us, from which, it ſeems, we are now abſolutely excluded by the Spaniards, notwithſtanding our undoubted right to the ſame? See our article LOGWOOD.

II. In the ſettlement of St Domingo, the French did not appear openly to ſupport the buccaneers who firſt ſettled there, but only ſupplied them with arms and ammunition, 'till they ſtrengthened themſelves and got poſſeſſion of a great part of St Domingo.

III. The French have, for ſome years ſince, carried on a very lucrative, though illicit trade, from the Miſſiſſippi to Mexico, and we have not heard of any complaints on that head from the Spaniards, or their guardes de coſtes, committing any depredations on them on that account. They have alſo carried on an extenſive ſmuggling trade from St Domingo to the Spaniſh ſettlements, which has ſomehow been winked at by the Spaniards: and yet ſome are willing to flatter themſelves, that there is not ſo good an underſtanding between the French and the Spaniards, as between the latter and the Engliſh *.

* Is it any indication of friendſhip on the part of the Spaniards, towards the Engliſh, when they have thus long ſuffered the French to carry on an illicit trade, and have lately extirpated the Engliſh logwood cutters from their rightful poſſeſſions, while they pretended to be negociating a treaty with us, to ſettle that matter amicably? Does not the Spaniard's preſent attempt too upon the Dutch colonies of ISEQUEBE and BERBICE, ſhew as high regard for that republic, as their honourable treatment of us does to Great-Britain? Will the Dutch be blind, as long as the Engliſh have been, to their true intereſts, and ſuffer themſelves to be lulled into a lethargy? Sure the Proteſtant maritime powers will at length be rouſed, and never ſuffer Popiſh perfidy to be triumphant.

That the French have, by the groſſeſt falſhoods and perfidy, endeavoured to make ſhameful and unjuſtifiable encroachments upon the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, has been ſhewn in various parts of this work, as may be ſeen by the various articles before referred to.—We ſhall, at preſent, only add a word more upon this occaſion.

NOVA SCOTIA being the only province in AMERICA, belonging to the crown of England, that can be made a ſufficient barrier to cover any of our plantations from the invaſions of the FRENCH, and check their motions on that ſide of the continent, by ſea and land: the French have practiſed every art of deceit and treachery to encroach upon this colony.

In my REMARKS upon the article MAP, I have taken occaſion to ſhew, that there is an office in the French marine for depoſiting charts and plans, to be made uſe of for the benefit of their navigation; nor is this nation leſs ſollicitous in regard to geography than hydrography; for it too frequently appears, that their geographers are directed to adapt their maps to the views, ſchemes, and pretenſions of their ſtateſmen, however unjuſtifiable they may be: nay, we have all imaginable reaſon to believe, that thoſe Machiavellians have ſet even their hiſtorians to work, to aſſert and maintain thoſe things for truth, with reſpect to their POSSESSIONS, that from them their map-makers may the more plauſibly deſcribe upon paper, thoſe ſhameful encroachments upon the dominions of other ſtates, to the end that their ſtateſmen may the more plauſibly ſupport them by artful negociations.—This we have ſhewn to be the caſe, in variety of inſtances throughout this work, which we have often referred to; and the truth of this charge againſt the French has been lately unanſwerably corroborated, with great judgment and accuracy, in a treatiſe intitled, The CONDUCT of the FRENCH with reſpect to the BRITISH DOMINIONS in AMERICA, particularly NOVA SCOTIA.—In a letter to a member of parliament.—Printed for T. Jefferys.

An EXTRACT from Dr MAYHEW's remarkable POLITICAL SERMON, preached lately before the GOVERNOR, COUNCIL, and REPRESENTATIVES of MASSACHUSETS BAY in NEW ENGLAND, on the intereſting circumſtances of NORTH AMERICA before the laſt war.

'What horrid ſcene is this, which reſtleſs, roving France, or ſomething of an higher nature, preſents to me, and ſo chills my blood! Do I behold theſe territories of freedom become the prey of arbitrary power! Do I ſee the motly armies of French and painted ſavages taking our fortreſſes, and erecting their own, even in our capital towns and cities! Do I behold them ſpreading deſolation through the land! Do I ſee the ſlaves of Lewis, with their Indian allies, diſpoſſeſſing the free-born ſubjects of king George, of the inheritance received from their forefathers, and purchaſed by them at the expence of their eaſe, their treaſure, their blood! To aggravate the indignity beyond human toleration, do I ſee this goodly patrimony raviſhed from them, by thoſe who never knew what property was, except by ſeizing that of others for an inſatiable lord! Do I ſee Chriſtianity baniſhed for Popery! the Bible for the maſs-book! the oracles of truth for fabulous legends! Do I ſee the ſacred edifices erected here to the honour of the true God and his Son, on the ruins of pagan ſuperſtition and idolatry, erected here, where Satan's ſeat was! Do I ſee theſe ſacred edifices laid in ruins themſelves, and others riſing in their places, conſecrated to the ſaints and angels! Inſtead of a train of Chriſt's faithful, laborious miniſters, do I behold an herd of lazy monks and Jeſuits, and exorciſts, and inquiſitors, cowled and uncowled impoſtors! Do I ſee a Proteſtant there ſtealing a look at his Bible, and, being taken in the fact, puniſhed like a felon! What indignity is yonder offered to the matrons! and here to the virgins! Is it now a crime to reverence the hoary head! and is he alone happy that taketh the little ones, and daſheth them againſt the ſtones! Do I ſee all liberty, property, religion, happineſs, changed, or rather tranſubſtantiated into ſlavery, poverty, ſuperſtition, wretchedneſs! And, in fine, do I hear the miſerable ſufferers (thoſe of them that ſurvive) bitterly accuſing the negligence of the public guardians! and charging all their calamities leſs upon the enemies, than upon the fathers of their country! O diſhoneſt, prophane, execrable ſight! O piercing ſound! that entereth into the ears of the Lord of Sabbath! Where, in what region, in what world am I? Is this imagination (its own buſy tormentor), or is it ſomething more divine? I will not, I cannot, believe 'tis prophetic viſion, or that God has ſo far abandoned us.

And how different a ſcene is now opening upon me, with clearer indications of truth and reality! There inſolence and injuſtice puniſhed! Here, 'the meek inheriting the earth!' Liberty victorious! Slavery biting her own chain! Pride brought down! Virtue exalted! Chriſtianity triumphing over impoſture! and another Great-Britain ariſing in America! But I muſt not declare the whole—The Lord God omnipotent reigneth! Juſt and true are all thy ways, O thou king of ſaints! And them that in pride thou art able to abaſe, 'What 'has pride profited, or what good has vaunting brought you,' ye reſtleſs diſturbers of our peace? What good your maſſes? your relics? your croſſings? your Ave Marias? and to which of your ſaints will you now turn?

But we are not, my honoured fathers, to preſume on God's protection, much leſs on his giving us any ſignal advantages over them that are ever either planning or executing miſchief againſt us, without uſing the proper means for obtaining that protection, and theſe advantages: as the apoſtle ſaid to the mariners, after aſſuring them of deliverance from the impending danger, 'Except theſe abide in the ſhip, ye cannot be ſaved;' ſo it may be ſaid to our Britiſh colonies, Ye cannot be ſaved from the ſtorm ye are now threatened with, yea, which is already begun, except ye are at union amongſt yourſelves, and exert your ſtrength together, for your common intereſt. Upon this condition you are ſafe, even without a miracle: otherwiſe, nothing ſhort of one can ſave you. And can you, without the utmoſt indignation, think of becoming a prey to thoſe who are ſo much inferior to you in all reſpects, merely for want of unanimity, public ſpirit, the manly reſolution of your forefathers, and a little expence?'

For a diſplay of the matchleſs perfidy of FRANCE, ſee our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, FRANCE, LOUISIANA, NORTH CAROLINA, PLANTATIONS, INDIANS IN NORTH-AMERICA.

REMARKS on this article VIRGINIA, ſince the laſt war, and the treaty of 1763.

Under our article AMERICA, we have given the treaty of peace, concluded in the year 1763, at large. By the preſent as well as the various articles we have above referred to from this, and alſo from divers others referred to from them, it appears that the fulneſs of time was come, before the laſt war, that Great-Britain muſt either extirpate the French out of NORTH-AMERICA, or that the French would extirpate the ſubjects of Britain from thence. By the laſt treaty of peace, we ſeem now to have ſecured, from the power of the French, the whole range of our Britiſh colonies from north to ſouth of this extenſive continent, by the ceſſion of CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES, and more particularly the ceſſion of CAPE BRETON, to the crown of Great-Britain. See CANADA, MISSISSIPPI, NEWFOUNDLAND.—By the ſaid treaty we have alſo obtained the ceſſion, from Spain, of Eaſt and Weſt Florida; ſo that, at preſent, our North American colonies are ſecured to this kingdom by divers maritime barriers; we mean, on the moſt northerly parts, by the GULPH and RIVER ST LAWRENCE, and by CAPE BRETON; by the extended ocean, on the eaſt, from CAPE BRETON to FLORIDA; by the GULPH OF MEXICO on the ſouth, by our poſſeſſions therein, as the BAY OF APALACHE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILLE; and on the weſt, by the Britiſh right of navigation to and from the River MISSISSIPPI: ſo that now we ſhall be able to exert the full force of our maritime ſtrength to

maintain and preſerve to the Britiſh crown thoſe eſtimable colonies. The ſmall poſſeſſion of NEW ORLEANS, which the French enjoy on the eaſt of the MISSISSIPPI, does not ſeem to put it in their power, any more than their other poſſeſſions on the weſt of the river, to endanger thoſe colonies from that power; eſpecially if we attach the INDIANS on the eaſt thereof to our intereſt; which now it appears that we can hardly fail of doing effectually, and ſoon. For by a letter from OSWEGO, dated Auguſt the 7th, 1764, to colonel Burton, at MONTREAL, we have an account, that "Matters are entirely ſettled with all the Indian nations who attended the meeting at NIAGARA; the greateſt ever known, being about 2000 Indians. Some reports ſpreading prevented the CHENUSSIOS coming for a long time: at length they came and delivered up the priſoners, &c. &c. and gave to his Majeſty and his ſucceſſors, for ever, the land on both ſides the ſtreights to LAKE ERIE (or CARRYING PLACE) four miles on each ſide, and liberty of a port on the north ſide of Lake Erie, &c. So that his Majeſty will be poſſeſſed of all territory from LAKE to LAKE; a ceſſion of near 300,000 acres. They have alſo given two Seneca hoſtages, for the SHAWNEESE and DELAWARE king, whom the CHENUSSIOS engage to deliver up at this part, with all priſoners amongſt them. There were 22 different nations at the congreſs, eleven of which were weſtern Indians; all behaved well, and were diſcharged in the beſt humour. The MICHILLEMAKINAC INDIANS have engaged to protect the garriſon which may be ſent there. The COGNAWAGOE warriors are gone with the army, and behave well. Peace is ſettled by a ſolemn treaty, in writing, with the HURONS of DETROIT: the treaty of peace and alliance with the CHENUSSIOS is alſo ratified and confirmed in writing; ſo that every thing is done that could be wiſhed for, or expected." And

Before this goes to the preſs, we have the following accounts from Philadelphia, dated September 6, 1764.

"Ten deputies from the Delawares, Shawaneſe, Hurons of Sanduſky, and other Indians of the countries between Lake Erie and the Ohio, met Col. Bradſtreet at Preſque Iſle, on his way to their country, with the forces under his command, and in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner begged for peace, which he granted them on terms to the purport following:

"1. That all the priſoners in their hands ſhould be delivered to him at Sanduſky in twenty-five days.

"2. That they ſhould renounce all claim to the poſts and forts we now have in their country; and that we ſhall be at liberty to erect as many more as we think neceſſary to ſecure our trade; and that they ſhall cede to us for ever, as much land round each fort as a cannon-ſhot can fly over, on which our people may raiſe proviſions.

"3. That if any Indian hereafter kill any Engliſhman, he ſhall be delivered up by his nation, and tried by the Engliſh laws, only to have half the jury Indians. And if any one of the nations renew the war, the reſt ſhall join us to bring them to reaſon.

"4. That ſix of the deputies ſhould remain with him as hoſtages, and the other four with an Engliſh officer; and one of our Indians ſhould proceed immediately to acquaint thoſe nations with theſe terms of peace, and forward the collecting of the priſoners, to be ready at the day appointed.

"It is ſaid that the colonel has told them, that if this peace is not confirmed by their chiefs, no other will be granted them; and that, if they continue the war, they ſhall find their country filled with warriors immediately, who will cut them off from the face of the earth.

"It ſeems the motion of the two armies at once towards their country, viz. that under Colonel Bradſtreet, from Niagara, and that from this province, under colonel Bouquet, has greatly intimidated thoſe people, who at firſt haughtily ſtood out, and refuſed to meet Sir William Johnſon at the congreſs of Niagara. See the article INDIAN NATIONS.

UNITED PROVINCES of the STATES-GENERAL. Under the articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, DUTCH AMERICA, DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH COMPANY of the NORTH, DUTCH LEVANT COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, we have conſidered the nature of the commerce of this republic; to which we have ſubjoined ſuch REMARKS as we have judged requiſite to ſupport the power and dignity of the States-General of the United Provinces, whoſe intereſt we look upon to be inſeparable from that of Great-Britain. We have more particularly ſhewn the ill conſequences which ſoon attend this republic, for want of the barrier being duly ſettled for her preſervation, as well as our own.

From this principle it is, that, in all our wars in Flanders, we have fought for the Dutch as for ourſelves, and that it has been the repeated ſenſe of the parliament, That a ſtrong barrier for the Dutch in Flanders, againſt France, is neceſſary for the ſafety of England, as well as Holland. This we have endeavoured to demonſtrate from reaſon and authority, under the articles above referred to. [See FLANDERS and NETHERLANDS.]

If we make a calculation of the forces of France in time of war, we ſhall find that they have not amounted to leſs than 100,000 horſe, and 300,000 foot; nor is there any other potentate in Europe, if in the whole world, able to bring ſuch an army, and ſo well appointed, into the field. On the other hand, we know very well what an averſion both the parliament and people of Great-Britain have to a ſtanding army, as a thing deſtructive of their liberty and freedom; nor need we be told how unable an undiſciplined rabble is to withſtand a body of regular troops: ſo that our ſecurity chiefly lies in being maſters at ſea. This is what we, in conjunction with the United Provinces, may ſtill be, if the Dutch will increaſe their marine, and exert their naval power, as they have heretofore glorioufly done. But ſhould the French king be once poſſeſſed of Flanders, he may eaſily ſurprize and conquer Holland: nor is it poſſible for that ſmall republic to withſtand him. Being once poſſeſſed of the Dutch towns and harbours, he is, by conſequence, not only maſter of all the ſhips and naval ſtores that are laid up in them, but may augment them to as great degree as the Dutch have formerly done. And having once united the ports and fleets of Holland with his own, it is a vain thing for us to pretend any longer to the dominion of the ſea: for if this ſhould ever come to paſs (which God forbid!) and the fleets of Spain ſhould join thoſe of France, as is too likely to be the caſe, we muſt ſubmit to the yoke of France: for they may then pour in above 100,000 veteran troops upon us, from all quarters; nor will it be poſſible for us, without a miracle, to withſtand them. So that in truth we are as much concerned to hinder the French from over-running the United Provinces, as he that dwells at one end of a ſtreet is to quench thoſe flames that are raging at the other: for, as Sir W. Temple very well obſerves, 'If France 'were once maſter of Flanders, the body of that empire would 'be ſo great and ſo entire, ſo abounding in people and riches, 'that, whenever they found or made an occaſion of invading the United Provinces, they have no hopes of preſerving 'themſelves by any oppoſition or diverſion †.'—And if they be ruined one year, we are undone the next.

† Temple's Obſervations on the United Provinces.

The neceſſity of a BARRIER, or a chain of ſtrong towns in the LOW COUNTRIES, to hinder the French from ſurprizing Holland, has been the ſenſe of our parliament from the time of king Charles II. and is at preſent the ſenſe of the wiſeſt men in the nation, and of the trueſt friends to our conſtitution. In the year 1713, the parliament, in their humble repreſentation preſented to her Majeſty, and printed by the Speaker's order, they affirm, in direct terms, 'That 'the SUCCESSION and BARRIER are two points of the 'GREATEST IMPORTANCE to both nations,' i. e. to BRITAIN as well as HOLLAND.

The preſent inſecurity of the United Provinces, for want of a good barrier being ſettled, we may reaſonably enough preſume, has been none of the leaſt incentives with France to act ſo barefacedly as they do at preſent againſt Great-Britain, imagining that it will not be in her power, without the aid of the Dutch, to right herſelf, eſpecially if they ſhould bring Spain into their meaſures (of which I make no doubt but they were certain before they ſtruck any ſtroke in America); and, however omnipotent ſome people are ſanguine enough to think this kingdom alone, yet we have had the experience of three long wars to convince us, that the ſtrongeſt confederacies which can be formed, are ſcarce a match for France; and, therefore, they that are for truſting to the SINGLE STRENGTH of ENGLAND, in oppoſition to a force ſo much ſuperior, muſt certainly very much miſtake the true intereſt of their country. Our conſtitution will not conſiſt with a ſtanding army: the French king, on the contrary, can never be without one: therefore it is our buſineſs to ſecure the aſſiſtance of ſuch as have always a ſtanding force, ready to oppoſe to his; and by their fleets at ſea, as well as their armies on the continent, may, in conjunction with us, either deter him from invading England, or, if he does, ſoon find him ſo much work at home, as may oblige him rather to think of defending his OWN dominions than invading his NEIGHBOURS.

Certain it is, that there is no alliance ſo uſeful to us as that of the STATES-GENERAL, in order to ſecure the Proteſtant ſucceſſion: whether we conſider their ſituation, their ſtrength, (which I am grieved to think is far inferior to what it was in queen Anne's war) their religion, or indeed, their intereſt; for the ſafety of each country depends upon that of the other: for as, on the one hand, ſhould HOLLAND fall under the dominion of France, Britain would be entirely cut off from any communication with the continent (which, joined to the great acceſſion of naval ſtrength which France would acquire by this conqueſt, muſt bring immediate ruin upon Britain); ſo, on the other hand, Holland muſt inevitably loſe both its religion and liberties, the moment that France, or any Popiſh prince under the influence and direction of France, gets poſſeſſion of Britain. From whence it neceſſarily follows, that the mutual defence and preſervation of each other ought to

be one of the chief maxims of government to BOTH NATIONS.

This is ſo plain, that the only handle which the emiſſaries of France have made uſe of to divide Us and the DUTCH, has been the point of TRADE, in which they have always endeavoured to repreſent them as dangerous rivals. Although we have occaſionally ſpoken to this point, under the articles of FISHERIES in particular, yet it may be uſeful, at this juncture of affairs, to urge this matter farther.

Certain it is, that the wealth and ſtrength of each nation doth depend entirely upon TRADE, and that therefore neither we nor they can be too careful and tender in that matter; but the world is wide enough for us both, and if the pains and expence that have been employed in the quarrels we have had with one another, upon the pretence of trade, had been applied to the keeping a watchful hand over our enemies, and preventing the encroachments they have made upon us both in this valuable article, and alſo the ſtrides they have made, and are daily making, to univerſal dominion [ſee our article FRANCE], it is evident the commerce of both nations would have been much more extenſive and flouriſhing than it is at this time; nor ſhould we now have reaſon to dread the ill conſequences that may attend the United Provinces, upon the breaking out of a freſh war in Flanders.

We are far from allowing, that the trade of the two ſtates engages them in ſuch a rivalſhip and competition with one another as has been generally pretended by thoſe who are enemies to both: for all that have any inſight into the affairs of HOLLAND muſt acknowlege, that their trade is chiefly founded upon their carrying goods cheaper than any nation of the world: the hard and penurious way of living they are inured to, enables them to perform the longeſt voyages with much leſs conſumption and expence than other nations: by this means they are become the common carriers of the product of other countries, having none of their own, except what ariſes from their ſettlements in the Indies. Our trade, on the contrary, conſiſts almoſt intirely in vending and diſperſing the product and manufactures of our own country and the plantations, while our freight is dearer than that of any other nation. See the article FREIGHT, REMARKS thereon.

The main branch, therefore, of the Dutch commerce, no way affects or interferes with ours; neither, if they were to lay it down to-morrow, would any ſhare of it devolve to GREAT-BRITAIN, but to the FRENCH, the DANES, the SWEDES, the HAMBURGHERS, and the other Hanſe-Towns [ſee the article FISHERIES particularly] who all both can, and actually do, ſail much cheaper than we. And were the Dutch at this time to loſe the plantations in the Indies, would not theſe fall into the hands of France? France, therefore, is our moſt formidable rival, and the proper object of jealouſy to both nations, who, by fomenting animoſities and quarrels between us, has had the addreſs to weaken us at our own expence, and to make herſelf powerful under favour of our folly and connivance. The diviſions between England and Holland firſt gave France the courage and opportunity to increaſe her naval ſtrength, to extend her dominions in both the Indies, to drive the Engliſh out of the trade of HUDSON'S-BAY, and of great part of NEWFOUNDLAND; to lay ſuch high duties on our reſpective commodities as amount to a prohibition, and thereby to encourage, and even force her own ſubjects to eſtabliſh our manufactures in FRANCE, and by that means to run away with a great part of OURS, as well as the DUTCH trade to SPAIN, the LEVANT, and other countries. Theſe are part of the fruits of our former quarrels with the DUTCH, which, one would hope, might have that effect, as to make us wiſer for the future, by teaching us that the only way to retrieve our paſt follies, is by UNITING, in order to recover thoſe valuable branches of our reſpective trades which FRANCE has taken from us; to preſerve a ballance of power in Europe, which now ſeems in great danger, that peace and trade may flouriſh; to provide jointly and zealouſly for the ſecurity of the ſeas, and ſafety of our commerce; and to deſtroy that growing naval force that otherwiſe may ſoon prove our deſtruction.

That ſuch an happy and indiſſoluble union may inſtantly take place, I hope it will not be judged unſeaſonable to endeavour to remove thoſe prejudices againſt the Dutch, which too many, by the wiles and artifices of the partizans of FRANCE, have cauſeleſsly imbibed.

A popular objection againſt the Dutch, in relation to thoſe wars wherein we have been allies and confederates, is this, viz. That though we have come generouſly into the wars, to help them in their diſtreſs, yet they have thrown all the burthen upon our ſhoulders, which they themſelves would ſcarce touch with one of their fingers; that they have rooked us of our money, but done little or nothing to promote the common cauſe. This is that prejudice which has made the deepeſt impreſſion on the minds of the common people. Profit and loſs are things by which they are moſt ſenſibly affected: do but confidently affirm, that they have been cheated of their money, by ſuch or ſuch great men, their rage is preſently kindled, without waiting for a proof, or expecting evidence. Thus, in the reign of king William, the impatience of the people under taxes, together with a groundleſs clamour againſt the prince, as if he had tranſported the treaſures of the nation into Holland, conſtrained him, contrary to his own ſenſe of things, to precipitate a peace with France; whereas the carrying on the war till the king of Spain's death, and expending eight or ten millions THEN, would have ſaved the nation FIFTY MILLIONS ſince.— This was the caſe, alſo, at the concluſion of queen Anne's war, as well as of the laſt great war.

But I would aſk, Was not England as much concerned to enter into theſe wars as the Dutch? Are we not highly indebted to the Dutch, for their aſſiſtance to bring about the Revolution? Nay, could it have been poſſibly brought about without them? Or what figure could this kingdom have made in queen Anne's war, without the aid of this our old and natural ally? The moſt groundleſs, falſe, and inveterate clamours were raiſed againſt them by the French partizans, in this reign, as if they had not brought into the field their quota's of men, arms, and ammunition, according to the ſtipulations agreed upon: whereas it was demonſtrated, to the confuſion of their enemies, that they had greatly exceeded what was required of them; and yet were ſo infamouſly treated by the Utrecht treaty-makers, that it is to be admired they were ſo ready to aſſiſt us in the laſt war, which was chiefly OUR war, and not theirs; for the depredations the Spaniards committed on us, gave birth to the war; and yet they were ſhamefully aſperſed and belied, in regard to their conduct upon that occaſion, which I could ſhew at large, if the limits to which I am confined did not ſo reſtrain me as not to admit of it at preſent.

However, that people may not be miſled by the artful and wicked inſinuations of the enemies of the Dutch (whom I ſhall ever look upon as the enemies of Great-Britain), it may not be altogether unſerviceable to obſerve, in the general, That, if we conſult any book of geography, or any map of Europe, we ſhall find that the dominions of his Britannic Majeſty are twenty times as large as thoſe of the STATES-GENERAL; their SEVEN PROVINCES are commonly reckoned no bigger than our four weſtern counties: it is true, theſe provinces are fuller of towns and villages than moſt counties in England, but then the city of London is three times as populous as that of AMSTERDAM, the greateſt city belonging to the States. This is evident by the bills of mortality, which, in the former amounts, in the moſt healthy years, to about 20,000, whereas, in the latter, they ſeldom amount to more than between 6 and 7000: without doubt, the Dutch muſt unite many of their biggeſt cities, before they can equal his Majeſty's metropolis in number of inhabitants, and many more to equal it in wealth. What reaſon, therefore, can we have to think hardly of the Dutch, as if, in any degree, they withdrew their ſhoulders from the burthen, when the truth of it is, they actually have maintained more ſoldiers againſt the common enemy than we, though the wars have been as neceſſary for our ſafety as for theirs, and though their territories bear no manner of proportion to thoſe of his Britiſh Majeſty?

This will appear yet more evident, if we conſider that their taxes are incomparably heavier than ours. This was the caſe in Sir William Temple's time, king Charles the Second's ambaſſador at the Hague, a moſt accompliſhed ſtateſman; and ſince his time their taxes have greatly increaſed, although their trade and their treaſure have not in the like proportion. Sir William tells us, in general, 'That they are oppreſſed 'with the moſt cruel hardſhips and variety of taxes, that was 'ever known under any government: that the exciſe [upon 'all commodities] is ſo great and general, that he hath heard 'it obſerved at Amſterdam, That, when in a tavern a cer-'tain diſh of fiſh is eaten, with the uſual ſauce, above 30 ex-'ciſes are paid for what is neceſſary to that ſmall ſervice §.' In queen Anne's time, beſides what we call the land-tax, which is heavier with them than with us in the general, they pay, ſays my author, exciſe for every thing they eat, drink, uſe, or enjoy.

§ Obſervations on the United Provinces.

The impoſt upon all corn ground in the mills of Holland, which every body pays without exception, amounts to 5l. 5s. per quarter of wheat, to half as much for rye, to 35s. for barley and oats: in a word, it is generally computed there, that the duty on all bread-corn is equal to the prime coſt.

The exciſe on beer is as follows: firſt, the brewer pays 12d. a barrel, private families pay 20d. more, and victuallers, or retailers, pay another 20d. French wines pay 6d. a ſtoup, other wines twice as much. Butter pays 6s. a barrel, tobacco 10d. a pound, fiſh 20d. a pannier, and ſoap 11s. a barrel. Every horſe above three years old pays 2d. a month; every horned beaſt above that age 3d. a month. Every coach pays 10s. a year, and every little bark 20d. All cattle, ſheep, or hogs, that are killed, pay one penny in ſeven of the money they are ſold for. All wood made uſe for fuel, pays one penny in eight of what it coſts. Every maſter pays 20d. a head yearly for each ſervant that he has in his family, male

male or female. All ſhips, lands, and houſes, that are ſold by one man to another, pay to the government a fortieth penny of what they are ſold for: hangings and houſhold-ſtuff pay one penny in nine, and woollen cloths a fourth part of their value. In one word, the Dutch pay exciſe for ſalt, candles, lead, lime, coals, ſtone; there is not a turf or log of wood in their chimnies, not an herb or onion in their gardens, but what pays a duty, more or leſs, to the States. Our author aſſures us, that a cow of nine years old, if it be ſold for 5 l. will pay above 6 l. to the States; and that there is never a diſh comes to table but has paid exciſe above twenty times.

Theſe are the impoſitions that our neighbours are ſubject to in times of peace, which, in war, are raiſed to a degree hardly to be believed: at ſuch times, land and houſes have paid 10 or 11 s. in the pound of their intrinſic value.

To ſuch a degree are theſe our friendly provinces taxed, that they are under the neceſſity to lay impoſitions even upon the dead: but theſe, indeed, may be termed voluntary benevolence; for from noon 'till two o'clock you may bury your dead, without paying any other coſts than only the charges of the burial: but they who bury half an hour after two are obliged to pay a forfeiture of 100 ſous, which doubles every half-hour: for example; at three o'clock the forfeiture is 10 livres; at four, 20; at five, 40; at ſix, 80; at ſeven, 160; at eight, 320; and at nine, 640; which is the higheſt, for after that hour no body is permitted to bury.

The reader may be apt to aſk, perchance, how it is poſſible for people to bear up under ſuch heavy preſſures, ſuch loads, that even the Engliſh would certainly ſink under? To this it is anſwered, That their extraordinary induſtry and parſimony enables them to ſupport ſuch prodigious taxes. A burgher of Amſterdam will dine contentedly on a red herring, when a citizen of London, of the ſame condition, will ſcorn to ſit down to table without a ſurloin of beef or a couple of capons before him. Sir William Temple again tells us, that 'it is a common rule among them, for every man to ſpend 'leſs than what he has coming in, be that what it will; and 'that, if a man's expence equals his revenues, it diſcredits a 'man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal ex-'travagance does in other countries: ſo that frugality is be-'come honourable amongſt them.'

Another thing that reconciles them to theſe exceſſive impoſitions, is that confidence which they have, that their money is laid out for the good of the community. The ſalary of a burgomaſter of Amſterdam is but 500 gilders a year, which amounts not to 50 l. ſterling: nor was it ever known that they who have the diſpoſal of offices in that republic, took any money on that occaſion. The prime miniſters of ſtate are obliged to no ſort of expence more than ordinary modeſt citizens, in their habits, their attendants, their tables, or any part of their domeſtic affairs. Sir William never ſaw the two greateſt officers belonging to their ſtate, the vice-admiral DE RUYTER, and the penſioner DE WIT, with above one ſervant a piece in their train, but moſt uſually on foot, and alone in the ſtreets, like common burghers: and this was the general faſhion among all the magiſtrates. This has made the people part chearfully with their money, when it is not made uſe of to fill the coffers, or maintain the pompous equipages, of the ſervants of the public.

Upon the whole, when we reflect upon the ſmall extent of this republic, their maintaining more men conſiderably than we have done, at an average, during the three great wars, in compariſon to the extent of their territories, &c. with thoſe heavy taxes which they ſubmit to, we cannot doubt but they are the braveſt people in the world; and it is certain that they have made the moſt prodigious efforts for the common liberties of Europe, that ever any ſtate of the like dimenſions did: and do they not deſerve our utmoſt aid and aſſiſtance, when needful, as well as our praiſes and encomiums?

Another art practiſed by the French intereſt in this kingdom, to divide England and Holland, is the malevolent inſinuation, That, in times of war in Flanders, the DUTCH in particular have drained us of our money. We cannot diſallow but, on theſe occaſions, a great deal of gold and ſilver have been exported to pay our armies in Flanders, though nothing comparable to the clamour that has been raiſed about it; but this could by no means be avoided in carrying on the wars, which have been always abſolutely neceſſary in the defence of both ſtates, ſince a tolerable underſtanding has happily ſubſiſted between them. But in regard to this matter the caſe is plainly thus; we muſt, on theſe unhappy occaſions, ſpare ſome of our money, or loſe all our lands. However, it ſhould be obſerved, by thoſe who would know the truth of things, that the armies have, for the moſt part, been paid by bills drawn on merchants in Amſterdam, and other places: and the Dutch purchaſing of us many hundred thouſand pounds worth of Britiſh manufactures § every year, brings back the money again

§ Holland takes from England, broad cloths, druggets, longells, ſtuffs of a great many ſorts, leather, corn, coals, and ſomething of almoſt every thing that this kingdom produces; beſides all ſorts of India and Turkey re-exported goods, ſugars, tobacco, rice, ginger, pitch, and tar, and ſundry other commodities of the produce of our plantations. England imports from Holland, fine Holland linens, threads, tapes, and incles; whale fins, braſs battery, madder, argol, toys, clapboard, wainſcot, &c.

that has been exported on thoſe occaſions: that is to ſay, The ballance of our trade by means of Holland, has far more than compenſated for the occaſional expences upon the continent, which our mutual ſafety ſeems to have rendered neceſſary. And, perhaps, upon due examination it will be found, that after thoſe wars, and the expences among all the contending parties have run high in Flanders, the trade of England with Holland, Flanders, Germany, &c. has been temporarily augmented, in proportion to the money ſpent by England on thoſe military atchievements.

It would, without doubt, be better for both ſtates, provided they could contend with the enemy wholly in a maritime way, upon the ſuppoſition that they could ſupply themſelves with all ſhips and naval ſtores for the purpoſe, becauſe ſuch expences would circulate and center within themſelves. But while France is able to ſupport ſuch formidable armies, and their territories ſo adjacent to the United Provinces, it is to be feared that the exertion of the maritime ſtrength of England and Holland alone will not all times abſolutely prevent a war upon the continent; for it ſhould ſeem, that while the affairs of France are ſo circumſtanced to enable them to uphold ſo great a military force, England and Holland, in conjunction with the houſe of Auſtria, and ſuch other allies as can be brought into their meaſures, muſt SOMEHOW have a land force capable of looking France in the face, and ſtopping the progreſs of her arms.

That it is not in the power of the Dutch alone to do this, has been apparent beyond all doubt *. Nothing can effectually do this but another GRAND ALLIANCE; and England muſt, for her own ſecurity, contribute to a part of the military expence; and this may be more eligible, perhaps, than to ſend our ſoldiery abroad on theſe occaſions, as has hitherto been our practice. There is, indeed, ſome doubt to be made in relation to the repoſe of confidence in allies and confederates, when they do not fight, as well as act, in concert: however, experience has ſhewn what troops and what general officers are to be truſted, when the cauſe of Great-Britain is at ſtake, although ſome people are too backward in our giving aſſiſtance to the Hanoverians, notwithſtanding they are our natural ally, and have behaved gallantly in the common cauſe of England and Holland, notwithſtanding they ſhould be drawn into quarrels upon our account. And if the exigency of public affairs ſhould require Great-Britain to take into her pay any troops to ſerve in Flanders againſt France, conjunctively with other confederates, will it not prove adviſeable to put confidence in our tried, truſty, and natural friends and allies, the HANOVERIANS, who are ſubjects of the ſame ſovereign? It has been ſaid too, That if a war ſhould break out, his Britannic Majeſty, as Elector of Hanover, will augment his troops; if ſo, ought not this to prove a further inducement to us to take an additional body of theſe troops into Britiſh pay?

* If we conſider France and Holland, as to the extent of their dominions, the Dutch can make no head. If we will conſider the length and breadth of each province in the United Netherlands, and then multiply one by the other, we may know how many ſquare miles there are in the whole, and ſee what proportion this bears to the kingdom of France.

	Square Miles.
Holland is computed 80 miles long, 40 broad, making	3200
Zealand, 30 long, 17 broad	510
Utrecht, 30 long, 25 broad	750
Guelderland and Zutphen, 50 long, 48 broad	2400
Overyſſel, 60 long, 40 broad	2400
Groningen, 46 long, 24 broad	1104
Weſt Frieſland, 40 long, 25 broad	1000
Dutch Brabant, 55 long, 31 broad	1705
Dutch Flanders, 31 long, 13 broad	403
So that the whole comprehends, of ſquare miles	13472

Theſe are all the dominions the States-General have in Europe, except two or three ſcattering towns, which have no territories belonging to them worth regarding. Let us next ſee the dimenſions of the kingdom of France. France is computed to be, in length and breadth, 200 leagues, or 600 miles. This number, multiplied by itſelf, produces 360,000 ſquare miles. Now if you divide 360,000 by 13,472, the quotient is 27: ſo that the kingdom of France is 27 times bigger than all the territories poſſeſſed by the Dutch. If it be objected, That France is not in all places 600 miles broad, the ſame may be ſaid of each of the United Provinces. Thus we have reckoned Holland 40 miles broad, when in many places it is not above 25; and you can conſult no map, in which the diſproportion between the two ſtates will not appear greater than I have repreſented it. I confeſs, were France like the parched deſarts of Arabia, or the frozen lakes of Lapland, a wild uncultivated wilderneſs, our argument would conclude very little; but France is a populous country, full of great towns and villages, and a rich and fruitful ſoil, containing above 36,441 pariſhes, above

above three times as many as there are in England and Scotland; nor has the greateſt city in Holland half ſo many inhabitants as that of Paris: ſo that you may as well ſuppoſe that a gnat ſhould ſwallow a camel, as that the Dutch republic ſhould devour the French monarchy, or alone make any head againſt that nation.

We will next conſider the revenues of theſe two ſtates, which are not improperly ſtiled, the nerves and ſinews of war. Sir William Temple informs us, that, in his time, the revenue of the Seven Provinces amounted commonly to 21 millions of gilders, which is ſomething leſs than two millions ſterling. It is true, in time of war, they have raiſed five millions; but this is little, compared to what the grand monarch collects within his ſpacious territories; his revenues, in 1695, amounted to more than 15 millions and a half of our money; and they have increaſed very conſiderably ſince that time. Of the number of their forces we have taken notice before.

It has been urged by ſome, That the whole empire is concerned to keep the UNITED NETHERLANDS out of the hands of FRANCE; and why ſhould we be at any expence for them? This is certainly the intereſt of his Imperial Majeſty, nor is any queſtion to be made, but he will do all that he is able, to prevent ſo great a miſchief to his family: but then the emperor may be involved againſt the Turks, &c. and ſo not able to help them, at leaſt not to any effectual purpoſe. The German princes may be quarrelling one with another; or ſome of them may be bribed to take part with FRANCE againſt their own country, which has too often been the caſe of theſe perfidious princes. This was actually the caſe of the DUTCH, in 1672, when their two neighbours, the biſhops of COLOGNE and MUNSTER, joined with the FRENCH in invading their dominions, and that with ſuch ſucceſs, that their deliverance from utter ruin was next to a miracle. Theſe things conſidered, I hope it will be allowed by all true friends to the PROTESTANT INTEREST, that we did not, in our late wars, fight barely for the DUTCH, but for our OWN ſecurity, as well as theirs.

Notwithſtanding the unhappy differences which heretofore, by the machinations of the common enemy, ſubſiſted between England and Holland, and by means whereof France firſt raiſed their naval power; yet I cannot but look upon theſe miſunderſtandings as fatal to both ſtates, as even civil wars would be in the hearts of their nations; becauſe I cannot but look upon them in the light of ONE and the SAME PEOPLE, and that every meaſure ought to be purſued by both, to render their reciprocal intereſts compatible in every reſpect; ſo that they may be jointly and harmoniouſly enabled to extend their COMMERCIAL intereſts, and their MARITIME ſtrength, in perfect concert and unanimity, in order to curb the growing formidable power of thoſe who will ever be perfidious enough to attempt the deſtruction of both.

Another prepoſſeſſion which the common enemy ſtudiouſly endeavours to raiſe among us againſt this ſtate, is their form of government, which is republican, and therefore cannot ſo well accord with ours, that is monarchical. Have we any reaſon to be angry with them on this account? Friends to this conſtitution muſt determine in the negative, when it is conſidered that their caſting themſelves into ſuch a model was the effect not of choice, but abſolute neceſſity.

It is not conſiſtent with our brevity to enter into a detail of the riſe, progreſs, and concluſion of the Low-Country wars; let it ſuffice to obſerve for the preſent occaſion, that the United Provinces were once ſubject to the king of Spain:—That the invaſion of their civil liberties, and the inhuman cruelties which thoſe of the reformed religion ſuffered, provoked the diſtreſſed inhabitants to take up arms in their own defence, and to withſtand thoſe inſtruments of cruelty that were made uſe of to oppreſs them.—After many tumults and confuſions, there was a convention of the eſtates at Antwerp, in the year 1581, in which it was determined, That Philip king of Spain, by invading their privileges, and overthrowing their conſtitution, had forfeited his right to govern thoſe provinces, &c. and the throne was become vacant.—But, inſtead of moulding themſelves into a commonwealth, they, at the ſame time, elected the DUKE of ALENÇON, younger brother to the king of France, to be their ſovereign §. This prince accepted their invitation; but being influenced more by humour and caprice than by the maxims of policy and wiſdom, he quickly loſt the affections of his new ſubjects.—When he perceived this, he retired into France, and quickly after died there. The provinces being once more without a ſupreme governor, they offer next to transfer their allegiance to our renowned QUEEN ELIZABETH †. She refuſed, indeed, to accept of this propoſal, but afforded them a very generous aſſiſtance, and continued their friend and patroneſs to the day of her death. Whence we may diſcern, that when the DUTCH formed themſelves at firſt into a commonwealth, it was becauſe they could not obtain a KING or QUEEN of their own, who was able and willing to protect them; and their erecting a republic was a matter rather of neceſſity than choice. This ſeems plainly to demonſtrate, that men may be born and bred in a commonwealth, and under government as anti-monarchical as Holland may appear to be; and yet the wiſeſt part of the ſtate may be zealous friends to a limited monarchy, eſpecially ſuch an one as that of Great-Britain, becauſe there is no other nation that has the ſame conſtitution that we have, nor ſo well adapted to the happineſs of the people.

Nor ought the religion of the Dutch, which is Preſbyterian, to give either of the nations a prejudice againſt each other: the Dutch never attempted to obtrude their model upon us; they do not look upon their particular diſcipline as abſolutely neceſſary to ſalvation, nor do they condemn thoſe that differ from them; they look upon the church of England as a ſiſter-church, and pay a due regard to her. An inſtance or two may be neceſſary to intimate, in order to what may be touched on in the ſequel.

In the reign of king James I. when the peace of their provinces was very much diſturbed, by the Arminian controverſies, they ſent to the king, deſiring that ſome of our Britiſh divines might be permitted to come over, and conſult with thoſe of other reformed churches, in order to compoſe thoſe unhappy differences. Accordingly, the then biſhop of Landaff, with the doctors Davenant and Hall, afterwards biſhops of Sarum and Exeter, were ſent over by the ſaid prince, with other eminent men §. Theſe met with the divines of Holland and Germany, at the famous ſynod of Dort, where they gave their ſuffrages with the reſt. So that the churches of England and Holland looked upon each other as members of the ſame body: nor have the latter, to this very day, receded from that charitable temper.

When the eſtabliſhed church of England was really in danger, under the adminiſtration of king James II. when her biſhops were impriſoned; when an illegal commiſſion was ſet up, prepared to execute the vengeance of enraged Papiſts upon all the clergy in the kingdom; in that diſtreſs, did we not implore the aſſiſtance of the DUTCH? Were they not the inſtruments (under God) of reſcuing our eccleſiaſtical and civil liberties, whilſt the FRENCH offered their troops to enſlave us? Before I leave this matter, it may not be improper to mention one or two inſtances more of the reſpect which is ſhewn in Holland to our Common Prayer. The Dutch conſented to the erecting of a ſtately church in Rotterdam, in which the Engliſh Liturgy is read to ſuch Britiſh merchants and traders as reſide in that town. When the biſhop of Briſtol arrived at Utrecht, as her Majeſty queen Anne's plenipotentiary at that peace, the ſtate offered his lordſhip the uſe of one of their public churches in that city, for the celebration of divine ſervice, according to the right and uſage of the church of England: was not this paying a great deference to thoſe forms of devotion uſed by his lordſhip?

We have not room to enter into the nature of the civil conſtitution and ſtadtholderſhip of this ſtate, and to compare it with that of England: which if we were to do, it would be eaſily diſcernable that the conſtitution of Great-Britain is infinitely preferable, as being better calculated for the preſervation of liberty and property, and the extenſion and enlargement of the commercial intereſts of a maritime nation. True it is, that the United Provinces have ſplendidly and gallantly figured it under their ſtadtholders; but if they had been governed, ſince their ſhaking off the Spaniſh yoke, by monarchs, limited as thoſe of Great-Britain are in all reſpects; if, in a word, the conſtitution of the UNITED PROVINCES was modelled upon the plan of that of this kingdom; it would, in all human appearance, have increaſed the trading intereſts and glory of that ſtate, to a degree far ſuperior to what it ever was, and have eſtabliſhed the ſame upon ſuch a foundation, as would have contributed unſpeakably more to the preſervation of the Proteſtant and the commercial intereſts both of Great-Britain and the United Provinces, than a difference in conſtitution has done; provided that one and the ſame ſovereign had governed both powers, and that a ſtadtholder was only a viceroy, deputed from the crown of England, as the Earl of Leiceſter was in our queen Elizabeth's time, or as a lord lieutenant of Ireland now is. And what hinders but this may one day be the caſe?

We have ſeen from a very brief compariſon of the eſſential particulars relating to both ſtates, that theſe provinces have no averſion to our monarchical government: on the contrary, they have frequently manifeſted a high regard to the Britiſh conſtitution in general; and they, as well as we, have experienced the ill conſequences of the intereſt of both ſtates not being bottomed and cemented upon the principles of an inſeparable union, as well with regard to trade and navigation, as to every other material point.

That I may not be miſunderſtood upon this occaſion, the candid reader is deſired to obſerve, that all that is here meant and intended is, that if the DUTCH ſhould ever think proper to agree to adopt the conſtitution of England, and make her ſovereign their ſovereign, they ſhould poſſeſs and enjoy all the privileges of commerce and navigation as Engliſhmen, without

§ Vide Acta Synodi Dordrect. pag. 10.

§ Vide Stradam de Bello Belgico. Bentivoglio's Hiſt. of Flanders.

† Camden's Hiſt. of Queen Elizabeth.

without any reſtriction whatſoever: for although we have compared a ſtadtholder, or viceroy, deputed from the crown of Great-Britain, to a lord lieutenant of Ireland; yet it is not thereby intended to inſinuate that, in ſuch caſe, the DUTCH ought to lie under any reſtraints of trade whatſoever, as the Iriſh do, which is what alſo we diſapprove, as well in regard to Ireland, as we ſhould do in regard to Holland, if any ſuch happy union could ever be brought about. And what would be the conſequence hereof to both nations, we have briefly ſhewn under our article TRADE, to which we refer the reader.

But if England and Holland ſhould never judge it adviſeable to become one nation, and governed by one and the ſame conſtitution, the next beſt thing to be done, for the mutual ſecurity and intereſt of both, ſeems to be, to cement the ſtricteſt union between them that can be upon all other occaſions. Nor can any thing more apparently evince the neceſſity hereof, than the ſurprizes to which they are both liable, from the machinations of France, their common enemy. This we have repeatedly experienced, to the unſpeakable loſs of the blood and treaſure of both; and this we are likely too ſoon to experience again: and, therefore, does it not become the duty of the wiſe and honeſt men, and thoſe in authority in both nations, to think ſeriouſly and expeditiouſly upon the beſt meaſures to ſecure and preſerve themſelves from thoſe imminent dangers to which they are both liable by their diſunion? For however ſanguine ſome may be, that our ſecurity may be ſufficiently provided for by our fleet, (which, indeed, is in a condition that gives glory to the nation) yet do we not know, that when the fleet of Holland was almoſt as powerful as our own now is, and theirs and ours were united, they with difficulty withſtood the common enemy? It is a very fond opinion to imagine that we, who, in conjunction with Holland, have heretofore been inſulted on our own coaſt by the fleets of France, and another time had probably been ruined by them, had not the heavens been favourable to us, ſhould be able, without the aſſiſtance of the like degree of maritime ſtrength, to ſecure us from a power ſo exorbitant as that of France and Spain may be in conjunction. The ſecurity of England and Holland does undoubtedly chiefly depend upon a powerful fleet; but does it not become the wiſdom of both to be certain of that degree of naval power that will overmatch and defeat that of our enemies which may be united againſt us? But without the Dutch will inſtantly exert their maritime ſtrength, and act zealouſly in concert with Great-Britain, we do not ſeem to have that degree of maritime ſtrength, ready to act for the effectual ſecurity of both ſtates. We have been repeatedly informed that the Spaniards have actually made, or apparently intend, an attempt on the Dutch colonies of ISEQUEBE and BERBICE, which are greatly aſſiſtant to our ſugar colonies of Barbadoes and St Chriſtopher's, in ſupplying them with timber for their ſugar-works, of which it ſeems they muſt be deprived, if thoſe colonies fall into Spaniſh hands: and if the French alſo get poſſeſſion of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, thoſe ſugar colonies muſt be greatly hurt, if not abſolutely ruined and undone, for want of thoſe needful ſupplies. If it ſhould prove matter of fact that the Spaniards have made, or ſoon intend to make, ſuch an attempt on thoſe Dutch colonies, under the pretext of preventing illicit commerce with the Spaniſh colonies, does not this look with an aſpect that Spain intends the like inſults and encroachments on the Dutch, as they have ſhewed to us in our logwood ſettlements, from whence, it ſeems, they have quite extirpated the Britiſh logwood-cutters? Does not ſuch conduct in the Spaniards appear too ſignificantly declarative, that they intend as little good towards England and Holland, as France does? Do not theſe things ſeem to forebode a conjunction between France and Spain, that we both ought inſtantly to guard againſt by proper alliances, and by the due exertion of our maritime, as well as military ſtrength? And as this nation has at preſent a very able and vigilant miniſter in Holland, we have good reaſon to expect as happy ſucceſs from his negociations ABROAD, as we have from the wiſdom and councils of his honourable family at HOME.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter T.

UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.——After the 1ſt of May, 1707, united into one kingdom, by the name of Great-Britain (art. 1.) 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1.—— All the ſubjects to have full freedom and intercourſe of trade and navigation, within all the dominions thereunto belonging (art. 4.) ditto act of parliament.——All ports of the united kingdom to be under the ſame LAWS and REGULATIONS of TRADE, liable to the ſame CUSTOMS and DUTIES, entitled to the ſame ALLOWANCES and DRAWBACKS as in England; except the exemption of private rights. 5 Ann. cap. 8. (art. 6, 7, 14, 18.) 6. Ann. cap. 26. §. 17. But after the Union, an equivalent was to be paid by England to Scotland for the improvement of the duties; to be applied towards ſatisfying private loſſes by the reduction of the coin, and to the payment of the capital ſtock and intereſt of the African and Indian company of Scotland; and the overplus towards the public debts of Scotland, and the encouragement of the fiſheries, and other manufactures and improvements; which ſaid equivalent was to be under the management of particular commiſſioners: but in lieu and full diſcharge of ſuch equivalent, after the 24th of June, 1719, there was eſtabliſhed one yearly ſund of 10,000 l. and one other, of 2000 l. payable out of the revenue of cuſtom, exciſe, &c. ariſing in Scotland, by the reſpective commiſſioners. 5 Ann. c. 8. §. 1. 6 Ann. c. 24. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. c. 20. §. 1, 14, 18.

W.

WAR

WAR

As this article ſtood in our former editions, begun in the year 1751, when France ſeemed again to be meditating a freſh war, ſoon after the treaty of peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748.

WAR. If Great-Britain ſhould enter into a war in the preſent conjuncture of affairs, we have endeavoured to demonſtrate, throughout this work, that ſhe is compelled ſo to do for the defence of her rightful TRADE and POSSESSIONS, and not from any unjuſtifiable motives, or attempts made upon the commerce or poſſeſſions of any other nation. 'A man may 'be forced to kill another, in his own neceſſary ſelf-defence, 'and then the ſin is not in the ſlayer, but in him that is ſlain 'for in all caſes of force, not he who is compelled to ſtrike the 'ſtroke, but he who is the cauſe of the evil, bears the whole 'guilt. If a thief be found breaking, ſay our ſacred oracles, 'and be ſmitten that he die, there ſhall no blood be ſhed for 'him. For the ſame reaſon, enemies may be ſlain in a juſt 'and neceſſary war: and it is no crime, but an honour to 'be ſucceſsful in deſtroying them: but WARS of mere AM-'BITION are direct MURDERS.' See Dr Samuel Clarke's Works.

Some PRINCIPLES relating to the CONDUCT of WAR.

I. To deal with murderers of this kind then, it is not neceſſary only to be in a capacity to protect our trade and commerce, our poſſeſſions and our liberties, for the preſent, but we muſt endeavour to put it for ever out of the power of a perfidious nation to injure us again. See the article PLANTATIONS [REMARKS thereon], ſhewing the deteſtable perfidy of France for above a century paſt.

II. Nothing can effectuate this but the due exertion of our NAVAL POWER, as well MERCANTILE AS ROYAL, to deſtroy their trade and navigation, which is the great ſource of their treaſure and ſtrength. See our articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, SEAMEN.

III. If we ſuffer their trade and navigation, and, conſequently, their maritime ſtrength, to grow to a greater pitch, and do not put a ſtop to that career of ſplendor and power which they aim at, we ſhall be no longer a nation: vaſſalage and ſlavery muſt be the inevitable doom of Britons.

IV. To defend ourſelves againſt any invaſion, we muſt have a competent number of land forces; nor ſhould we be deſtitute of a well-regulated and DISCIPLINED MILITIA, to contribute to the defence of our extended ſea-coaſts; for our fleets alone may not always be capable to prevent the landing of the enemy.

V. Leſt our own force ſhould not be amply ſufficient to put it out of the power of the enemy to diſturb our peace, and diſtract Europe again, the moſt powerful alliances, both OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE, ſhould be entered into that can be, with ſuch powers whoſe intereſt it will be, as well as ours, to deſtroy the ENEMY'S TRADE AND NAVIGATION, and to TAKE AND DIVIDE THEIR MOST VALUABLE TRADING POSSESSIONS AMONGST US, ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF STRENGTH WHICH THE CONFEDERATES SHALL CONTRIBUTE TO THAT END, AND THE SUCCESS THAT SHALL ATTEND THEM. See UNITED PROVINCES, FLANDERS, HOLLAND.

VI. If the MARINE of HOLLAND could be raiſed equal to that of GREAT-BRITAIN, their united royal navies, together with their mercantile maritime ſtrength, would certainly prove ſufficient to anſwer this great end in the four parts of the world. See our article UNITED PROVINCES.

VII. If the UNITED PROVINCES cannot be brought, or are not able, perhaps, to raiſe their marine and their military force to the height deſired, and to act vigorouſly, in concert with Great-Britain, as one nation, Great-Britain muſt do the next beſt thing that ſhe is able: ſhe muſt make ſuch alliances as will afford her the greateſt addition of MARITIME STRENGTH; and, if needful, ſhe muſt not be backward in aiding, with her purſe, ſuch confederacies on the continent as may prevent the French from over-running the United Provinces; for as the intereſt of Great-Britain and thoſe provinces are inſeparable, as we have endeavoured to ſhew under the article UNITED PROVINCES, it will be impolitic for us to truſt their whole ſecurity and protection to any other power or powers, without contributing any thing thereto. Beſides, there may be other powers beſides France, that might be glad to poſſeſs themſelves of this republic, and who might not prove leſs detrimental to the trade and navigation of Great-Britain, than France would be, if the United Provinces were annexed to that crown.

VIII. If the United Provinces are reduced to ſo low an ebb, that they are rendered incapable of exerting themſelves againſt France, in concert with Great-Britain, as they have heretofore done, it will nevertheleſs be for the intereſt of England to enter into an alliance with them, both OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE; and England muſt, for her own ſafety, do all in her power to preſerve Holland from deſtruction: for if England enters into ſuch alliances with the United Provinces as will make their INTERESTS ONE, and if they both zealouſly exert their maritime power, and ruin a great part of the French trade and navigation, and POSSESS THEMSELVES OF THE SAME, thiswill make them both an ample compenſation for the expence of SUCH A WAR: and SUCH A WAR AS WILL RUIN THE TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF FRANCE, AND ADVANTAGE THAT OF GREAT-BRITAIN AND THE UNITED PROVINCES MUTUALLY, is the ONLY WAR that thoſe powers ought chiefly to proſecute.

IX. The Dutch can never be ſo poor, as a ſtate, but they are able ſtill to lend themſelves many millions, and are ſtill able ſo to exert their maritime ſtrength, in conjunction with England, as to deſtroy a great part of the French commerce and navigation, and to draw the ſame into their own ſcale: wherefore it muſt be very deſireable to the well-wiſhers of both ſtates, that ſuch offenſive and defenſive alliances are inſtantly entered into, that may for ever ſecure the poſſeſſions of both, and ſo enlarge and extend the trade and navigation of both, as to give and preſerve to them the dominion of the ſeas: for, without this, England and Holland will be no more, and Britons and Dutchmen muſt tamely ſubmit to the French yoke.

X. So happy an union between Great-Britain and the United Provinces, would ſoon raiſe the maritime power, and the trade and navigation of both ſtates, to what pitch they pleaſed; for if they jointly exert themſelves, upon the coaſt of Africa, the French might ſoon be extirpated from all commerce in that part of the world, becauſe the Dutch and the Engliſh united there, are now ſtronger than all the other powers who have ſettlements in that part of the world; [ſee ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANY;] and if the Engliſh and Dutch deſtroy the French AFRICAN TRADE, and poſſeſs themſelves of their ſettlements for ever, will not this prevent that nation from ſupplying their ſugar-iſlands with negro-ſlaves? and what then will become of their ſugar-colonies? which, as they have proved the means of greatly extending the commerce of that nation, it is to be hoped that Great-Britain and Holland will have a watchful eye upon them; for if theſe were in ENGLISH AND DUTCH hands, and proper TREATIES OF COMMERCE were entered into between thoſe two powers, in relation to their trading acquiſitions, they would enjoy the SUGAR-TRADE OF THE WHOLE WORLD; and this, and their African commerce, would amply recompence them for the expence of a war of ſome years.

XI. Upon ſo happy a maritime and commercial union of intereſts between England and Holland, how long could the French figure it in Aſia? Would not the united power of the Dutch and Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies, ſoon lower the creſt of France alſo in that part of the world?

XII. If once Great-Britain and Holland poſſeſſed themſelves of the FRENCH AFRICAN SETTLEMENTS, and their SUGAR ISLANDS, this would give a great blow to the French commerce between Canada and thoſe iſlands, and increaſe that between the Britiſh northern colonies and thoſe iſlands.

XIII. In regard to the Britiſh affairs in North-America, we have urged that point largely, from the beginning to the concluſion of this work; but as every thing that throws a new light upon a matter of this high concernment to the nation, may have its uſe, I ſhall cite a late ingenious writer upon this occaſion*.

* See the State of the Britiſh and French Colonies in North-America, &c. In two letters to a friend.

'If

'If we would ſecure, ſays that gentleman, our American dominions againſt the French, we muſt OUT-FORT them, as well as OUT-SETTLE them. Our colonies are in a worſe condition by far than is generally believed, or can well be conceived, unable to hurt their invaders, or defend themſelves, while the French have FORTS every where, and we have FORTS, in a manner, no where.

The number of forts neceſſary to be built for ſecuring the colonies, muſt be eſtimated by the number of forts already built by the French on our frontiers, and the places proper for fortifying, which they have left unoccupied, which are indeed very few, ſo induſtrious they have been to anticipate us in an article of ſuch infinite concern to our plantations.

As the country of the OHIO is in ſo much danger of being wreſted from us, and its being well ſecured of ſo much importance to all the colonies in general, north, ſouth, and middle, as hath been already ſet forth; if ever it comes into our hands again, it ought to be well fortified, by building forts in convenient places, along the river, eſpecially at each extremity; that is, one at the mouth of the OHIO, on the MISSISSIPPI, and another at NIAWGRA, near the lake ONTARIO: this laſt will prevent the communication of LOUISIANA with CANADA, by that lake and the lake ERIE, and oblige the French to abandon their forts on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of this laſt lake, by rendering them uſeleſs, as well as ſave us the expence of erecting a fort at TIERONDOGNAT, on the lake of ONTARIO, about 60 miles to the eaſt of the NIAWGRA ſtreight: a place which they have long had their eye upon for building a fort, and which we might be under a neceſſity of fortifying, in caſe the French remain at NIAWGRA, in order to prevent their taking poſſeſſion of it, as they did once already, in 1687, although it was but for a ſhort time: and this, doubtleſs, was the reaſon which made governor Clarke of New York ſo earneſt to have that place fortified.

In effect, a French fort there would prove no leſs dangerous to NEW YORK, than that at CROWN POINT, as it would give them admiſſion into the country of the SENNEKAS, the moſt powerful of the SIX NATIONS, among whom they have already gotten ſome footing, by means of the NIAWGRA fort, and their prieſts; and whoſe defection, conſidering their influence, might be a means of our loſing the friendſhip of the other five.

The fort at the mouth of the OHIO ought to be ſtrongly built and garriſoned, and a conſiderable ſettlement made about it: after, this ſettlement might be gradually carried on, between the MISSISSIPPI, and the ALLIGANEY mountains, backwards and forwards at the ſame time. Nor can too much encouragement be given to ſettle this country, eſpecially on the ſide of the MISSISSIPPI, as quick as poſſible, by allowing people liberty to ſettle how and where they pleaſe, without making large grants to any company; an obſtacle which has hindered ſettling more than any other thing, and, on many accounts, proved greatly detrimental to the colonies, by raiſing the price of land to an exorbitant degree; which, beſides the dangerous evil of enriching a few, and impoveriſhing many, has been attended with one ſtill more pernicious, that is, of weakening the colonies, by leaving near HALF OF SOME OF THEM UNPEOPLED.

This fort and ſettlement would effectually exclude the French from paſſing into the weſtern parts of Virginia, by the Ohio and its branches: but as they have two forts on the WABISH, one at its mouth on the OHIO, and another about the middle of that river, it would be proper to have two others built, in oppoſition to them: the ſecond, in the part where it draws near the river of the ILONOIS, or CHIKTAGHIKS. Should we go a little farther, and erect another on this laſt river, in the neighbourhood of the former, it would intirely cut off their communication this way, between LOUISIANA and CANADA, and oblige them to go ſo far about, as to diſcourage them, with all their ſanguine views and perſeverance, from ever hoping to compaſs their ſo-much-deſired project of joining their two colonies on this ſide of the Miſſiſſippi.

The country to the ſouth of the OHIO would be in good meaſure ſecured, by the fort built at the mouth of it, which will hinder their paſſage into the HOGHEGE, or river of the CHEROKEES, dividing the country of theſe Indians on the north from VIRGINIA. However, more effectually to ſecure it, and, at the ſame time, cover the country of the CHEROKEES, it would be proper to build one at the FALLS, a little below the place where the PELESIPI, or CLINCHES river joins it, in the north-weſt borders of the CHEROKEES; and another eſpecially in the heart of the country poſſeſſed by thoſe people, who have long applied with great earneſtneſs to the governor of CAROLINA for that purpoſe, repreſenting the danger which otherwiſe there was of the French doing the ſame; and it is well if, through this unpardonable neglect, the French, in caſe they ſhould be forced out of the back parts of VIRGINIA, [ſee VIRGINIA] do not, in their return to NEW ORLEANS, put that deſign in execution: as to be ſure they will, in caſe they keep poſſeſſion of what they have already uſurped, in order to prevent any attempts on our ſide to ſecure that country to us. By a like pernicious remiſſneſs, or ſomething elſe, were they ſuffered, ſince the

year 1715, to build the fort TOULOUSE, on the river AILIBAMOUS, not far from the country of the CREEK INDIANS, and the borders of GEORGIA; which frontier, though not yet ſufficiently fortified, has balked their views of carrying on their CHAIN of FORTS, on that ſide, to the Atlantic Ocean, which, before that colony was founded, they thought themſelves ſure of effecting, whenever they pleaſed, and, therefore, made the leſs haſte to accompliſh it.

Theſe FORTS might ſerve, at preſent, to fortify the ſouthern provinces of our American dominions. With regard to our northern, the firſt thing that demands our attention is the ſecurity of NEW YORK, and its PROVINCE. This will be, in good meaſure, done by the FORT to be built at NIAWGRA, and that already built at OSWEGO, in the country of the SIX NATIONS, at the ſouth-eaſt end of the lake KADARAKAI, or on ONTARIO, almoſt due ſouth of the FRENCH fort of FRONTENAC, on the north-eaſt corner of the ſame lake, about 70 miles diſtant. But this fort, which is the only one we have for defence of our back ſettlements for many hundred miles, 'till we come to GEORGIA, ought to be much enlarged, ſtrongly fortified, and furniſhed with a pretty numerous garriſon, and is of great conſequence, by its ſituation, to both the ſecurity and trade of our northern colonies, it being our north-weſtern frontier, and the only place, or opening left, by which the Indians can come to us with their furrs. For this reaſon, 'till ſuch time as our neighbours ſhall be obliged to allow them a free paſſage through the LAKES, it will be neceſſary to build a veſſel or two, capable of mounting guns for the conveniency of carrying them backwards and forwards, acroſs the lake; which expedient will go a great way to fruſtrate the deſign of the French, and recover our trade.

And here it is worth obſerving, that this fort of OSWEGO, built by governor Burnet in 1727, by favour of the Indians, ſtood unmoleſted all the laſt war; and although the garriſon uſually conſiſts of no more than an officer and 23 men, has been of more ſervice and benefit than all the reſt, although now it muſt be in imminent danger. This is a demonſtrative proof of the great importance and advantage of ſuch FORTS, on the number of which and ſmall garriſons, properly placed, the intereſt and ſupport of the French almoſt wholly depend.

However, more effectually to ſecure NEW YORK, a ſtrong FORT ought to be built in view of the French FORT at CROWN POINT. By means of this poſt, they may be enabled to intercept, or at leaſt diſturb, the trade from ALBANY up to the MOHOK's river, a branch of HUDSON's, to the Six Nations, by ſending a force on that ſide; and could they deſtroy the commerce of theſe Indians with the province of NEW YORK, they would oblige them to depend wholly on CANADA, a thing which they threatened to have done in 1732.

During the late French war, from 1744 to 1748, CROWN POINT was the rendezvous of the CANADA French and their Indians, from whence they attacked NEW YORK, and the north-weſt corner of MASSACHUSETS BAY. From this place, in 1745, they deſtroyed SARATOGA ſettlement, on Hudſon's river, about 30 miles above ALBANY: in which parts, during that and the two following years, they killed and captivated above 300 of our people *, deſtroying moſt of the inhabitants and plantations on the north-eaſt branch of that river. In former wars, the attack on New England was from the north-eaſtward; in the war of 1746, it was from Crown Point. New York government, in former French wars, did not ſuffer, but in this laſt they ſuffered moſt †; that is, they were puniſhed for ſuffering that fort to be built. Beſides building this counter fort, ALBANY ought to be put in the beſt poſture of defence imaginable, in order to ſecure it againſt any attempts on that ſide. This quarter requires the ſtrongeſt barriers, becauſe the French have declared it to be the chief object of their views; and it lies ſo near QUEBEC, the center of all their ſtrength in CANADA, from which they have a moſt convenient paſſage all by water, excepting a ſmall ſpace of about 12 miles by land.

* Douglas's Summary of North America, vol. ii. p. 246.
† Ibid. vol. i. p. 316.

Monſ. Callieres, who firſt propoſed the project for the conqueſt of this city, to induce Lewis XIV, to comply with his deſire, ſays, in his Memoirs to the French miniſters, 'That 'this conqueſt would make the king maſter of one of the 'fineſt ports in AMERICA, which they might enter at all 'times, and a moſt beautiful country, in a mild and fertile 'climate!' No wonder ſo inviting a deſcription as this ſhould ſet the French at Canada a longing for NEW YORK: but ought not that longing of theirs to make us more earneſt to preſerve it?

By theſe fortifications, NEW ENGLAND will be pretty well ſecured on the weſt ſide, as it will on the eaſt by thoſe already built, and the two now building on the river KENNEBECK, one by the province, the other by the proprietors of the KENNEBECK purchaſe; whoſe generous example, it is hoped, will animate others to do the like, and not let them

ſtop, 'till they have erected a fortreſs on the very banks of ST LAURENCE RIVER, which is within their limits. Mean time, as the laſt of the two forts has been founded ſo high as the TAKONNEK FALLS, and the north part of New England lies wholly expoſed to the ravages of an enemy, it is not doubted but that they will not delay to build a third, at the head of the KENNEBECK itſelf in the Carrying-Place, not above four miles over, where it locks with the river called by the French LA CHAUDIERE, which falls into the ST LAURENCE, four or five leagues to the ſouth-weſt of QUEBEC. This fort ſhould be ſtrongly built, and furniſhed from Britain with a garriſon of 500 ſtout men: unleſs this be done, the building thoſe two forts will only ſerve to put the French in mind of doing it. And from their conduct it may be judged, that a ſmall occaſion would ſerve them for a pretence.

The building a fort here is the more neceſſary on three accounts; (1.) As it will bridle the ABENAKKI INDIANS, in the intereſt of the French, and hinder them from ever attempting any thing againſt NEW ENGLAND, this having always been the place of rendezvous for both, on ſuch occaſions. It will alſo prevent their going on the OHIO expedition; and thoſe reſtraints, by degrees, be a means of their coming over to our intereſt. (2.) As it lies near the heads of the rivers St Francis and St John, as well as of the Kennebeck and La Chaudiere, before mentioned; ſo that it will have the command of four very important rivers, two of which fall into the St Laurence, the Chaudiere towards Quebec, and the St Francis towards Montreal. (3.) As it will help to cover not only the northern borders of New England, but alſo thoſe of New York, from which it will not be far diſtant. I may venture to ſay, that the good effect of this fort will extend as far as ANNAPOLIS ROYAL, and the town of HALIFAX in NOVA SCOTIA, by cutting off all ſupplies of men and ſtores to the French in that country, by ST JOHN'S RIVER, which will oblige them to abandon their forts lately built at the mouth of it. The KENNEBECK company, in full expectation of this deſirable event, have already given land to 100 men, and their families, to ſettle the country thereabout, under protection of the two forts newly built upon that river.

How different is the practice of ſome colonies, to this generous public-ſpirited conduct of the KENNEBECK proprietors! The aſſembly of NEW YORK, in their addreſs to governor De Lancey, the 20th of Auguſt laſt, complains, 'That other 'colonies make themſelves ſtrong and defenſible, by ſettling 'in townſhips, or ſome other cloſe order, while our frontier 'lands are granted away in patents almoſt without bounds 'or number, regardleſs of ſettlements, or the public welfare.' And in a State of the Britiſh ſettlements, now in view, we are told, that 'even the lands beyond New York itſelf and 'Albany, on both ſides of Hudſon's river, by an abuſe which 'ought to be remedied, viz. the old exorbitant grants, are 'but thinly inhabited, although lands for ſettlement in that 'colony are extremely wanted: and thoſe tracks would ſoon 'be purchaſed, if they could be had at any tolerable rates.' This unpeopled ſtate of the country is of ſo much the worſe conſequence, ſince, in caſe the French ſhould attack ALBANY and NEW YORK at the ſame time, one by SEA, and the other by LAND, conformably to their plan, from whence could ALBANY be reinforced? The country has not men to ſupply it, nor could NEW YORK, in ſuch a caſe, be able to ſpare any. On this occaſion, the memorial of 1732 obſerves, 'That when the preſent ſtate of New York, and the power of thoſe neighbours (the French) is well underſtood, it will too evidently appear, that they will, on a rupture, be under unhappy circumſtances; and with them the other colonies muſt be deeply involved.' Such ENFEEBLING GRANTS, therefore, are of pernicious tendency every where, but no where ſo much as in the province of NEW YORK; which being the key of all the other colonies, and moſt expoſed to our northern neighbours, who, for theſe reaſons, cover it, all means which can be thought of, conducive either to its improvement or ſecurity, ought to be applied, and every the leaſt obſtacle to either ought to be removed.

After the words cited from the aſſembly's addreſs, they juſtly remark, 'We can erect FORTS and BLOCK-HOUSES; but 'to what end? Woods and uncultivated tracks are not the 'objects of ſecurity; induſtry is to be protected, and mens 'perſons to be defended, otherwiſe little good will accrue to 'the public, be the expence what it will.' It is true, there can be no proſpect of ſettling a country, while ſuch diſcouraging grants are in the way: but were thoſe obſtacles removed, under the protection of ſuch forts as have been propoſed, in a very ſhort time we might hope to ſee this part well inhabited, and, conſequently, the ſtrongeſt barrier (as it ought to be) in the ENGLISH AMERICAN dominions againſt the FRENCH. With regard to NOVA SCOTIA, including the country to the eaſt of KENNEBEK RIVER, it will require ſeveral FORTS and ſettlements to ſecure it, not only at the mouths of the three principal rivers, PENOBSKOT, LA CROIX, and ST JOHN'S, at which laſt there are two French forts, but alſo at certain poſts along thoſe rivers, particularly this laſt; which beginning not far from the head of the Kennebek, and paſſing with a circular courſe, encompaſſeth the greater and moſt valuable part of all the country; ſo that thoſe forts will keep both FRENCH and INDIANS in awe, as they will have an eaſy communication by water among themſelves, and with the ſettlements on the other rivers, travelling only a little way by land. Above all, care muſt be taken to build a ſtrong fort at SHEGNIKTO, on ſome elevated ground, to the north of the French fort, which may both command, and exceed it in force; for the preſent fort is ſo weak, and ill ſituated, that the garriſon would be obliged to ſurrender almoſt at the firſt ſhot: ſo that, in caſe of a war, we ſhould have no chance there. Nor will this be enough: it will be neceſſary for ſecuring it, to have two forts more, one at BAY VERTE, to prevent our neighbours from invading the country at pleaſure, that being their landing-place from CANADA, and one of the two ways by which they enter and correſpond with Nova Scotia: ST JOHN'S RIVER, as before mentioned, is the other, by which (ſays La Hontan) the inhabitants of thoſe two countries may hear from each other in 16 or 17 days; though not in a month by ſea.

The ſecond fort ought to be erected at the entrance into SHEGNIKTO baſon, or harbour; for ſhould the French build one there, they would exclude all acceſs to it by ſea.

But as the erecting ſo many forts at once in this province (of Nova Scotia) may be thought too expenſive a work, it may be ſufficient, for the preſent, only to build ſome along the river ST JOHN, and thoſe at SHEGNIKTO.

By ſuch a number of forts and ſettlements as I have mentioned, may the BRITISH territories be effectually ſecured, the FRENCH kept at a diſtance, and our trade in good meaſure recovered, by paſſages opened for the Indians to come and trade with the colonies; which will likewiſe be at liberty to extend their ſettlements on all ſides, in ſpite of any oppoſition which the French can give them, or rather without danger of any from them: for, by means of theſe forts, a much ſtronger line of circumvallation will be formed againſt them, than they at preſent have againſt us.

You will ſay, perhaps, that I have cut out a fine expenſive work for the colonies. It will be expenſive, there is no doubt of that; but what can be done, ſuppoſing fewer forts will not be ſufficient to ſecure them? If, therefore, the burthen fall heavy, they may thank their own miſmanagements. Had FORTS been gradually built on their frontiers, and as they extended their out-ſettlements, after the example of the FRENCH, a thing which ought to have been done, the charge would not have been felt. As this has been neglected, that muſt be done at once which ſhould have been done at different times: beſides, the expence is greatly augmented, by their having ſuffered the French to build upon them every where. At firſt, a few forts erected in proper places, would have ſerved the purpoſe, and their neighbours finding the poſſeſſions ſecured, might never have thought of diſturbing them: but ſeeing the countries lie open, and the colonies careleſs through a vain ſecurity, or worſe, covetouſneſs, they were invited to enter, and puniſh their neglect in the manner they have done.

REMARKS before the laſt war, and peace of 1763, in our firſt edition began in the year 1751.

If America ſhould again become the ſeat of war, as it was in the laſt, (and this it certainly will, if the Spaniards join the French) it will prove of unſpeakable detriment to theſe kingdoms, as things are at preſent circumſtanced, provided it ſhould be conducted as the laſt war there was, and if there ſhould be ſuch unhappy miſunderſtandings between admirals and generals, as was between Mr Vernon and Mr Wentworth, &c.—I have now the miſconduct of this whole affair before me; which would prove very diſagreeable, and, indeed, very ſhocking, to repreſent in its true colours. But we will hope for better conduct in the next war, in that part of the world, or our all, I am confident, will be loſt there.—It appears to me, that there are opportunities enough in America greatly to diſtreſs the Spaniards, if it ſhould become neceſſary, as well as the French; and, after having provided effectually for our affairs in Europe, we cannot have too great a fleet to act in America, and elſewhere: but, unleſs we ſtrike ſome CAPITAL AND EFFECTUAL STROKE, the war will only be prolonged for the benefit of the officers, from year to year, and turn to the diſhonour and ruin of the nation, inſtead of its glory and proſperity.

We have not the leaſt reaſon to be diſcouraged at the expence of a much greater FLEET than ever this nation beheld. If we had a fleet as powerful again as we have, we ſhould ſcarce feel the expence of it: nay, I could almoſt preſume to affirm, THAT THE GREATER OUR ROYAL NAVY IS, THE RICHER, INSTEAD OF THE POORER, WILL THE NATION BE; AND THEREFORE WE CAN SCARCE SPEND TOO MUCH UPON OUR MARITIME FORCE.

Excluſive of what we expend for naval ſtores with other nations, the reſidue of our naval expences is raiſed within ourſelves, and centers and terminates within ourſelves. 1. Our royal navy is victualled among ourſelves, and this inriches the landed gentleman, as well as the farmer and grazier. 2. Our ſhips are built and maſted with our own timber, and built by Britiſh artificers. 3. Though we take hemp from Ruſſia,

yet our cordage and ſail-cloth and iron are chiefly manufactured amongſt ourſelves, for the employment of our manufacturers and artificers. 4. Our ſhip-chandlery particulars, great in number, are produced among ourſelves; and our ſhips are ſupplied with liquors by our own brewery, and our own diſtillery. 5. Though we uſed formerly to be obliged to take our pitch and tar from Sweden, yet at preſent we have the bulk of it from our own plantations; and ſo we may, in time, have all our hemp from thence: and whatever adds to the circulation of commerce between England and her colonies and plantations, tends to augment the opulence and power of both. 6. The appointments paid to our ſea officers, and wages of our mariners, alſo revert again into our own hands. 7. The great eſtates frequently obtained in time of war by our admirals, and other chief officers, as well as by privateering, generally make the nation more than an ample recompence for the mercantile loſſes we ſuſtain by ſea in thoſe calamitous times. 8. The prizes which we commonly make of the enemies ſhips of war and naval ſtores, can ſcarce fail to be equivalent to thoſe we may happen to loſe of our own.

Upon the whole, if we compare the national expence raiſed upon our ROYAL NAVY, when it ſhall be exerted to its fulleſt extent in times of war, with the national RETURNS, as the neceſſary conſequence thereof, according as our affairs are now happily circumſtanced; we need not be at all apprehenſive, that a war carried on by SEA can ever impoveriſh or hurt the kingdom at all. For let it be ſuppoſed that 3,000,000l. a year, or even more, was raiſed annually above the ordinary expence, for the ſupport of the royal navy, it will not be eaſy for any one to ſhew, that near the whole expence raiſed would not return into Great-Britain again. From paſt experience in relation to the three laſt great wars, the expence of our naval affairs, conſidered in the ſeveral lights before intimated, did the nation no great injury, and would have done much leſs, if we could then have provided ourſelves, as we now can, with ſo great a part of our naval ſtores.

Nor could it do us any detriment, if the expence was conſiderably greater, provided the money was conſtantly RAISED WITHIN THE YEAR; for the greater our naval power is, if exerted as it ought to be, the greater might, and very probably would, be our advantages by ſea over the enemy, and therefore the RETURNS of treaſure into the kingdom would be equivalent to the EXPENCE RAISED: and this would be almoſt all gain to the nation.

But ſuppoſing the neceſſity of our affairs ſhould oblige us to run annually THREE MILLIONS, or more, into debt, on account of our NAVAL EXPENCES, let us conſider how it would affect the wealth of the nation.

Who muſt be the public creditors to whom this money will be due? Does it not every ſhilling (except what I have before excepted) ariſe from the product of our land, and the labour of our workmen? And while the PRINCIPAL MONEY is due only AMONGST HIS MAJESTY'S SUBJECTS, as I have zealouſly pleaded for in this performance, and the INTEREST paid to them only, ſuch debts will ſit light upon the nation: but when any proportion of ſuch debts becomes due to foreigners, by transfer or otherwiſe, and the intereſt money goes out of the nation, this is reckoned a diſadvantage in the like degree, which is the reaſon that I have ſuggeſted how deſireable it would be, if it ſhould ever be found practicable, that all the PUBLIC DEBTS THE NATION SHALL BE OBLIGED TO INCUR, ſhould be CONTRACTED AMONGST BRITONS ONLY; in which caſe, no intereſt-money would go out of the nation, and, conſequently, the burthen of our national incumbrances would be the leſs ſenſibly felt. See our articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONIED-INTEREST.

Although a part of the intereſt money paid on account of the principal debt contracted for our naval affairs, ſhould be remitted to foreigners out of the kingdom, in virtue of their becoming our public creditors, yet it ſhould not be forgot, that the PRINCIPAL VALUE aroſe from the produce of our LAND and our LABOUR, and that we have taken ſuch foreigners PRINCIPAL MONEY, though they take away our INTEREST MONEY. This abates the evil in ſome degree: but when a great proportion of the principal money due to FOREIGNERS has been ſpent IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, and never returned in any ſhape to us again; when this is not only the caſe, but the intereſt money is ſpent out of the nation likewiſe; this magnifies the evil of ſuch debts.

But when our native land and labour ſhall have PRIMARILY received the benefit and advantage of our NAVAL EXPENCE, it may be a quere, whether thoſe benefits and advantages, conſidered upon the WHOLE, may not be equivalent to the diſadvantages ſuſtained by paying intereſt to foreigners for a PART only.

Certain it is, however, that let theſe our NAVAL EXPENCES be any way conſidered, it ſhould ſeem, methinks, as if they had a tendency rather to inrich the nation, than any how to injure or impoveriſh it: for ſo much of the money expended this way, in time of war, is really ſomething like extracting ſo much GOLD and SILVER out of our MINES; and what is the common produce of our LANDS and our LABOUR, are MINES of the greateſt utility to the ſtate. Neither ſhould it be forgot, that our ROYAL NAVIES, built and equipped with ſuch money, become really PERMANENT RICHES for many years, of which we enjoy the benefit; and the ſervice and glory which the kingdom derives from theſe her NAVAL TREASURES, far more than compenſate for the expence of the intereſt of the money they coſt, be that conſidered in what light it may.

In a word, it ſhould ſeem, however paradoxical at firſt glance it may appear, that our very NAVAL EXPENCES are creative, under the reſtrictions we have conſidered them, of NATIONAL WEALTH; and if our whole public incumbrances had been made up of ſuch ſort of expences, and raiſed within the year, and the whole intereſt money had centered within ourſelves, as perhaps might have been the caſe, our debts would have proved very little burthen to us. There is another conſideration, notwithſtanding, that ought to alleviate, in ſome meaſure, the thoughts of the burthen of the INTEREST MONEY paid to foreigners who are our public creditors; which is, that the chief of our foreign public creditors being the ſubjects of the United Provinces, and the author of this work looking upon the intereſt of thoſe provinces in a light abſolutely inſeparable from that of Great-Britain, thinks that the intereſt money paid to them ought to be looked upon, in ſome degree, as really paid to ourſelves: and what ought to be ſome additional motive with us to have a natural tie and affection towards that nation, is the chearfulneſs they ever ſhew to aid and aſſiſt us with their money-ſubſcriptions, upon all emergencies, and in all other ſhapes, I am willing to think, according to their power, unleſs when ſome wicked men at the helm have prevented it. And is not this the caſe of all nations at one time or other? But the contrary is the genuine ſenſe of the wiſe and upright men in that ſtate; and I hope that we ſhall ſoon happily experience a perfect union and good underſtanding between GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND, notwithſtanding all the wiles and machinations of our common enemies, to divide and diſtract us, in order to ſubvert the power of both.—To this end, I have zealouſly endeavoured to remove the prejudices which too many in this kingdom are at preſent taught to have againſt the Dutch, by the emiſſaries of France. See our articles UNITED PROVINCES, HOLLAND, TRADE, FLANDERS and NETHRELNADS.

Theſe conſiderations, we humbly hope, will animate the nation to ſpare no EXPENCE upon their NAVAL POWER, if the neceſſity of affairs, as I fear will be the caſe, ſhould make it requiſite even to treble the FLEETS we at preſent have, more eſpecially if we exert ourſelves to raiſe the whole of our naval ſtores in our plantations.

REMARKS on our article WAR, ſince the laſt war, and the PEACE of 1763.

Under our article TAXES, there appears an account of all the money that has been raiſed ſince the year of the REVOLUTION in 1688, to the concluſion of the reign of his late Majeſty George II. If we caſt an eye upon the incredible expence of the laſt war, it would certainly have proved utterly impracticable to have raiſed ſuch ſupplies WITHIN THE YEAR as were raiſed to carry on that war. Since the reign of queen Anne, our PUBLIC DEBTS are nearly trebled to what they then were, although a great parade has been made, ſince that period, to leſſen them. And if the examples of carrying on WARS by this nation at the expence we have hitherto done, are to become permanent precedents, and eſteemed worthy the ſanguine imitation of poſterity; it requires no extraordinary preſcience to predict, that ſuch expenſive wars muſt at length prove the inevitable RUIN and DESTRUCTION of this commercial empire. For to ſuch a degree muſt our TAXES in general be neceſſarily augmented, to pay the INTEREST of our ENCREASED PUBLIC DEBTS, that the NECESSARIES OF LIFE, THE PRICES OF LABOUR, AND THE PRICES OF ALL OUR COMMODITIES AND MANUFACTURES, WILL BE SO GREATLY RAISED AND INHANCED, THAT THE GENERAL DOMESTIC CONSUMPTION OF ALL OUR NATIVE COMMODITIES WILL DECREASE AMONG OURSELVES; OUR GOODS WILL BECOME SO DEAR, THAT FOREIGNERS NEITHER CAN NOR WILL PURCHASE THEM: AND WHAT WILL BE THE CONSEQUENCE HEREOF? AS THE HOME CONSUMPTION OF OUR NATIVE COMMODITIES DIMINISHES, WHAT WILL BECOME OF THE REVENUE OF EXCISES? WILL NOT THAT BE REDUCED PROPORTIONABLY? AND WHEN WE SHALL NOT BE IN A CONDITION TO EXPORT OUR OWN GOODS, BECAUSE NO FOREIGNER CAN OR WILL BUY THEM, WHILE HE CAN BUY THOSE OF OTHER NATIONS, OUR TRADING COMPETITORS, CONSIDERABLY CHEAPER, HOW LONG SHALL WE BE ABLE TO IMPORT THE FOREIGN GOODS OF OTHER STATES AND EMPIRES? NOT LONG, MOST CERTAINLY. AND WHEN THAT COMES TO BE OUR CASE, WHAT LIKEWISE WILL BECOME OF THE REVENUE OF CUSTOMS? WILL NOT THAT BE REDUCED AS OUR IMPORTS SHALL BE? WHERE THEN SHALL WE FIND THE FUNDS TO PAY THE INTEREST FOR OUR PUBLIC DEBTS? WILL NOT THE

FUNDS VANISH ALSO, FOR THE PAYMENT OF THE KING'S CIVIL LIST REVENUE; FOR THE SUPPORT OF HIS HOUSHOLD, AND THE HONOUR AND DIGNITY OF HIS CROWN? WILL NOT THE VERY EXISTENCE OF THE SINKING FUND, NOW MORTGAGED AS A COLLATERAL SECURITY TO THE PUBLIC CREDITORS, BE ANNIHILATED; AND INSTEAD OF THE NATIONAL CREDITORS HAVING ANY SECURITY FOR THE DISCHARGE OF THEIR PRINCIPAL MONEY, HOW WILL THEY COME BY THEIR INTEREST? WHEN THIS SHALL COME TO BE THE STATE OF PUBLIC CREDIT, AND THE MONIED INTEREST SHALL BE UNDONE, WHAT WILL BECOME OF OUR TRADERS? WILL NOT OUR MERCHANTS FLY TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND THERE EXERCISE THEIR SKILL AND INDUSTRY, TO IMPROVE THE COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THOSE COUNTRIES, WHOSE GREATER CHEAPNESS OF THEIR COMMODITIES WILL INDUCE THEM TO TRADE THEREIN THROUGHOUT THE WHOLE WORLD? WHEN WE HAVE LOST OUR MERCHANTS AND OUR MONIED MEN, WHAT A FIGURE WILL OUR LANDED GENTLEMEN MAKE? WHEN OUR BRITISH LAND SHALL BE OF AS LITTLE WORTH AS THAT IN SIBERIA, WILL THE RAISING FOUR SHILLINGS IN THE POUND UPON SUCH LAND, RAISE AGAIN THE BRITISH SPLENDOR?

It would be eaſy to carry on this ſtrain of obſervation to a much greater pitch; but the idea of a bankrupted and ruined nation is a melancholy ſubject to dwell upon; eſpecially when men are too apt to judge it viſionary. I heartily wiſh it may never prove otherwiſe; the author had rather have his memory eternally ſtigmatized, than ſuch a cataſtrophe ſhould ever come to paſs. His motive is not to alarm with falſe fears; but to guard Britons againſt that danger that appears to him impending, unleſs ſome maſterly ſtrokes of policy are ſtruck, to reduce the tax-incumbrances on our trade in general, in order to reduce the PRICES OF OUR COMMODITIES AND MANUFACTURES in general as low as thoſe of any RIVAL NATION in EUROPE. 'Till this is done, and moſt effectually too, we deceive ourſelves in imagining, that we ſhall be able to preſerve our trade and navigation. The wiſeſt TREATIES OF COMMERCE with nations will not effect it; they will eternally be evaded; ſuch ſtates and empires with whom we ſhould make them, and become even upon a better footing with them in trade than any other nation is, cannot be compelled to purchaſe our goods, when they can have others from 15 to 30 and 40 per cent. cheaper. Nor ſhall we ever be able to put a ſtop to the infamous practice of ſmuggling in Great-Britain and Ireland, and the Britiſh plantations, while they ſhall be able to buy French and other foreign commodities ſo much cheaper than they can Engliſh. I could heartily wiſh and rejoice that theſe things were conſidered by our RULERS as they ought to be, and this great work was ſet about in earneſt; for if it is deferred, the malady will grow ſo malignant as to become abſolutely incurable.

It has proved a misfortune to both ſtates, that Great-Britain and the States General, have not been happily cemented in their intereſts; we mean more particularly in their commercial intereſts; for nothing but a union founded on ſuch a baſis, can influence them to act in concert heartily for their reciprocal ſupport and preſervation, againſt France, or any confederacy the court of Verſailles may form againſt them both.

But while the Dutch experience it more for their benefit and advantage, to traffic in French commodities and manufactures, in preference to thoſe of Engliſh; while the Hollanders find it turn more to their account to engage large capitals in the French trade, and carry the wares of that kingdom for ſale to every part of the world, by reaſon of their greater cheapneſs and readier vent than Engliſh, 'tis no wonder, that thoſe ſtates are more united than England and Holland; but it is more aſtoniſhing, that the great men in England and Holland have not yet fallen upon ſome meaſures to accompliſh a deſireable commercial union, as previouſly neceſſary to a total union of all their mutual intereſts. For till this is done, and effectually done, they will always be liable to be plunged into wars; which their hearty conjunction would often prevent.

However beneficial the Dutch may have found their neutrality when Great Britain has been engaged in wars with France, the States General may at length carry this maxim too far; for it is to be feared, that France will never loſe ſight of attempting to annex the United Provinces to their crown, however they may temporize with them. The Dutch may alſo have reaſon, and that, perhaps, not long firſt, to dread the machinations of another great and intriguing power, whoſe great aim ſeems to be to erect himſelf into a conſiderable maritime and commercial power; to which end he may have his eye no leſs upon the United Provinces than ſome other, and that acquiſition would not a little contribute to his extenſive views. Nothing might have a happier tendency to render abortive ſuch ſchemes of power, either on the ſide of France, or others, to ſwallow up Holland, than a perfect harmony and good underſtanding, in all reſpects, between Great-Britain and the States General; and this upon principles preſervative of the being of both ſtates, and tending to the increaſe of their commerce and navigation. See UNITED PROVINCES, FLANDRES, HOLLAND.

WARWICKSHIRE is bounded with Worceſterſhire on the weſt; Glouceſterſhire and Oxfordſhire on the ſouth; Derbyſhire and Staffordſhire on the north; and Northamptonſhire on the eaſt: in circumference it is computed at 122 miles. Its air is excellent, the ſoil rich, and its principal commodities are corn, malt, wool, wood, iron, coal, and cheeſe. The moſt conſiderable of the many rivers and brooks it is plentifully watered with, are the Avon and the Tame.

COVENTRY is a large, populous, and rich city: the chief employment of the inhabitants, at preſent, is in the manufacture of tammies, and weaving the ordinary ſorts of ribbons, eſpecially black.

TAMWORTH is a fine pleaſant town, noted for its good ale: the river Tame parts it in the middle, ſo that one half of this town is in this county, and the other in Staffordſhire. Here is a conſiderable trade in narrow cloth, and ſome other manufactures.

BIRMINGHAM is a large populous town; multitudes of the meaner ſort of people are employed here in the iron-works, in which they are ſuch ingenious artificers, that their performances in the ſmall wares of iron and ſteel are admired both at home and abroad.

STRATFORD has a ſtone bridge on the Avon, which is navigable to it by barges. It is a populous town, and its chief commodity is malt, which it makes in great abundance.

The navigation of the river Avon is obſerved to be of vaſt advantage to this county, and to the particular commerce of the city of Briſtol; for by it they drive a great trade in groceries, iron, lead, and all heavy goods, which are uſually carried by water almoſt as far as Warwick; and, in return, the corn, and eſpecially cheeſe, are carried back from Glouceſterſhire and Warwickſhire to Briſtol.

ATHERSTON, on the Stour, is famous for its cheeſe fair, the greateſt in England, on the 8th of September. Here the cheeſe factors buy vaſt quantities, which they carry to Stourbridge fair.

NUNEATON is a pretty large well-built town, and has a manufacture of woollen cloth.

WATCH-MAKER. See CLOCK-MAKER.

WAX. See BEES-WAX.

WEAVING. See CLOTH, LINEN, SILK, TAPESTRY, &c. WEST-INDIES. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, LEEWARD ISLADS.

WEIGHTS.

The foreign Weights of ſeveral of the chief trading parts of EUROPE compared.

The weights for HEAVY GOODS may properly be divided into three ſorts. 1. GREAT WEIGHTS, 2. POUNDS, and, 3. Their FRACTIONS, or ſmall weights.

The great weights are the SCHIPPENDT, which makes 300 or 400 pound, according to the different places; the LOAD, compoſed of two bales, making likewiſe 300 or 400 pound weight; the WAGE, about 165 pounds; the QUINTAL, making 100, 104, 105, 110, and ſometimes 112 pounds, or more, according to the cuſtom of each place.

The hundred, which is divided into QUARTERONS; the AROB, between 25 and 32 pounds.

The LISPENDT, 15 pound, more or leſs; the STONE, in ſome places of 8, in ſome of 15, and in ſome of 16 more; in others, more; the POUND conſiſts in ſome places of 12, in ſome of 14, in others of 16, which is moſt common; and in ſome of 40 ounces. And thoſe FRACTIONS are variouſly ſubdivided, according to the goods that are weighed, and the cuſtom of the place.

The fractions of the POUND are the MARK, conſiſting of 8 ounces, or half a pound; the OUNCE, of 8 GROSS, or DRACHMS, or 24 DENIERS, or 20 ENGELS; the GROSS, or DRACHM, of 3 DENIERS; the DENIER, of 24 GRAINS; the ENGEL, of 32 ACES, or 30 GRAINS.

In weighing of PRECIOUS STONES, &c. the OUNCE conſiſts of 576 GRAINS, but they reckon it 600. Four GRAINS make a CARAT.

The SILVERSMITHS divide their MARK, which they call OUNCE, into OCTAVES, CARATS, and GRAINS. The MARK, or OUNCE, contains 8 OCTAVES; the OCTAVE, 20 CARATS; and the CARAT, 4 GRAINS.

In HOLLAND, and particularly at AMSTERDAM, they make uſe of two ſorts of weights, to weigh all ſorts of goods and commodities ſubject to be weighed by the town-weights, viz. The MARK, or Troy weights, and the ANTWERP weights. The MARK, or TROY WEIGHT, is that which is known all over Europe, and which is uſed by the goldſmiths in weighing gold and ſilver, conſiſting, as I have already ſaid, of 8 ounces, or half a pound; ſo that, to make the hundred weight, there muſt be 200 MARKS, which hundred weight, or 200 marks, makes 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of Antwerp weight, or a little leſs; and the huudred weight of Antwerp makes but 94 $\frac{4}{5}$ pounds weight of Amſterdam.

As for Antwerp weights, they are only uſed there to weigh certain ſorts of ſilk, cochineal, ſome drugs, and other things of that nature.

Nor is it of the Antwerp, but of the Amſterdam hundred of 200 marks, that the ſchippendt is compoſed; by which weight the Holland cheeſe, Riga hemp and flax, and many other ſuch goods, are commonly ſold. At Amſterdam the ſchippendt is reckoned but 300 weight, and not 400, as in divers other places.

The pound mark of Spain and Portugal is held to be about $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce leſs than that of Amſterdam. However, they make uſe, in thoſe countries, of ſeveral ſmaller weights.

In France they uſe three different ſorts of weights in buying and ſelling of goods, viz. mark-weight, table-weight, and king's-weight, or cuſtom-houſe weight.

It is not neceſſary to give further account of the mark-weight, of which I have ſaid enough. What they call table-weight, is that they make uſe of in ſeveral provinces in the kingdom, and particularly in Provence and Languedoc; which weight is between 18 and 25 per cent. ſmaller than the mark-weight; though at the ſame time the pound table-weight is compoſed of 16 ounces, becauſe thoſe ounces are ſo much ſmaller than the other. And though that diverſity of weight, in almoſt every town in Provence, and High and Low Languedoc, occaſions a great inconvenience to trade, the inhabitants of thoſe towns cannot be prevailed with to alter their ancient weights and meaſures.

Though ſome who have wrote upon that ſubject, have not taken notice of the difference between the weights of Toulouſe and thoſe of Marſeilles, 'tis certain that the latter are 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. or thereabouts, ſmaller than the former; ſince 100 weight of Toulouſe renders about 105 $\frac{1}{4}$ at Marſeilles, and 100 weight of Marſeilles renders only about 95 at Toulouſe.

Nor are they leſs miſtaken, who reckon the weights of Marſeilles equal to thoſe of Rochelle; for, on the contrary, they differ almoſt 25 per cent. as ſhall be ſhewn.

In ſome places of France they reckon by the quintal, and in others by the hundred, and in ſome places, both by the one and the other. And in that caſe, ſtrangers muſt take particular notice of making contracts, clearly to expreſs which of the two they mean.

By the hundred is meant barely 100 weight, and no more. And by the quintal is commonly meant 104; and in ſome places much more, as we ſhall ſee hereafter. And even at Toulouſe they add 1 pound to the 104, to make it good weight as they call it.

At Lyons they have two ſorts of weights. By the town-weights all ſorts of goods are weighed but ſilks; and they reckon 14 ounces mark to the pound.

By the others nothing is weighed but ſilks; and the pound conſiſts of 15 ounces.

At Rouen they have likewiſe two ſorts of weights; thoſe of the Viconté, and the mark-weight.

The weight of the Viconté is taken to be about 6 per cent. better than that of Paris, or the mark-weight, in weighing of wool; but in other caſes it is only 4 per cent. greater than the other. And ſo it is divided into fractions of 52, 26, and 13 pounds.

There being no Viconté weights leſs than 13 pound, all fine goods that are ſold by ſmaller weights are weighed by the mark-weight.

Of the Weights of Holland, and their conformity with thoſe of other Countries.

We have already obſerved, that the weights ordinarily uſed in Holland, and particularly at Amſterdam, are thoſe called mark-weights; and though ſome people make them equal to thoſe of Paris, Straſburgh, Beſançon, and Bourdeaux, it is certain, there is ſome difference between them.

Of the Weights of Brabant and Flanders, compared with thoſe of Holland.

The difference between the weights of Amſterdam and thoſe of Brabant, is about 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. excluſively: ſo that 100 pound of Amſterdam make 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Brabant, Antwerp, &c. and 100 pound of thoſe places make 94 $\frac{4}{5}$ of Amſterdam. As for the reduction of the one into the other, nothing is more eaſy, ſince you need only make the plain operation of the rule of three, and ſay,

If 100 pound of Amſterdam make 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Antwerp, &c. how many will 90 $\frac{4}{5}$ make? And you will have juſt 100—And on the contrary,

If 100 pound of Antwerp, &c. make 94 $\frac{4}{5}$ of Amſterdam; how many will 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Antwerp make? And you will likewiſe have 100.

And ſo you may make the reduction of any quantity whatſoever, of the weights of one of theſe places, into thoſe of the other.

You may comprehend, under the name of thoſe of Antwerp, the weights of more of the other towns of the ſame province, and likewiſe of Flanders; though indeed there is ſome ſmall difference between them, as it has been calculated, according to the following account, viz.

100 pound weight of Amſterdam makes at

Bruſſels, Bruges, Louvain, Bois Le Duc, Malines and Aerſchot	100
Bergen-op-Zoom	98
Namur - - - -	99
Ghent - - - -	108

The ſchippendt of Antwerp is 300 pound
The load - - - 400
The wage - - - 165
The ſtone - - - 8

Of the Weights of Paris, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

Though there is but an inconſiderable difference between the weights of Amſterdam and thoſe of France, we did not think fit to paſs it by without notice. According to the trueſt calculation, we reckon the weights of Paris 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. heavier than thoſe of Amſterdam. That is to ſay, 100 pound of Amſterdam make 92 $\frac{2}{3}$ pound of Paris; conſequently 100 pound of Paris make 101 $\frac{1}{3}$ pound of Amſterdam. The reduction of the one into the other is made in the manner mentioned above for the weights of Flanders and Holland, which is very plain.

The Weights of Rouen, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

For making the reduction of the weights of thoſe two places, you need only to take notice, that

100 pound of Amſterdam make 96 pound 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces, Viconté weight of Rouen; and

100 pound Viconté weight of Rouen make 104 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of Lyons, compared with thoſe of Holland.

We have obſerved that at Lyons they uſe two ſorts of weights, viz. the pound of 15 ounces mark for ſilks, and that of 14 ounces for other goods; and the latter being the town-weight, obſerve, that

100 pound town-weight of Lyons make 86 pound of Amſterdam, and 100 pound of Amſterdam make 116 pound town-weight of Lyons, or thereabouts. Obſerve alſo, that the weight for ſilk is $\frac{1}{15}$ greater than the town-weight: ſo they reckon, that 100 pound ſilk-weight make 108 pound town-weight, and 100 town-weight make but 98 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound ſilk weight, and a little more.

The Weights of Bourdeaux, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

Though a certain miſtaken author has averred, that 100 pound of Amſterdam make 115 of Bourdeaux, the ſame having been exactly compared, the difference was found to be only $\frac{1}{2}$ a pound or thereabouts, that the weight of Amſterdam proved heavier than that of Bourdeaux; ſo that the difference being ſo very ſmall, it will not be neceſſary to trouble the reader with further notice thereof.

The Weights of Rochelle and Nantes, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

The difference between the weights of Rochelle and thoſe of Amſterdam, is ſo inconſiderable, that ſome writers have aſſerted that they are equal; but upon a more exact enquiry, it appears,

100 pound of Amſterdam make 99 pound of Rochelle; and 100 pound of Rochelle make 101 pound of Amſterdam, or very near — The weights of Nantes are equal to thoſe of Rochelle, or but a very trifling difference.

The Weights of Toulouse, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

The weights of Alby, Cartres, Lavour, and other towns of High Languedoc, are the ſame with thoſe of Toulouſe. 100 pound of Amſterdam make 118 pound of thoſe places; and 100 of thoſe places make 84 pound $\frac{3}{4}$ of Amſterdam.

The Weights of Marseilles, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

Though it is commonly ſaid that 100 pound of Amſterdam make only 120 pound of Marſeilles; upon an exact enquiry into the matter, it appears that 100 pound of Amſterdam make 123 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Marſeilles; and

100 of Marſeilles are reckoned 300 pound of the weight of that town; and by that they commonly ſell the Levant and Turkey goods.

The Weights of Geneva, compared with thoſe of Amsterdam.

Monſ. Sebaſtian Peters, an author of Bremen in Germany, in a book he publiſhed, ſays, that 100 pound of Geneva make 113 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Amſterdam, and that 100 pound of

Amſterdam

W E I

Amſterdam make 88 pound of Geneva; but Meſſieurs Marcet, brothers, and natives of Geneva, late merchants of Amſterdam, ſay that
100 pound of Geneva make 112 $\frac{3}{8}$ pounds of Amſterdam,
And 100 pound of Amſterdam make 89 pound of Geneva.

The Weights of LONDON and DUBLIN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

They make uſe of three different ſorts of weights at London, for weighing of goods and ſilver, viz. The great hundred, the hundred, and the weight of Venice.
For what they call the great hundred, they give 112 pound; and in ſome ſorts of goods, only 104 pound, and that only to citizens of London; the ſtrangers, and ſuch Engliſhmen as are not citizens, having only 100.
But for ſpiceries, drugs for dyers, and ſome other ſuch things, ſtrangers and citizens promiſcuouſly have 112 for 100.
When ſtrangers ſell their goods, they muſt deliver them by the king's weights; but when they buy, they muſt uſe the merchants weights, which are leſs than the king's weights.
They weigh ſilver by the weight called the weight of Venice; 12 ounces of which make the mark.
According to the beſt computation, 100 pound of London make 91 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amſterdam; and 100 pound of Amſterdam make 109 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of London.
The weights of Ireland are the ſame with thoſe of England.

The Weights of SCOTLAND, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Scotland being about 4 per cent. greater than thoſe of London, the reduction muſt be made accordingly.

The Weights of BREMEN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Bremen being 3 per cent. leſs than thoſe of Amſterdam, 100 pound of Amſterdam make 103 pound of Bremen, or a little more; and 100 pound of Bremen make 96 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of HAMBURGH, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

At Hamburgh they ſell ſeveral ſorts of goods by the ſchippendt of 300 pound, or 30 ſtone of 10 pound each, to the ſchippendt; which renders at Amſterdam 294 pound.
It is to be obſerved, that at Hamburgh, retailers have the privilege to ſell any goods, not exceeding 10 pound, by the weight of Cologne, which is 2 per cent. leſs than that of Hamburgh; but wholeſale merchants muſt ſell by the weight of that place.
They have but one weight at Hamburgh, by which all goods are to be weighed; and the weighers, at their admiſſion, take an oath before the ſenate, and keep a record of all goods they weigh.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 102 pound of Hamburgh; and 100 pound of Hamburgh make 98 pound of Amſterdam, or thereabouts.

The Weights of LUBECK, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

There is about 5 per cent. difference betweeen the weights of Lubeck and thoſe of Amſterdam. For
100 pound of Amſterdam make 105 pound of Lubeck; and
100 pound of Lubeck make 95 $\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Amſterdam.
The ſchippendt of Lubeck is compoſed of 320 pound;
The ſtone, of 10 pound; and,
The liſpendt, of 16 pound.
The ſchippendt renders at Amſterdam about 305 pound.

The Weights of COPENHAGEN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The ſchippendt of Amſterdam is compoſed of 20 liſpendts, or 32 pounds; and 100 pound of Amſterdam make 101 $\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Copenhagen; and 100 pound of Copenhagen make 98 $\frac{3}{4}$ pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of BERGEN in NORWAY, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Bergen are by ſome reckoned equal to thoſe of Copenhagen, but upon ſcrutiny it has been found that there is ſome difference. For
100 pound of Amſterdam make 95 $\frac{1}{5}$ pound of Bergen; and
100 pound of Bergen make 105 pound of Amſterdam.
Some reckon the ſchippendt equal to 300 pound of Amſterdam, but it is commonly reckoned 315.

The Weights of STOCKHOLM, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The ſchippendt of Stockholm, for copper and ſuch goods, conſiſts of 320 pound; but that uſed for other commodities is reckoned 400.
The firſt renders at Amſterdam 273 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound; the laſt, 342.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 117 pound of Stockholm;
And 100 pound of Stockholm make 85 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of DANTZIC and REVEL, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

They weigh fine goods in thoſe places by the STONE of 24 pound.
Almonds, rice, wax, and ſuch other goods, are weighed by the GREAT STONE of 34 pound.
Braſs, tin, lead, and other ſuch goods, are weighed by the great hundred, of 120 pound.
16 pound, mark-weight, make 1 liſpendt.
20 liſpendts make the ſchippendt of 32 pound.
But the ſchippendt of Revel is reckoned 400 pound.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Dantzic; and
100 pound of Dantzic make 89 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of STETIN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

See what has been ſaid of the weights of Copenhagen; to which thoſe of Stetin are reckoned equal, or within a very ſmall matter.
The weights of Koningſberg conſiſt of 400 pound, or 10 ſtone of 40 pound each; and it renders at Amſterdam 306 or 307 pound.
When burghers of Koningſberg buy of ſtrangers, they allow 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 per cent. good weight.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 125 pound of Koningſberg;
And 100 pound of Koningſberg make 80 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of RIGA, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The ſchippendt of RIGA conſiſts of 20 liſpendts, and renders at Amſterdam about 330 pound.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 121 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound at Riga; and
100 pound of Riga make 82 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of FRANKFORT and NUREMBURGH, compared with thoſe of HOLLAND.

The ordinary cuſtom of Frankfort and Nuremburgh, is to allow 120, and ſometimes they allow the length of 132, to the hundred.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 98 pound of Frankfort and Nuremburgh; and
100 pound of Nuremburgh make 102 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of BERN in SWITZERLAND, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amſterdam are about 11 per cent. greater than thoſe of Bern; for
100 pound of Amſterdam make 111 pound of Bern; and
100 pound of Bern make 90 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of LEIPSIC compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The difference between the weights of theſe two places is not ſo conſiderable as ſome authors have made it, viz. 8 per cent.; for upon enquiry it appears, that
100 pound of Amſterdam make 105 pound of Leipſic; and
100 pound of Leipſic make 95 $\frac{1}{4}$ of Amſterdam.

The Weights of NAUMBURGH and HALL, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

There being but a very inconſiderable difference, if any at all, between the weights of theſe two places, and thoſe of Leipſic, I refer the reader to what is ſaid thereof before.

The Weights of BRESLAW in SILESIA, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The difference between the weights of thoſe two places is very conſiderable, being, according to the exacteſt computation, no leſs than 25 per cent. So that
100 pound of Amſterdam make 125 pound of Breſlaw; and
100 pound of Breſlaw make 80 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of COLOGNE, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amſterdam are 4 per cent. greater than thoſe of Cologne. So that
100 pound of Amſterdam make 104 pound of Cologne; and
100 pound of Cologne make 96 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of LIEGE, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amſterdam have likewiſe the advantage of thoſe of Liege, about 5 per cent. or little more; for
100 pound of Amſterdam make 105 $\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Liege; and
100 pound of Liege make 95 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of GENOA, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

At Genoa they uſe five different ſorts of weights in buying and ſelling goods.
The firſt they call the GREAT-WEIGHTS, which are uſed in the cuſtom-houſe.

The

The ſecond they call CASH-WEIGHTS, being what they weigh the piaſtres, and other ſilver ſpecies, with.
The third they call QUINTERO, which is the common-hundred, uſed for bulky goods.
The fourth they call the GREAT BALANCE, by which they weigh raw and unwrought ſilks. And
The fifth they call the SMALL BALANCE, for weighing fine goods.

They reckon that 90 4/5 rotoli, great-weight,
or 66 2/3 rotoli, caſh-weight,
or 100 rotoli, common-weight,
or 144 pound, great-ballance,
or 153 pound, ſmall-ballance,
make 100 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of LEGHORNE, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The pound of Leghorne conſiſts of 12 ounces, mark-weight. They commonly ſell goods by the quintero, which in ſome caſes is reckoned 150, in ſome 151, and in ſome caſes 160 pound.
And ſometimes they ſell by the thouſand.
Wool and fiſh are ſold by the quintero, of 160 pound.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 145 pound of Leghorne; and
100 pound of Leghorne make 69 pound of Amſterdam.
And you may likewiſe obſerve, that
100 pound of Leghorne make 85 pound of Marſeilles; and
100 pound of Marſeilles make 117 3/4 pound of Leghorne.

The Weights of MILAN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The pound of Amſterdam makes 1 pound 11 ounces of Milan, or a little more.
The pound of Milan makes 9 1/2 ounces of Amſterdam, or a little more. So that
100 pound of Amſterdam make 168 pound of Milan; and
100 pound of Milan make 59 1/2 pound of Amſterdam.
Some authors have made the difference greater, but this account is conformable to the exacteſt computation.

The Weights of VENICE, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

At Venice they uſe two ſorts of weights, one for wholeſale bargains, the other for retail; and the difference between theſe weights is very conſiderable.
For 100 pound, wholeſale groſs weights, make 158 pound, retail weights; and
100 pound ſmall or retail weights, make but 63 1/2 pound, groſs weights.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 166 pound, ſmall weights of Venice; and
100 pound, ſmall weights of Venice, make 60 pound of Amſterdam.
They alſo commonly reckon that 100 pound of Marſeilles make 134 pound, ſmall weights of Venice.
The mark of Venice, both at the mint and among the goldſmiths, is reckoned 8 ounces, and the ounce 144 carats.
They likewiſe divide the ounce into 4 quarters, and the quarter into 36 carats, 1152 of which compoſe the mark.
Gold and ſilver thread is weighed by the ounce of 132 carats; whereas the ſmall ounce conſiſts only of 120; and the carat is compoſed of 4 grains: for though one of thoſe weights be heavier than the other, they are both divided in the ſame manner.
Spiceries are ſold by the load of 400 pound, ſmall weights.

The weights of NAPLES and BERGEN, compared with thoſe of HOLLAND.

As there is little or no difference at all between the weights of Naples and Bergen, I have comprehended them both in one article.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 169 pound of Naples, &c.
And 100 pound of Naples, &c. make 59 pound of Amſterdam.

The Weights of SPAIN, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The arobe of Seville and Cadiz conſiſts of 25 pound, and 4 arobes make the quintal, the pound being reckoned of 17 ounces.
But the quintal for iron is reckoned at Bilboa and St Sebaſtian's 155 pound, the pound conſiſting of 16 ounces.

100 pound of Amſt. make { 106 pound of Seville and Cadiz, and 108 pound of Alicant; and

100 pound of Seville and Cadiz make 94 1/2 pound of Amſterdam, or a little more.
And 100 pound of Alicant make 92 1/2 pound of Amſterdam, or a little more.

The Weights of PORTUGAL, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

The arobe of Portugal conſiſts of 32 pound, which render between 28 and 29 pound of Amſterdam; and 4 arobes make the quintal.
100 pound of Amſterdam make 114 1/2 pound of Liſbon, or a little more; and
100 pound of Liſbon make 87 1/2 pound of Amſterdam, or a little more.

The Weights of CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, LEYDA, ALEPPO, and SICILY, compared with thoſe of AMSTERDAM.

100 rota's of Conſtantinople and Smyrna make 114 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rota's or damaſquins of Leyda, make 380 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rota's or acres of Leyda make 486 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rota's of Aleppo, for coarſe goods, make 455 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rota's of Aleppo, for Perſian ſilks, make 430 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rota's of Aleppo, for white ſilks, make 440 pound of Amſterdam.
100 rotolo's of Sicily make 162 pound of Amſterdam.
See our article MEASURES.

WESTMORELAND is an inland county, and has Lancaſhire on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt; Cumberland on the weſt and north-weſt; and Yorkſhire and the biſhopric of Durham on the eaſt and north-eaſt; and is about 120 miles in compaſs.

Its air is ſweet, healthful, and pleaſant, but ſomewhat ſharp in the mountainous parts; the vallies are pretty fruitful, eſpecially in the meadows near the rivers; and the northern parts afford plenty of arable land, which bears good ſtore of corn.

Among the mountains, in the ſouth part of the country, lies Winander Mere, ſaid to be the greateſt lake in England: it is about 10 miles in length, and ſaid to be of a vaſt depth in ſome parts of it, and well ſtored with the chare, a ſort of fiſh rarely found, except among the Alps, and is reckoned a ſort of golden Alpine trout; it is baked in pots, and ſo ſent to London, and other parts.

The Ulles-Water is another lake well ſtocked with fiſh, and has ſome chares too, but not in ſuch plenty as the other.

APPLEBY is the county town, but is neither rich nor beautiful. It has the beſt corn market in all theſe northern parts.

KENDAL, upon the river Can, is much ſuperior to Appleby in trade, buildings, and the number and wealth of the inhabitants, and is indeed the largeſt town in the county, being inriched by the induſtry of the townſmen, and the woollen manufacture, with which they have drove a trade throughout England for ſome ages. It is of note, alſo, for the manufactures of cottons, druggets, ſerges, hats, worſted and yarn ſtockings, &c.

KIRBY LONSDALE, the chief town of Lonſdale, i. e. a vale upon the Lone, is a pretty large town, with a woollen manufacture.

KIRBY STEPHEN, on the river Eden, is noted for weaving yarn ſtockings.

AMBLESIDE is another town noted for a manufacture of cloth. It ſtands on the upper corner of Winander Mere.

MILTHORP, at the mouth of the Can, is the only ſea-port town in the county, commodities being brought hither in ſmall veſſels from Grange in Lancaſhire.

WESTPHALIA in Germany. This circle ſtretches along the weſt ſide of the Weſer, from the German Ocean on the north, to Heſſia on the ſouth, and between Lower Saxony on the eaſt, and the Netherlands on the weſt. The air, eſpecially in the north part, is very cold, and great part of the ſoil marſhy and barren; however, it has plenty of corn and paſture, but the fruit is very ordinary, and uſed chiefly to feed the hogs, which are numerous, and of an excellent kind; ſo that the bacon they ſend abroad is very much eſteemed. It is divided into ſeveral dominions or provinces.

OSNABRUG, which is the capital of the biſhopric of that name, is a neat well-built city: the inhabitants, who are very induſtrious, not only breed abundance of hogs and other cattle, but have a conſiderable trade in making linen, in brewing a palatable, though thick ſort of beer, called buſe, and in baking the beſt white bread in Weſtphalia.

OLDENBURG has a good trade by barges, which come up from the Weſer to its bridge.

PYRMONT, famous for its mineral waters, lies on the borders of Hanover. It is the capital of a county. There is a great reſort of German and other nobility hither to drink the waters, which are preferred even to thoſe of the Spa, and exported far abroad from Bremen, to which they are carried by the Weſer.

LUDE is of note alſo for its medicinal fountain, for which it is much frequented: this commonly goes by the name of Pyrmont water.

HOXTER, on the river Weſer, is a fair conſiderable trading town.

SOEST is a populous city on the river Arſe, but having no trade, is not very rich.

DORTMUND, though a ſmall place, is rich and populous, having

ing a pretty good trade, and communication with the Rhine by its river Empſer.

CLEVE, the metropolis of the duchy of that name, is ſo called from its ſituation among cliffs, and on the declivity of a hill, between the Rhine and the Maeſe, is one of the fineſt countries of Germany. It is now ſmall, but well built and peopled. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of its caſtle, is navigable by ſmall veſſels to the Rhine.

EMMERICK is a large, rich, beautiful town, pleaſantly ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, and has a pretty good trade.

CALCAR, on the river Men, which falls into the Rhine, ſoon after it was built grew populous and rich, by a trade in linen; but ſince one of its dukes built a vaſt granary here, for the boors to bring their corn to, it has been more conſiderable for making malt and beer.

ESEL, called NETHER WESEL, to diſtinguiſh it from Upper Weſel, in the electorate of Treves, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, near the mouth of the river Lippe. It is not only a large and well-built town, but populous, and well ſeated for trade. It grew rich by the concourſe of merchants, who fled hither from the perſecution in the Spaniſh Netherlands.

DUISBURG is a ſmall city on the Roer, which falls a little lower into the Rhine. Fairs were held in the town formerly, which brought a great trade to it, but are ſince removed to Frankfort.

DUSSELDORP has its name from the little river Duſſel, that here falls into the Rhine. The town is large and well built. Here are three weekly markets for corn, which is imported hither from the Low Countries, and exported in great quantities to Cologne, and other parts of Germany.

SOLINGEN, a ſmall city on the river Wipper, is only noted for making good cutlers ware.

AKEN, by the French called AIX LA CHAPELLE, is of chief note, and greatly frequented on account of its baths.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and paſturage. They have alſo rich coal-mines, beſides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ſulphur, and lapis calaminaris, and are well ſupplied with neceſſaries by the Rhine and Maeſe.

WETTERAW in Germany. This is the general name of the county that lies between Heſſe on the north, the river Nayne on the ſouth, the Rhine on the weſt, and the county of Reineck on the eaſt. The principal dominions of it are,

The county of NASSAU, which is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia; on the weſt by Berg, Triers, and the Rhine; on the eaſt by Heſſe and Solms; and the electorate of Mentz on the ſouth. The ſoil and product of it is various. In ſeveral parts they have good mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals.

DILEMBERG on the river Dilla, has a good trade in cattle and woollen goods.

SIGEN, near which there is a very good iron mine, ſtands on the river Siega.

EMBS is noted for its baths.

HERBORN, upon the river Dilla, is a city of a pretty good trade in cotton and woollen cloths.

WISBADEN is an ancient large town frequented by reaſon of famous hot baths in it, from whence it has the name.

HANAU, the capital of a county or diviſion ſo called, ſtands pleaſantly on the river Kintz, and is reckoned one of the neateſt and moſt regularly built towns in Germany: it is much frequented by merchants of ſeveral nations, particularly the French and Dutch. The Walloons here have eſtabliſhed ſeveral manufactures, viz. woollen ſtuffs, ſnuff, &c.

But the chief of the imperial and free cities in Wetteraw, of which it is the capital, is FRANKFORT. It is a large, populous, and rich city; it has a great trade by the Mayne and the Rhine, and ſeveral other rivers which fall into them, and is very well ſituate for bringing corn and wine in abundance from the Palatinate and Franconia. It has two annual fairs, frequented by merchants with all ſorts of commodities, particularly books from moſt parts of Europe, of which they diſtribute printed catalogues; ſo that there is greater choice here than in any other town in Chriſtendom, during their mart, which laſts three weeks.

On the north ſide of the city is a ſpacious horſe-fair or market, where a vaſt number of good horſes are ſold to the French king, and the neighbouring princes, particularly the former, who buys ſome thouſands in a year to remount his cavalry. The Jews are the chief jockies.

WILTSHIRE is bounded on the weſt with Somerſetſhire, on the eaſt with Berkſhire and Hampſhire, on the north with Glouceſterſhire, and on the ſouth with Dorſetſhire and part of Hampſhire, and is 140 miles in circumference.

The air is very ſweet and healthy. The ſoil of its vales is very fruitful, and affords great quantity of as good cheeſe as any in England; and though that of the hills is in ſome places chalky, and barren enough, yet its cheapneſs makes it beneficial to the neighbouring farmers, ſome hundreds of acres having been rented at a groat an acre. But the numerous flocks of ſheep fed there, turn much more to the profit of the proprietors. And the abundance of wool thereby produced, invited the inhabitants to fall very much into the clothing trade; and the beſt broad cloths, both white and dyed, in England, are made in the weſt and north parts of this county, and indeed in the ſouth and eaſt parts too, but not in ſuch quantities.

SALISBURY is a large, well-built, pleaſant city. Beſides the manufacture of flannels, druggets, and the cloths in particular, called Saliſbury whites, for the Turkey trade, here is a conſiderable trade in bone-lace; and partly by thoſe commodities, and by its markets, fairs, &c. it may be looked upon as flouriſhing a city as any in the kingdom, that depends entirely upon a home trade.

HINDON is a ſmall old borough towards the borders of Dorſetſhire. Its market is chiefly for cattle, and its manufacture a ſort of fine twiſt, which employs even the children of the poor.

WESTBURY is another ſmall borough. Its chief manufacture is coarſe broad cloth.

CALNE is a ſmall, but populous well-built town. Its chief manufacture alſo is cloth.

DEVIZES is an old-built town. Its chief trade, beſides malting, is the woollen manufacture, eſpecially druggets, and its market is much frequented for corn, wool, horſes, and all ſorts of cattle.

CHIPPENHAM, on the river Avon, is a large, populous, well-built town. The chief manufacture here is cloth; but its main ſupports are, its market, and its thoroughfare between London and Briſtol.

MALMSBURY is a neat town, and carries on a conſiderable trade in the woollen manufacture.

MARLBOROUGH is an ancient borough; but the chief tradeſmen are ſhopkeepers, there being few manufacturers.

TROWBRDGE is alſo an ancient town, in the weſt part of the county. The chief manufacture is broad cloth, and, for moſt part, of the fine ſort, made with Spaniſh wool; and ſome clothiers have formerly got great eſtates.

BRADFORD is alſo noted, as well as Trowbridge, Melkſham and other adjacent towns, for the fineſt broad cloths, of which ſo many were made about 40 years ago, when the trade was in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, that it was no extraordinary thing for clothiers hereabouts to be worth from 10,000 to 40,000l. and many of the gentry of theſe parts have been originally raiſed from this truly noble manufacture.

COSHAM is a pleaſant village. The woollen manufacture is the chief employment and ſupport of this place, here being ſome conſiderable clothiers.

WARMINSTER has a flouriſhing market for corn, and the malt trade here is greater than in any other town in the weſt of England; Briſtol, and many places in Somerſetſhire, being ſupplied with it from hence. Here is alſo a conſiderable trade in wool and cloth.

WINE is made of the expreſſed juice of the grape, which immediately after the preſſure is called muſt, and being fermented, becomes wine*. The fermentation cauſes a ſeparation of the groſs tartar, and the viſcous part of the muſt from the pure ſuphureous and oily ones, in which are the ſpirit and eſſential ſalt. The ſolid part of the tartar adheres to the ſides of the veſſel, and the viſcous fall to the bottom.

* The difference of flavour, taſte, colour, and body in wines, is, perhaps, as much owing to the different manner and time of preſſing, gathering, fermenting, &c. the grape, as to any difference in the grape itſelf. In Hungary, whence tockay, and ſome of the richeſt and higheſt flavoured wines come, they are extremely curious in theſe reſpects: for their prime and moſt delicate wines, the grape is ſuffered to continue upon the vine, 'till it is half dried by the heat of the ſun; and if the ſun's heat ſhould not prove ſufficient, they are dried by the gentle heat of a furnace, and then picked one by one from the ſtalks. The juice of this grape, when preſſed out, is of a fine flavour, and ſweet as ſugar: this, after due fermentation, is kept for a year, and then racked from the lees, when it proves a generous, oily, rich wine, and is ſold at a very high rate.

The Hungarians prepare a ſecond ſort of wine, by collecting together the better kind of grapes, carefully picking the fruit from the ſtalks, and then preſſing out the juice: this is extremely ſweet, and is made richer by infuſing in it, after it has fermented for ſome days, a ſufficient quantity of half dried grapes. This wine is very ſweet, oily, of a grateful taſte, and retains theſe qualities for a long time. There is a third ſort, made from the pure juice of the ſame kind of grape without any addition. This is a more briſk and lively wine, and far leſs ſweet. They likewiſe prepare a fourth ſort, from grapes of different goodneſs mixed together: this, though not ſo generous, is nevertheleſs an excellent wine. Theſe Hungarian wines are remarkable for preſerving their ſweetneſs, and for the delicacy of their taſte and ſmell: they likewiſe do not grow eaſily vapid, and may be kept in perfection for many years.

The practice of the Hungarians, which we have extracted from Hoffman's obſervations, fairly points out a method of improving muſt, or the juice of the grape, ſo as to make it of any aſſignable degree of richneſs and ſtrength; and the celebrated Dr Stahl has given us another method of improving poor, thin wines, ſo as to make them ſtrong and full bodied, without any ways altering their natural flavour or taſte.

This he effects by expoſing a quantity of the liquor, in proper veſſels, to the action of a cold, freezing air, which ſoon congealing the watery parts alone, ſuffers the richer to be poured from them. By this means, the product of our own country, cyder, may be made of ſuch a degree of ſtrength and richneſs, as to equal, if not to exceed, the ſtrongeſt bodied wines, and to ſtand the alternatives of the winter's cold, and the ſummer's ſun, without alteration; and if as much care was taken in the culture, choice, and management of the fruit, and particularly in the preſſure, and ſlow wary fermentation of the juice, there is good reaſon to expect, that the flavour and taſte would not fall far ſhort even of the more excellent wines. See Stahlii Zymotectin. fund. Opuſc. Phyſico-Med. Schediaſma commendans concentrationem vini aliorumque, and Dr Shaw's Comment on this Tract, in his third Eſſay in artificial Philoſophy. Miller's Gardeners Dictionary.

The ſharp ſprightly wines, Champaigne, Burgundy, Nants, Bourdeaux, &c. being moſt impregnated with eſſential ſalt, yield more ſpirit than ſweet Spaniſh and Muſcate wines, becauſe they are more loaded with a viſcous ſubſtance *.

* The principles of wines are, an inflammable ſpirit, a phlegm or watery liquor, an acid ſalt or tartar, and a ſulphureous oily ſubſtance. Wines, therefore, greatly differ in their taſte, ſmell, and virtue, according to the various proportions and manner in which theſe principles are combined. There is in ſome wines another principle, which is a ſoft, oily, mild, viſcid, ſweet ſubſtance; and is particularly obſervable in ſack, Frontiniac, and the more generous kinds of Hungarian wine. The ſulphureous, oily principle, is more ſubtile and grateful in ſome wines, than in others: thus Rheniſh and Hungarian wines yield a far more delicate and ſubtile ſpirit, than thoſe of France and Miſnia: the very ſmell of good old Rheniſh wine, has a remarkable effect in refreſhing the ſpirits. Nor is the acid principle, or tartar, leſs different in wines: ſome abound with it, while others have it more ſparingly, but of a more ſubtile kind, as the Spaniſh wines: the tartar of ſome wines, particularly that of Moſelle, has a bitteriſh, nitrous taſte, whence they are held to be laxative and diuretic.

REMARKS.

The great expence to which this nation is put for foreign wines, ſhould induce us, methinks, to make our utmoſt efforts to try whether we cannot amply ſupply ourſelves with this commodity, of which we are ſo fond; eſpecially ſince ſome of thoſe countries from which we take great quantities of wine, have begun to take leſs and leſs of our Britiſh manufacture: wherefore, to retaliate upon them in their own way, may not be impolitic.

It is commonly objected againſt this attempt, that our climate will not admit hereof to any conſiderable degree. I am afraid, that has never been effectually tried; but if it has not, for want of proper management, ſucceeded upon the grape, I am inclined to believe, that we have many other productions in Great-Britain, that will afford exceeding good wines.

It has, however, been reported for theſe twelve months paſt, that ſeveral gentlemen in different parts of England, are going on in the planting and improving of vineyards, ſome wines having been made in this kingdom of good ſtrength, and of a more delicate flavour than the beſt growths of France. It is greatly to be wiſhed they may meet with ſucceſs, ſince the nation pays ſuch ſums for thoſe liquors, as tend to impoveriſh us, and augment the ſtrength of our rivals. Another, and a greater conſideration is, the health of the drinkers; for moſt foreign wines are ſophiſticated; whereas it will not be the intereſt of the Engliſh planter to ſophiſticate his wine, as he would thereby loſe his credit, and the ſale of it.

But if Great-Britain nor Ireland ſhould be found to afford good wines ſufficient for our own conſumption, might not our own plantations anſwer the end effectually? Certainly they might; but we have not room to ſhew how that may be effectually done. Some other opportunities may poſſibly hereafter offer.

WISBUY LAWS of COMMERCE and NAVIGATION.

Before we repreſent the laws of Wiſbuy, we ſhall give ſome account of Gothland, and that city, the capital of it, once famous for trade above all the cities in the north. The iſle of Gothland is ſituated by the Gothic Sea, in the dioceſe of Licopen. It formerly belonged to the king of Sweden, but was afterwards annexed to the crown of Denmark.

According to Johannes Magnus, a Gothic hiſtorian, book 23. chap 2. it was ſo called for the goodneſs of the country; for GOTH ſignifies GOOD: and Olaus Magnus, book 2. ſays it deſerves that name for many reaſons. There are ſeveral very fine ports in it, whoſe entrances are ſafe and eaſy: it is rich in cattle, of which it feeds prodigious numbers; abounds in veniſon, fiſh, foreſts, woods, pitch, tar, and fine marble. In the north-eaſt part of the iſland, was a very fair and noble ſea-port town called Wiſbuy, built by foreigners, who came to live in the country: upon which account the citizens of Wiſbuy had frequent quarrels with the Gothlanders, or inhabitants of the country, of whom they made a terrible ſlaughter in the year 1288. After which the citizens, to defend themſelves againſt their enemies, obtained a permiſſion, from Magnus king of Sweden, to wall their city, and erect baſtions, and other fortifications. They flouriſhed more and more, and grew great by their trade and navigation, to which they entirely gave themſelves up: inſomuch that this town was a long while the axis and moſt celebrated market of Europe, there being no city ſo full of merchants, and ſo famous for its commerce. Hither came Swedes, Ruſſians, Danes, Pruſſians, Livonians, Germans, Finlanders, Vandals, Flemings, Saxons, Engliſh, Scots, and French, to trade. Each nation had their quarter, and particularly ſtreets for their ſhops and warehouſes. All ſtrangers were ſafe and welcome there, and enjoyed the ſame privileges as the townſmen themſelves. The magiſtrates of this city had the juriſdiction, or rather the arbitrament, of all cauſes or ſuits relating to ſea affairs. Their ordinances were ſubmitted to in all ſuch caſes, and paſſed for juſt on all the coaſts of Europe, from Muſcovy to the Mediterranean. Thus much we have taken from Olaus Magnus, lib. 10. cap. 16. and baron Herbeſtain In Rerum Muſcovitarum Commentario, p. 118. In the courſe of time, this town was entirely deſtroyed, except the citadel, which ſtands to this day. The Gothic hiſtorians do not tell us when nor how its deſtruction came upon it, only that it was through civil diſſenſions which aroſe from trifles, but occaſioned great factions; which ſet them ſo againſt one another, that it ended in the entire ruin of them all, city and citizens. The ruins of it are now to be ſeen, and under them are often found tables of marble, porphyry, and jaſper, witneſſes of the ancient ſplendor and magnificence of the citizens. The houſes were covered with copper, the windows gilt with gold, and all that is ſaid or that is diſcovered of it, ſhews the ineſtimable riches of the inhabitants in times paſt. The citizens who ſurvived the ruin of the city, retired to the country of the Vandals and Eaſtern Saxons, who were enriched with the wealth of theſe refugees. Albert king of Sweden rebuilt it, and granted great privileges to all that ſhould come and inhabit it: but it never could recover its trade and former magnificence.

It was in this city of Wiſbuy that the ſea laws and ordinances, which the Swedes brought into credit, were compoſed; they were received as righteous and juſt, and are kept in the Teutonic language till now. The Germans, Swedes, Danes, Flemings, and all the people of the north obſerve them: but none have been ſo curious, as to preſerve the date and the remembrance of the time when they were compoſed and publiſhed.

ARTICLE I.

Whatever mariner, whether pilot, mate, or ſailor, binds or hires himſelf to a maſter, if he afterwards leaves him, he ſhall refund what wages he has received; and beſides that, pay half as much as the maſter had promiſed him for the whole voyage. And if a mariner has hired himſelf to two ſeveral maſters, the firſt that hired him may claim him, and force him to ſerve him. Nevertheleſs, he ſhall not be obliged to pay him any wages at all for the whole voyage, unleſs he does it of his own good-will.

ARTICLE II.

Every pilot, mate, or mariner, that does not underſtand his buſineſs, ſhall be obliged to repay to the maſter whatever wages he had advanced him, and be beſides bound to pay half as much more as he had promiſed him.

ARTICLE III.

A maſter may turn off a mariner, without any lawful cauſe given, before he ſets ſail, paying him half what he had promiſed him for the voyage. After he has ſet ſail, and is gone out of his port, that maſter who turns off a mariner without lawful cauſe given, is obliged to pay him all his wages, as much as if he had performed the voyage.

ARTICLE IV.

No mariner ſhall lie or ſtay a night aſhore without the maſter's leave, on pain of forfeiting two deniers, nor ſhall he unmoor the ſhip's boat in the night, under the ſame penalty. By deniers here are underſtood, thoſe of which 24 make an ounce of ſilver. The double deniers are now called carolus's, or grand blancs, by the French and other nations.

ARTICLE V.

The mariners ſhall have three deniers a laſt for loading and three for unloading, which is to be reckoned only as their wages for guindage or hoiſing *. Theſe duties are never fixed on account of the dearneſs of proviſions and the value of money, which changes and increaſes daily. The rate of guindage or reguindage, is commonly in France five ſols a laſt, which is two ſols ſix deniers Tournois a ton.

* i. e. Loading or unloading.

ARTICLE VI.

It is not lawful to arreſt or impriſon the maſter, pilot, or mariners of a ſhip, in an action of debt, when they are ready to ſail; but the creditor may ſeize and ſell any thing he finds in the ſhip, that belongs to his debtor. L. 1. de Navicularíis, lib. iv. cod.

ARTICLE VII.

A ſhip being freighted for all the ſummer, the ſeaſon ſhall end on the feaſt of St Martin, or the 11th of November.

ARTICLE VIII.

Whoever ſhall make uſe of another man's lighter, without his leave, ſhall pay the owner four ſols a day, unleſs it was in a caſe of neceſſity, as of fire, or the like.

ARTICLE IX.

If any one has occaſion to have a debt witneſſed, he need not carry ſtrangers aboard, but may make uſe of the people in the ſhip. The ſame he may do in all acts where witneſſes are neceſſary, lib. 10. cod.

ARTICLE X.

It is not lawful to ſell or mortgage a veſſel let out to freight, but it is lawful to freight it or underlett it to others for the ſame time, and the ſame voyage. The words of this article are, de la frotter ou ſous louer a d'autres pour le meſme temps, & pour meſme voyage: which we think we have rendered right, notwithſtanding the difficulty there ſeems to be in the ſenſe, or the equity of this law.

ARTICLE XI.

If a ſhip that was freighted for a voyage is ſent upon another longer than that, or upon ſeveral voyages, if there's no proteſtation or diſſent entered againſt it, the freighter ſhall pay but half the damage that may happen to the ſhip in ſuch longer voyage or voyages.

ARTICLE XII.

If a maſt, ſail, or any other tackling is unfortunately loſt when the ſhip is under ſail, or otherwiſe, the loſs ſhall not be brought into an average. But if the maſter is obliged to cut his maſt by the board, or ſpoil any of his tackling for the preſervation of the ſhip, the bottom and the cargo ſhall make good the damage by an average.

ARTICLE XIII.

The maſter ſhall not ſell the ſhip, nor any part of her tackling, without the conſent of the owners; but if he wants victuals, he may pawn his cables and cordage, always obſerving to have the advice of the mariners.

ARTICLE XIV.

The maſter being in port, ought not to depart and ſet ſail without the advice and conſent of the major part of the mariners: if he does, and there happens any loſs, he is bound to make ſatisfaction.

ARTICLE XV.

The mariners are obliged, to the utmoſt of their power, to ſave and preſerve the merchandize, and for doing it ought to be paid their wages, but not otherwiſe. It is not lawful for the maſter to ſell the ſhip's cordage, without the conſent of the owners or factors; but he is bound to preſerve all, as much as in him lies, on pain of making ſatisfaction.

ARTICLE XVI.

The mariners are obliged to ſave as much as they can, and the merchants may take away their goods, paying the freight, or ſatisfying the maſter: otherwiſe the ſaid maſter may fit out his ſhip, if he can do it in a little time, in order to accompliſh his voyage: if he cannot do it, he may relade his merchandize upon other veſſels bound for the port to which he was to carry them, paying freight.
There is ſome difficulty in this article alſo, and, perhaps, the error is in the French verſion; we not underſtanding the Teutonic, which is the original, and making uſe of the tranſlation printed by authority at Roan.

ARTICLE XVII.

The mariners ſhall not go out of the ſhip without leave of the maſter, on pain of paying the damage that may happen in their abſence, unleſs it is when the ſhip lies aſhore, moored

with four cables: in ſuch caſe, they may go out of her for a little time, taking care not to tranſgreſs in it.

ARTICLE XVIII.

A mariner being aſhore in the maſter's or the ſhip's ſervice, if he ſhould happen to be wounded, he ſhall be maintained and cured at the charge of the ſhip: but if he goes aſhore on his own head, to be merry and divert himſelf, or otherwiſe, and happens to be w unded, the maſter may turn him off, and the mariner ſhall be obliged to refund what he has received, and, beſides, to pay what the maſter ſhall be forced to pay over and above to another whom he ſhall hire in his place.

ARTICLE XIX.

If a ſeaman falls ill of any diſeaſe, and it is convenient to put him aſhore, he ſhall be fed as he was aboard, and have ſome body to look after him there, and, when he is recovered, be paid his wages; and, if he dies, his wages ſhall be paid to his widow or heirs.

ARTICLE XX.

If, by ſtreſs of weather, it is thought neceſſary to throw any goods overboard, to lighten the ſhip, and the ſupercargoes or merchants aboard will not conſent to it, the merchandize ſhall nevertheleſs be thrown overboard, if the reſt of the people aboard think it ſafeſt to do ſo: in ſuch caſe, as ſoon as the ſhip puts into port, a third part of the mariners muſt go aſhore, and purge themſelves by oath, that they were forced to do it for the preſervation of their own lives, the ſhip, and the reſt of the cargo. The merchandize ſo thrown overboard ſhall be brought into a groſs average, and be rated at the ſame price the other merchandize of the ſame ſort that was ſaved was ſold for.

ARTICLE XXI.

Before the maſter throws any goods overboard, he is bound, in the abſence of the merchant, to aſk the pilot and mariners advice; and the loſs ſhall be made good by contribution, the ſhip and cargo being accountable towards it.

ARTICLE XXII.

The maſter and mariners are obliged to ſhew the merchant the cordage that is uſed for hoiſing his goods in and out of the ſhip; if he does not do it, and there happens any accident, they ſhall ſtand to the loſs; but if the merchant has ſeen and approved of it, the damage he ſuſtains ſhall be borne by himſelf.

ARTICLE XXIII.

If a ſhip is ill trimmed, and it happens that the wine ſhe has aboard is loſt, through the maſter's ignorance or negligence in governing her, the ſaid maſter is bound to pay for it: but if the mariners clear him upon oath, the leakage or loſs ſhall be borne by the merchant.

ARTICLE XXIV.

No man ſhall fight, or give another the lie aboard; he who offends in this kind, ſhall pay four deniers; and if the mariner gives the maſter the lie, he ſhall pay eight deniers: but he who ſtrikes him ſhall pay 100 ſols, or loſe his hand. If the maſter gives the lie, he ſhall pay eight deniers; if he ſtrikes, he ought to receive blow for blow.
Loſe his hand: this was a common puniſhment among the Scythians, and the people of the north. Lucianus de Toxari. And alſo among thoſe in the eaſt. Harmonopulus de Pœnis.

ARTICLE XXV.

The maſter may turn off a mariner for a lawful cauſe; but if the ſaid mariner compenſates for his fault, and the maſter nevertheleſs refuſes to admit him again, the mariner may follow the ſhip to her deſtined port, and he ſhall be paid his wages as much as if he had made the voyage in the ſame ſhip: if the maſter hires a leſs able ſeaman in his place, and there happens any damage by it, the maſter is to make good the loſs.

ARTICLE XVI.

If a ſhip riding at anchor in a harbour is ſtruck by another ſhip which runs againſt her, driven by the wind or current, and the ſhip ſo ſtruck receives damage, either in her hulk or cargo, the two ſhips ſhall jointly ſtand to the loſs. But if the ſhip that ſtruck againſt the other might have avoided it, if it was done by the maſter on purpoſe, or by his fault, he alone ſhall make ſatisfaction. The reaſon is, that ſome maſters who have old crazy ſhips, may willingly lie in other ſhips way, that they may be damnified or ſunk, and ſo have more than they were worth for them: on which account this law provides, That the damage ſhall be divided, and paid equally

by the two ſhips, to oblige both to take care, and keep clear of ſuch accidents as much as they can.

ARTICLE XXVII.

A ſhip being at anchor in a harbour, where there is ſo little water that ſhe touches, another ſhip comes and anchors near her; if the ſhip's company of the former veſſel require thoſe of the latter to take up their anchor, becauſe it is too near them, and they do not do it, the former may take it up themſelves; and if the latter hinders them, they ſhall make ſatisfaction for all the damage that may happen by that anchor.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

No maſter of a ſhip ſhall lie at anchor in a haven without faſtening a buoy to his anchor, to give notice to others where it is: if he omits to do ſo, and any damage is ſuſtained by it, he is obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XXIX.

In any voyage, where wine is the trade, the maſter is obliged to find the ſeamen with it, and then he may give them but one meal a day: but where it is not to be had, and the mariners drink water, he ſhall give them two meals a day.

ARTICLE XXX.

When a ſhip is let out to freight, the maſter ought to aſſign and ſhew the ſeamen where they are to have the ſtowage that belongs to them; and they muſt declare whether they will load it themſelves, or will let the maſter freight it with the reſt of the ſhip, and be paid for their proportion.

ARTICLE XXXI.

A ſhip being arrived at her deſtined port, thoſe ſeamen who would be paid their wages there, if they have no cheſt nor bedding, or other moveables aboard, equivalent to their wages, they muſt give the maſter ſecurity that they will ſerve out the reſt of the voyage, and ſee it compleated, or he may refuſe to pay them before.

ARTICLE XXXII.

Thoſe ſeamen who bargained for a certain proportion of the ſhip's freight, inſtead of wages in money, in caſe freight is not to be had for her when ſhe arrives at the port for which ſhe was bound, and ſhe muſt go further in queſt of it, they muſt go with her: but thoſe ſeamen who agreed to be paid in money, ſhall have their wages there.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

When a ſhip is ſafe at anchor, the ſeamen may go aſhore, one after another, or two together, and carry ſufficient meat and bread with them for one meal, but no drink: nor muſt they ſtay any longer time aſhore; for if, through their abſence, any damage happens to the ſhip or goods, they are obliged to make ſatisfaction. And if any one of the crew is wounded, or comes by any other ill accident in doing the merchant's buſineſs, the merchant is bound to cure him, and indemnify the maſter, pilot, and mariners.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

A ſhip being let out to hire, to a merchant to freight her, and he agrees to load her in a certain time, if he fails, and exceeds that time fifteen days, or more, and by this means the maſter loſes his opportunity to freight his ſhip, the ſaid merchant ſhall make him ſatisfaction for his delays, and pay his damages and intereſt, a quarter of which belongs to the mariners, and three quarters to the maſter.

ARTICLE XXXV.

If the maſter, being upon his voyage, wants money, he muſt ſend home for it, but ought not to loſe a fair opportunity of proceeding; if he does, he ſhall ſatisfy the merchant for all the damage he may ſuſtain by his delay: but, in caſe of great neceſſity, he may ſell part of the merchandizes, and, when he arrives at his deſtined port, he ſhall pay the merchant for them, at the ſame price the reſt was ſold at, and the merchant ſhall pay freight as well for the merchandizes the maſter ſold, as for thoſe he delivered him.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

When the maſter arrives in a port, he ſhould be careful to place his ſhip well, to moor her well; for if, by his neglect in this, the merchandize aboard receives any damage, he is obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

If a ſhip has been in a ſtorm, and the merchant, maſter, or crew, think ſhe ought to be refitted, to enable her to continue her voyage, they may do it, and then proceed: however, the maſter ſhall be paid his freight for the goods ſaved, which are for the merchant's profit only. If the merchant has no money, and the maſter will not give him credit, he may take his merchandize in payment, at the market-price.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

The maſter ſhall not throw any goods overboard, without firſt conſulting the merchant; and if the merchant will not conſent to it, yet if two or three of the moſt experienced mariners think it neceſſary, they may be thrown overboard, but the mariners muſt ſwear they thought it was expedient ſo to do. If there is no merchant or factor aboard, the maſter and major part of the mariners may lawfully reſolve upon what is fit to be done.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

The merchandize thrown overboard ſhall be valued in the average, at the price the reſt was ſold for, freight only deducted.

ARTICLE XL.

The maſter, in the average, ſhall pay his proportion for the goods thrown overboard, either by calculating what the ſhip is worth, or what the freight amounts to, at the choice of the merchant; and the merchant ſhall pay his, according to the value of the remaining merchandize: it ſhall be left to the merchant to leave or take the ſhip at the price the maſter rated her at.

ARTICLE XLI

If any one has plate, or merchandize of great price, in his cheſt, he is bound to declare it beforehand, and ſo doing, he ſhall be paid for his merchandize according to its worth, and the plate after the rate of two deniers for one.
There is ſomething a little dark in this article; but it is as we find it in the French verſion, as is alſo what is obſcure in others; and we excuſe the tranſlator, conſidering the Teutonic is an untoward language to turn into French: we wiſh our readers may have as much tenderneſs for us.

ARTICLE XLII.

If any one has money in his cheſt, let him take it out, and carry it about him, and he ſhall pay nothing.

ARTICLE XLIII.

If a cheſt is thrown overboard, and the proprietor does not declare what is in it, it ſhall not be reckoned in the average, but for the wood and the lock, if it be locked, according to their value.

ARTICLE XLIV.

If it be thought convenient in any river, or off any dangerous coaſt, to take aboard a pilot of the country, and the merchant oppoſe it, yet, if the maſter, the ſhip's pilot, and the major part of the ſeamen, are of another opinion, he may be hired, and the pilot ſhall be paid by the ſhip and cargo, as averages are calculated for goods thrown overboard.

ARTICLE XLV.

If a maſter wants money or victuals, and for that reaſon is forced to ſell part of his merchandize aboard, or borrow money at bottomry, he ought to pay, within 15 days after his arrival, for the merchandize, at a reaſonable price, neither the higheſt nor the loweſt; and if he does not, and the ſhip be ſold, and another maſter put in her, the merchant to whom the merchandize belonged, or the creditor that lent the money on bottomry, ſhall, at any time within a year and a day, have a good right to the ſhip, 'till ſatisfaction is made for the goods ſold, or money borrowed.

ARTICLE XLVI.

A ſhip being loaden, the maſter ought not to take in any more merchandize, without leave of the merchant: if he does, and there happens any occaſion to throw goods overboard, he ſhall pay as much as he took in goods over and above the ſhip's loading: wherefore he ought, when he is loaded, to declare how much goods he has, and ought to have aboard.

ARTICLE XLVII.

The ſeamen are obliged to keep and match the merchandize, at the requeſt of the merchants, maſter, and pilot.

ARTICLE XLVIII.

If, for the preſervation of the commodity, the ſeamen turn up the corn aboard, they ſhall be allowed a denier a laſt for each time; and if they will not do it, they are liable for the damage that comes to it for want of it: they ſhall alſo be allowed

lowed a denier a laſt for unlading, and ſo for other merchandize.

ARTICLE XLIX.

The mariners ought to repreſent to the maſter what condition their tackling for lading and unlading is in, that if the cordage is out of repair, or any other part of it, it may be mended; and if the maſter does not do it, he ſhall be accountable for whatever damage happens by that means; but if the mariners do not make their repreſentation, the accidents that befal the merchandize ſhall be indemnified at their expence.

ARTICLE L.

If two ſhips ſtrike againſt one another, and receive damage, the loſs ſhall be borne equally between them, unleſs the men aboard one of them did it on purpoſe; in which caſe, that ſhip ſhall pay all the damage.

ARTICLE LI.

To prevent all inconveniencies, all maſters of ſhips are required to faſten buoys to their anchors, on pain of making ſatisfaction for all the damage that may happen for want of

ARTICLE LII.

When a ſhip arrives at her port of diſcharge, ſhe ought to be unladen with all poſſible diſpatch, and the maſter to be paid in eight or fifteen days at fartheſt, according to the circumſtances of the voyage.

ARTICLE LIII.

If a ſhip, freighted for one port, enters another, the maſter, together with two or three of his chief mariners, ought to clear themſelves upon oath, that it was by conſtraint and neceſſity that they went out of their way: after which he may proceed in his intended voyage, or ſhip the cargo aboard other ſhips, paying freight for the goods, which the merchant ſhall alſo pay him, and what elſe is due on account of the merchandize.

ARTICLE LIV.

It is forbidden to any mariner to go out of the ſhip and leave it, after the voyage is done, and the ſhip diſcharged, unleſs her ſails are all in, her furniture taken away, and ſhe is ſufficiently lightened of her ballaſt.

ARTICLE LV.

If a ſhip ſtrikes, the maſter may take out part of his cargo, and relade it aboard other ſhips, and the charges of it ſhall come into a general average upon ſhip and goods: however, the maſter, and two or three of his ſeamen, ſhall purge themſelves upon oath, that they were forced to do it to ſave the ſhip and cargo.

ARTICLE LVI.

When a ſhip arrives at the mouth of any river or harbour, and the maſter finds ſhe is too heavy loaden to ſail up, he may put part of the cargo aboard hoys, lighters, or barges, and an average ſhall be made for it, of which the maſter ſhall pay two-thirds, and the merchant one-third; but if, after the ſhip is intirely diſcharged, the ſhip draws too much water, and cannot ſail up, then the maſter ſhall pay all the charges.

ARTICLE LVII.

The merchandize being put aboard lighters, in order to be landed, if the maſter has any jealouſy of the merchant's ability or honeſty to pay him, he may ſtop it at his ſhip's ſide, and refuſe to let it go, 'till the merchant has paid him in full for his freight and charges.

ARTICLE LVIII.

All lighters, open or cloſe, ſhall be diſcharged in five days.

ARTICLE LIX.

When a ſhip is at anchor before an harbour, with which her pilot is not well acquainted, the maſter ought to hire one at the place, to carry his ſhip into it, who ſhall be paid by ſhip and cargo.

ARTICLE LX.

When a ſhip is in an harbour or river, and the maſter does not know the coaſt nor the river, he ought to take a pilot of that country to carry her up the river or harbour, which pilot ſhall be maintained by the maſter, and paid by the merchant.

ARTICLE LXI.

If a ſeaman deſerts his ſhip, and carries away what he has received of the maſter, and the maſter apprehends him, the fact being proved upon him, by the depoſitions of two other ſeamen, he ſhall be condemned to be hanged and executed.

ARTICLE LXII.

If a maſter diſcovers that a mariner is infected with any contagious diſtemper, he may put him aſhore on the firſt land he makes, without being bound to pay him any wages, provided the caſe be proved by the atteſtation of two or three of the other mariners belonging to his ſhip.

ARTICLE LXIII.

If a pilot or mariner buys a ſhip, or is made maſter of one, he ſhall be diſcharged from his own maſter, paying him back what he received of him; and it ſhall be the ſame if he marries.

ARTICLE LXIV.

If the maſter, merchant, and owners have any difference, and the owners will not furniſh their quota of the charge of the outſet, the maſter may nevertheleſs proceed in his voyage or voyages with the ſaid ſhip, paying the ſeaman what he thinks reaſonable.

ARTICLE LXV.

If the maſter lays out any money in repairing or refitting his ſhip, or buys any tackling, or any thing elſe for her uſe, he ſhall be reimburſed, and every owner pay his part.

ARTICLE LXVI.

If the merchant obliges the maſter to inſure the ſhip, the merchant ſhall be obliged to inſure the maſter's life againſt the hazards of the ſea.

ARTICLE LXVII.

If two ſhips ſtrike againſt one another, and one of them unfortunately periſhes by the blow, the merchandize that is loſt out of both of them ſhall be valued, and paid for pro rata by both owners, and the damage of the ſhips ſhall alſo be anſwered for by both, according to their value.

ARTICLE LXVIII.

In caſe of neceſſity, the merchant may ſell part of the merchandize, to raiſe money for his ſhip's uſe, and the ſhip happening to be loſt afterward, the maſter ſhall, however, be obliged to pay the merchant for the ſaid merchandize ſo ſold, without pretending to deduct any thing for the freight.

ARTICLE LXIX.

When the maſter is forced to ſell any of the merchandize, he is obliged to pay the ſame price for them as the ſame goods were ſold for at the market for which they were deſigned, and the maſter ſhall be paid his freight for what goods are ſold.

ARTICLE LXX.

If a ſhip under ſail does damage to another, the maſter and mariners of the ſhip doing the damage, muſt ſwear they did not do it deſignedly, and could not help it, and then the damage ſhall be borne by both ſhips, in equal proportion; and if they refuſe to ſwear, the damage ſhall be paid by the ſhip that did it.

WOOL, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY.

Under the articles BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FACTORS, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, and FRANCE and SPAIN, we have ſhewn the extraordinary progreſs that both FRANCE and SPAIN have made, and are daily making, in the woollen manufactories, and which muſt neceſſarily tend to the greater and greater injury of our branches of trade in the like way. We have too long experienced the unſpeakable detriment that France alone has done to this nation in this article only; and if Spain is determined to ſupply her own dominions with what they took from us in this kind of manufactures, we muſt ſoon ſenſibly feel the effects of this policy; and more eſpecially ſo, if the Portugueze alſo ſhould be taking meaſures to encourage our competitors more and more in this capital article: and this I am aſſured, by my correſpondence from Portugal, is the real caſe.—There are ſeveral other ſtates too that are ſtriving for ſome ſhare in this the grand Britiſh ſtaple of commerce. In a word, we are loſing ground in moſt parts of the world, in this branch, where we had long got footing, as has been ſhewn throughout the courſe of this performance.—It is, therefore, certainly full time to think, without delay, of every meaſure that is in our power to ſave and preſerve ourſelves from the calamitous conſequences that muſt reſult herefrom.

In the courſe of this undertaking, we have endeavoured alſo to point out the CAUSES of theſe things, and have occaſionally ſuggeſted what we humbly apprehend to be the moſt rational and practicable ways and means to retrieve what we have loſt in this eſſential particular.

As the running of wool from Ireland has, among many other things, been attributed to be one principal cauſe of the before-intimated misfortunes to our trading intereſt, whatever bids fair to remove an evil of this nature, cannot be too often inculcated, nor too ſeriouſly weighed and conſidered.

Many very judicious and well-intentioned gentlemen have endeavoured, by variety of ſchemes, to prevent this practice of ſmuggling wool. The great difficulty that ſeems to attend this matter is the reaſon, perhaps, why many good propoſals have been rejected, and why, indeed, none of our laws hitherto have been effectual to the purpoſe intended.

Among others who have attempted this great work, the judicious Mr Bradſhaw has lately obliged the public with ſomething that ſeems to merit great regard, and, therefore, a ſhort abſtract of what this gentleman has offered, may have its uſe, if any thing of this ſhould ever be attempted in earneſt.

'Long experience has ſhewn us, that no laws hitherto made have prevented the running of raw wools from Ireland to France, and their manufactured goods to foreign countries, and that nothing can put a ſtop to this evil, but making it the intereſt of Ireland to diſcourage that practice.

The importation of Spaniſh wools into Ireland, and their clothiers making Spaniſh cloths therewith, inſtead of working up their own wool, is the reaſon why they have the more of their own wools to ſell to France: wherefore let Spaniſh wool be prohibited in Ireland, and their manufacturers will work up their own wools, and then there will be the leſs for France to purchaſe.

Let ſuch woollen goods made in Ireland be exported to Great-Britain only, not to be conſumed in England, but exported from thence to foreign countries.

To prevent the Iriſh from injuring the Engliſh woollen manufactures, let a DUTY be laid on all Iriſh woollen goods imported into England, and drawn back upon exportation to foreign countries, &c. This duty would prevent their wear in England, and alſo hinder the Iriſh from running their wools to France.

To induce Ireland to lay aſide the manufacture of Spaniſh cloths, and take to the working upon their own wools, the ingenious gentleman ſhews the Iriſh the advantage of the one to be far ſuperior to that of the other, thus:

The Spaniſh wools imported into Ireland, from the 25th of March, 1743, to the 25th of March, 1744, were 128,086 ſuttle pounds;—which I compute to be about 570 bags.

I ſhall ſuppoſe each bag of wool ſufficient to make four pieces of Spaniſh cloth: then the cloths manufactured were 2280, which, upon an average, being worth 20 l. each cloth, the produce of the year's importation of Spaniſh wools will amount to 45,600 l.

It is computed that, in woollen manufactures, four-fifths of the value of the goods, when finiſhed for ſale, are given to the labour of the people; therefore I ſhall ſuppoſe, that, of this 45,600 l.

There was paid to the labour of the people, -	l. 36,480
And to Spain for the wool, &c. - -	9,120

To make one piece of Spaniſh cloth, compleatly finiſhed for ſale, will take up three months; it is ſeldom finiſhed in leſs time: the manufacture is ſo tedious, that ſome of the people employed are often obliged to wait for work, while others are finiſhing their parts, as may be ſuppoſed by the following table, which I received from an eminent clothier, on whoſe veracity I can depend.

To make one piece of Spaniſh cloth will employ

	men.	wom.	boys.	days.
Dyeing - - -	1	0	0	1
Beating and picking -	0	2	0	4
Scribling - - -	2	0	0	5
Spinning the chain -	0	8	0	7
Spinning the woof - -	0	8	0	7
Winding the chain - -	0	3	0	1
Warping, winding quills, and weaving	2	0	1	24
Spinning the liſt - -	0	2	0	2
Burling, - -	0	2	0	4
Milling - -	1	0	0	1
Dreſſing - -	4	0	0	5

By this table it appears, in how many days leſs than three months the poor employed in this manufacture finiſh their ſeveral parts; and ſeveral of them are often idle for want of work.

The ſame people employed in this table, in manufacturing one cloth made of Spaniſh wool, are requiſite in manufacturing a cloth made of Iriſh; and they can finiſh ſuch a cloth in TWO months, as compleatly as they can a cloth made of Spaniſh in THREE; therefore, if fully employed, can work up half as many more yards of cloth in one year, as an equal number can do who are wholly employed in manufacturing of Spaniſh. Beſides, as coarſe wools may be worked up into goods of various kinds, and the wool ſo diſpoſed of as to give employment, at any time, to a greater number of hands than the like value of Spaniſh wools can employ; all manufactures of coarſe wools can be finiſhed with greater diſpatch. Therefore, ſince the wealth of a nation is increaſed by the number of the poor it employs, and the quantity of the product of the lands they conſume, let it be conſidered what number of the poor of Ireland 9,120 l. value in Spaniſh wools will employ, and what number of poor the wools of Ireland, valued at 12 s. the great ſtone containing 16 lb. will employ and ſubſiſt.

I have made the beſt enquiry I was capable of, and find that the wools Ireland yearly produces are computed at 480,000 ſtones, of 16 lb. each; ſome think they are leſs, but no accounts that I have received from any part of that kingdom ſay more.

I ſhall therefore conſider the wools of that kingdom under the higheſt eſtimation that I have received, and ſhew what that quantity of wool would produce, if worked up for their own conſumption, or for exportation to England, and what loſs that kingdom ſuſtains yearly, by neglecting the manufacturing her own wools, encouraging the manufacture of Spaniſh, and ſmuggling her raw wools to France.

I ſhall likewiſe ſhew the gain that would ariſe to that kingdom, if their own wools were fully manufactured by their own people.

	l.
I ſhall ſuppoſe the medium price of the wools of Ireland to be 12 s. the ſtone of 16 lb. then 480,000 ſtones, at 12 s. the ſtone, are -	288,000
If 10 l. value in wools, when compleatly manufactured for ſale, is worth 50 l. the value of the yearly wools of Ireland, when worked up, muſt be - - -	1,440,000
If $\frac{4}{5}$ of this ſum be paid to the working people for labour, and the remaining $\frac{1}{5}$ be paid to the rents of the kingdom, for the produce of their ſheep, the earned money of the poor of that country, in working up the yearly produce, will amount to - - -	1,152,000
And they will work up as much of the product of the kingdom as amounts to -	288,000
Conſequently, Ireland will gain yearly, by the manufacturing of her own wools -	1,152,000
And, by the manufacturing the whole year's importation of Spaniſh wools, ſhe can only gain - - - -	36,486
To earn which ſum, ſhe muſt yearly pay to Spain	9,120

And have numbers of her poor idly ſupported by high wages, to make them amends for the many days the manufacturing of Spaniſh wool leaves them unemployed.

It is very difficult to compute the exact number of poor that the wools of a country, if worked up among themſelves, would employ and ſubſiſt: but, as moſt working people earn no more than what is ſufficient to maintain them comfortably, I am of opinion, that the finding out the quantity and value of any kind of goods manufactured in a country, and the value of the common annual ſubſiſtance of a manufacturer, is the beſt way of judging of the number of working people ſubſiſted by that manufacture.

I ſhall therefore ſuppoſe, that the annual ſubſiſtance of working men, women, and children, in Ireland, may be purchaſed, at a medium, for 10 l. per annum, and that 480,000 ſtones of wool, when fully manufactured, are worth 1,440,000 l. Then the number of poor ſubſiſted by the manufacturing the yearly produce of the wools, will be 144,000 people.

I ſhall conſider next how many of the poor of Ireland are ſubſiſted by the manufacturing Spaniſh wools, admitting that they are not, during the whole year, one day unemployed, and that they manufactured the whole importation of Spaniſh wools in the year 1743, which was much larger than any quantity they ever imported in one year into that kingdom.

I computed that 570 bags of Spaniſh wool, when fully manufactured for ſale, would amount to 45,600 l.

By that computation, the poor employed can be no more than 4,560 perſons.

It is therefore obvious, that Ireland loſes immenſely every year by encouraging the manufacture of Spaniſh cloths, diſcouraging the manufacturing her own wools, and ſelling her unmanufactured wools to France. To theſe cauſes we muſt aſcribe the number of poor that are now in the places of manufacture in France, where, on account of religion, as well as ſkill, they have met with protection and encouragement.

If the induſtrious poor are compelled to quit their country for want of employment, the gentlemen of Ireland muſt loſe their former markets for the product of their lands. The loſs will be greater to the landed than the trading intereſt; gentlemen muſt abate of their rents: for it is the employment of the poor that muſt keep them up to their value. And while the Iriſh encourage the manufacturing Spaniſh cloths, which has obliged numberleſs poor to quit that country, or come to the lands for their maintenance, the price of their beef, butter, &c. will be low; but the value of their lands muſt riſe, as the manufacture of Iriſh wools is encouraged, and as the greater numbers of their poor are employed. Therefore a trade with England for ſuch woollen goods as Ireland may manufacture more than are requiſite for her own conſumption muſt be of the greateſt advantage to that kingdom. It

will

will encourage them to work up early their ſurplus wools, and employ the number of the poor already mentioned.

Therefore, if encouragement to manufacture Iriſh wools will keep up the price of the product of the lands of Ireland (as conſumption of all commodities neceſſarily cauſes the advance of prices); if it will bring home numberleſs manufacturers, who have found employment in other countries, and enable their poor to maintain themſelves, who are now a public charge: it muſt be the intereſt of Ireland to manufacture her own wools, prohibit the importation of Spaniſh wools, and prevent the running their raw wools to France, which muſt ever be detrimental to the woollen manufactures of both England and Ireland.

If the union propoſed between England and Ireland, with reſpect to a liberty of exporting to England ſuch woollen goods as Ireland ſhall manufacture, ſhould be agreeable to both kingdoms, I am convinced no gentleman in Ireland will conſent to the running of raw wools to France. If he is able to procure but a nurſery of ſpinners upon his eſtate, the produce of their labour (though of all labour on wools the moſt ſparingly paid for) will keep up the price of the product of his lands, which will be much more advantageous to him than what he can gain by permitting the wools that grow on his lands to be ſent to France.

If this union ſhould not be agreeable to both kingdoms, and that the people of Ireland ſhall be obliged to wear (as they now are) what woollen goods they manufacture, I am of opinion it appears that it is not the intereſt of that kingdom to wear Spaniſh cloths, if manufactured in Ireland, which muſt bring ſuch numbers of their poor to the pariſh for ſubſiſtence, or oblige them to quit the country for want of employment, who might be ſubſiſted by their labour on Iriſh wools, without any charge to the landed intereſt.

For if ſuch of their poor as could not be employed in manufacturing their wools fully, were encouraged to ſpin their ſurplus wools for exportation to England, their poor might be employed and ſubſiſted, ſince it is evident, by the price we have paid them of late for their ſpinning, that the labour of the comber and ſpinner is equal to the firſt coſt of the wool; and as England has taken upwards of 80,000 ſtones of their yarn, (as ſhall be ſhewn in its place) the poor of Ireland have earned 48,000l. for their ſpinning, and we have paid them the like ſum of 48,000 l. for their wool, which will appear from the following computation. A ball of wool conſiſts of one pound and a half of combed wool, which, at 12s. per ſtone of 16 lb. coſts 13½d: when ſpun into ſkains of yarn, is ſold from 2s. 3d. to 3s. per ball, according to the number of ſkains into which it is ſpun.

I ſhall take the loweſt price for my valuation: if, therefore, a ball of wool that coſts but 13½d. when ſpun into yarn, is ſold for 2s. 3d. it appears that the money earned by the comber and ſpinner is equal to the firſt coſt of the wool: therefore, if the poor of Ireland were employed to manufacture their ſurplus wools, no farther than through the hands of the combers and ſpinners, numbers might be maintained, and Ireland would become a nurſery for England (but never can be ſo, while her poor are engroſſed by the high prices now given for the ſpinning of Spaniſh wools) and the landed intereſt of Ireland would be conſiderable gainers by their poor being ſo far employed, ſince it muſt benefit a nation to be ſaved from the charge of maintaining its poor.

The gentlemen of Ireland may imagine they receive their rents from their tenants; but it is the conſumer that pays them both the price of their wools, and of the product of their lands.

If their artificers and manufacturers are obliged to quit the country for want of employment, the conſumption of the product muſt be greatly leſſened: therefore all prudent ways ought to be tried, to keep thoſe at home that are willing to work, and to induce them to return who have been obliged to ſeek for their ſubſiſtance abroad.

Every one who lives in that country, and wears the manufacture of Iriſh wools, ought to be conſidered, for what he wears, eats, and drinks, as a tenant to the lands and a paymaſter to the workmen.

How many ſuch tenants the gentlemen of Ireland may keep in that country, and how many old ones they may prevail on to return, by preventing the running of their wools to France, encouraging the manufacturing their own, and prohibiting the importation of Spaniſh, I have endeavoured to ſhew; which I ſhall ſubmit to the conſideration of the gentlemen of that kingdom.

I ſhall next conſider the advantages England will have, by conſenting to the importation of ſuch woollen goods as Ireland ſhall ſend us, under a duty at importation to be drawn back only on exportation to foreign countries.

The accounts that were publiſhed the year after the peace of Utrecht, of the great quantities of Iriſh wools that were run out of Ireland, and imported in one year into France, ſo alarmed our manufacturers and landed gentlemen of England, that we have ever ſince endeavoured to make the moſt effectual laws to prevent the exportation of the wools of that country, and are now at a great annual expence by the many ſhips ſtationed on the coaſts of Ireland for that purpoſe; but notwithſtanding we have been unwilling to receive any propoſals, that have been offered to the conſideration of parliament to prevent this evil, if ſuch propoſals had the leaſt tendency to a free liberty of exportation of the woollen manufactured goods of that kingdom.

However juſt our apprehenſions were thirty years ago, there is not the leaſt room for them now; ſince Ireland does not produce, at preſent, two-thirds of the wools that were ſuppoſed to be the growth of the country at that time.

The decreaſe of their ſheep has been owing, not only to the very great danger and difficulty the people of Ireland found in ſending their wools to France, under the ſevere laws we made to prevent it, but to ſeveral acts of parliament, which have been made in that kingdom ſince the year 1714.

By the act to encourage tillage, every farmer in Ireland is obliged to plow a certain number of acres, in every hundred, which he holds by leaſe. This obligation, together with the great difficulty and riſk in ſending their wools to France, obliged many people to plow up their paſture grounds, which leſſened their ſheep throughout the kingdom; for they found a certain market for their corn, inſtead of an uncertain one for their wool.

The ſeveral acts for encouraging the linen manufactures of that kingdom, have been another cauſe of leſſening the growth of their wools; ſince it is well known that they have no more ſheep in the north of Ireland, where that manufacture is eſtabliſhed, than are ſufficient for the neceſſary ſubſiſtance of the people.

Theſe conſiderations ſhould entirely remove our former apprehenſions, and convince us, that the Iriſh cannot have the quantity of wools, which they had before theſe acts of parliament were made.

We ought to examine what the wools of that country are at preſent, and what we have to fear if the wools, which their own people cannot conſume in apparel, were fully manufactured and exported to us, and from hence exported to ſuch foreign countries as we trade to.

We are very certain that we may grow leſs conſiderable in foreign markets, but cannot be more ſo, while the French continue to procure the wools of Ireland; and ſince we have made ſo many laws to prevent it, and that it is evident they have been ineffectual, we ſhould try other ways and means to ſtop the evil we have ſo long complained of. For ſince by long experience we find that the people of Ireland are not, by any laws, to be forced from this pernicious practice of ſelling their wools to France, and that neither puniſhments nor penalties can prevent it; I am clearly of opinion, our condition cannot be worſe than it is at preſent, if we permit them to ſend us ſuch woollen goods as they ſhall manufacture for exportation, which will effectually put a ſtop to their ſending to France; becauſe they will then find it more their own intereſt to prevent it, than it is now their intereſt to connive at and encourage it.

The many creeks and by-places on the coaſt of Ireland are ſo well known to the French, that their agents, notwithſtanding the many difficulties that attend it, will be always able to procure a loading of wool; for the farmer, whoſe lands lie contiguous to the ſea, will be as ready to ſell as the French are to buy. But theſe temptations will ceaſe, if the farmer finds that he can have a market near his own home for his wools, when ſpun only; becauſe the French can give no price for the ſmall quantity of wool that he has to ſell, that can be equal to the advantage the farmer will have by its being ſo far manufactured.

Since the laſt declaration of war againſt Spain, the wools of Ireland have ſold at a much higher price than they were ever known at before. When they exceed ten ſhillings per ſtone of ſixteen pounds, our manufacturers cannot afford to purchaſe them. But as the prohibiting the importation of Spaniſh wools into Ireland, will occaſion a greater plenty of their ſpinning, we may be certain of having more of their ſurplus wools ſo far manufactured, and thereby leſſen the quantity, they would otherwiſe fully manufacture themſelves.

We do not buy their ſpinning for its fineneſs, (our own people ſpin much finer) but on account of its nature and quality. It is very uſeful to our weavers, in mixing with our own ſpinning, and making ſeveral ſorts of goods for foreign markets; and on that account only we buy it. But if we cannot take from them in ſpinning, ſuch wools as they have more than are requiſite for the cloathing of their own people, we muſt give them leave to export, fully manufactured, what they cannot conſume, or the French will certainly take from them their wools unmanufactured.

They are not (as we are) limited by price; for by the help of one pack of Iriſh wools, France manufactures two of her own, without which they are uſeleſs to her for foreign markets, notwithſtanding the wool ſhe procures from Germany, Portugal, Barbary, and Turkey.

The wools of France are ſhort and coarſe; they are not (to ſpeak in a manufacturer's phraſe) ſo fine in the thread, or ſo long in the ſtaple, as thoſe of Ireland: for which reaſon, France can ever give double the price that we can afford for the wools of that country, which I ſhall ſhew more fully

hereafter. This proves how dangerous an enemy we have to encounter, and that nothing can prevent France from buying them, but making it the intereſt of Ireland to manufacture their wools; which engages me to think, that the beſt law that can be made, to prevent France from procuring the wools of Ireland, will be, to permit the people of that country to ſend their manufactured woollen goods to England, under a duty at importation, to be drawn back on exportation to foreign countries.

I have already ſhewn the quantity of wool, by eſtimation, that Ireland yearly produces, and what value theſe wools may be manufactured into by their own people, if the importation of Spaniſh wool is prohibited. I ſhall now conſider what number of people there are in that kingdom, what their own conſumption muſt be of the wools they may manufacture; what quantity of wool we have taken from them laſt year, how much in woollen yarn, and how much in worſted yarn, and to what value the ſurplus wools of Ireland, if fully manufactured, will amount. The exportation to England of this laſt article, is the whole we have to fear from the union propoſed, which I ſhall ſhew cannot be manufactured into ſuch a quantity of cloth, or other woollen goods, as will prejudice England to receive, for exportation. On the contrary, I am of opinion, the encouragement to manufacture and export it, will be the means of increaſing and extending our commerce.

The people of Ireland are computed at 1,666,000: I ſhall ſuppoſe the one half of their people to be men and boys, and the other half women and girls; and that every man and every boy in Ireland wears, or is the occaſion of conſuming, the value of 20s. of woollen goods yearly; and that every woman and every girl wears, or is the occaſion of conſuming, 5 s. in woollen goods yearly.

	l.
Then 833,000 men and boys, at 20 s. per ann. conſume in Iriſh woollen goods -	833,000
And 833,000 women and girls, at 5 s. per ann.	208,250
Therefore, the amount of woollen goods, wore in apparel and conſumed in furniture of ſuch houſes as they inhabit, will be - -	1,041,250
As the richer kind of people in Ireland are buried in woollens, according to act of parliament, I ſhall allow for burials in woollen - -	20,000
	1,061,250
Then, if all the wools Ireland yearly produces were fully manufactured, and that England took from them neither raw wools, worſted, or woollen yarns, the value of the ſurplus wools fully manufactured would be - -	378,750
	1,440,000

I find we have imported from Ireland from March 25, 1743, to March 25, 1744,

In raw wools, great ſtones - -	19,993
In worſted yarn - - -	68,622
In woollen yarn - - -	15,224
Stones	103,839

If we take yearly the ſame quantity of unmanufactured wools, worſted, and woollen yarns, that we have done laſt year, which I ſhall compute only at 100,000 great ſtones, we ſhall prevent their fully manufacturing as much of the wools of Ireland as I have computed, when fully manufactured by themſelves, would amount to 300,000 l.

Therefore, admitting there is no objection to the value in woollen goods, which I have computed to be the yearly conſumption of the people of Ireland, not only in apparel, but in bedding, houſe-furniture, and burials, all the woollen goods Ireland can fully manufacture for exportation, will amount to no more than 78,750 l.

In order to remove the apprehenſions that may ariſe in our clothiers and manufacturers, that this value in Iriſh woollen goods, if exported to England for re-exportation to foreign countries, may hurt the ſale of our manufactures abroad, I ſhall conſider, what value in woollen goods France will be prevented from vending at foreign markets, which ſhe now ſupplies, by procuring the ſurplus wools of Ireland, that may be manufactured into that ſum.

I ſhall ſuppoſe, that France has been able to procure yearly no more Iriſh wools than, when fully manufactured, I have computed would produce this 78,750 l. which I calculate at 1750 packs, of 240 pounds weight each.

I ſhall likewiſe ſuppoſe, that what France purchaſes are the beſt Iriſh wools, for which ſhe pays 16s. the great ſtone (at which price the fine wools of that country were ſold laſt year), and that all riſks, hazards, inſurances, and freights, being accounted for, thoſe wools, when landed in France, coſt the manufacturer 20s. per ſtone.

By the beſt information I could get in France, I have learned that their people manufacture two packs of their own wools by the help of one pack of Iriſh. I ſhall therefore ſuppoſe their own wools worth 5 s. the great ſtone, and when mixed with Iriſh wools at 20 s. the ſtone; that the manufacturer in France has three packs of wools, at 10s. the ſtone, a medium price.

	Stones.
I have computed that the ſurplus wools of Ireland, which France now procures, are 1750 packs, which make in great ſtones of 16 pounds to the ſtone - - - -	26,250
To which I ſhall add double that quantity of French wools, which the manufacturers of France work up by the help of this quantity of Iriſh	52,500
Total ſtones	78,750

Therefore the French manufacturers, by the help of 26,250 ſtones of Iriſh wools, have 78,750 ſtones of wools proper for ſuch manufactures as we carry on; which wools, on an average, will coſt them only 10 s. per ſtone. Then 78,750 ſtones, at 10 s. per ſtone, coſt the manufacturer in France 39,375 l. And when fully manufactured for ſale, allowing for labour, as I have done on the like value of wools manufactured in England, the amount will be 196,875 l.

If theſe calculations are juſt, it plainly appears, that we have nothing to fear from giving Ireland a liberty of exporting to England ſuch manufactured woollen goods, as her own people cannot conſume; ſince, by encouraging Ireland, we ſhall prevent France from procuring her wools, who thereby is enabled to ſupply the foreign markets with goods of her own manufacture, to the value of 196,875 l.

If France can ſend to foreign markets ſuch conſiderable quantities of woollen goods, by procuring 1750 packs of Iriſh wools, of what conſequence ought thoſe wools to be to England! and ſince we know that ſuch a quantity, and a much greater, may be ſent yearly out of England, we ſhould endeavour to prevent the running of it from England as well as Ireland, which I am far from thinking an impoſſible ſcheme. If the preventing the running of this quantity of Iriſh wools, will enable us to ſend to foreign markets as much woollen goods, as will, when manufactured, be worth 196,875 l. more than we now export, I am humbly of opinion, we ought to make a new experiment, and conſent to the people of Ireland's ſending their manufactured woollen goods to England; for we may be certain of manufacturing and vending more cloth, and other woollen goods, as the French are deprived of the means of ſupplying the foreign demands. And as all the goods that the ſurplus wools of Ireland can be manufactured into, will not amount to one-half of what France will be prevented from ſupplying, we muſt furniſh the reſt from our own manufactures. And if France has been able to procure a larger quantity of Iriſh wools yearly, than I have ſuppoſed, we ſhall be able to manufacture ſo much the greater quantity for foreign markets, as ſhe is obliged to manufacture the leſs.

We have nothing to fear from any encouragement we give Ireland to manufacture, if we can prevent the French from procuring the wools of that country; for when the plague raged at Marſeilles, the demands for woollen goods from foreign countries were ſo large, that the wools of both England and Ireland were inſufficient to ſupply them; which plainly ſhewed how largely France had been concerned in the markets abroad, and what a quantity of her own coarſe wools ſhe muſt have worked up, by the help and aſſiſtance of the wools of that kingdom.

The camblets of Ireland are goods the Portugueze have been a long time accuſtomed to wear, and that they will have, and do procure theſe goods from Ireland, appears from the ſhips we have already taken, bound with ſuch goods to Portugal; and the Iriſh will continue that trade, notwithſtanding our guard-ſhips, and the encouragement our commanders of men of war have to ſearch, unleſs we make it their own intereſt to diſcourage it.

All that our manufacturers have been able to do, has not been ſufficient to prevail with Portugal to approve of the camblets we make. I am convinced, the conſumption of that article would be greatly increaſed there, if the people of Ireland were permitted to export thoſe camblets to us, under a duty at importation, to be drawn back on exportation from England; their profit would be more certain than it can be at preſent, and it would put a ſtop to all attempts to run ſuch goods for the future, and be a great encouragement to their working up more of their ſurplus wools, and conſequently of leſſening the temptation of ſelling them to France. Our merchants would have a commiſſion on receiving and forwarding, perhaps on ſales; our packers would have the benefit of re-packing, and our ſhips of carrying.

If it be objected, that the exportation of ſuch other woollen goods, as Ireland may ſend us, will interfere with the exportation of our own, I am of opinion it cannot. For if France be prevented from procuring the wools of Ireland, there will be a demand in foreign markets, not only for the ſame quantity of woollen goods which we now ſupply, but for as much

more as France did formerly ſupply; and we ſhall ſell, not only to the amount of what I have computed the ſurplus wools of Ireland may be manufactured into, but alſo near double that value, which France would have been able to ſell of her own manufactured wools, by the help of the ſurplus wools of that kingdom.

If it be objected, that when the duties laid on the Iriſh woollen goods at importation, are drawn back on the exportation from England, the Iriſh woollen goods can be ſold cheaper in foreign markets, than goods of the ſame kind manufactured in England, by reaſon of the cheapneſs of proviſions and low price of labour in Ireland; I anſwer, that we ſhall have in our own hands a remedy, when it is convenient to uſe it, by permitting ſuch goods to draw back only a PART of the DUTIES paid at importation, as we find can be ſold cheaper in foreign markets. By which we ſhall bring the value of ſuch Iriſh woollen goods upon a par with our own, on exportation from England, ſo that there will be no temptation to the buyers for exportation to take the one before the other.

If it be objected, that the people of Ireland will increaſe their ſheep, when they have liberty to export what they manufacture, and that they may ſend us too great a quantity of their woollen goods for re-exportation; I anſwer, That it muſt be ſome years before they can effect it; and if they ſhould ſo increaſe their ſheep, as to be able to export double the quantity that I have computed their preſent ſurplus wools may be manufactured into for exportation, that quantity will not exceed what France now ſells, by the help of the ſurplus wools of that country; therefore we muſt continue to ſell the ſame quantity we now ſend abroad.

Again, if it be objected, that ſhould the people of Ireland have liberty to export what they manufacture, they will ſell us no more of their wools, or woollen and worſted yarn; and that inſtead of their having but 78,750 l. value to export, they will export the whole value that I have computed their ſurplus wools might be manufactured into; I am of opinion, we have little to fear from this objection; for there will be always in England and Ireland, as many people on the trade of buying the wools and yarns (for which we pay ready money) as there will be purchaſers of their wools, fully manufactured; which, if ſent here to be ſold for exportation, muſt be on long credit; and if ſent abroad on their own accounts, will be ſubject to uncertain ſales, and as uncertain payments. Beſides, if there ſhould be occaſion, their wools may be made cheaper to us, and their woollen goods loaded with a duty at exportation from Ireland to England.

We pay for licence (together with fees) to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, for every thouſand great ſtones of wool exported to England, about 23 l. If the Iriſh wools are exported to us free of this charge, our manufacturers might purchaſe the wools of Ireland at all times, near 5 per cent. cheaper than they now can, or hitherto have done; and in lieu of this income which belongs to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, the parliament of that kingdom may fix a duty on all woollen goods, fully manufactured, on exportation to England.

This would, in ſome meaſure, prevent their ſending us too much of their wools fully manufactured, and enable us to purchaſe more of their raw wools.

New experiments muſt be made; the people of Ireland muſt find a market for their ſurplus wools, manufactured or unmanufactured, or we cannot effectually diſtreſs France, enlarge our foreign woollen trade, or indeed be certain of ſupplying them ourſelves with ſuch goods as we now manufacture.

I will admit, that from the cheapneſs of proviſions, and low price of labour in Ireland, their poor are able to work cheaper than ours. They are not in Ireland bound by any parliamentary laws to provide for, and maintain for life, reduced and decayed houſekeepers, and diſabled and ſuperannuated ſervants, as the people of England are, which obliges their poor to work for leſs prices than ours.

Notwithſtanding, I am of opinion we have little to fear from their being able to underſel us abroad; for though moſt of the goods they manufacture are worked up cheaper than ours, yet the advantages we have of them in dyeing better colours, preſſing, tilleting, and packing our goods, will ballance, in moſt foreign markets, the advantage they may have of us, with reſpect to their low price for labour.

Beſides, the freight of their woollen goods from Ireland to England, the inſurance, the inland carriage to proper places for ſale, the charge of warehouſe room, reception and forwarding, the charges of unpacking and repacking, will affect ſuch woollen goods as they can ſend us, 10 per cent. on the loweſt computation I can make; which ought greatly to leſſen the apprehenſions of our manufacturers; and if the woollen goods they ſend us are to be dyed, preſſed, and packed here, ſo as to be ſent abroad, equally finiſhed with the like goods of our own manufacture, they will be ſubject to a much greater expence.

What we ſuffer Ireland to gain by the export of her woollen manufactured goods from England, can be no loſs to us; in many inſtances we ſhall be gainers. By encouraging them to manufacture their wools, they will find it their own intereſt to ſell none of them to France, by which we ſhall be tempted to manufacture the more of our own.

By prohibiting the importation of Spaniſh wools into Ireland, their manufacturers will be obliged to work up more of their own wools, and their people to wear more of their own manufactures, by which we ſhall have the leſs to fear from what they may be able to export.

By leſſening the numbers of their fine ſpinners, we ſhall increaſe the ſpinning of ſuch worſted and woollen yarn, as we want and take from them; which are ſo uſeful and neceſſary in our manufacturing ſeveral kinds of coarſe goods, for our conſumption as well as exportation.

By allowing them to export their woollen goods to Great-Britain, manufactories will be eſtaliſhed in ſeveral counties in Ireland; their nobility and gentry will have ſuch advantages by the ſettlements of workmen on their eſtates, that they will find it their own intereſt to diſcourage the running of wools, and to forbid their tenants to be aiding and aſſiſting.

By making Ireland a NURSERY of ſpinners for England, we ſhall have plenty of their ſpinning; and by making England a MAGAZINE for Iriſh woollen goods, fully manufactured, our merchants will have a commiſſion on reception and forwarding; our dyers, a profit on ſuch white goods as they ſhall ſend us; our preſſers, the benefit of packing, and our ſhipping have better employment. By a good underſtanding between ENGLAND and IRELAND, our manufactures will be brought into greater eſteem abroad; we then ſhall have nothing to fear from the low price of labour in France, with reſpect to coarſe goods, which has obliged us for years paſt to manufacture ſuch goods as would ſell, although they brought diſcredit to our country.

By our woollen goods being demanded abroad, in proportion as France is unable to ſupply, our landed gentlemen will find their rents better paid, and their lands lett at a higher value. The increaſe of our woollen manufactures will keep up the price of the product of the lands; as demands for goods not only employ our poor, but cauſe the advance of the price. The product of the lands of England is a conſiderable part of every manufacture; our rents are but the value paid for the product of the lands; therefore all the additional labour we encourage, which pays to the product of the lands, is ſo much added to the rents of the kingdom.

By preventing France from procuring the raw wools of Ireland, we ſhall not only underſel her, but ſpeedily put it out of her power to anſwer the demands of thoſe foreign countries, which ſhe has for many years paſt been able to ſupply.

By permitting Ireland to export ſuch goods, as ſhe may manufacture of her own wools, the gentlemen of that kingdom may be prevailed on to wear no Spaniſh cloths, but ſuch as we manufacture. The advantage of which I ſhall ſhew.

I have already computed, that the Spaniſh wools Ireland imported laſt year, might be manufactured into 2280 pieces of cloth; which, ſuppoſing each cloth 26 yards, would be 50,000 yards. I find that from the 25th of March 1743, to the 25th of March 1744, the importations of Spaniſh cloths into Ireland were 20,981 yards and one quarter; therefore the yearly conſumption of Spaniſh cloths in Ireland, ſeems to me to be 77,981 yards one quarter. We cannot prevent France from ſupplying foreign countries with their Spaniſh cloths; by their ſituation they always will have the Spaniſh wools cheaper than we can; and the low price of labour, and cheapneſs of proviſions in thoſe provinces of France where Spaniſh cloths are manufactured, will ever enable them to vie with, if not underſel, us in that manufacture. Their colours are as good as ours, and their wools as fine. But we have advantages peculiar to this nation, which they cannot take from us. Their cloths want the firmneſs in their texture and milling, that our cloths have, without which they never can dreſs them as we do; and if a ſmall encouragement, by bounty on exportation, was given by parliament, on ſuch Spaniſh cloths, as we export to the Levant only, I am humbly of opinion, we ſhould wholly ſupply both the Turks and the Perſians.

Therefore, ſince we have ſo powerful a rival as France in our Spaniſh wool manufacture, which of all our manufactures deſerves our greateſt attention; we ſhould endeavour, by all prudent ways, to encourage and ſupport it at home. Our ſilken manufactures greatly depend on it. A bale of Spaniſh cloths amounts to a large ſum of money; conſequently, it is a means of increaſing our ballances againſt thoſe countries, from which we receive a ballance by our commerce, and, on the other hand, of preventing a ballance being too heavy againſt us with thoſe countries, which, by our large imports, may have a ballance againſt us.

By the modern dreſs of our nobility, gentry, and merchants, this manufacture appears daily decreaſing among ourſelves. I am convinced, that the new-faſhion goods we wear, have leſſened our conſumption of Spaniſh cloths two fifths of what it was a few years ago. If we ſuffer this manufacture to decay, the FRENCH and DUTCH will ſoon procure the hands we employ; our poor muſt quit the country, or come to the lands for a maintenance; ſince it is well known, that a woman, who has ſpent the beſt of her days in ſpinning fine

wools,

wools, cannot bring her fingers to make good work by ſpinning of coarſe. I have already ſhewn, that if we conſent to the people of Ireland's exporting their ſurplus wools, fully manufactured, the value of them cannot exceed 78,750 l. And though we may think it our intereſt, that no Spaniſh cloths ſhould be manufactured but in England, and to prohibit the importation of Spaniſh wools into Ireland, yet I am of opinion, the gentlemen of Ireland would wear but little of our Spaniſh cloths, if we prevented their manufacturing (though it is demonſtrably their own intereſt) without giving them, in lieu thereof, a liberty of exporting ſuch woollen goods as they could manufacture of their own wools.

The conſumption of Spaniſh cloths, in that country laſt year, appears to be 77,981 yards; and we may expect they will yearly conſume an equal quantity, which, at 16s. per yard, will amount to 62,385 l.

Therefore, if they wear no Spaniſh cloths but what we manufacture, and we agree to their exportation of ſuch woollen goods as they may manufacture, more than are requiſite for their own conſumption, the ballance we ſhould yearly pay them would be but a trifle, if they took no woollen goods from us but Spaniſh cloths; whereas we do now, and always may, depend on ſupplying them yearly, with all new-faſhion woollen goods that are worn here, ſince all dependent kingdoms take their faſhions from the place where the court reſides. We have had no reaſon to repent of the encouragement we have given to their linen manufactures; it has greatly enriched that country, which has been thereby more improved, within theſe 30 years paſt, than in 100 years before. We take from them in linens 500,000 l. value per ann. beſides what they ſend directly to our plantations, and other countries; whereas, according to Dr d'Avenant's report, in the year 1713, their whole exports of linen were computed at only 80,00 l. value. We continue to give their linens the preference of moſt others, and ſince we contribute ſo largely to ſupport and encourage that manufacture, they ought in gratitude to ſupport (as far as in their power lies) a manufacture, that is of as great conſequence to England, as the linens are to that kingdom.

Therefore I am humbly of opinion, that a union between England and Ireland, with reſpect to their woollen manufactures, muſt be advantageous to both kingdoms, and will be the means of effectually preventing FRANCE from procuring the wools of that country.'

REMARKS.

As the Iriſh are not allowed to carry their woollen manufactures to foreign markets, nor to export them to England, whilſt the Engliſh may export ſuch goods to Ireland, it naturally follows, that the wool of that nation muſt be ſmuggled to the French and Dutch, or any nation that will bid higheſt for it. Some regulations might, perhaps, be framed, to prevent the running of Engliſh wool to France and Holland, and this nation might poſſibly be induced to try dangerous ſchemes, in order to retrieve ſo important a branch of trade as the woollen manufactory. But if this great end can be as effectually anſwered for the reciprocal benefit of both nations, without introducing any ſuch ſchemes which may prove dangerous to the liberty of the ſubject, it will certainly prove far more eligible, and that is what the preceding propoſal ſeems to bid very fair to do.

It is a maxim in equity and the law of nature, that every nation has a right to make the moſt of its own products. Where one nation is ſo far ſubject to another as to be debarred from that right, it muſt be for conſiderations reſpecting the intereſt of both; the chief of which may be, that the more powerful of the two may be maintained in a condition to afford protection and ſupport to the other. Where that natural right is not ſuperſeded on this principle, the weaker nation will be apt to look upon it as an oppreſſive act, or, at beſt, as an abſurdity equally pernicious to both parties.

So long as the Iriſh are not allowed a free vent for their woollen manufactures, it will be in vain to think of effectually preventing the running of their unwrought wool to France and other foreign parts; and even part of their manufactures will be run to England and elſewhere, in ſpite of all the laws the Engliſh can make to obſtruct it. Commerce claims freedom: where it is crampt, it either decays, or is carried on clandeſtinely. To take all the wool of Ireland into the government's hands, in order to ſell to the manufacturers juſt enough for the inhabitants of that kingdom, and export the reſt to England at a lower price than foreigners offer for it, would, by the Iriſh, be conſidered as an act of injuſtice: at leaſt, to make them view it in a favourable light, Engliſh woollen goods ought to be prohibited in Ireland. For though England's proſperity is of ſo much importance to Ireland, that if ever the former ſhould be ruined, the latter would of courſe fall under a foreign yoke; yet the welfare of both ought, as far as is poſſible, to be promoted by equitable meaſures and fair regulations, ſuch as no reaſonable man in either kingdom would object to.

It has been apprehended by ſome, that if the Iriſh were allowed a free trade in the woollen branch, they would greatly hurt England; but, perhaps, it would produce the contrary effect, by what has been urged in the foregoing repreſentation. It might occaſion, for ſome time, the removal of many manufacturers from England to Ireland; but is not this much better than their removing to foreign parts, going to ſeek bread among our enemies, and helping them to ruin the trade of the three kingdoms? If Ireland increaſes in commerce and wealth, one may ſafely conclude, from the genius and character of that nation, that its riches will chiefly center here at laſt. That country produces fewer miſers than England: the Iriſh covet money, perhaps, as much as any people in the world; but not ſo much with a view to hoard it, as to make a figure and ſpend freely: and experience proves, that in all ſtates and monarchies, the riches of diſtant provinces and colonies inſenſibly flow to the mother country, or to the metropolis.

It may be objected, that Ireland's taxes bear no manner of proportion with thoſe of England; and therefore, to grant them a free trade, would be putting them in a condition to leave the Engliſh far behind them, as they could carry every thing to foreign markets ſo much cheaper than this nation can do. In anſwer to this it has been aſked, Whether it is not ſafer to let the IRISH thrive, than to ſuffer our enemies, the FRENCH, to take advantage of their miſerable condition, and thereby ruin BRITAIN as well as IRELAND? The Iriſh, in their preſent circumſtances, cannot be taxed like England: yet to grant IRELAND the ſame privileges as ENGLAND enjoys, and to tax it in PROPORTION to its wealth, would be fair and equitable, ſatisfactory and beneficial to both nations. Let us therefore think in earneſt of a ſolid and permanent union, before it be too late: let us lay aſide unreaſonable, partial, and ſelfiſh principles; give them encouragement to become induſtrious, put them upon a fair and equitable footing, make all trifling diſtinctions ceaſe; and let us not ſuffer our moſt dangerous competitors to run away with that trade, that England and Ireland may obtain, upon a wiſe and ſolid union made between the two nations.

An act for permitting the exportation of wool and woollen, or bay yarn, from any port in Ireland, to any port in Great-Britain.

Whereas the permitting of wool, and woollen or bay yarn, to be exported only from certain ports in Ireland, to certain ports in England, is not of ſo great and extenſive advantage to the trade of this kingdom, as it would be if all the ports in Great-Britain and Ireland were opened for that purpoſe; be it therefore enacted by the king's moſt excellent Majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the fifth day of June, in the year of our Lord 1753, it ſhall and may be lawful for any perſon or perſons, to export from any port in Ireland, any wool, or woollen, or bay yarn, wool fells, ſhortlings, mortlings, wool flocks, and worſted yarn, to any port in Great-Britain, any act or acts of parliament to the contrary notwithſtanding.

Provided always, and be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That all ſuch exportations and importations of wool, and woollen or bay yarn, wool fells, ſhortlings, mortlings, wool flocks, and worſted yarn, from any port in Ireland, into any port in Great-Britain, ſhall be made under the ſame reſtrictions and regulations, and in the ſame manner in all reſpects, as wool or woollen yarn is now by law permitted to be exported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kinſale, Cork, Drogheda, New Roſs, Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligoe, Limerick, Galway, and Dundalk, and imported into the ſeveral ports of Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Milford-Haven, Cheſter, Liverpool, Lancaſter, and Great Yarmouth, or any of them. See IRELAND.

WORCESTERSHIRE, has Herefordſhire and Shropſhire on the weſt, Glouceſterſhire on the ſouth, Staffordſhire on the north, and Warwickſhire on the eaſt, and is 130 miles in circumference. The air and ſoil of this ſhire are inferior to no other, either for health or pleaſure; the former being ſweet all over the county, the latter rich both in tillage and paſturage, the hills being covered with flocks of ſheep, and the vallies abounding in corn and rich meadows. It is in all parts watered with very fine rivers, as the Severn, Stour, Avon, Teme, &c. which alſo furniſh it with plenty of the moſt delicious fiſh. Its commodities, beſides corn, cattle, cheeſe, wool, cloth, ſtuffs, cyder, lampreys, &c. are perry and ſalt, which laſt is in a peculiar manner. Hops are lately very much cultivated in this ſhire, which commodity and their ſalt are ſent down the Severn in a ſort of veſſels called troughs, of which at leaſt 20 are conſtantly employed to Briſtol, Bridgewater, and other places, Somerſet and Dorſetſhire being chiefly ſupplied with the latter by this traffic.

WORCESTER, which is the capital of the county, is a large flouriſhing city. The chief manufactures of it are broad cloth and gloves, eſpecially the former, in which it is incredible what a number of people are employed here and hereabouts.

DROITWICH is of ſpecial note for its ſalt ſprings, by which it is much enriched; the quantity of ſalt made being ſo great, that the taxes annually paid to the crown amount to about 50,000 l. a year, at the rate of 3 s. 6 d. a buſhel.

EVESHAM is a neat town, with a gentle aſcent from the river Avon. Its chief manufacture is woollen ſtockings.

BEWDLEY, or BEAULIEU, is ſo called, from its pleaſant ſituation on the declivity of a hill on the weſt bank of the river Severn. It is a place of conſiderable trade; for by means of the Severn, great quantities of ſalt, iron ware, glaſs, Mancheſter goods, &c. are put aboard barges here, and at Glouceſter aboard troughs, for Briſtol, Bridgewater, and other ports, which renders this a populous thriving town and corporation: but its chief manufacture is caps, which the Dutch ſeamen buy, called Monmouth caps. The town is well ſupplied with corn, malt, and leather, and every Saturday has a market for hops.

KIDDERMINSTER on the Stour, not far from the Severn, is a compact town, where the inhabitants, who are at leaſt 2000, drive a pretty good trade in cloth, and weaving linſey woolſeys, &c.

STOURBRIDGE is a well-built town, the name of which ſhews its relation to the river, over which it has a ſtone bridge. It has been much enriched by iron and glaſs works. There's about half a ſcore glaſs-houſes near it, where glaſſes, bottles, and window-glaſs are made, together with fine ſtone-pots for glaſs-makers to melt the metal in, alſo crucibles, &c. the clay of which they are made, being peculiar to the place. Here is alſo a manufacture of fine freeze cloth.

BROMSGROVE, near the riſe of the river Salwarp, drives a conſiderable trade in clothing.

PERSHORE is a pretty large old town. Its manufacture is ſtockings.

WRECK is where a ſhip is broke to pieces, or loſt on the ſea, and ſignifies in our law ſuch goods as, after a ſhipwreck, are caſt upon the land by the ſea, and left there within ſome county, for they are not wrecks ſo long as they remain at ſea, in the juriſdiction of the admiralty.

In matters of wreck it is obſerved, that there is, as it were, a contract between the perſons that have loſt their goods by ſuch misfortune, and thoſe upon whoſe lands the goods and merchandize are driven, that the ſame be reſtored to them, or thoſe that claim under them: and therefore, by the civil law, no man ſhall meddle with ſuch goods as are wrecked, nor ſhall they be ſeized by the king, or any other by virtue of his grant or royal privilege; for that ſuch goods, being caſt on land and recovered out of the ſea, remain ſtill his who was the firſt owner thereof, and ſhall go to him or his ſucceſſor; and if it be proved that any thing be ſtolen out of the wreck, the takers ſhall be deemed robbers.

Here we find what is worthy to be followed and imitated in all trading countries; and the reaſon why the laws were ſo ſtrictly declared by the Romans was, becauſe by the Rhodian laws [ſee RHODIAN LAWS], if any ſhip had become wreck, though all the perſons were ſaved and alive, yet the ſhip and goods became ſeizable by the lords: but the ſame being barbarous and inhuman, it was afterwards repealed and abrogated, as well by thoſe emperors in their territories, as here in England; and firſt by the naval law of Oleron [ſee OLERON's LAWS], which provided in ſuch misfortune, that if the merchant or mariners, or any of them came ſafe to land, it was not to be accounted wreck.

And the emperor Conſtantine the Great ſays, If any ſhip at any time by ſhipwreck be driven unto the ſhore, or touch at any land, let the owner have it, and let not my exchequer meddle with it; for what right have I in another man's calamity, that I ſhould hunt after gain in ſuch a woeful caſe?

REMARKS.

The laws of Oleron well deſerve attention, on account of the great and juſt ſpirit of them; and this barbarity is now rarely uſed in any nation in Europe, unleſs it be againſt the enemies of the ſtate, infidels, or pirates. See OLERON LAWS.

There are ſeveral other excellent proviſions in the laws of Oleron, to ſecure ſhipwrecked goods to the diſtreſſed owners; and by other ſea laws and ordinances, if any man ſhall prevent aſſiſtance to ſhipwrecked perſons, he ſhall be puniſhed as a murderer: and the like puniſhment hath been ordained for thoſe who ſhall, by treachery, put forth any light, with intention to ſubject them to danger or ſhipwreck; and hence it is that fiſhermen are forbidden to fiſh with lights in the night. By the laws of France, ſuch as during the night light falſe fires upon the ſhore, in dangerous places, to decoy thither, and occaſion the loſs of ſhips, ſhall be put to death, and their bodies hung up upon a maſt, which ſhall be ſet upon the place where the fires are made.

If a ſhip and goods periſh in the ſea, and the owners abandon her, ſo that ſhe becomes a mere derelict, in ſuch caſe, the firſt perſon that takes poſſeſſion of her, and recovers any part of the lading, gains a property therein, by the laws of nations. And where any ſuch wreck happens by any fault or negligence in the maſter or mariner, the maſter muſt make good the loſs; but if the ſame was occaſioned by the act of God, or done to avoid an enemy or pirate, then he ſhall be excuſed. The maſter, &c. ſhall ſuſtain the damage, where he, or any of his mariners, lie aſhore, and the ſhip, during their abſence, periſheth, whether by night or by day, &c. See RHODIAN LAWS.

By the French laws, all ſhips and perſons belonging to them that ſhall be caſt aſhore by tempeſt, or otherwiſe, upon the coaſts of that kingdom, and every thing that has eſcaped ſhipwreck, is declared to be taken into the protection of the king: and all ſubjects are injoined not only to do their utmoſt endeavours to ſuccour all perſons in danger of ſhipwreck, but alſo, till the arrival of the officers of the admiralty, to ſave the ſhipwrecked goods, and prevent their being rifled, under pain of being anſwerable for all loſſes and damages, of which they ſhall not be excuſed, without producing thoſe that are guilty: and ſuch as make an attempt upon the lives or goods of ſhipwrecked perſons, ſhall be puniſhed with death, without any poſſibility of a pardon.

In ancient times, all wrecks in England belonged to the crown; and where a ſhip periſhed at ſea, and no man doth eſcape out of it, the wrecked goods being brought to land by the waves, by the common law belong to the king, by his prerogative, or to the lord of the manor: and the ſtatute de Prerogativa Regis, 17 Edward II, ordains, That the king ſhall have wreck of the ſea, whales and great ſturgeons, taken in the ſea and elſewhere, throughout the realm, except in places privileged. But it was formerly uſual to ſeize wrecks as forfeited to the king, only when no owner could be found; for, in ſuch caſe, it muſt of conſequence belong to him, as lord of the Narrow Seas [ſee SEA DOMINIONS and SEA BRITISH], which he is obliged to ſcour of pirates, &c. and the product of wrecks was ordained to contribute to the charge. Bract. lib. ii. cap. 5.

And by ſtat. 3 Edw. I. cap. 4. called the ſtatute of Weſtminſter the firſt, it is enacted, That where a man, dog, or cat, eſcapes alive out of the ſhip, neither the ſhip, nor any thing therein, ſhall be adjudged a wreck; but the goods ſhall be ſaved, and kept by the ſheriff, coroners, or king's bailiffs, and delivered to the inhabitants of the town where they are found; ſo that if any perſon, within a year and a day, ſue or apply for thoſe goods, and prove that they were his property at the time of the ſhipwreck, they ſhall be reſtored to him without delay: but if not, then they ſhall be ſeized by the ſaid ſheriffs, coroners, or bailiffs for the king's uſe, and ſhall be delivered to the inhabitants of the town or place, who ſhall anſwer before the juſtices for the wreck belonging to the king. Alſo where the wreck belongs to another, he ſhall have the ſame in like manner; and if any one be convicted to have done otherwiſe, he ſhall ſuffer impriſonment, make fine to the king, and likewiſe yield damages: and bailiffs to lords acting contrary, ſhall anſwer for it, if they have wherewith to do it; and if they have not, the lord ſhall deliver his bailiff's body to the king to be anſwerable.

The owners claiming a wreck, muſt make ſufficient proof of their title within the year and day; and they are to do it by their marks or cockets, by the cuſtom-houſe books, or the teſtimony of reputable men; and if the wreck be taken by the king, or ſeized by perſons having no authority, the owner may have a commiſſion to inquire, and hear and determine it, by the oaths of 12 men; or he may bring an action at law, and make his proof by verdict. The year and day ſhall be accounted from the ſeizure; and if the owner of the goods dies within the year, his executors or adminiſtrators may make proof: and when ſuch goods wrecked are periſhable, the ſheriff may ſell them within the year, and the ſale ſhall be good; but he muſt diſpoſe of them to the beſt advantage, and account with the owners. Fitz. Nat. Br. 12. 2 Inſt. 167.

If a ſhip is ready to ſink at ſea, and all the men therein, for preſervation of their lives, quit the ſhip, and afterwards ſhe periſhes, if any of the men are ſaved, the goods ſhall not be loſt. A ſhip on the ſea was chaſed by an enemy; the men in it, for the ſecurity of their lives, quitted the ſhip, which was taken by the enemy, and ſpoiled of her goods and tackle, and then turned to ſea: after this, by ſtreſs of weather, ſhe was caſt on land, where it happened her men ſafely arrived: it was reſolved that the ſhip was no wreck by our law. 5 Co. Rep. 2.

Where goods are wrecked on ſhore, and the lord having power takes them, he ſhall not pay cuſtom, neither by the common law nor the ſtatute law; for at the common law, ſhipwrecked goods could not be charged with cuſtoms, by reaſon the wreck was wholly the king's, and he could not have a cuſtom of what was all his own: and wines, or other goods, coming or brought into the kingdom by wreck, are not imported by any body, but by the wind and ſea; nor can ſuch wrecked goods, ſo caſt aſhore, be ſaid to be brought into the kingdom as merchandize for ſale. Hill. 23 and 24 Car. II.

If a man have a grant of wreck, and goods are wrecked upon his lands, and another taketh them away before ſeizure, he ſhall have an action of treſpaſs, &c. to recover them; and before they are ſeized, there is no property gained, to make it felony. 1 Hawk. 94.

In caſe a perſon loſes his goods at ſea, by piracy or tempeſt, and not by wreck, ifthey afterwards come to land, and he can make proof that they are his goods, they are to be reſtored by the king's officers, or the lords there. Stat. 27 Edw. III. cap. 13.

The ſtatute of 12 Ann. cap. 18. hath ordained, That the ſheriffs and juſtices of the peace of every county, or of a city or town, and all mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers of corporations and port towns near adjoining to the ſea, and all conſtables, tithing-men, and officers of the cuſtoms, in all ſuch places, upon application to them made on behalf of any commander of a ſhip in danger of being ſtranded, or run on ſhore, ſhall command the conſtables near the ſea-coaſt where ſuch ſhip ſhall be in danger, to call together as many men as ſhall be neceſſary, to the aſſiſtance, and for the preſervation of ſuch ſhip; and if there ſhall be any ſhips of war, or other ſhips, lying at anchor near the place, the officers of the cuſtoms, and conſtables, &c. are to require the aſſiſtance of the ſuperior officers, by their boats, and what hands they can ſpare: and if ſuch officers ſhall refuſe or neglect to aſſiſt, they ſhall be liable to the penalty of 100 l. to be recovered by the chief officer of the ſhip in diſtreſs.

No perſons ſhall enter into ſuch ſhips in diſtreſs, without leave from the commander, or a conſtable, &c. and the maſters and conſtables may, by force, repel perſons who ſhall preſs on board the ſaid ſhips without leave. And if any goods are carried off from any ſuch ſhip, and found on any perſon, if they are not delivered to the owner on demand, ſuch perſon ſhall pay treble the value of the goods, recoverable by the owner in an action at law. Alſo, if any officer of the cuſtoms, or his deputy, abuſe the truſt repoſed in him by this act, and ſhall be convicted thereof, he ſhall forfeit treble damages to the party grieved, and be incapable of any employment in the cuſtoms.

If any perſon makes holes in the bottom, ſide, or in any part of a ſhip, or ſteals any pump, or does any thing tending to the loſs of the ſhip, he ſhall be guilty of felony. And by this ſtatute, ſhips and goods are to be preſerved for the benefit of the owners, paying the ſalvage, &c. [ſee SALVAGE.] But this act ſhall not extend to deprive the crown, or any grantee of any right or claim to any wreck or goods that ſhall be jetſam, flotſam, or lagan. See FLOTSAM.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter U.

The chief LAWS relating to WINES.

WINE, oil, and honey, the ton muſt contain 252 gallons, the pipe or butt 126 gallons, the hogſhead 63 gallons, the barrel 31 ½ gallons, the rundlet 18 ½ gallons.

——imported, are diſcharged from the impoſition of exciſe. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 15.

—— of vinegar, landed before payment and ſecurity of the impoſt duty, are forfeited, or their value, and the importers are to pay the ſaid duty notwithſtanding. 1 Jac. II. c. 3. §. 5.

—— firſt landed in the out-ports, and carried afterward to London by certificate, are to pay ſo much more as they paid ſhort of the duties due in London.

—— No wine exceeding the quantity of 10 gallons, imported into any of the out-ports, to be brought from thence to London, or within 20 miles of the Royal Exchange, without paying the out-port and London duty. And if any quantity of wine, exceeding in bottles three dozen, or in caſks 10 gallons, is brought in the ſame carriage to London, or within 20 miles of the ſaid Exchange, without a certificate of the ſaid reſpective duties being paid, &c. it is to be forfeited, &c. 26 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 1, 2.

—— Every hogſhead run out, and not full ſeven inches, or above, and every pipe or butt not above nine inches left therein, are to be accounted for outs, and no duty is to be paid for the ſame.

—— of the growth of Hungary, may be imported from Hamburgh, paying duty as Rheniſh wines. 1 Ann. c. 12. §. 112.

—— imported, 12 per cent. to be allowed for leakage.

—— damaged and corrupt, the allowance repealed. 6 Geo. I. c. 12 §. 1.

—— damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable, upon the importer's refuſing to pay or ſecure the duties, may, at the landing, be delivered up into the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms, in order to be publicly ſold to be diſtilled into brandy, or made into vinegar: and that they ſhall not be uſed for any other purpoſe, ſecurity muſt be taken; which may be diſcharged upon a certificate (within three months after delivery) that they have been ſo uſed. 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 3. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 20.

—— The produce of ſuch ſale is to be paid to the importer, by certificate, as a compenſation for the freight, &c. but ſuch allowance muſt not exceed 4 l. for every ton of wine of the growth of France and Germany, and 8 l. for every ton of all other wines ſo delivered up: and if there be any overplus beyond the ſaid allowance, it muſt be placed to the duties out of which the charges have been paid. 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 4. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 20.

—— But no allowance may be made for ſuch wines, unleſs they be imported in caſks on board a merchant-ſhip directly from the place of their growth, or the uſual place of their firſt ſhipping. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 19. 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4.

—— Except ſaved from ſhips ſtranded, which are to enjoy the ſame allowances, as if imported in the ſhip wherein they were firſt laden. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4.

——Except of the growth of the dominions of the great duke of Tuſcany, in open flaſks, or of Turkey, or any other parts of the Levant Seas, may not be imported in flaſks or bottles, or in veſſels, or caſks, which ſhall contain leſs than 25 gallons, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value: to be ſued for in any of the courts of record in Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or by the laws of exciſe. 1 Geo. II. c. 17. §. 7, 8.

—— exceeding in quantity 10 gallons, which have been imported from foreign parts into any of the out-ports, may not be brought from any place, either by land or water, into the port of London, or members thereof, or within 20 miles of the Royal Exchange, before the proprietor has paid to the collector, or proper officer of the cuſtoms, neareſt to the place from whence the wine is intended to be removed, the duties payable in any of the out-ports, and alſo the difference between the duties payable there, and in the port of London on importation. 26 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 1.

—— in bottles, exceeding three dozen, and in caſks 10 gallons, at the ſame time, and in the ſame carriage, ſo removed, without a certificate from ſuch collector or proper officer, expreſſing the quantity and quality, and that the duties have been paid as above, or that the ſame was wine ſold for ſalvage, or has been compounded for or condemned, is forfeited, together with the caſks or veſſels containing it, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, and proſecuted in the ſame manner as any uncuſtomed wines.

—— If after removal, and payment of the duties as above, it is ſtaved, loſt or periſhed before its arrival as aforeſaid, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, upon proof thereof upon oath to their ſatisfaction, are to cauſe repayment to be made to the proprietor of the difference between the duties payable in the out-ports, and in London, out of the duties payable on wines.

Beſides the duties before mentioned, an act of parliament took place in the year 1762, intitled, An act for granting ſeveral additional DUTIES upon WINES imported into this kingdom, and certain DUTIES upon all CYDER and PERRY, &c.

WINES.——The additional duties on wines to take place after the 31ſt of March, 1763, without any DISCOUNT or DEDUCTION inwards, or drawback on re-exportation afterwards, viz.

—— On French wine and vinegar, 8 l. per ton; and on all other wines and vinegar imported, 4 l. per ton.

—— Damaged and unmerchantable wines exempted from theſe additional duties.

——The ſaid duties to be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

—— No allowance to be made for LEAKAGE, but upon wines imported directly from the country or place of their growth, &c.

—— MADEIRA wines imported from the Britiſh plantations in America excepted.

Chief Laws relating to Wool.

Wool.——The owners of wool, ſhorn or lodged within 10 miles of the ſea-ſide, in the counties of Kent or Suſſex, muſt, within three days after ſheering, give an exact account, in writing, of the number of fleeces, and where lodged, to the officers of the next port.

—— The like notice muſt be given before removal, expreſſing the number of fleeces, and weight, the name and abode of the buyer, and the place to which it is intended to be carried, and a certificate taken from the officer, who firſt entered it, upon forfeiture, and 3s. per pound weight.

—— Such certificates muſt ſpecify the names of the owners and buyers, and be limited to ſuch times and places to be removed; for which certificate the officer is to receive 6d. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 3.

—— Perſons reſiding within 15 miles of the ſea, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, may not buy wool before they have entered into a bond, with ſureties, that all the wool they buy, ſhall not be ſold by them to any perſons within 15 miles of the ſea.

—— found carrying towards the ſea-ſide, in the aforeſaid counties, unleſs entered, and ſecurity be given, is forfeited, and 3s. per pound weight. Ditto act, §. 4.

—— removed from the place where firſt lodged after ſheering, within 10 miles of the ſea, may not be lodged, after the firſt removal, within 15 miles of the ſea, in the aforeſaid counties, upon forfeiture thereof, if found, or 3s. per pound weight by the owners, if carried away. Ditto act, §. 5.

—— laid or hid within 15 miles of the ſea, and not entered, is forfeited.

—— The claimer of ſuch wool, ſo ſeized as forfeited, muſt give ſufficient ſecurity in the court of Exchequer, to pay treble coſts, if caſt, over and above the penalties and forfeitures. Ditto act, §. 6.

—— One third part of the aforeſaid forfeitures and penalties is to be to the uſe of his Majeſty, and the other two-thirds to the uſe of the ſeiſer or ſuer. Ditto act, §. 8.

—— coaſtwiſe, deſigned to be carried to any place on the ſea-coaſts, with an intention to be conveyed to any other port or place on the ſea-coaſt, from whence it may be exported, muſt, before loaded, or carried within five miles of the place, be entered at the port from whence it is to be conveyed, mentioning the exact weight, mark and numbers, upon forfeiture thereof, with the horſes, &c. and perſons concerned in carrying, driving, &c. are liable to the forfeitures inflicted on the exportation.

—— But to hinder the conveyance of wool from the place of ſheering to the proprietor's dwelling-houſe, though within five miles, or leſs, of the ſea; provided that within 10 days after the ſheering, and before the removal and diſpoſal, he certifies under his hand, to the officers of the next port, the number of fleeces, and where lodged, and does not remove or diſpoſe thereof, without certifying his intention, at leaſt three days before removal; ſuch certificates are to be kept, and regiſtered by the officers. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 2, 3. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— A regiſter of all wool ſent coaſtwiſe, with the particular weights and numbers, the ſhip-maſter's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtom-houſe, London. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 11. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, and tobacco-pipe-clay; the cockets for the carriage thereof coaſtwiſe muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, expreſſing the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers in whoſe preſence they are to be weighed. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 4. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 7. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 14.

—— The return or certificate of landing the wool muſt be written on paper, not parchment, the quantity not obliterated or interlined, and muſt expreſs the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, in whoſe preſence it muſt be weighed. Ditto acts.

—— Officers not performing their duties, are to be deemed aiders and abettors of the tranſportation, and ſhall ſuffer the penalties contained in 12 Car. II. c. 32. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 5. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Wool, ſheep, &c. as above, may not be exported, nor packed, or loaded upon any horſe, &c. nor laden on board any ſhip, with intent to be exported, unleſs as hereafter excepted, upon forfeiture, and 20s. for every ſheep, and 3s. for every pound weight of the reſt. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 1, 2, 3. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 2, 3, 8. and 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 2, 3, 4. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1, 2.

—— Owners of the ſhips, knowing thereof, are to forfeit their intereſt therein. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— And if the owners be aliens, or natural-born ſubjects not inhabiting within this kingdom, ſuch ſhips are forfeited wholly to his Majeſty. 12 Car II. c. 32. §. 9.

—— Maſters and mariners, knowing thereof, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit all their goods and chattels, and to ſuffer three months impriſonment. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 3.

—— The exporter, beſides other penalties, is diſabled to require any debt, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 4.

—— Owners, maſters, or mariners, diſcovering upon oath, within three months after knowlege of the offence, or after their return into Great-Britain, the number, quantity, and quality of the goods exported, &c. are to be diſcharged of all penalties, and to have the benefit of an informer's part. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11. and 1 W. & M. c. 32. §. 8. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Sheep, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe-clay, the exportation declared a common and public nuſance. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

—— Offences may be tried and determined at the general quarter-ſeſſions, in the county where committed, or where the offenders ſhall be apprehended, or the goods or ſhips taken. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 5. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 4, 12. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 12.

—— Offences muſt be proſecuted within three years. Ditto acts.

Such goods ſhipped or found on the ſhore, at or near the ſea, or any navigable river, or packed or loaded on any horſe, &c. with intent to be exported, may be ſeized by any perſons; but ſuch perſons may not be evidence againſt the offender. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 7, 8. and 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 8, 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

——But the aforesaid Prohibition is not to extend to—lamb ſkins ready dreſſed and prepared for furs or linings—nor to wool-fells, or pelts, or beds ſtuffed with flocks, or whether ſheep alive, or the wool growing thereon, taken on board for the uſe and food of the ſhip and paſſengers. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 10, 11. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 10.—Nor to the exportation of uncombed wool, out of the port of Southampton, into the following iſlands, and not exceeding the following reſpective quantities yearly, viz.

To Jerſey	4000	Tods, not exceeding 32 pounds each.
To Guernſey	2000	
To Alderney	400	
To Sark	200	

—— Provided the exporter, before ſhipping, delivers to the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor, or ſearcher, a writing under the ſeals of the reſpective governors, ſignifying that the perſon therein named is authorized to export the number of tods therein mentioned; and that he has given ſufficient ſecurity for the due landing. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 2, 12, 13.

—— Governors may not grant licences for any greater quantity, upon forfeiture of 20l. per tod to his majeſty. 1 W. & M. c. 32. §. 14. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Such wool may not be again tranſported out of the ſaid iſlands, upon forfeiture of 20l. per tod; $\frac{1}{2}$ to his Majeſty, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the informer, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the poor; and the offenders to be rendered incapable of any grant or warrant for wool for the future. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 14. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Cuſtomer of Southampton muſt keep a true account of the quantity of the wool ſhipped, and may not permit any greater quantities than thoſe before limited, upon forfeiture of office, and 100l. Ditto acts.

Wool, Wool-Fells, Mortlings, Shortlings, Yarn made of Wool, Wool-Flocks, Fuller's-Earth, Fulling-Clay, or Tobacco-Pipe-Clay.

—— Packs, ſacks, bags, or caſks of ſuch goods, may not be loaded on any horſe, &c. nor carried by land within this kingdom, but in the day-time, and at ſeaſonable hours; that is to ſay, from the 1ſt day of March to the 29th of September, between 4 in the morning, and 8 in the evening; and after the 29th of September to the firſt of March, between 7 in the morning and 5 in the evening, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 9.

—— Such goods may not be loaded upon any horſe, &c. or carried by land, within five miles of the ſea-coaſt, but between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, upon forfeiture thereof, and the horſes, &c.

—— Exported into parts beyond the ſeas, the penalty is forfeiture of ſhip and goods, and treble the value, with treble coſts of ſuit.

—— Perſons aſſiſting in the exportation, are to ſuffer three years impriſonment, without bail or main-prize.

—— The firſt three perſons (not being the owners) aſſiſting in the exportation, diſcovering their crime to any juſtice of the peace, are diſcharged of all penalties and puniſhments. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 8, 10, 11.

—— The inhabitants of the place out of which, or through which, ſuch goods are carried or exported, are to forfeit 20l. if they be under the value of 10l. but if above, treble the value, and alſo treble coſts of ſuit. 7 and 8. W. III. c. 28. §. 8.

—— But

—— But the hundred of Winchelſea, in the cinque-ports, being divided by a navigable arm of the ſea, is to be deemed as two diſtinct hundreds; and the offences committed in one part, are not to be chargeable on the inhabitants of the other. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

—— Execution for the informer may be had againſt two or more of the inhabitants; and the juſtices, at their general quarter-ſeſſions, may tax every town, &c. in the hundred, &c. as in the caſe of robbery. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 9.

—— The owner of the goods, and each of his aſſiſtants, are to anſwer treble the value of the penalties to the inhabitants, and treble coſts of ſuit, to be recovered by action, in the name of the clerk of the peace. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 10.

—— Perſons entitled to penalties and forfeitures, compounding with any hundred, port or place, for leſs than is due by law, any other perſon may ſue for the whole, as if no ſuch compoſition had been made; and the compounder is to ſuffer five years impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 13.

—— The admiralty are to appoint one ſhip of the 5th rate, and two of the 6th rate, and four armed ſloops, to cruize conſtantly from off the North Foreland to the Iſle of Wight, with orders for ſeizing all veſſels exporting wool, or carrying or bringing prohibited goods, or any ſuſpected perſons. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 14.

—— The admiralty are to appoint three ſhips of the 6th rate, and 8 or more armed ſloops, to cruize on the coaſt of Great-Britain or Ireland, in ſuch ſtations as ſhall be aſſigned them by the admiralty, with orders to ſeize all veſſels in which any wool, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ſerges, ſhalloons, or any drapery, ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures whatſoever, ſhall be exported, or laden to be exported, from Ireland to foreign parts. A liſt of the ſhips and ſloops, the names of the commanders, and copies of their inſtructions, are to be ſent to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms of Great-Britain, and commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, within 10 days after given. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 16. and 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

—— The commanders of ſuch ſhips may ſearch any veſſels within the limits of their ſtations; and if any of the above-mentioned goods are found on board, without cocket or warrant, licenſing the exportation thereof, may carry them, with crew and cargo, into any port in Great-Britain or Ireland. 5 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 2.

—— After ſeizure, the goods are to be ſecured in the king's warehouſe; and when condemned muſt, together with the veſſel, her guns, tackle and furniture, be ſold by inch of candle to the beſt bidder, after 21 days public notice; $\frac{1}{4}$ of the produce of ſuch to the commander, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the officers of the ſhip or ſloop, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the mariners, and $\frac{1}{4}$ to the king, out of which the charges of proſecution are to be paid, except the ſeizure be made upon information; in which caſe, the informer is to be indemnified from all penalties, &c. and to be paid $\frac{1}{5}$ of ſuch ſale, and the reſidue to be divided into four parts, and diſtributed as above. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 17. and 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 3.

—— Commanders neglecting their duties, compounding for, or conniving at the exportation of wool, are to forfeit all their pay due, to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, and be rendered incapable of any ſervice in the navy. 10 and 11. W. III. c. 10. §. 18.

Offenders againſt any of the laws made for the preventing of the exportation of wool, may be proſecuted by action, &c. in any of his Majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter; and thereupon copies may iſſue in the firſt proceſs, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for; and ſuch offenders be obliged to give bail to anſwer the ſuit, and alſo, at appearance, to pay the penalties incurred, or to yield their bodies to priſon. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 20.

—— Offenders in priſon, for want of ſufficient bail, for the unlawful exportation of wool or wool-fells, not pleading to a declaration or information, delivered by the ſpace of one term, judgment may be entered againſt them by default. 4 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 6.

If judgment be obtained againſt ſuch offenders, and they do not pay the ſum recovered within three months, the court may order tranſportation for ſeven years, as for felony. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 27.

WOOL, YARN MADE OF WOOL, AND WOOL-FLOCKS, may not be preſſed together with any ſcrews, preſſes, or other engines, into any ſack, pack, bag, caſk, &c. nor carried, nor laid, at or near the ſhore or coaſts of the ſea, or any navigable river, or into any place adjoining, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 7.

—— Wool, Spaniſh or foreign, may be exported only in Britiſh ſhipping, upon pain of confiſcation. See Rule 5, at the end of Letter A.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY, OR WOOLLEN YARN, may be exported from any port in Ireland, with intent to be imported into any port in Great-Britain, and not otherwiſe; but CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, or any othe DRAPERY, made of or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS, and manufactured in Ireland, may not be exported out of Ireland, unleſs they be ſhipped in the ports of Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Dundalk, Galway, Kinſale, Limeric, New-Roſs, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, Wexford, Wicklow, and Youghall in Ireland, and with intent to be imported into the ports of Barnſtaple, Biddeford, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Cheſter, Liverpool, Milford-haven, and Minehead in England and Wales: but notice muſt be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector of the port into which they are intended to be brought, of the quantity, quality and package, with the marks and numbers, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the port of importation; and bond be entered into, with one or more ſufficient ſureties, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly; and a licence be alſo granted, under the hands of the commiſſioners, or any three of them, or by the cuſtomer, or the collector of the port where bond is given, upon forfeiture of ſhip, goods, and 500 l. by every offender. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 6. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 5. 10 and 11. W. III. c. 10. §. 1, 2, 3, 10, 14. 11 and 12 W. III. c. 13. §. 9. 4 Ann. c. 7. §. 1. 3 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 4, 5. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 21. 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6. 26 Geo. II. c. 11. §. 1, 2.

—— Maſters, mariners, or others, knowing of ſuch offence, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit 40 l.

—— Actions and informations may be tried in any of his majeſty's four courts at Dublin.

—— The firſt three perſons aſſiſting, (not being owners) diſcovering their offence, are diſcharged of all penalties.

—— Acquittals in Ireland, not to bar or delay proſecutions in England. Ditto acts.

—— WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY OR WOOLLEN-YARN, CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH SERGES, or any other DRAPERY made of, or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS. For every ſhip ſailing from Ireland to Great-Britain, with any of the aforeſaid goods, bond muſt be given, before ſhipping, to the chief officers of the port, by two ſufficient perſons, in double the value of the goods, that they ſhall be brought to Great-Britain, and there landed, and the duties paid, upon forfeiture of the ſhip. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 5, 15.

—— The penalties and forfeitures of ſuch bonds may not be granted or aſſigned over to any perſon. Ditto acts.

The cockets, or warrants, for carrying of ſuch goods from Ireland to Great-Britain, muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, and ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers indorſed thereon.

—— The like endorſement muſt be upon the warrant for the landing the ſame in England; and the goods muſt be viewed and examined by the ſurveyor or land-waiter. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 7, 9.

—— The certificates of landing, granted for diſcharging the bond taken in Ireland, muſt be written on paper, and not parchment, ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers indorſed thereon, and not obliterated or interlined. Ditto acts.

—— A regiſter of all ſuch goods, with the particular quantities, qualities, weights, and numbers, the ſhip, maſter's name, owner's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtom-houſe, London. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 11. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 6.

—— The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Ireland muſt, every ſix months, or within 30 days after, tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, duplicates of the bonds taken for the lading, and a true account of all ſuch goods exported, expreſſing the quantity, quality, and weight, by whom, and in what ſhip exported, where conſigned, the names of the officers, certifying the landing in England, the dates of their certificates, where landed, and the quantity, quality, weight, marks and numbers contained in ſuch certificates. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 6. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 8.

—— The commiſſioners appointed to execute the ſeveral acts againſt the exportation thereof. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 7. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY OR WOOLLEN-YARN, CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, OR ANY OTHER DRAPERY, MADE OF, OR MIXED WITH WOOL, OR WOOL-FLOCKS, may not be put on board any veſſel or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence, into this kingdom, but ſuch as are of the built of Great-Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the ſubjects of this kingdom or Ireland, and regiſtered as under, on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, as alſo of the veſſel or boat, with her guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6.

Oath muſt be made by one of the owners, before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, at the port to which ſhe belongs, as follows:

Jurat. A. B. That the ſhip of whereof is at preſent maſter, being built of tons, was built at in the year and that of and of are at preſent owners thereof; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt therein. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 7.

A certificate of which oath, atteſted by the collector and comptroller, under their hands and ſeals, is (after having been regiſtered by them) to be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip, for the ſecurity of her navigation; and a duplicate of the regiſter to be immediately tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in London, in order to be entered in a general regiſter to be there kept for this purpoſe. Ditto act.

—— No ſhip's name, after regiſtering, may be changed, or the property transferred to any port, without regiſtering her again, and delivered up to the former regiſter to be cancelled, under the ſame penalties as before directed. And in caſe of any alteration of property in the ſame port, by ſale of any ſhare, ſuch ſale muſt be acknowleged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 8.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY, or WOOLLEN YARN, may not be packed up in Great Britain or Ireland, in any other package but packs or truſſes of leather, and pack-cloth, and marked on the outſide with the reſpective words WOOL or YARN, in large letters, not leſs than three inches in length, on forfeiture of the goods and package, and 3s. for every pound weight, to be paid by the owner or packer of it. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 10.

—— Wool, coverlids, waddings, or other manufactures of wool ſlightly worked or put together, ſo as they may be reduced to, or made uſe of as wool again, or matraſſes, or beds ſtuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, may not be exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, under the like penalties and forfeitures, as for being concerned in the exportation of wool. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 9.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, COMBED WOOL, WOOLLEN or BAY-YARN, WORSTED, YARN-CRUEL, OR WOOL SLIGHTLY MANUFACTURED, may not be laden on any veſſel bound to parts beyond the ſeas; nor laden, in order to be carried coaſtwiſe, from one port of Great-Britain or Ireland to another; unleſs notice be firſt given to the commiſſioner of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port from which they are intended to be ſent or exported, of the quantity, quality, and package, with the marks and numbers, the ſhip and maſter's name, the name and place of abode of the owner of the goods, and the port into which they are intended to be imported, and to whom conſigned; and bond be entered into, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly (notice whereof to be tranſmitted from the cuſtomer or collector of the port from whence the ſame is intended to be exported, to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port into which the ſame is intended to be imported) and unleſs a licence be taken out under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or from the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller, where ſuch bond is given for landing and carrying thereof as aforeſaid, on forfeiture of the goods, together with the veſſel, or boat, and furniture, on which they are laden. The licence to be granted without any charge to the perſon demanding it. 12 Car. II. c. 21. §. 11.

—— The ſaid bond not to be diſcharged, but by a certificate under the hand and ſeal of the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port where they are landed, of the quality, quantity and package, the marks and numbers, with the name of the ſhip and maſter. And bonds not ſo diſcharged after ſix months, are to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or to the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, who are to put them in ſuit immediately. Ditto act.

—— No other ſecurity, now required by law, for goods carried coaſtwiſe, to be hereby leſſened; or law in force for preventing the exportation of wool, or other goods aforeſaid, to be repealed or made void herehy. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 12.

—— None of the goods before mentioned, imported from Ireland, or carried coaſtwiſe within this kingdom or Ireland, may be ſhipped or landed, but in the preſence of the proper officers, and at the lawful keys, without leave from the commiſſioners and officers of the cuſtoms, on forfeiture of the goods, or value thereof, and 3s. for every pound weight; to be paid by the proprietor of the goods, or any perſon concerned in the ſhipping or landing thereof. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 13.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WORSTED, BAY, OR WOOLLEN-YARN, FULLER'S-EARTH, FULLING-CLAY, TOBACCO-PIPE-CLAY, or any ſcouring-clay or earth, tranſported out of Great-Britain, or any of the ſaid goods, or CLOTHS, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, CLOTH-SERGES, SHALLOONS, or other DRAPERY-STUFFS, or WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, made up or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS, illegally tranſported out of Ireland.

—— Information of ſeizure of any of the ſaid goods, as forfeited by this or any other act, are to be entered by none but officers of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt-duties; and informations againſt any perſons, for recovery of the penalties and forfeitures, on account of the illegal tranſportation of the ſaid goods, to be filed, and proſecuted only in the name of the attorney-general, or in the name of ſome officer of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt-duties.

—— But this act is not to take away the power given by any law to the commander and officer of ſhips of war, or the armed ſloops, appointed by the admiralty to guard againſt the tranſportation of wool out of Great-Britain or Ireland. 12 Geo II. c. 21. §. 14.

—— Any officer making a colluſive ſeizure or information of the ſaid goods, or any fraudulent agreement, whereby the perſons concerned may avoid the penalties and forfeitures incurred, forfeits 200l. and is incapable of ſerving in any office of the revenue; and the exporters, importers, and owners of the goods, forfeit treble the value, to the uſe of the perſon who informs or ſues for the ſame in any court of record at Weſtminſter or Dublin, or the court of Exchequer in Scotland. 12 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 16.

——Any perſon concerned therein, firſt making a diſcovery, ſo as one of his accomplices be convicted, is to be cleared and diſcharged thereof; and, not being an officer of the revenue, or owner of the goods, to have the whole money recovered on conviction of the offender, the charge of proſecution being firſt deducted. 12 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 17.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WORSTED, BAY or WOOLLEN YARN, CRUELS, OR WOOL SLIGHTLY MANUFACTURED, OR MATTRASSES, OR BEDS STUFFED WITH COMBED WOOL, OR WOOL FIT FOR COMBING, FULLER'S-EARTH, FULLING-CLAY, TOBACCO-PIPE-CLAY, OR ANY OTHER SCOURING-EARTH OR CLAY, exported from Great-Britain, or any of the ſaid goods, or CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, or any other DRAPERY made or mixed with WOOL manufactured in Ireland, and illegally exported from thence. Actions, ſuits or informations upon this, or any other act, may be proſecuted (except where by this act is otherwiſe directed) in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or at the quarter ſeſſions of the peace, or before two juſtices of the peace, in a ſummary way, at the election of the ſeizer or informer, or by any law relating to the revenue of Ireland in that kingdom; and if the property be claimed, the ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the owner or claimer. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 18.

—— All penalties and forfeitures before mentioned in this act (except where otherwiſe directed) to be for the uſe of the perſon who ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 19.

On condemnation of the aforeſaid goods, the reſpective commiſſioners may cauſe them to be ſold publicly to the beſt bidder; and the charges of condemnation and ſale being firſt paid, the remainder is to be paid to the perſon who ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 20.

—— But if an officer makes a ſeizure, or carries on a proſecution to effect, by the information of any other perſon, ſuch perſon is to have half of what is recovered by the officer. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 21.

—— If any perſon who may become liable to the payment of the 3s. per pound weight by this or by any former acts, is not able to pay it, the reſpective commiſſioners may cauſe 1s. per pound weight of the goods, for which the offender is convicted, to be paid to the informer or proſecutor by their receiver-general, out of any public money in his hands. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 22.

—— Any maſter, mate, or mariners, belonging to any ſhip concerned in the illegal exportation or importation of the goods aforeſaid, from Great-Britain or Ireland, giving an account, within ſix months after the ſhipping the ſame, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland, or the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, of the name of the ſhip, the ſpecies and quantities of the goods, the name of the owner, exporter, or perſons who act in their aid and aſſiſtance, ſo as they may convicted, is to be indemnified, diſcharged of all penalties and forfeitures, and receive $\frac{1}{4}$ of what is recovered, clear of all charges, the other $\frac{1}{4}$ to be applied to the uſe of his majeſty, after deducting the charges of proſecution and condemnation. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 23.

—— Every perſon appointed by deputation, commiſſion, or other inſtrument, under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt, to act as an officer

or

or ſervant under them, in putting this or any act, againſt the tranſportation of wool, in execution, is to be eſteemed an officer of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt reſpectively. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 24.

—— Offering or promiſing to bribe an officer to connive at the ſaid illegal practices, the penalty is 300 l. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 25.

—— Perſons obſtructing an officer, or his aſſiſtants, in making ſeizures, by virtue of this act, or who being armed or diſguiſed, attempt to reſcue any of the aforeſaid goods after ſeizure, are to be tranſported for ſeven years. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 26.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, CRUELS, WORSTED, WOOLLEN AND BAY-YARN, MATRASSES, AND BEDS STUFFED WITH COMBED WOOL, OR WOOL fit to be combed, exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES exported from Ireland, inſured to parts beyond the ſeas; the perſon inſuring, his aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants, forfeit 500 l. over and above all other forfeitures and penalties they are liable to; and the perſon inſured forfeits 500 l. to the uſe of the informer, or perſon who ſues for the ſame. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 29, 30.

—— The inſurer firſt making diſcovery within ſix months after ſuch tranſaction, ſo as the perſons concerned with him be convicted thereof, is to be acquitted of the offence, receive the whole forfeiture recovered, deducting charges of proſecution, and likewiſe retain the money given him for inſurance. Or the perſon inſured firſt making diſcovery as aforeſaid, is to receive back what was paid for the inſurance, and alſo to have the whole forfeiture impoſed on the inſurer, deducting the charges of proſecution, and to be diſcharged of the forfeitures incurred. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 31.

X.

X Y L

XYLO BALIANUM. This is the wood of the ſhrub that yields the balſam of Mecca, and paſſes for a powerful cordial, cephalic, and alexipharmic. It has been ordered in many compoſitions; but as it is very hard to be procured, apothecaries generally ſubſtitute for it either yellow ſaunders or aloes-wood.

X Y L

Y.

YEAST.

A METHOD of CURING YEAST, the FLOWER of WINE, and WINE-LEES, for the ſervice of diſtilling, wine-making, vinegar-making, &c.

Take a quantity of common ale-yeaſt, and put it into a cloſe canvas-bag, and gently ſqueeze out the moiſture in a ſcrew-preſs, 'till the remaining matter is left as hard as clay; in which ſtate, being cloſe packed in a tight caſk, and well ſecured from the air, it will keep freſh and ſound for ſeveral months, as has been often experienced.

REMARKS.

This is an experiment of conſiderable uſe to brewers and diſtillers, who in England, though they employ very large quantities of yeaſt, ſeem to have no good method of preſerving it, or raiſing nurſeries thereof, whereby they ſuſtain a conſiderable loſs: whereas the brewers in Flanders make a great profit, by ſupplying the malt-diſtillers of Holland with yeaſt, which is rendered laſting and fit for carriage, after the manner of the preſent experiment.

The ſame method is practicable to much greater advantage, in the yeaſt of wine and wine-lees, if they could be imported into England: for by this means we might eaſily imitate the wines and brandies of foreign growth; the lees and yeaſt of wine readily affording an eſſential oil, by diſtillation, a ſmall proportion whereof will flavour a large one of wine or brandy. But a ſhorter and more perfect way, is to let any taſteleſs, or other proper wine, fret, or ſtand for ſome time, upon ſuch lees, or wine-yeaſt, whereby it will, to great advantage, acquire the natural taſte and flavour of the wine whereto the lee or yeaſt belonged. See the article BREWING.

YORKSHIRE. As this is by far the largeſt county in England, ſo it is variouſly ſituated, and conſequently, has great variety of ground, that is, high and low, rich and poor, marſhy and heathy. On the weſt it is bounded by Lancaſhire, and a part of Cheſhire; on the ſouth by Derbyſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Lincolnſhire; on the north by Durham and Weſtmoreland; and on the eaſt by the German Ocean; and contains 360 miles in compaſs.

The commodities are, in a particular manner, allum, jet, lime, liquorice, horſes; its manufactures, knives, bits, ſpurs, ſtockings, &c. but the greateſt of all is cloth, with which it in a good meaſure ſupplies Germany and the North. The corn and cattle, with which it abounds, are not mentioned, becauſe theſe are what they have in common with other counties. Iron and lead mines have been in more plenty than of late years, though no leſs than 40,000 perſons are employed in the iron manufactures, under about 600 maſter cutlers, who are incorporated by the ſtile of the cutlers of Hallamſhire.

It is divided into three parts, or ridings, each as large, if not larger, than any ordinary county, which are diſtinguiſhed by weſt, eaſt, and north, from their ſituation with reſpect to the city of York.

The WEST RIDING, which is the moſt conſiderable of the three, for its fertility and number of inhabitants, is ſeparated by the Ouſe from the Eaſt Riding; it has the North Riding on the north; part of Lancaſhire, and Cheſhire on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; and Lincolnſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Derbyſhire, on the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth. Its chief rivers are the Ure or Ouſe, Don, Calder, Are, Ribble, and Wherfe. Its air, though ſharp, is generally reckoned more healthy than that of the other two; and the ſoil is various. They have a ſtone here, which being calcined, is made into allum, by various percolations and boilings: it is noted alſo for jet and liquorice, for fine horſes and goats, for making and curing legs of pork into hams, like the Weſtphalian, and for the manufactures of cloth and iron.

YORK, the capital of the county, and heretofore the ſecond city in the kingdom, is pleaſantly ſituate, in a large plain, or valley, on the river Ouſe, which, though 60 miles from the ſea, bring ſhips to the city that are of 70 tons burthen. A cotton manufacture was lately eſtabliſhed here, which is brought to very great perfection.

KNARESBOROUGH is only of note for its medicinal ſprings, but not ſo much frequented ſince Scarborough ſpa came in vogue.

RIPPON is a large, pleaſant, well-built, and populous town, between the Ure and little river Skell: it formerly flouriſhed by the woollen manufacture, which it has ſince loſt, though it is ſtill a ſtaple for wool, which is bought up here every week, by the clothiers from Leeds, Wakefield, Haliſax, &c. It has two annual horſe-fairs, viz. one the Monday before the 10th of March, the other on the Monday after Lammas-Day, and is noted for making the beſt ſpurs. Tanned leather is ſold in great quantities, as alſo cattle of all kinds, at its fairs.

BOROUGHBRIDGE is a borough and poſt-town on the Ure; it is reckoned that 7 or 8000 l. is laid out yearly here in hard ware, which is the chief ſupport of the town.

SHEFFIELD, on the borders of Derbyſhire, is an ancient, large, thriving, and populous town, on the river Don, having been noted ſeveral hundred years for cutlers and ſmiths wares, particularly for files and knives, or whittles: the firſt mills in England for turning grindſtones were ſet up here. The ſmiths manufactures were encouraged and advanced here, by the neighbourhood of the iron mines.

DONCASTER, on the river Don, is a noble, ſpacious, and populous town; the manufactures of which are knit waiſtcoats and petticoats, gloves and ſtockings.

BAUTRE, ſituate near the Idle, which parts this riding from Nottinghamſhire: it is of chief note for its trade in mill-ſtones.

BARNESLEY is a well-built town, noted for its trade in wire and hard-ware.

WAKEFIELD is a large well-built town, in a thriving ſtate, and very populous. Its Friday market is for woollen cloth, like that at Leeds, but not quite ſo conſiderable, though abundance of it is made in and near this town: it ſtands on the Calder, which has been made navigable by acts of parliament, firſt to this town, and continued from hence to Ealand and Halifax.

HUTHERSFIELD is the firſt town of note that the Calder comes to from Halifax, and is one of the five towns in this county that have the greateſt ſhare in the cloathing trade.

SNATH is a ſmall town, but has a pretty good trade, the river being navigable to it by boats.

HALIFAX ſtands on the Calder, extending from weſt to eaſt, on the gentle deſcent of a hill: it is a pariſh, the moſt populous, if not the moſt extenſive, in England. The trade of this town has greatly increaſed of late years, eſpecially as they have entered into the manufacture of ſhalloons, of which few, if any, were ever made in theſe parts before; ſo that it has been calculated that 100,000 pieces are made in a year in this pariſh only, at the ſame time that almoſt as many kerſies are made here as ever; and it has been affirmed, that one dealer here has traded by commiſſion for 60,000 l. a year, to Holland and Hamburgh, in the ſingle article of kerſies.

It is remarked, that this and the neighbouring towns are all ſo employed in the woollen manufactures, that they ſcarce ſow more corn than will keep their poultry, and that they feed very few oxen or ſheep: ſo that the proviſions they conſume come chiefly from the Eaſt Riding, and neighbouring counties. Their markets are thronged by ſuch prodigious numbers of people, to ſell their manufactures, and buy proviſions, that none are more crowded in the north of England, except thoſe of Leeds and Wakefield.

LEEDS, which ſtands on the river Aire, has been a long time famous for the woollen manufacture, and is one of the largeſt and moſt flouriſhing towns in the county.

Its cloth market was formerly on the bridge; but, on the great increaſe of that trade, it has been ſold in that called the High-Street, or Bridgate-Street, where every market-day in the morning numbers of treſſels are ranged, and covered with boards, and, upon ringing of the market bell, at ſix in the ſummer, and ſeven in the winter, the clothiers in the inns bring out their cloth. When the bell ceaſes, the chapmen come into

into the market, where they match their patterns, and treat for the cloth in few words, and with a whiſper, becauſe the clothiers ſtand ſo near each other; and perhaps 20,000 l. worth of cloth is ſold in an hour's time. The bell rings again at half an hour after eight, upon which the ſcene is changed; the clothiers and their chapmen, with their treſſels, diſappear, and make room for the linen-drapers, hardwaremen, ſhoe-makers, fruiterers, &c. at the ſame time the ſhambles are well ſtored with all ſorts of fiſh and fleſh; and of apples 500 loads have been counted here on a day. There is a magnificent hall in the town, where they alſo ſell great quantities of white cloth: it has a cupola and bell at top, like Blackwell-Hall in London, to give notice when the ſale begins. The river Aire being navigable here by boats, opens a communication from the town with Wakefield, York, and Hull, to which places it exports other goods beſides woollen, and furniſhes the city of York with coals.

BRADFORTH is another town eminent for the woollen manufacture.

ABERFORTH is of note only for its manufacture of pins.

SELBY is a populous, though ſmall town, with a good trade on the river Ouſe, which brings up large veſſels to it, ſo that it is inhabited by ſeveral merchants.

WETHERBY is a notable trading town on the river Wherfe.

BURSTALL is a little town, noted for the manufacture of broad cloth, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from kerſeys, druggets, &c. though the cloths of this county are all called narrow at London, when compared with the broad cloths made in the weſt of England. At this town is alſo made a ſort of cloth in imitation of the Glouceſter whites, which is of as good a colour as thoſe, if not as fine.

The EAST RIDING, which is the ſmalleſt of the three, is bounded on the north and weſt by the Derwent and the Ouſe; on the ſouth by the Humber; and on the eaſt by the German Ocean. The air and ſoil are various, according to the different parts of it. Its rivers are the Ouſe, Derwent, Fowlwy, Shelfleet, and Hull.

BEVERLEY, on the river Hull, has a trade in malt, oatmeal, and tanned leather, which are its principal manufactures; but the poor people ſupport themſelves moſtly by weaving of bone-lace, which of late has met with particular encouragement. Here was formerly a cloathing trade, but long ſince decayed. Its moſt remarkable fair is that which begins about nine days before Aſcenſion, and is kept in a ſtreet leading to the Minſter-Garth, called Londoner-Street, becauſe then the Londoners bring down their wares and furniſh the country tradeſmen with them by wholeſale. The trade of this town is very much increaſed ſince the creek, or cut, called Beverley-Beck, from the town to the river Hull, has by act of parliament, in 1727, been cleanſed, deepened, and widened, and thereby rendered navigable for veſſels of large burthen.

KINGSTON UPON HULL, as it is denominated in all authentic writings, but commonly called HULL, is a large, cloſe-built, and exceeding populous town, and not only the moſt conſiderable in this part of England, for its inland traffic, but has a foreign trade equal to that of moſt out-ports in the kingdom; and has as many merchant-ſhips belong to it, as to any port in England, except London, Briſtol, Liverpool, and Yarmouth. Indeed more particular circumſtances concur to render it rich in trade, than moſt towns on our coaſts can boaſt of. One thing has contributed eſpecially to its increaſe in trade, and to its being the center of the navigation, and that is, the great number of large rivers which fall into the ſea near it, by which it carries on a commerce and navigation with a very great part of England, particularly the inland counties, that have no foreign trade by any other canal; all the heavy goods of which counties, ſuch as lead from Derby and Nottinghamſhires, iron ware from Sheffield, cheeſe from Warwickſhire, Staffordſhire, and even Cheſhire, are brought down to this port, and here exported to Holland, Hamburgh, and the Baltic, as alſo to France and Spain, from whence they make large returns in iron, copper, hemp, flax, canvas, Ruſſia linen and yarn, beſides wine, oil, fruit, linen, &c. from Holland, France, and Spain. But what is more than all is, the vaſt quantity of corn brought down out of thoſe counties to Hull, as makes it, without exception, the greateſt port in England for exportation of corn, ſometimes exceeding even London itſelf. The trade, on the other hand, betwixt this port and London, eſpecially for corn, lead, and butter, and the trade between this port and Holland and France, not only for all thoſe commodities, but for the cloth, kerſeys, and other manufactures of Leeds, Halifax, and other great and populous towns of the Weſt-Riding, is ſuch, that they not only employ ſhips, but fleets, which are generally from 50 to 60 ſail together, and in war time often 100 ſail, or more. They who have ſeen the greateſt ports abroad, ſay there is more buſineſs done at this, in proportion to its bigneſs, than in any other port in Europe.

BRIDLINGTON, which ſtands near the bay ſo called, is of late years become a place of good trade, and has a great corn market. The key, which is near two miles from the town, is chiefly inhabited by ſeafaring people.

The NORTH RIDING extends along the coaſt, from Robin Hood's Bay, as far as Whitley, being bounded on the north with the river Tees; it runs from the ſea, in a narrow track of near 60 miles, as far as Weſtmoreland, and is bounded on the ſouth and weſt with the Derwent and Ure, which part it from the Eaſt and Weſt Ridings. The ſoil in many parts is very indifferent, it being rocky and mountainous, but the bottoms and vallies are not unfruitful. The hills afford great ſtore of lead, pit-coal, and lapis calaminaris; and in ſome places it produces marble, allum, jet, and copperas. The chief allum-works here were carried on by the late duke and ducheſs of Buckingham, at Whitby, where was the greateſt plenty of its mine. The jet is found in ſeveral places by the ſea ſide, in the chinks and clefts of the rocks.

SCARBOROUGH is an ancient borough, ſituate on a ſteep rock, has a good trade, and a commodious key, with a good number of veſſels, which are chiefly employed in the coal trade between Newcaſtle and London. From the middle of Auguſt to November, herrings are taken here in great numbers, with which they ſupply the city of York, as alſo with ſeveral other kinds in their ſeaſon. But the wealthy condition of this town is chiefly owing to the number of perſons of all ranks that flock hither every year, in the ſeaſon, to drink the waters of its chalybeat ſpring.

MALTON is a populous borough, and its Saturdays market is the beſt in the county for horſes, black cattle, and other commodities, eſpecially tools for huſbandry.

NORTHALLERTON has a good market alſo for horſes, and other cattle, corn, &c. and its beaſt fairs the moſt thronged in England.

RICHMOND has a good trade in ſtockings and ſailors woollen caps.

YARUM is a corporate, though a ſmall town, and carries on a pretty trade with London by water, for lead, corn, and butter.

MIDLAM is noted for a manufacture of woollen cloth.

MASHAM has alſo a cloth manufacture.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter U.

CHIEF LAWS RELATING to YARN.

YARN, linen. See the end of letter I. and the end of letter W. for WOOL.

——Brown or raw linen-yarn made of FLAX may be imported in Britiſh ſhips legally navigated, free of duty, from the 24th of June 1756, for 15 years, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, if duly entered and landed in the preſence of the proper officers.

—— If any doubt ariſes whether ſuch yarn is made of FLAX or not, the ONUS PROBANDI to lie on the importer or claimer. — 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 13, 24.

——MOHAIR. See end of letter G. — Yarn worſted. See end of WOOL.

Z.

ZAFFRE, or SAFREE, is a mineral of a blueiſh, or partridge-eye colour, which the Engliſh, Dutch, and Hamburghers bring from the Eaſt-Indies, and eſpecially from Surat.

Moſt of the zaffre we have is in a grey powder, like aſhes, from which it ſo little differs in appearance, that we are forced to conſult the workmen who uſe it, to know, by trials, whether it is what it ought to be.

There are, however, two ſorts of zaffre, the fine and the common: the former is in a bluiſh, or cineritious ſtone; the latter in powder, and very often ſo bad, that it is hardly good for any thing, and being ſo very weighty, muſt needs be mixed with ſome ſtony ſubſtance, the other being much lighter.

This matter is much uſed by Delft-ware and glaſs-makers, to give a blue colour to both ſorts of ware: it is alſo with zaffre that they colour calcined pewter, in order to make a ſort of falſe ſtone; and with zaffre it is that the azure colour of glaſs is produced, as is before obſerved, and of which is made the counterfeit ſapphire, according to Pomet.

Monſieur Lemery ſays ſaphre, ſafre, zafre, or ſapphire, is a mineral whereof there are two kinds, one called fine ſapphire, and the other common: the fine ſapphire is a pretty ſoft ſtone, of a blueiſh colour; the common ſapphire is a greyiſh heavy powder: both ſorts come from India. The fine ſapphire is uſed to give a blue colour to enamel, to earthen ware, and glaſs; they likewiſe colour counterfeit ſapphires with it, whence it takes its name.

ZINCK, called ZINCHUM, ZINCTHUM, and MARCASITA PALLIDA, by ſome, is a metallic, ſulphureous, heavy ſubſtance, reſembling lead in colour, fuſible and ductile to a certain degree, very hard to break, inflammable, and volatile. It ſeems to have been quite unknown to the ancients; and even the moderns knew very little of its nature and origin, 'till Mr Stahl explained it, in his Metallurgia. It is extracted from a kind of the lapis calaminaris, and from the lead ore of the mines of Goſſelar, which ore is very hard to melt, though it appears rich and ſhining. Three ſubſtances are ſeparated from it, lead, zinck, and a kind of cadima fornacea, which, melted with copper, makes a Bath metal, or prince's metal, ſo called from prince Rupert, who is ſaid to have invented it: but the fineſt metal of this kind is made of zinck and copper melted together. In the melting this Goſſelar ore, the lead remains at the bottom of the furnace, and the zinck and cadima ſtick to the ſides. The cadima is to be long expoſed to the air before it is fit for uſe, and the zinck is purified by careful meltings, and caſt into moulds.

The zinck at this time is much in uſe, for the pewterers have found it more proper to cleanſe their pewter than pin-duſt and roſin. It is wrong to believe that zinck is mixed with pewter to increaſe its weight, for unto a fount of five or ſix hundred pounds of it they put but one pound of zinck, and, which is wonderful, the zinck has the quality of purifying and whitening the pewter, and acting upon it as lead does upon gold, ſilver, or copper. This zinck is uſed to give copper the colour of gold, eſpecially when mixed with turmeric, and works upon copper as arſenic does, that turns it of a ſilver colour; or the lapis calaminaris, that makes it yellowiſh; or, laſtly, as Hungarian vitriol, that turns iron into copper colour, as hath been obſerved in the Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society at London.

A Concise Explanation of the Contents of Mr. SAXBY's Portable Book of Rates, referred to in this Work, in relation to the Business of the Customs, and the Chief Acts of Parliament contained therein. See the Concluſion of Letter A, and that of every other Letter. See alſo our article Subsidy.

UNDER any peculiar articles, where it is neceſſary, we have given ſuch an idea of the practical buſineſs of the cuſtoms, both as the ſame reſpects the out-ports, as well as the port of London, that the reader will eaſily judge from thence, what further knowlege may be occaſionally requiſite for him to obtain, relative to that particular branch of trade he may be intereſted in; and he will be able to obtain the ſame from his own enquiry, when he has been duly introduced into the ſyſtem of our cuſtoms.

At the end of the letter A, we have alſo communicated, in an intelligible manner, it is apprehended, the principles and rudiments upon which the computation of the cuſtom-houſe Duties are grounded, as the ſame have relation to Britiſh ſubjects and ſtrangers; and alſo to the cuſtomary drawbacks, bounties, and premiums, as they are computed in Mr Saxby's book of rates.

In order to render the ſame the more eaſily comprehenſible to our readers, which it really requires, we have ſhewn, that the Reference Figures, affixed to the Right-hand Side of the columns of that ready-calculated book of rates, are the keys whereby ſuch computations are to be underſtood. To this end, we have repreſented the peculiar Table and List, made uſe of therein, invented firſt by Mr. Edgar, in the year 1714, ſince followed by the late Mr. Crouch, and now by Mr. Saxby. For the ſaid Table and List, contained in pages 73, 74, and 75 of Saxby, indicate, with all poſſible brevity, the ſeveral branches of duties, to which the reſpective goods, contained in the book of rates, are liable, by the various acts of parliament that are now in force.

At the end of our letter A, we have alſo given the Rules, Orders, Directions, and Allowances, for the advancement of trade, and Encouragement of the Merchant, as alſo for the regulating as well of the merchant in making of due entries and juſt payments of their cuſtoms, as of the Officers in all the ports of this kingdom, in the faithful diſcharge of their duty; referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage, paſſed anno 12 Car. II. Which Rules, &c. are ſigned by Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons.

We have alſo noticed the Rules, Orders, and Regulations, annexed to the additional book of rates, referred to in an act paſſed anno 11 Geo. I. c. 7.

Upon the before-intimated rules and regulations, we have made ſome remarks that we judged neceſſary, in relation to the Discounts allowed to merchants, upon the payment of the divers ſubſidies at importation; to which we refer the reader; we judging what we have there urged may require conſideration.

If the reader likewiſe conſults our article Subsidy, he will find a ſuccinct account of thoſe duties to which various ſpecies of goods are ſubject, purſuant to act of parliament; with ſome obſervations thereon, which may not be altogether uſeleſs to

thoſe who would well weigh the conditions whereon ſuch ſubſidies are paid.

Beſides the ſeveral ſubſidies noticed under our article SUBSIDY, Mr. Saxby's book of rates contains, in the firſt part of it, the various impoſts, and other kind of duties, payable on goods and merchandizes imported into, brought coaſtwiſe, or exported out of Great-Britain; all which are enumerated in the above-mentioned LIST of DUTIES, conjoined with the TABLE before obſerved, except thoſe that have aroſe ſince.

This part of Saxby contains an abſtract of the ſeveral acts referred to, and the particular conditions upon which the ſaid impoſitions are paid; all which are neceſſary to be conſulted by thoſe who would comprehend the TABLE and LIST.

The ſecond part of Saxby contains the RATES OF MERCHANDIZE: that is to ſay,

'The ſubſidy of tonnage; the ſubſidy of poundage; and 'the ſubſidy of woollen cloth, or old drapery; as they are 'rated and agreed on by the commons houſe of parliament, 'ſet down and expreſſed in that book, to be paid according 'to the tenor of the act of tonnage and poundage from the '24th day of June, incluſively, in the 12th year of the reign 'of his Majeſty (Charles the Second) and ſubſcribed with 'the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, Bart. ſpeaker of the 'houſe of commons.' Likewiſe,

'An additional book of rates (referred to by 11 Geo. I.) of 'goods and merchandizes uſually imported, and not parti-'cularly rated in the book of rates referred to in the act of 'tonnage and poundage, made in the 12th year of the reign 'of king Charles the Second; with rules, orders, and re-'gulations, ſigned by the right honourable Spencer Compton, 'Eſq; ſpeaker of the honourable houſe of commons.' Together with

The ſeveral additions and alterations which have been reſpectively made by any ſubſequent act of parliament; every of which is diſtinctly pointed out and explained. To which are added,

The TOTAL AMOUNTS of the net duties to be paid on each ſpecies of goods imported, exported, or brought coaſtwiſe, and of the net DRAWBACKS to be repaid on any of them when duly exported; with proper REFERENCES, ſhewing the ſeveral reſpective BRANCHES which compoſe the ſaid TOTAL AMOUNTS, &c. and commencing from page 79 to page 266 of Saxby, on goods INWARDS, or imported.

Then follows the SUBSIDY OF TONNAGE, upon all WINES to be brought into the port of London, and all other ports of Great-Britain, and dominions thereof, by BRITISH; and alſo the DRAWBACK thereof to be repaid upon due exportation, which begins at page 267, and continues to page 275.

REMARKS.

With reſpect to the WINES mentioned in Saxby, page 267, it muſt be obſerved, that all merchant-ſtrangers, bringing in any ſorts of the wines there enumerated, are to pay thirty ſhillings in the ton, over and above the rates there ſignified, which the natives pay; including twenty ſhillings the ton formerly paid to his Majeſty, by the name of Southampton duties for muſcadels, malmſies, and all other wines of the growth of the Levant.

For which ſort of wines, the ſtranger is alſo to pay to the uſe of the town of Southampton, for every butt or pipe, the ſum of ten ſhillings.

Moreover, the ſtranger is to pay the ancient duty of butlerage, which is two ſhillings upon every ton.

Note, that ſuch wines as ſhall be landed in any of the outports, and cuſtom paid, and afterwards brought to the port of London by certificate, ſhall pay ſo much more cuſtom, as they paid ſhort of the duty due in the port of London. For the explanation of which ſee pages 7 and 274, and 275, of Saxby — And for the other duties on wines, ſee the reſpective branches contained therein.

N. B. All wines imported into the port of London, are to pay for the uſe of the orphans of the ſaid city, for every ton, as by 5 and 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 10. §. 7. 4 ſhillings. And

Alſo, if imported by ſtrangers, the ancient duty of butlerage, which is for every ton 2 ſhillings.

WINE-LEES imported into any port, are to pay the ſame duties as wine; but are exempted from drawback upon exportation. 1 Geo. II. cap. 17.

N. B. No wines, except of the dominions of the Great Duke of Tuſcany, in open flaſks, or of Turkey, or any other parts of the Levant ſeas, may be imported in flaſks or bottles.

Though part of the duties on wines may be ſecured by bond; yet, as that does not frequently happen, all the duties, as computed in Saxby, are as if paid down in ready money; therefore, when bond is to be given, you muſt conſult the ADDITIONAL DUTY, IMPOST ON WINES, and IMPOST 1692, Saxby.

Wines may not be brought in any other than Britiſh or Iriſh ſhips, or ſhips of the built of the country of which they are the growth, or of the port where they can only, or are moſt uſually firſt ſhipped; nor from the Netherlands or Germany, except RHENISH or HUNGARY WINES from Hamburgh. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

For other regulations reſpecting wines, ſee our article WINE, and the end of letter W. where the laſt duties on wines are obſerved, ſince the publication of Saxby. And if the duties are underſtood, as they are calculated in Saxby's preſent book, it will be eaſy to make any after-addition thereto, that may happen.

The tonnage duty comprehends the duties payable on wines imported (and the old ſubſidy on perry, rape of grape, ſyder, ſyder-eager, and vinegar, the impoſts on vinegar, and the coinage duties) being regulated by the ſum certain on the ton meaſure.

All the duties on wines are explained in Saxby, under each reſpective branch in chap. I. wherein are ſhewn the GROSS DUTIES, the DISCOUNTS thereon, and the net duties to be paid or ſecured (for one ton, or one gallon) according to the ſeveral circumſtances of entry and importation; therefore, when the branches, to which any ſort of wines are liable, are deſired to be known, that ſort (obſerving the particular circumſtances of entry and importation) muſt be ſought for in Saxby between the pages beforeſaid, of 267 and the page 275; and oppoſite thereto will be the REFRENCE LETTER, as contained in the preceding TABLE, repreſenting the particular branches, as is explained in the following example.

One ton of Spaniſh wine, unfilled, for ſale, imported into the port of London, by Britiſh, in Britiſh ſhips qualified, all duties paid down.

Upon recourſe had to page 269, Saxby, in the REFERENCE COLUMN, directing to the ſaid TABLE and LIST, at the end of our letter A, or Saxby 74, 75, oppoſite to the ſort of wine above deſcribed, will be found the REFERRING LETTERS Z b, which letters (being found alſo in the TABLE) refer to the BRANCHES contained in the LIST N°. 1. III, 2, 3, 4, 7, 16, 34; each of which branches muſt be conſulted, that the reſpective ſums due thereon may be exactly charged; which from the above example will be found to ſtand thus. viz.

	l.	s.	d.	20ths.
N°. I. Old Subſidy - - -	3	10	2	8
N°. III. Additional duty - -	2	17	1	8
N°. 2. New Subſidy - -	3	10	2	8
N°. 3. One-third ſubſidy -	1	3	4	16
N°. 4. Two-thirds ſubſidy -	2	6	9	12
N°. 7. Impoſt on wine - -	8	0	7	1
N°. 16. Coinage duty on wine	0	10	0	—
N°. 34. Duty on wine 1745 -	4	0	0	—
Total duty to be paid — —	25	18	3	13

As the ſame ſtands at preſent in Saxby, page 316, before the laſt further duty on wines took place in the year 1762, viz. on French wine and vinegar, of 8 l. per ton; and on all other wines and vinegars imported, 4 l. per ton. See the end of letter W, for the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS. So that there muſt be added to the ſaid ſum in Saxby, of 25 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{13}{20}$, the further additional duty of 4 l. per ton, which makes the duty 29 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{13}{20}$ per ton, on the wine above.

But as the duties on wines bear ſo many branches of duties, for the greater eaſe and diſpatch in computing them, it is the practice of the cuſtoms to work by tables, wherein each branch is computed net, according to all the reſpective circumſtances of importation, diſcount, &c. from a gallon to a ton.

However, with relation to wines, the computations in Saxby, from page 269 to page 275, may be conſulted; and then the laſt additional duties mentioned before muſt be added thereto.

The next part contained in Saxby concerns the rates of merchandize OUTWARDS, referred to by the act of TONNAGE and POUNDAGE, Anno 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 2, 7. with the net duties payable on each ſpecies of goods and merchandize (ſubject thereto) by that or any ſubſequent act of parliament; together with the ſubſidy of poundage, of ſix-pence in the pound, to be paid on the exportation of foreign goods uſed in dyeing, &c. This extends from page 279 to 306, including directions for the payment of the ſubſidy upon woollen-cloths, or old drapery; the former of theſe being mighty eaſy; the REFERENCE LETTERS directing to the TABLE, being I B, which point to page 48 in Saxby, with directions for the computation.

The following part of Saxby contains the total net duties payable upon goods brought COASTWISE from port to port of Great-Britain; and alſo to be repaid on due exportation, which conſiſts only of the ſingle page 307, and is underſtood by the REFERENCE LETTERS to the TABLE of H A, V B. the former directs to pages 52 and 53, in Saxby, and the latter to page 54, where the duties are plain enough.

After this follow certain RULES, ORDERS, DIRECTIONS, and ALLOWANCES, for the encouragement of the merchant, as alſo for the regulating as well of the merchant in making of DUE ENTRIES and JUST PAYMENTS of their cuſtoms, as of the officers in all the ports of this kingdom, referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage paſſed anno

anno 12 Car. II. — Alſo, the RULES, ORDERS, and REGULATIONS, annexed to the ADDITIONAL BOOK of RATES referred to in an act paſſed anno 11 Georgii Primi, c. 7. — All which ought to be deliberately conſulted by merchants for their own intereſt. See what we have ſaid thereon at the concluſion of our letter A, reſpecting the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, and alſo under our article SUBSIDY.

Chapter the 3d of Saxby begins at page 315, and ends at 388, and contains to the time that gentleman wrote. I. Inſtructions for the computation of the ſeveral branches compoſing the total duties to be paid on goods and merchandizes imported, exported, and brought coaſtwiſe; illuſtrated by examples adapted to the reſpective circumſtances of importation, &c. II. The ſeveral allowances and bounties payable out of the duties of cuſtoms, the bounties and drawbacks on Britiſh exciſeable goods exported, and the premium on naval ſtores imported.

In regard to the former of theſe, the reader is deſired to conſult the end of our letter A, upon the computation of the duties, &c. together with what we have here ſaid, and alſo under our article SUBSIDY: and for the variety of examples given in Saxby we refer him to the before-mentioned pages; recommending to him the conſideration of the ſubſequent acts of parliament, that have been made ſince Mr Saxby wrote; eſpecially that which concerns the ſubſidy of 1759, and that of the further additional duties on wines, cyder and perry, made in 1762.

With relation to the ſeveral ALLOWANCES, and BOUNTIES payable out of the duties of the cuſtoms, the bounties and drawbacks on Britiſh exciſeable goods exported, and the premium on naval ſtores imported; together with inſtructions in regard to the performance of the reſpective regulations required by law; theſe concerning the intereſt of merchants ſo materially, we ſhall give them at large at the end of theſe ſhort obſervations on the book of rates in general.

The fourth chapter of Saxby begins at page 389, and ends at page 433, and contains, 1. Liſt of the ports of Great-Britain, with their members and creeks. 2. The names of the lawful keys, wharfs, &c. for ſhipping and landing goods in the port of London. 3. Fees and allowances due and payable to the officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms in the port of London. 4. The grant to the city of London of the duties of ſcavage, package, &c. 5. The ſcavage table of rates inwards. 6. The package table of rates outwards. 7. The balliage duties outwards. 8. The packers water-ſide porters table of duties and rates for landing and ſhipping out ſtrangers goods.

The contents of this chapter are known as ſoon as peruſed, and require only to be duly noticed, that traders may be informed when they have juſtice done them according to the laws of the land ſtill in force.

The fifth and laſt chapter is an index, containing an abſtract of the laws now in force for collecting, and otherwiſe regulating the cuſtoms, digeſted and diſpoſed in alphabetical order; with references to the reſpective acts, and to the material circumſtance throughout the book.

This index ſerves to give ſome idea of the multiplicity of our laws relative to the revenue of cuſtoms only, yet a very faint one of their full bulk and extent; for, was every trader obliged to conſult them all at large, and we had given them in their full length from the ſtatutes, in this work, we might have eaſily filled up our volumes even with thoſe laws, and more eſpecially ſo, if we had had added thereto thoſe appertaining to the exciſe, and other branches of trade alſo. 'Tis no little misfortune to this kingdom, that the preſent conſtitution of the public revenues, particularly, ſhould occaſion ſuch a body of numerous laws, which concern our commerce and navigation only; for it requires more application to become maſters of thoſe laws than traders have to ſpare, or even our profeſſed lawyers either to reconcile: yet what adds to our misfortune is, that we have no hopes of theſe voluminous laws being leſſened to any conſiderable degree, till the whole ſtate of our revenues is changed; and when that will be, ſince we are in the way of encreaſing our laws concerning it every ſeſſions, we do not preſume to ſay, notwithſtanding there is nothing of ſo much importance to theſe kingdoms. But who will attempt what he will never be recompenſed for in this nation?

At the end of every letter of our work, we have given an abſtract of many materials of the laws relating to the cuſtoms, and have occaſionally interſperſed others throughout this performance. Yet we the rather refer our readers to conſult the Statutes at Large, upon any peculiar branch of trade wherein they may be concerned, than to depend wholly upon our abſtracts, or thoſe of any other. Even thoſe publiſhed by the officers of the cuſtoms themſelves, who are daily concerned in the practice of the cuſtom laws, we have found to be very imperfect, of which Mr Saxby has complained largely in the introduction to his book of rates; and perhaps it may not be long before the imperfections of his book may be ſhewn by others: and it is, perhaps, more owing to the laws themſelves than to thoſe who may endeavour to explain them, as might be ſhewn in many inſtances, if neceſſary. At preſent I ſhall only obſerve, in the words of Mr Saxby, that 'the allowances, bounties and drawbacks payable on Britiſh goods exported, and premiums on other goods imported, &c. being a part of buſineſs not ſo immediately obvious to the officers of the cuſtoms, (and I will add, not to the traders themſelves, though for other reaſons than he has aſſigned perhaps, ſome of them being within the province of the exciſe and ſalt duties) have not been heretofore ſo well collected and digeſted as they might have been; for though part of them have been extremely well done, others have been but ſlightly touched, and ſome quite omitted: but as they are now become very numerous, and in regard to bounties and premiums a very extenſive and formidable branch of the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, it became neceſſary that the merchants, as well as officers, ſhould be well inſtructed therein; therefore great care and diligence have been uſed to conſtruct them in ſuch manner, as that every regulation for the obtaining the ſeveral bounties and premiums is properly inſerted under the reſpective heads; and in regard to the payment of all other allowances, &c. the inſtructions for the performance of the reſpective regulations required by law, are ſo particularly and extenſively deſcribed, that the officers will ſcarcely be at a loſs in any circumſtance.'

As we eſteem this one of the moſt material improvements in Mr Saxby, for the benefit of the trader, we ſhall give the ſame as it is therein contained.

SECTION II.

The ſeveral allowances and bounties payable out of the duties of the cuſtoms, the bounties and drawbacks on Britiſh exciſeable goods exported, and the premium on naval ſtores imported; together with inſtructions in regard to the performance of the reſpective regulations required by law.

1. Bounty on corn exported.
2. Bounty on Britiſh refined ſugar exported.
3. Bounty on Britiſh-made ſailcloth exported.
4. Bounty on ſpirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn exported.
5. Bounty on Britiſh manufactures of ſilk exported.
6. Bounty on Britiſh-made gunpowder exported.
7. Bounty on Britiſh ſhips employed in the whale-fiſhery.
8. Bounty for encouragement of the Britiſh white-herring fiſhery.
9. Bounty on ſhips built for, and employed in the Britiſh white-herring fiſhery.
10. Bounty on Britiſh and Iriſh linens exported.
11. Bounty or premium on Britiſh plantation indico imported.
12. Allowance on damaged tobacco imported.
13. Allowance or drawback of the duties of coals uſed in copper or tin mines.
14. Allowance on damaged or corrupt wines imported.
15. Allowance of portage.
16. Drawback of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-made candles exported.
17. Drawback of the exciſe duty on hides or calve-ſkins rough or tanned; hides or calve-ſkins, dreſſed or curried; ſheep ſkins and lamb-ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, exported.
18. Drawback of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-made ſope exported.
19. Drawback of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-made paper exported.
20. Drawback of the exciſe duty on filks, ſilk handkerchiefs, callicoes, and all linens and ſtuffs printed, ſtained, painted or dyed in Great-Britain, exported.
21. Drawback of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-made ſtarch exported.
22. Bounty or allowance on gold and ſilver thread, lace or fringe, made in Great-Britain, exported.
23. Drawback on boots, ſhoes, and other manufactures of Britiſh-tanned leather, exported.
24. Drawback of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-wrought plate exported.
25. Drawback of the exciſe duty on glaſs made in Great-Britain exported.
26. Drawback of the exciſe or inland duty on Britiſh-made ſalt exported.
27. Bounty on fiſh and fleſh exported.
28. Premium on naval ſtores imported.
29. Drawback of the exciſe duty on ſtrong beer, ſtrong ale, mum, cyder, and perry, made in Great-Britain, exported. 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 22, &c.
30. Drawback of the exciſe duty on ſpirits drawn from corn in Great-Britain, without any mixture of other materials, exported. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17.
31. Drawback of the exciſe on ſpirits exported. 19 Geo. II. cap. 8.

I. The

I. The bounty on CORN exported.

		Price per quarter Winchester measure. l.	s.	d.	Bounty per quarter Winchester measure. l.	s.	d.
By 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. —	WHEAT — — —	2	8	0	0	5	0
	RYE — — —	1	12	0	0	3	6
	BARLEY — — —	1	4	0	0	2	6
	MALT — — —	1	4	0	0	2	6
	But the exciſe of 6d. per buſhel muſt not be reckoned into the price of the malt. 13 and 14 of Will. III. c. 5. §. 31. 12 Ann. c. 2. §. 3.						
By 5 Ann. c. 8. article 6.	BEER, alias BIGG	1	4	0	0	2	6
	Malt made of wheat	2	8	0	0	5	0
5 Ann. c. 29. §. 10, 15.	Oatmeal when oats do not exceed	0	15	0	0	2	6

* When the above ſorts of corn, either ground or unground, do not, at the port of exportation, exceed the reſpective prices in the firſt column, and ſhall be ſhipped on board any Britiſh ſhip, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt two-thirds of the mariners, are Britiſh ſubjects, in order to be exported to parts beyond the ſeas, the exporter is to be allowed the reſpective bounties in the ſecond column; provided a certificate in writing, under the hand of the exporter, containing the quantity and quality of the corn, be firſt brought to the collector of the port, and the truth thereof confirmed by the oath of one or more credible perſon or perſons; and bond be given by the exporter, in the penalty of 10l. for every ton of oatmeal, or forty buſhels of beer, alias bigg, and 200l. at leaſt for every 100 tons of all the other ſorts (i. e. eight ſhillings per quarter) that the ſame ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be relanded in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

* 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15.

† In order to adjuſt the quantity for which the bounty is to be paid, the corn is to be admeaſured by the proper officers of the cuſtoms, who, for the greater expedition, may make uſe of a tub or meaſure containing four Wincheſter buſhels; or if the ſaid corn be intended to be exported in ſacks, they are to chooſe two out of any number not exceeding twenty ſacks, and ſo in proportion, and thereby compute the whole quantity; but if exported from London, may be meaſured by the ſworn meters, from whoſe certificate the ſearchers may certify the quantity ſhipped for exportation.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 4, 5.

‡ But with reſpect to malt, the bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, for exportation; as ſhall appear by a certificate from the proper officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered.

‡ 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

§ And with reſpect to wheat meal or other ground corn or grain, the ſame bounty, and no more, is to be allowed for 224 pounds weight thereof, as is allowed for 4 buſhels of the ſame kind of corn or grain, unground, and ſo in proportion. And if it is brought to be ſhipped off in ſacks, the proper officer may chooſe and weigh two ſacks out of any number not exceeding twenty ſacks, and ſo in proportion for any greater quantity, and thereby compute the weight of the whole. And the bounty money is to be paid to the exporter accordingly, upon producing a certificate from the proper officer of the cuſtoms, atteſting the quantity, quality, and weight thereof.

§ 24 Geo. II. cap. 56. §. 1.

‖ The aforeſaid bounty to be paid by the collector of the port, upon demand made by the exporter, unleſs he has not ſufficient money in his hands; and then (except for bigg and oatmeal) he is to certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the money to be paid by the receiver-general within three months.

‖ 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 91. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15.

¶ When the certificate above mentioned, annexed to the debenture for corn exported, is produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London, they are immediately to cauſe an indorſement to be made on the back of the debenture, of the day when it was produced, and as ſoon as conveniently may be, ſign their order to the receiver-general for payment.

* If any ſuch debenture remains unſatisfied more than ſix months after the day it has been produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London, intereſt, at the rate of three per cent. per annum, is to be allowed thereon, from the end of the ſaid ſix months to the time of payment, or to the time of proper notice given thereof.

* 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

† The receiver-general, when he has ſufficient money in his hands, is to give notice in writing, to be affixed on three or more doors of ſome public place in the cuſtom-houſe, London, and to be advertiſed in the London Gazette, that on a certain day therein limited, and on the four days following (ſo as ſix days intervene between the date of the notice and the day ſo limited, and ſo as Sundays and holidays be not included in ſuch four days) he ſhall be ready to pay the principal and intereſt of ſuch debentures, which have remained unſatisfied above ſix months from the time of their being produced as above, or principal of ſuch debentures, which have not exceeded the ſaid ſix months; after the expiration of which five days, all intereſt is to ceaſe, though the money due ſhould not then be demanded.

† 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 2, 4.

‡ Theſe debentures are to be paid by the receiver-general, without fee or reward, in courſe, reſpect being had to the times when they were produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, without any preference, and are aſſignable by indorſement thereon.

‡ 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 5, 7, 8.

§ The ſame allowances are granted, and rules to be obſerved with reſpect to debentures for corn exported from Scotland; with this difference, that the certificate is to be made to the commiſſioners of Edinburgh, and notice of payment to be publiſhed in the Edinburgh Courant, and affixed in the cuſtom-houſe, Edinburgh.

§ 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 9, 10, 11, 12.

‖ The aforeſaid bond, given for the exportation, may be delivered up to be cancelled, upon producing a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate in any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeal of two known Britiſh merchants, teſtifying that the corn was there landed, or upon proof by credible perſons, that it was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas.

‖ 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10.

¶ Malt relanded in Great-Britain is forfeited, with treble the value, beſides the penalty of the bond.

¶ 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15. and ſince continued yearly with the malt act.

II. The allowance on Britiſh REFINED SUGAR exported.

By 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. §. 9. — 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 6.	Was granted from 31 January 1699, during the continuance of the New ſubſidy, Upon ſugar refined in GREAT-BRITAIN, for every Cwt. exported	0	3	0
2 & 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3. — 4 — — 6. — 2. — 5 — — 19. — 8. — 1 G. I. — — 12. — 8.	Was granted during the continuance of the one-third ſubſidy, A further allowance on the ſame, for every Cwt. exported — —	0	1	0
6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10.	Was granted from 24 June 1753, for five years.				
11 — — 18. — 2.	Further continued for ſeven years.				
19 — — 23. — 1.	Further continued for ſeven years.				
20 — — 32. — 5.	Further continued to 24 June 1756.				
29 — — 26. — 1.	Further continued for three years.				
	A further allowance on the ſame, for every Cwt. exported — — —	0	2	0	

21 Geo. II. cap. 2. §. 6.	Was granted from 1 March 1747, during the continuance of the ſubſidy 1747,			
	A further allowance on the ſame, for every Cwt. exported. —	o	3	o
	Total bounty	o	9	o

* To be paid at the cuſtom-houſe to the exporter within thirty days after the demand thereof; oath being firſt made by the refiner, that the ſugar, ſo exported, was produced from brown and muſcovada ſugar, charged by the acts of 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. and of 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. and by 21 Geo. II. cap. 12. (that is to ſay, charged with the new ſubſidy, one-third ſubſidy, and ſubſidy 1747) and that, as he verily believes, the ſame was imported from his Majeſty's plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of the importation thereof; the exporter making oath, that the ſame was duly exported, and his Majeſty's ſearcher alſo certifying the ſhipping thereof, and all other requiſites being performed according to the book of rates.

* 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. §. 9. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 3. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 10. 21 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 8.

III. The bounty on Britiſh-made SAILCLOTH exported.

By 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2.	Was granted from 21 July 1713 for 7 years					
5 Geo. I. — 25. — 2.	Further continued for 7 years					
10 — — 17. — 4.	Further continued for 7 years					
8 Geo. II. — 18. — 1.	Further continued to 25 March 1742					
15 and 16 — 35. — 1.	Further continued to 1 June 1747 —					
20 — — 45. — 1.	Further continued to 1 June 1754 —					
27 — — 18. — 6.	Further continued to 29 September 1760					
	and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.					
	Upon Britiſh-made SAILCLOTH or CANVAS, fit for or made into ſails, for every ell exported —	Bounty.	o	o	1	
By 4 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 4.	Was granted from 24 June 1741, without limitation, a further allowance for every ell of Britiſh-made SAILCLOTH —		o	o	1	
	Total bounty		o	o	2	

† This bounty is to be paid out of ſuch parts of the old ſubſidy as are applicable to incidents, upon the exporter making oath, that ſuch ſailcloth was made in Great-Britain, is actually exported, or ſhipped to be exported, without any intention to be relanded in Great-Britain, and that no former reward upon theſe acts was made for the ſame.

† 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2. 23 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 26. 26 Geo. II. cap. 32. §. 9.

‡ Such failcloth, upon which the bounty has been given, relanded in Great-Britain, ſhall be forfeited; and every perſon concerned in bringing back, or relanding the ſame, ſhall forfeit two ſhillings for every ell ſo brought back or relanded.

‡ 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 3.

IV. The bounty on SPIRITS drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, exported.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10. was granted without limitation, viz.

SPIRITS drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, for every ton thereof — — —	Bounty.	1	10	o

§ To be paid to the exporter by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or other proper officer belonging to them, when barley is at 24s. per quarter, or under, upon ſuch proof of the exportation, as is directed by 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. and out of ſuch duties as are liable to the payment or the bounties on corn exported, in the ſame manner as if the reſpective quantity of barley, malt, or other corn, had been exported, allowing that twelve quarters of barley or malt are made uſe of in making one ton of ſpirits.

§. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10.

V. The bounty on Britiſh MANUFACTURES of SILK, &c. exported.

By 8 G. I. c. 15. §. 1. granted from 25 March 1722, to 25 March 1725.
11 — 29. — 2. thence continu'd to 25 March 1728.
2 G. II. c. 28. — 4. thence — — to 29 Sept. 1734.
8 — 18. — 2. thence — — to 25 March 1742.
15 and 16—35. — 2. thence — — to 1 June 1747.
20 — 45. — 2. thence — — to 1 June 1754.
26 — 32. — 4. thence — — to 24 March 1758.
And from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Upon due exportation of the Britiſh manufactures of ſilk hereafter mentioned, there are to be allowed the following reſpective bounties, viz.

RIBBONS and STUFFS of SILK ONLY, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight — — —	o	3	o
SILKS and RIBBONS of SILK mixed with GOLD or SILVER, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight	o	4	o
SILK STOCKINGS, SILK GLOVES, SILK FRINGES, SILK LACES, STITCHING or SEWING SILK, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight —	o	1	3
STUFFS of SILK and GROGRAM YARN, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight —	o	o	8
STUFFS of SILK mixed with INCLE or COTTON, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight —	o	1	o
STUFFS of SILK and WORSTED, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight — —	o	o	6

* To be paid out of the cuſtoms, or other duties upon goods imported, by the collector of the port, with the privity of the comptroller, upon a debenture made out from the entry, the ſhipping verified by the ſearcher, and the oath of the exporter, that they are of Britiſh manufacture, and exported without intention of relanding in Great-Britain; he having firſt given ſecurity with one or more perſons, in the value of the goods, to the ſame purpoſe; and to produce a certificate from the officers of the cuſtoms in diſcharge thereof, within ſix months, for ſuch goods as ſhall be exported to Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and within eighteen months for thoſe to the Britiſh plantations; and for what ſhall be exported to any other foreign parts, a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants there reſiding.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 1, 5.

† But after 1 May 1729, if ſuch goods were ſold on the coaſt of Africa, or other foreign parts, where certificates of the landing cannot be obtained, or were tranſhipped at any of the Britiſh plantations in America, without being there landed, into ſhips bound to Africa, or other foreign parts, the bonds given on exportation may be diſcharged, and vacated, upon proof made, within eighteen months from the date of ſuch bonds, upon oath of the maſter, mate, purſer, &c. and alſo upon oath of the merchant exporter, if living, that to the beſt of their knowlege and belief, the ſaid goods have been diſpoſed of at the places therein to be mentioned, and that they have not been relanded, or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

† 1 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 9.

‡ The aforeſaid manufactures may, after entry, be opened and examined by the officers, and if wrong entered, are forfeited, with their value; but if right entered, muſt be repacked at the officer's charge, which may be allowed him by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

‡ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 2, 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

§ And in all caſes of diſputes, touching the manufacture or quality, the onus probandi is to lie on the proprietor.

§ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 2, 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

‖ No allowance to be made for ſuch manufactures as are mixed with gold, ſilver, or ſilk, only at the ends and edges of the piece.

‖ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 3.

¶ Silk ſtuffs mixed with grogram-yarn, incle, cotton, or worſted, not to have allowance, except at leaſt two-third parts of the ends, or threads of the warp (in the length of the piece) be all ſilk, or mixed, or twiſted with ſilk in the warp, and the ſilk mixed in the warp be obvious and apparent to the view of the proper officers of the cuſtoms; and the ſilk therein uſed be double the value of the bounty.

¶ 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 9. 1 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10.

And

† And if entered or ſhipped, not being mixed with the quantity of ſilk required, they are forfeited, with double the value.

† 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 10. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 3.

‖ If relanded, forfeited, with the penalty of the bond, and treble the value.

‖ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 4. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

VI. The bounty on Britiſh-made GUNPOWDER exported.

By 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1. was granted from 24 June, 1731, for five years,
By 10 Geo. II. cap. 27. §. 3. further continued to 24 June, 1738,
By 16 Geo. II. cap. 26. §. 1. further continued to 24 June, 1750,
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 4. further continued to 24 June, 1757,
And from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament,

	l.	s.	d.
GUNPOWDER of the MANUFACTURE of GREAT-BRITAIN, exported by way of merchandize, for every barrel containing one hundred pounds net weight, and ſo in proportion for greater or leſs quantities -	0	4	6

‡ To be paid to the exporter on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the cuſtoms (with the privity of the comptroller) at the port of exportation, and the ſhipping thereof teſtified by the ſearcher; the exporter making oath that it is of Britiſh manufacture, and to be exported by way of merchandize, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain; that it is not for the uſe of the ſhip in her voyage; and alſo giving ſecurity, in the penalty of 5l. per barrel, that no part thereof ſhall be relanded in Great-Britain.

‡ 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

§ To be paid out of cuſtoms, or other duties on goods imported.

§ 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 4.

* But may not be exported, when it exceeds the price of 5l. per barrel.

* 12 Geo. II. cap. 4. §. 12.

† Fraudulently relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, and treble the value.

† 4 Geo. I. cap. 29 §. 3.

VII. Bounty on SHIPS employed in the WHALE-FISHERY.

	l.	s.	d.
By 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1. was granted, during the continuance of the act 5 Geo. II. cap. 28. for every Britiſh ſhip of 200 tons and upwards, manned and navigated according to law, which ſhall proceed from Great-Britain on the whale-fiſhery to the Greenland ſeas, Davis's Streights, or the adjacent ſeas, a bounty, according to the admeaſurement of the ſhip, for every ton thereof	1	0	0
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. continued to 25 December, 1750.			
By 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 2. continued to 25 December, 1757.			
And by this laſt-recited act a further bounty for every ton - -	1	0	0
And the whole extended to ſhips built in any of his Majeſty's dominions in America.			
By 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. the whole continued to 25 December, 1764; and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, and extended to ſhips under 200 tons.			
Total bounty	2	0	0

‡ To be paid to the maſter or owners, or their aſſigns, on the return of the ſhip to Great-Britain, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms of that part of Great-Britain from whence ſhe departed, out of the old ſubſidy; but if he has not ſufficient money on that branch, then out of any money ariſing from any duties under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms reſpectively, if the following regulations are complied with.

‡ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 3. 28 Geo. II. cap. 20 §. 4.

§ Every ſhip, of the burthen of 200 tons, or under, muſt have on board 40 fiſhing lines, 120 fathoms each, 40 harpoon-irons, four boats, with ſeven men to each boat (including a harpooner, a ſteerſman, and a line-manager to each boat) making in the whole 28 men, beſides the maſter and ſurgeon, with ſix months proviſion at leaſt; and every ſhip of larger burthen, an increaſe of ſix men, one boat, 10 ſuch lines, and 10 harpoon-irons for every 50 tons.

§ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 2. 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 8.

* After 25 December, 1757, every ſhip employed in this fiſhery is to have on board an apprentice, indentured for three years at leaſt, for every fifty tons burthen, otherwiſe the owners are to loſe the bounty; but ſuch apprentice is to be accounted as one of the number of men, which by law ought to be on board ſuch ſhip.

* 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 5.

† After 25 December, 1757, no ſhip above the burthen of 400 tons ſhall be intitled to a larger bounty than a ſhip of 400 tons; nor the owners obliged to fit out, equip, or man any ſuch ſhip, otherwiſe than is required for a ſhip of 400 tons.

† 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 6, 7.

‡ The ſhip, before ſhe proceeds on her voyage, muſt be viſited by the proper officer of the cuſtoms at the port from whence ſhe proceeds, who is to examine the above qualifications, and take an account of her tonnage, &c. and certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms. And if it appears, by the oath of one of the owners and the maſter of the ſhip, made before the collector and comptroller of the port, at the foot of the certificate, that it is really and truly their firm purpoſe, and determined reſolution, that ſuch ſhip ſhall forthwith proceed, ſo manned, furniſhed, and accoutred, in a voyage to the Greenland ſeas, or Davis's Streights, or the ſeas adjacent, and there to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to take whales, and other creatures living in the ſea, and on no other deſign, and to import the whale-fins, oil and blubber, into Great-Britain (naming the port to which it is their intention to return). And if the maſter alſo becomes bound with two ſufficient ſecurities, in treble the value of the bounty (which bond is to be taken by the collector, with approbation of the comptroller, and is to be in force for the term of three years againſt them, for the faithful dealing of the maſter and ſhip's company, in regard to the ſhip and voyage) then any three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for England or Scotland, reſpectively, upon receiving ſuch certificate and oath, with a certificate that ſufficient ſecurity has been given, are to grant to the maſter and owners full licence to proceed on ſuch voyage.

‡ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.

‖ On return of ſuch ſhip to the port mentioned in the oath of the maſter, the proper officers of the cuſtoms are to go on board and view her condition and lading, and take a ſchedule of the names of the maſter, mate, and other perſons on board, diſtinguiſhing the harpooners, and perſons more immediately employed in the fiſhery, and certify the ſame, with their obſervations thereon, and alſo the real tonnage of the ſhip; and the maſter and mate muſt make oath before the collector and comptroller, on the back of, or annexed to the licence (which is then to be delivered up) that they did in purſuance thereof (mentioning the day of their departure) proceed in a voyage directly to the places aforeſaid, and have not ſince been on any other voyage, or purſued any other deſign or view of profit; and that they had there (mentioning the time of their ſtay) uſed their utmoſt endeavours to take whales, and other creatures living in thoſe ſeas; and that all the whale-fins, oil and blubber, imported (if any) in ſuch ſhip, was truly, and bonâ fide, taken in the ſaid ſeas by the crew of ſuch ſhip only. This ſchedule, certificate, licence, and oath, are to be tranſmitted to the reſpective commiſſioners for that part of Great-Britain from whence the ſhip departed with her licence, who being fully ſatisfied of their faithful dealings are, on demand, to cauſe payment to be made of the bounty, as above.

‖ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 3.

§ Ships fitted out from any of his Majeſty's dominions in America, to be under the ſame regulations as thoſe fitted out from Great-Britain, except that they are not to be more than two years old from the firſt building, which is to be inſerted in the oath; and that the certificate is to be returned to the governor or naval officer, who are to adminiſter the oath, take the bond, and grant the licence.

§ 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 5,

* On the arrival of ſuch a ſhip in Great-Britain, the proper officers of the cuſtoms are to proceed as directed for Britiſh ſhips; and the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, for that part of Great-Britain where ſhe ſhall arrive, being ſatisfied of the faithful dealings of the maſter and others, with reſpect to the voyage, ſhall cauſe payment to be made of the bounty.

* 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 6.

† Alſo every ſhip fitted out in America muſt ſail from the port where ſurveyed, directly on the whale-fiſhery, on or before the firſt of May, and not leave Davis's Streights, or Greenland, and ſeas adjacent, before the 20th of Auguſt, unleſs they have ſuch ſucceſs as to fill as many caſks with blubber as will amount to no leſs than 200 hogſheads for a ſhip of 300 tons, and ſo in proportion, or meet with any unavoidable accident, ſo as to endanger the lives of the crew; which accident muſt be declared on the oaths of the maſter, mate, carpenter, harpooners, line-managers, boat-ſteerers, and ſurgeon, or ſuch of them as are living; otherwiſe ſhe ſhall loſe the benefit of this bounty.

† 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 7.

‡ The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for England and Scotland reſpectively muſt, at the beginning of every ſeſſion of parliament, lay before both houſes an account of what number of ſhips have been employed in this fiſhery, with their names and burthens, from whence fitted out, and at what port in Great-Britain diſcharged, and what quantity of oil or whale-fins each ſhip imported.

‡ 28 Geo. II. cap 20. §. 10.

VIII. Bounty for encouragement of the Britiſh WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. c. 24. §. 6. was granted to the Society of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery, for fourteen years, from the 11th of October, 1750, the date of their charter,
And by 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4. was further continued for three years,

And is,	
For every hundred pounds actually employed in the ſaid fiſhery -	3l. per annum.

‖ To be paid to the proprietors of the ſtock out of the cuſtoms, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, by equal half-yearly payments, provided the ſociety ſhall employ 100,000 l. at leaſt in the ſaid fiſhery, within eighteen months after the date of their ſubſcription.

‖ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6, 7.

§ In order to aſcertain the ſums from time to time actually expended and employed by the ſociety in the ſaid fiſhery, the account thereof muſt be delivered to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſigned by three at leaſt of the council of the ſociety, as an atteſtation that they have examined it, and believe it to be juſt, and atteſted by the oath of the accountant of the ſociety at the foot of the account; upon which the commiſſioners are to order payment accordingly.

§ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6.

‖ The ſociety are alſo to lay their accounts annually before parliament, and if loſs ſhould ariſe by one year's adventure, and there ſhould be gain by ſucceeding years, the gain muſt be applied to make good the original ſtock of 100,000l. before any dividend is made.

‖ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24 §. 7.

By 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1, 2. this bounty is allowed to the ſociety on the ſum of 104,509 l. for two years, to October 22, 1752, and all future intereſt on that ſum is to be computed from that day; and all future computations of intereſt on any additional ſum paid in by the ſociety, in order to be employed in the ſaid fiſhery, are to be made from the day on which each ſum reſpectively is paid into the Bank of England.
* Any number of perſons ſubſcribing 10,000 l. or upwards, into the ſtock of the ſaid ſociety, and carrying on the ſaid fiſhery, under their own management, and on their own account, from the port named by them; conformably, nevertheleſs, to this act and the charter (except as to being obliged to uſe the marks of the ſaid ſociety) and ſubſcribing under the name of the Fiſhing Chamber of ſuch city, port, or town, are entitled to the ſame bounty. But their account of expences, atteſted by three of their committee, ſigned by their accountant, and verified by his oath, and alſo the vouchers, if required, are to be tranſmitted to the ſociety in London, whoſe accountant is to enter it in their account, delivered to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, as a ſum expended in the ſaid fiſhery by the ſaid ſociety. The bounty is to be paid to the ſociety in London, and by them paid over to the Fiſhing Chamber, after deducting the neceſſary charges of receiving it.

* 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 18, 20.

IX. Bounty on SHIPS built for, and employed in the Britiſh WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. c. 24. §. 11, 12, 16. was granted for fourteen years, from the commencement of this act,
By 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4. further continued for three years,

And is, for	
Every decked buſs or veſſel, from 20 to 80 tons burthen, built in Great-Britain after the commencement of this act, for the uſe of the ſaid fiſhery, and proceeding thereon from ſome port in Great-Britain, and fitted out and employed therein by the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery, or any other perſon, manned and navigated according to law, for every ton burthen	Bounty. 1 10 0

To be paid annually to the owners thereof out of the produce of the cuſtoms, ſubject to the following regulations.
† Every ſuch veſſel muſt have on board twelve Wincheſter buſhels of ſalt for every laſt of fiſh ſhe is capable of holding, barreled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as ſhe can carry, and two fleets of tanned nets, viz. for a veſſel of 70 tons, one fleet of 50 nets on board, each 30 yards upon the rope, and 7 fathoms deep; and another fleet of 50 nets in a tender, or proper place on ſhore, each 30 yards upon the rope, and not under five fathoms deep, and ſo in proportion; and muſt have on board, at the rendezvous, ſix men for a veſſel of 20 tons, and one man more for every five tons above 20; and muſt return into port with the ſame number, unleſs reduced by death, ſickneſs, or deſertion, without fraud or colluſion.

† 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 4.

‡ Before ſhe proceeds on ſuch voyage, ſhe muſt be viſited by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, who is to examine if ſhe is qualified as above, and take account of her tonnage by admeaſurement, and certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and whether ſhe is a proper veſſel to be employed in the fiſhery. And further, upon one of the owners, or their agents, or a proper officer or agents of the ſociety, and the maſter of the veſſel making oath at the foot of the certificate, before the collector and comptroller of the port, that it is their firm purpoſe, and determined reſolution, that the veſſel ſhall proceed, ſo manned, furniſhed, and accoutred, either to Braſſey's Sound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 22d of June, and not ſhoot or wet their nets before the 24th of June, and ſhall continue fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings as they move ſouthward, unleſs prevented by loſs of maſts, or other unavoidable accidents, to the 12th of October; or ſhall proceed to Campbell town in Argyleſhire, or Kirkwall in the Orkney iſlands, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 12th of September, and continue fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings as they move to the 11th day of January, unleſs they ſhall ſooner have compleated their loading [1], and fiſh in an orderly manner, without obſtructing others; and ſhall keep a journal of their proceedings, and an account of the quantities of fiſh diſpatched to foreign markets before they come into port, and the quantity they ſhall bring into port with them; and upon the ſame perſons giving ſecurity, in treble the value of the bounty, for the faithful dealings of the maſter and ſhip's company, the collector and comptroller of the port are to give them a licence to proceed on the voyage.

‡ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 12. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 2, 7.

[1] By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 5, 6. the ſociety may follow the white-herring fiſhery in any part of the Britiſh ſeas; and are not to forfeit this bounty, though the buſſes ſhould not arrive at one of theſe places of their rendezvous on the reſpective days appointed, provided ſhe took her departure from one of thoſe places at leaſt five days before the day appointed for their being there.

‖ But in the interval, between the Shetland and Yarmouth fiſheries, the veſſels may put into any port of Great Britain or Ireland to change their nets, or otherwiſe prepare for the Yarmouth fiſhery; and are not obliged to carry more than one fleet of nets to the latter fiſhing.

‖ 26 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 3, 8.

§ Upon the return of the veſſel to her port of diſcharge, the chief officer of the cuſtoms, or one appointed by him, muſt

§ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 15.

go

go on board and examine her condition and lading, and certify the ſame, with their obſervations thereon, and alſo the tonnage and names of the maſter, and other perſons on board [2]; and the maſter muſt make oath, before the collector and comptroller of the port, on the back of the licence, or to be annexed to it, that the veſſel was at one of the places before mentioned at the time appointed, and has not ſince been on any other voyage, or purſued any other deſign, or view of profit; and that they did remain fiſhing, according to the directions of this act, and had, at the time of their rendezvous, the quantity of nets and other ſtores, and number of men as above directed [3]. The licence is to be delivered up, with an account of what was done in purſuance of it; and the certificate, ſchedule, licence, and oath, together with the account of the fiſh taken, are to be tranſmitted, by the collector and comptroller of the port, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for that part of Great-Britain from whence ſhe departed with her licence; who, being ſatisfied of their faithful dealings, are (upon the owners producing a proper certificate, from the receiver of the duty of 6d. per month from all ſeamen for the uſe of Greenwich-hoſpital, that all money due on that account for every ſeaman on board ſuch veſſel has been paid) to cauſe payment of the bounty to be made by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms.

[2] A true copy of this certificate muſt be tranſmitted by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, with all convenient ſpeed, to the receiver of the duty of 6d. per month from all ſeamen for the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital, in London 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 10.

[3] If by virtue of the liberty granted (note [1]) any buſs quits her ſtation, appointed by 26 Geo. II. c. 9. in order for fiſhing at other ſtations, or does not arrive at one of the ſtations there mentioned on the day appointed, this oath is to be varied, and made conformable to the circumſtances attending ſuch reſpective buſs. 28 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 7.

*The ſociety may let out to hire any of their buſſes to be uſed and employed in the ſaid fiſhery only, and ſubject to the ſame regulations and reſtrictions, as if employed by the ſociety.

* 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5.

X. Bounty on BRITISH and IRISH LINENS exported.

By 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 1. was granted from 24 June, 1756, for fifteen years, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament,

	Bounty.		
† For every yard of BRITISH and IRISH LINEN made of hemp or flax, of the breadth of 25 inches, or more, and under the value of 5 d. per yard - -	0	0	0½
Of the value of 5d. and under the value of 6d. per yard - -	0	0	1
Of the value of 6d. and not exceeding the value of 1s. 6d. per yard -	0	0	1½

which ſhall be exported out of Great-Britain to Africa, America, Spain, Portugal, Gibraltar, the iſland of Minorca, or the Eaſt-Indies.

† To be paid to the exporter, or ſeller for exportation, by the collector of the port from whence the ſame ſhall be exported, out of any monies in his hands ariſing from any duties, revenues, and cuſtoms received at ſuch port.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

‡ But not to extend to any linens that are ſtriped or chequered, or printed or painted, or made into buckrams or tillettings; nor to any Iriſh linen, unleſs of the property of perſons reſiding in Great-Britain, or in his Majeſty's plantations in America; nor to ſuch Iriſh linen, whereof the piece or bolt contains 38 yards in length, and 24 inches in breadth, and cloths of different lengths and breadths in proportion, from Nº 1. to Nº 10. incluſive, weighing from 15 to 44 pounds, as deſcribed in the act of 9 Geo. II. cap. 37.

‡ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 7, 8, 9.

§ Collectors in the out-ports of South-Britain, and in any port of North-Britain, not having money ſufficient in their hands to pay ſuch bounties, are to certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London and Edinburgh reſpectively, who ſhall cauſe payment thereof to be made by the reſpective receiver-general; and if the receiver-general of Edinburgh hath not money ſufficient in his hands, the commiſſioners at Edinburgh, or any three of them, ſhall certify the ſame to the commiſſioners in London, who are to cauſe payment thereof to be made by the receiver-general there.

§ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

‖ The exporter, or ſeller for exportation, ſhall expreſs in his entry, and indorſe on the cocket, the quantity and value of ſuch linen, and produce a certificate from the ſearcher, verifying the ſhipping thereof, and likewiſe give ſecurity in double the value of the goods, and 100 l. not to reland them in Great-Britain, Ireland, or Iſle of Man; and ſhall alſo make oath of the value of ſuch linens, and that the ſame were made in Great-Britain or Ireland, and (if in Ireland) that at the time of exportation they were the property of a perſon or perſons reſiding in Great-Britain, or in ſome of his majeſty's plantations in America.

‖ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 2, 8.

* After entry of any linens, as being intitled to this bounty, the ſearcher, or other proper officer, may open and examine any package, to ſee if the goods are rightly entered and indorſed; and if they are ſo, he muſt repack them at his own charge, which ſhall be allowed to the officer by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, if they think it reaſonable.

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 3.

† If any linen, ſo to be exported for the bounty, ſhall be of greater value than 18 d. per yard, the exporter, or ſeller thereof for exportation (on demand in writing made by the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port of exportation) ſhall cauſe it to be delivered into the king's warehouſe; and the collector ſhall pay to the exporter, &c. (out of any money in his hands) the value of 1 s. 7 d. per yard, taking his receipt for the ſame; and ſuch linen to be publicly ſold, and out of the produce thereof the money to be replaced to ſuch funds from which it was borrowed, and one moiety of the overplus, if any, to be paid into the exchequer to the ſinking fund, the other to the officer who ſearched and examined the linen.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 4.

‡ If the exporter of ſuch linen, ſo demanded, refuſes to cauſe the ſame to be delivered up; and if any ſuch linen, entered for exportation, of the value of 6 d. per yard, and not exceeding 18 d. per yard, ſhall be found to be under the value of 6 d. per yard; or entered for exportation at the value of 5 d. per yard, and not amounting to the value of 6 d. per yard, be found to be under the value of 5 d. per yard; or of ſuch linen as ſhall be leſs in quantity than is indorſed on the cocket, or ſhall be found to be under the breadth of 25 inches, or entered and indorſed under a wrong denomination, whereby the bounty may be fraudulently received; all ſuch linen, and alſo all the goods in every package, indorſed on ſuch cocket, ſhall be forfeited, and the exporter to loſe the benefit of the bounty.

‡ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 5.

§ Any ſuch linen, for which the bounty has been given or claimed, relanded in Great-Britain, Ireland, or the Iſle of Man, is forfeited, and every perſon concerned in bringing back, or re-landing it, forfeits one ſhilling per yard.

§ 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 6.

‖ Bonds taken, or debentures made, purſuant to this act, are not chargeable with the ſtamp duties.

‖ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 10.

* Any perſon, legally convicted of falſely making any oath required by this act, is to forfeit 200 l. and be impriſoned for twelve months.

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 11.

† In caſe of any queſtion, whether the linens are of the manufacture of Great-Britain or Ireland, the ONUS PROBANDI is to lie upon the exporter or ſeller for exportation.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 12.

XI. Premium or Bounty on Britiſh Plantation-made INDICO imported.

By 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1, 6, 8. was granted for ſeven years, from March 25, 1749;
By 28 Geo. II. cap. 25. §. 1. further continued to March 25, 1763; and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament,

	Bounty.		
For every pound weight of good and merchantable INDICO, free from any falſe mixture, and fit for dyers uſe, imported directly from any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, in a ſhip which may lawfully trade thither, manned as by law required, and being of the growth or product of the plantation from whence imported, and being worth 3 s. per pound weight, when the beſt French, or other indico equal with the beſt French, is 4 s. per pound weight, and ſo in proportion	0	0	6

To be paid upon demand to the importer by the collector of the port of importation, out of the customs; but if he has not money sufficient in his hands, he must certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, who are to cause it to be paid by the receiver-general of the customs in England or Scotland respectively, according to the place of importation.

* But to intitle the importer to this premium, the person who ships the indico in America must, before the ship is cleared out, produce to the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer of the colony, or any two of them, a certificate signed and sworn before a justice of the peace by the planter, or his known agent, and attested by the justice, "that a quantity "of indico, expressing the weight thereof, had been sent "from his indico-work to be shipped off, or was sold to "the person therein named, and was of the growth of his "plantation, situate in the district, division, or parish of "———, within the island or colony of ———;" and also sign a certificate himself before the said officers, "that "the indico shipped by him is the same mentioned in the "planter's certificate;" upon which they are to deliver to him a certificate, under their hands and seal of office, of "having received such certificate, and that at the same time "the planter's certificate was produced and left with them." This last certificate must be produced to the chief officer of the customs at the port of importation, together with a certificate from the commander of the vessel importing the indico, "that the same was shipped on board his vessel, within such Bri-"tish colony in America, as mentioned in the said certificate;" and also a certificate signed by the surveyor, land-waiters, or searchers of the customs of the port where landed, or any two of them, specifying "the weight, and that it is good and mer-"chantable, free from false mixture, and of such quality as to "be intitled to the premium;" which certificate they must grant within ten days after landing, unless they can assign sufficient cause for refusal. Upon producing the several certificates to the proper officer, the premium is to be paid.

* 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2, 3, 4.

† The officers of the customs, before making out the certificates, are to examine the indico, by opening the package, and shifting it so as to see the whole contents, and if it is good and merchantable, and free from false mixture, and of the value required.

† 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 7, 8.

‖ In case of any dispute about the quality of the indico, if in the port of London, the commissioners of the customs may call two or more dyers, dry-salters, or brokers, or others well skilled in it, who are to declare upon oath, if required, their opinion as to the quality, and whether it is intitled to the premium: if in the out-ports, samples are to be sent up to the commissioners of the customs in London or Edinburgh respectively, to be inspected and adjudged there.

‖ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9.

‡ No fee, gratuity, or reward, to be taken by any officer of the customs, for examining, viewing, or delivering such indico, or for signing any certificate, or paying the premium, on forfeiture of 100l. loss of office, and being incapable of serving his Majesty.

‡ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 10.

§ Certificates and debentures, made out in pursuance of this act, are not chargeable with the stamp duties.

§ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 11.

* No person may enter, or cause to be entered, any foreign-made indico, under the name of British plantation-made indico, on forfeiture thereof; or mix, or cause to be mixed, any foreign indico, or other false mixture, with that made in the British plantations, in order to obtain the premium, on forfeiture of the whole, and double the value thereof.

* 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5.

† Any governor, lieutenant-governor, collector, or comptroller of the customs, naval officer, merchant, trader, or factor, or master, or commander of a ship, or any other person, falsely making a certificate of the produce or manufacture of any indico, or counterfeiting any certificate by this act required, in order to obtain the premium, is to forfeit 200l. and, if an officer of the customs, also to lose his office, and be incapable of serving his Majesty.

† 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 15.

† If any indico, made in the British plantations in America, shall be exported after the 25th of March, 1749, the exporter, before entry thereof, is to pay the collector of the customs, at the port of exportation, 6d. for every pound weight, allowed as a premium by this act, over and above any other duty it is subject to pay on exportation, on forfeiture thereof, and double the value; and in case of a dispute, whether it is of the growth, product, and manufacture of the British plantations in America, the onus probandi is to lie upon the owner or claimer.

‡ Penalties and forfeitures, by this act, may be prosecuted in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, the court of exchequer in Scotland, or any of the courts of admiralty, in his Majesty's plantations in America respectively; and are to be divided, if in Great-Britain, one moiety to his Majesty, and the other to the person who shall sue for the same; if in his majesty's plantations in America, one-third to his Majesty, one third to the governor of the plantation, and one-third to the person who shall sue for the same.

‡ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 16, 17.

XII. Allowance on damaged TOBACCO imported.

§ If any British plantation TOBACCO hath received damage on board any ship at sea, or by the ship's being forced on shore in any part of Great-Britain; or after arrival, by the ship's bulging on an anchor, or by the lighter into which the tobacco is put in order to be landed; the merchant refusing to pay, or secure the duty for the same, hath liberty to separate such damaged tobacco, by cutting it off from the hogshead or other package.

§ 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4, 13.

‖ For every pound of damaged TOBACCO so cut off, the merchant is to be allowed — 0 0 0½

To be paid by the commissioners or collectors, or other chief officers of his majesty's customs.

But such allowance not to exceed thirty shillings on any one hogshead.

‖ 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 13.

* Such damaged tobacco cut off, to be burnt and destroyed.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4.

XIII. Allowance or drawback of the duties on COALS used in melting copper or tin ores within the counties of Cornwall and Devon, or in fire-engines for draining tin or copper mines in Cornwall.

† All COALS used in either of the above works, and for which the duties have been first answered, upon proof, by oath made before the customer or collector of the said duties, that they have been so used, shall have a drawback of all the duties; to be repaid by the collector of the duties to the person making such proof.

† 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 54. 14 Geo. II. cap. 41. §. 3.

XIV. Allowance on damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable WINES imported.

‡ If any merchant, finding his wine on importation to be damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable, shall refuse to pay or secure the duties for the same; the commissioners of the customs may cause such wines to be received into the custody of the proper officers, and to be publicly sold, in order to be distilled into brandy, or made into vinegar, taking sufficient security that they be not made use of for any other purpose whatsoever; and shall cause the produce of such sale to be paid to the merchant, as a compensation for the freight and other charges, not exceeding the allowances following.

For every ton of WINE	of the growth of Germany, or which pays duty as such -	4	0	0
	of the growth of France -	4	0	0
	of the growth of Spain, Portugal or elsewhere - -	8	0	0

‡ 6 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 3, 4. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 20.

The security to be discharged, on a proper certificate that the wines have been so made use of within three months after delivery out of the warehouse.

The overplus, if any, to be replaced to the duties, out of which the warehouse rent, and other charges attending the sale, have been advanced.

§ But no allowance to be made for any wines, unless imported in casks, on board a merchant ship, directly from the place of the growth, or the usual place of first shipping.

§ 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 19.

* Except as to ships stranded; in which case, the wines salved may be put on board any other ship or vessel, and carried to any lawful port of this kingdom, and be intitled to the aforementioned allowance.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 20.

XV. Al-

XV. Allowance of PORTAGE.

PORTAGE is a bounty given by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, by virtue of their patent, to maſters of ſhips inwards for making true reports of their ſhips and cargoes, and otherwiſe demeaning themſelves according to law and cuſtom, and is granted on the net amount of the undermentioned branches paid or ſecured for the goods imported in their reſpective ſhips, certified by the proper officer of the port (damages and over-entries firſt to be deducted) and is as follows.

WINES -	0 6 8	per cent. on the net amount of the branches of cuſtoms and impoſt.
CURRANTS -	0 6 8	per cent. on the net amount of the branch of cuſtoms.
NORWAY GOODS	2 0 0	
OTHER GOODS	0 10 0	

Note, that no portage is to be granted, when it doth not amount to ten ſhillings, except for Norway goods.

XVI. Drawback or repayment of the duty of exciſe on Britiſh-made CANDLES.

		Drawb.
CANDLES MADE OF WAX.	‡ the pound weight averdupoiſe 0 0 4 † the pound weight averdupoiſe 0 0 4	0 0 8
CANDLES MADE OF TALLOW, and other Candles.	‡ the pound weight averdupoiſe 0 0 0½ † the pound weight averdupoiſe 0 0 0½	0 0 1

‡ 8 Ann. cap. 9. 9 Ann. cap. 21.
† 9 Ann. cap. 6. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.

* To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of the exciſe, on proof made before him, upon oath, of the payment of the duties; and the collector giving a certificate thereof to the exporter, expreſſing kinds and quantities, and payment of duties; which certificate being produced to the collector of the cuſtoms at the port of exportation, and the exporter giving ſufficient ſecurity, before ſhipping, that the candles ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain, and likewiſe making oath, that they are the ſame mentioned in the certificate, the collector of the cuſtoms is to give to the exporter a debenture, expreſſing the true kinds and quantities exported.

* 8 Ann. cap. 9. §. 24, 26.

† If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) the candles are forfeited, or their value.

† 8 Ann. cap. 9. §. 25.

XVII. Drawback or repayment of the duty of exciſe on HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, rough or tanned; HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, dreſſed or curried; SHEEP-SKINS and LAMB-SKINS, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, in Great-Britain, exported.

By 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. and 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. any hides or calve-ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, were to draw back two-thirds of the duties laid on by thoſe acts reſpectively.
But by 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. it is there explained, that thoſe acts, as to the drawback, comprehended only tanned or rough hides, and calve-ſkins, &c.
Therefore the drawback is as follows.

		Drawback.
‖ TANNED or ROUGH HIDES, and CALVE-SKINS, the pound weight averdupoiſe -	by 9 Ann. cap. 11. - 0 0 0⅔ by 10 Ann. cap. 26. - 0 0 0⅓	0 0 1
† HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, dreſſed or curried, the pound weight, as they ſhall weigh at the cuſtom-houſe - -		0 0 1

‖ 9 Ann. cap. 11 §. 39. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6.

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §, 6.

SHEEP-SKINS, * and LAMB-SKINS,	tanned for glovers and bazils -	the pound weight averdupoiſe -	0 0 0½
	dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed -		
	dreſſed in oil, the pound weight avoirdupoiſe -		0 0 0⅔

* 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 67. 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 2.

‡ To be repaid to the exporter, by the collector of exciſe on a debenture made forth by the collector of the cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, expreſſing the kinds, quantities and weights ſo exported, ſufficient ſecurity being firſt given by the exporter to the collector of the cuſtoms, that the ſaid goods ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain.

‡ 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39, 40.

† The hides and calve-ſkins, ſo exported, to be marked with a ſtamp, denoting having paid the duties *; but the drawback may be allowed, although the ſaid marks have not been ſeen by the officers of the cuſtoms, provided that oath be made before the collector of the cuſtoms, that the hides or ſkins, contained in the reſpective bales or packs, were marked with the ſtamps, denoting payment of the duties, and ſpecifying how much the duties amounted to, together with the weight thereof exported.

† 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39.
* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

‖ If relanded, forfeited, with treble the value.

‖ 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 42.

XVIII. Drawback or repayment of the duty of exciſe on Britiſh-made SOAP exported.

	Drawback.
† SOAP, for every pound weight avoirdupoiſe - - 0 0 1 ‡ SOAP, for every pound weight avoirdupoiſe - - 0 0 0½	0 0 1½

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 24. 1 Geo. I. cap. 7.
‡ 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

* To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of exciſe for ſuch ſoap as is exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, and teſtified by the ſearcher; the exporter having firſt made proof of the payment of the duties before the collector, who received the ſame, and alſo having given ſufficient ſecurity, that the ſoap ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 22, 24. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 13.

† If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) the ſoap, or the value, forfeited.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 23.

XIX. Drawback or repayment of the exciſe duty on Britiſh-made PAPER exported.

			Drawback.
BROWN	large cap, the ream	† — 0 0 6 ‖ — 0 0 3	0 0 9
	ſmall the ream	† — 0 0 4 ‖ — 0 0 2	0 6 0
CROWN	fine the ream	† — 0 1 0 ‖ — 0 0 6	0 1 6
	ſecond the ream	† — 0 0 9 ‖ — 0 0 4½	0 1 1½
DEMY -	fine the ream	† — 0 1 6 ‖ — 0 0 9	0 2 3
		† — 0 1 0 ‖ — 0 0 6	0 1 6
FOOL'S-CAP	fine the ream	† — 0 1 0 ‖ — 0 0 6	0 1 6
	ſecond the ream	† — 0 0 9 ‖ — 0 0 4½	0 1 1½
POT -	fine, the ream	† — 0 1 0 ‖ — 0 0 6	0 1 6
	ſecond, the ream	† — 0 0 6 ‖ — 0 0 3	0 0 9
WHITED BROWN, the bundle containing forty quires -		† — 0 0 6 ‖ — 0 0 3	0 0 9
ALL OTHER PAPER, for every 100 l. value, to be ſold at the next market town, upon oath of the maker -		† — 12 0 0 ‖ — 6 0 0	18 0 0
MILL-BOARDS, PASTE-BOARDS, and SCALE-BOARDS, the 112 lb.		† — 0 3 0 ‖ — 0 1 6	0 4 6
PAPER, PAINTED or STAINED, in Great-Britain, for hangings, &c. (beſides the aforeſaid duſies) for every yard ſquare -		† — 0 0 1 ‖ — 0 0 0½	0 0 1½

To be repaid under the ſame regulations and penalties for relanding, as the drawback on Britiſh-made ſoap.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 56. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.
‖ 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

XX. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on { SILKS, and SILK HANDKERCHIEFS printed, stained, or painted - ; CALLICOES, and all LINENS and STUFFS printed, stained, painted, or dyed - } in Great Britain, exported.

	Drawback.	
ALL SILKS, PRINTED, STAINED, or PAINTED (except silk handkerchiefs) for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard in breadth -	† 0 0 6 ‖ 0 0 6	0 1 0
ALL SILK HANDKERCHIEFS, PRINTED, STAINED, or PAINTED, for every yard square, and in those proportions for wider or narrower silk - -	† 0 0 3 0 0 1	0 0 4
ALL CALLICOES, PRINTED, STAINED, PAINTED, or DYED, for every yard in length, reckoning one yard wide, and after that proportion -	† 0 0 3 ‖ 0 0 3	0 0 6 –
ALL LINEN AND STUFFS, PRINTED, STAINED, PAINTED, or DYED, for every yard in length, reckoning one yard wide, and after that rate for a greater or lesser quantity -	† 0 0 1½ ‖ 0 0 1½	0 0 3

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93.
‖ 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13.

* Not to extend to linens, callicoes, or fustians, dyed throughout of one colour, nor to stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part is woollen.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 68. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 8.

† Note, all callicoes printed, &c. as above, which shall be within ⅛ part of a yard of a yard broad, or not exceeding ⅛ part of a yard of a yard board, shall pay as yard broad, and no more nor less.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 96.

To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of excise, on a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation: the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties before the said collector of the customs, and also having given sufficient security, that the goods shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

‡ 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93, 95. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13.

§ Before shipping the exporter is to give, to the proper officer of the customs, notice, when and where he will pack the goods; and such officer is to see the seals or stamps taken off from every piece to be exported, and to make returns of the kinds and quantities thereof to the officer appointed to receive the same.

§ 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 17.

‖ If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value.

‖ 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 92.

XXI. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on British-made STARCH exported.

	Drawback.	
† STARCH, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoise	0 0 1	0 0 2
‖ STARCH, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoise	0 0 1	

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 27. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.
‖ 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

* To be repaid to the exporter thereof (by the collector of the duties) for such starch, exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, on a debenture, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, expressing the true kinds and quantities, and the exportation thereof testified by the searcher; the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties (on oath) before the said collector, and also having given sufficient security, that the starch shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 25, 27. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 13.

† If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value.

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 26.

XXII. Bounty or allowance on GOLD and SILVER THREAD, LACE, or FRINGE, made in GREAT-BRITAIN, exported.

	Bounty.	
* SILVER THREAD, LACE, or FRINGE, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise — —	0 5 0	
* GOLD LACE, THREAD, or FRINGE, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise — —	0 6 8	

To be paid to the exporter by the collector of the duties on gilt and silver wire, on a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, and the shipping thereof testified by the searcher; the exporter first making proof upon oath, before the collector of the customs, that the said thread, lace, or fringe, was actually made after the first of July, 1712, and also giving sufficient security, that they shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 9 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1.

XXIII. Drawback on BOOTS, SHOES, GLOVES, and other manufactures of British-tanned leather, exported.

	Drawb.	
† ALL TANNED LEATHER, which shall be manufactured, and actually made into GOODS or WARES, for every pound weight thereof	0 0 1½	

† 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 68.

§ This drawback commenced from the 2d of August, 1714, and is in lieu of the drawback of two-thirds of the excise duties granted by 9 Ann. cap. 11. and 10 Ann. cap. 26. and is to be paid by the collector of those duties, to the exporter thereof, out of those duties respectively, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs of the port of exportation, security being first given by the exporter, that the goods shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

§ 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40, 41. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 68.

‖ Relanded, forfeited, and treble the value.

9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 43.

XXIV. Drawback or repayment of excise on British-wrought PLATE exported.

	Drawback.	
WROUGHT PLATE, or MANUFACTURES of SILVER, made in Great Britain, the ounce troy — —	0 0 6	

* To be repaid by the exporter, for such plate as is exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, by the collector of the duty, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, expressing kinds and quantities, and the shipping thereof certified by the searcher; the exporter first making proof on oath, before the said collector, that the plate was actually made or marked after the first of June, 1720, and likewise giving sufficient security, that it shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18.

If the collector of the duties hath not money sufficient in his hands, he is to certify the same to the commissioners.

† But no drawback to be paid on the exportation of plate, if the same shall have been made seven years or more before the day of entering it for exportation.

† 12 Geo. II. cap. 16. §. 10.

For other regulations, see silver in the index.

XXV. Drawback or repayment of the excise on GLASS made in Great-Britain, exported.

	Viz.	Drawback.	
§ CROWN, PLATE, FLINT, or WHITE GLASS -	for every hundred weight -	0 9 4	
GREEN GLASS, for every hundred weight		0 2 4	

§ 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 3, 4, 5.

† The collector who received the duty upon the glass, upon oath made before him that the duty has been paid, is to give the person (gratis) a certificate, expressing the kinds and weight of the glass, and the duty paid for it; which being produced to the customer or collector of the port of exportation, and the exporter making oath before him, that the glass to be exported is the same mentioned therein, and likewise giving sufficient security for such exportation, and that

† 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 19, 21.

it

it ſhall not be relanded in any part of Great-Britain, the collector is to grant a debenture, expreſſing the true weight; which debenture being produced to the collector of the ſaid duties at the place of exportation, he is forthwith to pay the above allowance; but if he has not money ſufficient in his hands, the reſpective commiſſioners of exciſe in Great-Britain are to pay it out of the duties upon glaſs ariſing by this act.

* Relanded, is forfeited, or the value, beſides the penalty of the bond.

* 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 20.

XXVI. Drawback of the Excise or Inland Duties on British Salt exported.

Of England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed.

By 5 and 6 of W. and M. cap. 7. were granted, from the 25th of March, 1694, to the 17th of May, 1697, the following duties.

	Duty.
Rock-salt, taken out of any pits in England, Wales, or Berwick, the buſhel †, containing 65 pounds weight — —	0 1 0
Salt made at any ſalt-works in England, Wales, or Berwick, or refined from rock-ſalt, the buſhel ‡, containing 56 pounds weight —	

And by 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. was granted from 24 December 1699,

A further duty on every ſuch reſpective buſhel of Salt above mentioned — —	0 2 4
Total duty	0 3 4

† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 9.
‡ 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. §. 34.

§ Which duties have been ſince revived and continued for ever.

§ 7 and 8 Will. and Mar. cap. 31. 5 Geo. II. cap. 6. 7 Geo. II. cap. 6. 8 Geo. II. cap. 12. 14 Geo. II. cap. 22. 18 Geo. II. cap 5. 26 Geo. II. cap. 3.

‖ The above duties to be paid by the maker thereof, for rock-ſalt, within twelve months, and for all other ſalt, within nine months, after true entries made of the reſpective times of making ſuch ſalt, or taking it out of the pits, or ſufficient ſecurity given; but if he chuſes to pay ready money, he ſhall have a diſcount thereon, after the rate of 10 per cent per annum *; and if paid within 28 days after ſecurity given, to be allowed a diſcount, after the rate of ten per cent. per annum, for the remaining time.

‖ 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 7. §. 6. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. §. 8. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 5.
* 1 Ann. cap. 24. §. 39.

† On exportation, the officer of the place, where ſuch ſalt was made or taken out of the pits, ſhall deliver to the exporter a certificate, under his hand and ſeal, that the duties have been paid or ſecured; on producing this certificate to the officer of the cuſtoms where the ſaid ſalt is to be ſhipped off, he is to grant a debenture, the exporter making oath of the ſhipping of the ſalt, and of its not being relanded in England or Wales; which debenture being produced to the officer of the place where the duties have been paid or ſecured;
Then theſe duties are to be wholly repaid, or the ſecurity vacated.

† 5 and 6 Will and Mar. cap. 7. §. 11. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. § 22.

‡ Shipped for Ireland, no debenture to be granted, till there is produced a certificate of the quantity landed, under the hand of the collector of the cuſtoms of ſuch port in Ireland where the ſaid ſalt is landed.
For further regulations thereon, ſee the index.

‡ 1 Ann. cap 21, §. 11.

Salt of Scotland.

By the act of union, 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8. ſalt made in Scotland is exempted from payment of the inland duty of 2s. 4d. per buſhel, impoſed by 9 and 10 Will III. cap. 44.

Therefore the inland duty payable in Scotland, for the like ſorts of Salts, is, the reſpective buſhel	0 1 0

§ To be managed with the ſame allowance, encouragement, and drawback proportionable, and under the ſame reſtrictions and regulations, as for England.

§ 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 6. §. 18.

XXVII. Bounty on Fish and Flesh exported.

‖ Flesh exported, cured with (any ſalt in England, but in Scotland only with foreign) ſalt which has paid duty, is to be allowed, viz.

Beef or Pork, the barrel — — —	0 5 0

‖ 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8.

* To be paid by the collector of the duties upon ſalt, in the port of exportation, within 30 days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms at that port, verified by the ſearcher, as to the quantity actually ſhipped, and that the ſame is good and merchantable; and the oath of the exporter, or agent, being firſt taken before the principal officers of the port, before the debenture is allowed (if exported from England, Wales, or the town of Berwick upon Tweed) 'that the beef or pork, mentioned 'in the debenture, was ſalted with ſalt, for which the du-'ties have been paid, and not drawn back, and that the 'ſame is really exported to parts beyond the ſeas for ſale, 'and that any part thereof was not ſpent, or intended to be 'ſpent, for the ſhip's uſe, nor relanded, or intended to be 'relanded:' if exported from Scotland, 'that the fleſh, men-'tioned in the debenture, is really exported to parts beyond 'the ſeas for ſale, and not intended to be relanded in Great-'Britain, and was duly cured only with foreign ſalt, with-'out any mixture of Britiſh or Iriſh ſalt, and that the du-'ties for ſuch imported ſalt have been duly paid or ſecured.'

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10.

† Relanded, is forfeited, and 40s. for every barrel, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor.

† 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 9.

Fish, exported from any part of Great-Britain to foreign parts, are intitled to the following allowances, viz.

Pilchards, or Scads, the caſk, containing 50 gallons — — — —	0 7 0
Codfish, Ling, or Hake — If 14 inches or upwards in length, from the bone in the fin to the third joint in the tail, the hundred — —	0 5 0
Wet, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0 2 0
Dried, called Haberdines, the hundred weight — —	0 3 0
Salmon, the barrel, containing 42 gallons —	0 4 6
White Herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons — — — —	0 2 8
Full Red Herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons — — —	0 1 9
Clean Shotten Red Herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons — —	0 1 0
Dried Red Sprats, the laſt — — —	0 1 0

☞ By 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5. theſe bounties were extended to fiſh cured in Scotland with Britiſh or foreign ſalt, which by the act of union were limited to fiſh cured (in Scotland) with foreign ſalt only.

‡ To be paid by the collector of the duties upon ſalt, in the port of exportation, within thirty days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms in the port of exportation, and verified by the ſearcher, as to the quantity actually ſhipped; and the oath of the exporter, or agent, being firſt taken before the principal officers of the port, before the debenture is allowed, 'that the fiſh men-'tioned in the debenture were Britiſh, taken and really ex-'ported to, or for parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded, 'or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain.'

‡ 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

§ If the ſaid collector (in England) has not ſufficient money in his hands to pay the ſaid debentures on fleſh or fiſh exported, he is to give without delay a certificate thereof to the commiſſioners for the exciſe upon ſalt in England, who ſhall be chargeable with the payment, to be paid in courſe out of the firſt money ariſing out of the duties upon ſalt; and if in Scotland, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe in Scotland, at the option of the merchant, who are to cauſe it to be paid in courſe out of the duties upon ſalt in Scotland, or out of the revenues of cuſtoms or exciſe there.

§ 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

‖ The herring barrel is to contain 32 gallons, and the ſalmon barrel 42 gallons; and herrings or ſalmon exported in barrels of any other ſize (except half barrels) are not entitled to the bounty.

‖ 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15, 16. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

* No allowance to be paid on fleſh or fiſh not well cured, or unmerchantable.

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

† Such fiſh fraudulently relanded in Great-Britain, or re-imported, is forfeited, and double the value, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

‡ No fee to be taken for a debenture, or certificate, or for payment of the money.

‡ 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

§ Any officer refuſing or neglecting to pay the money, or give a certificate, as above, forfeits double the ſum to the party aggrieved.

§ 7 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

* Herring, ſalmon, cod, ling, tuſk, or other white fiſh, brought coaſtwiſe from Scotland into England for re-exportation after the 25th of June, 1756, are upon exportation intitled to the bounties above mentioned, ſubject to the ſame regulations, in order to prevent the relanding, or reimporting thereof, and the owners are ſubject to the ſame penalties for relanding, or other fraudulent proceedings, in order to obtain the bounty, as in caſe of fiſh cured in, and exported from England.—This allowance is not to be paid in England, but the chief officer of the cuſtoms, or his deputy, at the port of exportation, upon requeſt of the exporter, and oath made before the principal officers of the port, "of the ſhipping of the fiſh, and its not being relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain," is to give a debenture under his hand, without fee, for payment of the allowance, which being produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe in Scotland (at the option of the exporter or his aſſigns) they are to pay the bounties out of any money in their hands, ariſing by any branch of the cuſtoms or exciſe, regard being had to the priority of the dates of the debentures.

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 10, 11.

XXVIII. Premium on NAVAL STORES imported.

I. From the Britiſh plantations in America.

By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3. 18. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.
By 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 2. continued to 25 March, 1758. And to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

† Imported directly from any of the Britiſh plantations in America, in ſhips legally navigated, and that by law may trade thither —

MASTS, YARDS, and BOWSPRIGHTS, the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies -	1	0	0
Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31½ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up —	2	4	0
TAR { Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31½ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up on the importation thereof -	4	0	0
‖ But no premium is to be paid on any tar, unleſs each barrel contains 31½ gallons, and the officers not to ſurvey the tar till the water is all drawn off, and every barrel filled up with tar.			
PITCH, clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned, not mixed with dirt or droſs, the ton, containing 20 groſs hundreds, neat pitch, to be brought in eight barrels of equal ſize -	1	0	0
TURPENTINE, clean, good, and merchantable, clear of droſs and water, the ton, containing 20 groſs hundreds, neat turpentine, to be brought in eight barrels of equal ſize -	1	10	0

† 2 Geo. II cap. 35. §. 3.
‖ 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 2, 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3.

* Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe, upon certificate of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding within any of his Majeſty's ſaid plantations, teſtifying, that before the departure of the ſhip, the perſon lading the ſame had made oath before them, that the ſaid ſtores were truly, and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of his Majeſty's ſaid plantations: and with reſpect to the high bounty on tar, expreſſing, that it has appeared to them, the perſons ſo certifying, by the oath of the owner or maker of the tar for which ſuch certificate was granted, that the tar herein mentioned was made from green trees, prepared for that purpoſe after the following manner; that is to ſay, that when ſuch trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was ſtripped eight feet or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a ſlip of the bark, of about four inches in breadth, having been left on one ſide of each tree; and that each tree, after having been ſo barked, and ſtood during one year at the leaſt, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the ſaid tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith; as likewiſe upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at any port in Great-Britain, that the ſame were ſhippped within ſome of his Majeſty's plantations in America, and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid ſtores were the produce of the ſaid plantations.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4, 12.

† But the aforeſaid certificates of the chief officers of the cuſtoms are not to be made out for the premium on pitch, until the ſame be freed from dirt or droſs, nor for any tar that is not fitting to be uſed for making of cordage, and ſhall not be freed from droſs and water, and unleſs ſuch pitch and tar be clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 16. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

§ And the ſaid officers of the cuſtoms, before they make out ſuch certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, ſawing of the ſtaves in the middle, and breaking the barrels, or by ſuch other means as they ſhall think proper, to diſcover whether the ſaid pitch is good and merchantable, not mixt with dirt or droſs; and alſo to examine and ſearch the ſaid tar, to diſcover whether the ſame is clean, good, merchantable, well conditioned, and clear of droſs or water, and fit for making of cordage.

§ 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 17. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

II. From North-Britain, commonly called Scotland.

By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.
By 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 2. continued to 25 March, 1758. And from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Imported from North-Britain to any part of South-Britain.

TREES of twelve inches diameter and upwards, fit for MASTS, YARDS, or BOWSPRIGHTS, regularly converted and hewed at leaſt into eight ſquares, ſound, freſh, and in good and merchantable condition, the ton, allowing forty feet to each ton, girt meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies —	1	0	0

* Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe, upon certificates of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported, to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms, and the naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding at the port or ports of exportation in North-Britain, teſtifying, that before the departure of the ſhip, the perſons concerned, or employed, (or any two of them) in cutting down the aforeſaid trees, had made affidavit in writing, before ſuch comptroller and collector, and naval-officer, or any two of them, that ſuch trees were truly and bonâ fide of the growth and produce of North-Britain; and ſpecifying in the ſaid affidavit, the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down,

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13.

the names of the proprietors, and the places where the ſame did grow; as likewiſe upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in South Britain, that the ſame were truly laden within North-Britain, and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid trees were of the growth of North-Britain.

* Perſons counterfeiting, or making falſe affidavits, or certificates, of the growth of the trees, in order to obtain the premium, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit 100 l.

* Collector, comptroller, or naval officer, making falſe certificates, ſhall incur ſuch penalties as are directed for like offences, by the act (13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11.) for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in his majeſty's cuſtoms.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14.

† Maſters or owners of ſhips knowingly importing foreign trees, fit for maſts, &c. as of the product of North-Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit 100 l. together with the ſhip and furniture.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 15.

From the Britiſh plantations and Scotland.

‡ Upon the landing of the aforeſaid ſtores and trees, the preemption or refuſal muſt be offered and tendered to the commiſſioners of the navy, and if, within twenty days after ſuch tender, they ſhall not contract for the ſame, the importers may otherwiſe diſpoſe of them.

‡ 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 6, 13.

‖ No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the cuſtoms, for the examining, viewing, or delivering any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or for making or ſigning certificates, in order to receive the premium, upon the forfeiture of office and 100 l. and to be rendered incapable of ſerving his Majeſty.

* And if any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or trees, ſhall be again exported, the exporter muſt, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treaſurer of the navy, or his caſhier, ſubſcribed by his comptroller, or his chief clerk, ſignifying that the full amount of the aforeſaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, ſuch ſtores may not be exported; and if ſuch ſtores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 7, 9, 16.

† And if, upon the exportation of the aforeſaid ſtores, doubts ſhall ariſe concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the onus probandi ſhall lie on the owner or claimer thereof.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 10, 16.

XXIX. Drawback of exciſe on STRONG BEER, STRONG ALE, MUM, CYDER, and PERRY, made in Great-Britain, exported. 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 22, &c.

XXX. Drawback of exciſe on SPIRITS DRAWN FROM CORN in Great-Britain, without mixture of any other materials exported. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17.

XXXI. Drawback of the exciſe on SPIRITS exported. 16 Geo. II. cap. 8.

☞ Not only the payment of theſe three drawbacks, but the forms and regulations of ſhipping, being by law required to be performed by the officers of exciſe, it is unneceſſary to deſcribe them particularly here.

AN
INDEX
OF THE
MATERIAL ARTICLES,

Contained in the SECOND VOLUME of the UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE.

LETTER L.

LABOUR, remarks political thereon, in relation to the natural price thereof. How taxes on commodities tend to raiſe the price of labour. The price of labour will fall, when ſuch taxes are annihilated. Invention of compendious arts of workmanſhip. Of the natural cauſes of the riſe and decay of nations in wealth and power, with regard to the price of labour. The increaſe of paper circulation in a ſtate naturally tends to raiſe the price of labour and commodities; and likewiſe the declenſion of the ſtate in wealth and power. Annihilation of paper debts, the way to preſerve ſtates, by preſerving the channels of trade and exportation. The more commercial labour in a ſtate, the richer is that ſtate eſteemed. Laws of England in regard to labourers; with remarks ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763.

LACE-MANUFACTURE, its manufacture. Political Reflections thereon. The principal laws of France, in reſpect to the lace-manufacture. Of the principal laws of England in regard thereto. The allowance on gold and ſilver lace, thread, and fringe, on exportation. Of the cuſtom-houſe buſineſs on this occaſion. Political remarks thereon. The encouragement given to this manufacture in Ireland. Philoſophical conſiderations on the manufacture of gold and ſilver lace.

LADING, ſee BILLS OF LADING.

LAGAN, or LAGON, what.

LANCASHIRE, its ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks relating to Liverpool.

LANDED-INTEREST. Reaſon why the decline of foreign trade ſinks the value of land. Encreaſe of paper-treaſure, argues the decline of trade, and decay of the landed-intereſt. The effect of land-taxes compared with thoſe upon commodities. Further political remarks. Of the country gentleman's advancement by improving it, and of preſerving himſelf and family, independently on court-preferment; which is ever a precarious dependence, except to but very few, and thoſe few liable to be turned out of their poſts and places, on miniſterial diſtractions.

LAND-CARRIAGE, outward; with regard to duties and taxes of goods for exportation.

LAND-CARRIAGE, inward; with regard to duties and taxes of goods for importation.

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the cuſtoms. His buſineſs; and ſome laws relating thereto.

LANERKSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LANGUEDOC, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LAPIDARY, an artificer. Laws in France relating thereto.

LAPLAND, its ſituation, produce, and trade. See NORWAY, SWEDEN, and RUSSIA.

LAQUE, an artificial preparation for the buſineſs of laquered wares. Its preparation of a vegetable colour called laques.

LAQUERED-WARES, laquers of divers ſorts, how prepared.

LATITUDE, in geography and navigation.

LAW, as the ſame regards traders; with ſuitable remarks thereon.

LEAD, a metal. Its manufacture from natural ores. Its divers preparations for ſeveral uſes. Methods of ſmelting lead at the great works with pit-coal. Ditto with wood-fuel. Of black lead.

LEEKAGE of liquors, allowance at the cuſtoms on the importation thereof.

LEASE in LAW, what. The calculations of the values of leaſes; with tables ſuitable thereto; with remarks thereon.

LEATHER, of its manufacture from ſkins of beaſts of various kinds; with remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and Definitive Treaty of 1763.

LEATHER-BREECHES-MAKER, his trade.

LEATHER-CUTTER and CURRIER, ditto.

LEATHER-DRESSER,——————— ditto.

LEATHER-DYER,———————————ditto.

LEATHER-PARER and GROUNDER, ditto.

LEATHER-SELLER,——————————— ditto. The chief laws of England relating to leather. Some laws and regulations in England concerning leather tanned. Remarks on LEATHER-DRESSING in general.

LEDGER, in regard to the art of accountantſhip. A curious real mercantile tranſaction, carried on by partnerſhip at ſeveral foreign ports; the ſame ſtated in the ledger mode, and ballanced by the ſeveral parties reſiding at the ſeveral different foreign ports, and all in conformity to each other; with illuſtrative remarks thereon.

LEEWARD ISLANDS, their ſhort ſtate, with conſiderations ſuitable to the late peace of 1763; ſhewing the probability of thoſe NEUTRAL ISLANDS, that are thereby annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, turning to our commercial emolument hereafter.

LEICESTERSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LEINSTER,———————————ditto.

LETTER OF CREDIT, what.

LETTER-FOUNDER, his employment.

LETTER OF LICENSE, what, and its form.

LETTER OF MARQUE,———ditto.———Laws of England relating thereto.

LETTERS PATENT, what. The laws relating thereto.

INDEX.

LEVANT-TRADE, its trade in general. The firſt eſtabliſhment of the Chriſtian powers therein. The regulations and polity of France with reſpect to the Levant-trade. An arret of the king's council of ſtate, ordaining that the French ſhips trading to the ports of the Levant, ſhall not be liable to thoſe averages which may be neceſſary to be laid on the payment of the debts and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, and not according to the tonnage and ſtrength of the ſhipping. A royal ordonnance, permitting the ſheriffs, and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, to deliver certificates of reſidence of the children and relations of the merchants of the province, who chuſe to ſettle in the Levant, provided they were 18 years of age; and alſo to ſuch women and girls whoſe huſbands or fathers are eſtabliſhed in the ſaid ports, to live there with them, 1716. An arret of the royal council in times of war ordains, that upon the merchandize of the Levant, ariſing by the prizes made during the preſent war, (1705) and carried into the port of Toulon, there ſhall be levied 10 per cent. on the value of the ſaid merchandizes over and above the ordinary duties paid on importation. A royal ordonnance, excluding from all public truſt and adminiſtration, and from the aſſemblies of the body of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, ſuch French merchants, who ſhall there marry maids or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Senior; and excludes, likewiſe, all thoſe who are under 30 years of age, from all public truſts of adminiſtration, who ſhall marry, without the conſent of the parents, even any French young women. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all the ſubjects of France, and others trading in Turkey under their protection, to purchaſe any thing taken from the Turks by the Malteſe corſairs, or by any other, 1718. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all captains of French ſhips and veſſels to embark in the Levant any Frenchman or foreigner, without permiſſion firſt had and obtained, in writing, from the king's ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, or the conſuls of the ports, 1719. An arrêt of the royal council of ſtate, in relation to the eſtabliſhment of a duty in favour of the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles laid upon merchandizes coming from the Levant, charged with the payment of the appointments of the conſuls, 1721. An arret of the royal council of ſtate, laying a penalty upon the captains and owners of ſhips, coming from the Levant to Marſeilles, who ſhould miſrepreſent the weight and quality of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, or ſhould not repreſent them at all, 1722. A royal ordonnance, regulating the appointments that the firſt deputies of the French Nation are intitled to in the ports of the Levant and Barbary; if, in caſe of the death or abſence of the conſuls, they perform the offices of the conſular power, 1723. A royal ordonnance, revoking thoſe of the year 1689, 1713, and 1719, and the prohibitions therein contained; in conſequence whereof, it permits all Frenchmen reſiding in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and Italy, to load merchandizes for their account upon foreign bottoms, 1727. A royal ordonnance, regulating what ſhould be regarded in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, on the part of the Jews, and other foreigners, who ſhall enjoy there the protection of France, 1727. A royal ordonnance, excluding from the liberty of trading in France, and from the privilege of the body of the nation, ſuch French who ſhall marry in the ports of the Levant, and the ſons of Frenchmen born in the ſaid ports, whoſe mothers are foreigners, 1728. A royal ordonnance, concerning the patent of health that the captains and maſters of ſhips ſhould take, who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, 1730. The French king's declaration, ſignifying that no cabbin-boy ſhall be left in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, 1730. A royal ordonnance concerning the depoſits in the chanceries of the conſulſhips of the Levant and Barbary, 1731. Regulations for the imports of conſuls and vice-conſuls of the ports of Negropont, Covelle, Rhodes, Meteleme, Scio, Milo, Ime, Micona, 1732. General regulations of the French trade of all the ſaid ports. An arret of the council of ſtate, relating to the merchandizes in pacotilles, as the French term them, which the captains, ſupercargoes, and paſſengers carry into the Levant, as well for their own account as for that of the freighters, 1733. A royal ordonnance, forbidding the French merchants to conſign directly, or indirectly, merchandizes, fruits, or proviſions, to foreigners eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, 1735. An arret of the council of ſtate, concerning the impoſition of a duty of average of 1 per cent. for 3 years, upon the merchandizes which ſhall be carried to the ports of the Levant, 1736. A royal ordonnance, permitting French ſhips to be conſigned to merchant ſtrangers eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, in caſe they are entirely freighted by foreigners, 1737. An arret of the council of ſtate, eſtabliſhing, to commence the 1ſt of April, 1739, that the duty of averages at importation, the raiſing of which was ordained by the arret of the 25th of February, 1736, ſhall be ſuppreſſed in all the ports of the Levant of Dec. 1738. On the 18th of January, 1749, an arret was iſſued for the regulation of policies of inſurance paſſed before the ſigning the preliminaries of peace, with regard to ſhips employed in the commerce of the ports of the Levant, and regulating the premiums to be allowed to the inſurers, in theſe caſes mentioned in the arret of the 12th of July, 1748. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all ſubjects who reſide in the ports of the Levant and Barbary to poſſeſs themſelves of any real eſtates, 1749; with remarks, ſhewing that the above are the principal royal arrets, edicts, ordonnances, and declarations iſſued in France, from the year 1665, by authority, for the occaſional regulation of the Levant trade, and the conſequences thereof.

LEVANT TRADE, of the regulation of the Dutch, in regard to their commerce of the Levant trade. Of the general nature and circumſtances of the Turkey trade in the Levant; with remarks.

LIEGE, its ſituation, produce and trade.

LIGHT-HOUSES, or SEA-MARKS, their nature and uſe in navigation.

LIMBURG, its ſituation, produce and trade.

LINCOLNSHIRE,———ditto.

LINEN, a manufacture. Its great utility throughout the world. In whoſe hands the linen trade of Europe chiefly lies, to the diſadvantage of England; with a ſeries of national political reflections. Of the raiſing of flax, for the more effectual eſtabliſhment of the linen manufacture in Great Britain. A ſummary of the chief laws of England, relating to the linen manufacture. Of the conduct of Ireland, in regard to the linen manufacture, with reſpect to the linen-board there granting premiums for the encouragement of that manufactory. An account of the quantity and duty of the ſtatuteable and unſtatuteable linen yarn, exported out of Ireland to Great-Britain for twenty years. An account of the net quantities of cotton wool imported into Great-Britain for ſeven years, after deduction of the quantities exported; drawn from the accounts before the committee, in a report to his late Majeſty George II. with political remarks on the linen manufacture in general.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LINT, with reſpect to the linen manufacture, in order to render the linen manufacture belonging to theſe kingdoms as complete as the ſame is in foreign countries, &c. with remarks.

LITHUANIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LIVES, (annuities on lives). Of the principles whereon ſuch computations are made, with various curious tables thereon, made by ſeveral ingenious gentlemen.

LIVONIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LOADMANAGE, a term in commerce.

LOADSMAN,———ditto.——— Laws relative thereto.

LOGWOOD, a wood much uſed in the art of dying. A repreſentation from the board of trade to his late majeſty Geo. I. aſſerting the right of the ſubjects of Great-Britain, to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, 1717. Political remarks on this article in various lights, before and ſince the laſt war and treaty of peace of 1763.

LONGITUDE, its nature and uſe in the art of navigation, and the difficulties hitherto attending its diſcovery. Of a new problem for its diſcovery at ſea. Acts of parliament relative thereto. See alſo COMMANDERS OF SHIPS for the ſame at large.

LORRAIN AND BAR, their ſituation, produce and trade. See ALSACE.

LOTTERY, a public game at hazard, to raiſe money for the ſervice of the ſtate. Laws of England relating thereto. Lotteries in France. That in England for the purchaſe of Sir Hans Sloane's curioſities; with remarks on lotteries in general, upon mathematical principles. Of the abuſe of lotteries.

LOUISIANA, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks thereon, before and ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763. Of the Indians in North America; and how to manage them ſince the large acquiſition of territory ceded in North America to the crown of Great-Britain; of preſent important conſideration.

LUBECKERS, of the imperial city of Lubeck. Of their union with other ſtates.

LUXEMBERG, its ſituation, produce and trade.

LYONNOIS, its———ditto.

Of the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe.

LETTER M.

MACE, its nature and commerce.

MACEDONIA, its ſituation, produce and trade.

MACHINE, with political remarks thereon, to leſſen the price of commodities.

MALT, obſervations on the manner of MALTING; with philoſophical remarks thereon. An abſtract of acts of parliament thereon; together with the nature of the excife buſineſs reſpecting this article; and alſo the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, relating to the exportation of malt.

I N D E X.

MAN, (ISLE OF MAN) its ſituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks with reſpect to the ſmuggling trade carried on at the Iſle of Man before its being annexed to the crown of Great-Britain. Reaſon before its being annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, given in this work above 10 years before it was ſo annexed, furniſhed to the author by that worthy patriot, the preſent chamberlain of London, Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq;

MANUFACTURERS. Engliſh laws relating to them; with political remarks for their encouragement in Great-Britain. The ſyſtem of Spain to advance their manufactures of every kind, as publiſhed in this work before the laſt war, and Definitive Treaty of 1763; with other political remarks in divers uſeful lights. An abſtract of an act of parliament for the effectual puniſhing of perſons convicted of ſeducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain or Ireland, into foreign parts; and for the more eaſy and ſpeedy determination of appeals, allowed by another act, &c.

MANURE, for land; with philoſophical remarks thereon. Of political remarks thereon, tending to the better cultivating of the lands of Great-Britain and Ireland, in order to render labour and commodities cheaper than they are; with conſiderations incorporated regarding the landed intereſt. Alſo other political remarks on the whole of our article MANURE, and cultivating additional quantities of land, ſo as to render the neceſſaries of life cheaper, in order to cheapen labour, and the price of Engliſh commodities in general, for the benefit of foreign commerce.

MAP, its uſe in geography; with political remarks on this article before the laſt war and peace of 1763, relative to the perfidious deſigns of France to ſtrip us many years ago of our rights of poſſeſſion in North America in particular; of which the author of this work apprized the nation before the late war; alſo political remarks ſince the laſt war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.

MARBLE, its nature and quality, and uſe in buildings.

MARCASITE, a mineral; its nature, quality, and uſe; with proper remarks thereon, in order to make them turn to the beſt advantage on landed eſtates.

MARINERS, how governed in a maritime country by the antient ſea law, as thoſe of Rhodes, Oleron, and Wiſby; ſee thoſe articles, as well as according to the Engliſh laws; with variety of caſes litigated and determined in our courts of juſtice. Of the admiralty laws relating to theſe people. See ADMIRALTY.

MARITIME and MARINE AFFAIRS, and MARINE TREATIES. See MARQUE, (LETTERS OF MARQUE) MASTERS OF SHIPS, NAVAL AFFARS, PILOTS, PORTS, and HAVEN; PIRACY, PRIZES, QUARENTINE, SALVAGE, WRECKS; with other articles therefrom referred to. A marine treaty between the States-General and the city of Lubeck, 1613. A marine treaty between the United Provinces and the Hanſe Towns, 1615; with political remarks thereon of divers kinds. Alſo variety of maritime forms, and articles of ſeveral natures; with occaſional illuſtrative explanations. Treaty between the ſtates of Holland with the towns of Bremen and Hamburgh, in the year 1645. Another between the king of Denmark and the States-General. Another maritime treaty between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark. A form of a general maritime paſsport for a Swediſh ſhip laden with Swediſh goods, &c. A form of a certificate to be given to the Swediſh ſhips, laden partly with Swediſh, and partly with foreign goods, &c. with explanatory and political remarks, 1645. Another treaty between the States-General and Denmark, 1647; with a model for meaſuring the ſhips according to the meaſure of Amſterdam. A manifeſto publiſhed by the Parliament of England againſt the States-General of the United Provinces in the year 1652, ſevere againſt the Dutch. An abridgement of the manifeſto of the States-General againſt the nation and government, &c. of England, given at the Hague, 1652; which ended in a declaration of war, and was followed by a treaty between the States-General and the king of Denmark; which promoting a good underſtanding between the Dutch and the Danes, there was another treaty concluded between thoſe two powers at Copenhagen in the year 1653. An abſtract of a treaty of peace and union between Oliver Cromwell, as protector of England, and the United Provinces of the Low-Countries. A marine treaty between king Charles II. after his reſtoration to his dominions, and the States-General of Holland; in which all former differences are compoſed, &c. in 1667. The ſame time was concluded another treaty concerning marine affairs; which was the forerunner of that of February, 1667-8. Article touching navigation and commerce, between king Charles II. and the States-General, concluded at the Hague in February, 1667-8. Form of the certificate that ought to be given by thoſe that have the ordinary power of the admiralty of England, to the ſhips and veſſels that go out thence, according to the ſaid treaty; with other requiſite forms on both ſides relative to carrying the ſame into execution. After this treaty for affairs in Europe, another was ſet on foot, and agreed to, for regulating their naval affairs all over the world, &c. the ſubſtance of which we have given; with various neceſſary forms concerning the ſame. A marine treaty between king Charles II. and Lewis XIV. king of France in 1676-7; with the form requiſite on this occaſion, and proper remarks.

MARLE, for the manuring of land; with philoſophical remarks.

MARQUE, (LETTER OF MARQUE) what, their nature and authority. Laws of England concerning the ſame; with ſome curious caſes determined in our courts of judicature, on laws relative to litigations on this point.

MASTERS OF SHIPS, mercatorial laws and uſages relating thereto. With divers uſeful caſes of diſpute ſettled by our courts of law concerning them.

MATHEMATICS, how far they may be uſeful to thoſe who would underſtand the practice and theory of trade; and of general uſe and advantage, in the ſeveral lights repreſented; with pertinent remarks of ſeveral kinds.

MEASURES and WEIGHTS, as well relative to foreign countries as our own; with proper tables and computations.

MECHANICAL ARTS, the great commercial utility of mechanic arts to the ſtates; with ſuitable remarks thereon in divers lights.

MECKLENBURGH, or MECKLENBOURGH, its ſituation, produce and trade.

MEDALS, of the traffic therein in divers parts; with political remarks made of them in France to commemorate the great epochas of their commercial advancement in the reign of Lewis the XIVth and the preſent French king; with remarks alſo ſince the late war and treaty of peace of 1763.

MEDITERRANEAN, its ſituation and extent; with remarks relative to the important advantages derived to Great-Britain from the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar, and ſhewing why that territory and fortreſs ought never to be given up to any power whatſoever, if we would preſerve the Mediterranean trade; alſo other political remarks on this article. Likewiſe of the buſineſs of the cuſtom houſe relating to the MEDITERRANEAN COMMERCE.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES, our laws relating thereto.

MELLI, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

MENSURATION, its uſefulneſs in ſeveral branches of trade. With practical caſes of computation concerning the ſame, in artificers works of divers kinds; as carpenters work, bricklayers work, plaiſterers work, maſons work, glaziers work, painters work; alſo the uſe of the carpenter's rule, and the ſliding-rule in menſuration.

MENTZ, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANT-SHIP, the whole art ſuccinctly delineated.

BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE, ſhewing the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a mercantile college in Great-Britain for the education of young Britiſh merchants better than they uſually are; with a plan for that purpoſe. Another plan laid down for the due execution of the former. Of the dignity of the Britiſh merchant, and the conſequences of this intended new college to the public.

MERCHANT-COURT, or COURT-MERCHANT, of the nature of ſuch an inſtitution for the ſummary deciſion of mercantile perſonal controverſies. Of the merchant's court in the city of Rouen in France.

MERCURY, a mineral, its nature and quality; with philoſophical obſervations thereon.

MERIONETHSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

METALLURGY, the art of, deſcribed; with remarks philoſophical.

METALS, their nature and quality philoſophically deſcribed. Of factitious metals;; with proper remarks.

MEXICO, (OLD MEXICO) its ſituation, produce, and trade; with remarks particularly reſpecting the right of Britiſh ſubjects to the cutting of logwood in the bay of Honduras; alſo political remarks made before and ſince the laſt war and treaty of 1763.

MIDDLESEX, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with ſuitable remarks before and ſince the laſt war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.

MILAN, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

MINERAL, deſcribed philoſophically; with remarks.

MINERAL WATERS, their nature, uſe, and their trade.

MINEROLOGY, concerns the diſcovery of mines; with philoſophical explanations, and ſuitable remarks. Of the deceits and impoſitions of miners, and others, often in league with them. Of the generation of mines; with intereſting remarks to thoſe concerned therein.

MINORCA, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks.

MISSISSIPPI, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with remarks before the laſt war and the Definitive Treaty of peace in the year 1763; alſo political remarks ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763.

MODENA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

MOGUL EMPIRE, ſee INDOSTAN.

MONEMUGI, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

MONEY, the origin of money; with political remarks thereon.

MONIED-INTEREST, or the ſtockholders of this kingdom; with ſuitable remarks thereon, both before the laſt war and peace of 1763, and ſince the ſaid peace.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
MONOMOTOPA, its ſituation, produce, and trade: with remarks.
MONOPOLIES, their nature. Our laws relating thereto, and origin of thoſe trading ones in this kingdom; with political remarks thereon.
MONTFERRAT, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
MONTGOMERYSHIRE,———ditto.
MONTSERAT, ſee BRITISH AMERICA.
MORAVIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
MOROCCO, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon. Of the union of the Chriſtian powers to extirpate the piratical ſtates.
MORTALITY, (BILLS OF MORTALITY) with reſpect to annuities on lives and leaſes, &c. with various uſeful tables relating thereto: with caſes exemplifying the ſame.
MOSKITO COUNTRY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
MUNSTER,———————ditto.
MUSEUM, BRITISH, with political remarks thereon.
The practical buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued at the end of Letter M.

LETTER N.

NAPLES, its ſituation, produce, and trade: with political remarks. Of Sicily in particular; with remarks alſo.
NATIONAL ACCOUNTANTSHIP, an idea thereof, for people of diſtinction.
NAVAL AFFAIRS, their importance to the Britiſh empire, and their ſhort Hiſtory; with remarks, ſhewing how the French regard their naval affairs. Further remarks thereon before the laſt war and peace of 1763. And likewiſe remarks intereſting ſince the laſt peace of 1763.
NAVAL STORES, with political remarks thereon, before and ſince the Definitive Treaty of 1763.
NAVIGATION, the practical arts thereof; with the Rev. Mr Richard Locke's univerſal problem for the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea. See COMMANDERS OF SHIPS, and LONGITUDE. The principal laws of England enacted for the promotion of trading navigation. A memoir that may be neceſſary to be referred to occaſionally, containing an account of all the foreign ſhipping which entered in at the ſeveral ports of England, ſet forth in columns, under the title of the nation or ſtate to which they belong, for two ſeveral years, ending at Chriſtmas 1743, and 1747, and one year ending at Lady-day 1749; which is one year before the laſt French war but one, one year in the war, and one year after that war, or the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, made in 1741.
NEGROLAND; ſee AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, ANTILLES ISLANDS.
NETHERLANDS, (or THE UNITED PROVINCES OF THE NETHERLANDS) of their commerce; with intereſting political remarks before the laſt war and peace of 1763; and likewiſe remarks ſince the laſt peace of 1763.
NEUFCHATEL, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NEVIS; ſee BRITISH-AMERICA.
NEUTRAL ISLANDS; ſee LEEWARD ISLANDS.
NEW-CASTILLE; ſee CASTILLE.
NEW-ENGLAND; ſee ditto.
NEW-JERSEY; ſee ditto.
NEW-YORK; ſee ditto.
NEWFOUNDLAND, its fiſheries and trade; with remarks ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763.
NEWS-PAPERS, their uſe and their abuſe, with reſpect to public affairs; the laws relative thereto.
NEW-SPAIN; ſee SPANISH AMERICA, PERU, and MEXICO.
NICARAGUA; ſee MEXICO.
NICOBAR-ISLANDS, their ſituation, produce, and trade.
NIGRITIA; ſee AFRICA.
NITRE, or SALT-PETRE, its nature, quality, and uſe, with philoſophical remarks; of its purification, &c. &c.
NIVERNOIS, or NEVERS, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NORFOLK, its ſituation, produce, and trade: with the peculiar laws relating to Norwich, and Norwich-ſtuffs.
NORMANDY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE,—ditto.
NORTH CAROLINA,———ditto;————with intereſting remarks before the laſt war, and peace of 1763, and ſince that peace.
NORTHUMBERLAND, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NORWAY,————————ditto;————————with political remarks before the laſt war and peace of 1763, and ſince the ſaid peace.
NOTARY-PUBLIC, an idea of his profeſſion, with remarks.
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NOVOGOROD,————————ditto.
NOYONNOIS,————————ditto.
NUBIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
NUTMEG, its nature and commerce; ſee LEEWARD-ISLANDS.
The buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER O.

OAK, its nature and growth; with remarks.
OATHS; of cuſtom-houſe oaths obliged to be taken by traders, with remarks; ſee alſo our article AFFIDAVIT, with remarks.
OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS, the ſeveral kinds thereof, and the nature of their reſpective employments, in conducting the ſyſtem of the cuſtoms.
OIL, of various ſorts, their nature and quality.
OIL (OLIVE-OIL) how produced.
OIL OF SWEET-ALMONDS, how produced.
OIL, (TRAIN OIL)————————ditto.
GALLIPOLI-OIL, for the woollen manufacture.
OLDENBURGH, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
OLERON, and OLERON LAWS OF NAVIGATION and COMMERCE, in eſteem throughout Europe; their uſe in mercantile affairs; with illuſtrative obſervations thereon.
ORCADES, their ſituation, produce, and trade.
ORDNANCE: ſee ARTILLERY.
ORES, their nature, quality, uſe, and management. See MINERAL, MINERALOGY, METALLURGY, ASSAY, COPPER MINES, LEAD, TIN, IRON, MERCURY, SILVER, GOLD, FLAX, METALS, MINES, MINING, SMELTING.
ORIENTAL-TRADE; ſee LEVANT-TRADE alſo; with reflections on the expediency of laying the Turkey-trade open: with remarks.
ORLEANOIS, its ſituation produce and trade.
OSTEND; ſee AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.
OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, its riſe and fall; with political remarks.
OVERISIL, its ſituation, produce and trade.
OYSTERS; of the generation and ordering of green oyſters, or Colcheſter oyſters; the laws of England in regard to oyſters.
The laws and buſineſs of the cuſtoms with reſpect to this Letter O, in its alphabetical order.

LETTER P.

PACKERS, the nature of their employment.
PAINTERS,————————ditto.
PAINTING, conſidered as an art; the qualifications requiſite to form a good one; with ſuitable remarks.
PALATINATE OF BAVARIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
Ditto————of the Rhine,————ditto.
PALESTINE,————————————ditto.
PAPER, a manufacture; of what and how made, of various kinds: with philoſophical remarks: of the PAPER-TREE, with political remarks: of the French regulation of the paper trade.
PAPER-CREDIT, what meant by it; with political remarks before the laſt war and peace of 1763, and ſince the ſaid peace.
PAR, what, in matters of commerce.
PARAGUAY, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763.
PARAYBA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
PARCHMENT, a manufacture, how made.
PARLIAMENT, the nature and conſtitution of the Britiſh parliament; and an idea of the method of proceeding therein on public affairs. The names of counties, cities, corporations, borough-towns, and ſtewarties in Great-Britain; with the knights commiſſioners of ſhires, citizens and burgeſſes, choſen in each to ſerve in parliament. A ſcheme of the proportions the ſeveral counties in England paid to the land-tax in 1693, and to the ſubſidies in 1697, compared with the number of members they ſend to parliament.
MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT; of his importance, and his accompliſhments neceſſary to enable him to become properly uſeful in his ſenatorial capacity. An act of parliament made in the third year of the reign of his preſent majeſty Geo. III. relating to bankrupts being intitled to the privilege of parliament, and becoming inſolvent.
PARTNERSHIPS, in trade; ſome caſes determined in our courts of judicature reſpecting the ſame.
PARMA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
PASSPORT, SAFE-CONDUCT, and PROTECTIONS; the nature and laws relating thereto; with the forms of Engliſh and foreign paſſports to ſhipping.

PATENTS, what; with the laws of England concerning them; with cafes in law determined thereon; with political remarks on this article patents.
PEARLS, a fpecies of precious ftones; where found; of artificial pearls; to imitate fine oriental pearls; to blanch and cleanfe pearls.
PEDLAR, who; with remarks thercon.
PEGU, its fituation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon relating to the Eaft-India trade.
PEMBROKESHIRE, its fituation, produce, and trade.
PENNSYLVANIA, its fituation, produce, and trade; with remarks in various lights before and fince the laft war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.
PEOPLE, confidered in political lights.
PERSIA, its fituation, produce, and trade. A fummary of the commerce thereof; with their monies, weights, meafures, &c.
PERU, its fituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks.
PERUVIAN-BARK, a valuable drug in medicine; with philofophical obfervations.
PETTY-CUSTOMS, or ALIEN'S DUTY, paid at the cuftom-houfe, what, and how.
PEWTER, a factitious metal, how made, and its qualities.
PHARMACY, an art; its nature, and kinds; with a fuccinct account of the whole art, illuftrated by fuitable experiments.
PHILIPPINE-ISLANDS, their fituation, produce, and trade.
PHOENICE, its fituation, produce, and trade.
PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, with remarks on its general utility in arts, manufactures, and commerce.
PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY, its particular utility in arts and trades.
PICARDY, its fituation, produce, and trade.
PIEDMONT, its———ditto;———with remarks.
PILCHARD, a fifh wherein there is a large trade; their nature and cure.
PILOT of a fhip; regulations and laws relating thereto. Of pilots in Spain.
PITCH AND TAR, their production and ufe; fee NAVAL STORES.
PLANTATIONS; of thofe belonging to Great-Britain; our laws relating thereto: a proclamation for afcertaining the currency of the foreign coins in the plantations. Remarks on this article before the laft war and peace of 1763, and fince the faid peace; with additional remarks on the conftant perfidy of France, which we ought never to forget.
PODOLIA, its fituation, produce, and trade.
POITOU,———ditto.
POLAND,———ditto; ——— with remarks before and fince the laft war and Definitive Treaty of 1763, while the choice of a king of Poland was depending.
POLITICAL ARITHMETIC, its ufefulnefs in regard to matters of trade and commerce, and the general promotion of the national intereffs.
POMERANIA, its fituation, produce, and trade.
POOR; a fcheme for fetting the poor to work; of the wife regulation of the poor in the United Provinces; with illuftrative obfervations: alfo general remarks on the article poor.
PORCELAIN, a manufacture, philofophically treated. The method of giving a luftre to the gold laid on porcelain; the different kind of varnifhes and colours given to the porcelain; the method of preparing thefe varnifhes and colours: new defigns of porcelain works; manner of embofling porcelain. Of the Saxon porcelain, with remarks.
PORTO-RICO; fee ANTILLES ISLANDS.
PORTS, places appointed for the lawful exportation, or importation of merchandizes; thofe belonging to England.
PORTUGAL, its fituation, produce, and trade. Of the monies, weights, and meafures: the exchanges of Portugal with other the chief parts of Europe, exemplified with variety of computations; with intereffing obfervations. Of the unjuftifiable treatment our Britifh merchants have experienced in Portugal for feveral years paft, in divers refpects. Of the dependency of Portugal on Great-Britain; notwithftanding which, they have infulted Great-Britain again by the late inftitution of the general company for the culture of the vineyards of Alto-Duro, in the kingdom of Portugal; with political remarks fince the late war and treaty of peace of 1763.
PORTUGUESE AFRICAN-TRADE, with remarks.
PORTUGUESE AMERICA, its fituation, produce, and trade; with fuitable remarks.
PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA COMPANY, its fituation, produce, and trade.
POSTAGE OF LETTERS; fhort hiftory of that eftablifhment, with the laws relating thereto.
POT-ASH, their manufacture, ufe, and commerce; with remarks fince the laft war and Definitive Treaty of peace, 1763.
POTTERY, an art; with philofophical remarks and experiments thereon.
PRINTING OF BOOKS, its origin and progrefs.
PRINTING OF CALLICOES; fee CALLICOE PRINTING.
PRINTING FROM COPPER-PLATES, the method: inftructions for limning and colouring prints, maps, &c. with water-colours, &c. Of fine collections of prints; with remarks.
PRISAGE AND BUTLERAGE, a duty of cuftoms; the laws concerning it; fome law cafes thereon determined in our courts of judicature.
PRIVATEERS AND PRIZES, their nature, regulations, and laws relating thereto; with fome cafes concerning them adjudged in our courts of law. An order of council to releafe fhips, and extempt them from moleftation by men of war and privateers. Laws of France relating to prizes. Of their regulations in Spain.
PROJECTORS, their ufe and abufe; with a fhort hiftory of various remarkable ones; with pertinent remarks on the whole.
PROVENCE, its fituation, produce, and trade.
PRUSSIA, its fituation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon before and fince the laft war and the Definitive Treaty of peace of 1763.
The bufinefs of the cuftom-houfe continued from Letter O.

LETTER Q.

QUACK, in medicine; a fhort antidote againft general quacks, who are ignorant of the rational practice of phyfic; with remarks.
QUARANTINE, what, and how regulated by the laws of England, &c.
QUARRY of ftone, &c. philofophically repreferted; with fuitable remarks.
Of the bufinefs of the cuftom-houfe continued.

LETTER R.

RADNORSHIRE, its fituation, produce, and trade.
RAISINS, a fruit; their ufe and trade, in divers articles, experimentally given, and illuftrated.
RASBERRY, a curious wine made thereby.
RATTEEN, or RATTEN, a manufacture.
REFINING; the art of refining, as applied to metallurgy. Of refining gold and filver, and other metals.
REGISTER-SHIPS OF SPAIN, what are called fo, trading to the Spanifh Weft-Indies; how regulated.
REMITTANCES of monies to diftant parts; how this bufinefs is carried on and regulated, according to the beft arts of mercantile accountantfhip curioufly repreferted; with further explanatory remarks.
REPRIZALS, what, and how regulated by law.
REVENUE; of raifing the revenue of England from the conqueft to the revolution in 1688, in every reign; with remarks upon each coin in each reign; with general remarks on the article revenue, with refpect as well to the ftate of the civil and religious liberty of the nation, as to its trade and commerce; with political remarks on the value of money heretofore, and now, at the end of this article.
RHODIAN LAWS, of commerce and navigation, in efteem throughout Europe. Of the naval law and ftatutes of the Rhodians; with illuftrations. Political remarks thereon.
RHUBARB, its nature, quality, and ufe, in various preparations and refpects.
RICE, its growth, product, and ufe; with political remarks thereon. An act of parliament to carry rice from Carolina directly to any part of Europe fouthward of Cape Finefterre, in fhips built in, and belonging to, Great-Britain, and navigated according to law, to the year 1767.
RIVERS; of increafing our navigable, inland rivers, in order to leffen the rate of carriage; with political remarks thercon.
ROADS; of their improvement, for the benefit of carriage of merchandize over the nation; containing political remarks thereon.
ROMAGNA, or ROMANIA, its fituation, produce, and trade.
ROMANIA, RUMELIA, or RUMELI,—ditto.
ROYAL EXCHANGE, an idea thereof in general; with remarks concerning the conduct of traders in general: alfo political remarks in other lights, refpecting what has been done for the advancement of trade and commerce fince the prefent royal family came to the throne of thefe kingdoms.
ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON: of its firft inftitution; with political remarks on its important utility to the trade and navigation of the Britifh empire; an idea of all focieties, peculiarly adapted to the general improvements of all the commercial arts. Further remarks on the greater utility of the Royal Society to arts, manufactures, and trade, than it ever has been. Of the progrefs of the fociety for the encouragements of arts, manufactures and commerce; with political obfervations.

RUM, a ſpirituous liquor, its quality and uſe; ſee SUGAR COLONIES.
RUSSIA, its ſituation, produce, and commerce. Of their monies, weights, and meaſures.
RUSSIA-COMPANY, its ſhort hiſtory. Of the Britiſh Caſpian trade, as it was attempted to be carried on through Ruſſia to Perſia. A view of the Britiſh trade and factory at St. Peterſburgh in Ruſſia. Obſervation on the Ruſſia Coin. Ruſſia conſidered with relation to the other principal ſtates and empires; with political remarks ſince the laſt war and treaty of peace of 1763.
RUTLANDSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
The buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER S.

SABLE, curious ſkins of an animal, where had.
SADLER, his trade.
SAFE-CONDUCT, PROTECTION AND PASSPORT; laws regarding it.
SAFFRON; of its growth and cultivation in England; with remarks.
SAIL-CLOTH; laws relating to this manufacture.
SAIL-MAKER; of his trade.
SAILOR; ſee SEAMEN.
SALT, its natural hiſtory: of preparing the ſame, of divers kinds, for uſe and trade.
SALTERS, their trade.
SALT-PETER, its natural production; its purification; of gathering it in quantities.
SALVAGE, a mercantile term; laws relating thereto.
SAMOGITIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SARDINIA, its——————ditto; ——————with political remarks.
SAVOY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SAXON-GREEN COLOUR; method of dying white cloth of that colour.
SAXONY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SAY; ſee ASSAY, in refining.
SAY, or SAYE, a manufacture.
SCILLY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SCLAVONIA,——————ditto.
SCOTLAND,——————ditto.——————Memoir of the Bank eſtabliſhed in Scotland. Subſtance of the warrant of the charter erecting the Royal Bank of Scotland. Account of linen-cloth or ſale, ſtamped in Scotland for ſeveral years; and of the whole commerce of Scotland; with remarks of various kinds: of their weights and meaſures.
SEA-DOMINION in general; with intereſting political conſiderations; with ſuitable remarks.
SEA, BRITISH; the right to the ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas aſſerted and proved; with political obſervations relative to the commercial union of Great-Britain and the United Provinces; with other conſiderations relating to the author and his endeavours to ſerve the Britiſh empire, and the ill treatment he has met with; with intereſting political remarks.
SEAMEN, their importance; of the great national inconvenience we labour under for ſeamen in times of war; with methods to prevent them; a propoſal of another kind for that purpoſe; with ſuggeſtions for a regiſter of ſeamen; with further ſuitable remarks. Laws relating to ſeamen.
SHIP-BUILDING; ſee ARCHITECTURE-MARINE.
SHIPPING; dimenſions, tonnage, and number of guns of ſome men of war built in Spain, the Indies, France, England, and Genoa; and the rules of the Spaniards, French, Engliſh and Dutch, in regard to their mariners. Of the royal marine of France in general; with intereſting notes thereon; with remarks regarding the laſting ſecurity and glory of the Britiſh empire.
SHROPSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SIAM,——————ditto;——————with political remarks.
SIBERIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with political remarks: a ſhort account of the many attempts made for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage: of the north eaſt paſſage.
SICILY; ſee NAPLES.
SILESIA, its ſituation, produce, and trade; with remarks. The duke of Newcaſtle's letter, by his late majeſty's order, to Monſ. Mitchell, the king of Pruſſia's ſecretary of the embaſſy, in anſwer to the memorial, and other papers delivered by Monſ. Mitchell to the duke of Newcaſtle, on the 23d of November and 13th of December, 1753; with the report of Dr. Lee, Dr. Paul, D. Ryder, and W. Murray, concerning a diſpute between his Pruſſian majeſty and his Britannic majeſty, concerning interruption given to the navigation of Pruſſian ſubjects; well worthy of future attention.
SILK-WORMS; memoir upon breeding ſilk-worms in France, and all other climates where mulberry-trees can be cultivated. Some methods uſed in France to render ſilk abundant, and of good quality. Remarks upon the different ſoils and qualities of the trees. Of the lodging of ſilk-worms; with remarks thereon, before the laſt war and treaty of 1763, and ſince that war and the ſaid treaty.
SILK MANUFACTURE OF CHINA: an act of parliament for repealing the duties payable on China raw ſilk, and for granting other duties in lieu thereof, made in the year 1750. An act of parliament for encouraging the culture of raw ſilk in his Majeſty's colonies in America; with remarks. An act for encouraging the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom, and for ſecuring the duties payable upon the importation of velvets, wrought ſilks, and ſilks mixed with other materials, not manufactured in Great-Britain; with remarks. An act for explaining, amending, and rendering more effectual an act in the 19th year of the reign of king Henry the VIIth, intitled SILK-WORKS, which took place after the 24th of June, 1763.
SILVER; ſee METALLURGY, METALS; with proper remarks. Tables of gold and ſilver, compoſed by Mr. Lowndes, who inſpected the original indentures, and from biſhop Fleetwood.
SKIE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SKINS, their various ſorts, and trade; with remarks ſince the laſt peace of 1763.
SLAVE-TRADE; ſee AFRICAN-TRADE, &c. &c.
SLESWIC, or SOUTH-JUTLAND, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SLIGO, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SMELTING, what, and how performed amongſt metallurgiſts; with illuſtrative obſervations on the operations.
SMOLENSKO, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SMUGGLER; an abſtract of the chief laws againſt ſmugglers.
SMUGGLING; anecdotes on ſmuggling in the Iſle of Man. Other obſervations on the preſent ſtate of the Iſle of Man. Remarks concerning the annexing the Iſle of Man to the crown. A memorial of the merchants and owners of ſhips in the port of Whitehaven, addreſſed to the lords of the treaſury. Annual revenue of the Iſle of Man to the proprietor. Further remarks on ſmuggling before the laſt war and peace of 1763. Alſo remarks ſince the laſt peace of 1763, extracted from the judicious tract lately publiſhed by the preſent chamberlain of London, Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq;.
SOAP, its manufacture, with political remarks.
SOISONNOIS, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SOMERSETSHIRE,——————ditto.
SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, its ſhort hiſtory. Of the South ſea year 1720, with the ſchedule of the directors' reſpective eſtates, with their reſpective allowances for their ſubſiſtence, and the ſum taken from them; with remarks. Treaty concluded at Madrid, 1750, with regard to the aſſiento and annual ſhip. See ASSIENTO CONTRACT.
SPAIN, its ſituation, produce, and trade in Europe. Articles of peace, commerce, and alliance between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain in the year 1667; with remarks thereon. Of the foreign exchanges of Spain with the principal parts of Europe, exemplified with various computations, familiarly explained.
SPANISH-AMERICA: of the conqueſt of Spaniſh-America at firſt. The manner of the ſailing of the galleons and flota from Old Spain. A treaty between England and Spain in 1760; with general remarks on this article Spain before, and ſince the laſt war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.
STAFFORDSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
STOCK-JOBBING; laws relating thereto. Reaſons why ſtock-jobbing is detrimental to the trade of the nation. The injurious effects of ſtock-jobbing, with regard to the public credit.
SUBSIDY, a tax; thoſe at the cuſtom-houſe deſcribed. Of the ſubſidies of 1747 and 1759.
SUFFOLK, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SUGAR, its production and manufacture. Of various ſorts of ſugar: SUGAR COLONIES. Remarks before the laſt war and peace of 1763, and ſince that peace; with the act of parliament for granting liberty to carry ſugars from the Britiſh colonies, of the product of the ſaid colonies, from thence directly to foreign parts. Of the duties on rum, &c.
SURRY, its ſituation, produce, and trade.
SUSSEX,——————ditto.
SWABIA,——————ditto.
SWEDEN, ——————ditto; ——————the exchanges thereof. Of the Swediſh Eaſt-India company.
SWITZERLAND, its ſituation, produce, and trade. Of its exchanges.
Of the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued from letter R.

LETTER T.

TAPESTRY, a manufacture: of curious improvements made therein. Of the upright way of working tapeſtry, with relation to Turkey-carpets, with remarks political.
TAXES;

INDEX.

TAXES; ſummary of the total yearly ſupplies, granted by parliament, during the reign of king William and Mary, and William III. Queen Anne, king George the Iſt, and king George the IId. Summary of the total ways and means yearly of the ſaid reigns; with remarks on the ſeveral forementioned reigns from the revolution in 1688, to the demiſe of Geo. II. Remarks on the ſtate of trade and liberty ſince the revolution in 1688; with the coinage in each reign.

TEA; ſee the article BOHEA, deſcribing the various ſorts thereof, and their quality; with political remarks on lowering the duty thereon, deſigned by the preſent chamberlain of London, to his great honour, and to the benefit of the revenue above ſix millions of money; alſo to the advantage of the Eaſt-India company, by increaſing their ſale of teas, and preventing ſmuggling of foreign teas into the kingdom.

TIN, a metal; with remarks.

TOBACCO, its manner of planting and production; with pertinent remarks thereon.

TRADE; this article contains variety of maxims, which ſhould ſeem to be confirmed in the courſe of this work, deſerving notice. Remarks on this article trade, ſince the laſt war, and the Definitive Treaty of peace of 1763.

TREATIES OF COMMERCE: treaty of navigation and commerce between the late queen Anne and Lewis XIV. of France, concluded at Utrecht, 1713. Treaty of navigation and commerce between Great-Britain and Spain in 1713. Meaſures taken by king George I. to remedy ſome of the defects of the ſaid treaty of Utrecht. Treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Spain in the year 1715. Treaty of commerce between queen Anne and the king of Portugal in the year 1703. A declaration and engagement concerning the rights and privileges of the Britiſh merchants in the kingdom of Sicily, made at Utrecht in 1712-13. Treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between Great-Britain and Ruſſia, concluded at St. Peterſburg in the year 1734. Treaty between Geo. II. and the emperor of Morocco, in 1728: ditto in the year 1751: other treaties between the ſame: ditto between Great-Britain and the Algerines: ditto between Great-Britain and the Tuniſians: ditto between Great-Britain and Tripoly. The privileges of an Engliſhman in the kingdom of Portugal, contained in the treaty of peace concluded by Oliver Cromwell; and various laws, decrees, &c. at ſundry times, and divers occaſions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the Engliſh nation: to which is added, the king of Portugal's new law, concerning diamonds found in the Brazils.

TURKEY COMPANY AND TRADE, with remarks thereon. A memorial of the deputies of the trading towns in the weſt of France, concerning the commerce with the Levant, and goods uſed in that trade; and why Marſeilles alone has the privilege of trading thither. Reply of the deputies of the weſtern ports of France to the preceeding. A memorial of the deputy of Marſeilles, in anſwer to the foregoing, ſetting forth the reaſon of the privilege which Marſeilles enjoys of trading to the Levant. A rejoinder to the foregoing; with remarks on the whole.

The buſineſs of the cuſtoms continued from the end of letter S.

LETTER V.

VENICE, its ſituation, produce, and trade. Of the foreign exchanges of Venice, with reſpect to the chief parts of Europe, arithmetically exemplified and illuſtrated. Of the weights and meaſures. Of the Bank of Venice.

VIRGINIA, with remarks thereon before the laſt war and peace of 1763; and remarks ſince the ſaid peace of 1763.

UNITED PROVINCES OF THE STATES GENERAL. Political conſiderations thereon, very intereſting.

The Buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued from letter T.

LETTER W.

WAR. This article, as the ſame ſtood from the commencement of the firſt edition of this work; juſt after the peace of Aix la-Chapelle, in 1748; containing ſome principles relating to the conduct of war in this trading nation, as the ſame is circumſtanced; with the meaſure neceſſary to be taken for the ſecurity of our colonies in North-America; with political remarks hereon before the laſt war and treaty of peace of 1763; and alſo remarks ſince the laſt war and treaty of peace of 1763, very intereſting.

WARWICKSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

WEIGHTS: foreign weights compared.

WESTMORELAND, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

WESTPHALIA,——————ditto.

WETTERAW,——————ditto.

WILTSHIRE,——————ditto.

WINE, a liquor, with political remarks.

WISBY LAWS: ancient laws of commerce and navigation in eſteem throughout Europe.

WOOL, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY. Obſervations to prevent the ſmuggling of Britiſh and Iriſh wool to France and elſewhere; with political remarks. An act for permitting the exportation of wool, and woollen yarn, from any port of Ireland to any port in Great-Britain.

WORCESTERSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

WRECK; mercantile laws relating thereto; with ſuitable remarks.

Of the practical buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER X.

XYLO-BALSAMUM, a curious medicinal drug.

LETTER Y.

YEAST; a method of curing it: the flowers of wine and wine lees, for the ſervice of diſtilling, wine-making, vinegar-making, &c. with remarks

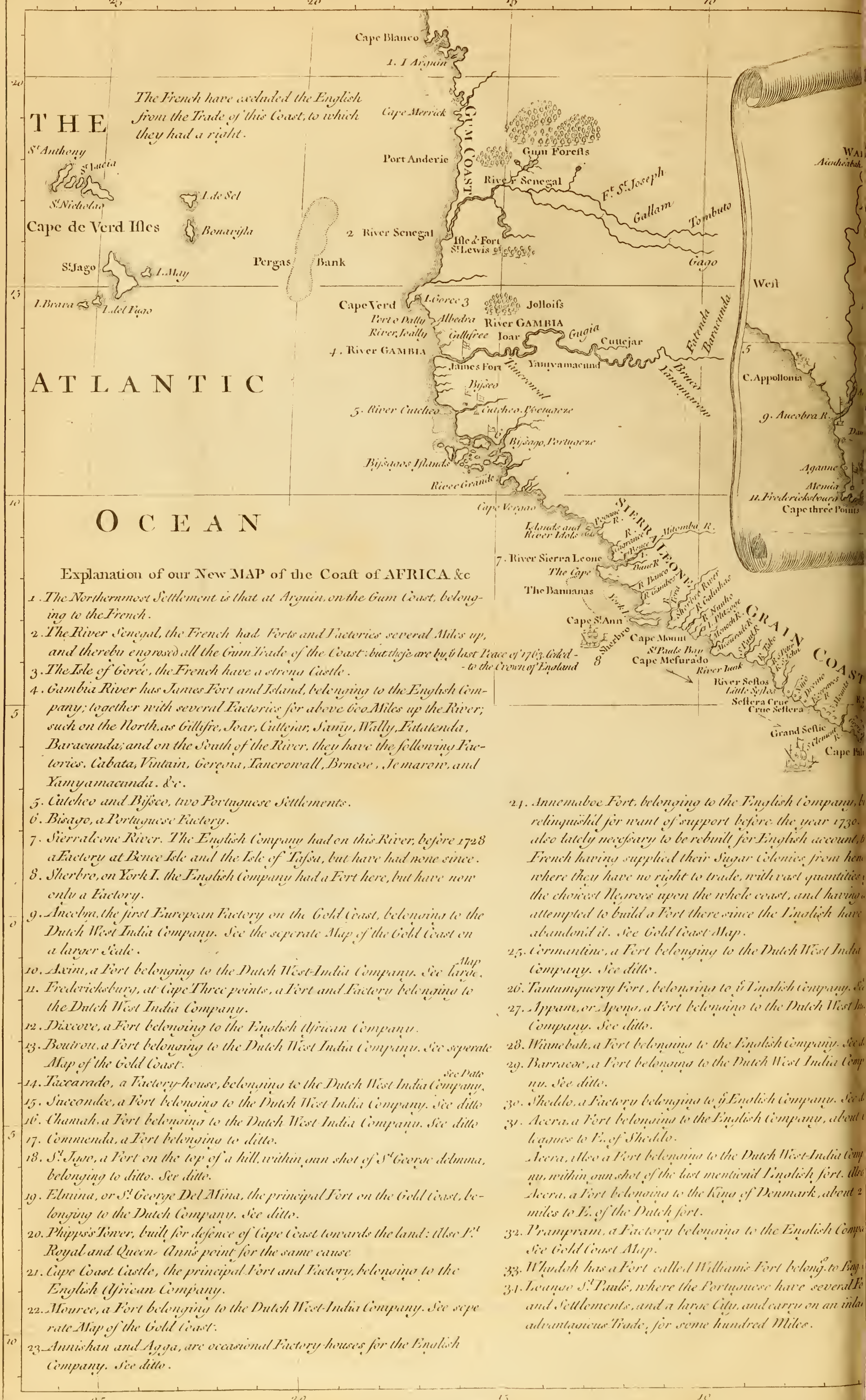
YORKSHIRE, its ſituation, produce, and trade.

LETTER Z.

The practical buſineſs of the cuſtom houſe continued.

A Conciſe explanation of the contents of Mr. Saxby's portable book of rates referred to in this work, in relation to the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, and the chief acts of parliament contained therein.

THE END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.



For Mr Postlethwayt's Universal Diction

A new and correct MAP
of the COAST of AFRICA
from Cape Blanco Lat. 20°. 40'. N. to the Coast of
Angola Lat. 11°. S.
with Explanatory Notes of all the Forts and Settlements
belonging to the several European Powers.
A Seperate MAP
of the
GOLD COAST
upon a larger Scale
A Strong Current sets to Eastward, excepting in the Hermitan Season (about January) when it sets the contrary Way.
English Miles.
Dutch Miles.
Whydah 33
Kibbes
Seeyan
Adansee
Atchersee
Saccerocroom
Akookobong
ARCANIA
AKIM
TOCQUA
Oppenemin
Tandoshu
Amosee
Brimmong
Attanousee
Mangamong
Kikkeonra
Concumboo
Addumanger
Mennan
Sappho
Addumassie
ENGUINA
Atielsia
CABESTERRA
Aggumacon
Incoom
Oppumassee
Benda
Acoran
Quichercequa
Asonquadamin
Brussoe
Surdoe
Aqurabasasoo
Acancabassie
Tintoon
FANTEEN
Merram
Amodos Croom
Abra
Abradu
Abrimboo
Saman
Petue 20
Phipp's Tower
18
Guassa
St. Jago
Annemabo 24
Annamabo
Agga 23
Mouree 22
CAPE COAST CASTLE 21
ELMINA 19
Commenda 17
Gold Hill
Chamah 16
Abadee
Succondee 15
Taccarado 14
Aggubah
YABOU
Ashamona
QUAMBOO
Tetuberacoe
ACCRA
Accossos Croom
Accra 31
Sacccom River
Anyan
Sheddo 30
Barracoe 29
Winnebah 28
Devils Hill
Appam 27
Mumford
Lagou
Tanumquerry 26
Anaqua
Cormantine 25
Ashaddo
Crobo
Ashequashee
River Volta
Tibberacoe
Occo
Great Ningo
Prampram 32
Ponni
Thema
Little Ningo
Tessy
Labbadee
Whydah
Ashantee
Occumassie
Deddo
DAHOME
Shaddo
LUCAMEE
Agremei
Appen
Bennin
Agolon
Arobo
Formosa
BENNIN
Ardrah
Lagos R.
Karam
Palmer R.
Bianco R.
River Bennin
R. Esseraros
R. Volta
C. Ningo
Accra
Winnebah
CAPE COAST CASTLE 21
Chamah R.
Dixcove 12
C. Appollonia
10 Axim
Frederickbourg
11 C. three Points
GOLD COAST
RY COAST
Bassam
Issin
R. Sucro de Acosta
R. Incobra
R. S. Antonio
Apeaty
Berhu
Sabo
Cliffs
Meridian of London.
THE EQUATOR
Degrees of West Longitude
Degrees of East Longitude
R. Forcado
Polonia
CALLABAR
Lamos R.
Cape Formosa
New Callabar or R. Real
Old Callabar
Is. Amboses
Winneba
Menba
Welleba
R. Campo
R. St. Bennet
Seven Hills
I. Fernando Po to Portuguese
I. Princess
Bate Bay
C. St. John
I. Corisco
C. Estivas
Bay of Angra
I. St. Thomas
I. Annabona
Nazareth
Cape Lopez
River Gabon
R. Nazareth
C. St. Catherine
R. Sesse
MAJUMBA
Redwood Trees
Cape Segunda
Majumbo
In March, April and May.
During the rest of the Year.
R. Loango
Malemba
River Congo or Zair
C. Pedron
Lalunda
A great Tree
Cape Palmar
R. Bengo
34
I. Loango
LOANGO S. Pauls
A Portugeze Settlement
I. Palmerin
ANGOLA
C. Ledo
C. de Fales
A Scale of English Leagues, of which 23½ make a Degree at the Equator.
Portugeze Leagues.
Dutch Miles.
N.B. The Gold Coast is extended about 60 Miles, beginning with the Gold River 3 miles west of Assine or 12 miles above Axim, and ending with the Village Ponni, 7 or 8 miles east of Accra. The Gold Coast comprehends all the Countries from the Ancobresian River to the Village Ponni, 11 in number, viz. Axim, Ante, Adom, Jabi, Commani, Fetu, Sabee, Fantyn, Acrin, Agonna, & Aquamboe; each containing 1, 2, or 3 Towns or Villages, lying upon the Sea Shore; their most populous Towns being generally farther inland. The English here have great opportunities to extend the inland Commerce
Trade & Commerce

ASORES

AZORES, so named from Ansera Goose, because on the first Discovery there appeared many devouring Birds like Goosehawks.

CANARIES

Tropic of Cancer

ZANHAGA, or SENAGA

ZAARA, or GREAT DESERT OF BARBARY

Mountains, or Hills that produce Gold.

Harbour of Sintra

Here the Moors gather Rock Salt which they send to Nigritia.

Well of Azarad

Well of Arueun

Zanaga, Zuenziga and Lemta take their Name from different Races, Rulers of the first and largest considerable.

CAPE VERD Is.

Ribeira grande

Ilde Cayar which recures the overflowing Waters.

Kin. of the FULIS or SILATIK

Residence of the Struck or King

Kin. of HOUAT or BRAC

Kin. of BURJALOF

Residence of the Prince

Land of the JALOFS

BURALI

Kin. of CABO

R. Cambra

Bisagos Is.

Nilus

The antient Gorgon, where dwelt Medusa & her two Sisters, is the Island of Farulo, Lat. 7.

The Hesperides are the Isles of Bisago. Lat. 11.

The Cape Verd Isles were antiently unknown, being 100 Leagues from the Continent.

Kin. of MANDINGO people

BENA

BUDOMO

Upper Quoia

Galas, where there is Gold.

Kin. of Quoia

MANDINGO

Folgia

THE GRAIN COAST

Kin. of Sanguin

Grand Sestro

C. Palmas

FIRST MERIDIAN

Africa plate I.st The Northwest part Examined and Revised by M.r BOLTON.

SPAIN

KM. OF ALGIER

STRAIT OF GIBRALTAR

Desert of Angad

BARBARY

Tegorarin

Fighig which the

Tachid

Peni Goni

Tebelbelt

Benimezzab

Moors call

BILEDULGERID

Gadamis

Murzouk the Capital of

FESSAN

the old Phasania of Pliny.

Catron

Tegherti

LEMTA

Hayr not so dry as the other Desert

In Ptolemy this Water is surrounded with the Bagnadas or Nagerda of Tunis.

Tibedou

TERGA

The Tripoli Caravan that comes into Nigritia, performs seven Days Journey along this Water.

Gogden

Taguza

Agades, or Andagast

Salla Tocrur, Capital of a potent Kingdom in the Time of Edrisi.

TOMBUT

Kin. of TOMBUT

NIGRITIA

Desert between Tombut, Gago & Gubes.

Bambara

GUINBALA

whose King is called Tonkiquata

Marsh or Lake of Nigris, according to Ptolemy and Pliny.

GAGO

Gago

GUBER

GANA or CANO

These two Cities of Gana were the Residence of a Mahometan Prince the most powerful in all Nigritia in the time of Edrisi 1150.

Tirca

ZEGSEG

CASSENA

LAMLEM

According to Edrisi the Land hereabout was peopled by Jews.

Gabi

Kekia

Collega

Cormachi

Cormaya

Burgon

Bousa

Caffaba

Gingiro

I. Maberia

Shallow Water

Teloa

Gouth

Mts Caphas according to Ptolemy, which give rise to the River Dandus now called Senaga.

Ghir

Yaori R.

Nubia

Nyssi

Goukene

Beni Guerid

Mezda

Tegazza

Taodeny

Wadan

Tenimarvah

Tuggurt

Figuyah

Guergela

Gurara

Gurdan

Tabid

Messa

Ghadamis

Fighig

Tafilet

Segilmessa

Ghuerdie

Tedsini

Marmol

Sous

Chirbi

Mazuna

Gallita

Trapani

Marsala

Mazzara

Sciacca

C. Bon

Nasr Adder

Pentellaria

Cabel

Hammamet

Biserta

Tabarca

Bona

Tunis

Kairwan

Susa

Monastir

Africa

Capudia

Capes Carbi

Cape

Zowara

Mesurata

Lebida

Tripoli

Kabart old Tripoli

Tarhuna

Mesellata

Gharian

Yefren

Jebel

Nefousa

Berissa depending on Tocrur

Vanfara

FARAN

Timbi

Guin R.

Niger R.

Isa, which is the Niger

Tombut

Gubes

Gago

Tirca

Cassena

Zegseg

Gabi

Lamlem

Kekia

Yaori R.

Collega

Cormachi

Cormaya

Burgon

Bousa

Caffaba

Gingiro

Teloa

I. Maberia

Shallow Water

Gouth

Mts Caphas according to Ptolemy, which give rise to the River Dandus now called Senaga.

All NIGRITIA, from the Head of Senaga, is very little known: but the situation of this great Region, and even some Towns, as far as Nyssi, are described by Edrisi the Nubian Geographer and Leo the African, agrees with several new Discoveries, all uniting to verify their Accounts. I therefore conclude that the Niger flows from West to East, and has no Affinity with the Senaga or any Part thereof, but falls into some Lakes that communicate with the River Nile.

EYOS

Warlike People

Abomy where the K. of Dahomy resides. See the Voyages of Smith, Snelgrave, & Atkins.

KM. OF DAHOMY whose Prince Trudotsti subdued the States of Ardra and Wida, about the Year 1724.

THE SLAVE COAST

FOUIN

ARDRA

ULCUMI

LIBOU

ISAGO

GABOU

KM. OF BENIN

ISTANNA

AWERRI

CALBARI

BIAFARA

Kirike

C. Fermoso

Old Calbary

Rio dos Camarons, or Gaib R.

I. de Fernio Ho

GULF OF GUINEY

I. Principe

Pic

Cordeo

Tres Irmaos or 3 Brothers

Cde S. John

I. Corifeu

I. St. Thomas

La Citadelle

Cde S. Anna

Cde la Cava

I. des Rolas

Rock

R.s de Cabon

THE GOLD COAST

Adou or Caquas

Akim Akambou

Acara

Dinkira

Ashou

Cap Inhou

C. Three Points

Afiante COAST

Fida

Jaquin

Ardra

Whydah

Jabum

Benin

Formosa R.

Bento

Camarons

Fernando Po

Annobon

Gaboon

Cape Lopez

Mayumba

Loango

Cape Negro

Cape Padron

Cape Frio

Cape Fria

Cape Negro

Cape Blanco

Cape Bojador

Cape Non

Cape Bajador

Cape Barbas

Cape Verd

Cape Verd Is.

St. Antony

St. Lucia

St. Nicolas

St. Jago

Fogo

Mayo

Sal

Bonavista

Boa Vista

Maio

Tarrafal

Porto Praya

Ribeira grande

Fogo

Brava

Canaries

Tenerife

Palma

Gomera

Hierro

Lanzarote

Fuerteventura

Alegranza

Graciosa

Canary I.

Salvages

Madeira

Porto Santo

Desertas

Azores

Corvo

Flores

Fayal

Pico

Terceira

Graciosa

St. Georges

St. Michael

Sta Maria

Formigas

Longitude 10 5 0 5 10 15 20 25 30

Latitude 40 30 20 10 0 10 20 25 30

AFRICA,
Performed by the
Sr. DANVILLE
under the Patronage of the
DUKE of ORLEANS
Revised and Improved by
Mr. BOLTON.

B. Bowen Sculp.

In the Original each Tropic is a single pecked Line, and the Equator a single plain Line: But here the Copyer by Mistake has made the Lines double.

Tropic of Cancer

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

ARCHIPEL. OR EGEAN ISLANDS

MOREA

CANDIA

CARAMANIA

CYPRUS

SYRIA

EGYPT

CAIRO

Desert of Barca

TRIPOLI

SYRTIS MAJOR

Wadan Land of Palmtrees

Desert of Bourno

Desert of Seth

Desert of Zeu

Desert of Behioudа

BERDOA

LEVATA

BOURNO

KANEM

KAUGA

WANGARA

NUBIA

TURKY

BARABRA

KM. OF DUNGALLA

KM. OF FUNGI

KM. OF DEM

ABASSINIA

SHANKALA

Wandring Tribes

GORHAM

GOJAM

SENNAR

ALKENIM formerly Earl of Barabra

MECKA

TEHAMA

YEMEN

ARABIA FELIX

SOCOTERA

MACHIDAS

whose Prince is a Mahometan descended from the Kings of Abessinia.

MARACATOS

Mahometans

Ommo Zaidi Beduins

DANKALI

BARRAGIAN

DWARDO

GHEDM

LANGOT

GALLA

BALI

FATTIGAR

KM. OF ADEL founded by a Mahometan Prince, about 1500.

KM. OF ZENDE

ALABA

MUJAC KM.

the Boundary of Anzico

Land of the Garamantes acc.to Ptolemy.

Lunar Mountains

Mountains of Thala acc.to Ptolemy

Isle of Palms at the midst of the Desert

Land of Palmtrees

Bito, Temian, Dauma, Medra, are Countries named by Leo to lye about this Latitude.

In the 17th Century some Persons imagined they had found the Springhead of the Nile in the Land of Abessinia. But all the old Geographers call this River Astapus, which is intirely a different river lying farther in the Continent of Africa, and to which the name of Nile hath been given in preference. Wherefore as the true source thereof remains doubtful, we must not reject the opinion of Ptolemy, or the report of Edrisi and Almsfeda, till Time shall make a more clear Discovery.
Note. The pretended Nile from Abessinia runs East of Sennar and the other runs on the West. Latitude 15.

The Course of this R. certain, but probably Pati or Quilmanci or Ajuchar Coast.

Causses, Dudes, Asbores, Arvisas, Bresomas, Galli Tribes adjacent to Chief City of Jubo.

Dry and desert Coast

R. Magadoxa

R. Jubo

Magadoxia

Brava

Mamoya

Ajan

Aluumba or Lemons

K. of Jubo

Bandel d'Agoa

Morro Cobir

C. de Basas

C. Delgado

Bandel Cans

Ensenada da Bela

C. d'Orfui

C. Gardafui

Gulf of Curiamurin

Dofar

Sefer

Mirbat

C. Fartac

Kesem

Gebel Tar

Zebid

Loheia

Mocha

Aden

Abian

Musa

Gella

Bayd'heila

Zeila

Barbora. Brown L.

Bandel Cans

Bandel d'Agoa

Morro Cobir

C. de Basas

Ajan and desert Coast

Dry

Ommo Zaidi Beduins

MACHIDAS

whose Prince is a Mahometan descended from the Kings of Abessinia.

MARACATOS

Mahometans

Causses, Dudes, Asbores, Arvisas, Bresomas, Galli Tribes adjacent to Chief City of Jubo.

The Course of this R. certain, but probably Pati or Quilmanci or Ajuchar Coast.

In the 17th Century some Persons imagined they had found the Springhead of the Nile in the Land of Abessinia. But all the old Geographers call this River Astapus, which is intirely a different river lying farther in the Continent of Africa, and to which the name of Nile hath been given in preference. Wherefore as the true source thereof remains doubtful, we must not reject the opinion of Ptolemy, or the report of Edrisi and Almsfeda, till Time shall make a more clear Discovery.
Note. The pretended Nile from Abessinia runs East of Sennar and the other runs on the West. Latitude 15.

Africa. Plate II. The Northeast part

EQUATOR

ATLANTIC OCEAN

First Meridian

St Matthew, Discovered by the Portuguese 1508 Here the English Ships refresh Coming home from East India and where the Mariners leave their Letters corked up in a Bottle.

Ascension, Discovered by the Portuguese 1508 Here the English Ships refresh Coming home from East India and where the Mariners leave their Letters corked up in a Bottle.

St Helena, Discovered by John de Nova.

James Fort

Little Rocks called Needles

Annobon, or Good Year, because discovered by the Portuguese on New-years day.

C. Lopo

Gobbi

Camma

Belle country of Red wood

Bramas

Mayumba

Martins Bay

Piri

Km. OF

Cilongo

Bay and Shoals of India

Banza Anzo

Banza means Chief or Principal; as Banza Congo Banza Sonho the chief Town of Congo or Sonho &c.

CONGO

ANGOY

BENGUELA

Chiova

Loanda

R. Coanza

CaboLedo

Benguela

Jaga Caconda

Angra do Negro

Cape Negro

Fish Bay

Shole of Antony Vana

Pta das Baccas

C. de Ruy Perez

Frio B.

Praya 15 Veres

Praya das Pedras

Angra de S. Antonio

Praya das Sems

C. Sems

2 Rocky Ls. called Farilhoens

C. Ileo

Praya is the broad plain Ground betwixt the Shore & the Water, like Beach in English.

Tropic of Capricorn

French Land Lieques, of 3000 Paces or 2500 Toises.

Sea Lieques, 20 to a Degree.

Arabic Miles of 2166 Toises, about a mile & quarter English.

Great Miles of Arabia, 60 to a Degree.

Giaw, an Arabian Sea measure in English miles, each.

Travelling Hours for the Caravan, about two miles & half English.

Africa Plate III.d The Southwest Part.

KM. of ANZICO or MACOKO

Bakibakee
a dwarfish Breed
who hunt
Elephants

Mousol
Residence of Macoko

Ambous

POMBO general name for this Inland

This Prince is subject to Macoko

Concobella

Bukameala
Here they traffic for Ivory

Essano

FUNGENO Km.
depending on Macoko

IOANGO

Dingi

Tanguelungu

Tanda

Km.

DEMBO

BATTA

AMULASSA independent of Congo

Zombo

Incussu

KINGDOM OF CONGO

Mani Imbula Prince of Dembi

L. Aquilunda uncertain

Dembo Quingengo

Dembo Ansonga

KM. of ANGOLA

H. Umbi

KM. of MATAMBA where reigned the celebrated Queen Zinga

City built by Queen Zinga 16 Leg. but ruined after her Death

DONGOS
of which comes the Tembandumba who instituted the Quixiles or Idolatrous customs of the Jagas, a sect spread over these Parts, with which the Mumboss Zimbas are united.

Rumba

Sumbi

QUICCO

MALEMBA

UTTER BEMBI

Quimbondes

Head of this R. Coanza unknown

LOWER BEMBI

Uncertain KM. OF MONOMUGI
not at all known

All Zanguebar, namely from Magadaxia to Quiloa is inhabited by Arabs, who being Mahometans give the scornful name of Kaffer or Infidel to the Originals of this Country, which word Caffers or Caffrers is now carried down this coast to the State of Monomatapa.

RUENGAS

This Lake is said to extend further and broader to the North.

MARAVI LAKE

MASSI

Ville de Maravi

MARAVI
Chief Km. of the Boiros

EMPIRE OF BOROROS

MUMBOS

KIMBAS or MUZIMBES
called also GALLES

Km. of MONGALLA

Macuas

Km. of BUTUA

CHICOVA

INHAMAZO

MUNHAI

Simbo

Here are Silver mines

STATE OF MONOMATAPA

BOROMA

INHAMOI

BARUE

MT. CUMBI

Banyo

Gallo

Quilimana

Ingoccia

Lands of MAURICE
K. of PORTUGAL

CLIMBEBA
or MATAMAN is imaginary

Source of this River undiscovered

SHANGAR

RUPANDI

Sofala, Manica, and Subia, are Parts of the antient Empire of Monomatapa.

MANICA
is called CHIMENICA

SOFALA whose King is called QUITEVE

Sofala

SABIA whose King is called SCANDIVI

Botonga

KM. OF INHAMBAN

R. Inhamban

C. Corrientes

Bay of St Spirit or Lorenzo

This part of the Continent about Sofala with great reason supposed to be the antient Land of Ophir.

Rocks of Juci

Domains of the King called BIRI

Bay of Ileo

C. Ileo

B. of S. Thomas

Praya de Francisco Gedendo

Angra Pequena

Angra Grande

Angra Juntas

Angra dos Ilheos

Angra or Bay of Voltas

C. Voltas

Dry rocky Islands

Mont Bramidos

Brigudis

Cobonas

Chainuquas

These are the names of several Nations thus distinguished.

Hancumquas

Penedal Mt

Houfaquas

LAND OF HOTENTOTS

Little Namaquas

Great Namaquas

Gouriquas

Gafsiquas

Ottiquas

Hesiquas

Cochoquas

Ubiquas

Souquas

Saldain B.

Table Bay & Fort

CAPE GOOD HOPE

Hout Bay

True Cape

C. Aiguilles or Needles

Mashanans Terra dos Fumes or Land of Smoke

Fumes C.

R. of Goldmines

St Lucy

St Lucy C.

Natal R.

C. Pedras. Fishing place

Land of Natal or Christmas Land to the Dutch.

Pta Douradeira

C. Mosto

First C. of Natal

Penedo

Rio d'Infante

uncertain

Th. Tr. 4-151.
Dr. Halley in his last Account from a sure and repeated Observation, lays Cape Good Hope only 15 Degrees from London, which is 32.35 from Ferro, or 12.36 from Paris, about two Degrees more West than this Author, who could certainly have copied such an Authority had he known it.

R. Babunhos

Lamo

Ampasi

Formosa Bay

Ibiza I. P.

Tremba I.

Basso de Padron

These are all thus placed in the Portuguese Charts, the slightly known

Admiralty Is.

Basso de Banhos

I. Alphonsa

Rio Cuavo

Chief Kingdom on this R. Kimbas & Jagas.

INDIAN

Angazia Grand Comora

ISLES OF COMORA

Anjoan

Mohila Mayota

Is. John de Nova

Galega

Is. Diego Garcia

Is. de Nuno Pereira

Is. et B. de Vohemaro

C. Vohemaro

C. Sebastian

C. Natal

I. Gombi

Mangabei

Antongil

Ibrahim or St Mary

Foulepointe or Long point

Tere Tamatavi

Massalageu Nova

Sadia

Terra Nigrita

Manambre R.

Mangabone

Mahanoro

Baie d'Antongil

Andrafsho

Manjanoron

MADAGASCAR

Manuel Pinto & Cape

Songe

Erandran

Lahefouti

Conrah

Matatanes

Matatana R.

Manambato

Manambao R.

Aquilin Bay

Machicore

Manambato

St Lucy

Carcanossi

C. Romain

C. Tonsher

Ile Sable

Ile Verte

Ile Noire

Ile Bourbon

Ile de France

Ile de Diego Suarez

Ile de Vohemaro

Ile Brabant

Ile Round

Ile Cocos

Ile Labyrinth

Ile Serpent

Ile Frederic

Ile Conde

Ile Bourbon discovered by Mascaren a Portuguese.

Africa plate III. The Southeast part.

This Scale is half of the other.

This Map, including the Bays of Hudson and Bylot, contains all the material Discoveries, with their proper Names correctly inserted; for which the original Voyages have been examind, from Martin Forbisher in 1576. to Francis Smith in 1747.

In the late Charts, particularly that of Capt. Smith 1747, Whalebear Bay crosses over to Cumberland Strait and makes the Island of Good Fortune. The other Strait or Chanel North of Mill Islands, meets the Northwest end of Cumberland Strait and forms James's Island: so that Cumberland Island, named by Mr. Dawid James's Island, remains nearly as tis in this Map.

According to Mr. Foxe, Bear Sound or Strait in 63 is a Fiction, and Frobisher Strait in 62 is wrong placed; for in 1723 he searched in vain all that Coast to find it. So that the Strait at Cape Christian, making Cape Farewell an Island, is undoubtedly the real Strait of Captain Frobisher.

Great River coming from the West, discovered lately by the Oshagac Savages.

Missasipi.

Maha

Pekitanoui R. the Source unknown.

Padoucas

Panis

Northwest of California in Lat. 38. 30. where no Spaniard ever settled, is the Harbor of S.t Francis Drake, where he remained five Weeks in 1579. and with remarkable form and Ceremony, on the free Surrender of the Natives, took possession of the Country, for Queen Elizabeth, calling it the Kingdom of New Albion. Notwithstanding so clear a Fact, observed in all other Charts, Mr. De Lile and Mr. Danville have agreed to suppress it: and rather than mention New Albion as an English Claim, founded by Drake the first Circumnavigator, they castrate their own Maps to blind his Discovery.

Padoucas

Great Space of Land unknown

Caneecis

Canatinos

Colorado R.

NORTH AMERICA, Plate I. For Mr. Postlethwayt's Dictionary of Commerce.

NORTH AMERICA.

Performed under the Patronage of
LOUIS DUKE OF ORLEANS,
FIRST PRINCE OF THE BLOOD;

BY THE SIEUR D'ANVILLE.

Greatly Improved by
Mr BOLTON.

Engravd by R.W.Seale.

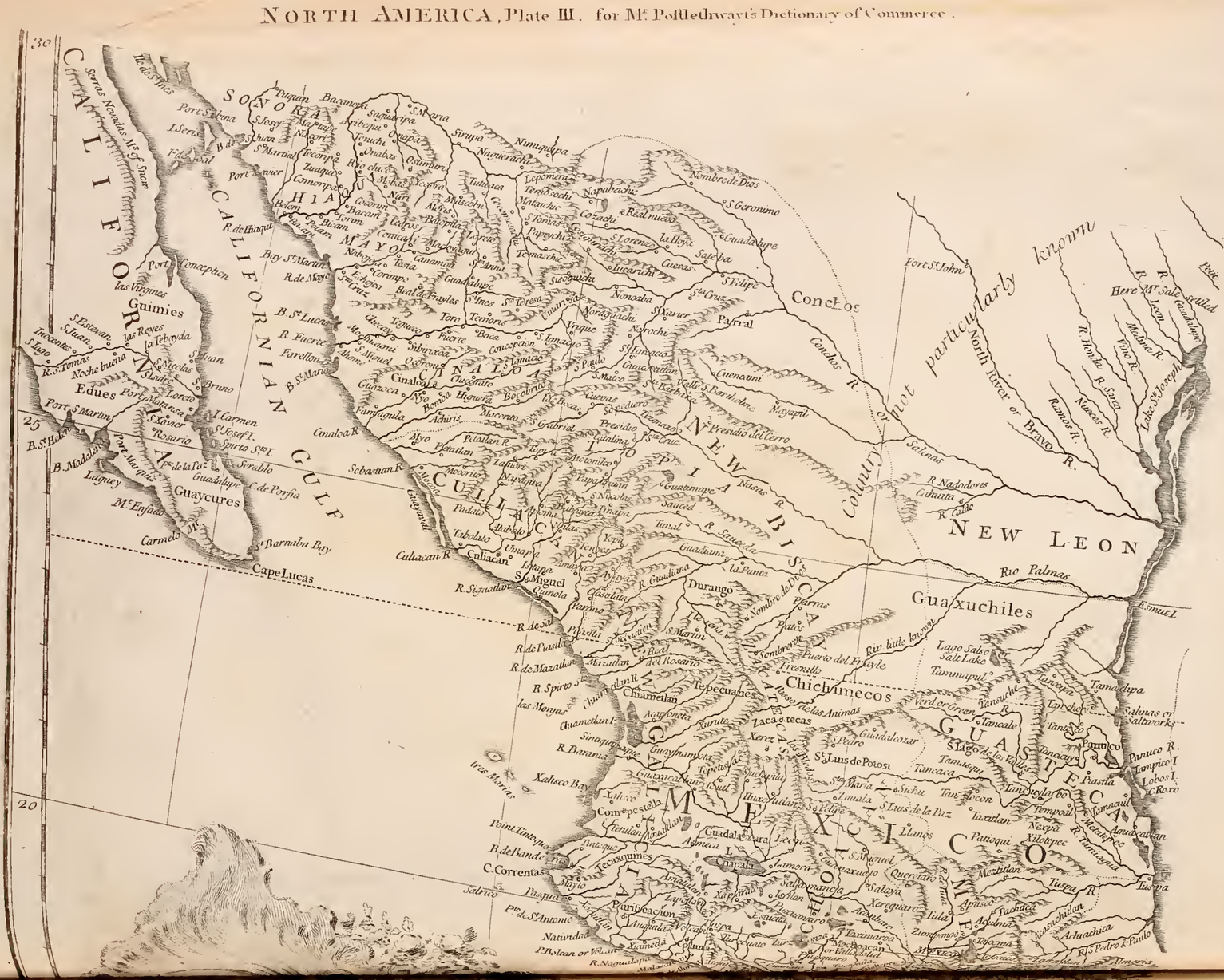
Gravelot delin.
Walker sculp.

By the Treaty of Utrecht 1713, the French have the Liberty of the Northern Coast of Newfoundland from Point Ruch on the West to Bonavista on the East, for curing their Fish only.

Pursuant to the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris, Feb.10 1763.

North America is settled as follows, Viz.

1. Nova-Scotia & Acadia in all its Parts are ceded to Great Britain.
2. Canada & all its Dependencies are ceded to Great Britain, as well as the Island of Cape Breton, & all the other Islands & Coasts in the Gulf & River St Lawrence.
3. The Subjects of France have the Liberty of Fishing & drying on a Part of the Coasts of the Island of Newfoundland, such as is specified in the 13th Article of the Treaty of Utrecht which last Treaty of Peace is confirmed & renewed (except as to the Island of Cape Breton, as well as the other Islands & Coasts in the Mouth & Gulf of St Lawrence, which Islands & Coasts are ceded to Great Britain) as to the Island & Coasts in the Gulf of St Lawrence, on Condition to Enter to the Subjects of France, the Liberty of Fishing & drying on the Coasts of Three Leagues from all the Coasts of the Islands ceded to Great Britain in the Gulf of St Lawrence; but at the Islands ceded to G. B. as well those of the Continent, as those of Newfoundland, they are not to exercise the said Fishery but at the Distance of Fifteen Leagues from the Coasts of Nova Scotia & Acadia. And the Subjects of France shall not be permitted to Fish in the Gulf of St Lawrence, or within Fifteen Leagues of the Coasts of Nova Scotia & Acadia. Except where they are at the said


CALIFORNIA
CALIFORNIAN GULF
SONORA
NEW BISCAY
NEW LEON
Country not particularly known
North River or Bravo R.
Conchos
Chichimecos
Guaxuchiles
Cape Lucas
Guaycures
Edues
Guimies
Tepecuanes
Durango
Mexico
Panuco R.
Tampico R.
Tampico I.
Lobos I.
Point Tiburon
C. Correntas
Acapulco
Mixteca
Tuspec
Cayan
Guaxaca
Tabasco
Yucatan
Campeche
Vera Cruz
Tlaxcalan
Mechoacan
Zacatecas
Guadalaxara
Chametlan
Culiacan
Cinaloa
Sonora
Rio Palmas
Rio Nadadores
Rio Conchos
Rio Grande
Rio Florido
Rio Sabina
Rio Nueces
Rio Rosario
Rio Sinaloa
Rio Yaqui
Rio Mayo
Rio Fuerte
Rio Petatlan
Rio Sebastian
Rio Culiacan
Rio Piastla
Rio Mazatlan
Rio Spiritu Santo
Rio Grande de Tamaulipa
Rio Panuco
Rio Tuspa
Rio Alvarado
Rio Guasacualco
Rio Tabasco
Rio Palizada
Rio Xicalango
Rio Tlacotalpan
Rio Coatzacoalcos
Rio Chiapa
Rio Tabasco
Rio Grijalva
Rio Usumasinta
Rio Lacandon
Rio Dolores
Rio Salinas
Rio Tulija
Rio Chilapa
Rio Tehuantepec
Rio Guasacualco
Rio Alvarado
Rio Tlacotalpan
Rio Papaloap

Part of NORTH AMERICA, Plate IV.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

GULF OF MEXICO

BAHAMA ISLANDS

CARIBBEE ISLANDS

GREAT ANTILLES

LITTLE ANTILLES

WINDWARD ISLANDS

LEEWARD ISLANDS

CARIBBEAN SEA

SOUTH SEA

TERRA FIRMA

AMERICA

Tropic of Cancer

By the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris the 10 Feb. 1763, the King of Spain cedes to his Britannick Majesty, Florida, with Fort St. Augustin, & the Bay of Pensacola, as well as all that Spain possesses on the continent of North America, to the East, or to the South east of the River Misisipi.
See our Articles America, Florida, Bahama Islands, & Mexico.

By the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris the 10 Feb. 1763, the Leeward Islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, & Grenadils, together with Tobago, are ceded to the Crown of Great Britain, & St. Lucia is ceded to the Crown of France. For the Reason & the Utility of this said Exchange.
See our Articles America, & Leeward Islands.

Here is the River Bellize or Baylis, whereon our English Logwood Cutters are settled in the Bay of Honduras; whose Right of cutting, loading & carrying away Logwood is provided for in the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris Feb. 10 1763.
See our Article America, & Logwood.

These Mosquito Indians depend on Jamaica, being subject to Gt. Britain since K. Charles 2d.

Caymanas, Cayes or Keys in English, are low Lands with sandy Shores, where Boats & Vessels of burthen going aground are easily got off.

For Mr. Postlethwayte's Dictionary of Trade & Commerce.

THE SMALL ANTILLES

TERRA FIRMA

GUIANA

AMAZONIA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

EQUATOR

PERU

BRASIL

Plate I. AMAZONIA. TERRAFIRMA, Part of BRASIL PERU, Revised with Remarks, by Mr. BOLTON. 1733

PERU
BRASIL
SOUTH SEA
CHILI
PARAGUAY
CHIQUITOS
ZAMUCOS
MOCOBIES
CHARUAS
Tropic of Capricorn
Chuncu
Toromonas
Chiribas
Chumanos
Ramanos
Cayubabas
Guarayos
Tapacuras
Mannacicas
Cariannas
Cariaputangas
Bacayris
Bororos
Cayapos
Tobas
Zapitaguas
Lenguas
Yaros
Abipones
Minuas
Patos
Lago de Merim
Rio Plata
Fernandes I.
Little Fernandes first Visited by Capt. Michel 1741.
The Summit Colony opposite to Buenos Ayres was granted to the Spaniards by a Treaty with the Portuguese, 1750.
Ste. America, Plate II. Revised & Improved by Mr. Bolton 1755.

SOUTH AMERICA.

PERFORMED UNDER THE PATRONAGE OF
LOUIS DUKE OF ORLEANS
FIRST PRINCE OF THE BLOOD,

BY THE SIEUR D'ANVILLE
improved by Mr BOLTON for
Mr POSTLETHWAYTS DICTIONARY OF COMMERCE.

To His GRACE *the*
Duke of Rutland
This MAP of
SOUTH AMERICA
is most humbly Inscribed.